

A cross cultural study of consumer-based global brand equity in the restaurant industry

Sung-Ho Han (2012)

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**A CROSS CULTURAL STUDY OF  
CONSUMER-BASED GLOBAL BRAND EQUITY  
IN THE RESTAURANT INDUSTRY**

**SUNG HO HAN**

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements  
of the Award of Doctor of Philosophy**

**Faculty of Business  
Oxford Brookes University**

**September 2012**

## **ABSTRACT**

Consumers in contemporary society are increasingly exposed to global restaurant brands. As a result, global brand equity of restaurants has emerged as an essential subject of study. Although building brand equity ensures economic benefits, only a limited number of empirical studies are available in the context of the restaurant industry. More importantly, despite differences in the concepts and measurements of global and local brand equity, a great deal of research seems to have used the two interchangeably. In order to distinguish between the two, this study proposes a research model that compares consumers' value judgments across two cultures, and that includes cultural values as an independent variable. The mediating variable, Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity is examined from consumer-based and global perspectives. Brand loyalty, which is an outcome of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity within the restaurant industry, is treated as a dependent variable. Additionally, the research model proposes brand reputation as a dependent variable that plays an important role in determining Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity.

The specific objectives of the present research are as follows. First, to conduct a critical review of the literature on the antecedents and consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity. Second, to develop a theoretical model to conceptualise the relationship between antecedents and consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity for restaurant brands across two cultures: British and South Korean. Third, to assess the validity and reliability of the measurement scales for assessing Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity, cultural values and brand loyalty across two cultures. Finally, to examine the mediating role of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity between cultural values and brand loyalty in the restaurant industry.

To test this model, data is collected from consumers belonging to two different cultures: British and South Korean. This study employs a mixture of quantitative and qualitative research methods to capture the breadth and depth of the complex mindsets of consumers. A survey is conducted with British and South Korean native respondents and the data is analysed using SPSS.

Prior to the survey interviews are used as a qualitative tool to obtain insight into consumers' views regarding global restaurant brands.

Through the survey and analyses, several important findings of this research are found. Firstly, validity and reliability of cultural values – *Collectivism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Long-Term Orientation* and *Materialism* – are confirmed. Secondly, the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity scale is also found to be valid and reliable: *Brand Trust, Perceived Quality, Self-Congruence, Brand Awareness, Brand Association, and Brand Identification*. Compared to previous research, the inclusion of cultural values and the other brand equity dimensions in this study enables a more thorough investigation of the concept of global brand equity. Moreover, the improved dimensions help in accurately measuring the consumers' perceptions of a global brand. The results of this study partially confirm the relationships between the dimensions of cultural values and Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity. Furthermore, the results show that Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity partially has a positive effect on brand reputation and brand loyalty.

These results not only contribute to the development of a new research model on Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity but also have practical and managerial implications for the restaurant managers. The study also makes a significant contribution to the measurement of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity in the restaurant industry and explores the relationship between the antecedents (cultural values) and the consequences (brand reputation and brand loyalty) of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity. The comparison of cross-cultural data offers insights into efficient strategies that can be used to enforce brand reputation and secure brand loyalty in the global restaurant industry. Future studies can build on this model through application to different cultural populations.



*A tremendous amount of knowledge and a wealth of experience I gained throughout this research and invaluable experiences in a new environment will lead to higher confidence in myself and every aspect of my life.*

*This thesis is dedicated to my dearest parents, wife, daughter and son. Their patience, support, understanding and love led to a successful completion of this study. Their precious love has been my infinite motivation and source of energy.*

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# **CHAPTER 1**



# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Research Background

In modern society, mass media, internet growth and cross-border tourism have led people to take a keen interest in other cultures and understand them in depth (Holt, Quelch and Taylor, 2004). Moreover these factors have contributed towards understating of cultural homogeneity (Levitt, 1983). In this kind of environment, people in different nations have held common symbols and global brands are one of the important symbols (Holt et al., 2004).

Brand globalisation is beneficial for the competitiveness of brands (Kapferer, 2008). This is because the perceived globalism influences brand preferences, and is viewed as an indicator of quality and increased status (Holt, Quelch and Taylor, 2003).

In global marketing, branding strategy can play an important role in acquiring sustainable advantages (Wang, Wei, and Yu, 2008). Branding adds value to an elementary service or product (Knox and Bickerton, 2003) and enables a producer to offer products with a unique or superior quality (Motameni and Shahrokhi, 1998). Thus, the branding promotes brand preference and loyalty (Knox and Bickerton, 2003).

Although marketing researchers have shown a recent interest in branding, the majority of the studies have focused on tangible goods, rather than on service-oriented brands (Turley and Moore, 1995). However, some researchers argue that the intangible attributes of a service make it hard for consumers to assess service quality, which makes branding more vital for services than for products (Krishnan and Hartline, 2001). Service-oriented brands need tangible clues that help consumers view them as less of a risky purchase (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1989). Here, branding can play an important role in allowing companies to build trust with consumers (Berry, 2000). This is one of the reasons that branding has become a key driver of the restaurant industry worldwide.

One of the most important goals of marketing and brand investment is to build brand equity (Keller, 1998). Strong brands help marketers achieve distinct competitive advantages (Keller, 1993). They are also an important asset in marketing, which reflect the company's standing (Simões and Dibb, 2001). They are especially important in service companies because they can efficiently reduce consumers' perceptions of risk when selecting a service (Berry, 2000).

Marketing managers want to extend their market to cover many regions to capitalise on the brand equity that has been already acquired (Wang et al., 2008). However, brand extension is often challenging because marketers may not be familiar with the culture and consumer preferences in different regions. Hence, understanding local culture is an essential factor of global marketing.

Culture has emerged as a key determinant of the success of global marketing (Kapferer, 2008). In fact global marketing now revolves around cultural values and the behaviour of local consumers (Yoo, 2009). Creating global brands and gaining brand equity across cultures are important for a robust marketing strategy in today's competitive business environment (Yoo and Donthu, 2002). Given this background, the purpose of this study is to contribute to a better understanding of global brand equity in the restaurant industry.

## **1.2 Objectives of the Research**

The aim of the research is to develop and test a consumer-based global brand equity model for the restaurant industry. The objectives of the study are as follows:

- 1) To conduct a critical review of the literature on antecedents and consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity.
- 2) To develop a theoretical model to conceptualize the relationship between antecedents and consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity for restaurant brands across two cultures: British and South Korean.
- 3) To assess the validity and reliability of the measurement scales for assessing

Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity, cultural values and brand loyalty across two cultures.

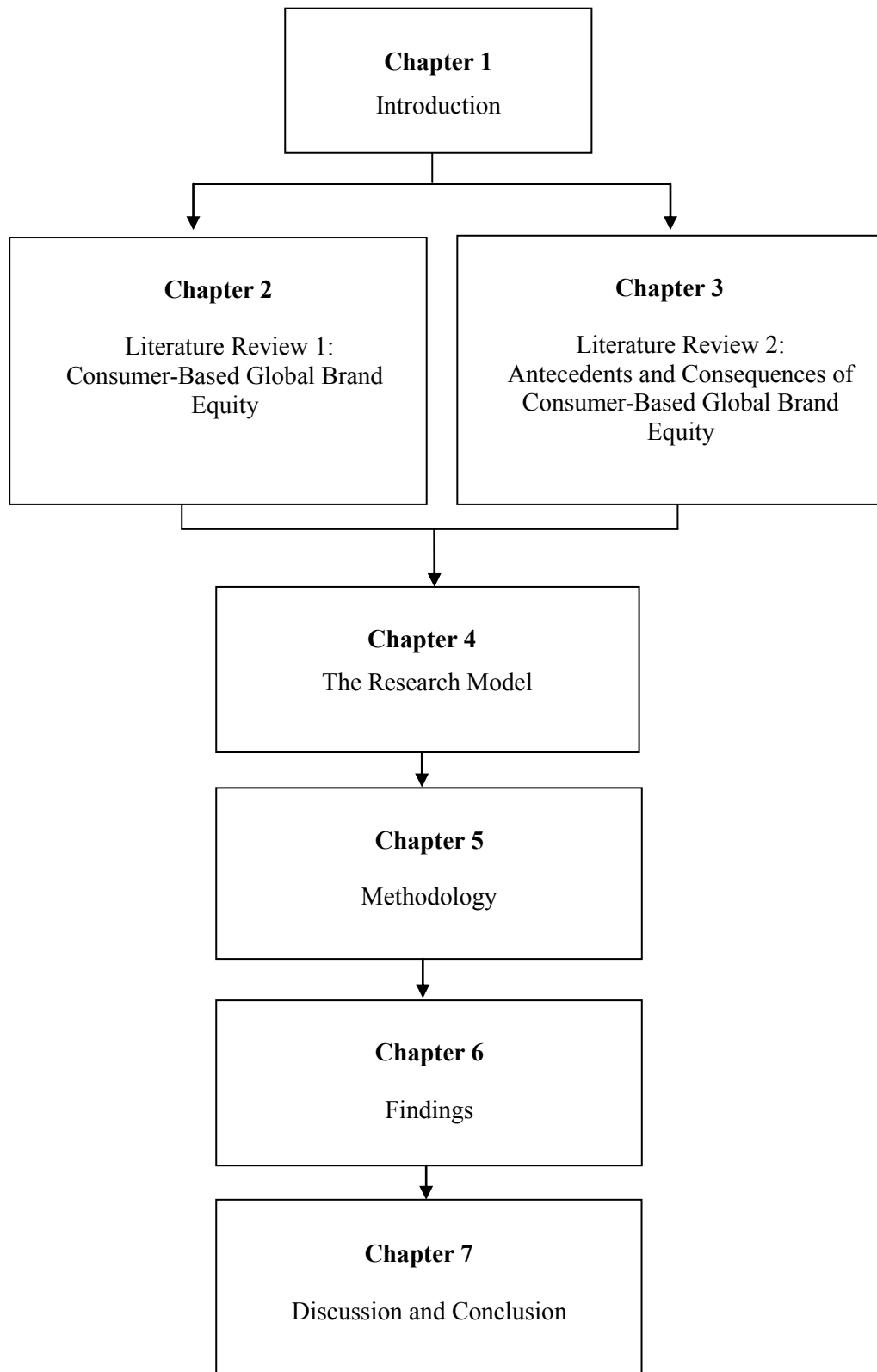
- 4) To examine the mediating role of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity between cultural values and brand loyalty in the restaurant industry.

### **1.3 Structure of the Research**

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Figure 1.1 illustrates structure of the research.

**Figure 1.1 Structure of the Thesis**

---



**Chapter 2** presents a literature review of the concept of brand equity. This includes a comparison between brands and products, definitions of brands and consumer-based brand equity, the necessity of a brand, the importance of global brand equity and measurements as well as components of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE).

**Chapter 3** reviews existing literature for the antecedents and consequences of CBGBE in the context of the restaurant industry. The present study focuses on cross-cultural perspectives and proposes that cultural values can be useful as antecedents of CBGBE. This chapter also examines brand loyalty and brand reputation as consequences of CBGBE. These represent efficient ways for understanding consumption psychology in a cross-cultural study.

**Chapter 4** presents the results of interviews conducted to identify missing variables. A research model, based on the outcomes of these interviews, is formulated, which includes the missing variables and explains the relationships between the variables. This chapter also defines the variables and presents the research propositions used for the empirical study.

**Chapter 5** deals with the research methodology, including the research philosophy, the sampling process, the validity and the reliability of the scale, the questionnaire design for the quantitative study, the measurement of the variables and the methods of data analysis.

**Chapter 6** discusses the findings of the study.

**Chapter 7** provides overall discussion, contributions, limitations and suggestions for future research.

# **CHAPTER 2**

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **CONSUMER-BASED GLOBAL BRAND EQUITY**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Creating and maintaining brand is essential in today's competitive marketing environment, and brand equity is the outcome of efficient investment in branding activities (Seetharaman et al., 2001). Brand equity has recently emerged as one of the key factors of marketing (Buil, de Chernatony and Martinez, 2008) because of its necessity and value. In particular, the evaluation of brand equity presents an efficient way to assess management performance, which is responsible for the growing interest in the concept shown by managers, accountants and researchers (Richards, Foster and Morgan, 1998).

This chapter consists of eight sections that review the literature on the concept of brand equity. The first section (2.2) reviews concepts related to brands and products. The second section (2.3) offers insights into the definitions of the brand from three different perspectives. The third section (2.4) explains the necessity of a brand. This enhances our in-depth understanding of brands. The fourth section (2.5) presents the definitions of consumer-based brand equity, which is a key focus of the study. This section offers a better understanding of the brand equity concept by inspecting, categorising and reviewing previous research on this topic. The fifth section (2.6) provides knowledge about the academic models of brand equity. These models offer further evidence for conceptualisation of the research model. The sixth section (2.7) focuses on the measurements of brand equity. This is important not only to develop new measurement for this study but also to conduct relevant empirical research. The seventh section (2.8) shows why Consumer-Based Brand Equity (CBGBE) is important for this study by shedding light on its academic and practical considerations. The final section (2.9) examines the components of CBGBE in detail.

## 2.2 Product versus Brand

Before defining a brand, it is very important to differentiate between a brand and a product. Although the terms ‘brand’ and ‘product’ have different meanings, in practice they are often used interchangeably. However, it is necessary to distinguish between product and brand.

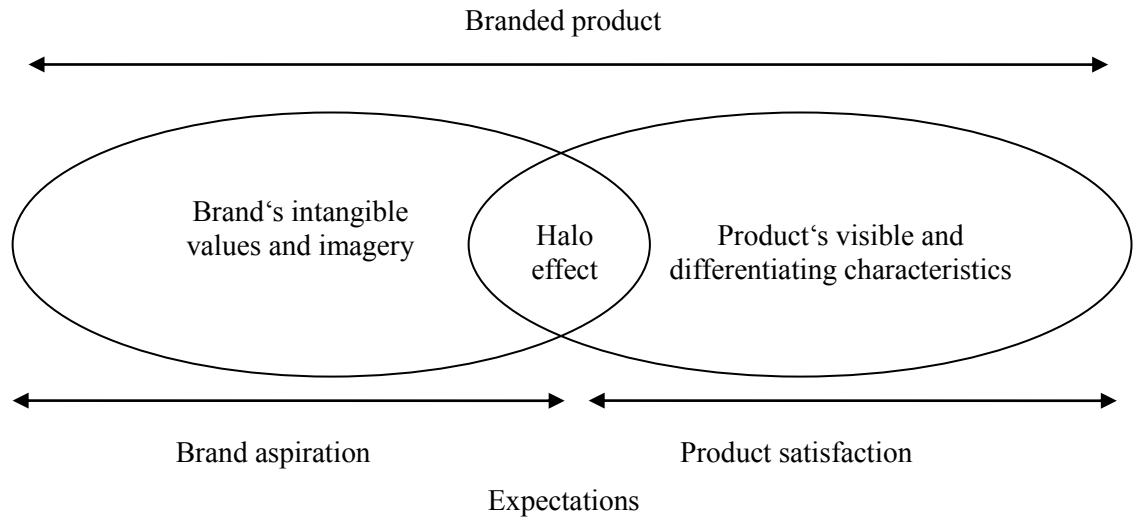
Aaker (1996:73) defines brand and product by comparing their attributes:

—“Product includes characteristics such as scope, attributes, quality/value and uses, while a brand includes not only these product characteristics but also brand users, country of origin, organisational associations, brand personality, symbols, brand-customer relationships, emotional benefits and self-expressive benefits.”

Orth, Mcdaniel, Shellhammer and Loptcharat (2004) supported Aaker’s (1996) definition by stating that the difference between a brand and a product is that a product provides a practical benefit while a brand enforces the intangible value of a product through a name, symbol, and so on. In other words, a product is part of a brand that has an intangible value, which is beyond the functional value of the product (Orth et al., 2004). Stephen King from WPP Group, London, differentiates a brand from a product (Seetharaman, Nadzir and Gunalan, 2001) in the following words: a product, something which is manufactured in a factory, can be copied by competitors and can become outdated quickly; whereas a brand, bought by a consumer, is unique and unlike products, it is timeless if the brand is successful. Seetharman et al. (2001) highlight the significance of brand personality and association to distinguish between a brand and a product: a product is merely the general term, whereas a brand has personality and certain associations that represent a meaning to a person, which has been shaped by that person’s experience. Figure 2.1 shows the relationship between product and brand.



**Figure 2.1 Product and Brand**



Source: Kapferer (2008:41)

Kapferer (2008) suggests that one of the key functions of brands is to reassure customers about the benefits they desire to gain through purchasing the product. As shown in Figure 2.1, Kapferer (2008) defines a ‘halo effect’ in the relationship between a product and a brand. The ‘halo effect’ is “a major source of value created by the brand: the fact that knowing the name of the brand influences consumer’s perception of the product advantages beyond what the visible cues had themselves indicated” (Kapferer, 2008:41). Moreover, Kapferer highlights that intangible associations stemming from a brand’s values, philosophy, vision, and so on, are attached to the brand, and these associations, in turn, lead to emotional ties that go beyond product satisfaction.

Overall, the relationship between a brand and a product lends more clarity to the two concepts. A product provides functional benefits like visible characteristics, whereas a brand has intangible values such as brand personality, symbols, emotional benefits and product attributes (Aaker, 1996a). These observations make a theoretical contribution to a better understanding of the nature of a brand.

In order to have a better understanding of the brand, the next section reviews some key definitions of the term ‘brand’.

## 2.3 Definitions of a Brand

A brand can be defined from three perspectives: the consumer's perspective, the owner's perspective (Wood, 2000) and the comprehensive perspective. Hence, the present research reviews the concept from different perspectives.

The producer-based definition, when combined with the purpose of the product, recognises a brand as a tool for sales in terms of marketing. Anderson and Bennett (1988:18) defines brand as "a name, term, design, symbol or any other feature that identifies one seller's goods or services as distinct from those of other sellers." In this definition the key words are "any other features", which indicate intangible elements such as image (Wood, 2000). Wood adds that it is the intangible elements of a brand that enable differentiation, which is the basic purpose of a brand.

Clearly, a brand is the consequence of organisational strategic behaviour such as market segmentation and product differentiation (Kapferer, 2008). This view is supported by stating that every strategic activity of a firm has a potential effect on the brand, and it should be co-ordinated to produce a brand that is in line with the stakeholders' desires (Miller and Muir, 2004). In this approach, producers regard the brand as a differentiating device, an image in the consumers' minds, a relationship adding value, an identity system, a personality, an evolving entity and an asset (de Chernatony and Riley, 1997).

The second definition of a brand considers the views of the consumers. A brand is able to generate trust for its products and services and also allows the consumers to create an asset of products or services in their minds by adding to the perceived value (Kapferer, 2008). From the consumer's point of view, a brand is the accumulation of the consumers' past experiences (Kapferer, 2004). In other words, consumers recognise a brand and obtain some information about it by experiencing the product or service (Keller, 1998).

Oliver (1980) argues that a brand is closely linked to expectation and satisfaction of the consumers. In line with this view, Ambler and Styles (1996:10) define a brand as

–the promise of the bundles of attributes that someone buys and that provides satisfaction. These attributes that make up a brand may be real or illusory, rational or emotional, tangible or invisible.” This view is based on the notion that the attributes a brand derives from all of the components of the marketing mix are liable to interpretation by the customers (Wood, 2000). In this approach, a brand is central to the consumers’ emotions, experiences and satisfaction. Hence, consumers consider a brand as a visual identifier, a shorthand device, a guarantee of consistent quality and an expression of the self (de Chernatony and Riley, 1997).

The comprehensive perspective considers both the producer’s and the consumer’s perspectives. The majority of brand definitions focus on the brand’s benefits for either the seller or the customer. However, an integrated definition not only helps a brand’s owner emphasise a brand’s purpose but also considers how this is accomplished through consumer satisfaction and benefits (Wood, 2000). According to Wood (2000) the purpose of a brand is attaining competitive advantages for companies through differentiation, and the features that make the brand different from others lead a consumer to willingly pay a premium because of its benefits and satisfaction.

A brand signals the origins of a product to the consumer, and protects the producer and the consumer from competitors who try to offer similar products in the market (Aaker, 1991). The comprehensive perspective serves as a general definition that considers both the producers’ and the consumers’ needs.

In summary, all the perspectives can play an important role in clarifying the meaning and the identity of the brand itself. However, one of the drawbacks of the producer-based definitions is that they are too product-oriented (Wood, 2000) and focus on sellers’ profits, disregarding the consumers’ needs. The present study considers the consumer’s definition of a brand. This is more closely related to brand equity, which is the focal point of this study. Brands are important to consumers because consumers are the main targets of marketing strategies; and they play a decisive role in purchasing a product. The following section sheds light on the need for a brand: why is a brand necessary?

## 2.4 Why is a Brand Necessary?

One of the key benefits of a brand is that it can serve as a valuable symbol of many benefits to both consumers and manufacturers (Keller, 1998). A brand is a useful tool to explain how consumers decide to purchase a product or service before experiencing it (Aaker, 1996a). A brand serves a variety of functions not only for producers in marketing but also for consumers, by aiding their purchasing decisions (Keller, 1998). The functions of a brand are listed in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Functions that Brands Fulfil**

<b>CONSUMERS</b>	Identification of source of product Assignment of responsibility to product maker Risk reducer Search cost reducer Promise, bond or pact with maker of product Symbolic device Signal of quality
<b>MANUFACTURERS</b>	Means of identification to simplify handling or tracing Means of legally protecting unique features Signal of quality level to satisfied customers Means of endowing products with unique associations Source of competitive advantage Source of financial returns

Source: Keller (1998:7)

As shown in Table 2.1, brands fulfil important functions in a complex marketplace. Kapferer (2008:22) states that by providing the following functions a brand can serve as a catalyst for consumer purchase: “identification, practicality, guarantee, optimisation, badge, continuity, hedonistic, and ethical.” Thus, although a brand is intangible, it can play a positive role in uncovering the hidden qualities of the goods (Kapferer, 2008). Hence, when consumers purchase goods, brands help them by preventing social and psychological losses (DelVecchio, 2000). With regard to invisible attributes, Kapferer (2008) suggests that one of the key functions of brands

is to reassure consumers about the benefits that can be gained through purchasing the product. Further, brands offer other symbolic benefits to the consumer (Grace and O' Cass, 2002). That is, they are representative of status and prestige. Purchasing brands allows consumers to obtain a psychological prestige and status from owning high valued items (Cravens and Piercy, 2006).

For manufacturers, a brand functions as a sign for trade, a recognition signal and a guarantee of the product quality, thus enabling a manufacturer to understand his or her own brand (Kapferer, 2008). A brand is regarded as intellectual property (Keller, 2008). Thus, they offer legal protection to the manufacturers against imitation (Aaker, 1991). In addition, a brand endows products with unique associations (Keller, 1998). Through this unique association, which ranges from product attributes to more emotional, image-oriented value, brands develop differentiation (Davis, 2002). A strong brand with competitive differentiation profits from a great degree of loyalty that leads to more stable future sales. (Kapferer, 2008).

Another perspective that justifies the need for a brand pertains to the internal functions that it fulfils for an organisation. According to Davis (2002), a strong brand motivates employees within the company and enables them to take pride in their work. It also boosts employee satisfaction. Employees who have pride in their organisation naturally contribute to the company's value, success and achievement of goals (Aaker, 1996).

Thus, a brand has a variety of uses for both consumers and manufacturers. It helps a consumer make a more effective buying decision by signalling certain product characteristics (Keller, 1998). At the same time, it enables manufacturers to build a competitive advantage and earn sustainable profits (Keller, 1998). Further, a brand not only provides functional value but also offers symbolic meaning (Kapferer, 2008).

The signalling function of a brand is reflective of brand equity (Erdem and Swait, 1997). An evidence of brand equity is when consumers are aware of the brand and perceive its quality (Seetharaman et al., 2001). The next section reviews definitions of brand equity from the consumer perspective.

## 2.5 Definitions of Consumer-Based Brand Equity

Brand equity has become one of the most popular topics among brand managers (Aaker, 1991) as studies have shown that brand equity can positively influence a company's long-term and sustainable benefits (Pappu and Quester, 2006). However, despite growing interest in the topic, there has been no consensus on the concept of brand equity.

The term 'brand equity' is the outcome of an effort to define the relationship between consumers and the brand in marketing literature (Wood, 2000). Brand equity can be described as the value added to a product or service by a brand name (Farquhar, 1998). Aaker (1991:15) defines brand equity as "a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customer." Although a number of different definitions of brand equity have been proposed, it is widely accepted that brand equity refers to the 'added value' endowed to goods as a result of past investment in the brand (Keller, 1998).

The concept of brand equity has been studied from various points of view (Farquhar, 1989; Aaker 1991). Capon et al. (2001) categorise equity into 'customer brand equity' and 'organizational brand equity'. Kim and Kim (2005) used three classifications: 'consumer-based perspective', 'financial perspective' and 'comprehensive perspective', which incorporates the concepts of consumer-based brand equity and firm-based brand equity.

From a financial perspective, brand equity indicates the differences in consumers' responses to marketing activities (Taylor, Hunter and Lindberg, 2007). Feldwick (1996) explains brand equity as the whole value of a brand as a separable asset. The value of a brand refers to the guarantee of future cash flows (Wood, 2000). Simon and Sullivan (1993:29) define brand equity as "the incremental cash flows which accrue to branded products over and above the cash flows which would result from the sale of unbranded products." Simon and Sullivan suggest that brand equity can be estimated by estimating the company's future cash flows. This contrasts with the

more standard assessment method based on stock prices (Myers, 2003). A financial perspective is useful for brand acquisition, franchising or royalty calculations; however, since the 1990s, the definition of brand equity has shifted its focus to the non-financial version (Chen, 2007).

In marketing, brand equity research has largely focused on consumer-based perspectives, rather than firm-based. The consumer-based approach analyses why brand equity is necessary for consumers. It is based on cognitive psychology centred on the consumer's memory (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993). According to this approach, a brand stands for a consumer's perceptions and feelings about advantages that the branded product or service offers (Kotler, Armstrong, Wong and Saunders (2008).

Brand equity measures the strength of the consumers' attachment to a brand. Hence it is defined as consumers' favouritism towards the focal brand in terms of their preference, purchase intention and choice among brands in a product category that offers the same level of product benefits (Yasin, Noor and Mohamad, 2007:39). Therefore, building brand equity in the minds of the consumers is strongly associated with their assessment, feelings, perceptions and experiences. Moreover, marketing activities connected with consumption can efficiently serve to build such equity.

Keller (1993:2) defines consumer-based brand equity as ~~the~~ "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand." That is, consumer-based brand equity operates when the consumer recognises the brand as a result of the marketing activities, which promote favourable or strong brand associations that are retained in the minds of the consumer. This definition is supported by stating that brand equity is the difference in consumer responses towards an unbranded product and a focal brand that have the same product attributes and receive the same level of marketing stimulation (Yoo and Donthu, 2001). They add that the difference in the minds of the consumer can be attributed to the brand name, which substantiates the effects of brand-related marketing in the long run.

Erdem and Swait (1997) emphasise that consumer-based brand equity is regarded as the value of a brand sign offered to consumers, which is based on the credibility gained through the interactions between companies and consumers. Thus, consumers

can reduce uncertainties when choosing a brand through a credible signal that assures them that the company will deliver the promised benefits (Bailey and Ball, 2006).

In addition to these consumer-based definitions of brand equity, it is essential to gain an understanding of the brand to ensure that the marketing programme will lead consumers to favour that brand (Keller, 1993). That is, the marketing mix, which strengthens the meaning of brand and is combined with brand, encourages the brand to adapt to the desires of the targeted market (Wood, 2000). Brand equity and the response from consumers are important aspects to be assessed by managers (Lassar, Mittal and Sharma, 1995). This is why managers should participate in the creation of a brand that will serve to enhance brand strength or brand loyalty (Wood, 2000).

The comprehensive perspective of brand equity incorporates both the consumer-based and the company-based definitions. This approach considers the insufficiencies in analysing brand equity from just two perspectives (Kim and Kim, 2005). Motameni and Shahrokhi (1998) suggest that the value of brand equity can be estimated by combining the marketing and financial approach.

The definition of brand equity also depends on the context (Bailey and Ball, 2006). For instance, one such context is the restaurant industry. A number of empirical studies have focused on the consumer-based brand equity of services (Kim and Kim, 2005). Muller (1998) proposes three key factors that influence brand equity in the restaurant industry: quality of service and products, establishing a symbolic and enduring image and execution of service delivery. Muller adds that restaurants can charge a premium and enhance brand loyalty by combining these three elements. Branding plays an important role in service companies because a strong brand enables consumers to better visualise the benefits and earns their trust (Berry, 2000). In the restaurant industry, brand equity can reduce consumer's risk at the time of choosing a restaurant.

The above discussion highlights that brand equity refers to intangible values associated with a product or service (Francois and MacLachlan, 1995). Both the consumer-based perspective and the finance-based perspective serve as the main theoretical and practical foundations of the concept of brand equity. However, it is



necessary to clarify the differences between a consumer-based definition, a financial definition and a comprehensive definition. A consumer-based definition is based on the effects of the brand on the individual consumer (Keller, 1993). A financial definition is based on the incremental cash flows (Kim and Kim, 2005). A comprehensive definition combines the above perspectives of brand equity. While a number of researchers have defined consumer-based brand equity, very few have examined brand equity from either financial or comprehensive perspectives.

In conclusion, the present research adopts Kim and Kim's (2005) consumer-based definition of brand equity, which can be applied in the restaurant industry. There are obvious differences between the brand equities of services and products, mainly because of the intangible and heterogeneous attributes of services. A consumer-based definition of brand equity is appropriate for this study for the following reasons. Service companies have adopted a consumer-based approach to brand equity. Using a similar approach in this study will facilitate a comparison between the results of the present study and those reported in literature. Further, the data needed to examine brand equity from a financial perspective are confidential, and therefore inaccessible (Taylor, Hunter and Lindberg, 2007). The consumer-based definitions of brand equity contend that (1) the value of a brand must be assessed by consumers (Atilgan, Aksoy, and Akinci, 2005), and that (2) equity is the result of consumers' awareness of the brand and their ability to associate it with some favourable, strong and unique feelings (Keller, 1993). Both these aspects of brand equity are relevant to the restaurant industry. Service in restaurants is an intangible attribute, which is evaluated by consumers' perceptions and value judgements.

This discussion gives rise to an interesting question: what comprises brand equity? In the next section, academic models of brand equity examine the various components of brand equity.

## **2.6 Academic Models of Brand Equity**

Since the 1980s, brand equity has emerged as one of the most important intangible

assets for companies (Leon, Rao, Keller, Luo, McAlister and Srivastava, 2006). Over the years, many different academic models of brand equity have been proposed by many researchers. An academic model captures the knowledge structure of brand equity and allows researchers to explore the ways in which consumers perceive and assess brands. An academic model for consumer-based brand equity proposes a number of fundamental premises (Leon et al., 2006:126):

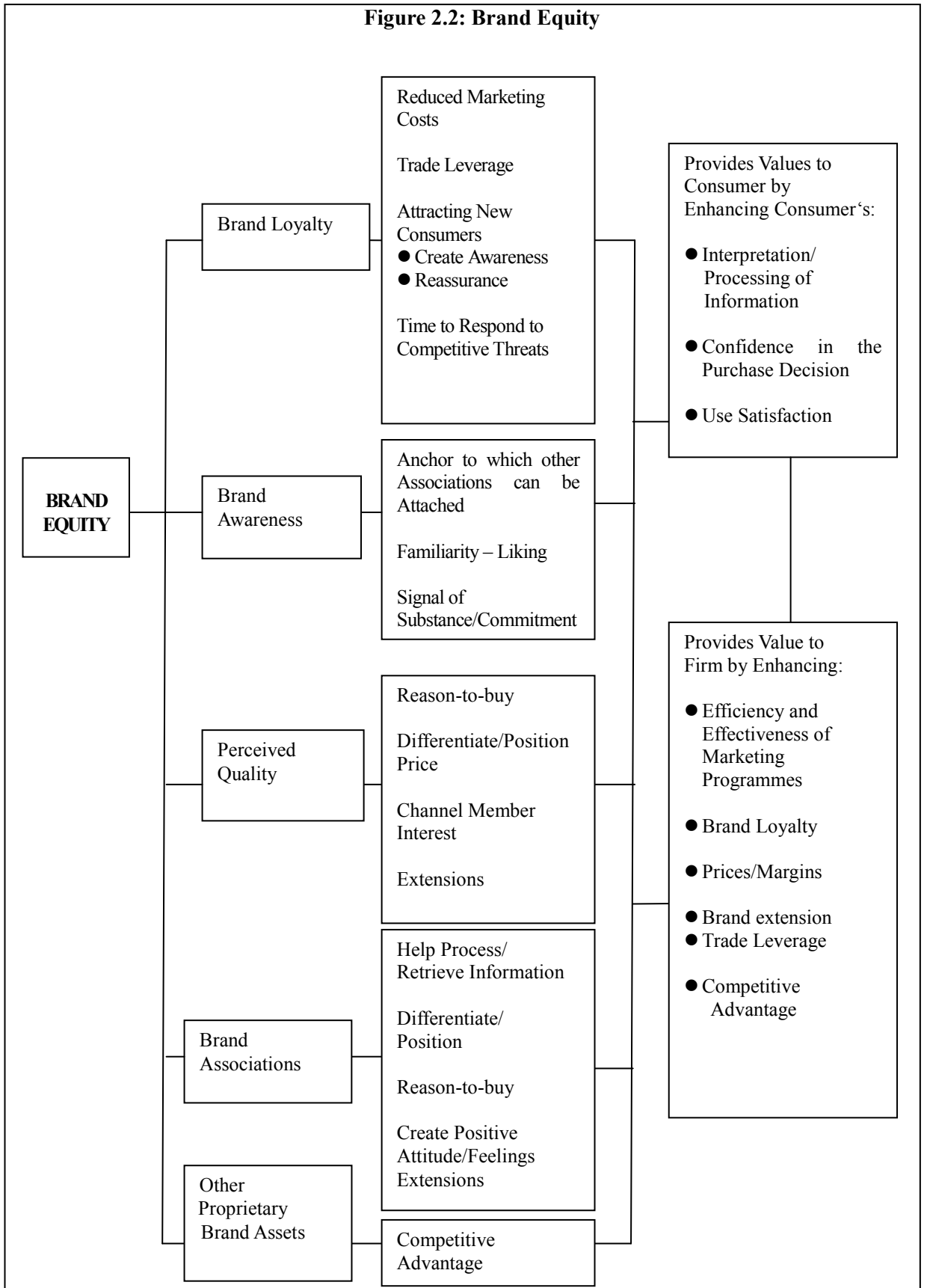
—The power of a brand lies in the minds of consumers and what they have experienced, learned and felt about the brand over time; Brand equity can be thought of as the ‘added value’ endowed to products in the thoughts, words and actions of consumers; There are many different ways that this added value can be created for a brand; and there are also many different ways the value of a brand can be manifested or exploited to benefit the firm.”

Several notable models are explained in the following sections.

### **2.6.1 Aaker’s Brand Equity Model**

Aaker (1991) proposes one of the most commonly and widely accepted models. In this model, brand equity is composed of five components: brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality, brand loyalty and other proprietary brand assets. These components offer various benefits and value to the company. Figure 2.2 shows the key components of brand equity.

**Figure 2.2: Brand Equity**



Source: Aaker (1991:270)

Association is an important element of brand equity. Aaker (1996) suggests that brand association not only helps consumers retrieve information but also aids brand differentiation and brand extension. Furthermore, it influences the consumer's purchase decision and elicits positive feelings. Individual experiences and communication, such as advertising and word-of-mouth, lead consumers to adopt a keen interest in purchasing a brand. Strong brand associations motivate consumers to increase their purchasing of brands.

Awareness is a factor of brand equity that affects consumers' perceptions and attitudes (Aaker, 1996). Aaker adds that brand awareness may operate at two different levels. At the recognition level, it can offer the brand a sense of familiarity and a sign of commitment. At the recall level, it has an effect on the choice of brands that attract the interest of the consumers. Creating and maintaining awareness is crucial because consumers always consider brands that have high awareness when they decide to buy a product (Hoyer and Brown, 1990).

Perceived quality contributes to value creation by providing reasons to purchase, differentiating between brands or supporting a higher price strategy (Aaker, 1996). Perceived quality can be defined as the "perceived ability of a product to provide satisfaction \_relative\_ to the available alternatives" (Monroe and Krishnan, 1985:212). Individuals choose important attributes as comparison criteria for a product or service, and quality is an important subjective measure (Baldauf, Cravens and Binder, 2003).

Brand loyalty creates value by reducing marketing costs as drawing new consumers is much more costly than maintaining existing ones (Aaker, 1996). Loyal consumers constantly favour a brand and refrain from switching to other brands (Grover and Srinivasan, 1992). Therefore, brand loyalty is linked to an increase in sales and profits generated by the brands (Aaker, 1996).

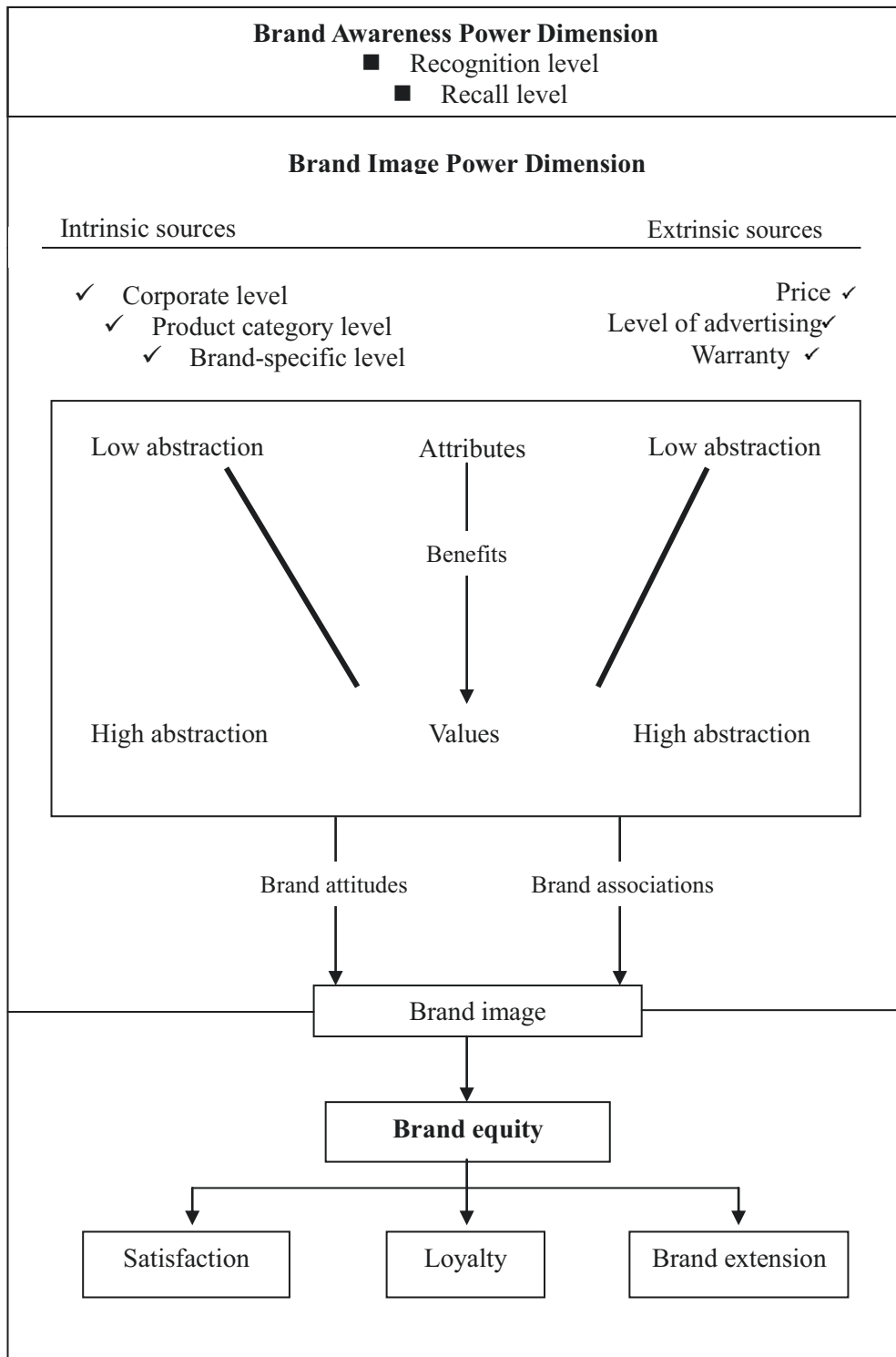
The components of brand equity offer value to consumers by increasing the consumers' interpretation/processing of information, and also confidence in the buying decision and satisfaction.

As a consequence, Aaker's model has served as the basis for much study of consumer-based brand equity. It also combines both perceptual and behavioural dimensions, which can be used to predict marketplace behaviour (Myers, 2003). However, some researchers regard brand loyalty as a consequence of brand equity (e.g. Na, Marshall and Keller, 1999; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007). Aaker's model, too, which is based on the consumer perspective, needs to be adjusted for use in the restaurant industry.

### **2.6.2 The Brand Power Model**

Keller's (1993) approach to brand equity is also based on the consumer-based perspective. He proposes two stages of equity—awareness level and image level—that lead to a brand assessment. Figure 2.3 displays the brand power knowledge relevant to consumer-based brand equity.

**Figure 2.3: Brand Power Model**



Source: Na et al. (1999:170)

As shown in Figure 2.3, the brand power model shows that brand power can be generated by a variety of components. It is clear that brand power is created in a complex structure and interactions between components are necessary to produce a new power. According to Figure 2.3, brand equity is based on two principal dimensions, namely brand awareness and brand image.

Awareness is associated with the strength of the brand node in the consumer's memory, simply measured by recognition and recall (Na et al., 1999). Brand image is "perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory" (Keller, 1993:3). Brand image involves the measurement of consumer's perceptions of the value and benefits, which leads to the forming of a particular image in the consumer's mind (Na et al., 1999). Thus, the antecedents of brand image range in levels of abstraction from attribute data to perceptions of benefits (Na et al., 1999) and values, and these three levels should interact (Zeithaml, 1988). The creative process of image power begins with 'intrinsic' (e.g. corporate level, category level and brand-specific level) and 'extrinsic' sources (e.g. price, level of advertising and warranty) (Na et al., 1999).

Na et al. (1999) propose that image is a chunk of information that is developed by consumers and this chunk is composed of multiple aspects of the brand. Therefore, a multi-attribute approach is necessary to evaluate brand equity. In addition, they add that during product evaluation, extrinsic cues and intrinsic cues are interrelated in the consumer's mind.

Thus, Na et al. (1999) share a different view from Aaker (1991). The brand power model offers refreshing new insights into brand equity through a well-organised process, and the three levels of attributes of this model are useful in determining the antecedents of brand equity.

In summary, even though Aaker's (1991) and Keller's (1993) concepts of brand equity are different, their definitions of brand equity are rooted in the consumer-based perspective and they consist of similar dimensions for measuring consumer-based brand equity (Kayaman and Arasli, 2007). Their measures are a common measure of consumer-based brand equity. Hence, many scholars have employed Aaker's and

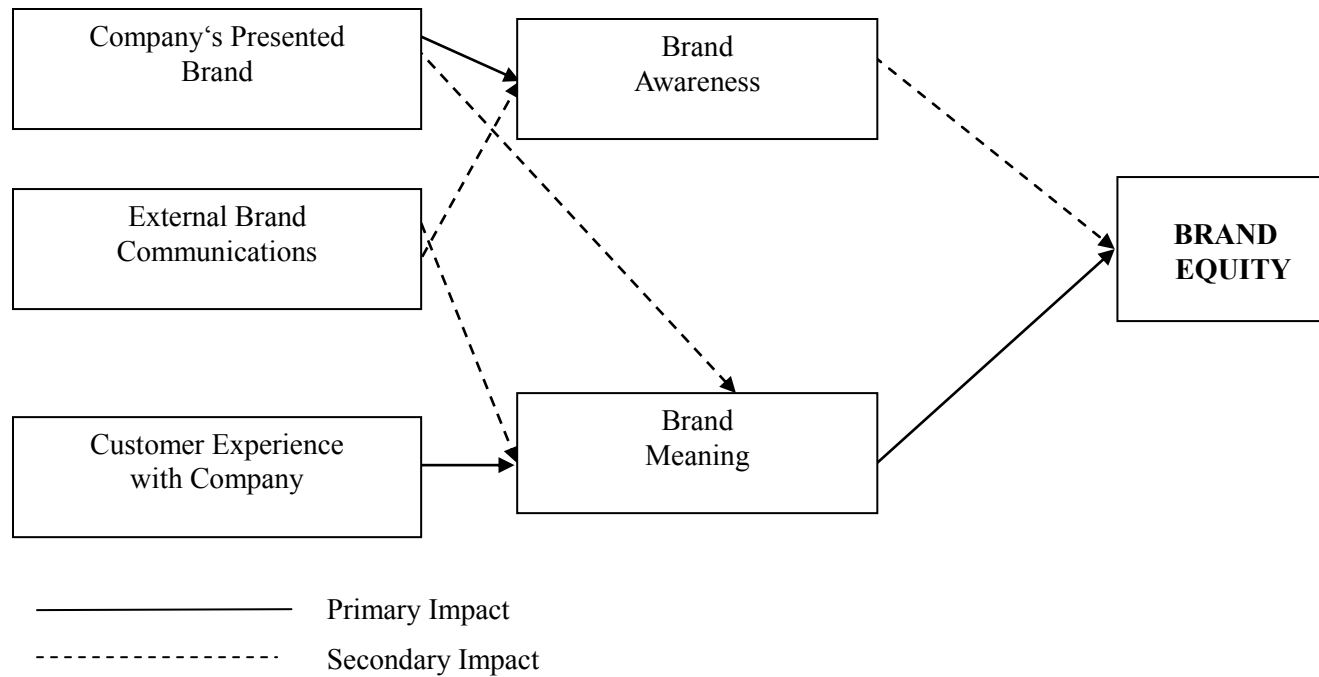
Keller's (1993) measurements. However, before employing a model in research, it is necessary to consider the model's generalisability across different markets (Yoo and Donthu, 2002). Given the recent trend for the creation of global brands, cross-cultural validation of the brand equity model is important to ensure success in the global market. Moreover, in order to formulate a global brand equity model, other components along with those proposed by Aaker and Keller need to be considered.

### **2.6.3 Service Branding Model**

To date, a number of brand equity models have been proposed by researchers but most models are centred on the brands of products (Turley and Moore, 1995). Although some researchers have developed models that can be applied to branding of both services and products, a model solely dedicated to service branding needs to be developed to account for the differences between products and services (Berry, 2000). Figure 2.4 shows a branding model in the service industry.



**Figure 2.4: Service Branding Model**



Source: Berry (2000:130)

Figure 2.4 shows that the components of a service brand include the following: presented brand, external brand communication, consumer experience, brand awareness, brand meaning, brand equity and also the relationships between these components.

Berry (2000) asserts that brand equity consists of two types of components: brand awareness and brand meaning. Berry argues that the primary source of brand awareness is the company's presented brand, which refers to the firm's controlled communication, including service facilities, advertising, network of service providers, the firm's name and logo. The secondary source of brand awareness is the external brand communication, which is uncontrolled information consumers receive about the service of the company, e.g. through word-of-mouth communications and public relations.

Brand meaning refers to the consumer's predominant perceptions about the brand, which promptly surface to the consumer's mind at the mention of the brand (Berry, 2000). In addition, Berry asserts that even though the company's presented brand and external brand communication have an influence on brand meaning, brand meaning is primarily affected by the consumer's experience with the company because experience-based beliefs are stronger in the service industry. Clearly, service quality is an important factor affecting the consumer's experiences (Alexandris, Dimitriadis and Markata, 2002; Alexandris, Zahariadis, Tsorbatzoudis and Grouios, 2004). Moreover, external brand communications have an influence on expected service (Gronroos, 1984).

In the restaurant industry, the physical environment and the behaviour of the staff in delivering services are crucial, because these, too, play an important role in satisfying consumer desires (Ekinici, Dawes and Massey, 2008). Hence, the evaluation of brand equity in the restaurant industry depends heavily on the quality of service experienced by the consumer. Berry's model analyses how the antecedents of brand equity play a role within the service industry. Moreover, the model is valuable in understanding the complex structure between brand equity and its antecedents. Brand meaning based on consumers' experience is shown to be the primary impact of brand equity. Thus, to build a strong brand in the restaurant industry, it is essential to focus more on the

consumers' actual experience with the service than on the presented brand and the external brand. This is why, in the current research, the perceived quality of service brand as based on actual experience has been included as an important factor.

The following section reviews the measurements of brand equity as described in earlier research models.

## **2.7 Measurements of Brand Equity**

To develop marketing strategies that align with consumers' values, the measurement of brand equity should accurately evaluate consumers' perceptions of the brands. Aaker (1996) argues that these measurements should be modified and improved, as brand equity varies across brands, product categories and markets. He adds that developing credible and sensitive measures for brand equity is very important. Moreover, given that a large number of brands today are manufactured in one country but sold in others, the measurement of brand equity should reflect the variations across countries in an international context (Shocker, Srivastava and Ruekert, 1994).

A variety of perspectives can be used to measure brand equity, which is a multidimensional concept. From, a consumer perspective, brand equity is reflected in measures that determine the intangible value of brands in the minds of consumers. Secondly, although only a limited amount of research has adopted a financial perspective, financial measures such as cost, profit, sales and margins can be used to evaluate brand equity (Aaker, 1996). Finally, under the comprehensive approach brand equity is assessed as the value of brand as perceived by the consumers and the firm.

The following section discusses the measurements of brand equity from a consumer-based perspective, from a financial angle and via an integrated approach.

### **2.7.1 Measurements of Consumer-Based Brand Equity**

Experts argue that measurement of consumer-based brand equity is the most efficient method to assess brand asset and the performance of brands. This is relevant not only to consumers who purchase a brand but also to managers and marketers who evaluate the performance of brands and formulate powerful strategies. Consumer-based brand equity includes two multi-dimensional concepts: brand strength and brand value (Srivastava and Shocker, 1991). Brand strength is derived from perceptions and behaviours of consumers, while brand value is the financial outcome of the management's ability to leverage brand strength by offering future profits (Kim and Kim, 2005). Table 2.2 summarises previous research on the measurements of consumer-based brand equity.

**Table 2.2 Measurements of Consumer-Based Brand Equity**

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Equity	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Aaker (1991)	Brand awareness Brand loyalty Perceived quality Brand associations				Brand awareness, perceived quality and brand association can all strengthen brand loyalty by increasing consumer satisfaction and providing reasons to purchase the goods.
Keller (1993)	Brand knowledge: Brand awareness Brand image				Brand knowledge can be conceptualised in accordance with an associative network memory model in the light of brand awareness and brand image.
Lassar et al. (1995)	Performance Social Image Value Trustworthiness Attachment	Television monitors Watches	7-point scale	Exploratory factor analysis Confirmatory factor analysis Correlation	A scale of 17 items has been developed to measure consumer-based brand equity. This scale can help firms evaluate their marketing strategies and programmes, as well as the marketing mix elements of a brand.

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Equity	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Prasad and Dev (2000)	Brand performance Brand awareness	Hotels	5-point scale		The authors have developed a hotel brand equity index, which can be used by marketers to evaluate a brand's power.
Yoo and Donthu (2001)	Brand loyalty Perceived quality Brand awareness/ associations	Camera films Athletic shoes Television sets	5-point likert scale	Confirmatory factor analysis LISREL8 maximum likelihood method	This new measure is reliable and valid as well as parsimonious. However, the generalisability of the measure is limited because it has been applied to only in a few cultures and to a few product categories.
Baldauf et al. (2003)	Brand Awareness Perceived quality Brand loyalty	Tile	5-point and 7-point Likert scale	Exploratory factor analysis Reliability Analysis Confirmatory factor analysis Regression Analysis	Brand awareness, perceived quality and brand loyalty are important determinants of brand profitability, brand market performance, consumer value and purchase intentions.

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Equity	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Bamert and Wehrli (2005)	Service quality	Athletic shoes Financial services Telecommunication services, Internet trader	7-point likert-type scale	Exploratory factor analysis Cronbach's reliability	In the consumer goods markets, consumer service can be regarded as a marketing activity that affects the dimensions of brand equity.
Pappu, Quester and Cooksey (2005)	Brand awareness Brand association Perceived quality Brand loyalty	Cars Televisions	Dichotomous scale 11 likert-type scale	Exploratory factor analysis Confirmatory factor analysis Maximum likelihood estimation method	Studies have demonstrated that in the light of product category-country associations, differences appear in the minds of consumers.

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Equity	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Kim and Kim (2005)	Brand awareness Brand loyalty Perceived quality Brand image	Hotel Restaurant	7-point likert scale	Factor analysis with principal components (varimax rotations) Stepwise regression analysis	The results of this research have shown that three dimensions other than brand awareness play a key role in determining brand equity. In luxury hotels and restaurant chains, there exists a positive relationship between the dimensions of consumer brand equity and a company's performance.
Chen (2007)	Loyalty, Perceived quality Brand association Brand awareness Other proprietary brand asset	Consumer electrics Ballpoint pen	7-point semantic differential scales	t-test ANOVA MANOVA	The source channel has a significant effect on brand equity. Of the five brand equity dimensions, perceived quality is the most common concern among consumers. More importantly, the effect of the source channel on consumer evaluations of brand equity is stronger than product involvement.



Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Equity	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Yasin et al. (2007)	Perceived quality Brand loyalty Brand awareness Brand association	Television Refrigerator Air-conditioners		Exploratory factor analysis Regression analysis	Factor analysis of brand equity dimensions has identified three components: brand distinctiveness, brand loyalty and brand awareness/associations. As a result of the study, the brand's country-of-origin image positively affects brand equity.
Kayaman and Arasli (2007)	Brand loyalty Perceived quality Brand image Brand awareness	Hotel Industry	5-point likert scale	Cronbach's alpha Correlation Confirmatory factor analysis Path Analysis	Brand awareness is not a significant factor of consumer-based brand equity in the research model for hotels.

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Equity	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Wang et al. (2008)	Corporation ability association Brand awareness Quality perception Brand resonance Brand extensibility Price flexibility Repurchase intentions	Shampoo Computers Super-markets		Qualitative (Content analysis) Quantitative (confirmatory factor analysis, correlations, reliability, path analysis)	Brand awareness and corporation ability association both affect perception of quality. Quality perception has a positive influence on brand extensibility, brand resonance and price flexibility.

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Equity	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Buil et al. (2008)	Brand awareness Perceived quality Brand loyalty Brand association (Perceived value, brand personality, organisational association)	Soft drink Sportswear Consumer-electronics Cars	7-point likert scale	Exploratory factor analysis Confirmatory factor analysis	Across two cultures, the scale of brand equity has been shown to be invariant and having similar dimensionality.
Nam, Ekinci and Whyatt (2011)	Physical quality Staff behaviour Ideal self-congruence Brand identification Lifestyle-congruence	Hotel Restaurant	7-point likert scale	Confirmatory factor analysis Structural equations modelling	The impacts of staff behaviour, ideal self-congruence and brand identification on brand loyalty are partially mediated by consumer satisfaction; On the other hand, consumer satisfaction fully mediates the impacts of physical quality and lifestyle congruence on brand loyalty.

Based on Table 2.2, previous research on the measurement of consumer-based brand equity is discussed as follows.

Aaker's (1991, 1996) theory offers insights into the creative aspects of a brand. In the context of brand equity, his work on the conceptualisation of consumers' perceptions, attitudes and behaviours has positively contributed to other research studies. According to Aaker (1996:103-104) "brand equity measures should (1) reflect the construct being measured, (2) reflect constructs that truly drive the market, (3) be sensitive to detect changes of brand equity, and (4) be applicable across brands, product categories and markets." Aaker (1991, 1996) proposes brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations and brand loyalty as dimensions of brand equity. Many researchers have applied these dimensions to their studies. Aaker's (1991) approach is highly useful for measurement of brand equity in different areas; however, to accurately estimate it, the measures should be adjusted according to the market, competitors and product categories.

Although Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) conceptualise brand equity in different ways, they define brand equity from the perspective of consumer memory-based brand associations (Pappu et al., 2005). Keller (1993) argues that brand equity comprises two components: brand awareness and brand image. Keller explains that brand awareness consists of brand recognition and brand recall whereas brand image is related to associations maintained in the consumer's memory.

The views put forward by Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) have been supported by Yoo and Donthu (2001). Yoo and Donthu developed a multidimensional scale for measuring consumer-based brand equity and evaluated its psychometric properties. Their measure was based on Aaker's and Keller's brand equity dimensions and it covers three dimensions: brand loyalty, perceived quality and brand awareness/associations. Brand association and brand awareness are combined into one. Yoo and Donthu (2001) discuss several important implications of their scale: firstly, the measures are valid and reliable. Secondly, they can be used to investigate how consumer-based brand equity is influenced by factors such as marketing activity, purchase behaviour and brand knowledge. Thirdly, the measures can be employed to examine the consequences of brand

equity, and finally, they can aid research on brand extensions. Thus, marketers or managers can understand the success or failure of a brand by using the measures developed by Yoo and Donthu (2001) to evaluate brand performance.

Pappu et al. (2005) remark that current available measurement scales contained some limitations such as the lack of a clear difference between the dimensions of brand awareness and brand association and the use of student samples. The result of their research supports Aaker's (1991) and Keller's (1993) conceptualisation of brand equity. In addition, it indicates that brand awareness and brand association are two distinct dimensions of brand equity. This contrasts with the findings of Yoo and Donthu (2001). They included brand personality in the scale to measure consumer-based brand equity and sampled actual consumers instead of students (Pappu et al., 2005).

Baldauf et al. (2003) confirm Aaker's views by examining whether the dimensions of brand equity—brand awareness, brand loyalty and perceived quality—are significant determinants of a company's performance and consumers' values. Their concept of brand equity is based on a part of Aaker's original model.

Buil et al. (2008) use the four brand equity dimensions of Aaker (1991) to investigate the cross-nation applicability of this measurement. Brand recall, familiarity and recognition are used for measuring brand awareness and brand loyalty is used for measuring attitudinal loyalty. Moreover, the brand associations include brand personality, perceived value and organisational associations.

Lassar et al. (1995) develop an instrument for measuring consumer-based brand equity, which is different from Aaker's (1991). Their consumer-based brand equity scale is based on five dimensions of consumer-based brand equity: performance, value, social image, trustworthiness and commitment.

The above discussion indicates that operationalisations of consumer-based brand equity can be usually categorised into two groups (Yoo and Donthu, 2001):

cognitive brand equity (brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality) and behavioural brand equity (brand loyalty, willingness to pay a high price) (Kim and Kim, 2005). However, Lassar et al. (1995) assert that consumer-based brand equity is central to only consumer perception, excluding behavioural dimensions, and this differs from Aaker's inclusive definition (Kim and Kim, 2005). A consumer's consumption psychology including satisfaction and its antecedents for a service has a strong relationship with brand loyalty (Chitty, Ward and Chua, 2007). The measures of consumer-based brand equity need to be tailored to the objective of the research for an accurate evaluation.

In the following section, the measurements of consumer-based brand equity will be explained in the context of the hospitality (restaurant) industry.

### **2.7.1.1 Measurements of Consumer-Based Brand Equity in the Hospitality Industry**

Marketing research models are used to access the core of consumers' mindsets for studying consumer behaviour related to service management (Bowen, 2008). As Table 2.2 shows, Prasad and Dev (2000) developed a consumer-centric index of hotel brand equity based on their estimation of brand awareness and performance. They view brand equity as a measure rooted in a range of consumer-satisfaction criteria. In addition, brand performance is measured by overall consumer satisfaction with product or service, brand preference and price-value perception; whereas brand awareness is measured by brand recall.

Kayaman and Arasli (2007) examine the relationship between the individual elements of consumer-based brand equity and the applicability of the suggested scale in measuring consumer-based brand equity for the hotel industry. Interestingly, they report that brand awareness is not explained significantly as a consumer-based brand equity dimension for hotels, which is similar to the results found by Kim and Kim (2005). However, the majority of studies demonstrate that brand awareness is an important dimension for consumer-based

brand equity (e.g. Prasad and Dev, 2000; Baldauf et al., 2003; Pappu et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2008).

Kim and Kim (2005) claim that brand equity of chain restaurants consists of four dimensions: brand image, brand loyalty, perceived quality and brand awareness. They add that brand image and brand loyalty feature prominently in the brand equity of restaurant chains, whereas perceived quality, brand loyalty and brand image are rated highly in the hotel sector.

Nam, Ekinici and Whyatt (2011) explore brand equity of hotels and restaurants in the UK, using a British sample. They explore the five dimensions of physical quality, staff behaviour, ideal self-congruence, lifestyle-congruence and brand identification. In their model, service quality is composed of physical quality and staff behaviour, and lifestyle-congruence has been generated as a dimension.

This review of literature indicates that service quality is an important dimension of brand equity in the hospitality industry. Consumers normally rely on their experience when purchasing a service because of its intangible characteristics. Service quality plays a key role in shaping the consumer's experience. Perceived quality offers value to consumers by differentiating the brand from competing brands and by giving consumers a reason to purchase (Kayaman and Arasli, 2007). It is well known that service brands have characteristics (e.g. intangibility and perishability) that are different from those of tangible products. Hence, while evaluating brand equity of a service brand, it is necessary to develop measures that can account for the attributes of a service. More specifically, the present research deals with global brand equity in the restaurant industry. Therefore, robust measures are necessary to enable the evaluation of the global brand equity of restaurant brands (see 2.8 and 2.9).

### **2.7.2 A Financial Approach to Brand Equity Measurements**

A financial approach to brand equity is based on incremental cash flows earned

as a result of owning a brand—the brand’s contribution to the business (Kim and Kim, 2005:551).” In this perspective, a company’s brand equity is estimated through the financial market value-based technique (Simon and Sullivan, 1993).

Financial measures are needed to reassure investors of the value of their long-term investments (Barwise, 1993). The investors can evaluate the quality of the firm’s performance through the financial model, which provides a standard set of financial measures (Krambia-Kapardis and Thomas, 2006). Krambia-Kapardis and Thomas (2006:6) propose the following financial measures: “the efficiency of production, the value of stocks and work in progress, and the return on investments made.” Common financial measures centre on stock price or brand replacement (Bamert and Wehrli, 2005). Previous research with regard to the measurement of financial brand equity is summarised in Table 2.3.



**Table 2.3 Measurement of Financial Brand Equity**

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Equity	Applied Area	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Simon and Sullivan (1993)		Manufacturing industries	Tobin's Q	Brand equity = intangible asset – (nonbrand factors + anticompetitive industry structure) Companies with high brand equity have significant brand names. These companies have high macro estimation of brand equity, while micro measurement of changes in brand equity is affected by marketing decisions and market events.

Source: Adapted from Kim and Kim (2005: 553)

Simon and Sullivan (1993) empirically analyse methodologies used to assess a company's brand equity. They use 'Tobin's Q' as the technique for extracting the value of brand equity from the financial market value of the company. The authors suggest that this technique is useful for two purposes: firstly, the macro approach evaluates brand equity at the company level and provides an objective value of the brand of the company; and secondly, the micro approach assesses changes in brand equity at the level of individual brands and analyses how major marketing decisions affect brand equity.

In contrast with consumer-based brand equity, which focuses on the perceptions of consumers, financial-based brand equity is rooted in 'cash flows' (Kim and Kim, 2005). Accordingly, as financial measures, researchers collect 'financial market accounting and store-level scanner data without contacting consumers' (Yoo and Donthu, 2001:2).

### **2.7.3 An Integrated Approach to Brand Equity Measurements**

The integration of brand equity measurements refers to the use of a combination of marketing and financial perspectives. Table 2.4 summarises previous findings in relation to an integrated approach for measuring brand equity.

**Table 2.4 Integrated Approaches for Brand Equity Measurements**

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Equity	Applied Area	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Motameni and Shahrokhi (1998)	Brand strength (customer base potency, competitive potency, global potency) Brand net earnings		Traditional net present value (NPV) methods	The proposed global brand equity valuation model assesses the value of a brand by incorporating the marketing and finance perspectives. It reveals that the sources of value hold important practical implications for marketers.
Farquhar (1989)				Brand equity represents the ‘added value’ that a brand attaches to a product from the firm’s perspective, trade’s perspective, and consumer’s perspective..

Although many marketers describe brand equity in behavioural terms, it is important to know what consumer mental state causes what behaviour change (Ambler, 1997). Hence Motameni and Shahrokhi (1998) and Farquhar (1989) propose a comprehensive model to estimate the brand equity.

This approach intended to compensate the insufficiencies of both the consumer-based and the financial perspectives. However, for most research objectives, either of these perspectives is usually appropriate. The consumer-based perspective is more widely used because consumer-based equity causes incremental financial profit to the company (Lassar, 1995) and helps managers and marketers to understand how their marketing programs and activities improve their brand's value in the consumers' memory (Keller, 1993).

The following section discusses the importance of global brand equity.

## **2.8 Importance of Global Brand Equity**

The twenty-first century marketplace is characterised by rapid globalisation (Lee, Knight and Kim, 2008). Accordingly, consumers can purchase the same brands throughout the world (Hassan, Craft and Kortam, 2003). Brand equity previously acquired for the regional extension of markets is intended to be used by marketing managers (Wang et al., 2008). Global brands have several advantages because of their status and prestige, moreover, widespread coverage of market can reduce advertising costs (Motameni and Shahrokhi, 1998). An increase in the number of global brands has ushered in the importance of global brand equity and has highlighted the need for developing a model of global brand equity (Wang et al., 2008).

Global brand equity is important for several reasons. To begin with, it positively influences management performance (Aaker, 1996). Strong brands can provide their companies with distinct growth advantages (e.g. resist competitive action, attract new consumers) and enhance their profitability (e.g., brand loyalty, lower advertising ratios, premium pricing) (Keller, 1998).

The strong relationship between brand equity and management performance of a company has been well documented (Aaker, 1996). This idea is also supported by the notion that evaluating brand equity is necessary for assessing brand performance (Yoo and Donthu, 2001). Amber (1997) highlights the importance of global brand equity by stating that although applications of the marketing strategy may not produce immediate improvement in brand performance, it will increase the image of global brand equity, which will result in future profits.

Srivastava and Shocker (1995) believe that global brand equity should be evaluated in terms of both brand strength and brand value. Brand strength is linked to brand association, whereas brand value refers to the gains that accumulate when brand is strengthened (Lassar et al., 1995). The author adds that global brand value is the result of a brand name being strongly related to its financial performance in the global context. The value of global brand equity is associated with the complicated mindsets of consumers, which includes value judgements and attitudes towards purchasing. Global brand equity captures the incremental value added to goods by a brand name (Srivastava and Shoker, 1991). Brand equity is derived from the consumers' greater trust in the brand, prompted by the brand's strength and associations, when compared against its competitors (Lassar et al., 1995). This trust leads consumers to pay a premium for purchasing the brand (Lassar et al., 1995). In addition, a precise comprehension of brand equity can enhance a company's marketplace advantage and competitiveness (Erdem and Swait, 1997) as well as its financial performance (Lassar et al., 1995).

Secondly, global brand equity can reveal the degree of efficiency in the marketing programs (Aaker, 1991). A good understanding of brand equity can help in improving the outcomes of marketing activities (Keller, 1993). Marketing activities will be more effective if consumers are familiar with the brand (Aaker, 1991). Marketers will be able to improve the effectiveness of brand strategies by ensuring high recall of their brands in the minds of consumers (Keller, 1993).

Third, strong brands offer their companies with an opportunity for successful extensions (Lassar et al., 1995). In other words, brand equity may be an important factor in extending the brand through line extensions or co-branding (Washburn, Till

and Priluck, 2000). A global brand has high prestige, and thus the ability to compete against other brands in new and different markets (Kapferer, 2008). Further, the awareness and identity of a global brand can reduce the costs and risks of placing a new product in a new market (Aaker, 1996b).

Lastly, global brand equity can help consumers interpret products and brands and obtain information on them (Aaker, 1991). Moreover, it can also influence the consumer's confidence about purchasing a product (Aaker, 1991). The credibility of a brand gained by global brand equity can raise consumers' expectations about the brand's quality due to a perception of reduced risk (Erdem and Swait, 1997). Consumers who have confidence in a firm will purchase its products or services continuously. Brand equity increases attitude strength towards a brand, which is an important determinant of brand purchase.

In summary, a substantial amount of recent research deals with the intangible values of brand. Researchers are highly interested in investigating the complex mindsets of consumers, particularly in relation to global brand equity. The concept of global brand equity is linked to a consumer's interpretation of information, consumer satisfaction (Aaker, 1996a) and greater confidence (Lassar et al., 1995). It also increases a firm's financial performance (Aaker, 1996a).

Global brand equity can serve as an effective way to evaluate marketing activities that target global markets (Prasad and Dev, 2000). Through considering cultural diversity, the strategy of building global brand equity is good to overpower competitors. That is, glocalisation can be an effective strategy when it comes to dealing with both worldwide considerations and specific cultures of each country (Maynard, 2003). Further, a marketing programme, which includes advertising, can help to strengthen the brand's association in the minds of global consumers (Keller, 1993). In particular, advertising can enhance brand familiarity, which leads the growth of global brand equity. Thus global brand equity can enhance brand loyalty and aid the purchasing intention of consumers. It also plays a key role in a brand's profitability performance.

The above sections discussed the definitions of consumer-based brand equity, academic models of brand equity, measurements of brand equity and importance of

global brand equity. The following section reviews the components of global brand equity.

## **2.9 Components of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity**

A considerable amount of research has been directed towards identifying the components of consumer-based brand equity and to establish a common basis for further study. Many researchers have explored the components of brand equity: brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand association and other proprietary brand assets (Aaker, 1991; Yoo and Donthu, 2001; Baldauf et al., 2003; Pappu et al., 2005; Chen, 2007; Yasin et al., 2007; Buil et al., 2008) (see Table 2.2). To examine the brand equity of luxury hotels and chain restaurants, Kim and Kim (2005) use brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality and brand image. The same components are used by Kayaman and Arasli (2007) in their model for hotels. Nam et al. (2011) identify physical quality, staff behaviour, ideal self-congruence, brand identification, and lifestyle-congruence as the components of the hospitality brand equity.

These factors represent the dimensions of brand equity across industries. Three of these dimensions-brand awareness, brand associations and perceived quality-have been widely accepted and studied as the major components by many researchers Aaker (1991, 1996) indentifies both perceptual and behaviour dimensions. More specifically, Aaker views brand loyalty as a behavioural dimension; and brand awareness, brand association and perceived quality as cognitive dimensions.

However, Lassar et al. (1995) view brand loyalty as a consequence of brand equity. They consider only perceptual dimensions as brand equity, thus excluding behaviour dimensions, such as brand loyalty. Keller (1998) argues that the habit of purchasing a specific brand cannot be equated with brand loyalty. Hence, Keller also states that brand loyalty should not be used as a component of brand equity. In keeping with the argument of Lassar et al. (1995) and Keller (1998), the present study employs brand loyalty as one of the consequences of brand equity.

To be successful, a brand should satisfy both the consumers' functional needs and symbolic needs (Kapferer, 1997). Self-congruence and brand identification are linked to symbolic consumption of the restaurant brands (e.g. Johnson, Herrmann and Huber, 2006; Kim, Han and Park, 2001). Self-congruence also plays a role in the evaluation of global brands because culture influences consumer behaviour (Focht, Maloles III, Swobida, Marschett and Sinha, 2008). Moreover brand identification leads to brand loyalty because consumers choose a brand that allows them to belong to a certain group (Kuenzel and Halliday 2010). Thus, both self-congruence and brand identification play an important role in success of restaurant brands.

Inculcating brand trust is one of the most important characteristics of a global brand. For instance, with regard to the restaurant industry, brand trust can lead consumers to believe that almost all aspects of a particular restaurant chain will be identical, irrespective of the country in which that restaurant is located. As a result, they are likely to have no hesitation in dining there.

Brand affect is also a significant dimension in the service industry. In the restaurant industry, in particular, to engender brand loyalty, it is important for consumers to forge strong emotional bonds with the staff or with the restaurant (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001).

This study considers brand trust, brand affect, self-congruence, brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand identification as components of consumer based global brand equity (CBGBE), while brand loyalty is viewed as a consequence of CBGBE. These dimensions serve as an effective tool to evaluate CBGBE.

The next sections offer insights into the conceptualisation and measurements of these seven components of CBGBE.

### **2.9.1 Brand Trust**

In recent years, the concept of brand trust has attracted considerable attention in the



field of marketing research. This is because trust not only increases consumption behaviour (Kenning, 2008) but also enhances the benefits of brand extension (Reast, 2005). In fact, brand trust can be an efficient way of building and maintaining brand equity as a relational asset (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2005). This is because trust is vital to maintaining a strong relationship between a brand and its consumers (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2001).

### **2.9.1.1 Conceptualisation of Brand Trust**

Through the way a company's product is developed, manufactured, put on the market, advertised and serviced, a trustworthy brand guarantees and assures value to consumers (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2005). They point out that brands provide satisfaction to consumers and thus encourage loyalty. This is why researchers and practitioners in the field of marketing have paid attention to the concept of trust (Schtmann, 2007).

Trust has been discussed in various research disciplines, including sociology, psychology, economics and marketing. Luhmann (1979) proposes a sociological theory of trust. The author states that the three modes that induce anticipation about the future, based on culture and personal experiences, are familiarity, confidence and trust. Familiarity is a prerequisite for trust (Elliott and Yannopoulou, 2007). Luhmann (1979) supports this by insisting that trust stems from the familiarity, and it needs a reliable background. Kania (2001) states that higher trust is created once the consumer is familiar with a brand or firm. Purchase based on familiarity occurs when consumers believe that the perceived risk of their purchase is low. However, confidence, which is a mix of cognition and emotion stemming from experience, is necessary at higher levels of perceived risk; and when the perceived risk levels are high, trust is required for buying (Elliott and Yannopoulou, 2007).

In the field of psychology, trust is believed to result from previous experience and interactions (Rempel, Holmes and Zanna, 1985). They add that it typically passes

through the following stages: predictability, dependability, trust and faith. These stages indicate a hierarchy in terms of emotional attachment which arrives at trust when people get emotionally involved with another person; trust indicates a greater degree of emotional involvement (Elliott and Yannopoulou, 2007).

Some researchers from the field of marketing have studied strategies to reduce risks by selecting reputable brands (Ring, Schriber and Horton, 1980). They explain that consumers tend to choose a strong brand, because strong brands provide consumers the safety to better understand a company's offerings. Trust in a brand helps in reducing the risk and uncertainty associated with it (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001).

Trust minimises consumers' uncertainty regarding the behaviour of the company (Arrow, 1973). In addition, brand trust is regarded as expectation when the consumer believes that the brand will be consistent, capable, responsible and honest (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2005).

Brand trust evolves with the perception of a brand-consumer relationship (Sheth and Parvatiyar, 1995). Hiscock (2001) asserts that creating a strong consumer-based brand is the goal of marketing, and brand trust is the key element of this bond. Morgan and Hunt (1994) study relationship marketing and identify that trust is important to relational exchange and a crucial variable in marketing relationships. Moorman, Deshpandé and Zaltman (1993:82) highlight the importance of confidence in developing long-term relationships by defining trust as "a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence." They explain that behavioural intention is an essential aspect of trust. This definition parallels that of Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001:2): "Trust is defined as the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function." Morgan and Hunt (1994) suggest that real confidence is an indicator of the behavioural intention to depend on something. Therefore, trust is related to behavioural intention (Moorman, Deshpandé and Zaltman, 1993) and buying behaviour (Kenning, 2008). That is, trust has a positive effect on consumer loyalty (Kenning, 2008). The constant process of maintaining a valuable relationship that is based on trust generates brand loyalty. Accordingly, trust is the fundamental factor for loyalty (Berry, 1993).

In the context of service industries, including hospitality, Berry and Parasuraman (1991) find that trust is essential for forming relationships between the consumer and the firm; in the case of a service, managing trust is important for effective and successful service marketing. The authors highlight that one of the characteristics of a service is intangibility, which suggests that consumers need to trust a brand before they purchase the service to avoid a risk. The consumption experience is an essential source of trust as it produces assessments and associations that are not only more self-relevant but also held with greater confidence (Dwyer, Schurr and Oh, 1987).

The rise of globalisation has led a great number of companies to take a keen interest in brand extension (Kapferer, 2008). The role that brand trust has is significant in the achievement of a brand extension, because the relationship that consumers have built with the parent brand provides them with affection and credibility in a new brand (Reast, 2005). Moreover, given that global brands have a strong reputation, the majority of the consumers are likely to evaluate local brands as inferior to global brands and less reliable (Wang et al., 2008). Global companies focus on enhancing brand trust, through their marketing programmes, to maintain the economic and competitive benefits gained by their relationships with the consumers (Delgado-Ballester, 2004).

Consequently, although various conceptualisations of brand trust have resulted in a confusing range of definitions, according to most perspectives, ‘expectation’ and ‘risk’ are prominent factors of trust (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2005). Brand trust can, therefore, be defined as “the confident expectations of the brand’s reliability and intentions in situations entailing risk to the consumer” (Delgado-Ballester, 2004: 574) Brand trust is an essential component of CBGBE. In the restaurant industry, building and maintaining trust can enable restaurants to extend their brands into different countries and cultures. Brand trust is also essential in building a good relationship between the consumer and the firm in a long-term, and is also a driver of loyalty (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2005). This is on the basis of the belief that the product or service offered by the brand matches consumer expectations, which are based on the consumers’ previous experiences with the brand (Sichtmann, 2007). Thus, investing in building brand trust offers distinct benefits for practitioners.

### **2.9.1.2 Measurements of Brand Trust**

Trust is the consumer's feeling that the brand will meet his/her consumption expectations, which is based on two general dimensions: brand reliability and brand intentions (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2001). In marketing research, these two dimensions of trust have been widely discussed (e.g. Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Doney and Cannon, 1997; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2001, 2005). Brand reliability has a competence-based or a technical trait, which includes the willingness and the ability to deliver against promises and meet consumer requirements (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2005). This dimension allows consumers to predict whether the brand will satisfy their needs and shapes their attitude towards the brand (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2004). Therefore, reliability is the starting point of trust.

The second dimension of trust is brand intentions, which refers to the belief that the brand will hold consumers' welfare and interests, when unexpected problems with the use of the brand emerge (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2004). Brand intention includes attributes such as benevolence, honesty (Larzelere and Huston, 1980), dependability and fairness (Rempel et al., 1985).

Reast (2003) proposed a model of brand trust that consists of two components: cognitive and conative. According to this model, conative and cognitive components are based on 'credibility' and 'performance satisfaction' respectively. Credibility is a significant factor for brand extension (Keller and Aaker, 1992), as it is a reflection of the brand's honesty in advertising, in other kinds of brand communication and in personal interaction (Reast, 2005). Credibility consists of two aspects: trustworthiness and expertise (Power et al., 2008). According to Reast (2005:9), "performance satisfaction reflects the extent to which quality is consistent and meets expectations and the extent to which the brand is dependable or can be relied on". Kenning (2008) classified trust into two groups: general and specific trust. Marketing influences specific trust which is vital to establishing a long-term, lasting relationship between a firm and its consumers. Specific trust is composed of a cognitive and an affective element (Morrow, Hansen and Pearson, 2004), and affective trust, in particular, is the

result of emotional and affective experiences of an individual (Kramer, 1999). On the other hand, conscious experiences of the consumers with a specific brand result in cognitive trust (Kenning, 2008). Kenning adds that cognitive trust may be employed as a tool for evaluating trustworthiness.

Power et al. (2008) discuss three dimensions of trust in their study on the attractiveness and connectedness of ruthless brands: competence, honesty and empathy. Butler (1991) proposes ten different dimensions of trust: integrity, consistency, promise-fulfilment, receptivity, loyalty, fairness, competence, discretion, openness and availability. Of these, Verbeke et al. (2006) focus on competence, openness and availability, as evidenced in the ethical treatment of suppliers.

As discussed above, brand trust is multi-dimensional concept, and researchers have employed different variables to measure it. Typically, in marketing literature, the concept of trust is linked to confidence, credibility (reliability) and intentions (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2001). In the field of psychology, brand trust is viewed a concept consisting of cognitive, conative (Reast, 2003) and affective elements (Morrow et al., 2004).

The next section reviews the influence of brand affect on the restaurant industry.

### **2.9.2 Brand Affect**

Emotional feelings such as love, hate, pity and anger seem to provide the energy that stimulates and sustains a particular attitude towards a brand (Wright, 2006). It is clear that the emotional effects of the brand lead consumers to recall the brand and boost brand loyalty (Dick and Basu, 1994; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Matzler et al., 2006). Thus, these effects play an important role in brand equity.

### **2.9.2.1 Conceptualisation of the Brand Affect**

Nowadays, consumption is governed by consumer's feelings and emotions, in addition to the functional aspect of product (Zohra, 2011). Hence, much attention has been directed towards the affective factors in marketing (Burk and Edell, 1989; Erevelles, 1998; Gobé, 2001; Keller 1998).

Brand affect is a consumer's overall favourable or unfavourable evaluation of a specific brand (Keller, 1993). Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001:82) define brand affect as "a brand's potential to elicit a positive emotional response in the average consumer as a result of its use." Evoking consumer emotions is a major factor for developing a long-term relationship between a consumer and a brand (Zohra, 2011). Matzler et al. (2006) refer to affect as feelings and emotions induced by stimulations. Consumers' emotions are related to stimuli (Wright, 2006). Wright adds that if the stimuli reinforce factors that evoke positive feelings, consumers are encouraged to purchase certain brands, which, in turn, promotes brand loyalty (Wright, 2006).

Behaviour decision theorists investigate affective reactions that influence the decision-making process (Garbarino and Edell, 1997). Consumer satisfaction and purchase intention are directly influenced by positive emotions, which are also known as positive affects (Oliver et al., 1997). A brand or a company that successfully forms a positive emotional relationship with the consumer gains a competitive advantage (Nowak, Thach and Olsen, 2006). Thus, for pleasing consumers and securing their preferences, outstanding consumer service is vital. Yu and Dean (2001) propose that the affective element of consumer satisfaction is a better component for predicting consumer loyalty and positive word-of-mouth than cognitive elements (e.g. price and quality).

Evanschitzky, Iyer, Plassmann, Niesing and Meffert (2006) propose that affective commitment is an important precursor of loyalty in service relationships. Affective commitment, which is the emotion that a consumer attaches to a brand (Allen and Meyer, 1990), has a positive effect on both attitudinal loyalty and behaviour loyalty (Evanschitzky et al., 2006). Therefore, strong attitudinal commitment and purchase loyalty reflect the brand's success in making the consumers feel "happy,"

‘affectionate’ or ‘joyful’ (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001).

In the service industry, in particular, building positive emotion is very important. Brands with high consumer affect lead to attitudinal and purchase loyalty (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). The authors add that consumers who have strongly built emotional connections with a restaurant or with its staff will not only revisit the restaurant but also be willing to pay a premium price.

Consequently, brand affect is considered as an antecedent to brand purchasing (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). To achieve a positive brand evaluation from consumers, it is important that the brand experience is enjoyable (Matzler et al., 2006). In the restaurant industry, high quality service is the key to please consumers (Nowak et al., 2006). The stimulation of positive emotion will attract consumers and connect them closely to the brand (Zohra, 2011). When brand loyalty is based on emotional bonds, it not only becomes stronger, but also acts as a source of competitive advantage (Gómez, Arranz and Gillán, 2006).

The following section reviews the measurements of brand affect based on concept of brand affect.

### **2.9.2.2 Measurements of Brand Affect**

Many researchers have developed measures of brand affect. Westbrook (1987) proposes two affect constructs—positive and negative—that indicate consumer satisfaction with a product. Later, Westbrook and Oliver (1991) conducted a dimensional analysis and identified three affective dimensions of satisfaction judgments: hostility (a constellation of negative affect), pleasant surprise (positive affect and surprise) and interest. Oliver (1993) discusses a negative affect dimension that has three subcomponents: externally attributed affects (anger, disgust and contempt), internally attributed affects (guilt and shame) and situation-specific affects (fear and sadness). Mano and Oliver (1993) describe two dimensions of brand affect: a positive-negative affect and arousal.

Richins (1997) develops the consumption emotion set (CES), which highlights the following consumer emotions: worry, anger, fear, loneliness, joy, peacefulness, optimism, romantic love, guilt, sadness, envy, shame, discontent, optimism, surprise, pride and contentment. Later, Nowak et al. (2006) adopt two CESs - joy and excitement - and uses them to investigate the attitudes of wine buyers. In the study, joy refers to happiness, pleased feelings and joyfulness, while excitement refers to thrill and enthusiasm (Nowak et al., 2006). They find that through positive emotions, wineries can raise brand loyalty and consumer patronage.

Hanzacc (2011) investigates the impact of consumption emotions on satisfaction and word-of-mouth and develop a model based on Russell's model of pleasure arousal. Russell (1980) measures emotions using 12 items that represent pleasure and arousal dimensions. Pleasure is measured by six items: satisfied-dissatisfied, pleased/annoyed, contented/melancholic, hopeful/despairing, relaxed/bored and happy/unhappy. Arousal is measured by another six items: excited/calm, stimulated/relaxed, frenzied/sluggish, jittery/dull, wide awake/sleepy and aroused/unaroused.

More recently, Zohra (2011) has proposed three emotional dimensions: affection, passion and connection. Affection represents warm feelings such as love and friendship; passion represents positive and intense feelings such as attraction and the bond between the consumer and the brand; and connection refers to being linked and attached to a brand.

In summary, the conceptual models of emotions have been used more often in service sectors that are centred mainly on positive and negative affect (Edwardson, 1998). Many researchers have adopted happiness, pleasure, joy, hope, excitement, optimism, love as positive emotions; and unhappiness, anger, fear, sadness as negative emotions. Additionally, arousal and interest have been explored as other dimensions of affect. The present study considers only those dimensions of affect that are relevant to the restaurant services (see 4.4.2).

The following section examines the essential component of perceived quality.



### **2.9.3 Perceived Quality**

Perceived quality is the main determinant of brand equity (Aaker, 1996b). It refers to the consumer's judgement of a brand's superiority or excellence (Netemeyer, Krishnan, Pullig, Guangping, Yagci, Dean, Ricks and Wirth, 2004). This influences the purchase of a product or service (Aaker, 1991). Perceived quality is also valuable because it provides consumers with a reason to purchase and differentiates the brand from its competitors (Pappu et al., 2005).

Perceived quality is an attitude towards the brand (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993) that is linked to consumer satisfaction (Pappu and Quester, 2006). It is "the consumer's subjective evaluation of the product rather than the actual quality of the product" (Zeithaml, 1988:3). This is because the standards for comparison of goods and services are selected by the individuals (Baldauf et al., 2003). A great number of companies constantly try to meet their consumers' evolving preferences and demands for quality, to ensure consumer satisfaction (Atilgan et al., 2005).

#### **2.9.3.1 Perceived Service Quality**

Perceived quality of services is different from that of products because products and services have different attributes. The first difference is intangibility of services, i.e. they cannot be seen, tasted or touched but only experienced. Unlike products, the attributes of services cannot be tested before they are used by consumers. Service quality can only be assessed later on the basis of results. Secondly, the inseparability of production and consumption is another unique feature of a service (Bamert and Wehrli, 2005). Thirdly, the essence and quality of a service can vary according to the producer, consumer and the situation (i.e. heterogeneity), which makes it difficult to standardise. Finally, perishability is another important characteristic of a service, which indicates that a service cannot be stored or saved (Bamert and Wehrli, 2005). These characteristics of services suggest that services are produced, distributed and consumed in the interaction between the service provider and the consumer (Svensson, 2004).

Perceived service quality has been defined as a global judgment of service excellence (Holbrook and Kim 1985). The evaluation of service quality is based on the perceptions of consumers. Thus, service quality is considered as a cognitive assessment of the service performance (Oliver, 1997). However, Edvardsson (2005) asserts that service quality should be understood from both cognitive and emotional perspectives, which are based on service experience. Service experience tends to stay in the minds of the consumers for long time and has a strong influence on consumer's quality perception and emotion (Edvardsson, 2005).

Service quality plays a vital role in determining consumer's assessments of value (Imrie, Cadogan and McNaughton 2002) and has a positive effect on financial profit (Zeithaml, 2000). It also has a positive relationship with consumer loyalty, repeat purchases and price competitiveness (Gale and Buzzel, 1989). Service performance has a direct relationship with service quality (Chenet, Tynan and Money, 1999).

### **2.9.3.2 Conceptualisation of Perceived Quality**

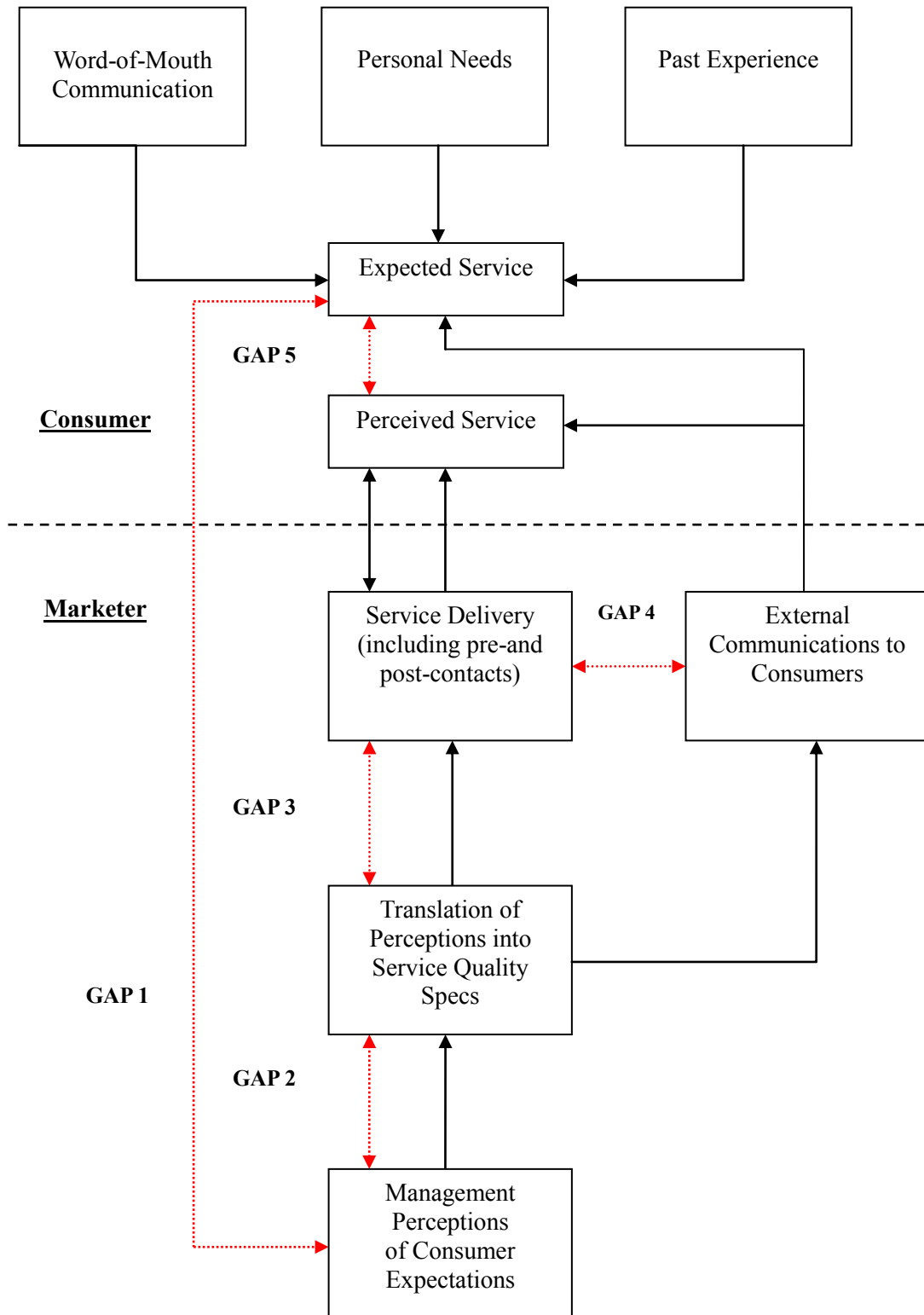
A number of models have been proposed to conceptualise the construct of service quality (e.g. Garvin, 1987; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1988; Frost and Kumar, 2000; Svensson, 2004). Broadly, the dominant perspectives in the conceptualisation of perceived quality are disconfirmation and performance-only approaches (Martinez Caro and Martinez Garcia, 2007). The disconfirmation approach has been used by Parasuraman et al. (1988) to develop the SERVQUAL model (Nam et al., 2011).

Parasuraman et al. (1985:42) summarised existing knowledge on service quality in the following words:

- Service quality is more difficult for the consumer to evaluate than goods quality.
- Service quality perceptions result from a comparison of consumer expectations with actual service performance.
- Quality evaluations are not made solely on the outcome of a service; they also involve evaluations of the process of service delivery.

On the basis of this information, Parasuraman et al., (1988:17) define perceived quality as “the degree of discrepancy between consumers’ normative expectations for the service and their perceptions of the service performance.” Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry (1990) suggest key factors that influence consumer’s expectations: word-of-mouth communication, personal needs, past experience and external communications. Zeithaml et al. also developed SERVQUAL components that form the criteria for evaluating service quality. This model views service quality as a function of the different gaps or scores between consumer expectations and perceptions (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1985). Figure 2.5 shows the service quality model.

**Figure 2.5 Service Quality Model**



Source: Parasuraman et al. (1985:44)

Figure 2.5 shows important insights about the concept of service quality and factors affecting it (Parasuraman et al., 1985). In the figure, the gaps are shown in the marketer side. According to Parasuraman et al. (1985), the causes of the five quality gaps are inconsistencies in the quality management process. Gaps 1 to 4 pertain to the shortfalls in the service provider's business, and these gaps also influence the consumers' perceptions of poor quality of service (Zeithaml et al., 1990). Gap 5 illustrates the potential incongruity between the consumer's expected and perceived service (Parasuraman et al., 1985). This model reveals that consumers evaluate their experience of service quality on the basis of the gap between the expected and perceived service (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry., 1990).

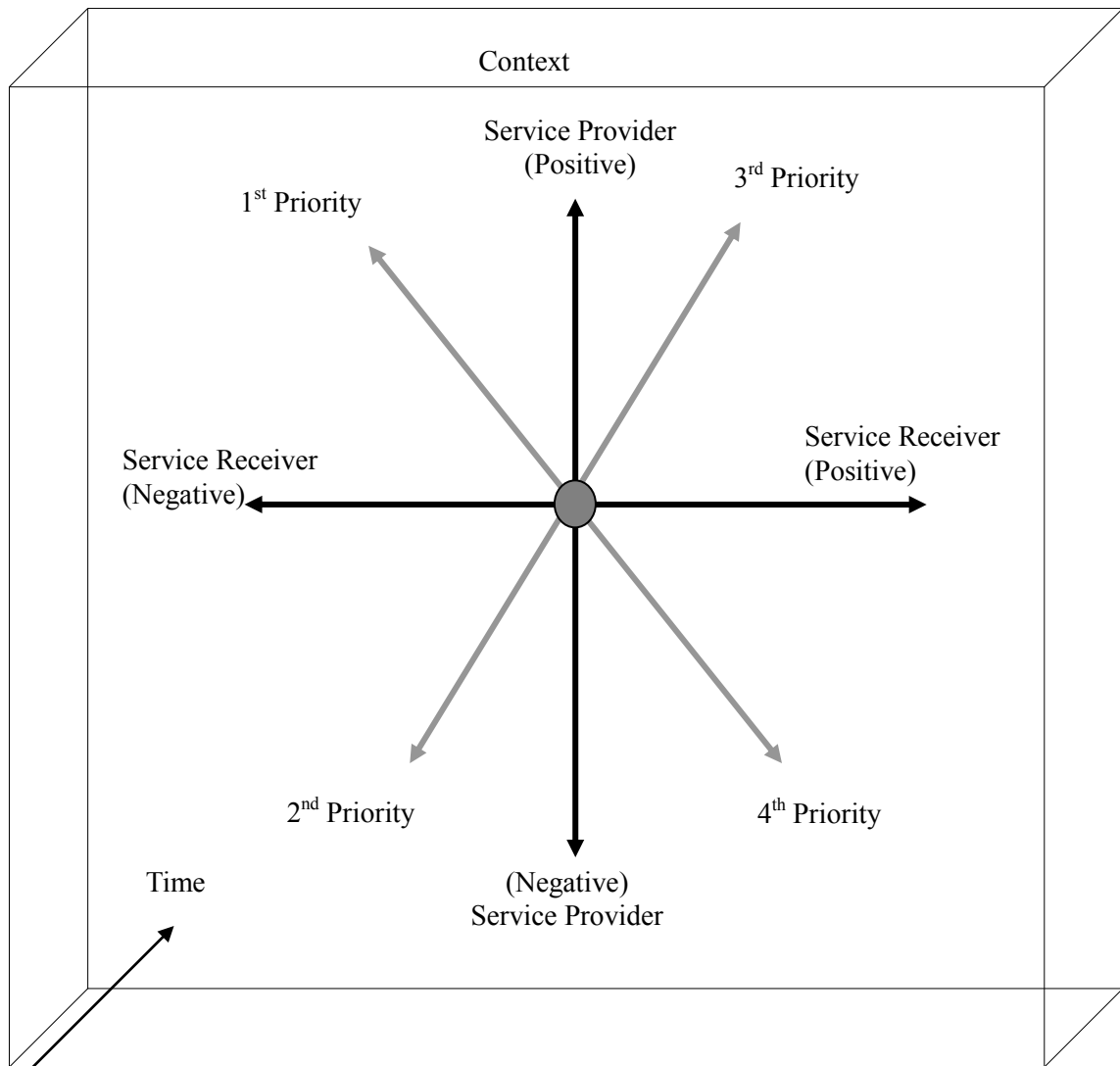
Since 1988, many researchers have used the SERVQUAL model in their research. However, this model is not suitable for capturing the service provider's perspective (Svensson, 2004). Other models have been developed to emphasise the interaction between the service receiver and the service provider (e.g. Grönroos, 1984; Svensson, 2003).

Grönroos (1984) developed the Nordic model using the disconfirmation approach. The author (1984:37) states that "the perceived quality of a given service will be the outcome of an evaluation process, where the consumer compares his expectations with the service he perceives he has received .i.e. he puts the perceived service against the expected service." According to Grönroos (1984), once the service is provided to the consumer, the consumer-producer interactions influence the perceived service.

In line with Grönroos' view (1984), Svensson (2003) states that the service quality in a service encounter is the interactive process between the service provider and the service receiver. Svensson proposes that the interactive service quality relies on the gap between the service provider's perception and the service receiver's perception. Svensson's (2003) see-saw model of interactive service quality suggests that a balance between the service provider's perspective and the service receiver's perspective leads a congruent interactive service quality, which is a satisfactory situation. Svensson (2003) also proposes that time and context influence the

interactive service quality. Figure 2.6 shows the management of interactive service quality in terms of a hierarchy of priorities.

**Figure 2.6 Hierarchy of priorities: the management of interactive service quality**



Source: Svensson (2004: 285)

According to Svensson (2004), hierarchy involves four stages of priority influenced by the congruence or incongruence between the provider's and receiver's perspectives of interactive service quality. The author characterises hierarchy as follows (2004: 285-286):

—The first priority level occurs when the service provider's perspective is positive and the service receiver's perspective is negative. The second priority level occurs when the service provider's and the service receiver's perspectives are equally negative. The third priority level occurs when the service provider's and the service receiver's perspectives are equally positive. In this third situation, there is a positive congruence of the interactive service quality in the service encounter. The fourth priority level occurs in a service encounter when the service provider's perspective is negative and the service receiver's perspective is positive.”

In summary, perceived quality is closely based on the consumers' value judgements in deciding to purchase a brand; as a result, brand performance can be greatly affected. The perceived quality of services is different from that of products because of the unique attributes of a service—intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity and perishability. Grönroos (1984) and Parasuraman et al. (1985) develop service quality models that are based on the disconfirmation approach. This approach compares consumers' expectations of service quality with their perceptions of the service quality actually received (Martinez Caro and Martinez Garcia, 2007). Most studies on service quality based on the SERVQUAL model have dealt with only the service receiver's perspective. However Grönroos (1984) and Svensson (2004) propose a model for interactive service quality, which considers the service provider's perspective and the service receiver's perspective simultaneously.

Edvardsson (2005) argues that understanding the drivers of positive and negative consumer emotions clarify consumer's perceived service quality. That is, in the restaurant industry, the interpretation of quality aspects such as helpfulness, politeness and friendliness can differ greatly among the guests, as these are subjectively estimated (Mei, Dean and White, 1999). For this reason, a service is difficult to standardise, and its assessment depends on the quality of personal service.

A consumer's satisfaction with a service is based on his or her experience with the service provider. The food-service experience can influence a consumer's overall satisfaction with the restaurant experience (Law, Hui and Zhao, 2004). Hence, improving the service quality for consumer satisfaction is one of the most important

marketing strategies in the restaurant industry. The restaurant's facilities and cleanliness, the staff's behaviour, and food quality are some of the important elements that determine consumer satisfaction and loyalty.

### 2.9.3.3 Measurements of Service Quality

To develop robust marketing strategies, managers of service firms need a reliable and valid scale (Kang, James and Alexandris, 2002). In the past, scholars have developed many multi-dimensional models of service quality. Grönroos (1984) considers technical quality, functional quality and firm's image as the dimensions in his model, whereas Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1991) include interaction quality and output quality among their dimensions. However the majority of the studies to date have used the SERVQUAL method, developed by Parasuraman et al. (1985, 1988), for measuring service quality.

Parasuraman et al. (1988) propose that service quality is a concept that involves five dimensions: reliability, assurance, tangibles, empathy and responsiveness. They define these dimensions as follows:

**Table 2.5 The SERVQUAL Dimensions**

Dimensions	Definitions
Tangibles	Physical facilities, equipment, and appearance of personnel
Reliability	Ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately
Responsiveness	Willingness to help consumers and provide prompt services
Assurance	Knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence
Empathy	Caring, individualized attention the firm provides its consumers

Source: Parasuraman et al. (1988: 23)



Reliability is shown as the most significant dimension while empathy, a compound of understanding and access, is the least significant across a seemingly broad range of services (Chowdhary and Prakash, 2007). Parasuraman et al. (1988) add that empathy and responsiveness are more important for labour-intensive industries, including the hospitality industry, whereas tangibles and reliability affect capital-intensive services.

Even though the SERVQUAL scale has been widely used in service quality research, it has certain limitations. Most of these pertain to the difficulties in conceptualising expectations, the limited number of items in each dimension and the negatively phrased items, low reliability and validity caused by the gaps model (Carman, 1990; Buttle, 1995; Armstrong, Allinson and Hayes, 1997).

In addition, some researchers argue that a performance-only approach is a better approach to measuring service quality than considering the expectation scale together (Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Babakus and Boller, 1992; Martinez Caro and Martinez Garcia, 2007). Cronin and Taylor (1992), in particular, identified the problems of the disconfirmation paradigm in measuring service quality and, in response, developed the SERVPERF model. Subsequently, many researchers have acknowledged the superiority of performance-only measures (Brady et al., 2005).

Dabholkar, Thorpe and Rentz (1996) also points out the limitations in applying the SERVQUAL scale within a retail environment. To overcome this, they developed the DTR scale that measures service quality within the retail environment. The DTR scale is composed of five dimensions: physical aspects, reliability, personal interaction, problem solving and policy (Dabholkar et al., 1996). Personal interaction itself has two sub-dimensions: confidence inspired by service personnel and courteousness /helpfulness of staff.

Although a number of studies have focused on service quality within the hospitality industry, scholars have not yet arrived at a consensus for measuring it. The SERVQUAL scale continues to be used widely, despite its drawbacks. Mei et al. (1999) modified the SERVQUAL scale slightly to the hospitality service sector and introduced three dimensions of service quality: employees, tangibles and reliability.

They find that employee behaviour is the best predictor of overall service quality. The Nordic European model of service quality, as opposed to the Parasuraman et al North American model, is found to be more valid in the hospitality industry (e.g. Brady and Cronin, 2001; Ekinici, 2001; Madanoglu, 2004). In the Nordic European model, two dimensions of service quality are identified as technical quality and functional quality: technical quality refers to what the consumer receives as the outcome of the service performance whereas functional quality refers to how the consumer receives the service (Grönroos, 1984). Grönroos highlights that perceived service is the result of the consumer's view of technical quality and functional quality.

In conclusion, despite the SERVQUAL instrument's deficiencies (Kang et al., 2002), researchers have used it as a useful tool to measure service quality (Buttle, 1996). However, the two-dimensional Nordic model is more valid when applied to restaurant service. Moreover, the present study adopts a performance-only approach to service quality, which considers perceived performance rather than consumer expectation.

#### **2.9.4 Self-Congruence**

In consumer behaviour research, it has been shown that consumers choose and purchase products or brands based on the symbolic meaning attached to these products or brands, as well as their functional attributes (Wright, 2006). Thus, consumers often purchase products and services as a way to expressing their own self (Sirgy, 1986). Moreover, when consumers find a product or a brand that are matched with themselves they will show a favourable attitude towards such products or brands (Sirgy and Su, 2000). The authors point out that this process of matching is referred to as "self-congruence."

In particular, self-congruence is highly relevant to culture because consumers' product consumption depends on their lifestyles and cultures (Quester, Karunaratna and Goh 2000). Consumer behaviour researchers have recognised that culture exerts a considerable influence over consumer motivations and product choices (Tse, Wong and Tan, 1988). Thus, self-congruence plays an important role in evaluating a global brand.

As noted by Kressmann, Sirgy, Herrmann, Huber, Huber and Lee (2006), in the consumer behaviour literature, the following are employed interchangeably: self-image congruence, self-congruence, self-congruity and image congruence.

#### **2.9.4.1 Self-Concept**

Self-concept refers to the thoughts and beliefs that individuals hold about their own characteristic traits (Wright, 2006). It is based not only on what other people think of the person, but also on how one thinks of oneself in terms of personality, abilities, appearance, characteristics and limitations (Graeff, 1996). Self-concept has to be learned; it is not innate (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987).

A number of researchers have used self-concept to explain consumer behaviour (Quester et al., 2000) because specific behaviour patterns of a person are frequently determined by the image that he/she has about himself/herself (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987). Self-concept, which is stored in the memory, can be activated when a person makes a purchasing decision (Graeff, 1996).

The majority of people behave in a way that strengthens or retains their self-concept. Thus, the self-concept has been used as a method of explaining product symbolism (Kwak and Kang, 2009). Product symbolism is based on the idea that consumers are drawn towards a product whose symbolic image is most similar to their self-concept (Kwak and Kang, 2009). Onkvisit and Shaw (1987) suggest that self-concept serves to both protect and enhance a person's ego. In a competitive marketing environment, the extent of congruency between consumers' self-concept and a brand's image has a significant influence on consumers' responses to the brand (Graeff, 1996).

#### **2.9.4.2 Conceptualisation of Self-Congruence**

As with people, products and services too have different personality types (Sirgy, 1985). Sirgy suggests that the personalities of products and services can be described in terms of a set of characteristics, such as excited, honest, sophisticated and traditional.

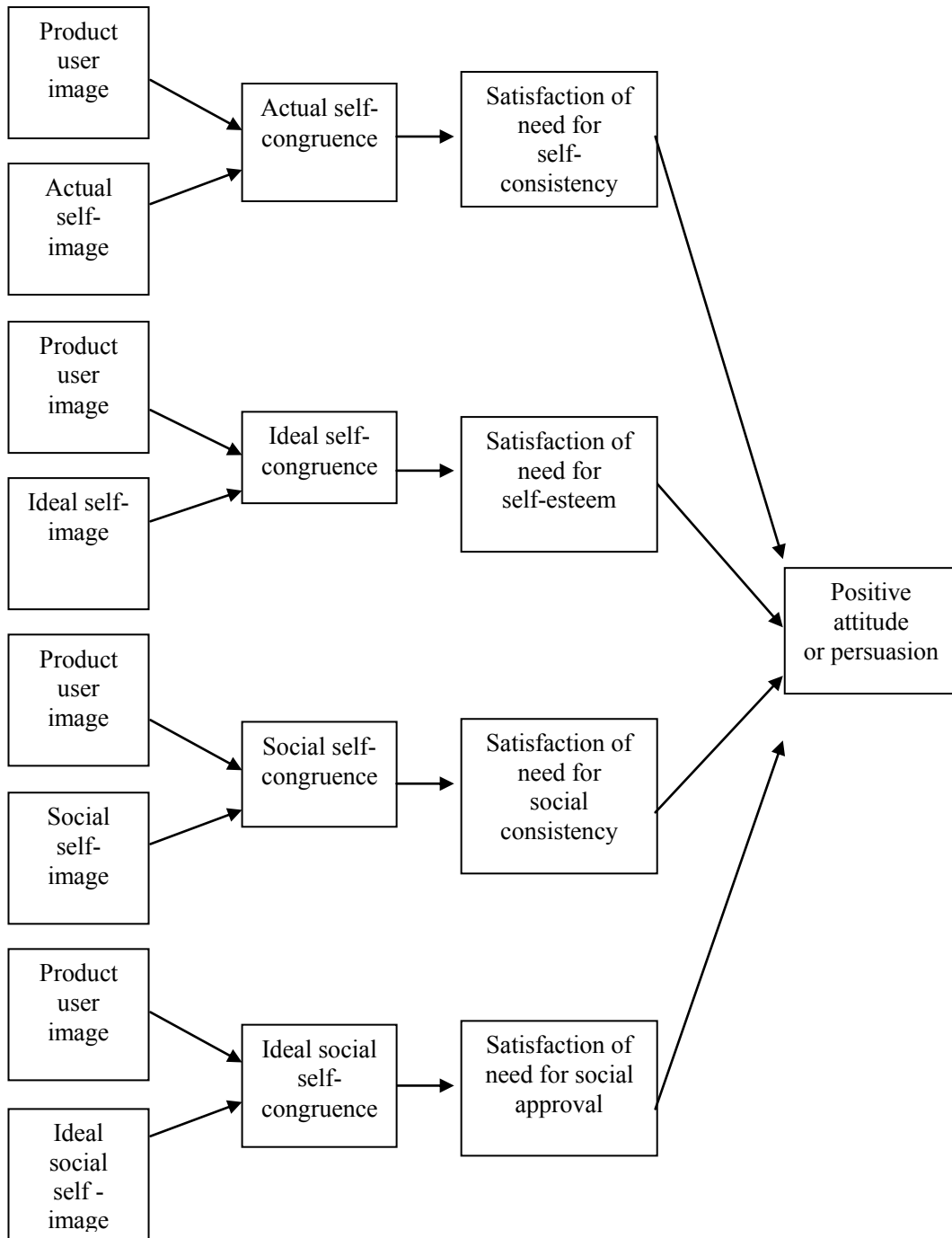
Gardner and Levy (1955) and Levy (1959) were the first to study the relationship between an individual's self-image and a product's image (Landon, 1974). Consumers tend to prefer products and brands with images that match their own self-concept (Sirgy, 1980). These brands give the consumers an opportunity to express themselves (Graeff, 1996). Graeff adds that consumers have a positive attitude and positive buying intentions towards brands that are consistent with their self-image (Graeff, 1996). According to the image congruence model, consumers assess these brand images from the standpoint of their symbolic meanings (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987). The authors state, additionally, that when these images are regarded as very believable and desirable, they offer an incentive for the consumer to attain them.

Johar and Sirgy (1991) define self-congruence as the match between the product-user image (the product's value-expressive attributes) and the consumer's self-concept. They (1991: 24) suggest four different types of self-image:

—**a** actual self-image (an image an individual has of him or herself), an ideal self-image (an image one aspires to have), a social self-image (beliefs about how one is viewed by others) and an ideal social self-image (the imagined image one aspires others to have of him or herself.”

Figure 2.7 represents the types of self-congruence and how they operate to persuade the consumer.

**Figure 2.7: Different Forms or Types of Self-Congruity and Attitude Change or Persuasion**



Source: Johar and Sirgy (1991:25)

As shown in Figure 2.7, the congruence between the product-user image (product's value-expressive attributes) and the actual self-image, ideal self-image, social self-image and ideal social self-image of a consumer enhances the probability of

consumer having a positive attitude towards a product or brand and being persuaded to buy that product or brand (Johar and Sirgy, 1991). As the congruence between the self-images and the product-user image increases, the need for self-consistency, self-esteem, social consistency and social approval also increases; thus there is an increase in the consumer's positive attitude towards the product (Johar and Sirgy, 1991).

Self-concept is motivated by the desire for self-consistency and self-esteem (Sirgy, 1982). Self-consistency determines people's actual self (Kressmann, 2006), whereas self-esteem is boosted by realising the ideal self-image (Sirgy and Su, 2000). According to Katz (1960), when the message of a brand or good is well matched with the motives of the person, the attitude towards a product changes (Johar and Sirgy, 1991). An attitude towards a brand or a product offering the value expressive function allows the consumer to demonstrate positive value and self-concept (Johar and Sirgy, 1991).

Consumer behaviour research has indicated that self-congruity has an impact on consumer satisfaction (Jamel and Goode, 2001), purchase intentions (Landon, 1974; Ibrahim and Najjar, 2008) and loyalty (Sirgy and Samli, 1985; Kressman et al., 2006). Consequently, positive attitudes and behaviour towards brands or products are facilitated by congruence between the self-concept and the image of the product (Sirgy, 1980, 1985). Thus, a symbolic image of a product or brand as it is perceived in the market place is very important for consumer decisions.

For example, in the restaurant industry, self-congruence is one of the main factors that influence a restaurant visit. Restaurants are a place not only for dining but also for social meetings and business. Hence, the image of a restaurant (such as interior design, music, menu and staff dress) must match the self-concept of its target consumers. Most people aim to feel comfortable in a restaurant that coincides with their self-concepts. Therefore, managers of restaurants need to consider the self-concept of their consumers and develop a brand personality that fits this self-concept, taking into account customer's self-congruence (Kressmann et al., 2006; Kwak and Kang, 2009). Moreover, managers of global brands should understand the cultural backgrounds of their consumers to ensure that their marketing strategies match the consumer's self-concept.

### **2.9.4.3 Measurements of Self-Congruence**

The traditional method (Q-sort, semantic differential) for measuring self-image congruence is the discrepancy index, which measures self-congruity based on the mathematical discrepancy between the product-user image and the consumer self-concept (Sirgy and Su, 2000). Although the traditional method of measuring self-image congruence is prevalent, Sirgy, Grewal, Mangleburg, Park, Chon, Claiborne, Johar and Berkman (1997) have identified the following problems with this traditional method: the use of discrepancy score, which can result in inflated reliability scores, spurious correlations with other variables and restricted variance; the use of predetermined images, which can lead respondents to indicate congruence or incongruence of irrelevant images with products (Back, 2005). Hence, Sirgy et al. (1997) suggest a new approach to measure self-image congruence that is rooted in the direct score formula (Ibrahim and Najjar, 2008). This approach does not measure product image and self-image separately to capture self-congruity, and does not ask respondents to indicate their perception of congruity with predetermined images (Sirgy et al., 1997). This approach is more predictive of various consumer behaviours and attitudes than the traditional methods (Sirgy and Su, 2000).

Most of the existing self-image research has been measured and analysed by psychologists who focus on the perception differences between of the actual self and the ideal self, which are the two dimensions of the self-concept (Quester et al., 2000). Some researchers have suggested that self-concept has two components, whereas other researchers, including Sirgy (1982), argue that it consists of more than two dimensions. Sirgy (1979; 1980) proposes four self-congruity measures related to consumer behaviour: an actual self-image, an ideal self-image, a social self-image and an ideal social self-image (see 2.9.4.2).

Likewise Sirgy, Onkvisit and Shawn (1987: 17) put forward the following dimensions of self-concept: real self (actual or objective self) - the way a person actually is, self-image (subjective self) - the way a person sees himself, ideal self (self-actualisation) - the way he would like to be, looking-glass self (social self) - the way he thinks others regard him.” These dimensions can exist at the same time and overlap partially but are not mutually exclusive. Therefore, a person’s actual self can differ from his/her

self-image, ideal self-image and looking-glass self (Onkvisit and Shawn, 1987).

Bosnjak and Rudolph (2008) investigate whether undesired self-image congruence affects consumer behaviour. They use the three facets—actual congruity, ideal social congruity and undesired congruity—in their research. The “undesired self”, a concept introduced by Ogilvie (1987: 380), is characterised as “a least-desired identity, comprising the sum of negatively valenced traits, memories of dreaded experiences, embarrassing situations, fearsome events and unwanted emotions the individual is consistently motivated to avoid.” Undesired self-image congruence influences consumption attitudes but does not directly affect buying intentions (Bosnjak and Rudolph, 2008). Table 2.6 summarises recent researches on the relationship between self-image congruity and consumer behavioural intentions with regard to factors such as brand preferences and purchase intentions.



**Table 2.6 Recent Studies Investigating the Relationship between Self-Image Congruity and Consumer Behaviour**

Author	Type of Self-Concept	Products	Findings
Amstrong (2001)	Actual self Ideal self	Activities	A difference in the self-image, product image and level of image and level of image congruity experienced, does exist between females and males.
Jamal and Goode (2001)	Actual self	Brand products	Self-image congruity is a very strong predictor of the consumer's brand preferences and a good predictor of consumer satisfaction. Consumers with higher levels of self-image congruity were more likely to prefer a brand and to enjoy higher levels of satisfaction with the brand as compared to those with lower levels of self-image congruity.
Ekinci and Riley (2003)	Actual self Ideal self	Services	Actual and ideal self-congruity have a variable influence on purchase intention, attitudes, satisfaction and service quality.
Azevedo and Farhangmehr (2005)	Actual self Ideal self	Brand products	A significant positive correlation exists between self-concept and brand personality.
Kleijnen, Ruyter and Andreassen (2005)	Actual self Ideal self	Services	Consumers with low image congruity are influenced more by their surroundings than consumers with high image congruity, and image congruity has a significant impact on consumer attitudes and the adoption decision.

Source: Ibrahim and Najjar (2008:211–212)

As shown in Table 2.6, research has focused largely on the main dimensions namely, actual and ideal self-concepts. These two types of self are the most commonly studied (Ekinci et al., 2008). It appears that they are the most effective predictors of consumer purchasing intentions (Quester et al., 2000).

Ross (1971) asserts that consumers prefer a brand that is similar to the actual self-concept rather than the ideal self-concept. However, Sirgy (1980) argues that ideal self-congruence has more influence on product preferences than actual self-congruence. Quester et al (2000) attribute this finding to the nature of the product (e.g. a functional product or a symbol-related product) and notes that the degree of the inclusion of actual and ideal self-image varies.

Desire has been used as a standard of comparison to appraise consumer satisfaction (Woodruff, Clemons, Schumann, Gardial and Burns, 1991). Desire congruence can be defined as the subjective evaluation made by comparing what the consumers desire with what they receive from the performance of the company's products and services (Ekinci, Dawes and Massey (2008). Ekinci et al. (2008) use desire congruence, actual self-congruence and ideal self-congruence as an antecedent of consumer satisfaction in their research and found that ideal self-congruence and desire congruence have a positive effect on consumer satisfaction in the context of hospitality services. Ekinci et al. report that self-congruence matches the complex mind-set of consumers and influences a wide range of value judgements and behaviours when making a purchase.

Overall, a variety of methods have been used in consumer behaviour studies to measure the extent of congruence between self-image and product image (Sirgy and Danes, 1982). An accurate evaluation of self-image congruence can predict consumers' buying intention and product preference. The reliability and validity of measures used in research are very important (Sirgy and Danes, 1982). Marketing strategies based on an accurate evaluation can serve to increase consumer's satisfaction. Consistent with previous research, the present research adopts actual self-congruence and ideal self-congruence as dimensions of self-congruence relevant to the restaurant industry. These dimensions have been widely employed in earlier research (e.g. Armstrong, 2001; Ekinci and Riley, 2003; Azevedo and Farhangmehr, 2005; Kleijnen et al., 2005).

## **2.9.5 Brand Awareness**

Creating brand awareness is the first step to build brand equity (Gil, Andrés and Salinas, 2007). Brand awareness is related to the strength of the brand in the minds of consumers; it also enables consumers to recognise the brand, recall the brand and thus enhance brand equity (Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1996).

### **2.9.5.1 Conceptualisation of Brand Awareness**

Brand awareness is ~~the~~ the ability of a potential buyer to recognise or recall that a brand is a member of a certain product category and to draw a link between the product class and the brand” (Aaker, 1991: 61). Brand awareness is the first dimension that reflects brand knowledge (Keller, 1993). Brand awareness is linked to brand name; it denotes the probability that a particular brand name comes to the consumer’s mind (Keller, 1993). Name-related facts and feelings associated with the brand can be filled in the consumer’s mind like a file folder which consumers can easily access (Aaker, 1991). In memory theory, brand awareness is vital to build the ‘\_bundle’ of associations attached to the brand in memory (Stokes, 1985). Aaker (1991) proposes that these associations are anchored with the brand name.

In addition, brand awareness can have an effect on perceptions and attitudes to the brand and can lead to brand choice and loyalty (Aaker, 1996). This is because brand awareness is an efficient means of providing familiarity and signaling substance and commitment (Aaker, 1992).

Brand awareness plays a significant role in helping consumers to decide which brand to purchase (Macdonald and Sharp, 2003): First, as noted by Howard and Sheth (1969), brand awareness plays an important role in determining the consideration set. Forming a set of brands that the consumer considers is an essential step (Macdonald and Sharp, 2003) because most consumers choose a brand from within this consideration set (Aaker, 1991). Second, brand awareness also has an effect on decisions about brands in the consideration set (Keller, 1993). Consumers tend to

purchase familiar brands which affect their satisfaction and behaviour intention (Tam, 2008). Consumers normally try to reduce the costs of decision making in terms of time spent, and the cognitive effort such as selecting a familiar brand (Macdonald and Sharp, 2003). Finally, brand awareness impacts consumer's buying decisions by influencing the formation of brand association (Keller, 1993).

Consequently, brand awareness is an important goal of marketing efforts. Brand image or brand attitude cannot be formed in the absence of brand awareness (Macdonald and Sharp, 2003). Some researchers highlight, in particular, the importance of brand awareness in the service context (e.g. Krishnan and Hartline, 2001; Prasad and Dev, 2000; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007). Consumers have difficulty in evaluating services because of their unique characteristics. Thus, a brand name can serve to reduce the risks of buying and consuming of service brand (Bhradwaj, Varadarajan and Fahy, 1993).

### **2.9.5.2 Measurements of Brand Awareness**

There are different levels in the domain of brand awareness, including recognition, recall, top-of-mind, brand dominance, brand knowledge and brand opinion (Aaker, 1996b). Keller (1993) suggests that brand awareness can be classified into two categories: brand recall and brand recognition.

Recognition, referring to the familiarity obtained from the past exposure such as advertising, promotions and word-of mouth, is the lowest level of awareness (Aaker, 1991, 1996). However, recognition alone is not sufficient to produce a positive consumer's reaction, hence it is called aided recall (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995).

If a consumer can recall a brand name without aid, the consumer can be said to have a high level of awareness (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995). Brand recall refers to "the consumers' ability to retrieve the brand from memory when given the product category, using the needs fulfilled by the category or some other types of probe as a cue" (Keller, 1993: 3).

‘Top-of-mind’ refers to a situation when a brand is named first in the process of recall and has an advantageous position in a consumer’s mind compared to other brands (Aaker, 1991). ‘Brand dominance’, the last level of awareness, refers to a situation when only a single brand is recalled (Aaker, 1996a, 1996b). A dominant brand is strongly competitive with other brands because consumers will not consider any other brands in buying situations (Aaker, 1991). ‘Brand knowledge’ indicates knowledge of what the brand stands for and brand opinion indicates consumer opinion about the brand (Aaker, 1996b).

In summary, brand awareness measures the accessibility of the brand in a consumer’s memory (Keller, 1993). The majority of researchers who study brand awareness adopt top-of-mind, brand recall and brand recognition as dimensions of awareness (e.g. Francois and MacLachian, 1995; Yoo and Donthu, 2001; Kim and Kim, 2005).

### **2.9.6 Brand Association**

Brand associations are closely linked to marketing programmes and other factors that affect consumer judgments when selecting a brand (Keller, 1998). To fully comprehend how consumers evaluate brands or products, the nature of the association must be understood (Supphellen, 2000). Brand associations contribute to both awareness of the brand and the brand’s image (Ross, James and Vargas, 2006). They may be regarded as one of the most important factors in creating a brand image because the brand’s image is reflected by the brand associations (Keller, 1993). Brand image through advertising, logos and symbols determines a product’s position, and successful positioning reinforces a strong brand image (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995).

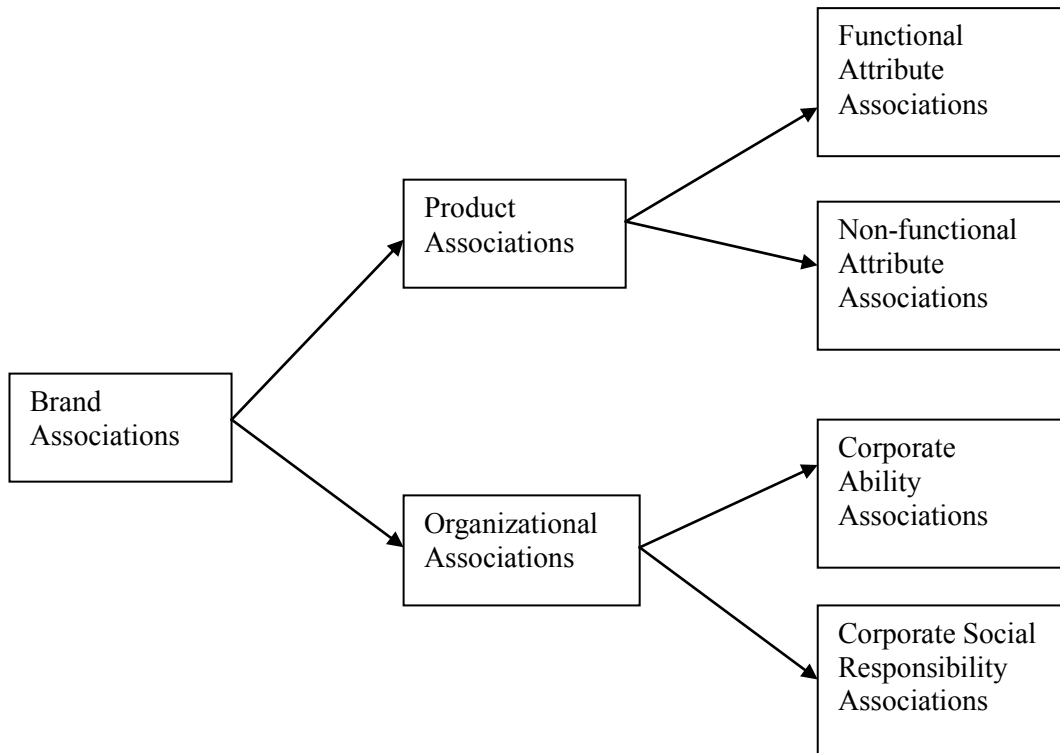
In particular, brand associations allow consumers to differentiate a specific brand from a huge number of competing brands, as well as allow a brand to enter new markets more effectively (Dean, 2004). In addition, brand associations represent the basis not only of purchase decisions but also of consumer loyalty (Ross et al., 2006). The associations help engender positive consumer emotions (Aaker, 1991). Therefore, a positive brand association can lead to a strong brand (Park, Millberg and Lawson, 1991) and ensure economic success of that brand (O’Cass and Frost, 2002).

### **2.9.6.1 Conceptualisation of Brand Association**

The basis of brand equity is the consumer's memory. Thus, the majority of cognitive psychology studies involving associative models have focused on how memory is structured (Pitta and Katsanis, 1995). Aaker's (1991) conceptualisation and Keller's framework (1993) are based on cognitive psychology and focus on the cognitive processes underlying the interaction between consumers and companies (Erdem and Swait, 1997). Aaker (1991) asserts that the fundamental value of a brand name is to give rise to associations. That is to say, brand equity is associated with a familiar brand name, which can make consumers remember the products (Aaker, 1991). Aaker (1991:109) defines brand associations as "anything linked in memory to a brand." Similarly, Keller (1993:3) defines brand associations as "the other informational nodes linked to the brand node in memory and contain the meaning of the brand for consumers." Krishnan (1996) notes that brand associations can be employed as a general term to indicate a link between any two nodes, which give rise to an association in the minds of the consumer. Pitta and Katsanis (1995: 52) state that "Nodes are stored information connected by links of varying strengths." The informational nodes contain specific details of a product, such as price, logos and brand advertising, in addition to word-of-mouth and the consumer's past experience (John, Loken, Kim and Monga, 2006). John et al. suggest that all of these pieces of information might be associated in the memory of the consumer.

Different types of brand associations may be present in a consumer's memory (Keller, 1993). Chen (2001) proposes two types of associations: product associations and organisational associations. In a previous study, Keller (1993) focuses on product associations, whereas Aaker (1996b) addresses organisational associations. Marketers should develop different branding strategies based on the various types of brand associations (Chen, 2001). Figure 2.8 shows a classification system for brand associations.

**Figure 2.8 Brand Association Model**



Source: Chen (2001: 443)

As shown in Figure 2.8, product associations are linked with the product's physical composition, functional associations (e.g. functional benefits, product's attributes) and non-functional attributes (e.g. emotional associations, symbolic associations) (Chen, 2001). Chen adds that organisational associations are divided into corporate ability associations, which relate to the company's ability to produce and deliver the product, and corporate social responsibility associations, which indicate the company's status and activities in terms of its social duties. Aaker (1991:114) lists eleven types of associations: "product attributes, intangibles, customer benefits, relative price, use/application, user/ customer, celebrity/person, lifestyle/personality, product class, competitors and country/geography." The elements of Keller's (1993) model are similar to those of Aaker. Keller (1993) identifies three types of brand associations: (1) attributes that characterise a service or product and are divided into product-related and non-product-related properties, such as price, user/usage imagery and brand personality; (2) benefits indicate the value that consumers attach to a service or product (i.e. functional benefits, experiential benefits and symbolic

benefits); and (3) attitudes resulting from the consumers' evaluation of the brand (Wilkie, 1986).

Brand associations are important to both consumers and marketers because they create value for a company and its consumers: helping consumers process and access information, providing a basis for differentiation and extension of a brand, creating positive attitude and feeling towards a specific brand and providing a special reason to buy the brand (Aaker, 1991).

In summary, brand associations are thoughts held in consumer's memory related to a special brand. Brand associations are a main component of brand image (Simms and Trott, 2006), which is made up of the different types of brand associations (Keller, 1993). Brand association can enhance brand image and brand loyalty; therefore, marketers in restaurants try to develop marketing strategies related to brand association. In particular, non-product-related associations like the name and logo of restaurant are vital factors in global brands of the restaurants, because these non-product-related associations enable consumers to recall and recognise all impressive things related with brand, such as high quality of food, interior, service and so on.

### **2.9.6.2 Measurements of Brand Association**

A number of researchers have developed scales to measure brand associations (Low and Lamb, 2000). Keller (1993) proposes three dimensions of brand associations: favourability, strength and uniqueness. Favourability depends on the extent of favourable brand evaluations by consumers; strength refers to how information is encoded and stored in the consumer's memory; and uniqueness not only act as an incentive for brand purchase but also enhances the competitive advantage of the brand (Keller, 1993).

Chen (1996) develops a consumer-based brand equity scale that reflects brand associations. The author proposes five variables: perceived quality, functional features, symbolic associations, emotional associations and innovation.



Low and Lamb (2000) empirically test a conceptualisation of brand associations. They propose brand image, brand attitudes and perceived quality as dimensions of brand associations. They justify the dimensions by explaining that (1) they are most frequently used to measure consumer's perceptions of brands, (2) they have reliable measures and (3) they have been frequently discussed in previous conceptual studies (Aaker, 1991; 1996; Keller, 1993; 1998).

Alexandris, Douka, Papadopoulos and Kaltsatou (2008) measure brand associations related to a fitness club. They use 25 items to measure eight of 16 types of brand associations developed by Gladden and Funk (2002): popularity, nostalgia, vicarious achievement, escape, logo attractiveness, management, community pride and affect. Results of their study indicate that brand associations have a strong effect on consumer loyalty and that nostalgia, escape, logo attractiveness, pride and affect contribute significantly to the prediction of loyalty.

The logo, in particular, can help build consumer-based brand equity. A familiar and distinctive logo can help improve consumers' knowledge of the brand and help them distinguish it from competitive brands (Keller, 1993). Thus, the logo enables consumers to generate associations by transmitting meanings and supporting marketing programmes (Keller, 1998).

### **2.9.7 Brand Identification**

The concept of identification has mainly been studied in the social psychology field and recently has been applied to the research area of marketing. Consumers tend to express themselves through the use of particular brands (Kim, Han and Park, 2001) and prefer the brands that can improve self-esteem. In other words, consumers can enhance their self-image with the images of the brands they choose (RÍo, Vázquez and Iglesias, 2001). Applying the concept of identification to the relationship between the brand and consumers offers valuable insights on social identity theory (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008).

### **2.9.7.1 Social Identity Theory**

Social identity theory was developed to comprehend how individuals understand themselves and others in the social context (Korte, 2007). Within social identity theory, Taifel (1978: 63) defines social identity as "... that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his (or her) knowledge of his (or her) membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership." Social identity includes two processes, namely self-categorisation and social comparison (Hogg and Abrams, 1988).

Individuals tend to categorise themselves as members of various social classifications such as gender or ethnicity, or membership of organisations (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). Therefore, self-categorisation leads people to organise their social context by formulating meaningful categories of individuals (Solnet, 2006). Individual attitude and behaviour are based on the categories to which a person belongs (Solnet, 2006). Individuals desire to have positive self-evaluation through social comparison in-group and out-group (Amiot, Terry and Callan, 2007). As individuals perceive that in-group is better than out-group, an individual's social identity is enhanced (Amiot and Bourhis, 2005). Therefore, the individual preserves a positive social identity when the difference between the in-group and the out-group is maintained (Cameron and Lalonde, 2001).

Social identification occurs when a person identifies with a specific group (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008) and perceives himself/herself in terms of the particular human group (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). This can be either the group that one is associated with or the group that one wishes to be in (Bhattacharya, Rao and Glynn, 1995). Membership of a group provides individual self-esteem and self-concept (Cameron and Lalonde, 2001). People aim to raise their self-esteem by choosing groups that possess distinctiveness and prestige (Carlson, Donovan and Cumiskey, 2008).

Social identification theory has mostly been applied to explain organisational identification (Kim, Han and Park, 2001). Organisational identification is a more specific type of social identification in which the person believes him/herself to be a member of a specific organisation (Bhattacharya et al., 1995). Organisational

identification is the cognitive connection that is made when organisational identity and a person's self contains the same attributes (Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail 1994). Some researchers have extended the concept of identification beyond the employee to the consumer (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001).

### **2.9.7.2 The Concept of Brand Identification**

Akerlof and Kranton (2000) apply the concept of identity to the field of economics. They propose that identity can explain various phenomena that current economics is unable to elucidate. According to Aaker (1996a), brand identity is a unique set of brand associations that enables the brand to establish a relationship with the consumer by forming a value proposition comprising emotional, functional or self-expressive benefits.

Social identity affects a group member's intention to participate in collective activities, and social identity with one's brand community influences the consumer's brand identification (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 2006). Hughes and Ahearne (2010:84) conceptualise brand identification as "the degree to which people define themselves by the equal attributes that they believe defines a brand."

Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) suggest that identification with a group can occur without strong ties or interaction with a group. Scotte and Lane (2000) support this view by arguing that even if individuals are not formal members of the group, they can seek out identification. This argument is based on the concept that identification is a psychological perception whereby an individual thinks of himself/herself as being associated with a special group (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008).

Brand identification is characterised by a powerful emotional connection with the brand, and it is possible for individuals to experience optimistic and positive feelings in the form of strengthened self-esteem when they identify themselves with a specific brand (Donavan, Janda and Suh, 2005). Hence, companies spend a considerable amount of money on advertising and other marketing activities to construct a

psychological link between consumers and a brand (Hughes and Ahearne, 2010).

Identification leads individuals to be psychologically connected to the specific corporation (Bhattacharya et al., 2003) and consumers who identify with the corporation have positive purchasing intentions (Wu and Tasi, 2007). Consumers who identify in this way generate positive word-of-mouth endorsement or recommendation (Wu and Tasi, 2007) and increased loyalty to the specific organisation (Adler and Adler, 1987).

However, the definition of brand identification differs from that of brand loyalty (Raj, 1985). While brand loyalty stems from positive experience with the use of a brand, brand identification is bound with the goals of a particular organisation (Bhattacharya et al., 1995). Bhattacharya et al. add that all those consumers who identify with the goal of the organisation are likely to be loyal to its brand, but all consumers who have brand loyalty are not necessarily identified with the organisation.

Brand is a symbolic source building social identity (Elliott and Wattanasuwan, 1998). That is, brand has a social identification function, which allows the consumer to belong to or to dissociate him-/herself from the groups of individuals that constitute his/her social environment (Rio, Vazquez and Iglesias, 2001). Thus, people express to others who they are through the brand which they purchase and use (Graeff, 1996). This is achieved through the process of identification with the brand, with which the consumer is satisfied. Service brands like restaurant brands have not only their functional value but also their symbolic value. Some researchers have proposed the importance of symbolic consumption in building meaningful relationships between consumers and brands (e.g. Graeff, 1996; Ekinçi et al., 2008). Therefore, the majority of people tend to choose the prestigious and distinctive restaurant that can enhance their self-esteem.

### **2.9.7.3 Measurements of Brand Identification**

Many scales for measurement of social or group identification have been developed, and the scales comprise items that measure distinct aspects of identification (Bergami

and Bagozzi, 2000). Brown, Condor, Mathews, Wade and Williams (1986) developed an instrument to study intergroup relations in a paper factory and chose awareness of group membership, evaluation and affect as three facets of identity.

Other researchers have since supported Brown et al.'s means of measuring brand identification. Bhattacharya et al. (1995) suggest that identification as a member in an organisation is associated with the characteristics of organisation and product, affiliation and activity; that the characteristics of organisation and product are related to members' perceptions of the organisation; that affiliation refers to the characteristics of a person's membership (e.g. length of membership, visibility of membership); and that activity is associated with individual's identity (Bhattacharya et al., 1995). These factors are closely connected with awareness, affect and evaluation, which form part of the process of psychological change. In line with these researchers, Ellemers, Kortekaas and Ouwerkerk (1999: 372) put forward three components of social identity: "a cognitive component (awareness of one's membership in a social group—self-categorisation), an evaluative component (a positive and negative value connotation attached to this group membership—group self-esteem), and an emotional component (a sense of emotional involvement with the group— affective commitment)."

Other researchers have incorporated these approaches as well. Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) suggest organisational identification, affective commitment and organisation-based self-esteem as components of social identity. They view that organisational identification happens through cognitive processes of categorisation. They developed two measures - a visual item and a verbal item - to measure self-categorisation. A visual item expresses how one's own identities overlap with organisation identity, and a verbal item indicates how self-image overlaps with organisation image. (Brown, Condor, Mathews, Wade and Williams, 1986).

An emotional component is also important as a component of social identity (Ellemers et al., 1999). Allen and Meyer (1990:1) define affective commitment as "emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organisation." Ellemers et al. (1999) refer to affective commitment as the desire of a member of an

organisation to remain as an organisation member. Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson and Cary (1987) suggest 'joy' and 'love' as two emotional categories for affective commitment. Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) also propose organisation-based self-esteem as an evaluative component of social identity. Pierce, Garner, Gummings and Dunham (1989) define organisation-based self-esteem as the extent to which organisational members consider their needs can be met and satisfied by taking part in roles within the organisation's context.

In contrast, Wu and Tasi (2007) propose three components (identity membership, identity similarity and identity loyalty) of identification in their study to investigate how companies control their consumers' identification. They add that identity membership relates to consumers' feelings of membership to the company they purchased from, that identity similarity is the consumers' awareness of resemblance to the company that they have chosen and that identity loyalty is consumers' loyalty to the company.

Balmer and Liao (2007) have a different perspective that regards categories of corporate brand identification as a hierarchy, divided into legalisation, realisation and actualisation. The authors explain that legalisation refers to an institutional concern such as financial, legal matters and so forth; realisation refers to an institutional concern like the symbolic and promotional management of the brand; and actualisation refers to an emotional relationship with the corporate brand.

In conclusion, according to Mael and Ashforth (1992), organization identification can be defined as a perceptual/cognitive construct in which people see themselves as psychologically entwined with the fate of the group. They propose a six-item organisation identification scale. Many researchers have adopted the scale from Mael and Ashforth's (1992) study to measure brand identification (e.g. Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Kim et al., 2001; Donovan, Janda and Suh, 2005; Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008; Stokburger-Sauer, 2011). The present research uses Kuenzel and Halliday's, (2008) scale and Mael and Ashforth's (1992) scale.

## 2.10 Summary

This chapter reviews the concept of brand equity, which has been studied by a significant number of researchers. Before studying brand equity, it is essential to consider the attributes of a brand and a product. This review has demonstrated that there are clear differences between the brand and the product. Invisible values and images are important for the brand and visible and tangible features are valuable for the product (Kapferer, 2008). Kapferer (2008) emphasises that a ‘halo effect’ stemming from a brand can affect consumers’ perception of the product. A considerable amount of the research on brands has used consumer-based, financial-based and integrated perspectives. It is worth noting that brand equity is the value added by a product or service (Aaker, 1991a). The present research deals with consumer-based brand equity. It hypothesises that the study of the consumer’s psychology regarding consumption is useful for developing marketing strategies. The academic models of Aaker (1991), Na et al. (1999) and Berry (2000) offer insights into the value and meaning of a brand from a consumer-based perspective.

In today’s world, many restaurant brands have been globalised. Adopting a global perspective is necessary for accounting purposes, marketing productivity (Keller, 1993) and brand extension strategies in international markets (Dacin and Smith, 1994). Consumer-based global brand equity (CBGBE) is composed of many dimensions, namely brand trust, brand affect, perceived quality, self-congruence, brand identification, brand awareness and brand association.

Following various empirical analyses, the relative importance of these dimensions is identified, and their contribution to CBGBE is clarified.

# CHAPTER 3



## **CHAPTER 3**

# **ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF CONSUMER-BASED GLOBAL BRAND EQUITY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

Understanding the antecedents and consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) is necessary for developing the research model. This chapter reviews both the antecedents and the consequences of CBGBE and explores the topic in three parts. The first part discusses cultural values as antecedents of CBGBE, while the second and third parts deal with brand reputation and brand loyalty as consequences of CBGBE.

### **3.2. Cultural Values as Antecedents of Global Brand Equity**

Nowadays, managers are increasingly dealing with globalised brands and companies that operate in markets across the world (Pagell, Katz and Shue, 2005). While managing a global business, it is important to take into account not only the economic and physical environments of each market (population, geography, climate, etc) but also its cultural settings (values, religion, communication, social structure, etc) (Miroshnik, 2002). Many researchers studying the concept of 'global marketing strategy' have focused on the different competitive strategies adopted by companies in different nations, with regard to branding and the concept of national culture (Porter, 1990; Rugman, 1990). Brands also function as cultural markers (Holt, 1998). Therefore, the brand meaning and brand associations stemming from a brand name may vary according to the cultural context (Sherry, 1983).

Regarded as one of the most abstract frameworks that influence human behaviour, culture has been described in numerous ways. Culture can be considered in terms of what parts and components it consists of (Baligh, 1994). In addition, culture has a significant effect on every aspect of human behaviour and it can be subtle or distinct, direct or oblique, permanent or temporary (Craig and Douglas, 2006). In marketing, cultural dimensions play a significant role in shaping the brand imagery; they help the marketer communicate more effectively with the consumers (Banerjee, 2008). Cultural values are shared in common by the consumers of a particular culture, and, through brand equity, they affect brand attitude. As brand images are emotionally involved in the local culture, consumers who belong to different cultures differently perceive the global brands (Jung and Sung, 2008).

Different cultural elements, such as language, tradition etc. between nations have become the key issue in the hospitality industry (Bowie and Buttle, 2004). Thus, they add that these cultural differences can be overcome by global marketing strategies through effective marketing communication channels.

Rapid globalisation has highlighted the fact that it is significant to have a higher level of understanding of culture (Craig and Douglas, 2006). Therefore, the following sections explore definitions of culture, cultural values, national culture versus organisational culture, Hofstede's model of cultural values, materialism as a cultural value, and measurement of cultural values.

### **3.2.1 Definitions of Culture**

Culture is the foundation of a society and has a significant effect on people's behaviours (Banerjee, 2008). Each country has a distinct set of features (Pagell et al., 2005), which gives rise to cultural differences between countries. When managers understand that cultures vary, they also understand differences between global and domestic brand management (Miroshnik, 2002). However, culture is a complex concept that it is difficult to define in words (Groeschl and Doherty, 2000).

The complexity of culture is reflected in its many definitions (Craig and Douglas, 2006). Furthermore, Hofstede (1983:77) asserts that ~~there~~ is no commonly accepted language to describe a complex thing such as a culture...In the case of culture such a scientific language does not exist.”

Anthropology has created several definitions of culture, of which the most widely accepted is perhaps the definition given by Tylor (1881 as cited in Craig and Douglas, 2006:323), who regards culture as ~~that~~ complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society”. This classical definition highlights the term man-made as the basis of culture; that is, culture comes from human activity. In addition, this definition views culture as having a shared meaning (Kashima, 2000). In psychology, culture is viewed as the characteristic way a cultural group perceives the man-made environment (Triandis, 1972). According to this view, culture determines the ways in which individuals recognise and interpret phenomena, and majority of the consumer researchers have accepted this view of culture (Craig and Douglas, 2006). While some researchers view culture as a process of meaning-making, Kashima (2000:21) proposes that ~~e~~ulture is a process of production and reproduction of meanings in particular actors’ concrete actions in particular contexts in time and space.” In sociology, Namewirth and Weber (1987:8) define culture as ~~a~~ system of ideas that provide a design for living.”

The definition of culture can be better understood through the roles of culture. Culture plays vital roles as follows in our society (Dresser and Carns, 1969):

- Communication with others using a language.
- Prediction of how others in our society are likely to respond to our actions.
- Providing standards for judgement of right or wrong, beautiful and ugly, reasonable and unreasonable etc.
- Necessary knowledge and skill.
- Identification of us with other people who also have similar background.

In the 1990s, new terms contributed by the complex structure of economics, society, and science were added to the classical definitions. Many researchers were interested

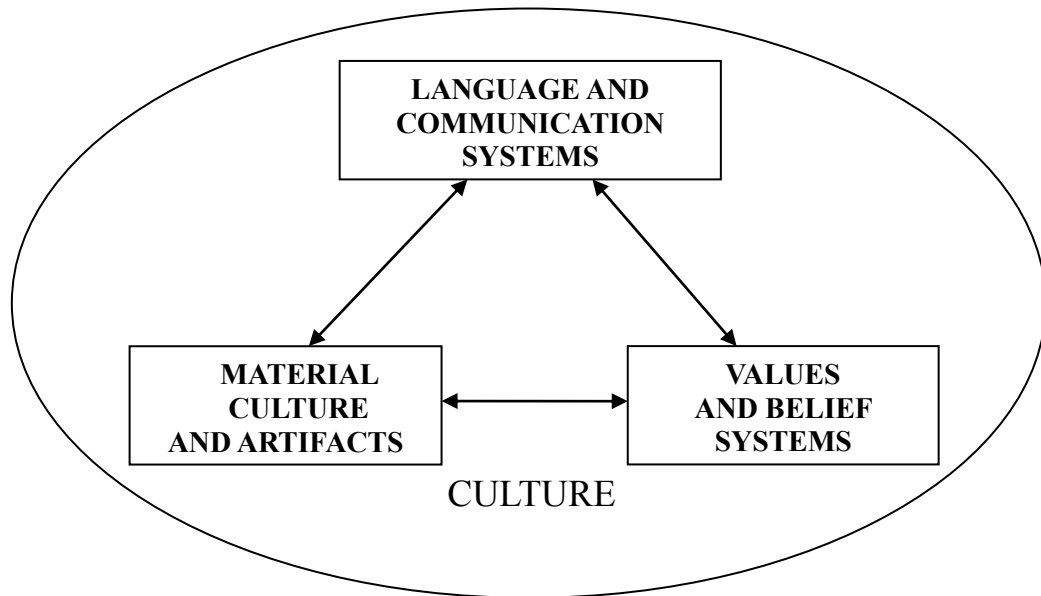
in understanding culture in more specific terms. Parts of culture have frequently been referred to and analysed, for example, social and economic systems, family, religion, education, language, communication and technology (Ferraro, 1990; Hall and Hall, 1987). Recently, a different view of culture has been proposed, which views it as a multi-layered construct existing at different levels—global, national, organisational and group—that encompass an individual (Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez and Gibson, 2005).

In summary, the concept of culture is complex, but culture refers to a way of life that includes the values, beliefs and behaviours shared by the people within a nation, group or organisation. In addition, the attitude, beliefs and behaviour of people are based on their values. In the following subsection, the concept of cultural values is discussed in more detail.

### **3.2.1.1 The Concept of Cultural Values**

Culture can be categorised into two components: abstract and material (Blackwell, Miniard and Enrgel, 2007). Blackwell et al. suggest that abstract components refer to values, ideas, attitudes, symbols and rituals. However, the material component refers to visible cultural objects that are typical in the society. This view of the components of culture was supported by Banerjee (2008) who mentioned that culture comprises a set of values, ideas, artefacts, and other meaningful symbols that assist individuals, as members of society, in communicating, interpreting and evaluating. Sojka and Tansuhai (1995) suggest three components of culture: (1) abstract—values and belief systems; (2) material—artefacts, symbols and rites; and (3) the communication bonds that unite and preserve a cultural system. Communication transmits intangible culture—values and beliefs—from one person to another or from one generation to another (Craig and Douglas, 2006). Moreover, according to Craig and Douglas (2006), the communication process is essentially dynamic and is constantly evolving. Moreover, artefacts, from religious icons to shoes or clothing, can also be expressions of intangible beliefs or values as they indicate that a member belongs to a specific culture. Figure 3.1 illustrates the components of culture.

**Figure.3.1 Components of culture**



Source: Craig and Douglas (2006: 324)

Values and belief systems are intangible elements of culture. Cultural values are considered fundamental characteristics of a culture as well as a guide for peoples' behaviours (Craig and Douglas, 2006). Cultural values are also basic determinants of how people perceive themselves and others as well how people treat one another (Banerjee, 2008). In addition, our attitudes and beliefs in relation to success, work, wealth, competition and other components of our environment are defined by our values (Banerjee, 2008).

While there exist other intangibles that impact people's behaviours and consumption patterns (e.g. norms, ideals, cultural myths), research has typically focused on identifying the values emphasised by society (Craig and Douglas, 2006). Hawkins, Best and Coney (2006) propose that the principal operational system of culture begins by marking stated borders for individual behaviour; these borders are termed as norms in a particular social context. Values and norms are considered differently in the social sciences. Basic values are gleaned from our environment during our early youth and are programmed in people's mind (Hofstede, Neuijen, Daval Ohayv and Sander, 1990). Hofstede (1984:19) explain that values differ in intensity and direction: –If we hold a value, this means that the issue involved has relevance for us (intensity) and that we identify certain outcomes as good and others as bad

(direction).” Trompenaars (1993) reports that a norm is the perception of how we should behave, whereas a value indicates how we want to behave.

The history of events that a group has experienced together gives rise to commonly shared beliefs or feelings, which become the basis of their values (Mathews, Ueno, Kekäle, Repka, Pereira and Silva, 2000). These shared beliefs or feelings are essential and fundamental for the culture of any group. As a result, culture can exist in any group consisting of members who have experienced a common history of events that are learnt and shared concurrently (Banerjee, 2008). This process can be viewed as the formation of cultural values at different levels.

In summary, values are the most fundamental elements of a culture that influence the attitudes and behaviour of people. In the market place, cultural values greatly influence the consumer’s perception of a product and brand. They are linked to the consumer’s decision-making and consumption patterns.

In the following section, national culture and organisational culture are compared and explained.

### **3.2.1.2 National Culture versus Organisational Culture**

National culture is a collective national characteristic shared by the people of a particular country (Hofstede, 1991). The three main characteristics of national culture are as follows: (1) it forms a social group’s values and behaviours; (2) it is shared among group members; and (3) it is passed from older members to younger members of the social group (Adler, 1991).

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005:18) state that:

“Nations that have existed for some time have strong tendencies towards integration: one dominant national language, mass media, a national education system, a national army, a national political system, national representation in sports events with a strong symbolic and emotional appeal, and a national market for certain skills, products and services.”

Whereas national culture has been recognised as a construct founded on a variety of elements within a nation, organisational culture can be defined as (Schein, 2004:17):

—pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.”

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) add that an organisation’s culture is embedded in the minds of its members and is reflected in organisation’s interactions with others, including consumers, suppliers, labour organisations and the press. Organisational culture has three components: (1) underlying assumptions, which are the taken-for-granted and unconscious thoughts that are the basis of values and acts; (2) espoused beliefs and values; (3) visible artefacts (Schein, 2004). Terawatanavong and Quazi (2006) observe that an organisation’s culture is based on the shared values that are reflected in the behaviour of the employers and employees.

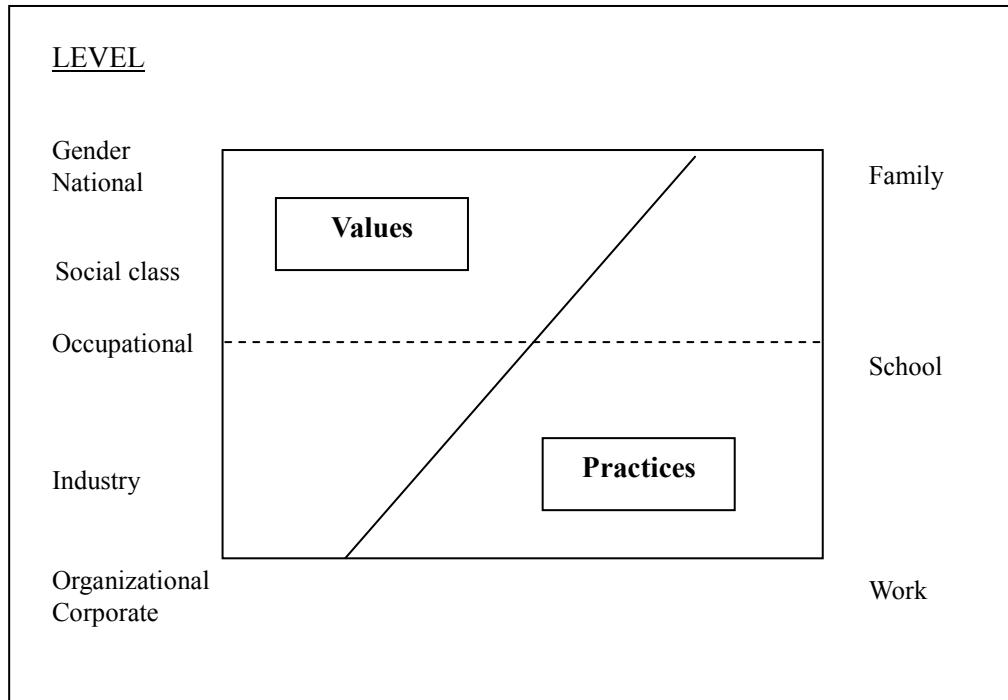
Organisational cultures differ from national cultures in many respects (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). These differences result from the different mixtures of values and practices of national and organisational cultures (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). That is, the balance of values and practices is the basis of the differences between national and organisational cultures because levels of culture can be classified differently according to this balance (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005).

—Practice” can be labelled —conventions,” —customs,” —habits,” —mores,” —traditions,” or —usages” (Hofstede et al., 1990:311). Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) suggest that the idea of practices comprises three components: (1) symbols such as language, which carry a particular meaning; (2) heroes as individuals who gain respect in the culture and are models for behaviour; and (3) rituals, such as how to greet others and a range of social and religious ceremonies.

Value systems can be examined not only at the individual level but also at the group or organisational level within society (Craig and Douglas, 2006). As shown in Figure 3.2, culture has several levels: a gender level, which is more basic than nationality; a social class level with some likelihood of mobility (ascent or descent); an

occupational level; an industry level; and an organisational level. An occupational level is placed halfway between nation and organisation.

**Figure 3.2 The Balance of Values and Practices for Various Levels of Culture**



Source: Hofstede and Hofstede (2005: 285)

Figure 3.2 shows considerable differences in values between national cultures whereas, within organisational cultures, considerable differences can be seen in practice for people who hold the same values (Hofstede et al., 1990). The authors add that this difference can be attributed to the different places where socialisation occurs for value and practices. Values are acquired from family or the neighbourhood, while practice is learnt at the work place (Hofstede et al., 1990).

In summary, the differences between national and organisational cultures can be analysed in terms of how the balance of values and practices at cultural levels mingle. Hofstede (1994) proposes that the membership of a nation is permanent while the membership of an organisation is usually partial. In addition, national culture influences differences in values, beliefs and orientations of organisations across different countries (Trompenaars, 1994; Black and Mendenhall, 1989; Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005).



The present study focuses on national culture, and adopts Hofstede and Hofstede's definition (2005) of 'national culture'. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005:284) define national culture as "part of the mental software we acquired during the first ten years of our lives, in the family, in the living environment, and at school, and they contain most of our basic values." Thus, the values, behaviours, and attitudes of a particular culture are formed by the collective 'mental software' (Morden, 1999). That is, national culture may be constituted by the components of a society within a nation.

### **3.2.2 Measurements of Cultural Values**

Because values are the steady elements of culture, the measurement of cultural values is important in a cross-cultural study. Hofstede's dimension is one of the most widely accepted cultural values by management and marketing researchers. The following section describes Hofstede's model of cultural values in greater detail.

#### **3.2.2.1 Hofstede's Model of Cultural Values**

Hofstede developed a dimensional model of cultural values to show differences between national cultures (Hofstede, 1980). He collected data from IBM employees in 66 different countries between the years 1967 and 1973. His analysis of the data revealed cultural differences among countries. He established the following cultural value dimensions: *collectivism/individualism*, *masculinity/femininity*, *power distance and uncertainty avoidance*. *Long/short-term orientation* was later added as a fifth dimension (Hofstede, 1991). Hofstede's cultural value dimensions have been used to illustrate differences between cultural groups (Kanousi, 2005). The attractive attributes of Hofstede's dimensions are that sample size and codification of country characteristics are assigned a numerical score (Furrer, Liu and Sudharshan, 2000). Therefore, these cultural dimensions are often cited in studies of culture (Focht, Maloles III, Swobida, Marschett and Sinha, 2008). Table 3.1 shows Hofstede's cultural value dimensions.

**Table 3.1 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions**

Dimension	Low	High
Individualism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social networks are the primary source of information.</li> <li>• Collective interests prevail over individual interests.</li> <li>• Opinions are predetermined by group membership.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Media is the primary source of information.</li> <li>• Everyone has the right to privacy.</li> <li>• Consumption patterns show self-supporting lifestyles.</li> </ul>
Masculinity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The roles of women and men are similar.</li> <li>• Resolution of conflicts by compromise and negotiation.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The roles of men and women are not similar.</li> </ul>
Power Distance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inequalities among people should be minimised.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inequalities among people are expected and desired.</li> </ul>
Uncertainty Avoidance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low stress and anxiety.</li> <li>• There is fast acceptance of new products and technologies, such as e-mail and the Internet.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The uncertainty inherent to life is a continuous threat that must be fought.</li> <li>• People feel less happy.</li> </ul>
Long-Term orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Efforts should produce quick results.</li> <li>• Respect for tradition.</li> <li>• Few savings, little money for investment.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Perseverance or sustained efforts towards slow results.</li> <li>• Respect for circumstances.</li> <li>• Large savings, funds available for investment.</li> </ul>

Source: Hofstede and Hofstede (2005: 39-238)

Hui and Triandis (1986) view collectivism as ‘concern’, which bonds and links with other. Thus, high concern is typical of collectivism. Collectivists regard themselves as members of groups and highlight ‘we’ over ‘I’ (Yoo and Donthu, 2002). Therefore, collectivists value the group’s opinion and harmony with in-group members. In a collectivistic society, the behaviour of a consumer is likely to depend on others, that is, people are more likely to want social approval (Jung and Sung, 2008). In contrast, individualists emphasise self-concept, free-will, and personal achievement (Yoo and Donthu, 2002). Therefore, in an individualistic culture, people are less likely to be pressured to buy brands that are not self-expressive (Foscht et al., 2008).

The masculinity dimension refers to the dominant sex role patterns (Hofstede, 1980), and different countries have different gender roles (Pagell et al., 2005). In masculine cultures, it is common to stress power, ambition, competition, and success; in contrast, countries that have higher degrees of femininity emphasise teamwork, sacrifice, and helpfulness (Hofstede, 1980).

Inequalities exist in areas such as wealth, prestige, and law. Power distance measures how a particular society copes with inequalities (Hofstede, 1994). Even though both high and low power distance societies have hierarchical power relationships, these relationships can be accepted differently (Pagell et al., 2005). In high power distance societies, people look for guidance and direction from their superiors, and less powerful people can endure the fact that other members are more powerful (Jung and Su, 2008). In a low power distance culture, a partner is prone to be involved more willingly in decision-making processes (Kale and McIntyre, 1991).

Although uncertainty is universal, it is not equally stressful for all people or societies (Hofstede, Jonker and Verwaart, 2008). Uncertainty avoidance measures the degree to which countries or people regard certainty as important (Pagell et al., 2005). Cultures that practice intensive rituals and beliefs in order to deal with unpredictability are termed uncertainty avoiding (Hofstede et al., 2008). People with strong uncertainty avoidance believe that standards and norms are important for predicting the actions of others (Vitell, Nwachukwu and Barnes, 1993). For example, people in strong uncertainty avoidance countries tend to prefer restaurants with suitable standards, whereby they can avoid uncertainty when choosing a place to eat.

Long-term orientation is the degree to which a society presents a future-oriented viewpoint (Hofstede, 1980). On Hofstede's (2005) long-term orientation index, a high score indicates persistence, thrift, and having a sense of shame, whereas a low score indicates reciprocation of greeting, personal steadiness, and stability.

Overall, Hofstede's cultural framework combines many important cultural concepts (Chandy and Williams, 1994). Therefore, the cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) have been adopted in a substantial amount of research. By using Hofstede's cultural measure, researchers can find meaningful relationships between a culture and the perceptions of its people as well as important demographic, economic, and political indicators of society (Kale and Barnes, 1992).

Although many researchers have used Hofstede's framework, the dimensions in this framework may be criticised for several reasons: First, the employees of IBM who were participants in the survey were mostly male; hence more differences were likely to exist between men and women than with regard to nationality (Horton, Rose and Blodgett, 2001). Second, the data obtained from the survey were collected more than 20 years ago (Fernandez, Carlson, Stepina and Nicholson, 1997).

Importantly, although there are criticisms of Hofstede's measure, the measure can explain many culture differences, and such a measure can be useful in order to estimate cultural differences regarding service quality (Donthu and Yoo, 1998). Moreover, Hofstede's framework has offered a foundation for research on cross-cultural marketing (Blodgett et al., 2008). Merritt (2000) has reconfirmed the construct validity of Hofstede's dimensions in his research. Many recent studies continue to cite Hofstede's original dimensions of national culture in decision-making research (Pagell et al., 2005).

Therefore, the present research adopts Hofstede's cultural dimensions in order to examine the influence of culture on differences in perception of CBGBE between British and South Korean consumers.

### **3.2.2.2 Materialism as a cultural value**

In addition to Hofstede's cultural dimensions, materialism has been adopted as a cultural dimension in the present research because materialism is a useful variable for comparing cultures (Richins and Dawson, 1992).

In modern society, the dominance of consumption is a worldwide trend. Products play a vital role in culture, and possessions are essential to people's lives and identities (Richins and Dawson, 1992). The attitudes and values focusing on possession can be thought of as materialism (Browne and Kaldenberg, 1997). Hence, materialists believe possession is the greatest source of satisfaction.

Materialism is described as "a mind-set...an interest in getting and spending" (Rassuli and Hollander, 1986:10). Richins and Dawson (1992) propose three themes that have appeared consistently in materialism research: first, materialists emphasise possessions and acquisition; second, materialists believe that possessions and their acquisition are essential for happiness; and finally, materialists use possessions and acquisition to judge success.

Materialism is a value (Richins and Dawson, 1992), something that guides attitudes, actions, and judgements and allows people to compare specific objects and situations (Rokeach, 1973). When defining materialism as a value, we see that materialism reflects the fact that the source of happiness is possession (Belk, 1984), and possessions and their acquisition are more important than other activities and matters. Consequently, many researchers who have explored materialism at a cultural level have adopted materialism as a value concept.

### **3.2.2.3. Measurements of Cultural Values**

Many scholars have recently attempted to concretise the concept of culture, comparing countries by means of measurements (Mooij and Hofstede, 2002). Table 3.2 represents the measurements of cultures used in marketing with relation to brand.

**Table 3.2 Measurements of Cultural Values**

Researcher	Dimensions of Cultural Values	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Richins and Dawson (1992)	Materialism		5-point likert-type scale	Exploratory factor analysis Reliability (coefficient alpha, test-retest reliability) Confirmatory factor analysis Descriptive statistics	Materialism can be regarded as a value and considered to be a set of centrally held beliefs about the importance of possessions.
Furrer, Liu and Sudharshan (2000)	Power distance Individualism/Collectivism Masculinity/femininity Long-term orientation	Retail banking services	7-point likert-type scale	Correlation  Cluster analysis	Perceived quality of service varies according to cultural groups. The authors show that Hofstede's dimensions of cultural values are related to the importance of the SERVQUAL scale dimensions.
You and Donthu (2002)	Collectivism Uncertainty avoidance Masculinity Power distance Confucian dynamism	Under graduate students	5-point likert-type scale	Descriptive statistics Confirmatory factor analysis Cronbach's Alpha	Students' level of marketing ethics is in relation to formal and informal education and cultural values.

Researcher	Dimensions of Cultural Values	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Stedham and Yamamura (2004)	Power distance Individualism/ Collectivism Masculinity/ femininity			t-Test Mean comparisons Pearson correlations	Gender differences are revealed in power distance in Japan and in individualism/collectivism in Japan and theUSA. Gender differences in masculinity/femininity are not found in either country.
Tai (2004)	Power distance Individualism Masculinity/ femininity Uncertainty avoidance Long-term orientation Realism/idealism, Materialism	Advertising between USA and Hong Kong	6-point interval scale	Multiple regression Chi-square test Simple correlation	Transformational advertising is positively associated with collectivism and long-term orientation, whereas informational advertising is positively related to realism. However, the other four variables are not significantly connected with the advertising message strategy used.
Kanousi (2005)	Power distance Individualism/ Collectivism Masculinity/ femininity Long-term orientation		7-point likert type scale	Descriptives and reliability Multiple regression	Individualism, masculinity and long-term orientation dimensions influence the expectation of service recovery.

Researcher	Dimensions of Cultural Values	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Sangkhawasi and Johri (2007)	Materialism (luxury, display, money-oriented, material-oriented, leading concern, value regard)	Perceived status of car product (Mercedes Benz)	5-point likert type scale	Correlation	The results of the research indicated that the correlations between materialism and perceived status of MB were significant and positive. Therefore, status products can satisfy a materialist's mind and thus increase the sense of materialism.
Foscht et al. (2008)	Individualism Collectivism Power distance Masculinity/ femininity Performance-orientation	Energy Drink Brand (Red Bull)	7-point likert-type scale	Discriminant analysis	This study shows that a same brand can be recognised differently in different cultures; thus, it is necessary to highlight the common characteristic of the goods.
Jung, Su, Baeza and Hong (2008)	Power distance Individualism Masculinity Uncertainty avoidance Long-term orientation	Consumer electronics Construction Plant equipment Engineering Consulting service industries	5-point likert-type scale	Mean and standard deviation scores Factor analysis Regression analysis	The total quality management practices are affected by power distance, long-term orientation and individualism.



Researcher	Dimensions of Cultural Values	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Yoo (2009)	Collectivism-individualism	Shoe brands (Puma, Reebok, Adidas, Nike)	5-point scale	ANOVA MANOVA	Collectivistic orientations had an impact on brand equity and loyalty toward brand.
Gong (2009)	Low-context cultures High-context cultures Monochronic cultures Polychronic cultures Uncertainty avoidance	B2C e-commerce		t-Test, Non-parametric correlation analysis	High-context cultures, polychronic cultures and uncertainty avoidance are helpful for B2C e-commerce adoption and diffusion.

As indicated in Table 3.2, many management and marketing scholars have used Hofstede's study in their research (Sodergaard, 1994). Furrer et al. (2000), You and Donthu (2002) and Kanousi (2005) employ five of Hofstede's cultural dimensions, namely, individualism/collectivism, power distance, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation for their research in the service context. In particular, You and Donthu (2002) investigate college students' marketing ethics. They employ 26-item scale developed to measure Hofstede's cultural dimension. Stedham and Yamamura (2004) use Hofstede's (1980) model of cultural values to investigate gender differences on the basis of culture. They conclude that gender differences in masculinity/femininity are not found in Japan and the USA. Thus, the researchers point out that Hofstede's framework may need to be revised in order to explain gender-based differences in culture.

Foscht et al. (2008) propose the performance orientation dimension as a cultural value dimension. Performance orientation concerns people's success and material things; thus, in countries with high performance orientation, people work to live, and success is the only factor considered, whereas in countries with low performance orientation, people live to work (Foscht et al., 2008). In fact, performance orientation is also known as achievement orientation or masculinity (Hofstede and Pedersen, 1999). However, Foscht et al. view the performance orientation dimension as different from the masculinity dimension.

Ger and Belk (1996) found, in their empirical study, that perception of materialism is different across nationalities. Thus some researchers propose materialism as a cultural dimension (e.g. Tai, 2004; Sangkhawasi and Johri, 2007). In Tai's research, materialism is the idea that being affluent and rich is the emphasis in life (Hong, Muderrisoglu and Zinkham, 1987). Sangkhawasi and Johri (2007) emphasise that status brand strategies encourage materialism at an acceptable level. In addition, the characteristics of the brand, such as symbolic meaning, emotional appeal, and quality have a strong impact on materialists because consumers may associate these brand characteristics with self-congruence or brand association.

Many researchers have mentioned a variety of materialism measures, but none of these measures have commonly accepted standards (Richins and Dawson, 1992). However, the measures of Richins and Dawson (1992) are often founded in the literature (Xu, 2008;

Browne and Kaldenberg, 1997; Ferle and Chan, 2008), and Richins and Dawson's study states that in order to determine the appropriate measurement approach for materialism, it is necessary to investigate the nature of the construct itself. On the basis of the conceptualisation of materialism, Richins and Dawson developed three dimensions, namely, success, centrality, and happiness, and included 18 items. However, the authors recommend using 15 items instead of 18. Similarly, Gu and Hong (2009) employ acquisition centrality, novelty seeking, and susceptibility to social influence as dimensions of materialism.

Hall (1976) proposes low/high context, monochromic/polychromic cultural classifications. Context is defined as the way individuals and their society seek information and knowledge (Gong, 2009). People in high context cultures obtain information from personal information networks. In contrast, people in low context cultures obtain information from reports, databases, and the Internet (Morden, 1999). Hall (1976) mentions that high context cultures emphasise collective goals and needs and make 'us-them' categories; whereas low context cultures emphasise individual goals and needs and accept individuals' uniqueness. High context cultures and low context cultures correspond with a collectivist society and an individual society, respectively (Hofstede, 2001). Hall (1976) also distinguishes between monochromic cultures and polychromic cultures on the basis of a culture's attitude towards time. Monochromic cultures are associated with low context cultures, and polychromic cultures are related to high context cultures (Kotable and Helsen, 2001).

In conclusion, a greater variety of cultures have formed in today's world than ever before due to the social diversification arising from industrialised and materialism-oriented societies. In particular, service in the restaurant industry has unique and distinctive traits. Therefore, it is worth researching culture in terms of service and developing cultural dimensions with regard to the restaurant industry in the context of globalisation.

For cultural research, Tai (2004) highlights the consideration of valid culture models. Notably, using proper dimensions for analysis is necessary because culture varies according to nationality and additional factors. Although Hofstede's (2005) cultural dimensions have some limitations, they have been widely adopted by many scholars. In addition, it is accepted that materialism has become a cultural value that is significant enough to be central to today's society. Thus, You and Donthu's (2002) and Jung et al.'s (2008) scales,

based on Hofstede's (2005) dimensions, and Richins and Dawson's (1992) materialism scales can be adopted for the present research.

In the following section, the consequences of brand equity in the restaurant industry will be analysed.

### **3.3 Brand Reputation as a Consequence of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity**

This part of the chapter examines brand reputation, which is one of the outcomes of brand equity. The first section defines brand reputation, on the basis of previous research. The second section clarifies the differences between brand reputation and brand image by comparing the two concepts. Brand reputation as perceived by the consumer and the company is discussed in the third section. Finally, the fourth section explains how brand reputation can be measured for an empirical study.

#### **3.3.1 Brand Reputation**

Both scholars and practitioners agree that the importance of brand reputation has increased in recent years (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009), and a number of research studies have been conducted in this field (e.g. Abimbola and Vallaster, 2007; Andreassen, 1994; Fan, 2010). Reputation is a valuable intangible asset for a company (Carvana, 1997) because it plays an important role in consumer purchase decisions (Omar et al., 2009). This is particularly true in the service sector given the intangible character of a service and the difficulty in evaluating its quality without experience (Herbig and Milewicz, 1995). A good brand reputation helps customers reduce their risk in choosing a service (Fombrun and Rindova, 1998).

In general, the terms 'brand reputation' and 'corporate (company) reputation' are used interchangeably because "the name of the company is often the brand name" (Berry, Izkowitz and Clark, 1988:28). Berry argues that "the company becomes the primary brand

rather than the product.” In line with this argument, the present study also uses the term brand reputation to refer to corporate (company) reputation.

### **3.3.1.1 Definitions of Brand Reputation**

Every brand name carries a symbolic meaning that helps the consumer make a purchasing decision (Milewicz and Herbig 1994). A brand name is often the package for a company’s reputation: high performance level of one product is commonly transferred to another product through the brand name (Moorthy, 1985). Thus, brand reputation is defined as the perception of the quality in relation to the brand name (Aaker and Keller, 1990).

Despite the growing research in this field, the concept of brand reputation is still ambiguous because of the conflicting, and overlapping definitions (Chun, 2005). Although reputation has been studied within various disciplines such as sociology, psychology, economics, business strategy and marketing, fragmented research efforts and the lack of a multidisciplinary approach have led to difficulties in defining brand reputation (Smaiziene and Jucevicius, 2009).

In the field of sociology, researchers focus on the collective nature of reputation (Einwiller, 2001). This perspective highlights the social facet of reputation that is evident as a result of a social network in which information about a brand is transmitted to others via various media or by word-of-mouth (Granovetter, 1985). This view is supported by the belief that reputation is the shared perception of the public and is constructed or destroyed by them (Einwiller, 2001).

In psychology, reputation is a method for evaluating risk that consumers use while interacting with a firm (Dalton and Croft, 2003). That is to say, reputation allows consumers to anticipate the future behaviour of the firm, and therefore plays an important role in the purchase decision (Smaiziene and Jucevicius, 2009). In economics, reputation is viewed as an indicator of a firm’s possible action and behaviour towards consumers in the market (Fomburn and van Riel, 1997). Within the discipline of business strategy, reputation is a

distinguishing intangible asset that is difficult to copy (Mahon, 2002) and hence has an impact on company competitiveness (Grant, 1998).

In the field of marketing, researchers view reputation not only as a power that attracts consumers and prompts them to develop loyalty, but also as a factor that impacts the selling–buying process (Smaiziene and Jucevicius, 2009). Marketing researchers also believe that reputation is related to attitudes and beliefs (Andreassen, 1994). “Attitudes are feelings and beliefs that people develop about objects, events, people and issues over a lifetime through learning and experientially interacting with people and the environment” (Wright, 2006:256). Wright (2006) argues that as feelings become stronger, a belief can become an attitude and attitudes involve longevity and generalisation. Interestingly, this view of attitudes is consistent with the concept of reputation. Schwaiger (2004) describes reputation as being concerned with attitudes and defines affect (emotion) and cognition (beliefs) as components that conceptualise reputation. Consumers form beliefs about a brand on the basis of the knowledge and information obtained from their direct or indirect experiences and their feelings towards brand that shapes their attitude (Wright, 2006). Therefore, “a brand’s reputation refers to the attitude of consumers that the brand is good and reliable” (Afzal et al., 2010:45).

Varying perspectives on brand reputation have made it difficult to arrive at a consensus with regard to the definition. However, in an attempt to find an integrative definition, researchers have identified four elements that are common to most definitions (Omar, Williams and Lingelbach, 2009): (1) company’s fame - good or bad (Brown, 1995); (2) past actions (Weigelt and Camerer, 1988); (3) net effective or emotional reactions (Fombrun, 1996); and (4) information cues (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990).

In addition, there are some keywords that can be found in the definitions of reputation (Smaiziene and Jucevicius, 2009): socio-cognitive nature, collectivity, esteem, reliability and trustworthiness, and evaluation formed over a period of time. On the basis of the above keywords and elements, researchers have proposed comprehensive definitions of reputation. According to Herbig and Milewicz (1995:5), “reputation is an aggregate composite of all previous transactions over the life of the entity, a historical notion, and requires consistency of an entity’s actions over prolonged times.” Gotsi and Wilson (2001:25) define reputation

as “a stakeholder’s overall evaluation of a company over time.” This evaluation depends on the stakeholder’s direct experiences with the company (Gotsi and Wilson, 2001).

In summary, brand reputation has multiple definitions, which reflect the different perspectives on the concept. Nonetheless, some scholars have offered comprehensive definitions, and the most widely used among those is Fombrun’s definition (1996:72): “a perception representation of a company’s past actions and future prospects that describes the firm’s overall appeal to all of its key constituents when compared with other leading rivals.” The definition of brand reputation becomes much clearer through a comparison with brand image.

### 3.3.1.2 Distinction between Reputation and Image

It is essential to differentiate between brand reputation and brand image. Sometimes reputation and image are used interchangeably (Dowling, 1994), which can cause confusion (Markwick and Fill, 1977). However, the two constructs have distinct features. Table 3.3 summarizes differences between reputation and image.

**Table 3.3 Distinction between Reputation and Image**

	Reputation	Image
Duration of Establishment	Long-term duration	Short-term duration
Change	Stable and enduring	Changes frequently
Emanating from inside or outside the firm	Inside and outside	Inside
Represents	Evaluations aggregated	Individual’s impression
Relation	Related to self-esteem and favourability towards the company	Related to the brand
Targets	Consumers, investors, employees, partners, business communities, and so on.	Consumers

Source: Adapted from Jackson (2004); Cornelissen (2004); Walker (2010); Weiss, Anderson and Maclniss (1999)

As shown in Table 3.3, one of the important differences between reputation and image is time (Walker, 2010). Many researchers suggest that brand image can be created in a short time, whereas reputation takes much more time to construct (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Jackson, 2004; Cornelissen, 2004). Therefore, reputation is enduring and stable but image may change often (Walker, 2010). This is because reputation is based on experience. Consumers can form an image of a brand without having experienced it (Chun, 2005), whereas reputation can only be built through direct or indirect experiences (Selnes, 1993; Andreassen, 1994; Gotsi and Wilson, 2000).

Consumers decide their behaviour on the basis of attitudes, which can be associated with their beliefs about the attributes and benefits of the brand (Keller, 1993). An attitude or belief toward a brand relies on previous experience (Andreassen, 1994). Consumers cannot obtain information on certain products or services without experiencing them (Caruana, 1997). Typically, consumers who do not have any, or enough, experience depend on the brand's reputation to form their attitudes and beliefs towards the brand (Andreassen, 1994).

Another major difference between the two terms is that one is associated with an aggregated evaluation while the other with individual impression. Einwiller (2001) argues that in contrast to the brand image, which exists in the memory of each individual, reputation represents the social/collective evaluation of the firm. This view is supported by Cornelissen (2004), who states that image is a sudden impression emerging out of an individual's mind in response to a signal from the firm, but reputation is many evaluations aggregated over a long period of time.

Moreover, according to Jackson (2004), the targets of reputation and image are different: whereas image has only the consumer as a target, reputation targets consumers, investors, business partners, employees, and others. As they have different targets, companies adopt different marketing decisions and actions to create and manage their reputation and image (Smaiziene and Jucevicius, 2009). In other definitions of reputation, researchers focus on keywords such as esteem and favourability (Weiss et al., 1999; Sage, 2002).

As explained above, reputation and image are different concepts. Brand image reflects associations linked to a brand, logo, symbol, name or trademark of a company (Fillis, 2003).



On the other hand, reputation is a collective estimation of the trustworthiness and integrity of a company based on its past actions (Fombrun and van Riel, 1997). As can be seen by comparing brand reputation and brand image, in terms of long-term benefit for the company, brand reputation has a stronger impact than brand image. The following section discusses the role of brand reputation in greater detail.

### **3.3.1.3 The Role of Brand Reputation**

Reputation has been accepted as one of the main factors driving the management performance of a company (Key, 1995). It is necessary to examine the role of reputation from the perspective of both the consumers and the company.

Many researchers suggest that for consumers, reputation is a signal of trust (Šmaižienė, 2008). Reputation is seen as credibility, trustworthiness and honesty, acquired from a consumer's past experience with a product or service (Afzal et al., 2010). Thus, reputation becomes a tool for attracting and maintaining consumers (Šmaižienė, 2008). Moreover, consumers tend to believe that products or services with a good reputation have better quality (Dowling, 1994). They anticipate that the more positive the reputation, the better the brand's ability to meet their expectations (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2008). Therefore, consumers are willing to pay a premium price for a brand with reputation (Preece, Fleisher and Toccacelli, 1995; Fombrun and Van Riel, 1997)

In addition, reputation has been studied particularly in the area of global marketing; and reputation may be evaluated in terms of the outcomes of the firm's promise and its fulfilment of that promise (Flavián and Guinalú, 2007). In business strategy literature, the role of reputation as a tool assessing risk is emphasized (Šmaižienė, 2008). Reputation acts as a substitute for guarantor (Ferris, Blass, Douglas, Kolodinsky and Treadway, 2003). Reputation acts as safeguard against deficient information, thus positive reputation that expresses a low level of risk stimulates buying decisions (Šmaižienė, 2008). Consumers depend on reputation for evaluating the firm's trustworthiness and estimating their risk level as well as decision to buy in the absence of comprehensive information about a company (Šmaižienė, 2008). Saxton (1998) explains that brand reputation brings about expectations

about the crucial attributes of a company and the company's future behaviour. Therefore, brand reputation has an impact on the consumers' perceptions of a company's ability to convey satisfaction to its consumers (Fombrun and Van Riel, 1997).

In contrast, from a company's point of view, the chief of company considers reputation as a significant intangible asset that provides a company with a continuous positioning benefit (Hall, 1992). It enables stakeholders to anticipate the company's future outcomes (Weigelt and Comerer, 1988, cited in Chernatony, 1999), and helps consumers choose between many seemingly similar brands (Dowling, 1994). More importantly, reputation is related to a company's brand extension (Keller, 2003). Consumers who are already familiar with other brands or products of a company are likely to accept new products easily. In addition, reputation influences the company's power to draw better investors (Milgrom and Roberts, 1986) as well as acting as a bar against imitation (Fombrun, Garderg and Sever, 2000)

In conclusion, a good reputation is beneficial to both the consumer and the company. The reputation of a product or service influences the consumers' purchasing decision process (Cretu and Brodie, 2007). In other words, it encourages purchase by simplifying the decision regulation (Andreassen, 1994). Moreover, it ensures higher consumer retention (Preece et al., 1995) and increases repurchases. For a company, its brand reputation contributes to its financial results (Šmaižienė, 2008). For example, in the restaurant industry, brand reputation is very important. This is mainly because the services of a restaurant, such as food quality (e.g. Dutta, Venkatesh and Parsa, 2007; Kivela, Inbakaran and Reece, 1999; Soriano, 2002), staff behaviour and physical quality (Ekinci, 2001) are intangible and cannot be evaluated exactly before experiencing (Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001). Therefore, when choosing a restaurant, consumers tend to depend on the service provider's reputation.

#### **3.3.1.4 Measurements of Brand Reputation**

Researchers have tried to identify measures of reputation that capture the true nature of the reputation (Chetthamrongchai, 2010). It has been assessed using two indicators reflecting the company's overall reputation (Shapiro, 1983, Zeithaml, 1988). The first item evaluates the absolute level of reputation (positive-negative) and the second item evaluates the

relative reputation, estimated in relation to the company's competitors.

According to Caruana (1997), reputation can be seen to have two components: an overall impression component and an object-specific component. The researcher explains that the overall impression component exists at a corporate level or when the corporate name is used as a brand. Similarly, Sullivan (1998) proposes that overall impression is common to all products that share the same brand name and refers to those quality features that are not specific to individual products; whereas the product-specific component indicates attributes that can be recognized as belonging to one product or another.

Fomburn, Gardberg, and Sever, (2000) devised the RQ (reputation quotient) model to measure brand reputation. In the RQ model, reputation is defined as the collective perceptions of diverse stakeholders about a firm's performance. Moreover because company performance is a multi-dimensional construct, reputation is also expected to be multi-dimensional (Fomburn et al, 2000). The authors developed a scale of reputation through a five-step process: define construct, design scale, pilot test, administer scale & analysis items, and validation & norming. They proposed that reputation is composed of two factors: emotional appeal (the first factor) and rational appeal (the other five factors: product and service; vision and leadership; workplace environment; social and environmental responsibility; and financial performance).

Commonly, the RQ model is compared with the Corporate Character Scale (CCS) proposed by Davies, Chun, Da Silva and Roper, (2003). As CCS was validated among consumers and employees, a comparison between the two perspectives and the identification of any gaps between them is possible (Chetthamrongchai, 2010). Davies et al. (2003) emphasise that CCS relies on the personification metaphor of 'company as person' to measure corporate reputation. The five main dimensions under CCS are agreeableness, competence, enterprise, chic, and ruthlessness, which reflect people's descriptions of a company brand (Davies et al. 2003). Veloutsou and Moutinho (2008) used two other constructs to measure the long-term brand reputation in their study: brand reputation and sustainable image. Table 3.4 shows some of the strategies for measuring corporate reputation.

**Table 3.4 Measurements of Brand Reputation**

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Reputation	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Selnes (1993)	Absolute level of reputation Relative reputation	Life insurance Telephone company Business college Salmon feed supplier		Maximum likelihood LISREL VII	Result of research shows that brand reputation has a strong effect on loyalty, and satisfaction only has an effect on loyalty as customers can assess product quality through their direct experience. Moreover, as perceived quality and brand reputation are correlated and affect loyalty, they are the drivers of satisfaction and loyalty.
Andreassen (1994)		Public sector (public services)	6-point likert scale	Factor analysis Regression analysis	Reputation is correlated with satisfaction and loyalty. Improving consumers' perception about service quality, special management of customer voice and government's reputation have an impact on consumer satisfaction and loyalty.
Caruana (1997)		Beverage firm	5-point likert scale	Exploratory factor analysis Cronbach's alpha	Through the four focus groups and the survey, a 14-item scale is determined.

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Reputation	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Fomburn et al. (2000)	Emotional appeal Products and service Vision and leadership Workplace environment Social and environmental responsibility Financial performance	Publicly traded firms		Factor analysis Cronbach's alpha	The Reputation Quotient <sup>SM</sup> is developed, which is a valid and reliable measure for evaluating the company's reputation.
Cretu and Brodie (2007)		Hair salons	10-point likert scale	Cronbach's alpha Confirmatory factor analysis Structural equation modeling using LISREL	The brand image specifically affects the consumers' perceptions of product and service quality whereas the company's reputation widely influences perceptions of customer value and customer loyalty.
Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009)	Long- term brand reputation (brand reputation, sustainable image)	A mix of undergraduate and part-time MBA students in Scotland	5-point likert Type scale	Descriptive statistics Cronbach's alpha Stepwise linear regression analysis	Brand tribalism is more useful than brand reputation when building up consumer-brand relationships.

The present research uses two constructs to measure the long-term brand reputation developed by Veloutsou and Moutinho (2008). In order to assess the relationship between objects accurately, scale development needs to be based on the characteristic traits of the object, since the scale may yield the different results. Traditionally, the main measure of reputation has revolved around financial aspects; however, many researchers including Fombrun et al. (2000) and Davies et al. (2003) have favoured the use of an ‘emotional appeal’ factor (Chetthamrongchai, 2010).

### **3.4 Brand Loyalty as a Consequence of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity**

This part deals with brand loyalty, which is one of the consequences of brand equity. The first section presents a comprehensive overview of brand loyalty. The second section provides insights into the importance of brand loyalty; that is, it investigates the characteristic traits. The third section reviews three definitions of brand loyalty that need further exploration, not only in order to understand them in-depth, but also to adopt one of them for the current study. The fourth section examines in detail which measurements of brand loyalty correspond with which given concepts.

#### **3.4.1 Brand Loyalty**

Nowadays, managers are concerned with gaining an enhanced understanding of the relationship between brand equity and brand loyalty (Taylor et al., 2004). Loyalty is one of the consequences of brand equity (Ross, 2006) and the most widely accepted and generally applicable outcome (Alexandris et al., 2008).

If a brand satisfies its consumer, he or she will show loyalty by repurchasing (Selnes, 1993). Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) argue that loyalty is related to a variety of factors; one of

the major factors is the experience of use. In particular, service products tend to depend on a prior purchase or experience (Paswan Spears and Ganesh, 2007).

When designed brands fit a consumer's personality or self-image, or when the consumer pursues satisfaction through the unique benefits that are provided by the brand, brand loyalty grows (Quester and Lim, 2003). Quester and Lim emphasise that personal attachment occurs towards the brand in both cases.

Since loyal consumers are assets of brand equity, the company can reduce the marketing cost by doing business with the loyal customers. Keeping customers loyal is advantageous for the company. A company can improve customer loyalty through differentiated brand marketing strategies such as brand extension and market penetration (Rundle-Thiele and Bennett, 2001).

In light of the above, practitioners and academics regard brand loyalty as an important strategy for a company's survival (Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004). In the restaurant industry, for example, the ultimate marketer's goal in brand-relationship development is to lead a customer to loyalty towards the brand in the competitive environment of the restaurant industry. Developing a brand with strong brand equity that comes from great confidence is a major prerequisite for drawing brand-loyal consumers (Lassar et al., 1995). In line with this, in the present research brand loyalty is considered as an important consequence of brand equity. The following section presents the importance of brand loyalty.

### **3.4.2 Why is Brand Loyalty Important?**

In today's competitive marketing environment, most companies understand that obtaining and retaining brand loyalty from consumers is critical for the survival of a company. Hence, most companies develop marketing strategies to attract loyal consumers. The advantages of brand loyalty are as follows:

- ***Continued profit:*** The benefits of brand loyalty are long-term and cumulative; thus, when

a consumer maintains loyalty for a long time, the company can realise a profit from that single consumer (Reichheld, 1996).

- **Reduced marketing costs:** Companies invest money in marketing to attract new consumers, but these costs are eliminated or minimised for loyal consumers (Reichheld, 1996).

- **Reduced uncertainty:** New consumers tend to delay their buying decisions when the purchase is uncertain. However, if existing consumers have loyalty to a brand, it can reduce the uncertainty that new consumers feel (Aaker, 1991).

- **Provides a competitive advantage:** Brand loyalty assists consumers to resist the strategies of competitive brands (Dick and Basu, 1994). Brand loyalty provides companies with some protection from competition; hence, companies can obtain a sustainable competitive advantage (Gounaris and Stathakopolous, 2004). Moreover, a company can retain a price differentiation over a competing company because of its product's ability to meet the consumer's needs (Reichheld, 1996).

- **Increased price premiums:** When a brand has a unique value that cannot be found in other brands, brand loyal consumers are willing to pay more for the brand, and a simple discount is less likely to attract loyal consumers (Reichheld, 1996).

- **Increase per-customer revenue growth:** Consumer expenditure tends to increase over time. For example, consumers who repeatedly purchase the same company's product become more familiar with the company's full product line, and they will be likely to try other product lines in the same company (Reichheld, 1996).

- **Decreased operating costs:** It costs less to serve loyal consumers who are familiar with a company's products and services because such consumers depend less on the company's employees for information and help (Reichheld, 1996).

- **Leads to positive word of mouth:** Loyal consumers make positive word-of-mouth and recommend the brand to others (Dick and Basu, 1994).



As a result of loyalty, firms can secure premium prices, continuous profit and a greater market share. In the case of the restaurant industry, restaurants try to obtain and maintain brand loyalty from consumers, as it is easier to serve loyal consumers than non-loyal ones (Tepeci, 1999). In the following section, the definition of brand loyalty will be discussed from three perspectives through a review of previous literature.

### **3.4.3 Definitions of Brand Loyalty**

In marketing literature, many researchers agree that brand loyalty is a complex construct. Hence, the definition of brand loyalty is not sufficiently comprehensive or consistent (Javalgi and Moberg, 1997).

Two approaches to the construct of brand loyalty are the behavioural approach and the attitudinal approach. –Behaviour approach is concerned with a consistent purchase behaviour of a specific brand over time and attitudinal approach relies on a favourable attitude towards a brand” (Quester and Lim, 2003:26). In addition, Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) propose the integration of the behavioural notion and the attitudinal notion to define brand loyalty.

In brief, brand loyalty is a multi-dimensional concept that can be sorted into behavioural, attitudinal and composite categories. The following subsections address these three approaches in more detail.

#### **3.4.3.1 Behavioural Brand Loyalty**

From a behaviour perspective, consumers who demonstrate brand loyalty purchase the same brand systematically (Odin, Odin and Valette-Florence, 2001). The factor that defines behaviour brand loyalty is the consumer’s purchase behavior (Dekimpe, Steenkamp, Mellens and Abeele, 1997). Therefore, the repeat purchase of a special brand demonstrates

brand loyalty in terms of a behavioural approach (Quester and Lim, 2003).

Newman and Werbel (1973:404) found that “purchase of the same brand twice in succession typically has been used as evidence of loyalty.” Similarly, McConnell (1968:14) proposes that “Brand loyalty exists when a consumer selects the same brand for at least four successive trials.”

Some researchers propose behaviour loyalty as the proportion of purchases devoted to a specific brand (e.g., Cunningham, 1956; Blattberg and Sen, 1974). Hence, behavioural loyalty is indicated by the percentage or share of purchase (Bennett and Rundle-Thiele, 2004). Cunningham (1956:118) mentions, “single-brand loyalty is the proportion of total purchases represented by the largest single brand used.” With regard to the proportion of purchases, Bennett and Rundle-Thiele (2004) defines behavioural loyalty as the proportion of total expenses of one consumer that are dedicated to one specific brand retailer. According to Bennett and Rundle-Thiele (2004), the greatest value of behavioural brand loyalty is that the loyal consumer rarely purchases services or products from other retailers.

Furthermore, some researchers focus on the frequency of purchase (e.g., Ehrenberg, 2000; Kuehn, 1962; Sheth, 1968). Kuehn (1962:12) defines brand loyalty as “a function of the frequency and regularity of brand that has been selected in the past.” Sheth (1968: 398) supports this argument by mentioning that “brand loyalty is a function of a brand’s relative frequency of purchase in time-independent situations and it is a function of relative frequency and purchase pattern for a brand in time dependent situations.”

The probability of future purchase behaviour is a consideration in some research. Repeat purchase probability can be estimated on the basis of a series of previous purchases (Oppermann, 2000). Frank (1962) finds that the more often the same brand is purchased within a purchase sequence, and the more recent the special brand purchase, the more likely it is that the consumer will repurchase that brand (Oppermann, 2000).

In summary, the behaviour approach focuses on the consistent purchase of a particular brand over time (Bandyopadhyay and Martell, 2007). Therefore, researchers who study brand loyalty from a behavioural perspective observe purchasing patterns, the proportion of

overall purchases, purchase probability and frequency of purchase. However, it has been pointed out that the behavioural approach cannot explain psychological attachment to brand. Bandyopadhyay and Martell (2007) note that recent studies have approached brand loyalty beyond behaviour measures by turning to situational factors (such as stock-out and non-availability), intrinsic factors (such as individual fortitude) or socio-cultural factors (such as social bonding) to account for the difference between repeat purchases and brand loyalty. For example, Dick and Basu (1994) highlight the need to include attitudinal influences in the loyalty concept. The next subsection explains attitudinal brand loyalty in more detail.

### **3.4.3.2 Attitudinal Brand Loyalty**

From the attitudinal standpoint, behavioural definitions are not enough to explain how and why consumers develop and modify brand loyalty in their minds (Dick and Basu, 1994). In addition, it is difficult to differentiate between repeat purchases and brand loyalty (Jacoby and Kyner, 1973). Therefore, some researchers have explored brand loyalty from a psychological perspective. They have argued that mental factors are important for building brand loyalty (Bennett and Rundle-Thiele, 2002). That is, when positive feelings and affects are added to a brand, loyalty can be shown as an attitude. Attitudinal researchers have been interested in how the function of attitudinal loyalty operates in the complex mindset of consumers. Therefore, in the attitudinal approach, based on consumer brand preferences or intention to purchase, brand loyalty is an attempt on the consumer's part to go beyond behaviour and express their loyalty in light of psychological commitment or statement of preference (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Commitment provides an essential basis for distinguishing brand loyalty from other forms of repeat purchasing behaviour (Reynolds, Darden and Martin, 1974). That is, "true brand loyalty implies commitment" (Quester and Lim, 2003: 27).

Based on these views, Reynolds et al., (1974) define brand loyalty as a tendency for a person to uphold similar attitudes in situations that are similar to those he/she has faced before. They also emphasise that a favourable attitude to a brand had to be maintained over several years.

Overall, attitudinal loyalty is a psychological attachment or commitment that a consumer has towards a particular brand. Importantly, the present research adopts attitudinal loyalty as a consequence of brand equity. Brand loyalty in the restaurant industry, for instance, can be better understood through the concept of attitudinal loyalty. In the restaurant industry, consumers prefer brand, which provides delight as a positive emotional state. Delight with service is positively associated with brand loyalty and results in repurchase intentions and willingness to recommend a brand (Paswan, Spears and Ganesh, 2007). A richer comprehension of brand loyalty with respect to its attitudinal construction would be useful for marketers, not only for choosing and developing their target markets, but also for developing loyalty-building and consumer-retention strategies (Quester and Lim, 2003).

### **3.4.3.3 Composite Brand Loyalty**

Another category of brand loyalty is composite brand loyalty. Many scholars have assessed brand loyalty as including both behavioural and attitudinal components (Jacoby and Kyner, 1973; Oliver, 1999; Chaudhari and Holbrook, 2001). Researchers have also suggested that the behavioural dimension alone cannot completely catch the reasons behind a purchase and thus the attitudinal dimension is also related (Baloglu, 2002). Chaudhari and Holbrook (2001), and also Oliver (1999), affirm the superiority of the two-dimensional approach to brand loyalty.

In terms of a complex multi-dimensional concept of brand loyalty, many researchers have tendered definitions. Newman (1966) was the first to attempt an approach that equates behavior patterns with preferences to infer loyalty (Day, 1969). Day (1969) points out that it is difficult to distinguish between ‘true’ loyalty and ‘spurious’ loyalty related to consistent buying of one brand. In addition, spurious consumers lack attachment to a brand, and they readily move from one brand to another. Therefore, Day (1969) emphasises that to be truly loyal, both buying a brand and having a positive attitude toward it are necessary.

Jacoby and Kyner (1973: 2) support this notion by stating that brand loyalty should have six collectively sufficient conditions. Accordingly their definition of brand loyalty is as follows:

—(1) the biased (i.e. non-random), (2) behavioural response (i.e. purchase), (3) expressed over time, (4) by some decision-making unit, (5) with respect to one or more alternative brands out of a set of such brands, and (6) is a function of psychological (decision-making, evaluative) processes.”

Jacoby and Kyner (1973) view brand loyalty as a behavioural response and as a function of psychological processes. Likewise, Dick and Basu (1994) suggest that it is necessary to broaden the range of the concept of brand loyalty to include attitudinal affects. Dick and Basu (1994:99) emphasise the cognitive, affective and conative components of attitude that are likely to have an impact on a consumer’s relative attitude/repeat-patronage relationship:

—Customer Loyalty is viewed as the strength of the relationship between an individual’s relative attitude and repeat patronage. The relationship is seen as mediated by social norms and situational factors. Cognitive, affective and conative antecedents of relative attitude are identified as contributing to loyalty, along with motivational, perceptual and behavioural consequences.”

Social scientists propose that people’s attitudes should be divided into three classes - cognition, affect, and conation (or behavioural intention) (Bagozzi, 1978; Breckler, 1984). This view is supported by Oliver (1997), who likewise asserts that attitudinal brand loyalty should be assessed in three phases: cognitive, affect and conation. Oliver (1999: 35-36) also introduced a four-stage loyalty model, as follows:

- Cognitive loyalty: In the first loyalty phase, the brand attribute information available to the consumer indicates that a brand is preferable to its alternatives.
- Affective loyalty: At the second phase of loyalty development, a liking or attitude toward the brand has developed on the basis of cumulatively satisfying usage occasions.
- Conative loyalty: The next phase of loyalty development is the conative (behavioural intention) stage, as influenced by repeated episodes of positive affect toward the brand. Conation implies a brand-specific commitment to repurchase.
- Action loyalty: In the action control sequence, the motivated intention in the previous loyalty state is transformed into a readiness to act. The action control paradigm proposes that this is accompanied by an additional desire to overcome obstacles that might prevent the act.

Consequently, many marketing researchers point out that repeat purchase without a favourable attitude toward the brand does not reflect true brand loyalty. This is because true brand loyalty requires an attitudinal approach based on psychological commitment. However, this approach shows limitations in which weighting or quantified scores may not be applicable to both the behavioural and attitudinal factors, and they may require differing measurements (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). In the following section, measurements of brand loyalty are discussed in detail.

### **3.4.4 Measurements of Brand Loyalty**

In spite of the numerous brand loyalty measurements proposed in marketing research, there is no consensus on how to measure brand loyalty (Bennett and Rundle-Thiele, 2002). However, brand loyalty generally has been measured according to either behaviour measurements, attitudinal measurements or composite measurements.

#### **3.4.4.1 Measurements of Behavioural Brand Loyalty**

From the behavioural perspective, loyalty is seen as effective consumer behaviour towards a specific product and brand. In measuring loyalty, behaviour can be more easily observed and evaluated than attitudes; moreover, behaviour data can be collected at less cost than attitudinal data, especially in extended longitudinal studies of brand loyalty (Dekimpe et al., 1997).

Behavioural loyalty to brand can usually be measured by purchase behaviour (Newman and Werbel, 1973). Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) classified the behaviour approach into five types: brand purchase sequence, brand purchase proportion, brand purchase probability, synthesis measures and miscellaneous measures. Brown (1952 as cited in Oppermann, 2000: 79) suggests four brand purchase sequences; namely, undivided loyalty (purchase sequence: AAAAAA), divided loyalty (ABABAB), unstable loyalty (AAABBB), and irregular sequences (ABBACDB). A number of researchers have used the proportion of

purchases of a particular brand compared to all purchases as a behavioural measure (e.g., Cunningham, 1956; Bennett and Rundle-Thiele, 2004). It has been suggested that consumer purchase shares ranging from 100% to about 50% are indicative of brand loyal behaviour (Oppermann, 2000). The higher the percentage is, the stronger the consumer's loyalty to a specific brand. The probability of purchase is represented by a count of repeat purchase probabilities on the basis of a series of previous purchases (Oppermann, 2000).

In addition, East, Gendall, Hammond and Lomax (2005) propose brand retention, duration of time, repeat purchase, share-of-category expenditure and portfolio size as measures of behavioural loyalty. Moreover, other researchers measure behavioural loyalty according to the amount of brand switching (Javalgi and Moberg, 1997) or frequency of purchases (e.g., Ehrenberg, 2000). With regard to measurements of behavioural brand loyalty, several previous studies are summarised in Table 3.5.

**Table 3.5 Measurements of Behavioural Brand Loyalty**

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Loyalty	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Oppermann (2000)	Proportion of purchase Purchase probability	Tourism destination	Loyalty Scale; nonpurchaser, unsteady, loyal, very loyal	Frequency	Destinations will be able to determine the composition of its customers in relation to their loyalty toward tourism destination.
Martenson (2007)		Groceries	4 graded scale	Maximum-likelihood (ML) methods	A brand's image is important for consumers' satisfaction. Moreover, when the atmosphere of store is neat and the store is aware of its customers' needs, customers can be satisfied.
Romaniuk and Nenycz-Thiel (2011)	Buying frequency Share of category requirements.	Hot beverages		Chi-squared tests One-way ANOVA Correlations Linear regression	A higher purchase frequency and a higher share of category requirements create more brand associations. Moreover, share of category requirements have a greater impact on brand association than purchase frequency.



As can be seen from Table 3.5, Oppermann (2000) investigates the application and usefulness of tourist destination loyalty from a behavioural perspective. Destination loyalty was measured using only the behaviour dimension because it is easier and faster to collect data on customers' previous purchase history without including attitudinal instruments (Oppermann, 2000). For research, he selected a household sample from telephone books, using a systematic random approach. The application of two measurements (proportion of purchase, purchase probability) indicates their validity for a tourism destination choice over a longer time period (Oppermann, 2000).

Martenson (2007) measures store loyalty by how much the respondent bought in the store. This study investigates three important facets (the store as a brand, manufacturer brands, store brands), and 'store as a brand' was more important than the other facets (Martenson, 2007).

Romaniuk and Nenycz-Thiel (2011) study the relationship between past brand loyal behaviour and consumers' current brand associations. The brand purchasing data was collected from a chain's loyalty card over a one-year period and brand associations were collected through a consumer online survey (Romaniuk and Nenycz-Thiel, 2011).

Overall, behavioural measurement is based on actual purchase behaviour or on reported purchase behaviour (e.g., Romaniuk and Nenycz-Thiel's research, 2011). Therefore, it is easy for a company to implement behavioural approaches because some of the data - the purchase, or even purchase history - are already available to them (Oppermann, 2000). However, the behavioural approach (e.g., repeat purchases, frequency of purchases) measures brand loyalty without considering the cognitive aspects of brand (Ha, 1998). Hence, it cannot directly indicate whether the consumer feels an attachment to the brand. Some researchers assert that psychological processes must be included to confirm true loyalty.

#### **3.4.4.2 Measurements of Attitudinal Brand Loyalty**

The premise of the attitudinal approach of brand loyalty is that brand loyalty is more than

just repeat purchase behaviour” (Quester and Lim, 2003:27). Attitudinal measures employ data that reflects emotional and psychological attachment to brand (Bowen and Chen, 2001). Therefore, attitudinal measures provide an understanding of the factors causing brand loyalty (Oppermann, 2000).

One of the earliest measurements used for the attitudinal approach was Guest’s (1942) ‘brand preference’; however, later the author (1955) asserted that favourable attitudes ought to be maintained for several years (Oppermann, 1999). Similarly, Gounaris and Stathakopoulos (2004) propose that preferences are important components of attitudinal loyalty.

Attitudinal brand loyalty is composed of brand attitudes. Hence, Dick and Basu (1994) propose the cognitive, affective, and conative components of attitude. In particular, Jacoby and Kyner (1973) suggested that all three components of attitude should be incorporated. As can be seen from Table 3.6, Quester and Lim (2003) and Yuksel, Yuksel and Bilim (2010) adopt the cognitive, affective, and conative dimensions of attitudinal approaches of brand loyalty for their studies. In particular, Yuksel et al. (2010) employ three for measuring affective loyalty, which reflect the extent to which a customer ‘likes’ the destination and its services; and two items are used in order to measure conative loyalty toward the destination that is studied (i.e., commitment and purchase intentions).

Other measures of attitudinal loyalty are: commitment (e.g., Beatty and Kahle, 1988; Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004), intention to repurchase (e.g., Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1996; Oliver, 1999; Lee and Cunningham, 2001; Harris and Ezech, 2008), repatronage intentions (e.g. Oliver, 1999), and word-of-mouth (e.g. Zeithaml et al., 1996; Evanschitzky and Wunderlich, 2006), willingness to recommend (Paswan, Spears and Ganesh, 2007).

Table 3.6 summarizes previous studies regarding measurements of attitudinal brand loyalty.

**Table 3.6 Measurements of Attitudinal Brand Loyalty**

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Loyalty	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Qvester and Lim (2003)	Cognitive Affective Conative	Sports shoes Trainers Ball-point pens	7 point likert scale	Principal component analysis Validity and reliability test	The relationship between product involvement and brand loyalty includes different aspects of product involvement for each of the products concerned.
Bennett and Rundle-Thiele (2004)		Advertising service		Structural equation modeling	Satisfaction and attitudinal loyalty have different constructs; although the relationship exists between them, high levels of attitudinal loyalty are not always generated by high levels of satisfaction.
Paswan, Spears and Ganesh (2007)	Recommendation	International Students market	9-point semantic differential scale.	Principal component factor analysis Coefficient alpha ANOVA MANOVA Multiple regressions analysis	Consumers who purchase their preferred service brand are likely to be more satisfied with the attributes of the obtained brand and show a higher level of brand loyalty.

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Loyalty	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Harris and Ezeh (2008)	Loyalty intention	Restaurant patrons	7-point likert Scale	Principal component factor analysis Correlation analysis Multiple regression analysis	A model is developed to assess the effects of nine servicescape variables on customers' loyalty intentions. A great deal of significant associations with loyalty intentions are revealed through analysis of survey responses.
Yuksel et al. (2010)	Cognitive Affective Conative	Tourism destination	5-point likert Scale	Structural equation modeling (SEM) in AMOS 5	Positive emotional and cognitive connection with a place could affect the individual's assessment of a tourism destination and his/her loyalty to the place.

In summary, a number of different attitudinal brand loyalty measures have been proposed: brand preference, brand commitment, intention to purchase and three phases of attitudinal loyalty: cognitive, affective and conative. Rundle-Thiele and Bennett (2001) point out that brand loyalty measurement should be chosen according to the type of market that is being measured. In service markets, “collecting behavioural loyalty statistics can be difficult and long time periods are needed to examine brand-switching patterns (Rundle-Thiele and Bennett, 2001:31).” In addition, while behavioural measurements mostly rely on longitudinal data, attitudinal measurement studies have focused on cross-sectional data (Oppermann, 1999). In the restaurant industry, service experiences result in cognitive and emotional responses (Edvardsson, 2005) so attitudinal measurements are applied because they are based on the consumer’s emotional and psychological attachment to a restaurant brand. In addition, Oliver (1997) asserts that in order to be truly brand loyal, consumers should express a four-stage loyalty package: cognitive, affective, conative and action loyalty. Importantly, since the restaurant industry has invisible and variable characteristics (e.g., staff behaviour, food quality and taste, and so on), the emotional and psychological process of forming true brand loyalty is important. Therefore, the present research adopts an attitudinal approach for brand loyalty measurement in the restaurant industry.

#### **3.4.4.3 Measurements of Composite Brand Loyalty**

Several researchers have argued the necessity of using both attitudinal and behavioural brand loyalty measurements. These studies have regarded brand loyalty as both a result of repeat purchase behaviour and an outcome of cognitive attitudes towards a particular brand (Back and Park, 2003). They have pointed out, therefore, that using behavior measures or attitudinal/cognitive measures alone is not sufficient for evaluating brand loyalty. Moreover, Newman and Werbel (1973) point out that an evaluation based on two different measures seems to produce better results than considering repurchase alone. Table 3.7 summarises previous related research on measurements of composite brand loyalty.

**Table 3.7 Measurements of Composite Brand Loyalty**

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Loyalty	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Newman and Werbel (1973)	Brand purchase Brand deliberation	6 types of major appliances		Multiple classification analysis (MCA)	The findings showed positive relationships between brand loyalty and satisfaction with the appliance, and age of household head and the presence of children in the home.
Back and Parks (2003)	Cognitive Affective Conative  Behavioural brand loyalty	Lodging industry	7-point likert scale	Reliability analysis Confirmatory factor analysis Structure equation model	The results of this research showed that attitudinal loyalty has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between the consumer satisfaction and behaviour brand loyalty.
Chitty, Ward and Chua (2007)	Psychological perspective: (brand attitudes)  Behavioural perspective: (habitual behaviour)	Youth hostel	7-point likert scale	Descriptive statistics Confirmatory factor analysis (AMOS) Structural equation modelling	Brand image is an antecedent of satisfaction with a hostel, whereas perceived value shows the extent of loyalty towards the _brand.'

Researcher	Dimensions of Brand Loyalty	Applied Area	Measurement Scale	Analysis Methods	Key Findings
Russell-Bennett, McColl-Kennedy and Coote (2007)	Attitudinal loyalty: (repurchase intentions, commitment) Behaviour loyalty: (actual purchase)	Small business		Confirmatory factor analysis Path estimate SMCs (square multiple correlations)	Attitudinal loyalty is an important antecedent of behaviour loyalty, and attitudinal loyalty and the antecedents that were studied (i.e., purchase satisfaction and category involvement) have significant relationships.
Matzler, Grabner-Kräuter and Bidmon (2008)	Attitudinal loyalty (commitment and willingness to pay a higher price), Purchase loyalty (purchase probability)	Mobile phone	5-point scale	Partial least squares	Consumer risk aversion is significantly connected to attitudinal loyalty and repurchase loyalty. The relationship between consumer risk aversion and brand loyalty is mediated by brand affect and brand trust.
Ha, Janda and Park (2009)	Attitudinal loyalty Behavioural loyalty	Retail superstore	5-point scale	likert Confirmatory factor analysis, Structure equation analysis	The research model clearly illustrates the process of brand loyalty formation and the model proves the mediating role of satisfaction in the process of brand loyalty formation.

Overall, a composite approach to brand loyalty can be inspected from ‘psychological’ and ‘behaviour’ perspectives (Chaudhuri, 1999). In several areas, researchers have applied composite measurements as a valuable tool for understanding brand loyalty (Bowen and Chen, 2001). However, Day (1969:30) points out the problem with this approach: “Loyalty index combines a one-time estimate of brand attitude with an interval estimate of purchase probability, thus there is a possibility that the attitude component of the brand loyalty score may not be accurate during some of the time period required to estimate the purchase probability.” Therefore, composite loyalty measurements are not very practical (Oppermann, 2000).

### **3.5 Summary**

This chapter examines the antecedents and consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE). There has been a considerable interest in brand equity. However in this era of globalisation, the antecedents and consequences of CBGBE for the restaurant industry are not well understood. To explore these variables for the restaurant industry, the first part of this chapter deals with cultural values as an antecedent of CBGBE. The literature review on cultural values includes definitions, concepts, national culture versus organizational culture and measurements. Notably, the majority of previous studies have followed Hofstede’s dimensions, which consist of collectivism/individualism, masculinity/femininity, power-distance, uncertainty avoidance, and long/short-term orientation. The present study also adopts Hofstede’s dimensions, which are widely accepted by many researchers (e.g. Furrer et al., 2000; Stedham and Yamamura, 2004; Tai, 2004; Yoo, 2009; Gong, 2009) because they reveal clear differences between cultural groups (Kanousi, 2005). In addition to Hofstede’s dimensions, materialism is adopted as a new dimension in this study. This is because materialism has a significant impact on the consumer’s consumption behaviour (e.g., Xu, 2007; Delaney, Burke and Gudergan, 2005; Yoo and Lee, 2009).

The second part of the chapter discusses brand reputation and brand loyalty as consequences of CBGBE. Brand reputation consists of definitions, the distinction between reputation and image, role and measurements. Brand reputation is the



attitude of consumers (Andreassen, 1994; Schwaiger, 2004; Afzal et al., 2010), which is based on the evaluation stemming from consumers' direct experiences (Gotsi and Wilson, 2001). Brand loyalty is composed of definitions and measurements of attitudinal brand loyalty, behavioural brand loyalty, and composite brand loyalty. Importantly, brand loyalty measurement needs to be tailored to the market type. Since the service market is unstable and high involved, attitudinal measures of brand loyalty are more appropriate for the evaluation of the consumer's perception regarding a service (Rundle-Thiele and Bennett, 2001). This should be based on the unique characteristics of the service including intangibility and heterogeneity.

# CHAPTER 4

# **CHAPTER 4**

## **THE RESEARCH MODEL**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The previous chapters are useful in order to establish a better understanding of theoretical constructs. This chapter offers insights into the research model and research hypotheses. It is worth noting that developing an adequate research model is essential for achieving the research objectives. A mixture of quantitative and qualitative research methods can be used for developing measures and, hence, obtaining clear outcomes of a study (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2007).

The proposed research model is based on both the literature review and fieldwork interviews. This chapter refers to the qualitative semi-structured interviews that were used to assess the validity of the research model; and the literature review that was used to help define the key variables and the research hypotheses.

### **4.2 Developing the Research Model**

Interviews provide a better understanding in the early stage of research (Saunders, et al., 2007). The purpose of semi-structured interviews in this study was mainly to identify missing variables for the research model. To achieve this goal, a qualitative study undertaking interviews with five British and five South Korean consumers who have a high degree of experience of global restaurant brands was carried out in April 2010. The British consumers were: 1) a 24-year-old female teacher; 2) a 47-year-old female librarian; 3) a 55-year-old male teacher; 4) a 31-year-old male student; 5) a 25-year-old male student. The Korean consumers were: 1) a 29-year-old male student; 2) a 45-year-old man working in a travel agency; 3) a 52-year-old housewife; 4) a 42-year old female lecturer; 5) a 37-year-old male engineer.

Each interview began with questions regarding the participants' visit experiences at a restaurant (e.g. 'Please select one of your favourite restaurant brands from the above list'; 'Please identify your favourite restaurant brand'; 'How many times have you eaten in this restaurant in the last 12 months?'). The following questions were intended to help the interviewees recall their thoughts and feelings related to the experience of a restaurant (e.g. 'How do you feel about eating in this restaurant?'). Some questions needed to identify participants' value judgements of consumption from a cultural perspective (e.g. 'When deciding your choice, how much do you consider your personal situation or is this an impulsive decision?'; 'Who in your family group, friends or work colleagues decides which restaurant to eat in?'; 'If you visit another city or nation would you want to eat in the same brand of restaurant or in another one? Why?'; 'If there are none of your favourite brand restaurant in another city or nation, how can you get information about other restaurants, e.g. newspaper, magazine, internet, opinion-seeking and deciding by yourself etc.?').

Importantly, some of the interview questions intended to identify missing variables (e.g. 'What factors are important in this decision?'; 'If you would like to change your favourite restaurant brand, what would be the reason for changing it?'; 'Are there other factors that influence this decision that we have not spoken about yet?'). This was followed by questions asking respondents about their attitudinal loyalty toward the restaurant industry (e.g. Why do you like to eat in this restaurant?). The interview questions can be found in Appendix A.

#### **4.2.1 Findings of the Interviews: Qualitative Study**

The interview data collected was transcribed and analyzed. The first procedure of analysis was categorisation. Saunders et al., (2007) add that the identification of categories is guided by the purpose of research. Although the same data is used, another researcher who has different objectives may formulate different categories (Dey, 1993).

The words interviewees used in the process of the interviews were formulated into four categories which were largely based on the previous literature review: good reputation (e.g. Milewicz and Herbig, 1994), state of brand, (e.g. Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Cretu and Brodie, 2007), positive Word-of-Mouth (WOM) (e.g. Milewicz and Herbig, 1994), tradition of the brand (e.g. Chun, 2005).

British respondents 1, 2 and 4; and South Korean respondent 4 explained that the brand reputation is in relation to good WOM as follows:

–I wouldn't want to go and eat in a restaurant that people don't like" (British 1).

–If I heard that somewhere is really nice, or if someone said there is a fantastic restaurant, I would be very interested in going" (British 2).

–The opinions of others have influence on my decision of which restaurant" (British 4).

–If I heard from my friends that there is a very famous and reputable restaurant, I would want to go to the restaurant" (South Korean 4).

Interviewees (British 1, 2, 4 and South Korean 4) have confidence in the restaurants that people say are "really nice," or that people have liked for a long time or that people recommend.

Notably, the majority of both British and South Korean respondents mentioned good reputation as a factor that influence buying decision (British 1 and South Korean 1, 4).

–The decision point is reputation" (British 1).

–I would usually likely to be associated with a brand having a high reputation" (South Korean 1).

–I think the reputation of the brand is the most important point when choosing the restaurant brand" (South Korean 4).

With regard to a state of brand, British 5 mentioned:

–A state of brand namely, brand reputation is an essential factor for me to decide purchasing brand” (British 5).

South Korean 1 mentioned tradition as the reason to devote to a brand:

–Tradition of the brand is the reason to satisfy me” (South Korean 1).

Importantly, the results of the study suggest that brand reputation can be added as part of the decision to purchase in a restaurant for both British and South Korean respondents. Namely, brand reputation was found to be a missing variable.

The analysis of data shows the relationship between brand reputation and brand equity. British respondent 5 emphasized that brand reputation has a relationship with perceived quality of restaurant brands:

–Interestingly, brand reputation includes good value in terms of reasonable quality and quantity of food. Thus, most young guys tend to prefer to use these global restaurant brands in which they can choose without distrusting it.”

In relation to brand identification, South Korean respondent 1 said that the brand with the highest reputation allows people to express themselves to others through purchasing the brand: –Young respondents seemed to prefer global brands to local brands because they would regard themselves as the same state the brand has.” Moreover, South Korean respondent 3 also explained that people like to belong to a high level position by choosing the brand with a high reputation. For instance:

–In case someone asks me about what kind of food I enjoy, I prefer to answer ‘I enjoy having steak at a family restaurant’ not just saying ‘steak.’ This is based on the fact that the price of food in this family restaurant is not cheap.”

With regard to self-congruence, South Korean respondent 1 mentioned the following:

–I would usually like to express myself to my friends through using the brand.”

Maintaining brand trust is essential for global brands, because the majority of global consumers are likely to purchase without hesitation. South Korean respondents 2, 3 and 4 also suggested what brand reputation is in relation to trust:

“I trust the brand with a reputation absolutely won’t disappoint me because the reputation comes from building sincere relationships between the brand and consumers.” (South Korean 4)

“Brand reputation regarding honesty and trust can play a role in preventing damage to the brand image. It seems that the global restaurants try to continuously sustain their own brand reputation.” (South Korean 3)

“Customers do not want to visit a restaurant if they see in the news that it has been criticized for having a severe problem of food hygiene.” (South Korean 2)

Awareness and image - perceptions about a brand reflected by the brand associations (Keller, 1998) - are associated with brand reputation. A brand with familiarity and good image creates and attempts to maintain good brand reputation. British (5) and South Korean (1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) interviewees mentioned familiarity formed by a large number of restaurant chains, or advertisements. In addition, distinctive mottos, logos and symbols were mentioned as important for brand association (South Korean 2 and 5). British 3, 4 emphasised fair-trade and ethical business for good brand image.

It is worth noting that brand reputation relates to how consumers rely on brand in their selection in today’s world. This is supported by South Korean respondent 2:

“Even though some brands actually are not good as much as brand reputation, the brands with reputation can capture consumers’ mind.”

As a consequence, brand reputation can be an important consequence of CBGBE as a new variable for the present research. Importantly, this is based on the fact that firstly, the dependent variable is of primary interest to the researcher whose goal is to understand and measure it (Sekaran, 2003); secondly, in the cross cultural study of Britain and South Korean, it is important to use a variable, brand reputation, that is common between the nations to make the research more appropriate; finally, brand reputation can be a strong competitive tool for geographic extension of a global brand.

Two selected samples from the ten transcripts used for analysis are shown in Appendix B. In the next section, the research model is presented based on the outcomes of the interviews and the literature reviews.

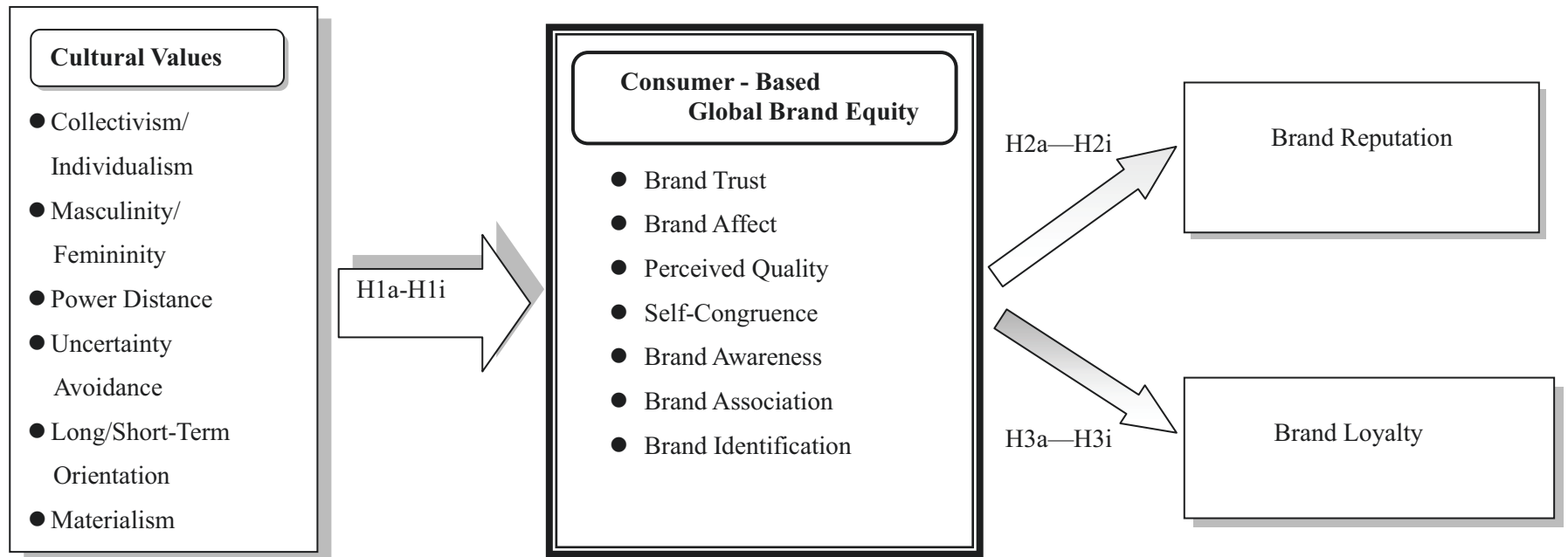
### **4.3 The Research Model**

The purpose of the present study is to develop a Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) in the restaurant industry and compare consumer perceptions of CBGBE across two cultures.

The proposed research model consists of the associative links between cultural values, CBGBE, brand reputation and brand loyalty. The association between variables can play an essential role in explaining the effective relationship between those variables. Figure 4.1 displays the proposed research model which illustrates how to best understand the antecedents and consequences of CBGBE.



Figure 4.1 Research Model



As shown in Figure 4.1, CBGBE is a multidimensional construct which consists of *brand trust, brand affect, perceived quality, self-congruence, brand awareness, brand association and brand identification*.

Cultural values have an effect on CBGBE, which, in turn, affect brand reputation and brand loyalty, respectively. A significant amount of previous research shows the relationship among variables of the research model as discussed in the next section.

## **4.4 Definitions of Variables**

When variables are measured in research, it is important to define them suitably in order to measure them more accurately and better understand a research model. Hence, the next subsection explains the definition of independent variables and dependent variables of CBGBE.

### **4.4.1 Dimensions of Cultural Values**

Cultural values consist of six dimensions: *collectivism/individualism, masculinity/femininity, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, long/short-term orientation* (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005), and *materialism* (Richins and Dawson, 1992).

#### **Collectivism/Individualism**

Hui and Triandis (1986:244-245) define collectivism as “the subordination of individual goals to the goals of a collective, and a sense of harmony, interdependence, and concern for others” and define individualism as “the subordination of collective goals to the goals of individual goals, and a sense of independence and lack of concern for others.” Triandis, Betancourt, Iwao, Leung, Salazar, Stetiade, Sinha, Touzard, and Zaleski, (1993) summarize simply that collectivism regards the goals of collectives as the most important consideration, whereas individualism regards the

goals of individuals as the prime concern. Compared to individualistic society, members of collectivistic societies are prone to be more sensitive to group membership in social meetings (Lin and Miller, 2003).

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005:74-75) differentiate between the collectivist and the individualist and state that “the vast majority of people in our world live in societies in which the interest of the group prevails over the interest of the individual... a minority of people in our world live in societies in which the interests of the individual prevail over the interests of the group.” In a high individualistic society, everyone is expected to take care of themselves and their family (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005).

The present research adopts collectivism/individualism based on the views of Triandis, et al. (1993) and Hofstede and Hofstede (2005): the focus of collectivism involves a situation in which group interests, sacrifices and goals are the priority; whereas, individualism involves a focus on the interest and goals of an individual.

### **Masculinity/Femininity**

Different cultures have differences in gender roles (Pagell, Katz and Sheu, 2005). Miroshinik (2002) proposes that masculine societies emphasize materialism and assertiveness while, feminine societies are central to concern for others, relationships among people and the general quality of life.

Interestingly, with regard to the perspectives of workers, it is worth noting there are differences between femininity and masculinity. In countries that femininity indices are higher, life satisfaction of workers take priority over job success, but in countries where masculinity indices are higher, job success takes precedence over life satisfaction of workers (Pagell et al., 2005). Therefore, the current research considers masculinity as assertiveness and success, while, femininity is related to the general quality and satisfaction of life (Miroshinik’s, 2002; Pagell et al., 2005).

## **Power Distance**

Even though every country has hierarchy, both high and low power distance societies can be understood differently (Pagellet al., 2005). The authors explain that high power distance societies tend to be less 'legitimate' and use more compulsive power, whereas, low power distance societies utilize legitimate power. In high power distance societies, organizations tend to be focused on a few people having power, and individuals at the top are different from the ones at the bottom in authority, salary and privileges; while in low power distance societies the power of organization is distributed (Li and Harrison, 2008). The authors add that this is because decision-making is carried out by consultation and encouragement is given to the independent actions of less powerful members of an organization (Li and Harrison, 2008).

As used in this research, power distance is incorporated as inequality among people, thus, power distance measures the extent that less powerful members of organizations accept inequitable distribution of power (Li and Harrison, 2008).

## **Uncertainty Avoidance**

Uncertainty avoidance can be measured by the degree that members feel threatened when faced with ambiguous or unknown situations (Miroshnik, 2002). Societies with strong uncertainty avoidance respond more favorably to information offered to reduce perceived uncertainty (Tai, 2004). These societies are characterized by less aggressiveness, intolerance to change and individuals who seek security (Jung, Su, Baeza, and Hong, 2008). In the cultural environment, members tend to be less innovative (Gong, 2009). Conversely, weak uncertainty avoidance societies are more aggressive, more tolerant to change and more likely to take risks (Jung, et al., 2008).

Therefore, it is clear that in uncertainty avoidance societies, members want to avoid unclear, unpredictable situations. As used in this research, building formal rules, offering greater career stability can be efficient means to beat off such uncertainty (Tai 2004).

## **Long/Short-Term Orientation**

Long/short-term orientation is to do with the relative importance of the past-and-present versus future (Hofstede, 1997). Long term orientation related to the future is represented by values such as perseverance and thrift, while short term orientation regarding past and present is represented by values such as respect for tradition and fulfilling social obligations (Hofstede, 1995). Moreover, long term versus short term orientation can be regarded as dynamic versus static and Eastern versus Western (Donthu and Yoo, 1998).

Hofstede (1995, 1997) highlights that long/short-term orientation is the value of life in terms of the past-and-present versus future, a view which is utilised in the present research.

## **Materialism**

Materialism means “having more than others” and “associating more value than others” (Sangkhawasi and Johri, 2007: 276). Materialism is involved with a sense of insecurity and, hence, people who have a materialistic perspective excessively use their possessions as a means of happiness (Sangkhawasi and Johri, 2007).

In materialistic societies, consumers are attached to possessions (Belk, 1984), and being rich and prosperous is encouraged (Hong, Muderrisoglu, and Zinkham, 1987). Therefore, materialists tend to centralize more on earning and spending money and suffer from a life-work imbalance imperiling their personal safety (Sangkhawasi and Johri, 2007). In high materialism societies, consumers believe that acquisition is a good indicator of success and happiness (Xu, 2008).

The current research is based on the view of Sangkhawasi and Johri (2007) and so regards materialism as a component of cultural values arising from the pleasure and happiness of possessions.

## **4.4.2 Dimensions of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity**

### **Brand Trust**

Trust can be understood as perceived credibility (Ganesan, 1994). Trust reduces the uncertainty in an environment of high perceived risk so that consumers can rely on the trusted brand (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Chaudhuri and Holbrook emphasize that belief in relation to reliability, safety, and honesty are all important facets of trust.

Importantly, this is incorporated by noting that brand reliability links with the performance of a brand and, therefore, brand reliability is more in relation to the product's functional capabilities and physical attributes (Delgado-Ballester, 2004).

Moreover, brand intentions are reflected in Delgado-Ballester's definition, which describes beliefs regarding the brand which are beyond physical functioning. Brand intentions are more to do with, for example, facets of brand personality, namely responsibility, honesty, and sincerity (Aaker, 1997), or intimacy (Blackston, 1992). Clearly, brand trust arises out of these two different perspectives.

Hence, the present study follows Delgado-Ballester (2004) and views brand trust as reliability of the brand's functional capabilities and physical attributes which serve to reduce uncertainty; and intentions which reflect an emotional security on the part of the individuals – as applied to the global restaurant industry.

### **Brand Affect**

Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) suggest that the close relationship between a brand and its consumers tends to show the level of positive affect caused by that brand. They add that strong and positive affect will be related to high levels of brand commitment.

In the current study, Chaudhuri and Holbrook's (2001) view is adopted: brand affect is a strong emotional tie with a restaurant or their staff, such as feeling good, happiness, and pleasure.

### **Perceived Quality**

The physical evidence of service quality associated with the appearance and condition of the physical environment and facilities has been strongly maintained in many empirical studies (e.g. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1988). Moreover, the behaviour of service employees, in the light of their competence, helpfulness, and responsiveness, has been an essential element of service quality evaluation (Brady and Cronin, 2001; Ekinici, 2001; Mittal and Lasser, 1996). The present research uses the service quality scale proposed by Ekinici, Dawes, and Massey (2008) based on Nordic model, which considers both the physical quality of a restaurant and the staff behaviour. Physical quality is determined by the interiors, facilities and environment within the restaurant, while staff behaviour is determined by the competence, helpfulness and friendliness of the restaurant's employees (Ekinici et al., 2008).

It is worth noting that service quality must be evaluated from a wider perspective in order to account for the expectations of consumers. Therefore, physical quality and service quality of employees as well as food quality needs to be evaluated for overall service quality. A suitable description of quality that can be used for measuring the effectiveness of food quality is necessary (Spiegel, Luning, Ziggers, and Jongen, 2004). Rogers (2005) points out that food provision is essential for the hospitality industry. Food quality is regarded as one component of service quality (Hoare and Butcher, 2008) and can be defined as the degree of tastiness and freshness of foods in a restaurant.

### **Self-Congruence**

Self-concept can be defined as the attitude an individual holds about the self, this

attitude being composed of belief, knowledge, evaluations and tendencies to respond (Ross, 1971).

Self-image congruence refers to the degree of coincidence between self-image (actual self-image, ideal self-image) and brand image (Sirgy and Danes, 1982). Ekinci et al. (2008) have a keen interest in actual and ideal self-concept for two reasons: firstly, these two types of self are the most commonly studied constructs; secondly, the other self-concepts (e.g. social self) are strongly related to actual and ideal self-concepts.

The current study adopts Ekinci et al.'s (2008) view that self-congruence relates to the degree to which brand image matches up with a consumer's actual self-image, and ideal self-image.

### **Brand Awareness**

Brand awareness relates to the strength of the brand or traces in a person's memory, as reflected by the consumer's ability to identify the brand under different conditions (Taylor, Hunter, and, Lindberg, 2007). Rossiter and Percy (1987) state that brand awareness is essential for the communications process between brand and consumer and it precedes all other steps in the process.

More specifically, there are many levels of awareness, including recognition, recall, top-of-mind, brand dominance, brand knowledge and brand opinion (Aaker, 1996b). Keller (1993) suggests that brand awareness consists of both brand recognition and brand recall. According to Keller, brand recognition occurs when consumers exactly distinguish the brand as having been seen or heard previously. The same author adds that brand recall occurs when consumers exactly generate the brand from memory.

In this study, Keller's (1993) view is adopted suggesting that brand awareness is the identification of a brand in a certain product category or the recall of a brand from consumer's memory.



## **Brand Association**

Brand associations are an important component of brand image (Simms and Trott, 2006) that link to brand name in consumer's memory (Río, Vazquez, and Iglesias, 2001). According to how much information is summarized in brand association, Keller (1993) classifies brand associations into three groups: attributes, benefits and attitudes. Moreover, Keller points out that Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) occurs when the consumer is aware of the brand and holds some favourable, strong, and unique brand associations in their memory.

In the restaurant industry, brand associations can be generated by building favourable, strong, and unique brand image through the restaurants brand name, symbol, or logo, and through the particular features of a restaurant brand, based on Keller's (1993) view and used in this research.

## **Brand Identification**

Social identification is a perception of belongingness in which a person becomes a member of a social category. Organizational identification is where an individual defines him or herself as a member of a particular organization (Mael and Ashforth, 1992). Consumers develop their social identity by associating themselves with brands that reinforce their self-identities (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). As identification is a driver of behavior, consumer behavior can be understood and predicted through social identity theory (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2008). The present study adopts the view of Bhattacharya and Sen, (2003): consumers who want to identify with a particular group express themselves by selecting a particular brand.

### **4.4.3 Dependent Variables: Brand Reputation and Brand Loyalty**

#### **Brand Reputation**

Brand reputation is an accumulated assessment toward the company based on past performance (Camara, 2007). Rindova and Fombrun (1999) define reputation as the aggregate attitude created from what outside observers estimate to be important characteristics of a company. In the service industry in particular, as intangible attributes of service are difficult to evaluate, reputation has an influence on the consumer's choice of brand (Andreassen and Lindestad, 1997). Reputation may be favorable to a company by giving consumers a signal about the quality of goods or service (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990). Therefore, brands with good reputation are likely to attract more consumers, and if a company fails to carry out its marketing signals, a brand will lose its positive reputation, which can have disadvantages for the company (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009).

This study follows Veloutsou and Moutinho's (2009) view which regards brand reputation as an attitude of consumers, with an evaluative reaction based on long term and sustainable image.

#### **Brand Loyalty**

Brand loyalty is investigated from two perspectives: behavioural loyalty and attitudinal loyalty. Behavioural loyalty is defined as repeat purchasing of a consumer towards the brand (Bandyopadhyay and Martell, 2007; Russell-Bennett, et al., 2007). Attitudinal loyalty refers to a psychological attachment or commitment to a specific brand including intention to repurchase the brand (Quester and Lim, 2003; Baloglu, 2002).

In the context of service, repurchase intentions and willingness to recommend a brand have been investigated from an attitudinal perspective (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and

Berry, 1994; Oliver and Westbrook, 1993). This is because service causes emotional responses which lead consumers to continue a relationship with a particular brand (Harris and Ezeh, 2008).

The present research measures brand loyalty with attitudinal construct and follows Parasuraman et al. (1994), and Oliver and Westbrook's (1993) view that repurchase intentions and willingness to recommend are an essential part of an attitudinal variable in the restaurant industry.

## **4.5 Hypothesis Development**

A hypothesis is necessary to understand the relationship among variables. A hypothesis has practical value in designing research and adds clarity to what researchers expect to find out through the study (Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin, 2010). The hypotheses are proposed in the following subsection.

### **4.5.1. Effect of Cultural Values on Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity**

Trust is an important component in the development of positive and long-term relationships between consumers and companies (Matzler, Grabner-Kräuter, and Bidmon, 2008). Trust is associated with uncertainty avoidance among culture values. Therefore, many researchers agree that trust is related to an uncertain and risky environment (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995; Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpandé, 1992). Erdem, Swait, and Valenzuela (2006) investigate cross-culture differences of brands, and find that credible brands provide more value in high-uncertainty-avoidance countries because they have a lower perceived risk. Trust reduces the risk that consumers feel in uncertain environments, and so consumers depend on the trusted brand; that is, a global brand can efficiently serve to repel uncertainty (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001).

Affective responses to brands are important for brand management (Fischer, 2006). Interestingly, when selecting a restaurant, consumers tend to consider their preferences. They can have a favorable or unfavorable evaluation about the brand (Keller, 1993). In terms of the relationship between affect and risk reduction, Matzler et al. (2008) demonstrates that uncertainty avoidance is positively related to brand affect. Hence, the present study proposes that:

H1a. Cultural values have an effect on brand trust.

H1b. Cultural values have an effect on brand affect.

A great deal of researchers has studied the relationship between culture and perceived quality. Donthu and Yoo (1998) investigate the effect of culture on consumer's service quality expectations, and suggest that high power culture consumers and long-term-oriented consumers have lower service quality expectations, while high uncertainty avoidance consumers and individualistic consumers have higher service quality expectations. Jung and Sung (2008) explore culture differences in CBGBE. The results indicate that when making purchase decisions, perceived quality is more important in a high-uncertainty-avoidance society than a low-uncertainty-avoidance society (Jung and Sung, 2008).

Matilla(1999) mentions the cultural differences of individualism/collectivism and power distance. Matilla presumes that powerful consumers in luxury hotels use power over service staff. Powerful consumers consider that they deserve good service from service providers (Tsoukatos and Rand, 2007).

Similarly Donthu and Yoo (1998) and Furrer et al. (2000) propose that the SERVQUAL dimensions are correlated with Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Furrer et al. (2000) suggest that collectivists are more tolerant of poor service than individualistic consumers. In cultures with a high degree of masculinity, consumers expect male service staff to be more professional, more assuring and more reliable (Furrer et al., 2000). Furrer et al. point out that in frequent service situations, consumer's feelings of uncertainty have to be reduced by a guarantee to solve the problems, and suggest the positive relationships between uncertainty avoidance and assurance, responsiveness, empathy, and reliability. In service encounters, Furrer et al.

(2000) demonstrate the positive relationships between long-term orientation and reliability, responsiveness. Consequently, this previous research offers evidence that cultural values have a strong effect on perceived quality. Accordingly, this study hypothesizes:

H1c. Cultural values have an effect on perceived quality of food.

H1d. Cultural values have an effect on perceived quality of physical environment.

H1e. Cultural values have an effect on perceived quality of staff behaviour.

Aaker (1991) explains that recognition indicates familiarity acquired from past exposures and consumers recognize that a brand is good through familiarity elements. Well-known brands stand for security or trust. In online business, a well-known brand increases the risk reducing effect (Ernst and Young, 1996). That is, the familiar brand to consumers decreases uncertainty. Importantly, the cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance concerns response to unstructured and ambiguous contexts (Li, and Harrison, 2008). Li and Harrison add that higher uncertainty avoidance implies a greater discomfort with uncertain and ambiguous situations and consequently, a greater need to reduce the uncertainty by seeking out more information.

In addition, previous research has shown the strong relationship between brand association and brand image (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1998). Roth (1995) researches the relationship between culture and the performance of global brand image and demonstrates that, in highly individualistic cultures, brand images that highlight functional, experiential needs, or novelty are more effective than social images that stress group membership. Moreover, in countries with high power distance, consumers who are more interested in prestige, wealth, and class differences emphasize that social, symbolic, and sensory needs are more suitable. In low power distance countries, functional brand image is most appropriate. Therefore, cultural values including collectivism and individualism and uncertainty avoidance are related to brand awareness and brand association. Based on these findings, this study suggests that:

H1f. Cultural values have an effect on brand awareness.

H1g. Cultural values have an effect on brand association.

Culture is an environmental characteristic that affects consumer behaviour (Roth, 1995). Thus, individual consuming tendencies operate within a cultural framework (Narin, Griffin, and Wicks, 2008). Those with an independent self tend to self-express by demonstrating their points of difference, whereas those with an interdependent self have a tendency to self-express by demonstrating points of similarity (Singelis, 1994). Singelis proposes that national culture based on individual values will have influence on self-congruence. Cultural orientation has an effect on consumer's self-concept and self-congruity with brand being much stronger in individualists than in collectivists (Phau and Lau, 2001).

In the light of brand identification, brands can add meaning to the consumer's life and status because they have symbolic meaning (Caprara, Barbaranelli, C. and Guido, G., 2001). The brand identification function allows the consumer to be integrated or separated (del Rio et al., 2001). Thus, brand identification seems to be associated with collectivism or individualism. In a collectivist society, people tend to depend on others in consumption patterns while, in an individualistic society, people's consumption patterns indicate a self-supporting lifestyle (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005) Collectivists who want to display conformity will use brand personality as a way in which to express their similarities to members of their reference group (Phau and Lau, 2001). Thus, the current study posits that:

H1h. Cultural values have an effect on self-congruence.

H1i. Cultural values have an effect on brand identification.

#### **4.5.2. Effect of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Reputation and Brand Loyalty**

Trust is a feeling of safety on the basis of belief (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2001). That is, trust plays a role in reducing risk in the consumer buying process (Afzalet al., 2010). Similarly, reputation has the ability to reduce uncertainty (Einwiller, 2001) and it indicates "trustworthiness, honesty and integrity" (Afzal et al.,

2010:45). Reputation is associated with credibility (Milewicz and Herbig, 1994) which is 'perceived trustworthiness' (Keller and Aaker, 1992). Keller and Aaker support this by reporting that trust is a part of 'brand credibility'. It can be seen from previous research that brand reputation is closely associated with brand trust (Afzal et al., 2010; Einwiller, 2001; Cheema, 2008). Omar et al. (2009) propose trust and communications as determinants of brand reputation. Tractinsky, Jarvenpaa, Vitale, and Saarinen (1999) find that brand trust impacts on reputation. With regard to these arguments, this study hypothesizes:

H2a. Brand trust has a positive effect on brand reputation.

H2b. Brand affect has a positive effect on brand reputation.

Zeithaml (1988) and Shapiro (1983) suggest that the perceived quality of a product or service is related to the reputation. That is, the quality of products or services becomes an indicator of a good or bad reputation (Yoon, Guffey, and Kijewski, 1993). Consumers tend to believe that the goods manufactured by a firm today have a similar quality as compared with goods manufactured in the past, since credibility is added to the brand (Milewicz, J. and Herbig, 1994). Having a good reputation ensures that firms which have high quality will grow because of worth-of-mouth from other consumers (Rogerson, 1983). The ambiguity of product quality may affect building a brand reputation, but if consumers have the opportunity to evaluate the quality of product or service, they are more able to judge the quality which can affect brand reputation (Selnes, 1993). Based on these arguments, this study hypothesizes:

H2c. Perceived quality of food has a positive effect on brand reputation.

H2d. Perceived quality of physical environment has a positive effect on brand reputation.

H2e. Perceived quality of staff behaviour has a positive effect on brand reputation.

Brand awareness and brand associations are components of Global Brand Equity (Aaker, 1991) and brand reputation is strongly related to Global Brand Equity (Lai, Chiu, Yang, and Pai, 2010). Brand reputation is an issue of attitudes and beliefs with regard to brand awareness and image (Malz, 1991). Investment in particular brand awareness can lead to sustainable competitive advantage and long-term value

(Macdonald and Sharp, 2003). Moreover, Fortune/Yanckelovich Partners propose awareness as one of the components of reputation (Gains-Ross, 1997); whereas, Davis and Miles (1998) regard identity, desired identity and image (referred to as association) as elements of reputation. Consumers who have loyalty to the brand think of association with a company which has a high-reputation (Roberts and Dowling, 2002). Therefore, brand awareness and brand associations have an impact on brand reputation. Thus, this study suggests:

H2f. Brand awareness has a positive effect on brand reputation.

H2g. Brand association has a positive effect on brand reputation.

Consumers express themselves with specific brands that reflect self-identities (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). Hence, a brand that is well known among consumers or has a good reputation can be used as a tool to increase their pride (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, Thomas, 2005). This is a reason why reputable brands indicate company success (Bhattacharya, Rao, Glynn, 1995). As consumers perceive that a brand has a good reputation, they demonstrate higher identification with the brand (Hughes and Ahearne, 2010). Therefore, Hughes and Ahearne highlight that managers who try to raise their brands' reputation gain benefits from stronger brand identification. Hence, this study suggests:

H2h. Self-congruence has a positive effect on brand reputation.

H2i. Brand identification has a positive effect on brand reputation.

When the features of products or services are characterized by experience and credible qualities, trust is a more important component and so brand loyalty is considered as a vital consequence of brand trust (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Accordingly, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) demonstrate that both brand emotion and brand credibility have a strong impact on attitudinal loyalty.

Emotional feelings such as "happy" or "joyful" lead consumers to extract loyalty (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Similarly, Dick and Basu (1994) suggest that positive conditions and emotional mood increase brand loyalty. Clearly, in the light of



forming brand relationships, brand affect is regarded as a fundamental antecedent of brand loyalty (Matzler, Bidmon, Grabner-Kräuter, 2006). Hence, the next hypothesis is:

H3a. Brand trust has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

H3b. Brand affect has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

Service quality has influence on service loyalty via consumer satisfaction (Caruana and Malta, 2002); and service quality and food quality are two important elements that determine consumer satisfaction (Qin and Prybutok, 2009). In addition, when purchasing food, consumers take more interest in food safety and quality (Rijswijk, and Frewer, 2008). Ekinci et al. (2008) suggest physical quality and staff behaviour as two dimensions of perceived quality. The physical evidence of service quality is associated with the appearance and condition of the physical environment and facilities (Parasuraman et al., 1988); and the behaviour of service employees is related to their competence, helpfulness, and responsiveness (Ekinci, 2001). Chen, Ekinci, Riley, Yoon, Tjelflaat, (2001) demonstrate that physical environment and employee's service quality have a positive impact on lodging an image which affects consumers' decision-making behaviour. Moreover, Harris and Ezeh (2008) find that physical environment and service staff qualities are associated with greater intentions of consumers to be loyal. As a result, these researchers offer evidence that perceived quality has a strong effect on brand loyalty. Based on these arguments, this study hypothesizes:

H3c. Perceived quality of food has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

H3d. Perceived quality of physical environment has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

H3e. Perceived quality of staff behaviour has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

Awareness has an influence on the actual choice made by consumers, since consumers are likely to purchase well-known brands (Anselmsson, Johansson, and Persson, 2007). The consumer's awareness of the product is the beginning of loyalty towards a product (Aaker, 1991). The more consumers are aware of the product, the greater the possibility that they will buy it (Kayaman and Arasli, 2007). Brand awareness plays an important role when a customer makes a decision. In particular,

brand recognition may have influence on the degree that product decisions are made in the store (Keller, 1993). Thus, higher brand awareness along with associations in the consumer's mind causes the consumer to determine their preference for the brand (Gil, Andrés, and Salinas, 2007).

Keller (1998) highlights that brand association can influence consumer's buying decisions. Alexandris et al. (2008) demonstrate the relationships among brand associations, loyalty and service quality. They highlight that the findings of regression analysis reveal that five of the eight brand associations (escape, nostalgia, pride, logo, and effect) have a significant influence on the prediction of loyalty. Thus, the current study hypothesizes that:

H3f. Brand awareness has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

H3g. Brand association has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

A great deal of research has revealed that consumers purchase brands which can be matched with their self-concept (Kressmann et al., 2006) and the process of this matching is called self-congruity (Sirgy, 1986). Sirgy (1985), Sirgy and Samli (1985) and Sirgy et al. (2007) demonstrate that self-congruity affects brand loyalty. Similarly, Kressmann et al., (2006) indicate that self-congruity plays a significant role in brand loyalty. Marketing managers and researchers take a keen interest in brand identification because this may lead to important positive behavioural outcomes such as brand loyalty (Kuenzel and Halliday, 2010). Kim et al. (2001) indicate that brand identification has an impact on brand loyalty. Thus, the present study suggests:

H3h. Self-congruence has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

H3i. Brand identification has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

## **4.6 Summary**

The major objective of the present study is to examine the difference of perception across two cultures on the basis of the antecedents and consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity in the restaurant industry. In order to achieve this objective, this chapter establishes a research model based on the results of a review of previous literature and interviews. The essential variables of the research model consist of cultural values, CBGBE, brand reputation and attitudinal brand loyalty.

# CHAPTER 5

# **CHAPTER 5**

## **METHODOLOGY**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter deals with methodological issues in terms of how the empirical study was conducted on the data analysed. The first section (5.2) presents objectives of the research, which are related to research methods and techniques. The second section (5.3) addresses the research philosophy, which consists of positivism and interpretivism. These philosophical modes of thought have several philosophical assumptions. Moreover, this section also addresses various types of research methods, including mixed-method research, which has the advantages and disadvantages of both quantitative and qualitative methods. The third section (5.4) presents the sampling. In this section, the types of sampling methods are explained. The methods are reviewed to consider their advantages and disadvantages in terms of the present research. The fourth section (5.5) addresses the validity and reliability of the scales. The fifth section (5.6) focuses on the questionnaire design. This section presents items in the questionnaire, which are drawn from previous research. The sixth section (5.7) shows the pilot test. The last section (5.8) is composed of the types and contents of the data analysis for this research.

### **5.2 Research Philosophy**

A research philosophy contains important assumptions regarding the way a researcher views the social world (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Although there are some researchers who conduct sound research without considering philosophical thought, it is useful to have some knowledge of research philosophies because it serves to clarify the research design and promotes the choice of an appropriate method (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2005). The two main research paradigms that are used as

philosophical frameworks are positivism and interpretivism.

Positivism begins with the idea that the social world can be described by facts. Positivism has its origin in the natural sciences and depends on the assumption that social reality is objective (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000). In addition, it uses a deductive process to understand social phenomena and is related with quantitative methods of analysis (Collis and Hussey, 2009).

However, some researchers are concerned with attempts to translate natural science approaches into the social sciences (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000). Thus interpretivism began with criticisms of positivism. Interpretivists believe that social reality is subjective because it is formed by our perceptions (Collis and Hussey, 2009). While positivism centres on measuring social phenomena, interpretivism centres on exploring social phenomena (Collis and Hussey, 2009). In addition, interpretivism employs the process of induction and does not derive findings from the statistical analysis of quantitative data (Blumberg *et al.*, 2005). Table 5.1 illustrates the philosophical assumptions that underpin positivism and interpretivism.

**Table 5.1: Assumptions of the Main Paradigms**

Philosophical assumption	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontological assumption (the nature of reality)	Reality is objective and singular, separate from the researcher.	Reality is subjective and multiple, as seen by the participants.
Epistemological assumption (what constitutes valid knowledge)	Researcher is independent of that being researched.	Researcher interacts with that being researched.
Axiological assumption (the role of values)	Research is value-free and unbiased.	Researcher acknowledges that research is value-laden and biases are present.
Rhetorical assumption (the language of research)	Researcher writes in a formal style and uses the passive voice, accepted quantitative words, and set definitions.	Researcher writes in an informal style and uses the personal voice, accepted qualitative terms, and limited definitions.
Methodological assumption (the process of research)	Process is deductive. Study of cause and effect with a static design. Research is context free. Generalizations lead to prediction, explanation, and understanding. Results are accurate and reliable through validity and reliability.	Process is inductive. Study of mutual simultaneous shaping of factors with an emerging design. Research is context-bound. Patterns and/or theories are developed for understanding. Findings are accurate and reliable through verification.

Source: Collis and Hussey, (2009:58) adapted from Creswell (1994:5 and 1998:75)

As shown in Table 5.1, there are various philosophical assumptions that underpin the two main paradigms: ontological, epistemological, axiological, and methodological (Creswell, 1994, 1998).

The methodological assumption is associated with the process of the research (Collis and Hussey, 2009). It is argued that there is a high possibility that the positivist researcher uses a highly structured methodology (Gill and Johnson, 2002) and the

researcher comes to a reasoned conclusion by the logical generalization of a known fact via the process of deduction (Sekaran, 2003). The researcher focuses on facts that are objective, formulates hypotheses, uses large samples and uses analytical tools in order to look for a relationship between variables (Collis and Hussey, 2009). In contrast, interpretivism requires the examination of a small sample, possibly over a period of time, and the employment of a number of research methods in order to gain different insights into the phenomena (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Induction is a process in which the researcher observes certain phenomena and comes to a conclusion on that basis (Sekaran, 2003). In terms of the epistemological assumption, this is related to what can be accepted by researchers as valid knowledge and involves an investigation of the relationship between researcher and that which is researched (Collis and Hussey, 2009). In terms of axiological assumptions, positivists believe that they are detached from what they are researching. In contrast, interpretivists believe that researchers have values that help determine what are acknowledged as facts (Collis and Hussey, 2009).

In summary, “positivism can be referred to as scientific, experimental, empiricist, quantitative or deductive, whereas interpretivism can be referred to as hermeneutic, qualitative, phenomenological, interpretive, reflective, inductive, ethnographic or action research” (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000:20). Some researchers propose that combining positivism and interpretivism is necessary for a ‘perfect’ research (Blumberg *et al.*, 2005), because broader insights can be gained from mixed research methods (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991)

The present research focuses on using a structured methodology based on positivism by formulating hypotheses and analyzing the relationships between variables. In addition, the qualitative method is also used to further develop the research model. Hence, this research adopts both positivism and interpretivism in order to elicit in-depth findings and reduce the biases of the various approaches. Following this section, the reasons why this study has adopted both research philosophies will be described.



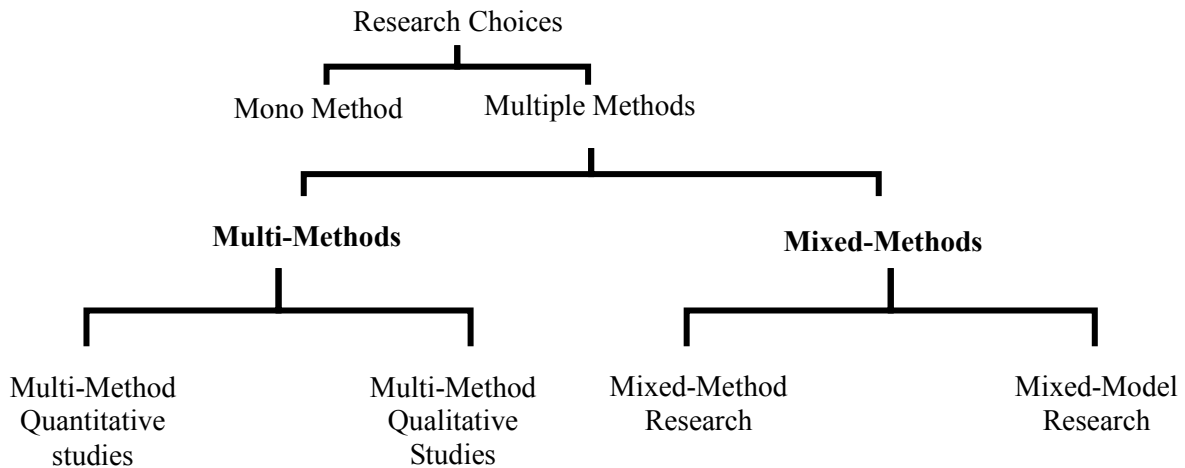
## 5.2.1 Multiple Research Methods

Positivists believe that research is both a neutral and technical process and that researchers show or discover knowledge by finding the answers to their questions scientifically (Lee, 1992). Therefore, Lee adds that empirical surveys using a significant number of participants are appropriate for obtaining a view of reality through a concrete structure and multivariate statistical analysis.

In contrast to this approach, qualitative methods do not need to use mathematical and statistical programs to transform the data that are collected. Instead, the data are processed through systematization, categorization, and interpretation (O'Connor, 2007). O'Connor emphasizes that the qualitative method has a great deal of advantages. For example, it is useful in examining personal changes over times (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000:20). However, qualitative research methods have important limitations. In particular, qualitative analysis heavily depends on the interpretation of the researcher.

In choosing research methods, researchers either use mono method or multiple methods. As shown in Figure 5.1, multiple methods have four different possibilities: multi-method quantitative study, multi-method qualitative study, mixed-method research, mixed-model research (Saunders et al., 2007). Mixed method research employs data collection techniques and analysis based on both quantitative and qualitative methods at the same time or one after the other (Saunders et al., 2007). Figure 5.1 displays the types of research methods.

Figure 5.1 Research Choice



Source: Saunders et al. (2007:146)

There are two major advantages of employing multiple methods in the same research (Saunders et al., 2007: 146-147):

—Above all, different methods can be used for different purposes in a study; researcher may wish to employ, for example, interviews at an exploratory stage in order to get a feel for the key issues before using a questionnaire to collect descriptive or explanatory data. Secondly, the advantage of using mixed methods is that it enables triangulation to take place; for instance, semi-structured group interviews may be a valuable way of triangulating data collected by other means, such as a questionnaire.”

Consequently, the present research adopts mixed methods, which is a sub-division of multiple methods. As each method is useful for showing findings related to certain research questions, employing only one method would be limited in terms of comprehensively answering all the questions (Parmelee, Perkins and Sayre, 2007). The analytic results of the qualitative method can be basically affected by the researcher’s own ideas, biases, ways of thinking, and so on; thus, the structural framework of the researcher generates a bias regarding the object of inquiry

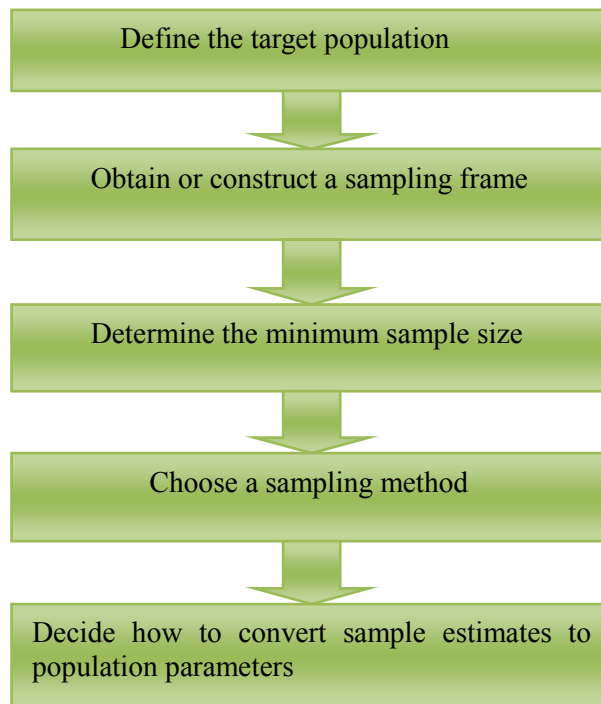
(O'Connor, 2007). Therefore, employing multiple methods can play a role as a bridge between the deductive and inductive methods of analysis (Gilbert, 2006).

### **5.3 Sampling**

Sampling is an efficient way of selecting a sufficient sample from the entire population (Sekaran, 2003). It would be practically impossible to carry out a census to investigate the characteristics of the entire population (Zikmund, 2000). In conducting surveys, obtaining an appropriate sample is essential (Graziano and Raulin, 1997) because it enables the sample to precisely represent the population (Zikmund, 2000).

Both advantages and disadvantages can be generated in the process of sampling from the entire population. It saves financial resources, human resources and time, but the researcher must predict the population's characteristics, which has the possibility of error (Kumar, 1996). The process of sampling can follow many different procedures (Thiétart *et al.*, 2001) and can also involve the process of using a small number of elements in the whole population in making conclusions (Zikmund, 2000). Figure 5.2 shows the stages of the sampling process.

**Figure 5.2 Sampling Process**



Source: Collis and Hussey (1997: 210)

As shown in Figure 5.2, defining the target population is the first process. Then, the population is operationalized in order to have clear criteria to determine the elements so that the outcomes will be generalized through statistical inference (Thiétart et al., 2001). The second process of sampling is obtaining a sampling framework. When doing this, bias can be generated in a sampling strategy, which is associated with the choices made in the design of the study itself and also the characteristics of the process of collecting the data (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991). The third stage of the sampling process is to determine an acceptable minimum sample size.

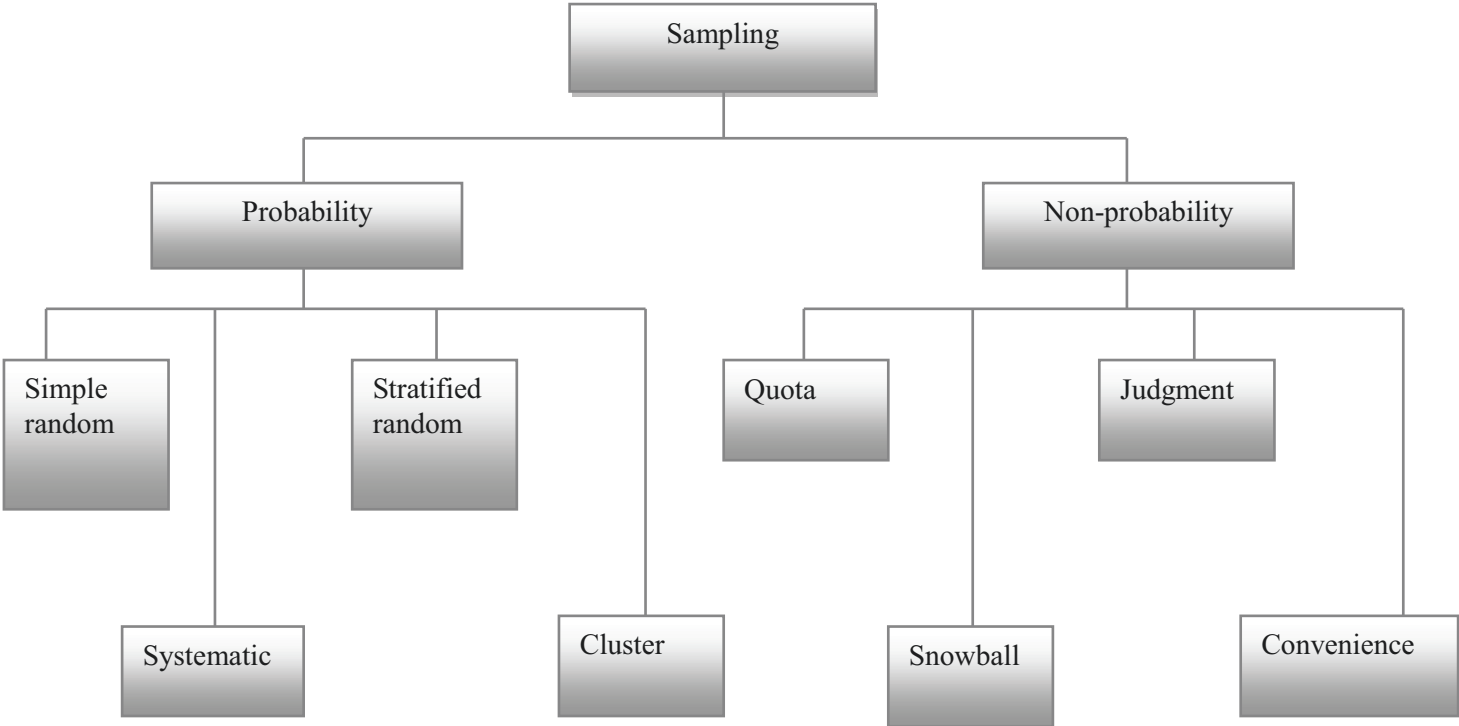
The larger the sample, the better it will reflect the whole population and the easier it will be to generalize the results of the analysis (Collis and Hussey, 1997). However, large samples give rise to problems of practicality, particularly in the light of how much cost and scheduling are required (Thiétart et al., 2001). The minimum sample size which will enable results to be generalised to the whole population is in

proportion to the scale which represents the whole population (Collis and Hussey, 1997). Ticehurst and Veal (2000:164) propose that ~~there~~ are three criteria for the sample size: the required level of precision in the results, the level of detail in the proposed analysis, and the available budget.” The next stage is to select a sampling method, which is often limited due to economic or feasibility reasons (Thiétart et al., 2001). The final stage is to determine how to convert sample estimates to population parameters.

### **5.3.1 Sampling methods**

The main sampling designs can be categorized into probability and non-probability sampling methods (Sekaran, 2003). In these two categories, there are a variety of sampling designs.

Figure 5.3 Classification of Sampling



Source: Adapted from Saunders et al., (2007:207)

As shown in Figure 5.3, probability sampling plans are composed of unlimited or simple random sampling and the restricted or complicated probability sampling plans, including cluster sampling, systematic sampling, and stratified random sampling (Sekaran, 2003).

Kumber (1999) proposes that there are two useful advantages of random/probability samples: Firstly, the inferences drawn from such samples can be generalized to the entire population, and secondly, some statistical analyses can be applied only to data collected by random sampling. Probability sampling provides us with confidence because the sample adequately stands for the population that researchers wish to examine (Graziano and Raulin, 1997).

Simple random sampling is the most basic selection method (Thiétart et al., 2001). In simple random sampling, each sample in the total population must have the same probability of being chosen as each element in the population, that is, the selection of an element in the sample should not be affected by other factors, such as personal preference (Kumar, 1996). However, such sampling would consume more time and money in order to conduct a survey; moreover, updated listings of the population may not always be available. Hence, other probability sampling methods are often selected instead because of such disadvantages (Sekaran, 2003).

Non-probability sampling offers a range of alternative techniques to choose samples based on the researcher's subjective judgment. More specifically, in the exploratory stages of research projects, such as a pilot survey, non-probability sampling may be the most useful (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Non-probability sampling is employed when the number of individuals in a population is neither known nor able to be identified individually (Kumar, 1996). This type of sampling consists of convenience sampling, judgment sampling, snowball sampling, and quota sampling (Saunders et al., 2007). Table 5.2 illustrates the advantages and disadvantages of probability and non-probability sampling designs.

**Table 5.2 Probability and Non-probability Sampling Designs**

Sampling Design	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Probability Sampling</b>			
Simple random sampling	All elements in the population are considered and each element has an equal chance of being chosen as the subject.	High generalizability of findings.	Not as efficient as stratified sampling.
Systematic sampling	A systematic selection process selects the first element randomly from the sampling frame, then selects the following elements at constant intervals.	Easy to use if population frame is available.	Systematic biases are possible.
Stratified random sampling (Str.R.S.) Proportionate Str.R.S. Disproportionate Str. R.S.	Population is first divided into meaningful segments; thereafter subjects are drawn in proportion to their original numbers in the population. Based on criteria other than their original population numbers.	Most efficient among all probability designs. All groups are adequately sampled and comparisons among groups are possible.	Stratification must be meaningful. More time-consuming than simple random sampling or systematic sampling.
Cluster sampling	Groups that have heterogeneous members are first identified; then some are chosen at random; all the members in each of the randomly chosen groups are studied.	In geographic clusters, costs of data collection are low.	The least reliable and efficient among all probability sampling designs since subsets of clusters are more homogeneous than heterogeneous.



<b>Sampling Design</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Advantages</b>	<b>Disadvantages</b>
<b>Non-probability Sampling</b>			
Convenience sampling	The most easily accessible members are chosen as subjects.	Quick, convenient, less expensive.	Not generalizable at all.
Judgment sampling	Subjects selected on the basis of their expertise in the subject investigated.	Sometimes, the only meaningful way to investigate.	Generalizability is questionable; not generalizable to entire population.
Quota sampling	Subjects are conveniently chosen from targeted groups according to some predetermined number or quota.	Very useful where minority participation in a study is critical.	Not easily generalizable.
Snowball sampling	Snowball sampling is the process of selecting a sample using networks.	This sampling technique is useful if you know little about the group. This method of selecting a sample is useful for studying communication patterns, decision making or diffusion of knowledge within a group.	The choice of the entire sample rests upon the choice of individuals at the first stage. It is difficult to use this technique when the sample becomes fairly large.

Source: Sekaran (2003:280), Kumar (1999:162) and Thietart et al. (2001:150)

As shown in Table 5.2, each of these two major designs are classified into the different types of sampling that can be chosen according to the degree of generalization desired, the requirements of time and other resources, and the purpose of study (Sekaran, 2003).

The present research adopts convenience sampling. This is because there is not any specific information with regard to the population, such as a sampling frame, the total number of subjects, or other information (Kumar, 1996). Convenience sampling is the process of acquiring the samples available, that is, of using the most convenient method (Zikmund, 2000). Although this method has some disadvantages, Zikmund mentions that researchers generally employ convenience sampling to collect a great deal of completed questionnaires, which is advantageous in terms of economic efficiency. It is possible to gather a great deal of data within a relatively limited timeframe and with low costs (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2006a).

### **5.3.2 Method of Data Collection**

This research methodology is based on a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative method is based on interpretivism, which aims to identify any missing variables in order to support the research model. It is considered essential to carry out a pilot study before conducting the survey and field work in order to find possible problems in advance.

#### **5.3.2.1 Fieldwork**

##### **Interview**

Prior to the survey, face-to-face interviews were conducted with ten participants who, as five British and five Korean consumers, have a high degree of experience of global brands in the restaurant industry. The purpose of these interviews was to investigate face validity of the suggested research model, the relationships among the variables as well as identify any missing variable from the research model. Initially,

participants were accessed through personal contacts and recruited through snowball sampling. The interviews were carried out at convenient locations, such as coffee shops, restaurants, parks, as per participants' preferences. The interviews were carried out in April 2010. Before starting the interviews, a participation information sheet and consent form were provided for/completed by the participants. The interview guidelines, questionnaire, participation information sheet, and consent form for the interviews were provided in English and in Korean. The interviews, which subsequently transcribed, coded, and evaluated.

The interviews provided a deeper understanding of motivations of human behaviours and attitudes; and also, offered a feeling for the key concepts before the survey. Thus, the relationship among the variables of the suggested research model was confirmed. Moreover, the interview analysis revealed that brand reputation is the consequence of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE).

## **The Survey**

The survey was conducted between June of 2010 and September of 2010. Information on the research was provided to participants and they were assured of confidentiality through the use of the participation information sheet. The main reason for selecting two cultures was to investigate the value judgments of consumers in relation to global brand equity through a cross-cultural study.

The quantitative data was collected by person-to-person surveys. Two research assistants in each country who had field experience regarding hospitality or marketing helped to collect data. Convenience sampling was employed in two cities in the UK (London and Oxford) and South Korea (Seoul and Daegu) in which consumers had easy contact with global restaurant brands. Various locations were chosen without any strict limits on place and time and examples of sub-locations included parks, coffee shops and shopping malls. A total of 668 surveys were collected. Of these, 35 were excluded because they did not fully complete the questionnaire or missed out many items. Hence, total data for 633 native speakers (313 in the UK and 320 in South Korea) were used for statistical analysis. Responses consisted of a 7-point Likert-type

scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The revised questionnaires can be seen in Appendix D.

## **5.4 Validity and Reliability of the Scale**

### **Reliability**

Reliability is defined as “the extent to which research findings would be the same if the research were to be repeated at a later stage or with a different sample of subjects” (Veal, 1997:35). In other words, the reliability of a measure is highly associated with its ‘stability’ and ‘consistency’ across time and place, as well as across the various items in the instrument (Sekaran, 2003). Sekaran adds that ‘stability’ of measurement refers to the ability of a measure to maintain stability over time, and can be tested through test-retest method, parallel-forms reliability. With regard to the test-retest method, the questions are asked of the same sample, but on at least two independent occasions. Responses obtained on the two occasions are correlated, and the correlation coefficient of the data from the two occasions is calculated (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Parallel-form reliability can be proven when answers to two comparable sets of measures, which tap the identical construct, show an intense correlation (Sekaran, 2003).

On the other hand, consistency refers to the structural homogeneity of the items in the measure (Tull and Hawkins, 1993). The items should work together as a set and be able to independently measure the same concept. Thus, the same overall meaning is attached to each item by respondents (Sekaran, 2003). Sekaran added that this can be revealed by examining whether the items in the measuring instrument are strongly related. Consistency can be assessed through tests of inter-item consistency reliability (the Cronbach’s coefficient alpha is used for inter-item consistency reliability) and split-half reliability. For the split-halves reliability method, the questionnaires are divided into two equal halves, which are correlated in the light of the scores for each half (Welman, 2006). The correlation coefficient of the two halves is computed, and this coefficient shows the reliability of the test.

In testing reliability, there are several techniques to measure the reliability of the measures (Newman, 2000). Cronbach's alpha is the most widely used method of assessing inter-item consistency reliability (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham, 2006). "Every item is correlated with every other item across the sample and the average inter-item correlation is taken as the index of reliability" (Collis and Hussey, 2009:206). Cronbach's alpha is a reliability coefficient and indicates how well the items measuring a concept in a dimension are correlated to one another (Sekaran, 2003). Sekaran (2003:307) suggests that "the closer Cronbach's alpha is to 1, the higher the internal consistency reliability."

For the present research, Cronbach's alpha coefficient is used to measure the internal consistency reliability. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the scales of the brand equity, cultural values, brand loyalty, and brand reputation are considered to support the reliability. These will be mentioned in section 5.8.4

## **Validity**

Validity is defined as the degree to which "the information collected by the researcher truly reflects the phenomenon being studied" (Veal, 1997:35). That is, measurement validity expresses how well the conceptual and operational definitions of the indicators fit with each other (Newman, 2000). Imperfect research procedures, insufficient samples, and inaccurate measurements can decrease validity (Collis and Hussey, 2009). There are three methods of measuring validity: content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity (Sekaran, 2003).

Content validity, known as face validity, is the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content of the measurement instrument (McDaniel and Gates, 2006). That is, content validity evaluates whether or not the items adequately represent a performance domain or construct of specific interest (Crocker and Algina, 1986).

Criterion-related validity is established when the measure differentiates individuals on a criterion it is expected to predict (Sekaran, 2003:206). It is the ability of a

measuring instrument to predict a variable designated as a criterion (McDaniel and Gates, 2006). Thus it is regarded as ‘predictive validity’ (Sekaran, 2003).

Construct validity is defined as “how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed” (Sekaran, 2003: 207). Clearly stated definitions and hypotheses that are logically built on well-validated constructs should be used so that the researcher can reduce threats to construct validity (Graziano and Raulin, 2004). It is classified into convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is established when two different instruments measuring the same concept are highly correlated, whereas discriminant validity is established when two variables are predicted to be uncorrelated (Sekaran, 2003).

Several methods are offered to establish validity of the research model for the present research: (1) content validity of the instrument is provided by employing various methods including the concepts from the review of the literature, a pre-test, and the judgment by supervisors, as suggested by Sekaran (2003), (2) multiple regression analysis using the whole sample is used to establish predictive validity or convergent and discriminant validity, (3) factor analysis is used to establish construct validity. These will be mentioned in section 5.8.3

## **5.5 Questionnaire Design**

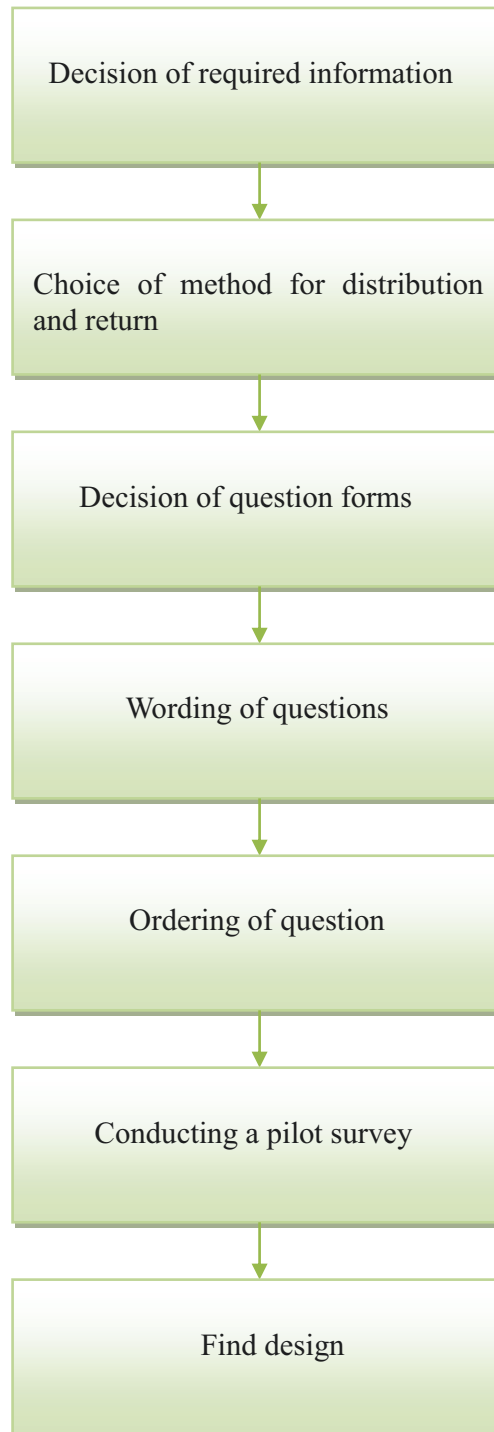
A questionnaire is a written set of questions for the respondents (Kumar, 1999). Questionnaires are the most useful method to collect data, particularly when a survey is conducted on a great many subjects in different geographical regions (Sekaran, 2003). Sekaran adds that the survey using questionnaires is a popular method of obtaining data because researchers are able to easily obtain information and coding questionnaire responses are easy. That is, such research is economical, which can save time and human and financial resources, and it also provides greater anonymity (Kumar, 1999). However, the survey has disadvantages, which include the fact that the application of a study is limited to populations that can read and write (Kumar, 1999). Furthermore, if the response rate to the questionnaires is very low, the findings

may not be accepted in terms of the sampling. In order to increase the response rate of the questionnaire for the present research, respondents were offered some assistance, wary of the need not to introduce bias, when they had some difficulty comprehending some questions.

In order to find out what people think or feel and explain the researcher's questions regarding the research, designing questionnaires appropriately is important (Collis and Hussey, 2009). When formulating a questionnaire, the researcher should examine as much previous research on the topic or relating topics as possible (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000). The concepts and variables involved and the relationships between the variables being investigated, in the form of theories, hypotheses, and research models, should be evident and should lead to the development of a questionnaire design through a well-organized process (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2005).

Before designing the questionnaire, the researcher needs to identify the variables that researchers are able to explain via their research questions (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Collis and Hussey add that before deciding what questions are appropriate, researchers must obtain a great deal of knowledge regarding their subject in order to enable them to develop a conceptual framework and further establish the hypotheses that should be tested. Moreover, in formulating questionnaires, it is essential to carefully consider why the research is being done (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000). Question design refers to the forms of questions, their wording, and the order in which they are posed (Collis and Hussey, 2009). The processes concerning designing a questionnaire are summarized in Figure 5.4.

**Figure 5.4 Process of Questionnaire Design**



Source: Aaker, Kumar, and Day (2004), Collis and Hussey, (2009:192-193), Ticehurst and Veal (2000:144)



The questionnaire design process should begin by making a list of information required to explain the research problems. In order to obtain information for the questionnaire design, previous studies were reviewed and interviews were conducted. On the basis of the prior studies, the items of cultural values, Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity, brand reputation and brand loyalty were developed (see Table 5.3).

There are numerous questionnaire distribution methods, which have different advantages and disadvantages, and cost can be an important factor (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Collis and Hussey highlight that appropriate management and decision-making regarding sampling size and location can be the best method for a particular study.

Two types of questions, such as open-ended and closed-ended, are necessary for formulating the questionnaire (Kumar, 1999). In a closed-ended question, the possible responses are displayed on the questionnaire, and the respondents tick the categories that appropriately describe their answers (Kumar, 1999). In the present research, most of the questions employed the closed-ended question type, in order to increase the response rate as well as to obtain more precise responses. This is because in an open-ended question, possible answers are not given (Kumar, 1999), and the respondents tend to avoid those kinds of questions which require more time for writing the answers. Moreover, the length of the questionnaire, with the emphasis on closed-ended questions, is considered to achieve a higher response rate. The questionnaire was designed to be completed in no longer than 15 minutes.

Since answers to the later items may be affected by earlier items, considering the appropriateness of the order of the questions is necessary. Normally, questions in a questionnaire begin with straight-forward questions. Particularly sensitive questions are then left until later (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000). Therefore, the questionnaire for this research consists of three parts:

- i) The first part is central to the questions relating to the degree to which respondents are interested in visiting and experiencing global brands in the restaurant industry.
- ii) The second part focuses on how the respondents perceive the cultural values

in their nations and Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity in the restaurant industry. Moreover, this part involves questions measuring brand reputation and brand loyalty.

iii) The final part consists of the respondents' socio-demographics.

Kumar (1999) suggests that both the format and wording of questions plays an important role in a research instrument because the type and quality of information acquired is affected by them. The wording of each question by native speakers will need to be sincerely considered in order to ensure that the respondents' answers are valid (Sanders et al., 2007). With regard to the wording of questions for a questionnaire, there are many principles that the researcher should consider, namely avoiding jargon, simplifying sentences wherever possible, avoiding ambiguity of expression, avoiding leading questions, and asking only one question at a time (Ticehurst and Veal, 2000). Conducting a pilot test is the efficient way to check the wording of those questions that may be ambiguous before fieldwork, (Thiétart et al., 2001). In this research, wording of questions was assessed through the pilot study and the wording of each question was reviewed by native speakers from Britain and South Korea, respectively.

### **5.5.1 Measurement of Variables**

The measurement for all the variables in the present study has been employed in previous research. Table 5.3 shows the measurement of variables, including variable names, questions, sources, and scales.

**Table 5.3 Measurement of Variables**

Variables		Questions	Source	Scale
Cultural Values (27)	Collectivism (6)	<p>Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group that they belong to.</p> <p>Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.</p> <p>Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.</p> <p>Group success is more important than individual success.</p> <p>Individuals should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.</p> <p>Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.</p>	Hofstede (1980,1991); Yoo and Donthu (2002)	7-point Likert-type
	Masculinity (4)	<p>It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.</p> <p>Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.</p> <p>Solving difficult problems usually requires an active forcible approach, which is typical of men.</p> <p>There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman.</p>		
	Uncertainty Avoidance (5)	<p>It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do.</p> <p>It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.</p> <p>Rules/regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.</p> <p>Standardized work procedures are helpful.</p> <p>Instructions for operations are important.</p>		

Variables		Questions	Source	Scale
Cultural Values	Power Distance (5)	<p>People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.</p> <p>People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.</p> <p>People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.</p> <p>People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.</p> <p>People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions made by people in higher positions.</p>		
	Long-Term Orientation (2)	<p>I am working and saving for the future.</p> <p>I am planning and preparing for the future.</p>	Hofstede (1984, 2001); Jung et al. (2008)	7-point Likert-type
	Materialism (5)	<p>I have all the things I really need to enjoy life.</p> <p>My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.</p> <p>I wouldn't be any happier if I owned nicer things. (-)</p> <p>I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.</p> <p>It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like.</p>	Richins and Dawson (1992)	

Variables		Questions	Source	Scale	
Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (31)	Brand Trust (4)	This brand meets my expectations of restaurant service. I can rely on this brand to solve the service dissatisfaction. This brand guarantees satisfaction. I have confidence in this brand.	Delgado-Ballester (2004)	7-point Likert-type	
	Brand Affect (3)	I feel good when I dine in this restaurant brand. This restaurant brand makes me happy. This restaurant brand gives me pleasure.	Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001)		
	Perceived Quality (10)	Food Quality (3)	This restaurant brand provides tasty foods.  This restaurant brand prepares food and drinks according to hygiene standards.  This restaurant brand offers fresh foods.		Kivela et al., (1999)  Dutta et al.(2007)  Soriano (2002)
		Physical Environment (3)	The décor of this restaurant brand is beautifully coordinated with great attention to detail. This restaurant brand offers a tidy environment. This restaurant brand provides comfortable seats and tables.		Ekinci (2001)

Variables		Questions	Source	Scale	
Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity	Staff Behaviour (4)	The staff of this restaurant brand is helpful and friendly. The staff of this restaurant brand seems to anticipate what I want. The staff of this restaurant brand listens to me. The staff of this restaurant brand is talented and displays a natural expertise.	Ekinci (2001)	7-point Likert-type	
	Self-Congruence (4)	Actual Self-Congruence (2)	The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I am. The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like me.		Sirgy and Su (2000)
		Ideal Self-Congruence (2)	The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I would like to be. The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like the person I admire.		Sirgy and Su (2000)
	Brand Awareness (4)	I am aware of this brand. I can recognize this brand among other restaurant brands.  When I think of a restaurant brand, this is one of the brands that come to mind. I am familiar with this restaurant brand.	Yoo et al., (2000)  Netemeyer et al., (2004)		

Variables		Questions	Source	Scale
Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity	Brand Association (3)	This brand has an attractive logo. I like the logo of the brand. I like the colours of building or interior.	Gladden and Funk (2002); Alexandris et al. (2008)	7-point Likert-type
	Brand Identification (3)	I feel good when I see a positive report in the media about this brand.  I am interested in what others think about this brand. When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.	Kuenzel and Halliday (2008)  Mael and Ashforth (1992)	

Variables	Questions	Source	Scale
Brand Reputation (5)	<p>This brand is trustworthy.  This brand is reputable.  This brand makes honest claims.  This brand has a long lasting reputation.  In the past, today and in the future, the value behind this brand will not change.</p>	Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009)	7-point Likert-type
Brand Loyalty (4)	<p>I say positive things about this restaurant brand to other people.  I will recommend this restaurant brand to anyone who seeks my advice.</p> <p>I would not switch to another restaurant brand, even if I had a problem with the services of this restaurant brand.</p> <p>I will revisit this restaurant brand next time.</p>	<p>Zeithaml et al. (1996);  Horppu et al. (2008)</p> <p>Taylor, et al., (2004)</p> <p>Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001)</p>	7-point Likert-type



### **5.5.1.1 Independent Variable: Cultural Values**

#### ***Collectivism***

Collectivism, the first component of cultural values, uses six items adopted from Yoo and Donthu (2002). Their dimensions are adopted from Hofstede (1980, 1991). As shown in Table 5.3, the six items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

#### ***Masculinity***

Masculinity, the second dimension of cultural values, uses four items adopted from Yoo and Donthu (2002) based on Hofstede's (1980, 1991) cultural value dimensions. Table 5.3 shows that the present research uses four items that are scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

#### ***Uncertainty Avoidance***

The third component of cultural measurements is uncertainty avoidance, which uses five items adopted from Yoo and Donthu (2002) based on Hofstede's (1980, 1991) cultural value dimensions. As shown in Table 5.3, responses to the five items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

#### ***Power Distance***

The fourth component of cultural measurements is power distance, which uses five items adopted from Yoo and Donthu (2002) based on Hofstede's cultural value dimensions (1980,1991). Table 5.3 shows that power distance was measured using five items with a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

### ***Long-Term Orientation***

Long-term orientation, the fifth component of cultural measurements, uses two items adopted from Jung et al. (2008) based on Hofstede's (1980, 2001) dimension. As shown in Table 5.3, the current research employs two items that are scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

### ***Materialism***

The sixth component of cultural measurements is materialism, which uses five items adopted from Richins and Dawson (1992). As shown in Table 5.3, the five items are scored with a 7-point Likert-type scale that ranges from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

## **5.5.1.2 Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity**

### ***Brand Trust***

The items related to brand trust are adopted from Delgado-Ballester (2004). As Table 5.3 shows, for the measurement of variables, this research employs four items for brand trust that are scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

### ***Brand Affect***

The second component of brand measurements is brand affect, which uses three items adopted from Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001). As shown in Table 5.3, three items for brand affect are measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

### ***Perceived Quality***

Ekinci (2001) proposes that service quality has only two dimensions, physical quality and staff behaviour, both of which use a five-point Likert scale. In addition, overall service quality uses a seven-point, single-item scale, which was anchored by the terms “1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree” Ekinci *et al.* (2008).

Physical quality and staff behaviour, the components of perceived quality measurement, use three and four items, respectively, which are adopted from Ekinci (2001). Food quality, a component of perceived quality, employs three items adopted from Kivela *et al.*, (1999), Dutta *et al.*, (2007), and Soriano (2002). As shown in Table 5.3, the current research uses entirely ten items for perceived quality within a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

### ***Self-Congruence***

The items of self-congruence, the fourth component of brand measurements, are adopted from Sirgy and Su (2000). As Table 5.3 shows regarding the measurement of the variables, this research consists of two components, actual self-congruence (two items) and ideal self-congruence (two items), with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Thus, there are four items in total.

### ***Brand Awareness***

The fifth component of brand measurements is brand awareness, which employs four items adopted from Yoo *et al.*, (2000) and Netemeyer *et al.*, (2004). As shown in Table 5.3, the authors above created four items for brand awareness, with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree. This four item scale shows the characteristic traits of brand awareness and the degree to which these allow us to know the complex mindset of consumers regarding the range of awareness.

### ***Brand Association***

The sixth component of brand measurement is brand association, which is adopted from Alexandris et al. (2008) based on Gladden and Funk (2002). As shown in Table 5.3, this research uses three items for brand association, which are scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

### ***Brand Identification***

The last component of brand measurements is brand identification, which is adopted from Kuenzel and Halliday's (2008) item and Mael and Ashforth's (1992) items. As shown in Table 5.3, the current research employs three items for brand identification, with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

## **5.5.1.3 Dependent Variables: Brand Reputation and Brand Loyalty**

### **Brand Reputation**

The component of brand reputation measurements consists of five items, which is adopted from Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009). As shown in Table 5.3, the five items are employed with a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

### **Brand Loyalty**

The component of purchase intention measurement is conative and adopted from Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), Taylor et al. (2004) and Horppu et al. (2008) adapted from Zeithaml et al. (1996). As can clearly be seen from the Table 5.3, the current research employs four items that are scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

## **5.6 The Pilot Study**

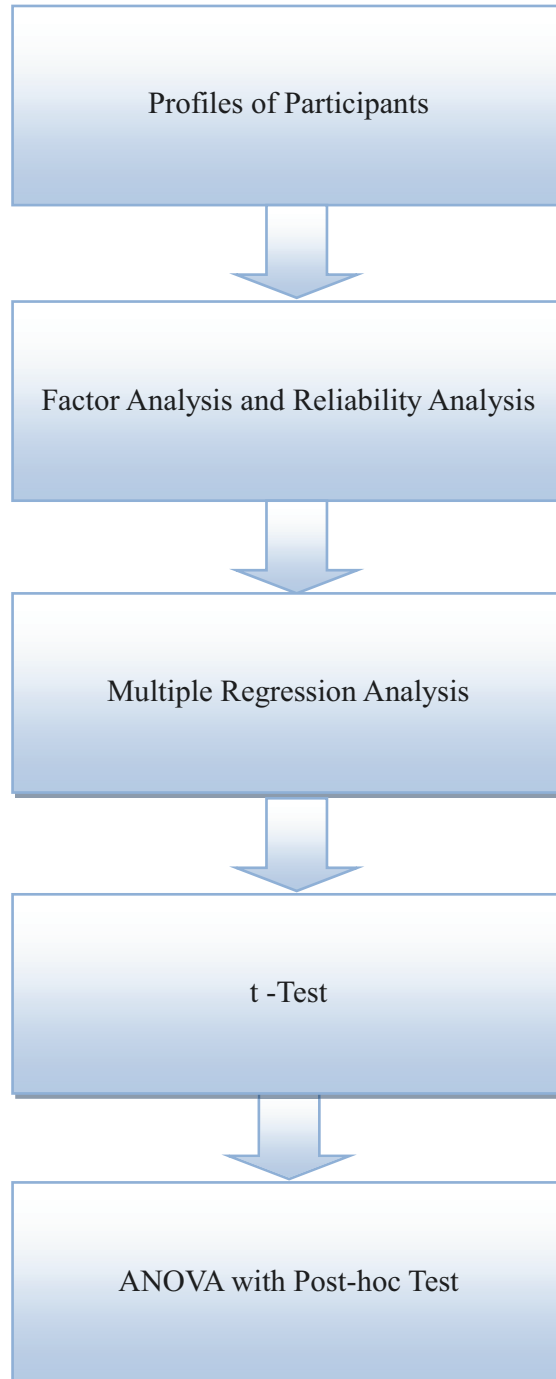
A pilot test was conducted to ensure that wording, explanations, and questions were clear and arranged in a proper format (Crouch and Louviere, 2004). It was conducted with participants who were familiar with global restaurants. For the survey, participants were accessed through personal contacts.

The pilot study was conducted three times in May of 2010 using the initial questionnaire (see Appendix C). 30 questionnaires were distributed for the first pilot study in Oxford. The result of the first pilot study revealed that some questions on cultural values were obscure and difficult for participants to understand. Thus, the scale of cultural values used by Furrer et al. (2000) as presented in the initial questionnaire were exchanged with the research scales of Yoo and Donthu (2002) in order to provide a better understanding for the participants. The second pilot study was conducted to check respondents' levels of understanding of the questions after changing the scale of cultural values. 30 questionnaires were distributed and most respondents understood the questions with greater ease. Before the main survey, a third pilot study was carried with the Korean version of the questionnaires. Questionnaires were distributed to 10 Korean native speakers for a check on wording. In particular, questionnaire of the Korean version was checked by two specialists (translators) among them to see if the translation was exact. Minor modifications were made in wording. The revised questionnaires appear in Appendix D.

## **5.7 Data Analysis**

Data analysis starts with editing data and coding from the questionnaire. The present research deals with quantitative analysis ranging from basic descriptive analysis, t-test, and ANOVA with post-hoc test (Duncan's multiple range test) to more complex factor and reliability analyses, and multiple regression analysis performed by employing the SPSS software program. The result of this analysis appears in sections 6.2, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5 and 6.6. Figure 5.5 displays the data analysis procedure, ranging from editing data to more a complex multiple range test.

**Figure 5.5 Data Analysis Procedure**



### **5.7.1 Profiles of Participants**

Profiles of participants consist of their socio-demographics, such as gender, age, nationality, occupation and annual income (see 6.2). In the current research, this information is useful to better understand their characteristics, and it is essential information. Moreover, it is needed in order to compare between groups using t-test and ANOVA with post-hoc test, which may offer more useful findings (see 6.6).

Tabulation is the orderly arrangement of data in the form of a table or other summary format, and it is useful in revealing percentages and cumulative percentages as well as frequency distributions (Zikmund, 2000). Furthermore, a histogram, pie chart, and bar diagram are diagrams that have columns or sections that display the frequencies of the wider range of numerical scores or values of a quantity (Welman, et al., 2005).

In the present research, the frequency test is employed to describe the demographic details such as gender distribution, age group distribution, distribution of annual personal income, and main purpose for restaurant visit. Moreover, pie and bar charts are used to display data. This is helpful in displaying basic characteristics (see 6.2).

### **5.7.2 Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis is used to reduce the number of factors, and to summarize the information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller set of factors (Hair et al., 2006). The most commonly employed technique is Varimax rotation, which enables the number of variables to be reduced (Pallant, 2007). This rotation is used to simplify the structure of the factors, which is strongly loaded with a given factor (Thiétart et al., 2001). Thiétart *et al* emphasize that such a structure generally improves the interpretation of the factors and that Varimax rotation seems to be the most efficient method that offers the best results. This is because the rotation displays the pattern of loadings in a way that helps the researcher to interpret the data more easily (Pallant, 2007). Interpretation of factors is an essential part of factor analysis

and also provides names for the latent variables (Thiétart et al, 2001).

In order to verify that the data set is appropriate for factor analysis, it is important to consider the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and the Barlett's test of sphericity. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) is used to evaluate the extent of inter-correlations among the variables. In addition, the Barlett's test of sphericity is employed to examine the significance of all correlation within a correlation matrix (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) value should be 0.6 or above, and the Barlett's test of sphericity value should be significant (e.g., 0.5 or smaller) (Pallant, 2007) for the factor analysis of this present research.

The latent root is the most widely used technique which is to consider only the factors having eigenvalue greater than 1 (Hair et al., 2006). Communalities offer information about how much of the variance in each item is explained and a low value (e.g. less than 0.3) means that the item does not fit well with the other items in its component (Pallant, 2007). Factor loadings indicate the correlation of each variable and the factor and the significant factor loading can be identified depends on sample size (Hair et al., 2006). Hair *et al.*, explain that in a sample of 350 or 205 respondents, factor loadings of 0.3 or 0.35, respectively, are acceptable for significance.

In the present research, factor analysis is conducted separately for cultural values and CBGBE dimensions. The present research employs the principal component factor analysis as a factor extraction technique. After determining the number of factors, the factors are interpreted and named. Varimax rotational solutions are used to assist the researcher to interpret the data more easily. In order to confirm the appropriateness of the factor analysis, the Barlett test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) are examined. The significance of factor loadings lies within the guidelines suggested by Hair et al. (2006). The sample size of the present research is 313 and 320, respectively. Therefore, the communalities of each variable used are above 0.4, which is appropriate based on the acceptable values of above 0.3, as proposed by Pallant (2007) (see Section 6.3 for further details).



### **5.7.3 Reliability Analysis**

The question of reliability is connected with all operational processes of quantitative or qualitative research, that is to say data collection, coding, and all other procedures involved in preparing and analyzing data (Thiétart et al., 2001). Reliability exists in relation to both the findings of the research and the credibility of the findings (Welman et al., 2005). It is important that researchers precisely formulate their research design to a high degree of reliability (Thiétart et al., 2001).

In quantitative research, the reliability of the research instrument seems to be related to research reliability (Thiétart et al., 2001). Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha is employed to estimate the degree of the internal consistency of a measurement (e.g. cultural value dimensions, CBGBE dimensions, brand reputation and brand loyalty) (Welman et al., 2005), that is, how well all the items in a measurement are positively correlated with one another (Sekaran, 2003).

Peterson (1994) highlights the fact that the level of Cronbach's alpha should be between 0.60 and 0.95, depending on the type of research. Hair et al. (2006) maintains that a 0.6 level can be employed as an acceptable level in exploratory research. Therefore, according to the characteristic of the current study, it needs to employ 0.6 level as an acceptable level (see Section 6.3 for further details.).

### **5.7.4 Regression Analysis**

Multiple regression analysis is performed to examine the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable in the present research. When more than one independent variable is regressed together against the criterion variable, this is called multiple regression analysis (Sekaran, 2003). Multiple regression analysis is simultaneously able to investigate the effect of two or more independent variables on a dependent variable that is a single interval scaled (Zikmund, 2000).

Zikmund (2000) points out that in a regression model it is important to understand how independent variables affect the dependent variable. For the statistical significance of the model, R-square ( $R^2$ ), F ratio and the beta ( $\beta$ ) value should be

checked. The square of multiple  $r$ , R-square, or  $R^2$  is the amount of variance explained in the dependent variable by the predictor variables. In addition, F ratio offers a measure of the statistical significance of the model. When the p-value is no more than .05 (.01, .001, etc.), the F ratio is regarded as significant (Brace et al., 2000), and the variable is making a contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable (Pallant, 2007).

Moreover, a researcher examines the standardized coefficients in order to compare the different variables. ‘Standardised’ means that these values, for every different variable, have been converted to an equal scale (Pallant, 2007). Hair et al. (2006) explain that the strength of the relationship between dependent and independent variables in the regression variate is represented by the beta coefficients. The beta ( $\beta$ ) value can be used to compare which independent variable has the most influence on the dependent variable.

Prior to proceeding, multicollinearity should be checked (Hair et al., 2006). The value of multicollinearity can be checked via the tolerance and VIF, which are above 0.1 and less than 10, respectively (Pallant, 2007). The analysis is performed to find the relationship among variables in the British and South Korean samples. Further details are contained in Section 6.4 and 6.5.

### **5.7.5 t-Test**

The t-test is used to compare the different impact of two groups on the dependent variable (Pallant, 2007).

In the current research, a t-test is performed to identify the mean differences between independent variables (e.g. gender, marriage) and the dependent variable (e.g. Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity). In the interpretation of the results of a test, the significant differences between two groups are accepted when the p-value is less than 0.05 (see 6.6.1.1, 6.6.1.2, 6.6.1.3 and 6.6.1.4 for further details).

### **5.7.6 ANOVA with Post-hoc Test**

ANOVA is the appropriate method of comparing the means of more than two groups (Zikmund, 2000). ANOVA is performed to examine the significant mean differences among more than two groups of the independent variables to the dependent variables (Sekaran, 2003).

The results of ANOVA are interpreted through the F statistic value and p-value. F ratio indicates the variance between the different groups, divided by the variance within the groups, in addition, a large F ratio represents that there is more variability between the groups than there is within each group (Pallant, 2007). The p-value must be less than 0.05 in order for the F-ratio to be regarded as significant (Brace, Kemp, and Snelgar, 2006).

The post-hoc test can be performed, as appropriate, to detect where exactly the mean differences lie (Sekaran, 2003). More specifically, through the post hoc test, deeper insight is provided into the mean differences of groups. Several post-hoc tests are different in the light of their nature and strictness, such as Tukey's Honest Significant Different test (HSD), Dunnett's C test, Scheffe's test, Duncan's multiple range test, and so on.

The present research uses an one way analysis of variance (one way ANOVA), which is performed to compare the mean differences between groups (e.g. age, income) and with the variable (e.g. Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity). After receiving a statistically significant difference of the ANOVA, Duncan's multiple range test is conducted as a post-hoc test (see Section 6.6.1.3 and 6.6.1.4 for further details).

## **5.8 Summary**

This chapter centres on selecting appropriate research methods and techniques. The research goes through several research process stages (i.e. research design, sampling method, the appropriate data collection method, development of questionnaires design, data analysis).

The target population for the present research consists of native English and Korean speakers who are familiar with the global brands of the restaurants. An operational procedure including convenience sampling, questionnaire development process and measurement of variables is conducted. Moreover, a pre-test is conducted before the main survey, and reliability and validity are considered. Data was analysed through the SPSS soft program.

The first part of the analysis involved profiling the socio-demographics of respondents and purpose of their visit for global restaurant brands by using descriptive analysis. The research hypotheses are tested by using various statistical techniques, both in the entire sample and in each of the British and Korean samples. Descriptive analysis shows the fundamental characteristics of the data. Factor analysis is used to develop and evaluate scales (Pallant, 2007) and identify factors both in the entire sample and each of the British and South Korean samples. Cronbach's Alpha is one of the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency (Sekaran, 2003). This research examined the perceptual differences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) between groups by using t-test, and ANOVA with a post-hoc test (Duncan's multiple range test). Multiple regression analysis is employed to test the research model.

# CHAPTER 6

# **CHAPTER 6**

## **FINDINGS**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings of the study. The analysis of the data is aided by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) which allowed descriptive analysis, factor analysis, reliability analysis, t-test, ANOVA with post-hoc test and regression analysis to be conducted on the whole sample, and also both the British and South Korean samples. This chapter consists of four sections. The first part shows the profiles of the participants, through the use of descriptive analysis, as regards socio-demographics and main purpose of visit to global brand restaurants. The second part displays the reliability and validity of the cultural values, Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE), brand reputation and brand loyalty scales. The third section illustrates that the research model and hypotheses are tested by examining the relationship between the research variables using multiple regression. The fourth section shows the perceptual differences among the respondents analyzed by t-test and ANOVA.

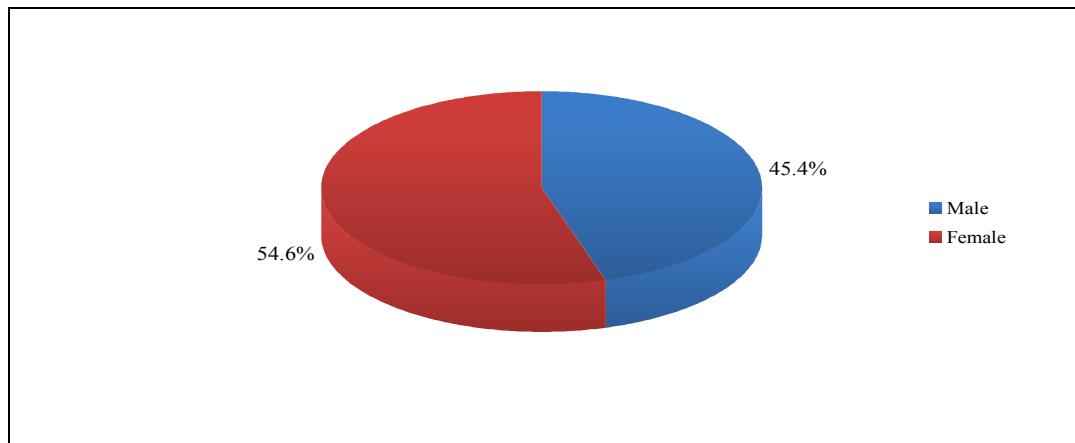
### **6.2 Profiles of the Respondents**

The profiles of the respondents include gender, age group, income and main purpose of visit. With regard to the representativeness of samples, it is worth noting that it would be impossible to observe the whole population of the subjects that the researcher is interested in (Graziano and Raulin, 1997). In the present research, the sampling is focused on consumers who just experienced the global restaurant. However, it is not only difficult to count the numbers of consumers who have experienced the brand, according to their ages, incomes and gender, but there is also no need to investigate them. Thus, proportion of the respondents in the samples may be different from the whole population. Although samples can not perfectly represent of the population (Graziano and Raulin, 1997), the study of the samples can show a more reliable result by using the appropriate sample size (Sekaran, 2003).

## 6.2.1 Profiles of the Whole Sample

**Gender:** Figure 6.1 displays the distribution of gender.

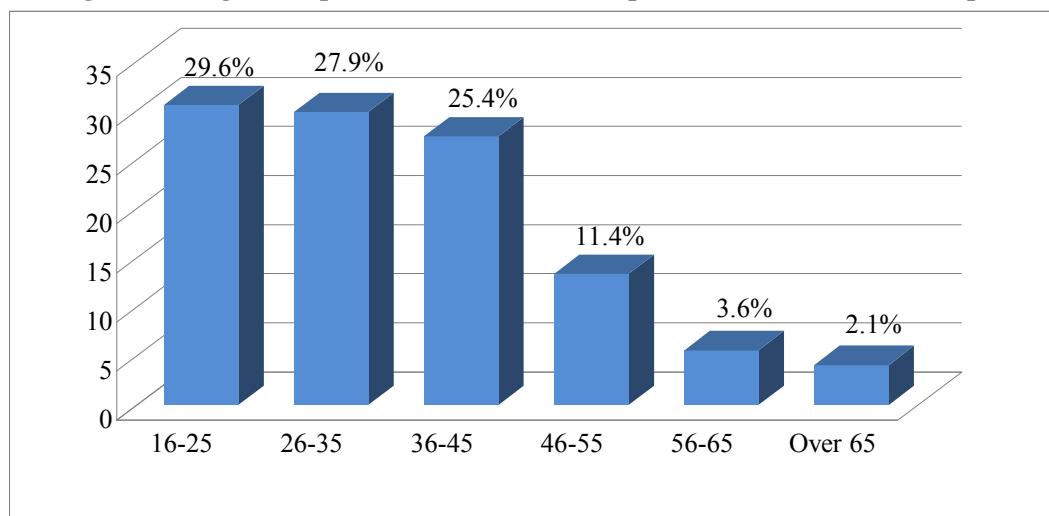
**Figure 6.1: Gender Distribution of the Respondents in the Whole sample**



There are 313 British respondents and 320 South Korean respondents, and so the total number of respondents is 633. The male's proportion of the sample accounts for 45.4% and female is made up of 54.6%.

**Age of Respondents:** The distribution of sample by age appears in Figure 6.2

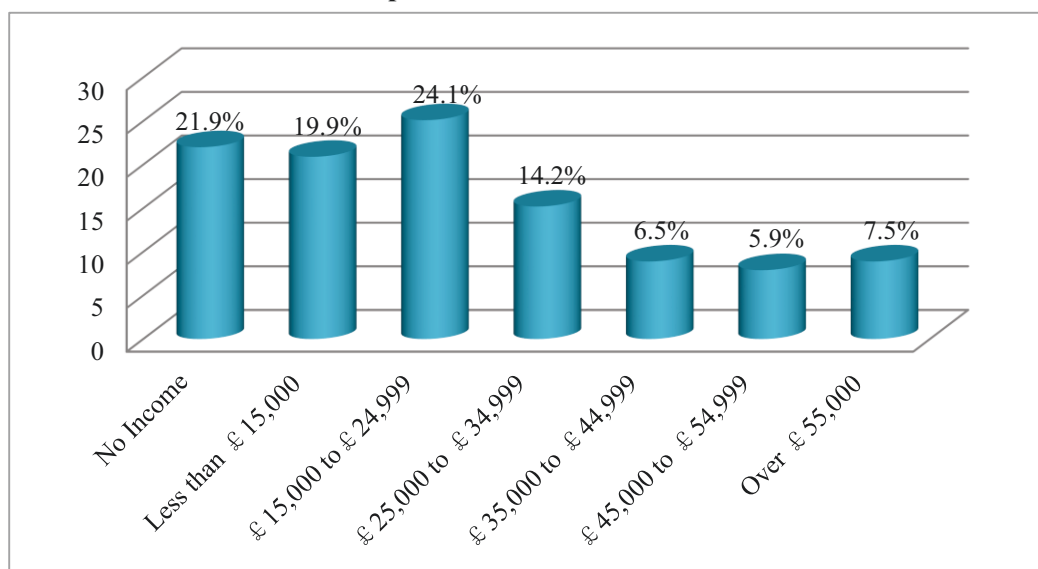
**Figure 6.2: Age Group Distribution of the Respondents in the Whole sample**



The majority of the sample comprises people aged between 16 and 45 years old who are the main target in the market. These age groups account for 82.9% of the total. More specifically, the largest age group is 16 and 25 years old (29.6%), and the proportion between 26-35, and 36-45 are 27.9% and 25.4% respectively. The age group between 56-65, and over 65 indicate a lower proportion of the respondents. The age group between 46 and 55 stands at 11.4%.

**Income:** Figure 6.3 indicates the distribution of annual personal income of subjects

**Figure 6.3: Distribution of Annual Personal Income of Respondents in the Whole sample**

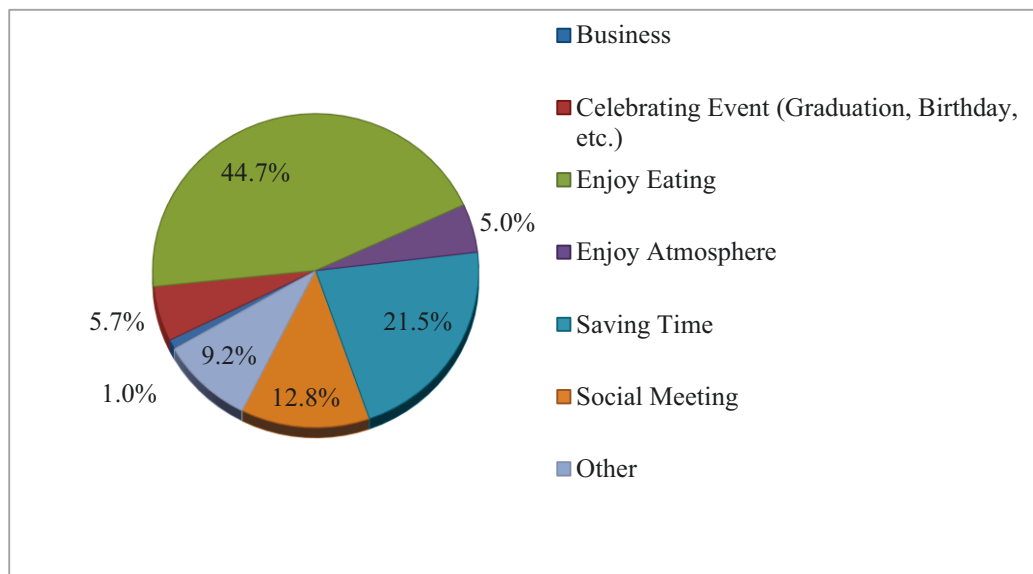


The percentages of no income, less than 15,000 GBP (Great Britain Pounds), and between 15,000-24,999 GBP are higher than other groups. Out of these groups, the highest proportion is between 15,000-24,999 GBP (24.1%). The income category between 35,000-44,999 GBP is 6.5%; 45,000-54,999 GBP is the lowest percentage (5.9%) and over 55,000 GBP is 7.5%.

**Main Purpose of Visit:** Figure 6.4 displays why respondents visit the restaurant.



**Figure 6.4: Main Purpose for Restaurant Visit in the Whole sample**



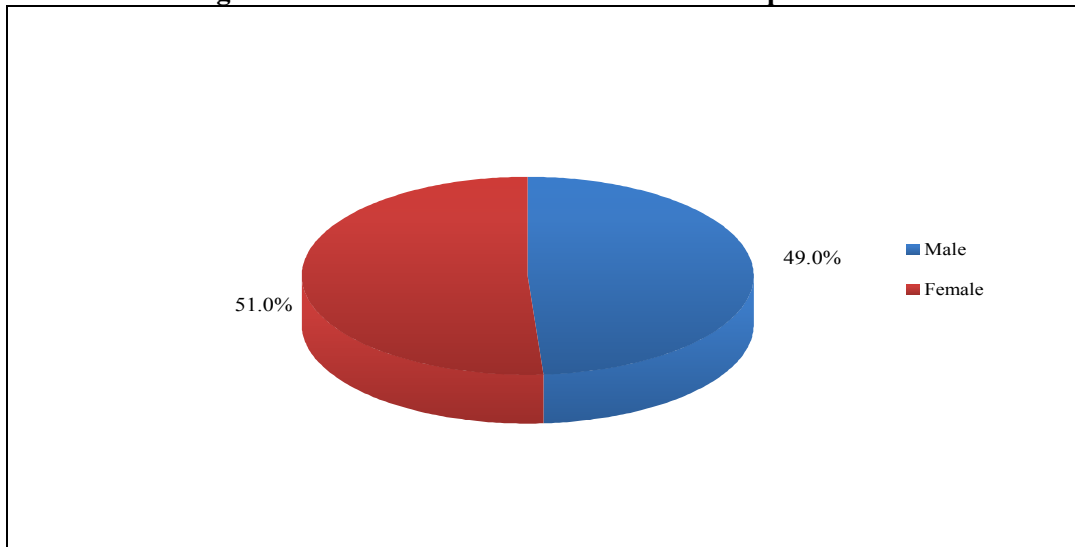
According to the categories regarding main purpose of restaurant visit in the whole sample, the largest majority of the consumers visit to enjoy eating (44.7%); and the smallest percentage of the sample visited for business (1.0%). Saving time comes in second place, at 21.5%, and is followed by social meeting (12.8%), other (9.2%) and celebrating event (5.7%).

### **6.2.2 Profiles of the British Sample**

The profiles of the British respondents include gender, age group, income and main purpose of visit. All samples for the study consist of native English speakers.

**Gender:** Figure 6.5 shows respondents' gender

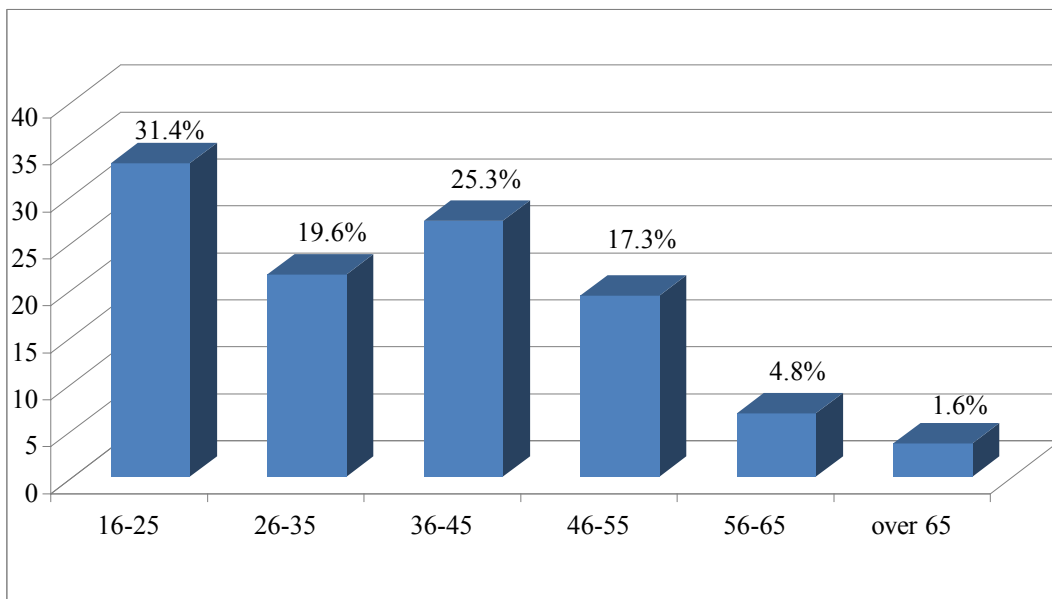
**Figure 6.5: Gender Distribution of British Respondents**



The percentage of the males and females are 49.0% and 51.0% respectively. Thus the distribution of the British respondents' gender is fairly balanced.

**Age of Respondents:** Figure 6.6 indicates age group of Respondents

**Figure 6.6: Age Group Distribution of British Respondents**



The biggest age group is between 16-25 (31.4%). The percentage of 36-45 years old is 25.3% which is higher than 26-35 (19.6%) and 46-55 (17.3%). In contrast, the age groups 56-65, and over 65 take up a lower proportion.

**Income of Respondents:** Annual personal income of respondents appears in Figure 6.7.

**Figure 6.7: Distribution of Annual Personal Income of British Respondents**

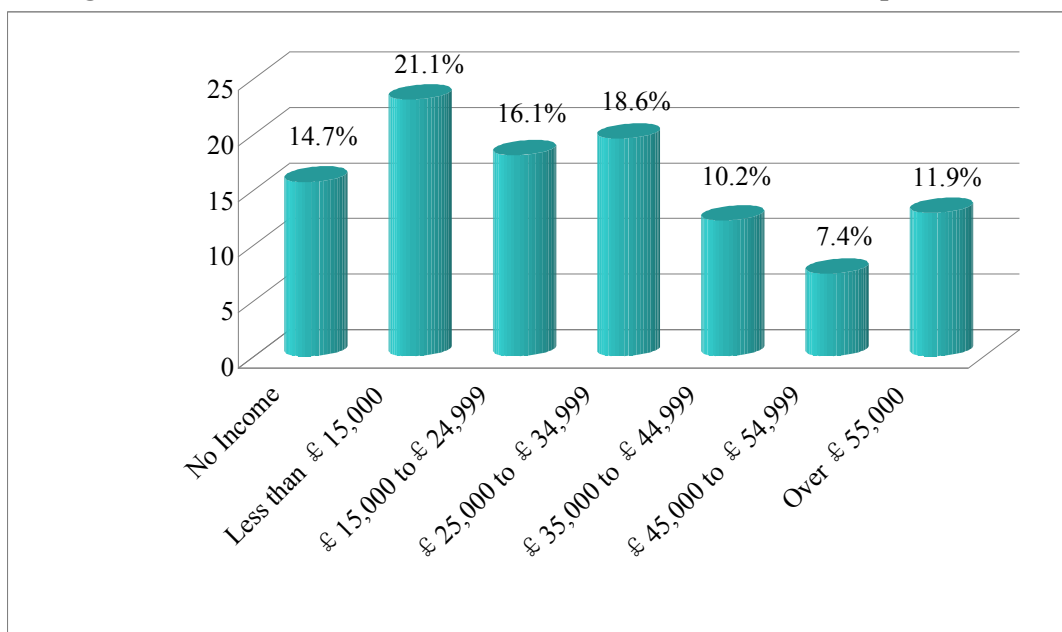
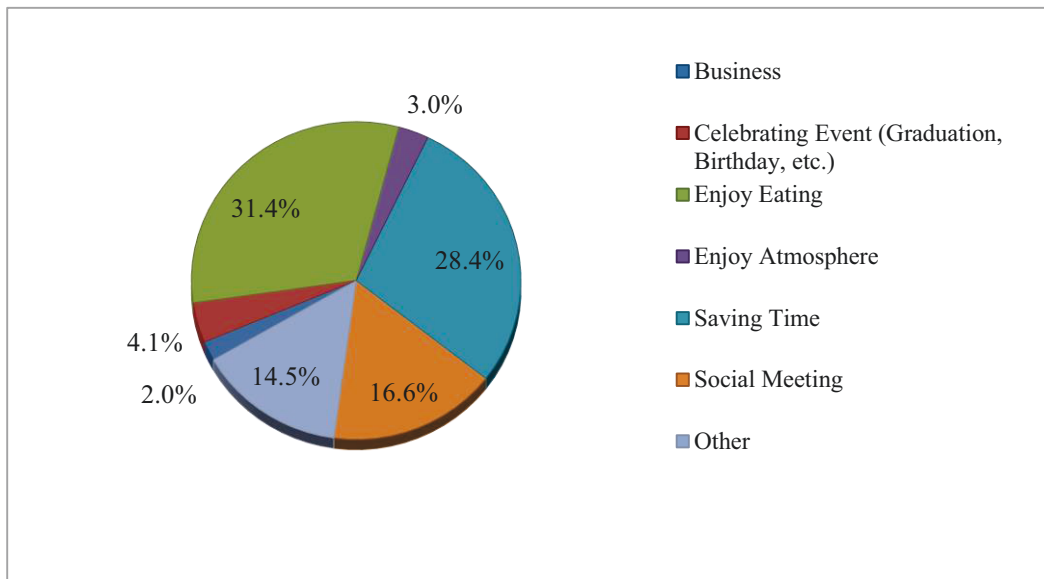


Figure 6.7 indicates annual personal income before tax. Less than 15,000 GBP is the greatest proportion (21.1%) among the categories; 18.6% are between 25,000-34,999 GBP; 16.1% are between 15,000-24,999 GBP; 14.7% are no income; 11.9% are over 55,000 GBP and 7.4% are between 45,000-54,999 GBP.

**Main Purpose of Restaurant Visit:** Figure 6.8 displays British respondents' main purpose for restaurant visit.

**Figure 6.8: Main Purpose for Restaurant Visit in the British sample**



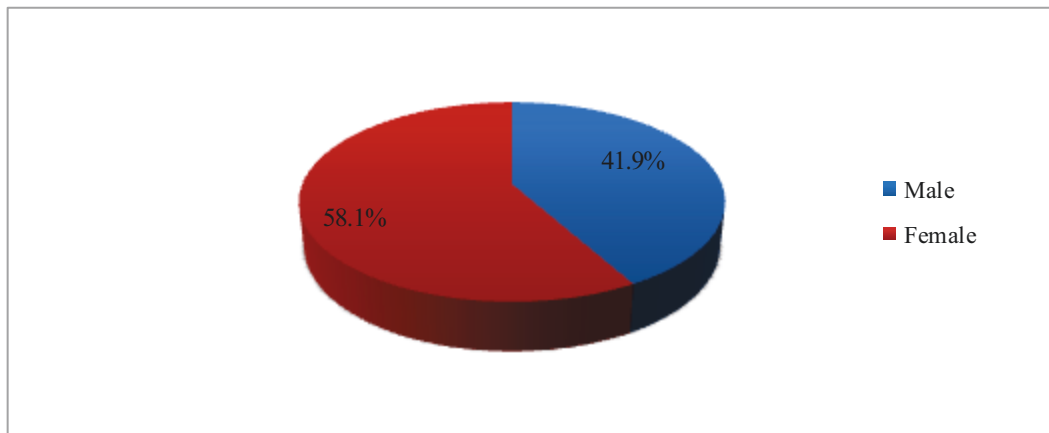
For respondents, the majority of them visit the favorite restaurant for the main purpose to enjoy eating (31.4%) and saving time (28.4%). Of the respondents, 16.6% of them identifies that a social meeting is their main purpose for visiting. Just 2.0%, 3.0% and 4.1% of the respondents visit for business, enjoying atmosphere and celebrating events, respectively. As illustrated in the figure (6.8), the global restaurants are viewed as the place mainly for enjoying, eating and saving time, as well as for social meeting.

### **6.2.3 Profiles of the South Korean Sample**

The profiles of the South Korean respondents include gender, age group, income and purpose of visit. All samples for the study comprise native South Korean speakers.

**Gender of Respondents:** Figure 6.9 displays respondents' gender.

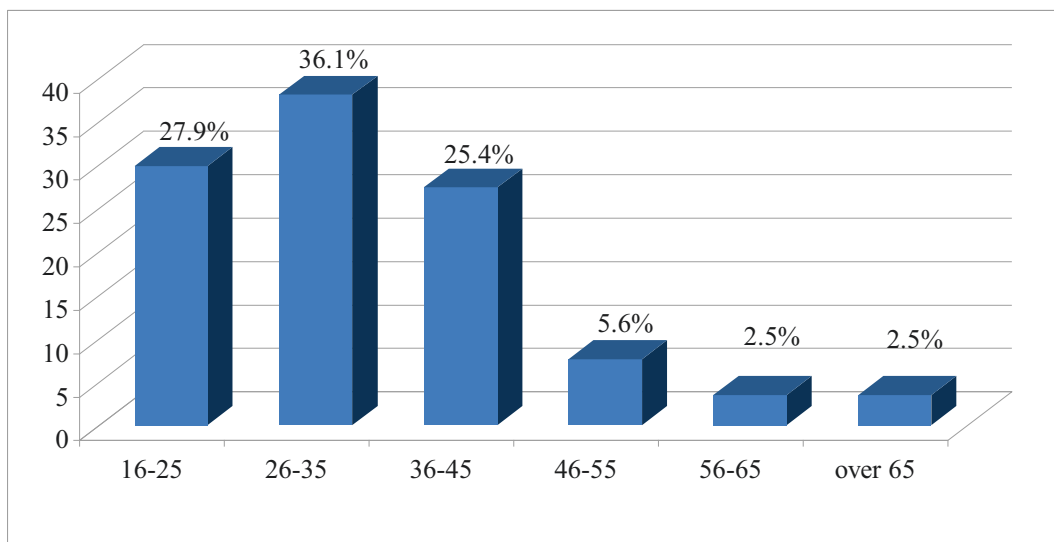
**Figure 6.9: Gender Distribution of South Korean Respondents**



The percentage of males (41.9%) is less than that of females (58.1%) in the South Korean sample.

**Age of Respondents:** Respondents' age category appears in Figure 6.10.

**Figure 6.10: Age Group Distribution of South Korean Respondents**

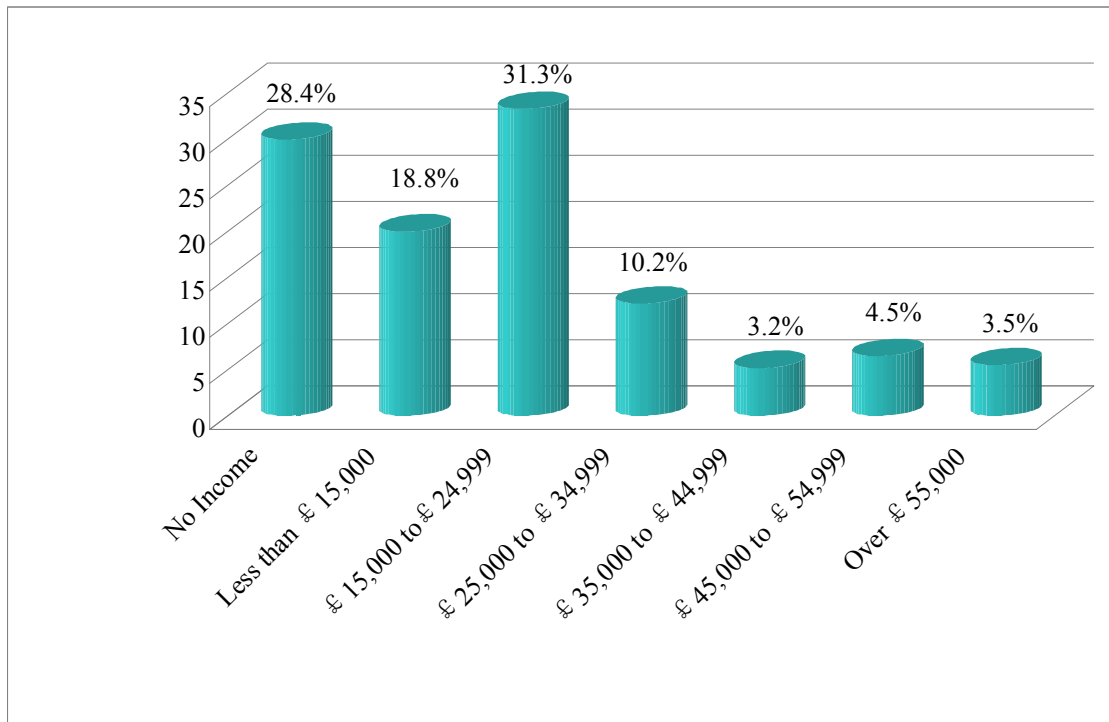


A significantly higher percentage of respondents are in the age groups between 16-45 years old. More specifically, the age-group between 26-35 (36.1%) shows the highest proportion. The group between 16-25 and between 36-45 are higher than others, 27.9% and 25.4% respectively. Different with this, the next three groups account for a

small number of respondents. The 46-55 age group stands at 5.6%. The respondents of the lowest group are between 56-65, and over 65 (2.5% in each).

**Income of Respondents:** Figure 6.11 presents respondents' annual personal income.

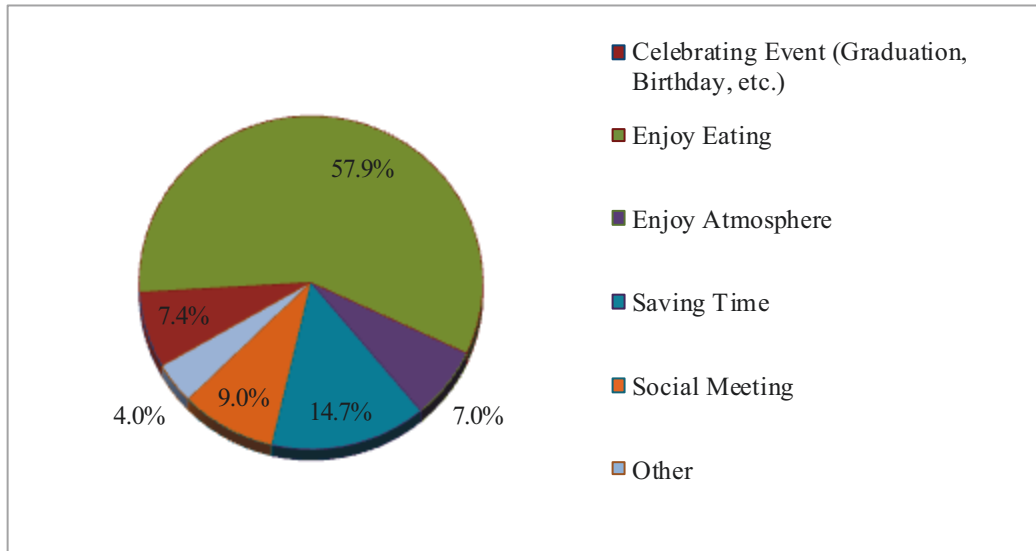
**Figure 6.11: Distribution of Annual Personal Income of South Korean Respondents**



The highest proportion (31.3%) has between 15,000-24,999 GBP as the annual personal income before tax. The larger percentage of no income and less than 15,000 GBP are 28.4% and 18.8% respectively. In contrast to this, the lowest proportions lie in the groups with 35,000-44,999 GBP.

**Main Purpose of Restaurant Visit:** Figure 6.12 accounts for the main purpose of restaurant visit in South Korea.

**Figure 6.12: Main Purpose for Restaurant Visit in the South Korean sample**



The majority of the consumers regard to enjoy eating as the main purpose of visiting a restaurant (57.9%). Saving time is the second main reason to visit (14.7%). Interestingly, there is no one who visits there on business, and celebrating an event, enjoying atmosphere, social meeting and others take up a low percentage (7.4%, 7.0%, 9.0% and 4.0% in each).

### **6.3 Validity and Reliability of Measures**

It is essential to assess validity and reliability of the measurement scales before testing the research model. Factor and Reliability analyses are used to estimate the goodness of the data (Sekaran, 2003). Cronbach's Alpha is employed to assess reliability of the measures (Collis and Hussey, 2009) and factor analysis is employed to assess construct validity of the measures (Churchill, 1979). Three separate exploratory factor analyses are performed for cultural values and the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) scale. In addition, Cronbach's alpha is used to determine the reliability of the cultural values, CBGBE, brand reputation and brand loyalty scales.

In the chapter on methodology, there are considerable details about reliability and validity (see 5.7.3 and 5.7.4). In addition, the results of both the reliability test (Cronbach's alpha test) and the factor analyses are described in 6.3.1 below.

### **6.3.1 Validity and Reliability of the Cultural Values Scale**

The validity and reliability is determined through the results of the reliability test and factor analysis using SPSS, which is performed on the whole sample as well as the British and South Korean samples separately. Data collected from the two samples are analyzed using principal component extraction with a Varimax rotation. This is done in order to categorize items for data summarization and also to identify the framework of a set of research variables (Hair et al., 2006).

#### **6.3.1.1 The Whole Sample**

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Oklín) value is 0.844 which exceeds the recommended value of 0.6 (Pallant, 2007). Barlett's Test of Sphericity is shown to be statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ) (see 5.7.3 for details about the KMO and Barlett's Test of Sphericity). This supports the notion of factorability of the correlation matrix. The data fulfils the fundamental requirements of factor analysis. Cultural values scale is subjected to factor analysis with a Varimax rotation performed using SPSS. The final result of the factor analysis suggests a six factor solution. The results of the factor analysis are presented in Table 6.1.



**Table 6.1: Results of Factor Analysis for the Cultural Values Scale**

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Collectivism</b>							
Group success is more important than individual success.	0.83						0.72
Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.	0.83						0.71
Individuals should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.	0.76						0.61
Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	0.76						0.64
Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	0.75						0.61
Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group that they belong to.	0.68						0.50
<b>Uncertainty Avoidance</b>							
Rules/regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.		0.87					0.79
Standardized work procedures are helpful.		0.83					0.74
It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.		0.83					0.74
Instructions for operations are important.		0.81					0.71
It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do.		0.65					0.56

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Power Distance</b>							
People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions made by people in higher positions.			0.82				0.70
People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.			0.82				0.72
People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.			0.80				0.71
People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.			0.77				0.64
<b>Masculinity</b>							
Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.				0.78			0.66
Solving difficult problems usually requires an active forcible approach, which is typical of men.				0.78			0.70
It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.				0.74			0.65
There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman.				0.64			0.55
<b>Materialism</b>							
I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.					0.86		0.76
It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like.					0.82		0.70
My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.					0.73		0.63

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Long-Term Orientation</b>							
I am working and saving for the future.						0.90	0.84
I am planning and preparing for the future.						0.90	0.85
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	3.75	3.58	2.80	2.52	2.13	1.75	
<b>% of Variance</b>	15.63%	14.93%	11.70%	10.53%	8.89%	7.29%	Total: 68.99%

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis  
Rotation Method: Varimax Rotation  
Item loading less than 0.40 omitted

As can be seen from Table 6.1, the factor analysis produces a six factor solution. The eigenvalues are greater than 1.0 supporting the factor solution for the cultural values scale. The factor loadings in all of the 24 items are over 0.4. (see 5.7.3 for the details about the eigenvalues and the factor loadings). The six factors account for 68.99% of the total variance. *Collectivism* contributes 15.63%, *Uncertainty Avoidance* contributes 14.93%, *Power Distance* contributes 11.70%, *Masculinity* contributes 10.53% and *Materialism* contributes 8.89%, and *Long-Term Orientation* contributes 7.29% of the total variance explained. The outcome of the factor analysis supports construct validity of the scale.

Following the successful factor analysis results, Cronbach's alpha is used to examine the internal consistency reliability of the scale. The results of the reliability analysis are shown in Table 6.2.

**Table 6.2: Reliability of the Cultural values Scale**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Item to total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
<b>Collectivism</b>	Group success is more important than individual success.	0.75	0.87
	Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.	0.74	
	Individuals should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.	0.65	
	Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	0.69	
	Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	0.65	
	Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group that they belong to.	0.58	
<b>Uncertainty Avoidance</b>	Rules/regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.	0.80	0.88
	Standardized work procedures are helpful.	0.75	
	It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.	0.77	
	Instructions for operations are important.	0.71	
	It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do.	0.57	
<b>Power Distance</b>	People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions made by people in higher positions.	0.68	0.84
	People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.	0.71	
	People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.	0.70	
	People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.	0.62	
<b>Masculinity</b>	Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.	0.61	0.79
	Solving difficult problems usually requires an active forcible approach, which is typical of men.	0.68	
	It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.	0.62	
	There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman.	0.52	

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Item to total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
<b>Materialism</b>	I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.	0.69	0.78
	It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like.	0.60	
	My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.	0.57	
<b>Long-Term Orientation</b>	I am working and saving for the future.	0.71	0.82
	I am planning and preparing for the future.	0.71	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis  
Rotation Method: Varimax Rotation  
Item loading less than 0.40 omitted

As shown in Table 6.2, Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the *Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Masculinity, Materialism and Long-Term Orientation* dimensions show good internal consistency with alpha values of 0.87, 0.88, 0.84, 0.79, 0.78, 0.82, respectively, all of which exceed the minimum reliability standard of 0.60 (Murphy and Davidshofer, 1988; Robinson et al., 1991; Peterson, 1994) for an exploratory study (Hair et al., 2006).

### **6.3.1.2 Cross-Cultural Validity and Reliability of the Cultural Values Scale**

The cultural value scale is subjected to factor analysis with the Varimax rotation applied using SPSS. This is in order to "identify the extent to which questions seem to be capturing the same dimensions and the degree to which they could be reduced to a smaller set of factor attributes" (Kozac, 2002:224). For the cross cultural study it is necessary to confirm and also compare the validity and reliability of the cultural values scale between the British and South Korean samples.

#### **6.3.1.2.1. The British Sample**

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Okin) value at 0.807 which exceeds the minimum value of 0.6 (Pallant, 2007) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity indicates statistical significance ( $p=0.000$ ), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Thus, the scale meets the standard requirements for the factor analysis. The final result of the factor analysis suggests a six factor solution. Table 6.3 displays the results of the factor and reliability analyses.

**Table 6.3: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for the Cultural values Scale (British)**

Scales	Factor Loadings						Communalities
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	
<b>Collectivism ( <math>\alpha = 0.87</math> )</b>							
Group success is more important than individual success.	0.86						0.76
Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.	0.85						0.73
Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	0.78						0.65
Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	0.73						0.59
Individuals should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.	0.71						0.52
Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group that they belong to.	0.70						0.50
<b>Uncertainty Avoidance ( <math>\alpha = 0.85</math> )</b>							
Rules/regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.		0.88					0.79
Standardized work procedures are helpful.		0.84					0.73
It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.		0.81					0.70
Instructions for operations are important.		0.80					0.68
It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do.		0.54					0.44
<b>Power Distance ( <math>\alpha = 0.83</math> )</b>							
People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.			0.83				0.74
People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.			0.82				0.70
People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions made by people in higher positions.			0.77				0.65
People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.			0.76				0.67



Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Masculinity ( <math>\alpha = 0.79</math> )</b>							
Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.				0.81			0.70
It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.				0.80			0.69
Solving difficult problems usually requires an active forcible approach, which is typical of men.				0.78			0.71
There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman.				0.63			0.49
<b>Materialism ( <math>\alpha = 0.83</math> )</b>							
I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.					0.88		0.81
It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like.					0.84		0.74
My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.					0.81		0.69
<b>Long-Term Orientation ( <math>\alpha = 0.84</math> )</b>							
I am working and saving for the future.						0.92	0.87
I am planning and preparing for the future.						0.91	0.86
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	3.75	3.26	2.77	2.64	2.28	1.81	
<b>% of Variance</b>	15.62%	13.60%	11.55%	11.00%	9.51%	7.57%	Total: 68.87%

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis  
Rotation Method: Varimax Rotation  
Item loading less than 0.40 omitted

According to Table 6.3, a six factor solution is supported by the result of the factor analysis of the 24 items for the cultural values. The six factors have eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and factor loadings over 0.4. The results of the factor analysis suggest a six factor solution accounting for 68.87 % of the total variance, with 15.62% (*Collectivism*), 13.60% (*Uncertainty Avoidance*), 11.55% (*Power Distance*), 11.00% (*Masculinity*), 9.51% (*Materialism*) and 7.57% (*Long-Term Orientation*) portions of the variance. Therefore, these findings taken from the factor analysis provide evidence for construct validity of the scale.

Following the factor analysis results, Cronbach's alpha test is employed to examine the internal consistency reliability of the scale. The reliability of each factor is also tested to compute Cronbach's alpha. The alpha coefficients for the six factors range between 0.79 and 0.87. This fulfills the minimum reliability standard of 0.60.

#### **6.3.1.2.2. The South Korean Sample**

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Okin) value is 0.840 which fulfills the recommended value of over 0.6 (Pallant, 2007) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity is also found to be statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ). This shows that sufficient intercorrelations exist in the data matrix, thus factor analysis is appropriate. This means the scale items meet the fundamental requirements for the factor analysis. A six factor solution is proposed from the result of the factor analysis. The results of the factor and reliability analyses are displayed in Table 6.4.

**Table 6.4: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for the Cultural Values Scale (South Korean)**

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Uncertainty Avoidance ( <math>\alpha = 0.90</math> )</b>							
It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.	0.85						0.76
Rules/regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.	0.83						0.75
Instructions for operations are important.	0.83						0.75
It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do.	0.80						0.66
Standardized work procedures are helpful.	0.80						0.72
<b>Collectivism ( <math>\alpha = 0.88</math> )</b>							
Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.		0.83					0.72
Group success is more important than individual success.		0.80					0.68
Individuals should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.		0.80					0.69
Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.		0.74					0.65
Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.		0.73					0.66
Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group that they belong to.		0.67					0.53
<b>Power Distance ( <math>\alpha = 0.84</math> )</b>							
People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions made by people in higher positions.			0.84				0.75
People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.			0.82				0.74
People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.			0.80				0.69
People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.			0.73				0.57

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Masculinity ( <math>\alpha = 0.71</math> )</b>							
Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.				0.78			0.65
Solving difficult problems usually requires an active forcible approach, which is typical of man.				0.77			0.64
It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.				0.61			0.53
There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman.				0.55			0.47
<b>Long-Term Orientation ( <math>\alpha = 0.81</math> )</b>							
I am working and saving for the future.					0.89		0.82
I am planning and preparing for the future.					0.86		0.81
<b>Materialism ( <math>\alpha = 0.61</math> )</b>							
I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.						0.85	0.75
It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like.						0.79	0.64
My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.						0.45	0.50
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	4.00	3.80	2.87	2.11	1.77	1.66	
<b>% of Variance</b>	16.69%	15.86%	11.96%	8.80%	7.41%	6.94%	Total: 67.68%

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis  
Rotation Method: Varimax Rotation  
Item loading less than 0.40 omitted

As presented in the table 6.4, the outcome of the factor analysis of the 24 items for the cultural values produces six factors. The six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 represent 67.68% of the total variance, with 16.69% (*Uncertainty Avoidance*), 15.86% (*Collectivism*), 11.96% (*Power Distance*), 8.80% (*Masculinity*), 7.41% (*Long-Term Orientation*) and 6.94% (*Materialism*). All factor loading scores are greater than 0.4. Therefore, the outcome of the factor analysis confirms the construct validity of the scale.

Cronbach's alpha is computed to test the reliability of the six factors. The results show that the alpha coefficients for all six factors range between 0.61 and 0.90, which meet the minimum value of 0.60 as a standard level of reliability (Murphy and Davidshofer, 1988; Robinson et al., 1991; Peterson, 1994) for an exploratory study (Hair et al., 2006).

### **6.3.1.3 Adjustments of the Measures**

Factor analysis with the Varimax Rotation is applied to the 27 items of cultural values. Out of the 27 items, three items in the whole sample and each of the British and the South Korean sample are excluded from further analysis. One of the items is not loaded on the same factor in the British and South Korean samples. In addition, factor loadings of two items are low, that is, the factor loadings of the items are below 0.4.

It is necessary to maintain the equivalence of the construct of the British and South Korean. In terms of methodology, when conducting cross cultural study, functional equivalence is necessary (Buil et al., 2008). Buil et al. add that equivalent construct need to be expressed in similar ways when applying across cultures.

The six factors are termed: *collectivism*, *masculinity*, *uncertainty avoidance*, *power distance*, *long-term orientation*, and *materialism* respectively.

### **6.3.2 Validity and Reliability of the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity Scale**

In order to examine dimensionality of the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) Scale, principal component analysis with the Varimax rotation is performed. In addition, reliability of the scale is assessed by Cronbach's alpha. Both analyses are conducted on the whole sample and on both the British and South Korean samples separately.

#### **6.3.2.1. The Whole Sample**

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin) value is 0.931 which is the standard level - above 0.6 (Pallant, 2007) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity is statistically significant at  $p=0.000$ . This is used to determine the propriety of applying factor analysis with Varimax rotation. This supports the notion of factorability of the correlation matrix and the scale fulfils the fundamental requirements of factor analysis. The factor analysis determined the six factor solution which is displayed in Table 6.5 and the results of the reliability analysis are shown in Table 6.6.

**Table 6.5: Results of Factor Analysis for the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity Scale**

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Brand Trust</b>							
This restaurant brand makes me happy.	0.80						0.81
I feel good when I dine in this restaurant brand.	0.79						0.79
This restaurant brand gives me pleasure.	0.79						0.77
This restaurant brand provides tasty foods.	0.75						0.68
I have confidence in this brand.	0.74						0.72
This brand guarantees satisfaction.	0.72						0.72
This brand meets my expectations of restaurant service.	0.64						0.65
I can rely on this brand to solve the service dissatisfaction.	0.55						0.60
<b>Perceived Quality</b>							
The staff of this restaurant brand is helpful and friendly.		0.77					0.73
This restaurant brand offers a tidy environment.		0.72					0.65
The staff of this restaurant brand is talented and displays a natural expertise.		0.72					0.71
The staff of this restaurant brand listens to me.		0.72					0.67
The staff of this restaurant brand seems to anticipate what I want.		0.70					0.60
This restaurant brand provides comfortable seats and tables.		0.68					0.58
The décor of this restaurant brand is beautifully co-ordinated with great attention to detail.		0.59					0.62

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Self-Congruence</b>							
The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like me.			0.84				0.82
The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I am.			0.80				0.81
The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I would like to be.			0.78				0.80
The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like the person I admire.			0.66				0.73
<b>Brand Awareness</b>							
I am familiar with this restaurant brand.				0.89			0.82
I can recognize this brand among other restaurant brands.				0.85			0.77
I am aware of this brand.				0.84			0.73
When I think of a restaurant brand, this is one of the brands that come to mind.				0.50			0.48
<b>Brand Association</b>							
I like the logo of the brand.					0.85		0.86
This brand has an attractive logo.					0.82		0.83
I like the colours of building or interior.					0.74		0.77



Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Brand Identification</b>							
I am interested in what others think about this brand.						0.79	0.74
When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.						0.76	0.76
I feel good when I see a positive report in the media about this brand.						0.57	0.67
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	5.22	4.86	3.11	2.82	2.65	2.35	
<b>% of Variance</b>	18.00%	16.76%	10.74%	9.73%	9.14%	8.13%	Total:72.52%

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis  
Rotation Method: Varimax Rotation  
Item loading less than 0.40 omitted

As shown in Table 6.5, the six factors solution including 29 items with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and factor loadings of over 0.4 in all of the 31 items are retained. The six extracted factors account for a total of 72.52% of the variance, with *Brand Trust* explaining 18.00% of the variance, *Perceived Quality* explaining 16.76% of the variance, *Self-Congruence* explaining 10.74 % of the variance, *Brand Awareness* explaining 9.73% of the variance, *Brand Association* explaining 9.14% of the variance, and *Brand Identification* explaining 8.13 % of the variance. The results of the factor analysis confirm construct validity of the scale.

Reliability of the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity scale (CBGBE) was tested using Cronbach's alpha statistic as seen in Table 6.6.

**Table 6.6: Reliability of the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity Scale**

Dimensions	Items	Item to total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Brand Trust	This restaurant brand makes me happy.	0.80	0.93
	I feel good when I dine in this restaurant brand.	0.83	
	This restaurant brand gives me pleasure.	0.77	
	This restaurant brand provides tasty foods.	0.73	
	I have confidence in this brand.	0.79	
	This brand guarantees satisfaction.	0.79	
	This brand meets my expectations of restaurant service.	0.71	
	I can rely on this brand to solve the service dissatisfaction.	0.65	
Perceived Quality	The staff of this restaurant brand is helpful and friendly.	0.76	0.90
	This restaurant brand offers a tidy environment.	0.72	
	The staff of this restaurant brand is talented and displays a natural expertise.	0.75	
	The staff of this restaurant brand listens to me.	0.73	
	The staff of this restaurant brand seems to anticipate what I want.	0.68	
	This restaurant brand provides comfortable seats and tables.	0.66	
	The décor of this restaurant brand is beautifully co-ordinated with great attention to detail.	0.66	
Self-Congruence	The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like me.	0.79	0.89
	The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I am.	0.75	
	The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I would like to be.	0.81	
	The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like the person I admire.	0.70	
Brand Awareness	I am familiar with this restaurant brand.	0.76	0.81
	I can recognize this brand among other restaurant brands.	0.72	
	I am aware of this brand.	0.64	
	When I think of a restaurant brand, this is one of the brands that come to mind.	0.42	
Brand Association	I like the logo of the brand.	0.84	0.87
	I like the colours of building or interior.	0.67	
	This brand has an attractive logo.	0.77	
Brand Identification	I am interested in what others think about this brand.	0.68	0.80
	I feel good when I see a positive report in the media about this brand.	0.62	
	When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.	0.67	

As shown in Table 6.6, Cronbach's alpha coefficient of *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association*, and *Brand Identification* dimensions are 0.93, 0.90, 0.89, 0.81, 0.87 and 0.80, respectively. All of which exceed the acceptable level of 0.60. Thus, the internal consistency is acceptable for a newly developed scale. –The Corrected item-total correlated values shown in the Item-Total Statistics table give an indication of the degree to which each item correlates with the total score” (Pallant, 2007:98). Coefficients of the *Brand Trust* dimension range from 0.65 to 0.83; the *Perceived Quality* dimension range from 0.66 to 0.76; the *Self-Congruence* dimension range from 0.70 to 0.81; the *Brand Awareness* dimension range from 0.42 to 0.76; the *Brand Association* dimension range from 0.67 to 0.84 and the *Brand Identification* dimension range from 0.62 to 0.68.

Consequently, in the whole sample, the CBGBE Scale with six dimensions is retained. The results of the factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha provide evidence for validity and reliability of the scale.

### **6.3.2.2 Validity and Reliability of the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity Scale in Cross-Cultures**

#### **6.3.2.2.1 The British Sample**

It is necessary to determine the propriety of applying factor analysis through the examination of the KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Oklín) measure of sample adequacy and Barlett's Test of Sphericity. The result of KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Oklín) value shows a level of 0.914 which is the standard - above 0.6 (Pallant, 2007) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity are statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Thus, the scale meets the acceptable requirements for the factor analysis.

The principal component analysis with the Varimax rotation determines six factors. Table 6.7 displays the results of the factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha test.

**Table 6.7: Result of Factor and Reliability Analyses for the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity Scale (British)**

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Brand Trust ( <math>\alpha = 0.93</math> )</b>							
This restaurant brand makes me happy.	0.81						0.81
This restaurant brand gives me pleasure.	0.80						0.80
I feel good when I dine in this restaurant brand.	0.78						0.79
I have confidence in this brand.	0.78						0.77
This brand guarantees satisfaction.	0.76						0.76
This restaurant brand provides tasty foods.	0.76						0.69
This brand meets my expectations of restaurant service.	0.66						0.63
I can rely on this brand to solve the service dissatisfaction.	0.63						0.64
<b>Perceived Quality ( <math>\alpha = 0.90</math> )</b>							
The staff of this restaurant brand is helpful and friendly.		0.74					0.74
This restaurant brand offers a tidy environment.		0.74					0.66
The staff of this restaurant brand is talented and displays a natural expertise.		0.71					0.73
This restaurant brand provides comfortable seats and tables.		0.69					0.64
The staff of this restaurant brand seems to anticipate what I want.		0.67					0.60
The staff of this restaurant brand listens to me.		0.60					0.66
The décor of this restaurant brand is beautifully co-ordinated with great attention to detail.		0.57					0.65

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Self-Congruence ( <math>\alpha = 0.92</math> )</b>							
The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I would like to be.			0.87				0.88
The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like me.			0.83				0.84
The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like the person I admire.			0.80				0.81
The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I am.			0.80				0.81
<b>Brand Awareness ( <math>\alpha = 0.74</math> )</b>							
I am familiar with this restaurant brand.					0.87		0.78
I can recognize this brand among other restaurant brands.					0.82		0.72
I am aware of this brand.					0.82		0.71
When I think of a restaurant brand, this is one of the brands that come to mind.					0.40		0.34
<b>Brand Association ( <math>\alpha = 0.89</math> )</b>							
I like the logo of the brand.				0.85			0.86
This brand has an attractive logo.				0.80			0.82
I like the colours of building or interior.				0.75			0.80
<b>Brand Identification ( <math>\alpha = 0.77</math> )</b>							
I am interested in what others think about this brand.						0.79	0.72
When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.						0.77	0.76
I feel good when I see a positive report in the media about this brand.						0.60	0.67

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	5.59	4.52	3.54	2.76	2.63	2.17	
<b>% of Variance</b>	19.30%	15.59%	12.21%	9.52%	9.09%	7.50%	Total:73.24%

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis  
Rotation Method: Varimax Rotation  
Item loading less than 0.40 omitted

As shown in table 6.7, all factors including 29 items are maintained for further analysis. This is based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and factor loadings of over 0.4 in all of the 31 items. The six extracted factors explain 73.24% of the total variance, with 19.30%, 15.59%, 12.21%, 9.52%, 9.09% and 7.50% portions of the variance, respectively. Therefore, it is evident that construct validity of the scale can be identified from these outcomes coming from the factor analysis.

Following the factor analysis results, the internal consistency of the items forming six factors solution is estimated using the reliability analysis. The reliability alpha coefficients of *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Association*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand identification* were 0.93, 0.90, 0.92, 0.89, 0.74 and 0.77, respectively.

#### **6.3.2.2.2 The South Korean Sample**

The result of KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin) value shows a level of 0.919 which is acceptable - above 0.6 (Pallant, 2007) and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity is considered significant ( $p=0.000$ ). This result suggests that sufficient intercorrelations exist in the data matrix. Thus the data is suitable for factor analysis. The principal component analysis with the Varimax rotation determines six factors solution. The results of the factor and reliability analyses are presented in Table 6.8.



**Table 6.8: Result of Factor and Reliability Analyses for the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity Scale (South Korean)**

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Brand Trust ( <math>\alpha = 0.91</math> )</b>							
This restaurant brand makes me happy.		0.81					0.82
I feel good when I dine in this restaurant brand.		0.80					0.79
This restaurant brand gives me pleasure.		0.78					0.78
This restaurant brand provides tasty foods.		0.70					0.65
I have confidence in this brand.		0.68					0.67
This brand guarantees satisfaction.		0.62					0.68
This brand meets my expectations of restaurant service.		0.55					0.68
<b>Perceived Quality ( <math>\alpha = 0.90</math> )</b>							
The staff of this restaurant brand listens to me.	0.80						0.71
The staff of this restaurant brand is helpful and friendly.	0.78						0.72
The staff of this restaurant brand is talented and displays a natural expertise.	0.71						0.69
This restaurant brand offers a tidy environment.	0.71						0.65
The staff of this restaurant brand seems to anticipate what I want.	0.70						0.61
This restaurant brand provides comfortable seats and tables.	0.64						0.56
The décor of this restaurant brand is beautifully co-ordinated with great attention to detail.	0.62						0.60
I can rely on this brand to solve the service dissatisfaction.	0.55						0.64

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Self-Congruence ( <math>\alpha = 0.78</math> )</b>							
The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like me.						0.83	0.80
The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I am.						0.77	0.77
The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I would like to be.						0.55	0.67
<b>Brand Awareness ( <math>\alpha = 0.87</math> )</b>							
I am familiar with this restaurant brand.			0.82				0.81
I am aware of this brand.			0.80				0.69
I can recognize this brand among other restaurant brands.			0.78				0.76
When I think of a restaurant brand, this is one of the brands that come to mind.			0.78				0.72
<b>Brand Association ( <math>\alpha = 0.85</math> )</b>							
I like the logo of the brand.					0.83		0.86
This brand has an attractive logo.					0.81		0.81
I like the colours of building or interior.					0.70		0.72
I feel good when I see a positive report in the media about this brand.					0.52		0.69
<b>Brand Identification ( <math>\alpha = 0.82</math> )</b>							
When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment.				0.81			0.75
I am interested in what others think about this brand.				0.74			0.67
The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like the person I admire.				0.70			0.73

Scales	Factor Loadings						
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Communalities
<b>Eigenvalue</b>	5.03	4.56	3.21	3.12	2.59	2.29	
<b>% of Variance</b>	17.36%	15.75%	11.08%	10.76%	8.93%	7.92%	Total:71.82%

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis  
Rotation Method: Varimax Rotation  
Item loading less than 0.40 omitted

As shown in Table 6.8, all factors including 29 items are maintained for further analysis. This is based on eigen values greater than 1.0 and factor loadings of over 0.4 in all of the 31 items. The six extracted factors explain 71.82% of the total variance, with 17.36% (*Perceived Quality*), 15.75% (*Brand Trust*), 11.08% (*Brand Awareness*), 10.76% (*Brand Identification*), 8.93% (*Brand Association*) and 7.92% (*Self-Congruence*). Therefore, it is clear that construct validity of the scale can be identified from these results of the factor analysis.

The reliability test for testing the internal consistency of the items in six factors was employed after the factor analysis. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all six factors range from 0.78 to 0.91.

The six factors are labeled *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association* and *Brand Identification*, respectively.

### **6.3.2.3 Adjustments of the Measures**

For the British and South Korean samples, factor analysis with a Varimax Rotation method was applied to the 31 items of CBGBE scale. *All the items of Brand Affect* dimension and an item of the *Perceived Quality* loaded on the dimension of *Brand Trust*. In addition, out of the 31 items, two items of the dimension of *Perceived Quality* in the whole sample and each of the British and the South Korean sample are excluded in further analysis. This is because the two items are not loaded on the same factor in the British and South Korean samples.

It is necessary for both the UK and South Korea questionnaires to have the equivalent construct. Importantly, in the light of methodology, an establishment of functional equivalence is necessary for the cross cultural study, (Buil et al., 2008).

### 6.3.3 Reliability of the Brand Reputation Scale

To assess the reliability of the brand reputation scale, Cronbach's alpha test is performed on the whole sample and each of the British and South Korean samples.

#### 6.3.3.1 The Whole Sample

To examine the reliability of the brand reputation scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficients examine the measure in the whole sample. Table 6.9 presents the results of this test.

**Table 6.9: Reliability of the Brand Reputation Scale**

Brand Reputation Scale	Item to Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
This brand is trustworthy.	0.75	0.87
This brand is reputable.	0.78	
This brand makes honest claims.	0.71	
This brand has a long lasting reputation.	0.66	
In the past, today and in the future, the value behind this brand will not change.	0.61	

In the whole sample, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the brand reputation scale is 0.87, which fulfills the acceptable internal consistency threshold of 0.70 for a mature scale. Item to total correlation coefficients for the scale are between 0.61 and 0.78. Therefore, the brand reputation scale confirms its reliability in the whole sample.

#### 6.3.3.2 The British Sample

The reliability test for the British sample measures the internal consistency of a scale and examines the reliability of the brand reputation scale. Table 6.10 displays the results of this test.

**Table 6.10: Reliability of the Brand Reputation Scale (British)**

<b>Brand Reputation Scale</b>	<b>Item to Total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
This brand is trustworthy.	0.75	0.87
This brand is reputable.	0.80	
This brand makes honest claims.	0.73	
This brand has a long lasting reputation.	0.63	
In the past, today and in the future, the value behind this brand will not change.	0.56	

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of brand reputation scale are 0.87 and coefficients of brand reputation scale range from 0.56 to 0.80. Thus, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients support the reliability of the scale in the British sample.

### **6.3.3.3 The South Korean Sample**

In the South Korean sample, Cronbach's alpha coefficients examine the measurement to examine the reliability of the brand reputation scale. The results of the reliability analysis are shown in Table 6.11.

**Table 6.11: Reliability of the Brand Reputation Scale (South Korean)**

<b>Brand Reputation Scale</b>	<b>Item to Total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
This brand is trustworthy.	0.72	0.87
This brand is reputable.	0.76	
This brand makes honest claims.	0.69	
This brand has a long lasting reputation.	0.68	
In the past, today and in the future, the value behind this brand will not change.	0.66	

The coefficients of the brand reputation scale indicate 0.87 and the scale range from 0.66 to 0.76. Hence, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients confirm the reliability of the scale in the South Korean sample.

### 6.3.4 Reliability of the Brand Loyalty Scale

In order to assess the reliability of the scale, Cronbach's alpha evaluates the internal consistency of the scale in the whole sample and each of the British and South Korean sample.

#### 6.3.4.1 The Whole Sample

To examine the reliability of the brand loyalty scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficients examine the measurement in the whole sample. Table 6.12 displays the results of this test.

**Table 6.12: Reliability of the Brand Loyalty Scale**

Brand Loyalty Scale	Item to Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
I say positive things about this restaurant brand to other people.	0.80	0.85
I will recommend this restaurant brand to anyone who seeks my advice.	0.82	
I would not switch to another restaurant brand, even if I had a problem with the services of this restaurant brand.	0.52	
I will revisit this restaurant brand next time.	0.66	

Coefficient of the brand loyalty scale indicates 0.85, which value fulfills acceptable internal consistency threshold – 0.7. Item to total correlation coefficients for the scale are between 0.52 and 0.82. Therefore, the brand loyalty scale confirms its reliability.

#### 6.3.4.2 The British Sample

The reliability test for the British sample measures the internal consistency of a scale and examines the reliability of the brand loyalty scale. Table 6.13 shows the results of this test.

**Table 6.13: Reliability of the Brand Loyalty Scale (British)**

<b>Brand Loyalty Scale</b>	<b>Item to Total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
I say positive things about this restaurant brand to other people.	0.84	0.87
I will recommend this restaurant brand to anyone who seeks my advice.	0.82	
I would not switch to another restaurant brand, even if I had a problem with the services of this restaurant brand.	0.58	
I will revisit this restaurant brand next time.	0.68	

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the brand loyalty scale are 0.87 and coefficients of the brand loyalty scale range from 0.58 to 0.84. Thus, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the British sample confirm the reliability of the scale.

### **6.3.4.3 The South Korean Sample**

In the South Korean sample, Cronbach's alpha coefficients assess the measurement to examine the reliability of the brand loyalty scale. Table 6.14 presents the results of this test.

**Table 6.14: Reliability of the Brand Loyalty Scale (South Korean)**

<b>Brand Loyalty Scale</b>	<b>Item to Total Correlation</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
I say positive things about this restaurant brand to other people.	0.70	0.79
I will recommend this restaurant brand to anyone who seeks my advice.	0.79	
I would not switch to another restaurant brand, even if I had a problem with the services of this restaurant brand.	0.41	
I will revisit this restaurant brand next time.	0.61	

The coefficients of the brand loyalty scale are 0.79 and the scale range from 0.41 to 0.79. Hence, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the South Korean sample support the reliability of the scale.



## 6.4 Hypothesis Testing: Results of the Regression Analysis of the Whole Sample

In the third stage of data analysis, multiple regression analysis is used to test the research hypotheses and the research model.

The independent variables are six Cultural Value dimensions: *Collectivism*, *Masculinity*, *Uncertainty Avoidance*, *Power Distance*, *Long-Term Orientation* and *Materialism*. The mediating variables are six Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) dimensions: *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association*, *Brand Identification*. The dependent variables are brand reputation and brand loyalty.

It should be noted that it is necessary to perform the multiple regression analysis using the whole sample. The increased size of whole sample may generate enough statistical power to detect a significant effect for the dependent variables (Dash, Bruning and Acharya, 2009). The reason why the analysis is necessary is to confirm predictive validity of the research model.

Prior to proceeding to the analysis, multicollinearity should be checked as follows. Multicollinearity can be assessed by a Tolerance Value and a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Tolerance value should be greater than .10 and VIF should be less than 10 in order to confirm that the regression result is not influenced by multicollinearity (Pallant, 2007).

For this research, the results of the multicollinearity analysis suggest that both the Tolerance Value and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) fulfill the standard. That is, there was no multicollinearity effect in any of the regression model (see Table 6.15, 6.16, 6.17, 6.18, 6.19).

## 6.4.1 Effects of Cultural Values on Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity

In order to test the research hypotheses, multiple regression analysis using the enter method was conducted. Six represent the independent variables. The Cultural Value dimensions are: *Collectivism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Long-Term Orientation, and Materialism*. The six CBGBE dimensions are: *Brand Trust, Perceived Quality, Self-Congruence, Brand Awareness, Brand Association, and Brand Identification*. One of the aims of the present research is to examine; how do Cultural Values have an effect on CBGBE? The first set of research hypotheses between cultural values and two dimensions of CBGBE (*Brand Trust and Perceived Quality*) is described:

- H1a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H2a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.
- H2b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.
- H2c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.
- H2d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.
- H2e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.
- H2f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.

Table 6.15 summarizes the multiple regression analysis between cultural values and the two CBGBE variables: *Brand Trust* and *Perceived Quality*.

**Table 6.15: Effect of Cultural Values on Brand Trust and Perceived Quality**

Variable	Brand Trust						Perceived Quality					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Collectivism	0.09	2.26	<b>0.024*</b>	0.90	1.10	<b>H1a = YES</b>	0.13	3.31	<b>0.001**</b>	0.90	1.10	<b>H2a = YES</b>
Masculinity	0.10	2.20	<b>0.028*</b>	0.69	1.44	<b>H1b = YES</b>	0.04	1.04	0.294	0.69	1.44	H2b = NO
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.19	4.49	<b>0.000***</b>	0.76	1.31	<b>H1c = YES</b>	0.11	2.58	<b>0.010*</b>	0.76	1.30	<b>H2c = YES</b>
Power Distance	0.02	0.53	0.593	0.81	1.23	H1d = NO	0.09	2.17	<b>0.030*</b>	0.80	1.23	<b>H2d = YES</b>
Long-Term Orientation	0.06	1.68	0.093	0.93	1.07	H1e = NO	0.20	5.18	<b>0.000***</b>	0.93	1.06	<b>H2e = YES</b>
Materialism	0.16	3.88	<b>0.000***</b>	0.85	1.17	<b>H1f = YES</b>	0.02	0.48	0.631	0.84	1.17	H2f = NO
R <sup>2</sup>	0.16									0.13		
F	18.439									14.762		
p	0.000									0.000		

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

As shown in Table 6.15, the effect of cultural values was first tested on the *Brand Trust* of CBGBE and the multiple regression model is statistically significant ( $F=18.439$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). The  $R^2$  of the regression model shows that the model explains 16% of the total variance which means that the six cultural values successfully explain *Brand Trust*. The dimensions of *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.09$ ) and *Masculinity* ( $\beta=0.10$ ) have a significant effect on *Brand Trust* ( $p<0.05$ ). *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.19$ ) and *Materialism* ( $\beta=0.16$ ) dimensions have a significant effect on *Brand Trust* ( $p<0.001$ ). However, the dimensions of *Power Distance* and *Long-Term Orientation* have no significant effect on *Brand Trust*. Therefore, the research supports the hypotheses of H1a, H1b, H1c and H1f but does not support H1d and H1e.

The effects of cultural values on *Perceived Quality* dimension of CBGBE are assessed with results showing a statistical significance ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=14.762$ ) and 13% of the total variance. The dimensions of *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.13$ ) and *Long-Term Orientation* ( $\beta=0.20$ ) are statistically significant at  $p<0.01$  and  $p<0.001$ , respectively and the dimensions of *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.11$ ) and *Power Distance* ( $\beta=0.09$ ) are also significant at  $p<0.05$ . However, the dimensions of *Masculinity* and *Materialism* are found to be statistically insignificant. Hence, the present research accepts the hypotheses of H2a, H2c, H2d and H2e, but rejects H2b and H2f.

The second set of research hypotheses illustrates the relationship that cultural values have with the *Self-Congruence* dimension of CBGBE, and with the *Brand Awareness* dimension of CBGBE.

**H3a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H4a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

**H4b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

**H4c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

**H4d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

**H4e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

**H4f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

Table 6.16 displays the results of the multiple regression analysis between cultural values and both the *Self-Congruence* dimension of CBGBE and the *Brand Awareness* dimension of CBGBE.

**Table 6.16: Effect of Cultural Values on Self-Congruence and Brand Awareness**

Variable	Self-Congruence						Brand Awareness					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Collectivism	0.07	1.97	<b>0.049*</b>	0.90	1.10	<b>H3a= YES</b>	0.21	5.19	<b>0.000***</b>	0.90	1.10	<b>H4a= YES</b>
Masculinity	0.16	3.66	<b>0.000***</b>	0.69	1.43	<b>H3b= YES</b>	-0.06	-1.43	0.151	0.69	1.43	H4b= NO
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.09	2.09	<b>0.036*</b>	0.77	1.29	<b>H3c= YES</b>	0.15	3.41	<b>0.001**</b>	0.75	1.31	<b>H4c= YES</b>
Power Distance	0.09	2.26	<b>0.024*</b>	0.81	1.22	<b>H3d= YES</b>	-0.07	-1.59	0.111	0.80	1.24	H4d= NO
Long-Term Orientation	0.10	2.78	<b>0.006**</b>	0.93	1.06	<b>H3e= YES</b>	0.06	1.59	0.112	0.93	1.06	H4e= NO
Materialism	0.13	3.18	<b>0.002**</b>	0.84	1.18	<b>H3f= YES</b>	0.06	1.41	0.157	0.84	1.18	H4f= NO
R <sup>2</sup>				0.15						0.09		
F				18.196						10.163		
p				0.000						0.000		

\* p<0.05 \*\* p<0.01 \*\*\* p<0.001

As seen in Table 6.16, the consequences of the regression analysis for the relationship between the cultural values and *Self-Congruence* dimension of CBGBE are presented. This is statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=18.196$ ) and the  $R^2$  value shows that the cultural values explain 15% of the total variance in the dimension. Clearly, all of the six Cultural Value dimensions make a significant contribution to explaining the effect of the *Self-Congruence* dimension of CBGBE. The *Self-Congruence* dimension is influenced by the dimensions of *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.07$ ), *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.09$ ) and *Power Distance* ( $\beta=0.09$ ) at  $p<0.05$  level, by *Long-Term Orientation* ( $\beta=0.10$ ) and *Materialism* ( $\beta=0.13$ ) at  $p<0.01$  level and by *Masculinity* ( $\beta=0.16$ ) at  $p<0.001$  level. Thus, all hypotheses of H3a, H3b, H3c, H3d, H3e and H3f are confirmed by this research.

The fourth set of results from the regression analysis show a statistical significant relationship at the 0.000 level ( $F=10.163$ ). The overall estimate of the model accounts for 9% of the variance in *Brand Awareness*. *Collectivism* and *Uncertainty Avoidance* dimensions show a beta coefficient of 0.21 and 0.15 at  $p<0.001$  and  $p<0.01$  level, respectively. The other dimensions of *Masculinity*, *Power Distance*, *Long-Term Orientation* and *Materialism* are found to be insignificant. Hence, results from the analysis accept only the hypotheses of H4a and H4c, but reject H4b, H4d, H4e and H4f.

The third set of research hypotheses displays the relationship that cultural values have with the *Brand Association* dimension of CBGBE, and with the *Brand Identification* dimension of CBGBE.

**H5a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**H5b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**H5c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**H5d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**H5e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

- H5f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.
- H6a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.
- H6b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.
- H6c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.
- H6d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.
- H6e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.
- H6f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.

The results of the multiple regression analysis between cultural values and both *Brand Association* dimension of CBGBE and *Brand Identification* dimension of CBGBE appear in Table 6.17.



**Table 6.17: Effect of Cultural Values on Brand Association and Brand Identification**

Variable	Brand Association						Brand Identification					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Collectivism	0.12	2.98	<b>0.003**</b>	0.90	1.10	<b>H5a=YES</b>	0.10	2.57	<b>0.010*</b>	0.90	1.10	<b>H6a=YES</b>
Masculinity	0.06	1.43	0.152	0.69	1.44	H5b=NO	0.15	3.44	<b>0.001**</b>	0.69	1.44	<b>H6b=YES</b>
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.07	1.67	0.094	0.76	1.30	H5c=NO	0.10	2.33	<b>0.020*</b>	0.76	1.30	<b>H6c=YES</b>
Power Distance	0.01	0.42	0.672	0.80	1.24	H5d=NO	0.15	3.59	<b>0.000***</b>	0.80	1.23	<b>H6d=YES</b>
Long-Term Orientation	0.11	2.72	<b>0.007**</b>	0.93	1.06	<b>H5e=YES</b>	0.10	2.73	<b>0.006**</b>	0.93	1.06	<b>H6e= YES</b>
Materialism	0.12	2.80	<b>0.005**</b>	0.84	1.18	<b>H5f=YES</b>	0.05	1.24	0.212	0.84	1.18	H6f= NO
R <sup>2</sup>				0.09						0.15		
F				9.771						18.304		
p				0.000						0.000		

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

As presented in Table 6.17, the results of the multiple regression analysis explains 9% of the total variance and indicates that Cultural Value dimensions are statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=9.771$ ) in predicting the *Brand Association* of CBGBE. *Collectivism*, *Long-Term Orientation* and *Materialism* have a standardized coefficient of 0.12, 0.11 and 0.12, respectively and have a statistically significant effect on the *Brand Association* at the level of 0.01. However, three other dimensions of *Masculinity*, *Uncertainty Avoidance* and *Power Distance* are not statistically significant. Therefore, the results from the analysis confirm the hypotheses of H5a, H5e and H5f, but do not confirm H5b, H5c and H5d.

The regression analysis shows the relationship between the cultural values and the *Brand Identification* dimension of CBGBE to be statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=18.304$ ) and the  $R^2$  value explains 15% of the total variance. With the exception of only the *Materialism* dimension, the dimensions of *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.10$ ), and *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.10$ ) show a significant level of 0.05. In addition, the dimensions of *Masculinity*, ( $\beta=0.15$ ) and *Long-Term Orientation* ( $\beta=0.10$ ) at  $p<0.01$  level make a statistically significant contribution to explaining *Brand Identification*. *Power Distance* ( $\beta=0.15$ ) indicates a strong significant contribution too at the probability level of 0.001. Hence, results from the analysis accept the hypotheses of H6a, H6b, H6c, H6d and H6e excluding H6f.

#### **6.4.2 Effect of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Reputation**

The six dimensions of CBGBE are: *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association* and *Brand Identification*. One of the aims of the present research is to test the hypotheses whether CBGBE affects brand reputation. The fourth set of formulated research hypotheses is as follows:

**H7a:** *Brand Trust* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

**H7b:** *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

**H7c:** *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

**H7d:** *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

**H7e:** *Brand Association* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

**H7f:** *Brand Identification* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

The results of the regression model between the six dimensions of CBGBE and brand reputation appear in Table 6.18.

**Table 6.18: Effect of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Reputation**

Variable	Brand Reputation					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Brand Trust	0.41	10.53	<b>0.000***</b>	0.47	2.08	<b>H7a= YES</b>
Perceived Quality	0.06	1.62	0.106	0.46	2.17	H7b= NO
Self-Congruence	0.08	2.33	<b>0.020*</b>	0.60	1.66	<b>H7c= YES</b>
Brand Awareness	0.25	8.21	<b>0.000***</b>	0.78	1.27	<b>H7d= YES</b>
Brand Association	0.11	3.21	<b>0.001**</b>	0.59	1.66	<b>H7e= YES</b>
Brand Identification	0.11	3.06	<b>0.002**</b>	0.55	1.79	<b>H7f= YES</b>
R <sup>2</sup>				0.59		
F				132.963		
p				0.000		

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

As shown in Table 6.18, the results of the regression model are statistically significant at the 0.000 level ( $F=132.963$ ). The  $R^2$  value explains 59% of the total variance in brand reputation dimension. *Brand Trust* ( $\beta=0.41$ ) and *Brand Awareness* ( $\beta=0.25$ ) indicate statistically a strong significant level of 0.001. *Brand Association* ( $\beta=0.11$ ) and *Brand Identification* ( $\beta=0.11$ ) are statistically significant at the level of 0.01. *Self-Congruence* ( $\beta=0.08$ ) is also statistically significant ( $p<0.05$ ). Of all the dimensions, *Brand Trust* has the greatest standardized coefficient ( $\beta=0.41$ ) and therefore, the most important dimension in explaining Brand Reputation. The dimension of *Perceived Quality* is the only dimension for which the analysis is found to be insignificant. Hence, the research hypotheses of H7a, H7c, H7d, H7e, and H7f are accepted.

### **6.4.3 Effect of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Loyalty**

The previous dimension analysis produced six dimensions of CBGBE which are named as: *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association* and *Brand Identification*. One of the aims of the present research is to examine the hypotheses that CBGBE affects brand loyalty. The fifth set of hypotheses is as follows:

**H8a:** *Brand Trust* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8b:** *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8c:** *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8d:** *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8e:** *Brand Association* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8f:** *Brand Identification* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

Table 6.19 shows that the results of the regressions model between six dimensions of CBGBE and brand loyalty.

**Table 6.19: Effect of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Loyalty**

Variable	Brand Loyalty					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Brand Trust	0.47	12.83	<b>0.000***</b>	0.47	2.09	<b>H8a= YES</b>
Perceived Quality	0.03	0.97	0.329	0.46	2.16	H8b= NO
Self-Congruence	0.07	2.22	<b>0.027*</b>	0.60	1.66	<b>H8c= YES</b>
Brand Awareness	0.05	1.95	0.051	0.78	1.27	H8d= NO
Brand Association	0.05	1.65	0.098	0.60	1.66	H8e= NO
Brand Identification	0.30	8.98	<b>0.000***</b>	0.55	1.79	<b>H8f= YES</b>
R <sup>2</sup>			0.63			
F			163.933			
p			0.000			

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

As seen in Table 6.19, the regression analysis model between CBGBE and brand loyalty is statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=163.933$ ). 63% of the variation of brand loyalty is explained by six dimensions of CBGBE. Three dimensions make a significant contribution to an explanation of brand loyalty with values of 0.47 for *Brand Trust* ( $p<0.001$ ), 0.30 for *Brand Identification* ( $p<0.001$ ) and 0.07 for *Self-Congruence* ( $p<0.05$ ). Analysis indicates the dimensions of *Perceived Quality*, *Brand Awareness* and *Brand Association* are statistically insignificant. The two dimensions of *Brand Trust* ( $\beta=0.47$ ) and *Brand Identification* ( $\beta=0.30$ ), which comprise the largest standardized coefficients, show the importance of explaining brand loyalty. In terms of confirming hypotheses, H8a, H8c and H8f are supported, but H8b, H8d and H8e are not supported.

## **6.5 Testing of the Research Model in the British and South Korean Samples**

The research model is tested by multiple regression analysis in the British and South Korean samples. The independent variables are composed of six cultural value dimensions: *Collectivism*, *Masculinity*, *Uncertainty Avoidance*, *Power Distance*, *Long-Term Orientation* and *Materialism*. The mediating variables consist of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) dimensions: *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association*, *Brand Identification*. The dependent variables are brand reputation and brand loyalty.

Before proceeding to the analysis, multicollinearity should be considered. Multicollinearity can be evaluated by a Tolerance Value and a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Tolerance value should be above .10 and VIF should be lower than 10 in order to confirm that the regression result is not affected by multicollienarity (Pallant, 2007). For the present research, the results of the multicollinearity analysis propose that both the Tolerance Value and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) meet the standard. That is to say, there was no multicollinearity effect in any of the regression model (see Table 6.20, 6.21, 6.22, 6.23, 6.24, 6.25, 6.26, 6.27).

## 6.5.1 Effects of Cultural Values on Consumer-Based Global

### Brand Equity

Multiple regression analysis using the enter method was performed to test the research hypotheses. The cultural values dimensions consist of *Collectivism*, *Masculinity*, *Uncertainty Avoidance*, *Power Distance*, *Long-Term Orientation*, and *Materialism*. The CBGBE dimensions were composed of *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association*, and *Brand Identification*. One of the aims of the present research is to examine the effect of cultural values on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE. To achieve this goal, the following hypotheses are produced:

- H1a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.
- H1f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Trust* of CBGBE.

Table 6.20 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis between the cultural values dimensions and the *Brand Trust* dimension of CBGBE in the British and South Korean samples.



**Table 6.20: Effect of Cultural Values on Brand Trust**

Variable	Brand Trust (British)						Brand Trust (South Korean)					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Collectivism	0.05	0.86	0.386	0.92	1.08	H1a = NO	0.11	1.85	0.064	0.75	1.33	H1a = NO
Masculinity	0.02	0.40	0.684	0.75	1.32	H1b = NO	0.16	2.60	<b>0.010*</b>	0.72	1.38	<b>H1b = YES</b>
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.22	3.66	<b>0.000***</b>	0.86	1.15	<b>H1c = YES</b>	0.17	2.67	<b>0.008**</b>	0.70	1.42	<b>H1c = YES</b>
Power Distance	- 0.00	- 0.03	0.969	0.79	1.25	H1d = NO	0.02	0.44	0.655	0.80	1.24	H1d = NO
Long-Term Orientation	0.06	1.10	0.270	0.94	1.06	H1e = NO	0.04	0.78	0.435	0.89	1.11	H1e = NO
Materialism	0.20	3.37	<b>0.001**</b>	0.89	1.11	<b>H1f= YES</b>	0.05	0.89	0.371	0.87	1.14	H1f = NO
R <sup>2</sup>	0.12									0.14		
F	6.714									8.181		
p	0.000									0.000		

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

As seen in Table 6.20, The multiple regression model for the British sample is statistically significant for estimating the effect of the cultural values on *Brand Trust* ( $F=6.714$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). The R-square of the regression model explains 12% of the total variance in *Brand Trust*. The dimension of *Uncertainty Avoidance* has the largest beta coefficients of 0.22 at the level of 0.001. *Materialism* ( $\beta=0.20$ ) indicates a statistical significance at the level of 0.01. However, the other dimensions such as *Collectivism*, *Masculinity*, *Power Distance* and the *Long-Term Orientation* are not statistically significant. Hence, these findings accept H1c and H1f but reject H1a, H1b, H1d and H1e.

The regression model for the South Korean sample is also statistically significant in estimating *Brand Trust* ( $F=8.181$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). The R-square of the regression model explains 14% of the total variance in *Brand Trust*. *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.17$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) and *Masculinity* ( $\beta=0.16$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) are statistically significant in explaining *Brand Trust*. However, *Collectivism*, *Power Distance*, *Long-Term Orientation* and *Materialism* do not have a statistically significant influence on *Brand Trust*. Hence, these findings accept H1b, and H1c, but reject H1a, H1d, H1e and H1f.

In comparing the results of the analysis between the British and South Korean samples, the differences of the dimensions of *Masculinity* for the South Korean sample and *Materialism* for the British sample have a statistically significant influence on Brand Trust, thus these findings partially accept H1b and H1f. *Uncertainty Avoidance* dimension for both of the samples has a statistically significant influence on *Brand Trust*. Clearly, the effect of this dimension on *Brand Trust* is stronger in the UK sample ( $\beta= 0.22$ ) than the South Korean ( $\beta= 0.17$ ) sample. However, the dimensions of *Collectivism*, *Power Distance* and *Long-Term Orientation* for both samples have no statistically significant influence on *Brand Trust*. Therefore, these findings accept H1c but reject H1a, H1d and H1e.

The second set of hypotheses is proposed to test the relationship between cultural values and perceived quality:

**H2a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.

**H2b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.

**H2c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.

**H2d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.

**H2e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.

**H2f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE.

Table 6.21 displays the results of the multiple regression analysis between the cultural values dimensions and the *Perceived Quality* dimension of CBGBE in the British and South Korean samples.

**Table 6.21: Effect of Cultural Values on Perceived Quality**

Variable	Perceived Quality (British)						Perceived Quality (South Korean)						
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	
Collectivism	0.15	2.60	<b>0.010*</b>	0.92	1.08	<b>H2a = YES</b>	0.10	1.73	0.084	0.75	1.33	H2a = NO	
<i>Masculinity</i>	- 0.02	- 0.42	0.670	0.75	1.32	H2b =NO	0.08	1.35	0.176	0.72	1.38	H2b = NO	
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.12	2.10	<b>0.036*</b>	0.86	1.15	<b>H2c =YES</b>	0.13	2.07	<b>0.039*</b>	0.70	1.42	<b>H2c = YES</b>	
Power Distance	0.13	2.13	<b>0.033*</b>	0.79	1.25	<b>H2d =YES</b>	0.07	1.35	0.176	0.80	1.24	H2d = NO	
Long-Term Orientation	0.11	1.91	0.057	0.94	1.06	H2e =NO	0.26	4.84	<b>0.000***</b>	0.89	1.11	<b>H2e = YES</b>	
Materialism	0.05	0.94	0.343	0.89	1.11	H2f =NO	- 0.07	- 1.29	0.196	0.87	1.14	H2f = NO	
R <sup>2</sup>				0.10							0.15		
F				5.491							9.607		
p				0.000							0.000		

\* p<0.05 \*\* p<0.01 \*\*\* p<0.001

As presented in Table 6.21, the results of the second regression analysis for the British sample is statistically significant at  $p=0.000$  level ( $F=5.491$ ) and 10% of the total variance is explained for *Perceived Quality*. This is estimated by the three dimensions of the cultural values at  $p<0.05$ , including *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.15$ ), *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.12$ ) and *Power Distance* ( $\beta=0.13$ ). The other dimensions (*Masculinity*, *Long-Term Orientation* and *materialism*) have no statistically significant effect on *Perceived Quality*. Thus, results confirm H2a, H2c and H2d but reject H2b, H2e and H2f.

The second regression analysis in the South Korean sample presents the relationship between the cultural values dimensions and *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE. This is statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=9.607$ ) and the R-square value indicates that the cultural values explain 15% of the total variance of *Perceived Quality*. The dimensions of *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.13$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and *Long-Term Orientation* ( $\beta=0.26$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) have a statistically significant influence on *Perceived Quality*. However, the *Perceived Quality* is not significantly influenced by *Collectivism*, *Masculinity*, *Power Distance* and *Materialism*. Thus, the hypotheses of H2c and H2e are confirmed but H2a, H2b, H2d and H2f are not confirmed in the South Korean Sample.

To sum up, the results of the study suggest that the dimensions of *Uncertainty Avoidance* have a significant influence on *Perceived Quality* in the two samples thus, support H2a and H2c. *Collectivism*, *Power Distance* and *Long-Term Orientation* dimensions have a statistically significant effect on *Perceived Quality*, which partially support H2a, H2d and H2e. However, the hypotheses of H2b and H2f are not supported. More specifically, out of all these dimensions, the effect of *Long-Term Orientation* for the South Korean sample has the largest beta coefficient of 0.26 at  $p<0.001$ . The effect of *Uncertainty Avoidance* on *Perceived quality* is strong in the British and South Korean samples ( $\beta= 0.12$  and  $0.13$ , respectively).

The third set of research hypotheses between the dimensions of cultural values and the *Self-Congruence* is as follows:

**H3a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

**H3f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE.

Table 6.22 displays the results of the multiple regression analysis between the cultural values dimensions and the *Self-Congruence* dimension of CBGBE in the British and South Korean samples.

**Table 6.22: Effect of Cultural Values on Self-Congruence**

Variable	Self-Congruence (British)						Self-Congruence (South Korean)					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Collectivism	0.16	2.86	<b>0.004**</b>	0.92	1.08	<b>H3a = YES</b>	0.05	0.89	0.369	0.75	1.33	H3a = NO
Masculinity	0.13	2.08	<b>0.038*</b>	0.75	1.32	<b>H3b= YES</b>	0.06	0.97	0.329	0.72	1.38	H3b = NO
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.01	0.30	0.759	0.86	1.15	H3c = NO	0.21	3.36	<b>0.001**</b>	0.70	1.42	<b>H3c = YES</b>
Power Distance	-0.04	-0.63	0.527	0.79	1.25	H3d = NO	0.19	3.19	<b>0.002**</b>	0.80	1.24	<b>H3d = YES</b>
Long-Term Orientation	0.12	2.08	<b>0.038*</b>	0.94	1.06	<b>H3e = YES</b>	0.06	1.19	0.232	0.89	1.11	H3e = NO
Materialism	0.07	1.23	0.220	0.89	1.11	H3f = NO	0.02	0.50	0.617	0.87	1.14	H3f = NO
R <sup>2</sup>			0.08			0.13						
F			4.384			7.585						
p			0.000			0.000						

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

As shown in Table 6.22, the regression model estimates the relationship between the cultural values dimensions and *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE in the British sample. This is statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=4.384$ ) and the R-square value explains 8% of the total variance of *Self-Congruence*. The dimensions of *Collectivism*, *Masculinity* and *Long-Term Orientation* have the beta coefficients of 0.16, 0.13 and 0.12, respectively. The dimensions of *Collectivism* ( $p<0.01$ ) and *Masculinity* and *Long-Term Orientation* ( $p<0.05$ ) are significant in estimating the *Self-Congruence* dimension of CBGBE. However, the dimensions of *Uncertainty Avoidance*, *Power Distance* and *Materialism* dimensions provide no significant contribution to explain *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE. Hence, results accept H3a, H3b and H3e, but reject H3c, H3d and H3f.

The results of regression analysis of the South Korean sample show the relationship between the cultural values dimensions and the *Self-Congruence dimension* of CBGBE. This is statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=7.585$ ) and the R-square value explains 13% of the total variance of *Self-Congruence*. The dimensions of *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.21$ ) and *Power Distance* ( $\beta=0.19$ ) are significant in explaining *Self-Congruence* dimension ( $p<0.01$ ). *Collectivism*, *Masculinity*, *Long-Term Orientation* and *Materialism* are found to be statistically insignificant. Hence, results accept H3c and H3d, but reject H3a, H3b, H3e and H3f.

In summary, excluding the *Materialism* dimension, the dimensions of *Collectivism*, *Masculinity* and *Long-Term Orientation* for the British sample, and *Uncertainty Avoidance* and *Power Distance* for the South Korean sample have a significant influence on *Self-Congruence*. The research hypotheses of H3a, H3b, H3c, H3d and H3e are partially accepted, but H3f is rejected. The *Uncertainty Avoidance* dimension for the South Korean sample is the most effective dimension in explaining *Self-Congruence* dimension in both of the samples ( $\beta= 0.21$ ,  $p<0.01$ ).

The fourth set of research hypotheses between cultural values and the *Brand Awareness* dimension of CBGBE is described below:

**H4a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

**H4b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.



**H4c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

**H4d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

**H4e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

**H4f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE.

The results of the multiple regression analysis between cultural values and *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE appear in Table 6.23

**Table 6.23: Effect of Cultural Values on Brand Awareness**

Variable	Brand Awareness (British)						Brand Awareness ( South Korean)					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Collectivism	0.15	2.61	<b>0.009**</b>	0.92	1.08	<b>H4a = YES</b>	0.09	1.64	0.100	0.75	1.33	H4a = NO
Masculinity	-0.01	-0.23	0.812	0.75	1.32	H4b = NO	0.13	2.14	<b>0.032*</b>	0.72	1.38	<b>H4b = YES</b>
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.25	4.20	<b>0.000***</b>	0.86	1.15	<b>H4c = YES</b>	0.19	3.17	<b>0.002**</b>	0.70	1.42	<b>H4c = YES</b>
Power Distance	-0.10	-1.65	0.100	0.79	1.25	H4d = NO	0.00	0.06	0.951	0.80	1.24	H4d = NO
Long-Term Orientation	0.04	0.82	0.408	0.94	1.06	H4e = NO	0.05	0.93	0.352	0.89	1.11	H4e = NO
Materialism	0.12	2.11	<b>0.036*</b>	0.89	1.11	<b>H4f = YES</b>	0.14	2.63	<b>0.009**</b>	0.87	1.14	<b>H4f = YES</b>
R <sup>2</sup>				0.12						0.17		
F				6.754						10.479		
p				0.000						0.000		

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

As seen in Table 6.23, the results of multiple regression analysis of the British sample show the effects of the cultural values dimensions on *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE. This indicates a significance statistically ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=6.754$ ) and explains 12% of the total variance of *Brand Awareness*. The *Brand Awareness* dimension is successfully estimated by *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.15$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.25$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and *Materialism* ( $\beta=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). However, *Masculinity*, *Power Distance* and *Long-Term Orientation* are found to be statistically insignificant. Thus, these findings support H4a, H4c and H4f but do not support H4b, H4d and H4e.

The overall estimate of the South Korean sample indicates that the regression model is statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=10.479$ ). The model explains 17% of the total variance of *Brand Awareness* which can be explained by cultural values dimensions. The dimensions of *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.19$ ) and *Materialism* ( $\beta=0.14$ ) are statistically significant in estimating the *Brand Awareness* ( $p<0.01$ ). *Masculinity* dimension ( $\beta=0.13$ ) are also statistically significant in explaining *Brand Awareness* ( $p<0.05$ ). In contrast, the three other dimensions of *Collectivism*, *Power Distance* and *Long-Term Orientation* are also insignificant in estimating the *Brand Awareness* dimension. Thus, the research results support H4b, H4c and H4f, but do not support H4a, H4d and H4e.

Therefore, the dimension of *Uncertainty Avoidance* for both British ( $p<0.001$ ) and South Korean ( $p<0.01$ ) samples has a significant effect on *Brand Awareness*. *Uncertainty Avoidance* for the British ( $\beta= 0.25$ ) and South Korean ( $\beta= 0.19$ ) samples are more important in explaining *Brand Awareness* than other dimensions. The dimension of *Materialism* for the British ( $\beta= 0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and South Korean ( $\beta= 0.14$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) samples has a significant influence on *Brand Awareness*. Other dimensions of *Collectivism* in the British sample and *Masculinity* in the South Korean sample have a statistically significant impact on *Brand Awareness*. Thus, the research hypotheses are supported by H4c and H4f, and partly supported by H4a and H4b, but not supported by H4d and H4e.

The fifth set of research hypotheses between cultural values and *Brand Association* of CBGBE dimensions is described below:

**H5a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**H5b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**H5c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**H5d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**H5e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**H5f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

Table 6.24 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis for the relationship between the cultural values and *Brand Association* of CBGBE.

**Table 6.24: Effect of Cultural Values on Brand Association**

Variable	Brand Association (British)						Brand Association ( South Korean)					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Collectivism	0.18	3.24	<b>0.001**</b>	0.92	1.08	<b>H5a = YES</b>	0.04	0.76	0.445	0.75	1.33	H5a = NO
Masculinity	- 0.01	- 0.28	0.774	0.75	1.32	H5b = NO	0.22	3.52	<b>0.000***</b>	0.72	1.38	<b>H5b = YES</b>
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.19	3.23	<b>0.001**</b>	0.86	1.15	<b>H5c = YES</b>	0.00	0.11	0.906	0.70	1.42	H5c = NO
Power Distance	- 0.05	- 0.81	0.416	0.79	1.25	H5d= NO	0.02	0.45	0.647	0.80	1.24	H5d = NO
Long-Term Orientation	0.04	0.87	0.384	0.94	1.06	H5e = NO	0.18	3.26	<b>0.001**</b>	0.89	1.11	<b>H5e= YES</b>
Materialism	0.17	3.02	<b>0.003**</b>	0.89	1.11	<b>H5f = YES</b>	- 0.02	- 0.41	0.681	0.87	1.14	H5f = NO
R <sup>2</sup>				0.12						0.11		
F				6.950						6.569		
p				0.000						0.000		

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

As presented in Table 6.24, the cultural values for the British sample explains 12% of the total variance in *Brand Association*, ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=6.950$ ). The dimensions of *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.18$ ), *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.19$ ) and *Materialism* ( $\beta=0.17$ ) show a statistically significant influence on the *Brand Association* dimension at  $p<0.01$  level. In contrast, three other dimensions of *Masculinity*, *Power Distance* and *Long-Term Orientation* have no significant effect on *Brand Association* of CBGBE. Thus, this research results accept H5a, H5c, and H5f but reject H5b, H5d and H5e.

The results of the fifth multiple regression analysis of the South Korean sample display the effects of cultural values on *Brand Association* of CBGBE. This is statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=6.569$ ) and accounts for 11% of the total variance of *Brand Association*. The dimensions of *Masculinity* and *Long-Term Orientation* show the beta coefficients of 0.22 and 0.18, respectively. Therefore, these dimensions make a statistically significant contribution in explaining the *Brand Association* at  $p<0.001$  and  $p<0.01$  levels. However, *Collectivism*, *Uncertainty Avoidance*, *Power Distance* and *Materialism* dimensions are insignificant in estimating the *Brand Association* dimension. Thus, this results of the study support H5b and H5e, but reject H5a, H5c, H5d and H5f.

To summarise, the dimensions of *Collectivism*, *Uncertainty Avoidance* and *Materialism* have a significant influence on *Brand Association* in the British sample ( $p<0.01$ ). In the South Korean sample, the dimensions of *Masculinity*, *Long-Term Orientation* also has a statistically significant impact on the *Brand Association* dimension at  $p<0.001$  and  $p<0.01$ , respectively. The results of the research partially confirm H5a, H5b, H5c, H5e and H5f but reject H5d.

The sixth set of research hypotheses between Cultural Value dimensions and *Brand Identification* of CBGBE dimensions is described below:

### **Research Hypotheses:**

**H6a:** *Collectivism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.

**H6b:** *Masculinity* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.

**H6c:** *Uncertainty Avoidance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.

**H6d:** *Power Distance* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.

**H6e:** *Long-Term Orientation* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.

**H6f:** *Materialism* of cultural values has an effect on *Brand Identification* of CBGBE.

Table 6.25 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis for the relationship between the cultural values dimensions and *Brand Identification of CBGBE* in the British and South Korean samples.

**Table 6.25: Effect of Cultural Values on Brand Identification**

Variable	Brand Identification (British)						Brand Identification ( South Korean)						
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	
Collectivism	0.10	1.88	0.060	0.92	1.08	H6a = NO	0.09	1.49	0.137	0.75	1.33	H6a = NO	
Masculinity	0.12	2.03	<b>0.043*</b>	0.75	1.32	<b>H6b = YES</b>	0.09	1.49	0.136	0.72	1.38	H6b = NO	
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.15	2.62	<b>0.009**</b>	0.86	1.15	<b>H6c= YES</b>	0.07	1.15	0.250	0.70	1.42	H6c = NO	
Power Distance	0.08	1.41	0.158	0.79	1.25	H6d = NO	0.25	4.39	<b>0.000***</b>	0.80	1.24	<b>H6d = YES</b>	
Long-Term Orientation	0.05	0.91	0.361	0.94	1.06	H6e = NO	0.12	2.29	<b>0.022*</b>	0.89	1.11	<b>H6e = YES</b>	
Materialism	0.09	1.64	0.102	0.89	1.11	H6f= NO	-0.08	-1.41	0.158	0.87	1.14	H6f= NO	
R <sup>2</sup>				0.13				0.14					
F				7.221				8.650					
p				0.000				0.000					

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001



As presented in Table 6.25, the results of the multiple regression analysis between the Cultural Value dimensions and *Brand Identification* is statistically significant in the British Sample ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=7.221$ ) and the R-square value indicates that the cultural values explain 13% of the total variance of *Brand Identification*. *Masculinity* ( $\beta=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.15$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) make a significant contribution in estimating the *Brand Identification* dimension. However *Collectivism*, *Power Distance*, *Long-Term Orientation* and *Materialism* are not statistically significant predictors. Hence, the hypotheses of H6b and H6c are confirmed but H6a, H6d, H6e and H6f are rejected.

The results of regression analysis of the South Korean sample are statistically significant at the 0.000 probability level ( $F=8.650$ ) and account for 14% of the total variance in *Brand Identification*. The dimensions of *Power Distance* ( $\beta=0.25$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and *Long-Term Orientation* ( $\beta=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) have a significant effect on the *Brand Identification* dimension. The other dimensions of *Collectivism*, *Masculinity*, *Uncertainty Avoidance*, and *Materialism* make an insignificant contribution in the *Brand Identification* dimension. Hence, these findings confirm H6d and H6e, but reject H6a, H6b, H6c and H6f.

To sum up, the dimensions of *Masculinity* and *Uncertainty Avoidance* for the British sample and *Power Distance* and *Long-Term Orientation* for the South Korean sample have a statistically significant influence on the *Brand Identification* dimension. However, the dimensions of *Collectivism* and *Materialism* have no statistical impact on the *Brand Identification*. Hence, these findings partly confirm H6b, H6c, H6d, and H6e, but rejects H6a and H5f. The *Power Distance* dimension ( $\beta= 0.25$ ) for the South Korean sample has the most importance of explaining the *Brand Identification* dimension in both of the samples.

## 6.5.2 Effect of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Reputation

One of the aims of this research is to examine the hypothesis that CBGBE affects brand reputation. The research hypotheses are described:

**H7a:** *Brand Trust* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

**H7b:** *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation

**H7c:** *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

**H7d:** *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

**H7e:** *Brand Association* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

**H7f:** *Brand Identification* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand reputation.

The results of the regression model between the six dimensions of CBGBE and brand reputation for the British and South Korean samples appear in Table 6.26.

**Table 6.26: Effect of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Reputation**

Variable	Brand Reputation (British)						Brand Reputation ( South Korean)					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Brand Trust	0.37	6.24	<b>0.000***</b>	0.46	2.16	<b>H7a= YES</b>	0.43	8.78	<b>0.000***</b>	0.46	2.17	<b>H7a= YES</b>
Perceived Quality	0.09	1.40	0.163	0.41	2.43	H7b= NO	0.07	1.61	0.107	0.48	2.07	H7b= NO
Self-Congruence	0.00	- 0.01	0.990	0.63	1.56	H7c= NO	0.09	2.14	<b>0.033*</b>	0.62	1.59	<b>H7c= YES</b>
Brand Awareness	0.24	5.33	<b>0.000***</b>	0.81	1.23	<b>H7d= YES</b>	0.27	6.31	<b>0.000***</b>	0.60	1.64	<b>H7d= YES</b>
Brand Association	0.16	3.04	<b>0.003**</b>	0.61	1.63	<b>H7e= YES</b>	0.09	2.15	<b>0.032*</b>	0.54	1.83	<b>H7e= YES</b>
Brand Identification	0.11	2.06	<b>0.040*</b>	0.58	1.70	<b>H7f= YES</b>	0.05	1.17	0.243	0.56	1.78	H7f= NO
R <sup>2</sup>				0.53						0.66		
F				53.424						96.596		
P				0.000						0.000		

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

Table 6.26 shows the regression model for the relationship between CBGBE and brand reputation in the British sample. This is statistically significant at the 0.000 probability level ( $F=53.424$ ). 53% of the total variation of brand reputation is explained by the six CBGBE dimensions. The dimensions of *Brand Trust* ( $p<0.001$ ), *Brand Awareness* ( $p<0.001$ ), *Brand Association* ( $p<0.01$ ), and *Brand Identification* ( $p<0.05$ ) make a statistically significant contribution to explaining Brand Reputation. The standardized coefficients are 0.37 for *Brand Trust*, 0.24 for *Brand Awareness*, 0.16 for *Brand Association* and 0.11 for *Brand Identification*. Clearly, among these dimensions, *Brand Trust* has the largest beta coefficient of 0.37 and, therefore, shows the most important contribution for explaining Brand Reputation. However, the dimensions of *Perceived Quality* and *Self-Congruence* are insignificant. Hence, the research hypotheses of H7a, H7d, H7e and H7f are supported, but H7b and H7c are rejected.

The regression analysis model for the relationship between CBGBE and brand reputation reveals a statistically significant relationship for the South Korean sample ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=96.596$ ). The R-square value of 66% of the variance in the brand reputation dimension accounts for the results. With the exceptions of the *Perceived Quality* and *Brand Identification* dimensions, the *Brand Trust* ( $\beta=0.43$ ) and *Brand Awareness* ( $\beta=0.27$ ) dimensions are significant in explaining brand reputation ( $p<0.001$ ). The dimensions of *Self-Congruence* ( $\beta=0.09$ ) and *Brand Association* ( $\beta=0.09$ ) also are significant in estimating brand reputation ( $p<0.05$ ). Importantly, among these dimensions, *Brand Trust* has the largest standardized coefficient ( $\beta$ ) of 0.43, which means that it is the most effective dimension in explaining Brand Reputation. Hence, the research hypotheses of H7a, H7c, H7d and H7e are supported, but H7b and H7f are not supported.

In summary, in both samples the dimensions of *Brand Trust*, *Brand Awareness* and *Brand Association* have a statistically significant effect on Brand Reputation. Thus the research results support H7a, H7d and H7e. *Brand Trust* for both of the samples is the most important dimension in explaining the brand reputation dimension ( $\beta=0.37$  and  $0.43$ ), which shows a strong significance at  $p<0.001$ . The dimensions of *Brand Identification* for the UK sample and *Self-Congruence* for the South Korea sample are

significant, thus these dimensions are partly supported. However, *Perceived Quality* for both samples is not a significant dimension for explanation and so this is rejected.

### **6.5.3 Effect of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Loyalty**

One of the aims of this research is to examine the final hypothesis that CBGBE affects brand loyalty. The hypotheses are described:

**H8a:** *Brand Trust* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8b:** *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8c:** *Self-Congruence* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8d:** *Brand Awareness* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8e:** *Brand Association* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

**H8f:** *Brand Identification* of CBGBE has a positive effect on brand loyalty.

The results of the regression analysis between the six dimensions of CBGBE and brand loyalty appear in Table 6.27.

**Table 6.27 Effect of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Loyalty**

Variable	Brand Loyalty (British)						Brand Loyalty ( South Korean)					
	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported	Beta	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF	Hypothesis Supported
Brand Trust	0.42	8.19	<b>0.000***</b>	0.46	2.16	<b>H8a= YES</b>	0.49	9.07	<b>0.000***</b>	0.46	2.17	<b>H8a= YES</b>
Perceived Quality	0.14	2.61	<b>0.010*</b>	0.41	2.43	<b>H8b= YES</b>	- 0.03	- 0.65	0.515	0.48	2.07	H8b= NO
Self-Congruence	- 0.02	- 0.44	0.656	0.63	1.56	H8c= NO	0.04	0.95	0.342	0.62	1.59	H8c= NO
Brand Awareness	0.03	0.86	0.388	0.81	1.23	H8d= NO	0.14	2.96	<b>0.003**</b>	0.60	1.64	<b>H8d= YES</b>
Brand Association	0.07	1.62	0.105	0.61	1.63	H8e= NO	0.08	1.61	0.107	0.54	1.83	H8e= NO
Brand Identification	0.33	7.26	<b>0.000***</b>	0.58	1.70	<b>H8f= YES</b>	0.25	5.12	<b>0.000***</b>	0.56	1.78	<b>H8f= YES</b>
R <sup>2</sup>						0.66						0.59
F						89.054						71.493
P						0.000						0.000

\* p<0.05    \*\* p<0.01    \*\*\* p<0.001

As shown in Table 6.27, the regression analysis model successfully estimates the relationship between CBGBE and brand loyalty in the British sample. ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=89.054$ ). The R-square shows that 66% of the variance is explained by the regression model. *Brand Trust* ( $\beta=0.42$ ) and *Brand Identification* ( $\beta=0.33$ ) have a significant influence on brand loyalty ( $p<0.001$ ). *Perceived Quality* ( $\beta=0.14$ ) also has a statistically significant influence on brand loyalty ( $p<0.05$ ) in the British Sample. Of all these dimensions, *Brand Trust* and *Brand Identification* have the largest standardized coefficient ( $\beta=0.42$ ,  $\beta=0.33$ ). These are the most important dimensions in explaining brand loyalty. However, the other dimensions do not have a significant effect on brand loyalty. Hence, the research hypotheses of H7a, H7b and H7f are accepted but H7c, H7d and H7e are rejected.

The regression model for the South Korean sample estimates the relationship between CBGBE and brand loyalty ( $F=71.493$ ,  $p=0.000$ ). 59% of the total variation in brand loyalty is explained by the six Global Brand Equity dimensions. The two dimensions of *Brand Trust* ( $\beta=0.49$ ), and *Brand Identification* ( $\beta=0.25$ ) have a statistically significant impact on brand loyalty at the 0.001 level. *Brand Awareness* ( $\beta=0.14$ ) also has a statistically significant influence on brand loyalty ( $p<0.01$ ) in the South Korean Sample. Clearly, *Brand Trust* indicates the largest standardized coefficient ( $\beta=0.49$ ) which is statistically significant for explaining brand loyalty. However, the dimensions of *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence* and *Brand Association* do not have a significant impact on brand loyalty. Hence, the research hypotheses of H7a, H7d and H7f are accepted, but H7b, H7c and H7e are rejected.

Overall, the dimensions of *Brand Trust* and *Brand Identification* are statistically significant at the  $p<0.001$  level in both of the samples, thus these findings fully support H8a and H8f. Importantly, *Brand Trust* in both of the samples is the most important dimension ( $\beta=0.42$  in the British and  $\beta=0.49$  in South Korean sample) in explaining brand loyalty. The dimensions of *Perceived Quality* in the UK ( $p<0.05$ ) and *Brand awareness* in Korea ( $p<0.01$ ) are also significant in explaining brand loyalty, thus these findings partially accept H8b and H8d. However, the dimensions of *Self-Congruence* and *Brand Association* are insignificant, thus are rejected.

## **6.6 Evaluation of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity across Demographics of the Whole Sample**

Independent samples t-test is employed to compare the mean scores of two different groups of samples or conditions. One-way ANOVA is used to compare the mean score of three or more groups (Pallant, 2007). In the present research, independent samples t-test identifies differences between gender and marriage status of the respondents in terms of their evaluation of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE). One-way ANOVA identifies if CBGBE differs across different age and personal income groups. In order to identify the perceptual differences of groups in detail, Duncan's multiple range test is performed as a post-hoc test.

### **6.6.1 Evaluation of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity by Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents**

In the present research, a t-test identifies differences between two groups in light of gender and marriage, and an ANOVA with post-hoc test identifies differences among six age groups and seven income groups.

#### **6.6.1.1 Evaluation of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity by Gender**

A t-test was performed to compare if CBGBE differs between males and females. Table 6.28 displays the results of the t-test.



**Table 6.28: Analysis of CBGBE by Gender: t-Test**

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	S.D.	t-value	p-value
Brand Trust	Male	275	4.65	1.16	- 0.20	0.835
	Female	325	4.67	1.18		
Perceived Quality	Male	283	4.25	1.15	- 0.35	0.720
	Female	339	4.29	1.22		
Self-Congruence	Male	283	3.19	1.39	- 1.66	0.096
	Female	339	3.37	1.30		
Brand Awareness	Male	276	5.42	1.11	2.51	0.011*
	Female	339	5.17	1.27		
Brand Association	Male	282	4.49	1.31	- 0.43	0.667
	Female	343	4.53	1.32		
Brand Identification	Male	286	3.28	1.34	- 2.22	0.026*
	Female	341	3.52	1.31		

\* p<0.05

Table 6.28 illustrates the t-test results according to gender. The mean scores of males are different at a statistically significantly level from females for the dimensions of *Brand Awareness* and *Brand Identification* at p<0.05 level. With regard to *Brand Awareness*, this result of the test indicates that males (5.42) are more aware of the global brands than females (5.17).

### **6.6.1.2 Evaluation of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity by Marriage**

Another t-test was conducted in order to identify if evaluation of CBGBE is different between the married and unmarried groups. Table 6.29 shows the result of the t-test.

**Table 6.29: Analysis of CBGBE by Marital Status: t-Test**

Variable	Marital Status	N	Mean	S.D.	t-value	p-value
Brand Trust	Married	286	4.59	1.24	-1.42	0.155
	Single	312	4.73	1.09		
Perceived Quality	Married	298	4.40	1.15	2.40	0.016*
	Single	321	4.17	1.19		
Self-Congruence	Married	298	3.30	1.33	0.23	0.811
	Single	321	3.28	1.36		
Brand Awareness	Married	293	5.25	1.22	-0.49	0.619
	Single	319	5.30	1.19		
Brand Association	Married	301	4.51	1.30	-0.13	0.891
	Single	321	4.53	1.32		
Brand Identification	Married	302	3.43	1.39	0.36	0.713
	Single	322	3.39	1.27		

\*  $p < 0.05$

As shown in Table 6.29, only the *Perceived Quality* shows statistically significant differences between married and single groups at  $p < 0.05$  level. The married group's perception of service quality (4.40) is much higher than the single group (4.17).

### 6.6.1.3 Evaluation of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity by Age Group

An ANOVA was performed to assess if CBGBE scores differs across the age groups. Table 6.30 illustrates the results of the ANOVA with post-hoc test.

**Table 6.30: Analysis of CBGBE by Age: ANOVA with the Post-hoc Test**

Variable	Age	N	Mean	S.D.	F	p-value	Post-hoc test ****
Brand Trust	(a) 16-25	182	4.70	1.13	3.22	0.007**	a,b,c,d,e < f
	(b) 26-35	165	4.64	1.11			
	(c) 36-45	150	4.71	1.17			
	(d) 46-55	69	4.28	1.31			
	(e) 56-65	22	4.77	1.22			
	(f) Over 65	13	5.58	1.12			
Perceived Quality	(a) 16-25	185	3.95	1.19	8.42	0.000***	a,d < b,c,e < f
	(b) 26-35	174	4.35	1.10			
	(c) 36-45	156	4.46	1.15			
	(d) 46-55	71	4.07	1.27			
	(e) 56-65	22	4.78	1.13			
	(f) Over 65	13	5.59	0.88			
Self- Congruence	(a) 16-25	186	3.07	1.38	5.86	0.000***	d < a,b,c,e < f
	(b) 26-35	173	3.54	1.20			
	(c) 36-45	158	3.33	1.33			
	(d) 46-55	69	2.78	1.35			
	(e) 56-65	22	3.68	1.31			
	(f) Over 65	13	4.15	1.63			
Brand Awareness	(a) 16-25	182	5.30	1.24	0.33	0.893	No difference
	(b) 26-35	175	5.24	1.17			
	(c) 36-45	155	5.23	1.21			
	(d) 46-55	68	5.41	1.13			
	(e) 56-65	21	5.38	1.33			
	(f) Over 65	13	5.48	1.40			

Variable	Age	N	Mean	S.D.	F	p-value	Post-hoc test ****
Brand Association	(a) 16-25	185	4.58	1.32	2.92	0.013*	a,b,c,d,e < f
	(b) 26-35	173	4.52	1.35			
	(c) 36-45	159	4.52	1.27			
	(d) 46-55	71	4.08	1.28			
	(e) 56-65	23	4.59	1.41			
	(f) Over 65	13	5.43	1.05			
Brand Identification	(a) 16-25	186	3.40	1.23	2.57	0.025*	d < a,b,c,e, < f
	(b) 26-35	174	3.40	1.27			
	(c) 36-45	159	3.42	1.42			
	(d) 46-55	72	3.10	1.39			
	(e) 56-65	23	3.81	1.32			
	(f) Over 65	13	4.38	1.66			

\* p<0.05 \*\* p<0.01 \*\*\* p<0.001

\*\*\*\*The Duncan's multiple range test as the post hoc test indicates low, middle and high scores, respectively

As can be seen from Table 6.30, ANOVA with the post-hoc test (Duncan's multiple range test) was used to examine the perceptual differences of CBGBE by categories of age group at the 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 level. The ANOVA with the Duncan's multiple range test displays a statistical significance for the five dimensions of CBGBE, except *Brand Awareness*.

More specifically, the Duncan multiple range test confirms significant difference between the age group of "Over 65" and the other age groups of "16-25," "26-35," "36-45," "46-55" with regard to *Brand trust* ( $p < 0.01$ ) and *Brand Association* ( $p < 0.05$ ). In terms of *Self-Congruence* ( $p < 0.001$ ) and *Brand Identification* ( $p < 0.05$ ), these six groups can be categorized into three ("46-55" age group; "16-25," "26-35," "36-45," and "56-65" age groups; "over 65" age group). Each category shows the different perception of *Self-Congruence* and *Brand identification*: the "Over 65" age group represents the highest mean score, while "46-55" age group has the lowest mean score. The rest of them are between the two categories. With regard to *perceived quality* ( $p < 0.001$ ), there is a significant difference among three categories: "16-25" and "46-55" age groups; "26-35," "36-45" and "56-65" age groups; "Over 65" age group. The age group of "Over 65" has the highest perception of *Perceived Quality* (Mean=5.59).

To sum up, the age group of "Over 65" has the highest mean score in all variables. Moreover, the age groups of "26-35," "36-45" and "56-65" seem to have similar perception of all variables. The "16-25" age group perceives *Self-Congruence and Brand Identification* higher than the other four variables.

#### **6.6.1.4 Evaluation of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity by Income Group**

The second ANOVA test examines whether dimensions of CBGBE is significantly different among the groups who have different personal income. Table 6.31 illustrates the result of ANOVA according to the income.

**Table 6.31: Analysis of CBGBE by Income: ANOVA with the Post-hoc Test**

Variable	Income	N	Mean	S.D.	F	p-value	Post-hoc test ****
Brand Trust	(a) No Income	125	4.84	1.16	3.52	0.002**	g < a,b,c,d,e,f
	(b) Less than £ 10,000	113	4.56	1.14			
	(c) £10,000 to 19,999	134	4.85	1.06			
	(d) £20,000 to 29,999	79	4.54	1.10			
	(e) £ 30,000 to 39,999	38	4.48	1.41			
	(f) £ 40,000 to 49,999	33	4.67	1.08			
	(g) Over £ 50,000	44	4.05	1.37			
Perceived Quality	(a) No Income	129	4.17	1.21	3.00	0.007**	b,g < c,f
	(b) Less than £ 10,000	118	4.01	1.21			
	(c) £10,000 to 19,999	143	4.50	1.13			
	(d) £20,000 to 29,999	84	4.37	0.96			
	(e) £ 30,000 to 39,999	34	4.15	1.31			
	(f) £ 40,000 to 49,999	35	4.51	1.04			
	(g) Over £ 50,000	45	3.94	1.35			
Self-Congruence	(a) No Income	130	3.35	1.37	3.68	0.001**	g < a,b,d,e,f < c
	(b) Less than £ 10,000	116	3.24	1.42			
	(c) £10,000 to 19,999	143	3.60	1.15			
	(d) £20,000 to 29,999	83	3.19	1.31			
	(e) £ 30,000 to 39,999	38	2.93	1.28			
	(f) £ 40,000 to 49,999	34	3.26	1.23			
	(g) Over £ 50,000	44	2.66	1.36			

Variable	Income	N	Mean	S.D.	F	p-value	Post-hoc test ****
Brand Awareness	(a) No Income	127	5.12	1.29	1.50	0.173	No difference
	(b) Less than £ 10,000	117	5.31	1.25			
	(c) £10,000 to 19,999	144	5.22	1.22			
	(d) £20,000 to 29,999	82	5.30	1.13			
	(e) £ 30,000 to 39,999	37	5.46	1.19			
	(f) £ 40,000 to 49,999	33	5.60	0.96			
	(g) Over £ 50,000	42	5.62	1.03			
Brand Association	(a) No Income	129	4.54	1.35	1.45	0.190	No difference
	(b) Less than £ 10,000	118	4.48	1.39			
	(c) £10,000 to 19,999	144	4.72	1.17			
	(d) £20,000 to 29,999	83	4.52	1.26			
	(e) £ 30,000 to 39,999	39	4.41	1.47			
	(f) £ 40,000 to 49,999	33	4.50	1.10			
	(g) Over £ 50,000	45	4.09	1.44			
Brand Identification	(a) No Income	129	3.56	1.41	2.10	0.051	No difference
	(b) Less than £ 10,000	117	3.39	1.25			
	(c) £10,000 to 19,999	143	3.54	1.26			
	(d) £20,000 to 29,999	85	3.30	1.35			
	(e) £ 30,000 to 39,999	39	3.29	1.32			
	(f) £ 40,000 to 49,999	35	3.23	1.18			
	(g) Over £ 50,000	45	2.85	1.39			

\* p<0.05 \*\* p<0.01 \*\*\* p<0.001

\*\*\*\*The Duncan's multiple range test as the post hoc test indicates low, middle and high scores, respectively

Table 6.31 demonstrates the perceptual differences of CBGBE by categories of annual personal income. This shows a statistical significance at the 0.01 levels for *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, and *Self-Congruence*.

The Post-hoc test confirms that the mean score for the income group “Over £50,000” differs significantly from the other six groups with regard to the dimensions of *Brand Trust*. With regard to *Perceived Quality* of CBGBE, the test shows a significant difference between the two categories: the income groups of “Less than 10,000” and “Over £50,000” which have a low perception of the *Perceived Quality* and the income groups of “£ 10,000 to £ 19,999” and “£ 40,000 to £ 49,999” with a high perception of it. In the case of *Self-Congruence*, the Duncan multiple range test indicates that these seven income groups can be categorized into three: “Over £ 50,000”; “No Income,” “Less than £ 10,000,” “£20,000 to 29,999,” “£ 30,000 to 39,999,” “£ 40,000 to 49,999”; “£10,000 to 19,999.” There is significant difference of the perception between annual personal incomes of “£10,000 to £ 19,999” and “Over £50,000” for the dimensions of *Self-Congruence*. The “£10,000 to £ 19,999” is found to be higher compared to “Over £50,000.” The “Over £50,000” has the least level of the *Self-Congruence* with a mean score of 2.66.

To sum up, significant differences appear among income groups with regard to *brand trust, perceived quality and self-congruence*. In particular, the income group of “Over £ 50,000” seems to have a low perception of *Brand Trust, Perceived Quality and Self-Congruence*.

## 6.7 Summary

This chapter presents the findings of analyses including frequency analysis, t-test, ANOVA with the post-hoc test, factor analysis and multiple regression analysis.

First of all, the profiles of respondents including gender, age, income, and the main purpose of visit are illustrated.



Second, assessment of the validity and reliability of the scales is performed. The findings confirm the six dimensions of cultural values: *Collectivism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Long-Term Orientation and Materialism*. The findings also confirm six dimensions of CBGBE: *Brand Trust, Perceived Quality, Self-Congruence, Brand Awareness, Brand Association, Brand Identification*. The analysis shows that both the cultural values scale with six dimensions and 24-items, and the CBGBE scale with six dimensions and 29-items are valid and reliable. Moreover, Cronbach's alpha test supports the reliability of the brand reputation scale with 5 items and brand loyalty scale with 4 items.

Third, multiple regression analysis using the enter method for the whole samples, before conducting the analysis of each of the British and South Korean samples, confirms predictive validity.

Fourth, multiple regression analysis of the British and South Korean samples tests the research hypotheses and the research model. The results of the regression analysis identify the relationship between the antecedents and consequences of CBGBE for restaurant brands in the British and South Korean samples.

Finally, the t-test identifies differences between two groups in relation to gender and marriage; and ANOVA with the post-hoc test (Duncan's multiple range test) identifies differences among six age groups and seven income groups.

# CHAPTER 7

# **CHAPTER 7**

## **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the discussion and the conclusions of the study in four parts. The first part describes the objectives of the research. The second part discusses the research findings and presents the conclusions drawn from them. The third part summarises the contributions of the research: theoretical, practical and managerial. The final section discusses the limitations of the research and offers relevant suggestions for future research.

### **7.2 Objectives of the Research**

In the present day, brand equity has become one of the essential tools of marketing. However, the majority of prior research on brand equity has focussed on product brands instead of service brands. In particular, a limited amount of empirical research has been conducted on brand equity in the context of the restaurant industry. Moreover, the increased levels of globalisation and consumerism warrant a development of a Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) model and the examination of its antecedents and consequences. Accordingly, the objectives of the research are:

- 1) To conduct a critical review of the literature on antecedents and consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity.
- 2) To develop a theoretical model to conceptualize the relationship between antecedents and consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity for restaurant brands across two cultures: British and South Korean.
- 3) To assess the validity and reliability of the measurement scales for assessing Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity, cultural values and brand loyalty across two cultures.

- 4) To examine the mediating role of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity between cultural values and brand loyalty in the restaurant industry.

## **7.3 Discussion of the Research Findings**

Several important findings have been identified from the research in the British and South Korean samples:

Firstly, the cultural value scale consisting of six dimensions are valid and reliable. *Collectivism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Long-Term Orientation and Materialism* are the dimensions of cultural values for the present research.

Secondly, the Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE) scale is found to be valid and reliable: The six dimensions of CBGBE are *Brand Trust, Perceived Quality, Self-Congruence, Brand Awareness, Brand Association, and Brand Identification*.

Thirdly, the findings of the study suggest that almost half of the cultural value dimensions have a statistically significant effect on CBGBE.

Finally, this research shows that almost half of the CBGBE dimensions have a positive effect on brand reputation and brand loyalty.

### **7.3.1 The Cultural Value Scale**

Many researchers have explored the dimensions of cultural value through cross-cultural studies. (e.g. Phatak, 1986; Stedham & Yamamura, 2004; Foscht and Maloles III, Swoboda, Morschett, Sinha, 2008). Materialism dimension is also supported by Tai, (2004) and Richins (2004). Hofstede's (1991; 2005) cultural value dimensions has been used the most widely for cross cultural study. However, Hofstede's cultural values scale was originally employed to measure work related values. Moreover some

researchers have criticised Hofstede's method of constructing the scale (Furrer et al, 2000). For instance, although in testing of the validity of the scale factor analysis is used Blodgett, Bakir, and Rose (2008) argue that most of the items are lacking face validity. Thus in order to improve reliability and validity of the scale, the present research adopts the work of Yoo and Donthu (2002) based on Hofstede (1984, 2001) to include *Collectivism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Power Distance*; and also adopts Jung et al. (2008) based on Hofstede (1984, 2001) and the dimension *Long-Term Orientation*. In addition, this research employs the materialism scale, which is adopted from Richins and Dawson (1992). Accordingly, the present research adopts six dimensions with 24-items as the components of cultural values: *Collectivism (6items), Masculinity (4 items), Uncertainty Avoidance (5 items), Power Distance (4 items), Long-Term Orientation (2 items) and Materialism (3 items)*.

Factor analysis with a Varimax Rotation is conducted on a 27-item cultural values scale. Of the original 27 items, three items are deleted to improve validity of the scale. This is because one item loaded across other dimensions, and factor loadings of two items were low.

In the whole sample, the reliabilities are 0.87, 0.79, 0.88, 0.84, 0.82 and 0.78, respectively. The cumulative percentage of total variance accounts for 68.99% for six dimensions that have eigenvalues greater than 1. The reliability of the scales ranges from 0.87, 0.79, 0.85, 0.83, 0.84 and 0.83, respectively in the British sample and 0.88, 0.71, 0.90, 0.84, 0.81 and 0.61, respectively in the South Korean sample. All six dimensions in the British and South Korean samples have eigenvalues greater than 1, and the cumulative percentage of variance accounts nearly 68.87 % and 67.68% respectively.

The results of the factor analysis and reliability confirm six valid dimensions of cultural values: *Collectivism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance, Long-Term Orientation and Materialism*. In terms of criterion-related validity, all six dimensions make significant contributions to explaining the external measure CBGBE. The results of the analyses show support for criterion-related validity of the cultural values scale in both samples.

### 7.3.2 The Consumer- Based Global Brand Equity Scale

This research adopts six dimensions with 29 items as the components of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity (CBGBE): *Brand Trust* (8 items), *Perceived Quality* (7 items), *Self-Congruence* (4 items), *Brand Awareness* (4 items), *Brand Association* (3 items) and *Brand identification* (3 items).

Factor analysis with the Varimax Rotation method was performed on a 31-item CBGBE scale. All the *Brand Affect* items and an item from *Perceived Quality* loaded on a single factor, namely *Brand Trust*. In addition, of the 31 items, two *Perceived Quality* items were deleted to improve validity of the scale. This is because the two items in the South Korean sample were loaded on *Brand Trust*.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of all the factors are considered to be at an acceptable level of reliability (0.80 to 0.93) in the whole sample. All six dimensions in the whole samples have eigenvalues greater than 1, and the cumulative percentage of variance amounts to 72.52%. The results of the analyses show support for criterion-related validity of the brand equity scale. The present research yields six dimensions for the Global Brand Equity scale in the British and South Korean samples with composite reliabilities of 0.93, 0.90, 0.92, 0.74, 0.89, and 0.77; and 0.91, 0.90, 0.78, 0.87, 0.85, and 0.82, respectively. All six dimensions in the British and South Korean samples have eigenvalues greater than 1, and the cumulative percentage of variance amounts to 73.24% and 71.82, respectively.

Consequently, the results of the factor analysis and reliability confirm six valid dimensions of CBGBE for the survey: *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association*, and *Brand Identification*. From the standpoint of criterion-related validity, all six dimensions make a significant contribution to explaining all two external measures: brand reputation and Brand Loyalty. The results of the analyses show support for criterion-related validity of CBGBE scale in both samples.

### **7.3.3 Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity in the British and South Korean samples**

Prior to proceeding to the analysis, multicollinearity should be checked. The multicollinearity can be assessed by a Tolerance Value and a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Both the Tolerance Value and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) fulfill the standard. That is, there was no multicollinearity effect in any of the regression model (see Tables 6.20, 6.21, 6.22, 6.23, 6.24, 6.25, 6.26, 6.27).

Significant results are achieved through the analysis. Some of the findings are in line with previous research and some are new. Figure 7.1 and 7.2 summarise the relationship between cultural values and CBGBE as well as the relationship between CBGBE and brand reputation and brand loyalty, as determined from the analysis of British and South Korean samples.

Figure 7.1: Summary of Final Research Model (British)

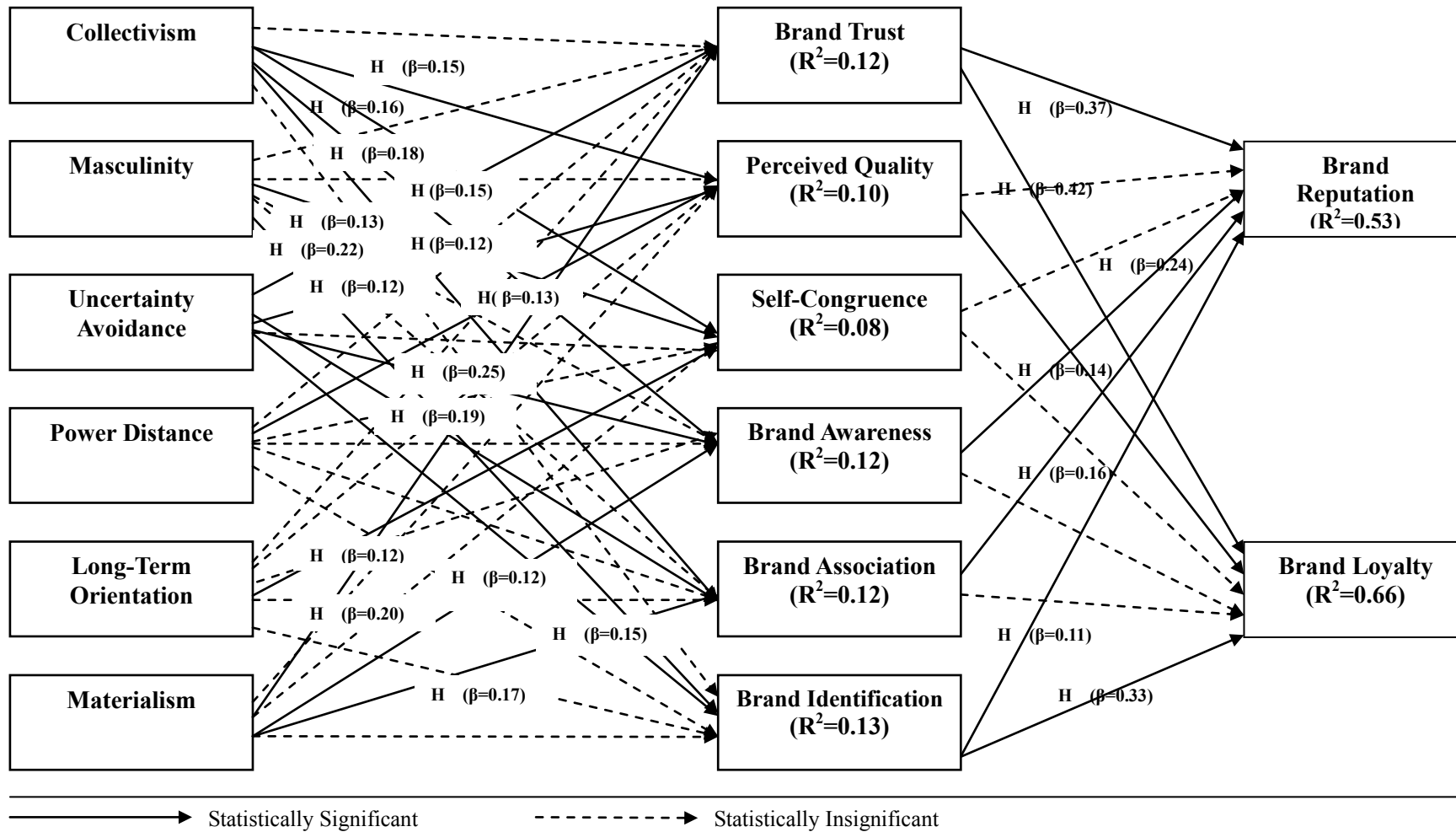
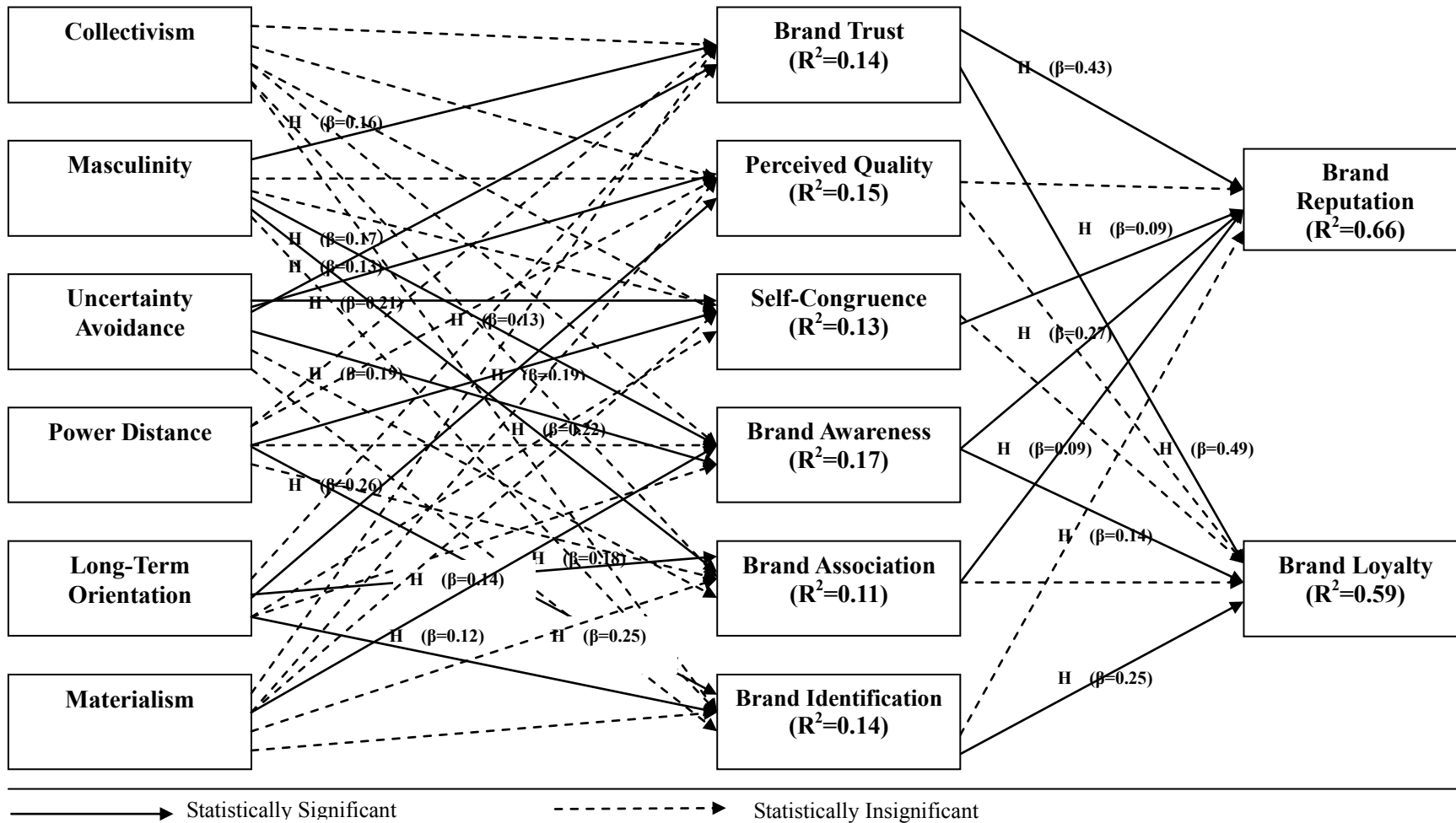




Figure 7.2: Summary of Final Research Model (South Korean)



As shown in Figure 7.1 and 7.2, the dimensions of *Masculinity* ( $\beta=0.16$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in the South Korean sample and *Materialism* ( $\beta=0.20$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) in the British sample show a statistically significant impact on Brand Trust, hence these findings partially confirm **H1b** and **H1f**. The *Uncertainty Avoidance* dimension in the British ( $\beta=0.22$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and South Korean ( $\beta=0.17$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) samples has a significant effect on *Brand Trust*. Therefore, these findings confirm **H1c**, but do not confirm **H1a**, **H1d** and **H1e**.

The *Uncertainty Avoidance* dimension has an effect on *Perceived Quality* in both the British ( $\beta=0.12$ ) and South Korean ( $\beta=0.13$ ) samples at  $p<0.05$  level, hence, accepts **H2c**. The dimensions of *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.15$ ) and *Power Distance* ( $\beta=0.13$ ) in the British sample ( $p<0.05$ ) and *Long-Term Orientation* ( $\beta=0.26$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) in the South Korean sample have a statistically significant influence on the *Perceived Quality* dimension, which partly support **H2a**, **H2d** and **H2e**. However, the hypotheses of H2b and H2f are not accepted. Clearly, among all these dimensions, the effect of *Long-Term Orientation* on the *Perceived Quality* dimension for the South Korean sample shows the largest beta coefficient and the strongest statistical significance compared to other dimensions.

The five dimensions of *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.16$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), *Masculinity* ( $\beta=0.13$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and *Long-Term Orientation* ( $\beta=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in the British sample, and *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.21$ ) and *Power Distance* ( $\beta=0.19$ ) in the South Korean sample, do significantly affect *Self-Congruence* at  $p<0.01$  level, with the exception of the *Materialism* dimension for both samples. The research hypotheses are partially accepted by **H3a**, **H3b**, **H3c**, **H3d** and **H3e**, but are rejected by H3f. Notably, the *Uncertainty Avoidance* dimension in the South Korean sample has the most importance for explaining the *Self-Congruence* dimension in both of the samples.

The dimensions of *Uncertainty Avoidance* in both the British ( $\beta=0.25$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and South Korean ( $\beta=0.19$ ,  $P<0.01$ ) samples, and *Materialism* in both the British ( $\beta=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and South Korean ( $\beta=0.14$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) samples have significant impact on *Brand Awareness*. *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.15$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) in the British sample and *Masculinity* ( $\beta=0.13$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in the South Korean sample have a significant effect on *Brand Awareness*. Therefore, these findings confirm the research hypotheses **H4c** and

**H4f**, and partly confirm **H4a and H4b**, but not confirm H4d and H4e.

The *Collectivism* ( $\beta=0.18$ ), *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.19$ ) and *Materialism* ( $\beta=0.17$ ) dimensions have a statistically significant effect on the *Brand Association* dimension for the British sample ( $p<0.01$ ). For the South Korean sample, the dimensions of *Masculinity* ( $\beta=0.22$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and *Long-Term Orientation* ( $\beta=0.18$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) also have a significant effect on the *Brand Association* dimension. The research hypotheses partly confirm **H5a, H5b, H5c, H5e and H5f**, with the exception of the insignificant H5d.

*Masculinity* ( $\beta=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) and *Uncertainty Avoidance* ( $\beta=0.15$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) dimensions in the British sample and *Power Distance* ( $\beta=0.25$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and *Long-Term Orientation* ( $\beta=0.12$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in the South Korean sample have a statistically significant influence the *Brand Identification* dimension. Thus, the research results partly accept **H6b, H6c, H6d, and H6e**, but reject H6a and H6f. The *Power Distance* dimension has the most importance for explaining the *Brand Identification* dimension in the South Korean sample.

The dimensions of *Brand Trust* ( $\beta=0.37$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), *Brand Awareness* ( $\beta=0.24$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and *Brand Association* ( $\beta=0.16$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) in the British sample, and *Brand Trust* ( $\beta=0.43$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), *Brand Awareness* ( $\beta=0.27$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and *Brand Association* ( $\beta=0.09$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in South Korean sample have a significant and positive impact on brand reputation. Hence, these findings accept **H7a, H7d and H7e**. Clearly, *Brand Trust* for both of the samples has the most importance for explaining the brand reputation dimension and shows the strongest significance. The dimensions of *Brand Identification* ( $\beta=0.11$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in the British sample and *Self-Congruence* ( $\beta=0.09$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) in the South Korean sample are statistically significant in explaining brand reputation, thus **H7f and H7c** are partly accepted. It should be noted that *Perceived Quality* for both samples is an insignificant dimension in explaining brand reputation, thus H7b is not accepted.

*Brand Trust* in the British ( $\beta=0.42$ ) and in South Korean samples ( $\beta=0.49$ ) and *Brand Identification* dimensions in the British ( $\beta=0.33$ ) and in South Korea ( $\beta=0.25$ ) show statistically significant influence on brand loyalty, which indicates the strongest

significance at  $p < 0.001$  level. Hence, the research results accept **H8a** and **H8f**. Importantly, *Brand Trust* for both samples has the most importance in explaining brand loyalty and indicates greater values than others. The dimensions of *Perceived Quality* ( $\beta = 0.14$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) in the British and *Brand Awareness* ( $\beta = 0.14$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) in the South Korean samples show a statistically significance in explaining brand loyalty, thus the research results partially accept **H8b** and **H8d**. However, *Self-Congruence* and *Brand Association* dimensions are not significant, hence are rejected.

### **7.3.3.1 Effects of Cultural Values on Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity**

The current research has adopted the concept of ‘national culture’ suggested by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) who viewed it as mental programming, shared among people who live or lived within the same country.

Erdem *et al.* (2006) found that cultural values are correlated with CBGBE. For example, in high uncertainty avoidance countries, credibility of brands reduces the perceived risk and information cost. Furrer *et al.* (2000) argue that there is a strong relationship between SERVQUAL dimensions and Hofstede’s cultural dimensions by using the Cultural Service Quality Index which can be used to divide international service markets and allocate resources across segments. Phau and Lau, (2001) find that cultural orientation can significantly explain self-congruity that is stronger in individual rather than in collective societies.

The results of multiple regression analysis show that many dimensions of cultural values make significant contributions to explaining the dimensions of CBGBE for the British and South Korean samples. In the British sample, the *Brand Identification* of CBGBE dimensions indicate the greatest R-square value of 0.13; and the *Self-Congruence* dimension indicates the lowest R-square value of 0.08. However, the *Brand Awareness* dimension of the South Korean sample indicates the greatest R-square of 0.17; and the *Brand Association dimension* shows the lowest R-square value of 0.11.

It is interesting to note here that *uncertainty avoidance* seems to be an important factor when choosing a global brand in both South Korea and the UK. In both countries, *Uncertainty Avoidance* has an effect on *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality* and *Brand Awareness*. In particular, the effect of *Uncertainty Avoidance* on *Brand Awareness* in the British sample has the largest beta coefficient of 0.25. This result is different from Hofstede's finding (1980, 1991) which suggested that the British have a low score on *Uncertainty Avoidance*. The uncertainty score of the South Korean sample supports Hofstede's (1980, 1991) finding which states that uncertainty is high among the South Korean population. Thus, consumers in the UK and South Korea attempt to avoid uncertainty by choosing a brand that they trust and have experience in using.

Moreover, *Collectivism*, *Uncertainty Avoidance*, *Power Distance* in the British sample, and *Uncertainty Avoidance* and *Long-Term Orientation* in the South Korean sample have a strong effect on *Perceived Quality*. This research confirms the findings of the study by Donthu and Yoo (1998), which state that *Collectivism*, *Uncertainty Avoidance*, *Power Distance*, and *Long-Term Orientation* are related to *Perceived Quality*.

On the other hand, this study shows perceptual differences in CBGBE between two different cultural groups. In the British and South Korean samples, the relationship between cultural values and *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Association*, and *Brand Identification* are different. In the British sample, *Masculinity* has an effect on both *Self-Congruence* and *Brand Identification*, while in the South Korean one, these dimensions are significantly influenced by power distance. This indicates that consumers in South Korea tend to express their status or aspire to belong to a high position group by selecting particular brands. The dimension of *Materialism* has a significant impact on *Brand Awareness* in the British and South Korean samples, and on *Brand Trust* and *Brand Associations* in the British sample. Brand name conveys the quality and function of a particular brand. Materialists in both countries seem to select familiar brands that are consumed in public.

### 7.3.3.2 Effects of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Reputation

One of the consequences of CBGEBE is brand reputation which is an attitudinal variable. Acquiring a good reputation ensures that the consumers of a brand will not switch to a new brand in the long term and that new consumers will be attracted towards the brand because of positive word-of-mouth (Rogerson, 1983).

Empirical evidence indicates a relationship between CBGEBE and brand reputation. For example, past studies show that perceived quality influences brand reputation (Zeithaml 1988; Shapiro, 1983; Selnes, 1993; Milewicz and Herbig, 1994). In addition, it can be seen from previous research that brand reputation is closely associated with Brand Trust (Tractinsky, Jarvenpaa, Vitale and Saarinen, 1999). In terms of reducing risk in the buying process, Brand Trust has shown to significantly affect brand reputation (e.g., Afzal et al., 2000; Einwiller, 2001; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2001). Brand Trust can significantly explain the brand reputation from the view point of credibility (Keller and Aaker, 1992; Milewicz and Herbig, 1994; Herbig and Milewicz, 1995). The Brand Identification dimension is related to brand reputation. This is based on the fact that, firstly, consumers are interested in the brand that reflects their own self-identity (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). Secondly, consumers are proud of a brand which has a good reputation. Lastly, reputable brands imply a company's success (Bhattacharya, Rao and Glynn, 1995).

The relationship between brand equity and brand reputation is statistically significant ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=53.424$ ) and the R-square value indicates that six dimensions of Global Brand Equity explain 53% of the total variance of brand reputation for the British sample. The dimensions of *Brand Trust* ( $\beta=0.37$ ) and *Brand Awareness* ( $\beta=0.24$ ) show a strong significance at the  $p<0.001$  level, *Brand Association* ( $\beta=0.16$ ) at the  $p<0.01$  level and *Brand Identification* ( $\beta=0.11$ ) at the  $p<0.05$  level have a statistically significant effect on the brand reputation dimension.

The results of regression analysis of the South Korean sample are statistically significant at the 0.000 level ( $F=96.596$ ) and accounts for 66% of the total variance in

the brand reputation. For the South Korean sample, *Brand Trust* ( $\beta=0.43$ ) and *Brand Awareness* ( $\beta=0.27$ ) dimensions have a significant influence on brand reputation ( $p<0.001$ ). The dimensions of *Self-congruence* ( $\beta=0.09$ ) and *Brand Association* ( $\beta=0.09$ ) also have a significant effect on brand reputation ( $p<0.05$ ).

Importantly, *Brand Trust* is the most important dimension in explaining the brand reputation dimension in both the British and South Korean samples.

### **7.3.3.3 Effects of Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity on Brand Loyalty**

This research has adopted the concept of ‘\_Brand Equity’ proposed by Kim and Kim (2005), who viewed strong Brand Equity as an important component in the restaurant industry. Empirical evidence has suggested that CBGBE is an important antecedent of brand loyalty (e.g., Aaker, 1991; Bitner, 1992; Keller, 1993; Dick and Basu, 1994; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; O’Cass and Frost, 2002; Matzler *et al.*, 2006; Rijswijk and Frewer, 2008; Qin and Prybutok, 2009; Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988; Brady and Cronin, 2001; Ekinci, 2001; Mittal and Lasser, 1996; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Ekinci *et al.*, 2008; Alexandris *et al.*, 2008). These studies have offered an insight into the existence of the theoretical relationship between CBGBE and brand loyalty.

The regression analysis model estimates the relationship between CBGBE and brand loyalty. This is statistically significant in the British ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=89.054$ ) and South Korean samples ( $p=0.000$ ,  $F=71.493$ ). The relationship among the Global Brand Equity dimensions, *Brand Trust* and *Brand Identification* in the British ( $\beta=0.42$  and  $\beta=0.33$ ) and South Korean ( $\beta=0.49$  and  $\beta=0.25$ ) samples, does significantly explain the effect upon brand loyalty ( $p<0.001$ ). *Perceived Quality* ( $\beta=0.14$ ) also indicates a statistical impact on brand loyalty ( $p<0.05$ ) in the British sample; and *Brand awareness* ( $\beta=0.14$ ) in the South Korean sample shows a statistical effect on brand loyalty ( $p<0.01$ ). This research confirms the findings of the studies by Gil *et al.* (2007), in which *Perceived Quality and Brand Awareness related to brand loyalty*.

However, this result is not in line with Gil et al., (2007); Kayaman and Arasli, (2007) who commented the positive relationship between *Brand Awareness* and brand loyalty.

## **7.4 Contributions of the Research**

The present research focuses on the cross-cultural study of CBGBE in the restaurant industry. The outcomes of a variety of the analyses offer theoretical and practical implications for managers/marketers in the restaurant industry.

The present research makes theoretical and practical contributions with regard to CBGBE in the restaurant industry. It aims to provide a more in-depth knowledge and understanding of CBGBE regarding its antecedents and consequences. In addition, it leads to a better understanding of cultural values and CBGBE.

Firstly, the present research makes a theoretical contribution by examining the mediating role of CBGBE between cultural values, and brand reputation and brand loyalty across two cultures in the restaurant industry. Since there is limited research available using both cultural values and CBGBE, an examination of the mediating role of CBGBE between cultural values, and brand reputation and brand loyalty in two cultures permits new insights into understanding of CBGBE in the restaurant industry.

The findings reveal that almost a half of the dimensions of cultural value play a significant role in explaining the dimensions of CBGBE. It is important to establish the relationship between these variables and also to compare the results in the British and South Korean sample. Furthermore, almost a half of the CBGBE dimensions show a positive relationship with brand reputation and brand loyalty. *Brand Trust* which is one of the dimensions of CBGBE is found to be the most important predictor of brand reputation and brand loyalty in the British and South Korean samples.

Secondly, given the globalisation of brands, it has become necessary to have a valid and reliable instrument that measures cultural values. This study has presented and



empirically tested a model that can be used for the above purpose. Thus, the present research examines reliability and validity of the cultural values scale through empirical study. It is necessary for previous scales to be adjusted in terms of how the scales should operationalize concepts (Sekaran, 2003) and measure consumer's perception of CBGBE. The present research examines cultural values through the 24-item scale. The results of the analysis show the existence of six dimensions of cultural values. Importantly, it is worth noting that one particular dimension – *Materialism* - has been included in cultural values due to its importance in modern society. It can be seen from the findings that cultural values are a valuable antecedent of CBGBE. Further to this, the additional *Materialism* dimension is meaningful as an adjusted dimension in measuring the relationship with CBGBE. Thus, the employment of the modified cultural value dimensions will be effective in comparison of global brands in today's world.

Thirdly, it is worth validating dimensions of CBGBE across two cultures (The UK and South Korea). Only a limited number of studies on CBGBE have been conducted in the context of restaurant brands. This empirical study of the global restaurant industry focuses on an examination of CBGBE. The findings of the current study using the British and South Korean samples suggest that the six factors of CBGBE are valid and also reliable. Importantly, in this study the three dimensions - *Brand Trust, Brand Identification and Self-Congruence* - have been added to the three widely accepted dimensions of brand equity: *Brand Awareness, Brand Association, and Perceived Quality*.

These revised dimensions of CBGBE, which have been generated through empirical study, are useful in achieving a better understanding of CBGBE for future research. More specifically, the scale for measurement of CBGBE used in this study clarifies how CBGBE dimensions of a global restaurant brand are related to the attitude of British and South Korean consumers. Such a scale, which can be applied across countries, allows managers to design and develop efficient global brand strategies (Buil et al., 2008).

Finally, it should be noted that the present research has found a new attitudinal variable in the restaurant industry by using in-depth interviews based on mixed

research methods. The in-depth interviews contribute to providing a more profound insight into establishing the research model and also “getting a picture of the important issues” (Saunders et al., 2007; 147). In previous studies, CBGBE has been found to affect brand reputation, thus brand reputation is regarded as a consequence of CBGBE in this research. Importantly, the results show that CBGBE has a strong effect on brand reputation.

It can be seen from the results that brand reputation is influenced by CBGBE. In both samples, the dimensions of *Brand Trust*, *Brand Awareness* and *Brand Association* have a statistically significant influence on Brand Reputation. The dimensions of *Brand Identification* for the UK sample and *Self-Congruence* for the South Korea sample have a statistically significant relationship with Brand Reputation.

## **7.5 Practical and Managerial Implications**

Managers should be able to better understand applications of CBGBE to global restaurant brands by gaining a practical knowledge of cultural values. This research will help to further develop management strategies through the analysis of the relationship between cultural values and CBGBE in the restaurant industry. In practical terms, the measurement instrument introduced by this study can be used to assess CBGBE by the restaurant managers.

Firstly, the present research suggests that cultural values consist of six dimensions: *Collectivism*, *Masculinity*, *Uncertainty Avoidance*, *Power Distance*, *Long-Term Orientation* and *Materialism* which significantly explains CBGBE. For the British sample, the *Collectivism* dimension of cultural values was associated with *Perceived Quality*, *Self-Congruence*, *Brand Awareness* and *Brand Association*; *Masculinity* was associated with *Self-Congruence* and *Brand Identification*; *Uncertainty Avoidance* was associated with *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association* and *Brand Identification*; *Power Distance* was associated with *Perceived Quality*; *Long-Term Orientation* was associated with *Self-Congruence*; *Materialism*

was associated with *Brand Trust, Brand Awareness and Brand Association*. In the South Korean sample, the *Masculinity* dimension of cultural values was associated with *Brand Trust, Brand Awareness and Brand Association*; *Uncertainty Avoidance* was associated with *Brand Trust, Perceived Quality, Self-Congruence and Brand Awareness*; *Power Distance* was associated with *Self-Congruence and Brand Identification*; *Long-Term Orientation* was associated with *Perceived Quality, Brand Association, and Brand Identification*; and *Materialism* was associated with *Brand Awareness*. Managers in the restaurant industry can develop branding and promotional strategies more effectively based on the findings of the analysis. That is, it will be possible for them to design the plans for marketing strategy and tactics more effectively by understanding different dimensions of cultural values related to different dimensions of CBGBE. Marketers managing global brand usually offer standardized products. They also adapt global brands to the needs of consumers in different cultures (Cateora and Graham, 2005).

Since *Uncertainty Avoidance* plays an important role in determining CBGBE, it is necessary to focus on the application of *Uncertainty Avoidance* to the restaurant industry in both the British and South Korean samples. This can be seen from the results of the analysis using the measures of Yoo and Donthu (2002) indicating that it is important to have rules/regulations, instructions and procedures which are spelled out in detail. For the CBGBE, *Uncertainty Avoidance* can be achieved through standardization. Standardization refers to “a common approach to business throughout the world” (Ang and Massingham, 2007:6). In restaurants with a global brand, standardization is accomplished by a production strategy which stipulates the rules/regulations, instructions and procedures. This impacts on *Uncertainty Avoidance* and subsequently, leads many consumers to visit the global brand. That is, consumers can experience the same quality of foods and environment anywhere without hesitation. Many of the consumers who visit global restaurant brands believe that they offer higher quality products and prestige (Kotabe and Helsen, 2011). Therefore, for strong uncertainty avoidance cultures, managers of the global brand restaurants need to create a positive perception of the brand through a good reputation (Lee and Carter, 2012).

Consumers may have different values and perspectives with regard to consumption

trends, according to the character and values of the society to which consumers belong - *Collectivism* or *Masculinity*. Consumers in a collectivistic society attach a considerable importance to gaining social approval (Jung and Sung, 2008), especially by purchasing products that have a high reputation such as global brands. Accordingly, managers of global brand restaurants should make their consumers feel proud by improving their restaurants' image through marketing strategy and tactics. Consumer behaviour related to *Collectivism* is connected to the buying decision process. In an individualistic culture, consumers tend to consider about their own goals. In contrast, consumers who belong to a collectivist culture consider their extended family as well as their immediate family (Lee and Carter, 2012). The result of the present research shows that *Collectivism* has an effect on consumer's *Self-Congruence* (see Table 6.22). Therefore, in individualistic cultures such as the UK, managers should more customize goods and services for consumers. By contrast, marketers who seek to attract consumers with collective cultural backgrounds need to develop a marketing strategy that emphasises how families, friends and colleagues are an integral part of a person's life (Magnini, 2010).

Research finding shows that *Masculinity* has influence on trust. In a society with high score masculinity, it would be more effective for the restaurants' managers to employ male staff rather than female staff. This is because consumers in high masculinity society tend to expect that male staff are more professional and reliable (Tsoukatos and Rand, 2007).

Cultural values including *Power Distance* and *Long-Term Orientation* can have an effect on personal consumption of each consumer. In terms of social hierarchy structure, marketers should encourage senior consumers or the leader of a community to purchase the brand. This is because people who belong to a high position in the hierarchy of the society generally have power to make decisions regarding the adoption of the brand. Moreover, as shown in Table 6.22 and 6.25, *Power Distance* has an effect on *Self-Congruence* and *Brand Identification*. Since the choice of a restaurant sometimes reflects a person's status, people want to visit well-known restaurant brands that reflect their high position within the social structure. In particular, *Power Distance* has influence on *Perceived Quality*. In high power distance societies, tangible cues are important when consumers evaluate service

quality (Dash, Bruning, and Guin, 2009). Thus, managers/marketers need to design restaurant interiors and marketing campaigns whilst keeping in mind the consumers' desire for well-known brands in high power distance societies.

*Materialism* can prompt consumers to take an interest in CBGBE. This is based on the view that acquisition is important to people's lives and consumption will make them happier (Xu, 2008). Materialism is particularly relevant to young consumers. Xu (2008) explains that the material values of young consumers motivate them to purchase compulsively in an effort to express and enhance their public self-identity. Thus, young consumers attach considerable value to brand names and prefer products or brands that are well known. This is one of the reasons why young consumers prefer global brands. The study findings confirm that *Materialism* has an impact on *Brand Awareness* and *Brand Association* (see Table 6.23 and 6.24). Managers/marketers of global restaurant brands need to develop marketing strategies that can positively affect the global brand's awareness/association. For example, an advertisement emphasizing a restaurant's global image and its sophisticated interiors, or the use of Western music, may be successful in an Asian market.

Secondly, it is necessary for marketers to understand CBGBE better from the standpoint of globalization. That is, it is important to develop the dimensions of CBGBE in order to evaluate brand performance. Through the literature review and empirical study, the dimensions of CBGBE have been generated: *Brand Trust*, *Perceived Quality*, *Brand Awareness*, *Brand Association*, *Self-Congruence* and *Brand Identification*. Managers in the restaurant industry should consider seriously how to evaluate the performance of CBGBE and conduct their marketing activities accordingly. The specific practical and managerial implications for the restaurant industry are discussed below.

Above all, as previously mentioned, *Brand Trust* is the most important factor for explaining the dimensions of both brand reputation and brand loyalty. Owing to the peculiar characteristics of the global restaurant industry, which include intangibility, standardization of the service is essential for improving CBGBE. The findings of the analysis indicate that the restaurant brand should guarantee satisfaction for the consumer in order to generate confidence in the brand (Delgado-Ballester, 2004).

Hence, for the CBGBE, trust is a higher priority above any other factor in the restaurant industry. Managers in the restaurant industry should try to develop marketing strategies for consumers who want to enjoy standard service and provision anywhere across the world. More specifically, managers should focus on upgrading trust in the brand and the standardization of all services and products by checking them and training staff regularly. Such an approach can be an efficient way of elevating trust in a global brand. More importantly, the findings of the interviews show that consumers tend to be very sensitive about food hygiene (see 4.2.1). Hence, managers should always inspect the level of food hygiene in order to increase consumers' trust.

*Perceived Quality* has a significant effect on brand loyalty in the British sample. *Perceived Quality* is an important component of CBGBE in the restaurant industry since environment and intangible service such as staff behavior, mood, and interior décor are the main products of the restaurant. Good manners and staff uniform as well as the physical environment are good examples of what may be considered as *Perceived Quality*. It is the most important factor for consumers in choosing or recommending the restaurant brand to other acquaintances in the UK. In addition, as a result of the analysis using the measures of Ekinci et al (2001; 2008), the restaurant staff should be helpful and friendly and also able to anticipate what consumers want; the décor should be beautifully co-ordinated; and also, comfortable seats and tables should be provided for the consumer. In a complex society, it is widely regarded that restaurants are not only for having a good meal but also for taking a break and relieving stress within a good and comfortable atmosphere. Hence, managers working in the restaurant industry in the UK should strive to improve or maintain the *Perceived Quality* with respect to staff conduct and environment, since these are the most important assets for the CBGBE. The assessment of *Perceived Quality* can be a good way of comparing an existing restaurant to other units of the same brand. in terms of standardizaion. Most consumers define quality in terms of their needs (Cateora and Graham, 2005). Global restaurant brands should customize foods, the interior of the store, staff behavior and uniform to the local consumers' taste to manage cultural diversity (Clarke and Chen, 2007). Importantly, the maintenance of balance between standardization and customization is essential to manage brand equity.

The *Self-Congruence* dimension is significant to brand reputation only in the South Korean sample. As a result of the analysis using the actual and ideal self-congruence measures of Sirgy and Su (2000) and Ekinici et al. (2008), there is a close relationship between an individual and others who dine in the same restaurant in South Korea. That is, an individual diner probably shares the same status, character and taste as the other diners in the restaurant. More specifically, the interior of the restaurant can be designed to suit the consumers' ideal personality, to reinforce emotional connections between the restaurant and its consumers (Ekinici et al; 2008). Customizing the restaurant menu as well as standardizing the service can generate emotional connections between the restaurant and its consumers. There are a significant number of people who are concerned about food and service quality when encountering other cultures. For this reason, combining the strategies of standardization and customization is the most effective way to satisfy global and local consumers.

It is worth noting that religion, preference, and social issue of health across cultures need to be taken into account when planning the menu. In addition, managers of global restaurant brands have to take into account symbols, morals and rules of different cultures (Jeannet and Hennessey, 2004). To meet the emotional and symbolic needs of the consumers, it is necessary for managers to identify through surveys their preferences and the type of ambience that should be created. Subsequently, managers should modify the interior of restaurants in order to satisfy the consumers' symbolic and emotional needs by using favourable colours and design for the restaurant. In addition, the staff behaviour in the restaurant, including manner and conversation, is related to the consumers' symbolic requirements (Ekinici et al; 2008). Importantly, managers should focus not only on *Perceived Quality* as mentioned earlier, but also the idealised personality of their consumers, as part of the dimension of *Self-Congruence*.

*Brand Awareness* is an underlying dimension of CBGBE, and contributes significantly to brand reputation in both the British and South Korean samples and to brand loyalty in the South Korean sample. *Brand Awareness* is related to familiarity with the brand (Yoo et al., 2000; Netemeyer et al., 2004; Buil et al., 2008). In the perceptual process, it is essential to inform consumers about the brand as a

fundamental tool in promoting familiarity in order to score an advantage over the competition (Aaker, 1996). In addition, it can be seen from the results of the analysis that establishing and also maintaining a reputable image is essential to encourage the consumers to have a positive attitude toward the brand and to generate additional business through word of mouth. Long-running advertising campaigns can be one of the most effective ways to market a brand. Therefore, those involved in marketing should have a strong interest in all promotional strategies including advertising, word of mouth, public relations, and so forth despite the levels of investment involved. In modern society, public exposure to advertising through the mass media is ubiquitous and continues to increase. In particular, managers of global brands need to know that what is acceptable in advertisements varies depending on cultural values. That is, advertisements which convey individual pleasures and extreme hedonism would not be acceptable in collective societies (Lee and Carter, 2012). In addition, it is important for the brand to show consumers that it takes a keen interest in social and environmental issues. For example, according to the findings of the interviews in the UK, there are consumers who are interested in fair trade coffee and ethical business. They prefer to visit restaurants offering fair trade coffee (see 4.2.1). Thus, marketers should focus on developing a favourable image for the brand by using fair trade foods, recycling campaigns or charities. In terms of a positioning strategy, these strategies will be useful for positioning the brands in the minds of consumers.

*Brand Association* is related to brand reputation in both the British and South Korean samples. In terms of *Brand Association*, the importance of the logo has been pointed out by Gladden and Funk (2002) and also Alexandris et al. (2008). Clearly, from the results of the analysis, *Brand Association* has a significant effect on brand reputation but not on brand loyalty. That is, *Brand Association* is not related directly to brand loyalty. Managers should create a unique association to establish each brand in the minds of consumers in order to build a competitive advantage and increase CBGBE (Chen, 2001). To increase this association, employing unique marketing strategies can be the most effective means of increasing this association, for example (once again) through the use of a unique logo, interior, staff uniforms, advertising and specific menus. In actual fact, the majority of global restaurants have been successfully developed using creative and memorable designs which lead consumers to take an interest in evaluation in advance of visiting the restaurants. Along with these



strategies, “integrated brand communications and creative repetition through various types of media are key to success in brand communications” (Ghodeswar, 2008:10).

The dimension of *Brand Identification* plays a key role in brand loyalty for both samples, and has a significant effect on brand reputation in the British sample. This can be seen from the results of the analysis obtained employing the scales of Mael and Ashforth (1992); and Kuenzel and Halliday (2008). Their studies indicate that consumers are satisfied with the brand when the brand acquires a good reputation from others and the media. That is, when the consumers hear someone praising their brand, they almost view it as a personal compliment. A good image can have an impact on the brand reputation (Smidts, Pruyn and Van Riel, 2001). In addition, consumers may tend to experience a sense of belonging to a specific society through experiencing the global brand. For example, the majority of the consumers of global fast food restaurants are young people, who like to feel they are sharing in western culture by enjoying fast foods. Consumers have a variety of interests according to their different characteristics. Whilst the taste of the music is becoming standardised among young people, the music which senior citizens listen to can be different (Doole and Lowe, 2008). This is due to the difference of their values. Marketers should employ segmentation strategies for senior citizens, families, teenagers, children, and others. Marketers should be aware of consumers’ characteristic traits, culture and society since they tend to place importance on belonging to a specific group. Hence, the global restaurant should become the place where there are prized things such as music, mood, particular foods, comfortable tables and chairs as part of the overall ambience. Managers should provide their consumers with specific spaces and services in order to grant them a sense of belonging which is the sense that they are of an equivalent value or quality to the brand they use. That is, managers need to use both the customization and standardisation strategies to offer a sense of belonging.

In conclusion, it is useful to note that it should be a priority for managers/marketers to assess the effect of cultural values on a CBGBE across cultures, since this may be essential for retaining brand loyalty for the brand and further cultivate new markets around the world. The diversity of culture causes differences in consumer behaviour. In particular, food consumption is influenced by cultural variation which can affect the marketing strategy of the restaurant (Jeannet and Hennessey, 2004). Balancing

standardization and customization of global service brand is one of the major issues. Global restaurant brands try to maintain their standard image and, at the same time, offer services that are congruent with the local consumers' expectations. For example, food hygiene, logo, symbol, interior and service quality of global restaurants are uniform worldwide. However, some of the food menus need to vary across cultures. Moreover, advertising and signboards of global restaurant brands need to be written in the native language (Witkowski, Ma, Beach, and Zheng, 2003). The managers/marketers of such brands must understand consumers through prevailing cultural values, norms, beliefs, lifestyles in the countries. In the process that is underway for the globalization of many brands, it is necessary not only to have global thoughts and standardization, but also to pursue suitable marketing strategies for the local cultures, in order for the global brand to be successful in the local place.

## **7.6 Limitations and Future Research**

Although the present research makes valuable contributions to cross cultural study, some limitations remain, and should be considered in future research:

First of all, guidelines for the interviews and survey were formulated in English and in Korean and applied in two countries. Before conducting the survey, the questionnaire of Korean version was checked by two professional interpreters and eight respondents. Subsequently, this was reviewed based on the comments of the interpreters and participants. In addition, the results of the interviews with South Korean respondents which were recorded in a cassette tape were translated into English and reviewed to see whether there were any improper interpretations or not. However, a minor gap in the interpretation in the interview guide and questionnaire may have occurred even though these were carefully checked by the professional interpreters

Secondly, for the interviews and the survey, sampling is constrained to participants from four cities (two cities in the UK and two cities in South Korea), respectively. This may limit generalizability of the study's findings to the two populations.

The third limitation is the use of non-probability sampling (convenience sampling). Despite best efforts, the respondents may not be a representative sample of the total population of restaurant consumers (Graziano and Raulin, 1997). Hence, future research needs to consider employing probability samplings in order to elevate external validity of the analyses and findings regarding generalizability (Sekaran, 2003).

In addition, this research relies on a limited number of global restaurants for the object of research, because it is necessary for a cross-cultural study that the object in the UK and South Korea is kept the same. Owing to the difficulty in finding the same global restaurant brand in both countries, mainly fast food restaurants have been chosen, for the most part, in this research.

The present study provides an insight into the relationships among cultural values, Consumer-Based Global Brand Equity, brand reputation and brand loyalty within a global perspective and also the study field of the restaurant industry. Future research needs to further build up this research model through additional cross-cultural study. The present study has examined the relationships of variables according to the British and South Korean samples. Further studies on these relationships in other national cultures would provide us with additional understanding of a culture and its influence. For example, it would be interesting to research the relationships in countries at various stages of economic development as well as between countries which have different traditions and social systems. In addition, culture is not immutable. Changes in culture affect global brands, thus international marketing managers need to examine the cultural changes, and the relationships of culture and CBGBE in their market continuously. Therefore, longitudinal research on the relationships would make a contribution to the restaurant industry in global market place.

# APPENDIXES

**APPENDIX A**  
**INTERVIEW QUESTIONS**

### Interview Questions (for Customers of Restaurant)

Burger King, Costa Coffee, KFC, McDonald's, Pizza Hut, TGI Friday's, Domino's Pizza, Starbucks, Subway

1. Please select one of your favourite restaurant brands from the above list.  
(or identify your favourite restaurant brand).

And, how many times have you eaten in this restaurant in the last 12 months?

2. Why do you like to eat in this restaurant?

3. How do you feel eating in this restaurant?

4. When deciding your choice, how much do you consider your personal situation or is this an impulsive decision?

5. If you would like to change your favourite restaurant brand, what would be the reason for changing it?

6. If you visit another city or nation, would you want to eat in the same brand of restaurant or in another one? Why?

7. If there are none of your favourite brand restaurant in another city or nation, how can you get information about other restaurants, e.g. newspaper, magazine, internet, opinion-seeking, deciding by yourself etc. ?

8. Who in your group of the family, friends or work colleagues decides which restaurant to eat in? What factors are important in this decision?

9. Are there other factors that influence this decision that we have not

## 인터뷰 질문 (레스토랑 고객을 대상으로)

Burger King (버그킹), Costa Coffee (코스타 커피), KFC (케이에프씨), McDonald's (맥도날드), Pizza Hut (피자헛), TGI Friday's (티지아이 프라이데이), Domino's Pizza (도미노 피자), Starbucks (스타벅스), Subway (섭웨이)

1. 위의 보기 중에서 당신이 좋아하는 레스토랑 브랜드를 하나만 선택하십시오. (또는 당신이 좋아하는 식당 브랜드를 확인해 주십시오).

그리고, 지난 12개월 동안 당신이 선택한 레스토랑 브랜드를 몇 번 방문하셨습니다가?

2. 당신은 왜 이 레스토랑에서 식사하는 것을 좋아하십니까?
3. 이 레스토랑에서 식사할 때 당신의 느낌은 어떠했습니다가?
4. 당신은 레스토랑을 결정할때 당신의 개인적인 상황을 어느 정도 고려하십니까? 또는 충동적으로 구매를 결정하십니까?
5. 만일 당신이 좋아하는 레스토랑을 다른 브랜드로 바꾼다면 그 이유는 무엇입니까?
6. 만일 당신이 다른 국가 또는 지역을 방문한다면 그 전의 같은 브랜드의 레스토랑에서 식사를 하시겠습니까 또는 다른 브랜드의 레스토랑에서 식사를 하시겠습니까? 왜 그렇습니까?
7. 만일 다른 국가 또는 지역에 예전에 당신이 선호하였던 같은 브랜드의 레스토랑이 없다면 당신은 다른 레스토랑에 관한 정보를 신문, 잡지, 인터넷, 질문, 자신의 결정 중에서 어떠한 방법을 사용하시겠습니까?
8. 당신의 가족, 친구들, 또는 동료 중에서 누가 레스토랑을 결정하십니까? 어떤 요인들이 이 결정에 중요한 영향을 미칩니까?
9. 지금까지 위에서 우리가 언급하지 않은 레스토랑 결정에 영향을 미칠만한 다른 요인들이 있습니까?

## **APPENDIX B**

**THE SAMPLES OF INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT:  
THE SAMPLES OF THE BRITISH & SOUTH KOREAN**



## **Transcript of Interview**

### **British 1**

**Gender:** Female

**Age:** 24 years old

**Occupation:** Teacher

**\* The following is a list of global restaurant brands.**

Burger King, Costa Coffee, KFC, McDonald's, Pizza Hut, TGI Friday's, Domino's Pizza, Starbucks and Subway

- 1. Please select one of your favourite restaurant brands from the above list. (or identify your favourite restaurant brand).**

Brand X. They are definitely my favourite, I think.

**And, how many times have you eaten in this restaurant in the last 12 months?**

Probably, four times.

- 2. Why do you like to eat in this restaurant?**

I think probably for the menu. I like the food they serve, so there are lots of different things you can eat there, and it's a fun restaurant.

**What is fun?**

It is quirky. I find most of the Brand X have their waiters wearing different uniforms. It's more fun than some restaurants.

**Anything else?**

It has got a good atmosphere, I like the food, and I like the American style of the restaurant. So you get food that you can eat leisurely ... . It reminds me of an

American diner, which I like. I think it's good. I like the way it's designed. It's a bit more relaxed. It's not so much like a restaurant feel, you know, very proper and fancy. It's really nice, relaxed and casual.

**What do you mean by 'relaxed'?**

It's Comfortable and not too expensive.

**3. How do you feel eating in this restaurant?**

I feel relaxed when I eat there, and I enjoy the experience.

**What do you mean by 'enjoy the experience'?**

I like the food and the staff. I enjoy the design of the restaurant and I like eating there.

**4. When deciding your choice, how much do you consider your personal situation or is this an impulsive decision?**

I think it is more like an impulsive decision. I think, I normally, sometimes, I don't go very often. 4 times a year, so if I feel like it, in the weekend, I might be ah! I suppose it's both, really. I have to take into account, where they are - the nearest one to us is quite far away, so distance as well. So personal and impulsive, really. Sometimes I think, Ah, I'll just go there, but then it's quite far away to go to the nearest one...so....

**5. If you would like to change your favorite restaurant brand, what would be the reason for changing it?**

Sometimes I find when I do go there, that you have to wait for a long time for the food, and it takes a long time, and not only that, but they also don't have enough seats. They have that system when they give you a beeper; you have to then wait a long time to get a seat. Maybe they can make the restaurant bigger, or... I don't know, sometimes that is annoying.

**How about the quality of the food?**

Quality of food could be better. It's nice food because you don't pay too much for it, but the quality of the food could be better. I like the service; it is good there. I don't think the price is bad, actually. I don't find it too expensive, so...what you get is... well, it depends. If you spend too much, then you might go to Brand Y. But I think it's nice to go to Brand X.

**How about the location of the restaurant?**

More and more branches I think. They need to have more restaurants because they don't have enough. The nearest one is in Coventry. There are not many around. I would go more than four times in a year, if there were more in the area.

**6. If you visit another city or nation, would you want to eat in the same brand of restaurant or in another one? Why?**

I like it not just because it is in England, but... it depends, really. When I go to Dubai on a holiday, there are a lot of choices of restaurants there. So I might be less inclined to go and have a dinner there because they have more restaurants to choose from. Do you see what I mean...like... here, there are not many great restaurants. If I want to go to Brand X, which is an American diner, here aren't many others around. Whereas in Dubai, they have a huge range of different similar style of restaurants you can go to. Here, I like Brand X, because that is the best of the American diners in England, but in Dubai, there are lots of different things that are better than Brand X. So in Dubai, I might go eat in a different one, instead of going to Brand X.

**7. If there are none of your favorite brand restaurant in another city or nation, how can you get information about other restaurants, e.g. newspaper, magazine, internet, opinion-seeking, deciding by yourself etc.?**

Normally, by opinion seeking or a magazine, actually. You know through word-of-mouth, through other people telling me, or I mainly go on holiday to places

like Dubai, so I think I normally look in their magazines and see which ones look good. Or the Internet.

**What is the important point you would consider when choosing a restaurant from magazines?**

Price, reputation and menu. I don't like it when they don't have much choice on the menu because I am very fussy with my food so I love to have a lot of choice.

**8. Who in your group of the family, friends or work colleagues decides which restaurant to eat in? What factors are important in this decision?**

My Dad, because he pays money. He probably decides where. And he has eaten in more restaurants than I have. He is older and he knows more restaurants that are nicer, and he uses the Internet to find out about the restaurants and he'll say 'no' or 'good'.

**Does your father like Brand X?**

Yes, he does. There are more Brand X in Dubai... .

**Many elderly people don't usually like global brands; they prefer local brands more... ?**

He prefers global brands. He travels a lot so he goes to different countries where he works. I think he prefers restaurants that have... . He prefers global brands.

**When you go to restaurants with your friends, who usually chooses the restaurant?**

We decide as a group. We decide together. So when I am with my friends, there is normally a group decision. The decision point is reputation and things like that.

**When you are with your colleagues, who decides the restaurant?**

One person decided it. She just made a decision for everybody. Everybody had a different opinion but one person just decided the restaurant. Even though she was not very old, or in a high position, she just made a decision because she was quite confident. She didn't really care whether other people blame her or not.

**Did she choose a local brand or global brand?**

Maybe, global brand. I am not sure.

**Do you know why she prefers global brand more?**

If you have a global brand, it is obviously successful in different countries. So you can trust it more because you know that other people eat there, and you know that it is safe to eat so you know that it is fine. Whereas in independent restaurants, you don't know so much. It is less likely to have a website, or less likely to have a good chef.

**9. Are there other factors that influence this decision that we have not spoken about yet?**

Price and reputation of the restaurant. Menu, obviously. I don't like it when they don't have much choice on the menu.

**Why do you think about the restaurant? Why is the reputation of the restaurant important for you?**

Because I wouldn't want to go and eat in a restaurant that people don't like. Not just one person, everyone has different opinions. But if a lot of people said 'Brand X restaurant does not have nice food and I don't like the price', then I wouldn't want to go and do it because I think that I wouldn't want to go and waste money.

**Why is the reputation important and useful for you to choose this restaurant?**

I don't want to go somewhere, if someone said it's horrible. I will go somewhere, if it's good. Because they like it, so I might like it. I think that it is more important to listen to what others are saying, especially people who you know. Share opinions together.

**Is there another factor that influences this decision that we have not spoken about yet?**

Money, other people would go there is important. Brand X is probably a young place so young dress-code is important. Locations, obviously, reputation of the restaurant, and facilities of the restaurant are also important.

**Some people told me that they are interested in the look of the restaurant, like restaurants that have colorful design.**

I don't like when it is too bright.

**Do you think the atmosphere of Brand X is good?**

Yes, I like the music in there, and the staff gets up and sings sometimes. That's nice rather than all be very quiet.

**Do you think Brand X appearance is distinctive?**

I like the music in there. Staff sings in there. I like that rather than being quiet... .

## **Transcript of Interview**

**South Korean 3**

**Gender:** Female

**Age:** 52 years old

**Occupation:** Housewife

**\* The following is a list of global restaurant brands.**

Burger King, Costa Coffee, KFC, McDonald's, Pizza Hut, TGI Friday's, Domino's Pizza, Starbucks and Subway
--

- 1. Please select one of your favourite restaurant brands from the above list?  
(or identify your favourite restaurant brand). It is a "Brand Z".**

**And, how many times have you eaten in this restaurant in the last 12 months?**  
About five or six times.

- 2. Why do you like to eat in this restaurant?**

I am familiar with this brand because there is a large number of its chain anywhere.  
In addition, a variety of menu and taking out are attractive for me.

- 3. How do you feel eating in this restaurant ?**

During staying this restaurant, I feel comfortable. More specifically, even though I  
keep waiting or talking with my friends without ordering a food, I do not feel  
uncomfortable at all.

- 4. When deciding your choice, how much do you consider your personal situation  
or is this an impulsive decision?**

Price is not important but personal situation is very important for me. For instance,  
when I needed to decide a brand, I consider sincerely whether I can carry out food  
and this restaurant is convenient for anyone like my family, friends etc., or not.

**5. If you would like to change your favourite restaurant brand, what would be the reason for changing it?**

Changing my favourite menu to another one may lead me to try different brands. More specifically, most menus have too much fat, so when I get older, I would change to wellbeing.

**Is there another reason to change the brand, for example similar conditions such as providing similar quality of food, physical environment, price and so on?**

The global restaurant brands would have a trust stemming from responsibility through which I can trust the brand would sort out any problems – customers' dissatisfaction, hygiene, etc. In this perspective, we do not need to distrust such global brands when choosing it in another city or nation.

**6. If you visit another city or nation, would you want to eat in the same brand of restaurant or in another one? Why?**

I would like to visit the same restaurant in which has familiar menus.

**7. If there are none of your favourite brand restaurant in another city or nation, how can you get information about other restaurants, e.g. newspaper, magazine, internet, opinion-seeking, deciding by yourself etc. ?**

A book and magazine for travellers would be helpful for me to find the restaurant in which I can see a special food. And, I can also efficiently gain useful information through travel guide to find the one.

**8. Who in your group of the family, friends or work colleagues decides which restaurant to eat in. What factors are important in this decision?**

I usually discuss with my family to decide choice for the brand. And when visiting with staffs in my husband's clinic or my friends, I also follow their decisions to choose the brand. The staffs are young so they prefer the family restaurant like Brand X.



**Why the young staffs would like to visit the family restaurant?**

The young staffs enjoy having a variety of menu, much quantity and saving a bonus point in the family restaurant. Interestingly, they seem to be happier to visit the brand than local one. It is due to the brand reputation through which they would like to belong to the high level of position. For instance, in case someone ask me about what kind of food I enjoy having, I prefer to answer —Enjoy having steak of Brand X” not just saying —steak”. This is based on the fact that the price of food in the family restaurant is not cheap.

**9. Are there other factors that influence this decision that we have not spoken about yet?**

I think everyone who has a keen interest in this global brand has been monitoring the brand. That is, brand reputation regarding a joint ownership, honesty and trust can play role in preventing causing the damage of brand image. It seems that the global restaurant tries to sustain continuously its own brand reputation.

**What do you think of standardization of the global brand?**

Standardization of the brand is efficiently able to prevent providing low quality of service. For this reason, I would like to maintain using same brand that I have employed. Therefore, these factors mentioned above lead me to make a decision for brand loyalty.

**APPENDIX C**  
**INITIAL QUESTIONNAIRE**

Dear Participant

I am a PhD student at Oxford Brookes University. The aim of this research is to investigate British consumers' perception of global brand in the restaurant industry.

Your opinions are very valuable to the success of this study. All information provided will be kept strictly confidential and be used for academic purposes only.

It will take no longer than fifteen minutes of your valuable time to complete this survey. If you have any questions regarding this study, please do not hesitate to ask for clarification. When you have finished, please return the questionnaire to the data collectors.

Thank you for your time and participation to this survey.

Best Regards,

Sung Ho Han  
PhD researcher  
Business school  
Oxford Brookes University

Wheatley Campus, Wheatley, Oxford, OX33 1HX, UK

Email: [hsung@brookes.ac.uk](mailto:hsung@brookes.ac.uk)



**SECTION B: OVERALL IMAGE OF THE GLOBAL RESTAURANT BRAND THAT YOU SELECTED IN SECTION A**

**Q7. Directions:** The following statements are about the brand image of the global restaurant brand that you selected in section A. Please rate the extent to which agree or disagree with the statements. Rating 7 means you are “strongly agree” and 1 means “strongly disagree”.

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand meets my expectations of restaurant service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can rely on this brand to solve the service dissatisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand guarantees satisfaction with quality of food.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have confidence in this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel good when I use this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand makes me happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand gives me a pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand provides tasty foods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand prepares food and drinks according to hygiene standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand offers fresh foods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The décor is beautifully co-ordinated with great attention to detail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand is tidy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand provides comfortable seats and tables.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The staffs of this brand are helpful and friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The staffs of this brand seem to anticipate what I wanted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The staffs of this brand listen to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The staffs of this brand are talented and displayed a natural expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The customers who dine in this brand reflect the type of person I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The customers who dine in this brand are very much like me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The customers who dine in this brand reflect the type of person I would like to be.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The customers who dine in this brand are very much like the person I admire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am aware of this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I think of a restaurant, this brand is one of the brands that come to mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am familiar with this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can recognize this brand among other brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand is a leader in the restaurant industry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand is very popular	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand is widely recognized	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have good memories for the service in the restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family and friends have fond memories for the service in the restaurant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy reflecting on everyday problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This brand has an attractive logo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I recall the logo of this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I recall the colours of the building and inside.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Q8.Directions:** The following statements are about cultural values. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the 7 point scale. Rating 7 means you are “strongly agree” and 1 means “strongly disagree”.

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the sake of the group to which the individual belong.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Individuals should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Group success is more important than individual success.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to work in a competitive environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I pursue winning, success and achievement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Consumption patterns show self-supporting lifestyle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I avoid risk rather than take risk.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to accept innovative and creative idea	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I hesitate using new products and technologies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think social status is important in showing power.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to buy products which can identify my social status.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like well-known brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It bothers me when my friends have things that I cannot afford.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I choose my job on the basis of the salary.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I prefer a rational to an emotional analysis in decision making.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I tend to use reason rather than intuition in my life in decision making.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am working and saving for the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am planning and preparing for the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Q9.Directions:** The following are statements regarding the brand loyalty in the global restaurant brand that you selected in section A. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the 7 point scale. Rating 7 means you are “strongly agree” and 1 means “strongly disagree”.

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I say positive things about this brand to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will recommend this brand to anyone who seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would not switch to another brand, even if I had a problem with the services of this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will revisit this brand next time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



**Directions:** Please tick (✓) the box where appropriate.

**Q10. Gender:**       Female                       Male

**Q11. Age Group:**    16-23                       31-40                       51-60  
                                  24-30                       41-50                       Over 61

**Q12. Nationality:**      \_\_\_\_\_

**Q13. The highest level of education you attained:**

- |                                   |   |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> GCSE     | <input type="checkbox"/> Undergraduate Degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> A-Level  | <input type="checkbox"/> Postgraduate Degree  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> GNVQ/NVQ | <input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____         |

**Q14. Current Employment Status:**

- |   |                                       |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Full-time Employee | <input type="checkbox"/> Retired      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Part-time Employee | <input type="checkbox"/> Housework    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Self-employee      | <input type="checkbox"/> Student      |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Unemployed         | <input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____ |

**Q15. Your current occupation:**

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Manager and Senior Officials                        | <input type="checkbox"/> Skilled Trades Occupations                |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Professional Occupation                             | <input type="checkbox"/> Personal Service Occupations              |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Associate Professional and<br>Technical Occupations | <input type="checkbox"/> Sales and Customer Service<br>Occupations |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Administrative and Secretarial<br>Occupation        | <input type="checkbox"/> Process, Plant and Machine<br>Operatives  |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Elementary Occupations                              | <input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____                              |

**Q16. Average annual pre-tax personal income:**

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than £ 10,000   | <input type="checkbox"/> £ 30,000 to £ 39,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> £ 10,000 to £ 19,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> £ 40,000 to £ 49,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> £ 20,000 to £ 29,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> Over £50,000         |

**Thank you for your help**

## **APPENDIX D**

# **REVISED QUESTIONNAIRE**

Dear Participant

I am a PhD student at Oxford Brookes University. The aim of this research is to investigate British consumers' perception of global brand in the restaurant industry.

This survey will take no longer than fifteen minutes of your valuable time and your opinion is very valuable to the success of this study. Please be assured that all information provided will be kept strictly confidential and used for academic purposes only.

If you have any questions regarding this study, please do not hesitate to ask for clarification. When you have finished, please return the questionnaire to the data collectors.

Thank you for your time and participation in this survey.

Best Regards,

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## SECTION A: A GLOBAL RESTAURANT BRAND YOU ARE FAMILIAR WITH

**Directions:** The following is a list of global restaurant brands which operate in more than one country. Please choose **one restaurant brand** that you are familiar with and then respond to the questions. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers.

### A List of Global Restaurant Brands:

Burger King, KFC, McDonald's, Pizza Hut, TGI Friday's, Domino's Pizza  
Starbucks, Subway

**Q1. Please print the restaurant brand which you have selected** \_\_\_\_\_

**Q2. How long have you known this restaurant brand?**

- Less than 1 month
- 1 to 6 months
- 7 to 12 months
- 1 to 3 years
- Over 3 years

**Q3. Have you ever dined in this restaurant?**

- Yes
- No (please go to question 6)

**Q4. On average how many times have you dined in this restaurant in the last 12 months?** \_\_\_\_\_

**Q5. What was the main purpose of your visit? Please, tick (✓) only one.**

- Business
- Celebrating Event (Graduation, Birthday, etc.)
- Enjoy Eating
- Enjoy Atmosphere
- Saving Time
- Social Meeting
- Other (please print) \_\_\_\_\_

**Q6. What type of promotion reminds you of this restaurant most? Please tick (√) one only.**

- Internet
- Magazine
- Newspaper
- Radio
- Signboard
- Word of Mouth
- Television
- Leaflet

**Q7. Which of the following is a strong point of this brand? Please, tick (√) only one only.**

- Accessibility (Location and Many branches)
- Children facility
- Cleanliness
- Competence of Staff
- Convenience (Saving time)
- Hygiene
- Quality of Food
- Reasonable Price
- Special Promotion (Coupon, Point Card, etc.)
- Standardized menu and physical environment
- Wide Space inside

**SECTION B: OVERALL IMAGE OF THE SELECTED RESTAURANT BRAND  
IN SECTION A**

**Q8. Directions:** The following statements are about the restaurant brand that you have selected in section A. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements. Rating 7 means you “strongly agree” and 1 means “strongly disagree”.

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a. This brand meets my expectations of restaurant service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. I can rely on this brand to solve the service dissatisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. This brand guarantees satisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. I have confidence in this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e. I feel good when I dine in this restaurant brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f. This restaurant brand makes me happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g. This restaurant brand gives me pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h. This restaurant brand provides tasty foods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i. This restaurant brand prepares food and drinks according to hygiene standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j. This restaurant brand offers fresh foods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
k. The décor of this restaurant brand is beautifully co-ordinated with great attention to detail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
l. This restaurant brand offers a tidy environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m. This restaurant brand provides comfortable seats and tables.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
n. The staff of this restaurant brand is helpful and friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
o. The staff of this restaurant brand seems to anticipate what I want.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p. The staff of this restaurant brand listens to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
q. The staff of this restaurant brand is talented and displays a natural expertise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
r. The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
s. The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
t. The customers who dine in this restaurant reflect the type of person I would like to be.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
u. The customers who dine in this restaurant are very much like the person I admire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
v. I am aware of this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
w. When I think of a restaurant brand, this is one of the brands that come to mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
x. I am familiar with this restaurant brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
y. I can recognize this brand among other restaurant brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
z. This brand has an attractive logo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a2. I like the logo of the brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b2. I like the colours of building or interior.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c2. I feel good when I see a positive report in the media about this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d2. I am interested in what others think about this brand	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e2. When someone praises this brand, it feels like a personal compliment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Q9. Directions:** The following are statements regarding the restaurant brand that you selected in section A. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the 7 point scale. Rating 7 means you “strongly agree” and 1 means “strongly disagree”.

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	a. This brand is trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. This brand is reputable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. This brand makes honest claims.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. This brand has a long lasting reputation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e. In the past, today and in the future, the value behind this brand will not change.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Q10. Directions:** The following are statements regarding the restaurant brand that you selected in section A. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the 7 point scale. Rating 7 means you are “strongly agree” and 1 means “strongly disagree”.

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	a. I say positive things about this restaurant brand to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. I will recommend this restaurant brand to anyone who seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. I would not switch to another restaurant brand, even if I had a problem with the services of this restaurant brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. I will revisit this restaurant brand next time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



**11. Directions:** The following is about way of life and characteristic in a particular society. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the 7 point scale. Rating 7 means you are “strongly agree” and 1 means “strongly disagree”.

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a. Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group that they belong to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. Individuals should stick with the group even through difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. Group success is more important than individual success.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e. Individuals should pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f. Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g. It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h. Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i. Solving difficult problems usually requires an active forcible approach, which is typical of men.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j. There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
k. It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I’m expected to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
l. It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m. Rules/regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Statement	Strongly Disagree ← Neutral → Strongly Agree						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
n. Standardized work procedures are helpful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
o. Instructions for operations are important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p. People in higher positions should make most decisions without consulting people in lower positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
q. People in higher positions should not ask the opinions of people in lower positions too frequently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
r. People in higher positions should avoid social interaction with people in lower positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
s. People in higher positions should not delegate important tasks to people in lower positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
t. People in lower positions should not disagree with decisions made by people in higher positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
u. I am working and saving for the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
v. I am planning and preparing for the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
w. I have all the things I really need to enjoy life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
x. My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
y. I wouldn't be any happier if I owned nicer things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
z. I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a2. It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



설문참여자 여러분

저는 영국 옥스포드 브룩스 대학교의 박사과정 학생입니다.

본 연구의 목적은 레스토랑 산업에서 글로벌 브랜드에 관한 한국 소비자들의 인식을 조사하는 것입니다.

이 설문지를 완성하기 위해서는 15분 이상이 걸리지 않을 것이며, 귀하의 의견은 성공적인 연구를 위하여 매우 소중하게 반영될 것입니다. 제공된 모든 개인 정보는 엄격하게 비밀이 유지될 것이며, 오로지 연구 목적으로서만 사용될 것입니다.

만약 이 연구와 관련하여 어떠한 질문이 있으시면, 주저하지 마시고 질문하여 주시기 바랍니다. 설문지 작성을 마친 후에는 설문 조사자에게 설문지를 제출 해주십시오.

이 조사를 위해 시간을 내어 참가해 주셔서 감사합니다.

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## SECTION A: 귀하와 친숙한 글로벌 레스토랑 브랜드

아래 보기는 한 국가 이상에서 운영되고 있는 글로벌 레스토랑 브랜드의 리스트입니다. 귀하께서 친숙한 **하나의 레스토랑 브랜드**를 선택하신 다음, 아래의 질문에 답하여 주십시오. 맞거나 틀린 답을 쓰는 것이 아니라는 것에 유의하십시오.

글로벌 레스토랑 브랜드:

Burger King (버거킹), KFC (케이에프씨), McDonald's (맥도날드), Pizza Hut (피자헛), TGI Friday's (티지아이 프라이데이), Domino's Pizza (도미노 피자), Starbucks (스타벅스), Subway (섭웨이)

Q1. 위의 보기 중 귀하께서 친숙한 레스토랑 브랜드를 답하여 주십시오

\_\_\_\_\_

Q2. 귀하께서는 이 브랜드를 알게 된 지 얼마나 되셨습니까?

- 1개월 미만
- 1개월이상 6개월 이하
- 7개월이상 12개월 미만
- 1년에서 3년 사이
- 3년 이상

Q3. 이 레스토랑에서 식사를 한 적이 있습니까?

- 예
- 아니오 (6번 문제부터 답하여 주십시오.)

Q4. 평균적으로, 지난 12개월 동안 이 레스토랑에서 몇 번 식사를 하셨습니까? \_\_\_\_

Q5. 이 레스토랑을 방문하는 주된 목적은 무엇입니까? 한 가지 답에만 표시(√) 해 주십시오.

- 사업
- 축하 이벤트 (졸업식, 생일 등)
- 식사
- 분위기를 즐기기 위함
- 시간절약
- 교체
- 기타 (기재하여 주십시오.) \_\_\_\_\_

Q6. 어떤 유형의 판매촉진이 귀하로 하여금 가장 이 레스토랑을 생각나게 합니까? 한가지 답에만 표시(√) 해 주십시오.

- 인터넷     잡지     신문     라디오     광고 간판     구전
- 텔레비전     전단지

Q7. 다음 중 이 브랜드의 강점은 무엇입니까? 한 가지 답에만 표시(√) 해 주십시오.

- 접근성 (위치와 많은 지점)
- 어린이를 위한 시설
- 청결함
- 직원의 능력
- 편리성(시간 절약)
- 위생
- 음식의 품질
- 적절한 가격
- 특별한 판매촉진(쿠폰, 포인트 카드 등)
- 규격화된 메뉴와 시설
- 넓은 내부공간

**Section B: Section A에서 선택한 글로벌 레스토랑 브랜드에 관한 전체적인 이미지**

**Q8.** 다음의 질문들은 Section A에서 귀하께서 선택한 레스토랑 브랜드에 관한 것입니다. 다음의 질문에 어느 정도 동의하는지 또는 동의하지 않는지를 답하여 주십시오. 7은 “매우 동의함”을 의미하며, 1은 “매우 동의하지 않음”을 의미합니다.

질문	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> <span>매우동의 하지않음</span> <span style="font-size: 2em;">←</span> <span>보통</span> <span style="font-size: 2em;">→</span> <span>매우 동의함</span> </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a. 이 브랜드는 레스토랑 서비스에 대한 나의 기대를 만족시킨다.							
b. 나는 이 브랜드가 서비스 불만족 문제를 해결해 줄 수 있다고 믿는다.							
c. 이 브랜드는 만족을 보장한다.							
d. 나는 이 브랜드에 신뢰를 가진다.							
e. 나는 이 레스토랑에서 식사를 할 때 기분이 좋다.							
f. 이 레스토랑 브랜드는 나를 행복하게 만든다.							
g. 이 레스토랑 브랜드는 나에게 기쁨을 준다.							
h. 이 레스토랑은 맛있는 음식을 제공한다.							
i. 이 레스토랑 브랜드는 위생기준에 맞게 음식과 음료를 준비한다.							
j. 이 레스토랑은 신선한 음식을 제공한다.							
k. 이 브랜드의 장식은 세세한 데까지 주의를 끌만큼 아름답게 꾸며져 있다.							
l. 이 레스토랑은 청결하고 깔끔한 환경을 제공한다.							
m. 이 레스토랑은 편안한 의자와 테이블을 제공한다.							

질문	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> <span>매우동의 하지않음</span> <span>← 보 통 →</span> <span>매우 동의함</span> </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
n. 이 브랜드의 직원들은 친절하며 도움을 준다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
o. 이 레스토랑의 직원들은 내가 무엇을 원하는지 잘 알고 있는 것처럼 보인다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p. 직원들은 나의 말에 귀를 기울인다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
q. 이 브랜드의 직원들은 능력이 있으며 타고난 전문성을 보여준다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
r. 이 브랜드에서 식사를 하는 고객들은 현재의 나와 같은 타입(유형)이라는 것을 보여준다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
s. 이 브랜드에서 식사를 하는 고객들은 나와 매우 유사하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
t. 이 브랜드에서 식사를 하는 고객들은 내가 되고 싶은 유형의 이미지를 보여준다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
u. 이 브랜드에서 식사를 하는 고객들은 내가 존경하는 사람과 매우 유사하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
v. 나는 이 브랜드를 잘 알고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
w. 내가 레스토랑에 대해 생각할 때 이 브랜드는 머리에 떠오르는 브랜드들 중의 하나다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
x. 나는 이 레스토랑 브랜드와 친숙하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
y. 나는 다른 레스토랑 브랜드들 사이에서 이 브랜드를 인식할 수 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
z. 이 브랜드는 매력적인 로고를 가지고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a2. 나는 이 브랜드의 로고를 좋아한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b2. 나는 이 브랜드의 건물색깔이나 내부장식을 좋아한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



질문	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> <span>매우동의 하지않음</span> <span>← 보통 →</span> <span>매우 동의함</span> </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c2. 나는 이 브랜드에 관한 대중매체의 긍정적인 보도를 볼 때 기분이 좋다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d2. 나는 이 브랜드에 대한 다른 사람들의 의견에 관심이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e2. 다른 누군가가 이 브랜드를 칭찬할 때 마치 내가 칭찬을 받는 것처럼 느껴진다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Q9.** 다음의 질문들은 Section A에서 귀하께서 선택한 레스토랑 브랜드에 관한 것입니다. 다음의 질문에 어느 정도 동의하는지 또는 동의하지 않는지를 답하여 주십시오. 7은 “매우 동의함”을 의미하며, 1은 “매우 동의하지 않음”을 의미합니다.

질문	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> <span>매우동의 하지않음</span> <span>← 보통 →</span> <span>매우 동의함</span> </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a. 이 브랜드는 신뢰할만한 가치가 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. 이 브랜드는 평판이 좋다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. 이 브랜드는 정직함만을 말한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. 이 브랜드는 오랫동안 지속적으로 명성을 가지고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e. 과거, 현재 그리고 미래에도 이 브랜드의 가치는 변하지 않을 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Q10.** 다음의 질문들은 Section A에서 귀하께서 선택한 레스토랑 브랜드에 관한 것입니다. 다음의 질문에 어느 정도 동의하는지 또는 동의하지 않는지를 답하여 주십시오. 7은 “매우 동의함”을 의미하며, 1은 “매우 동의하지 않음”을 의미합니다.

질문	매우동의 ← 보통 → 매우 동의함 하지않음						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a. 나는 다른 사람들에게 이 브랜드에 대하여 긍정적으로 말한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. 나에게 조언을 구하는 어떤 사람에게 이 브랜드를 추천할 것이다..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. 비록 이 브랜드의 서비스에 문제가 생기더라도 나는 다른 브랜드로 바꾸지 않을 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. 나는 다음에도 이 브랜드를 방문할 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**Q11.** 아래 질문은 특정사회 안에서의 생활방식과 특징에 관한 것 입니다. 다음의 질문에 어느 정도 동의하는지 또는 동의하지 않는지를 답하여 주십시오. 7은 “매우 동의함”을 의미하며, 1은 “매우 동의하지 않음”을 의미합니다.

질문	매우동의 ← 보통 → 매우 동의함 하지않음						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a. 개인은 그들이 속한 집단을 위해 자신의 이익을 희생해야만 한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
b. 개인들은 각자의 어려움을 감수하더라도 단체(그룹)에 충실하여야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
c. 집단에 대한 복지는 개인에 대한 보상보다 더 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
d. 집단의 성공은 개인의 성공보다 더 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

질문	매우동의 ← 보통 → 매우 동의함 하지않음						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
e. 개인은 집단의 번영을 고려한 후에 자신의 목표를 추구해야 한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
f. 집단에 대한 충성은 비록 개인의 목표와는 어긋나더라도 장려 되어져야만 한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
g. 남성들이 전문적인 경력을 가지는 것은 여성들이 전문적인 경력을 가지는 것보다 더 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
h. 남성들은 대개 논리적인 분석으로 문제를 해결하지만, 여성들은 대개 직관적으로 문제를 해결한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
i. 어려운 문제를 해결하기 위해서는 언제나 적극적이고, 강압적 접근법이 요구되는데, 이것은 남성들의 전형적 방법이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
j. 남성이 여성 보다 항상 더 잘하는 일부 직업들이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
k. 내가 무엇을 해야 하는지 잘 인식할 수 있도록 자세히 설명되어 있는 안내서를 가지는 것은 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
l. 사용 설명서와 절차를 충실히 따르는 것이 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m. 규칙/규율은 내가 무엇을 해야 하는지를 알려주기 때문에 매우 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
n. 표준화된 작업 절차들은 도움이 된다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
o. 사용설명서는 중요하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p. 보다 높은 지위에 있는 사람들은 보다 낮은 지위의 사람들과 의논하지 않고 대부분의 결정을 한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

질 문	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> <span>매우동의 하지않음</span> <span>← 보 통 →</span> <span>매우 동의함</span> </div>						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
q. 보다 높은 지위에 있는 사람들은 보다 낮은 지위의 사람들에게 의견을 너무 자주 물어서는 안된다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
r. 보다 높은 지위에 있는 사람들은 보다 낮은 지위의 사람들과 교제를 피해야만 한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
s. 보다 높은 지위의 사람들은 보다 낮은 지위의 사람들에게 중요한 임무를 위임해서는 안된다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
t. 보다 낮은 지위에 있는 사람들은 보다 높은 지위에 있는 사람들이 만든 결정에 다른 의견을 제기해서는 안된다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
u. 나는 미래를 위해 일하고 저축한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
v. 나는 미래를 계획하고 준비한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
w. 나는 인생을 즐기기 위해 필요한 모든 것을 가지고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
x. 만일 내가 가지지 못한 어떤 것을 가진다면 나의 인생은 더 좋을 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
y. 만일 더 좋은 것들을 가지더라도 나는 더 행복하지 않을 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
z. 만일 더 많은 것을 구매 할 수 있다면 나는 더 행복할 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a2. 내가 좋아하는 모든 것을 구매 할 수 없는 것은 때때로 나를 조금 짜증나게 한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



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