UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
FACULTY OF ECONOMICS

NUŠA PETEK

IMPACT OF NEW MARKETING COMMUNICATION TOOLS ON BRAND EQUITY

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IMPACT OF NEW MARKETING COMMUNICATION TOOLS ON BRAND EQUITY

SUMMARY

The doctoral dissertation explores, whether changes in marketing communications due to the emergence of new, interactive, and digital marketing communication tools, influenced the way brands are managed to the extent that new branding theories are needed. In this new marketing communications environment, marketers have lost control over their brands, since consumers became active co-creators of brand-related messages and experiences. Therefore, academics started to question whether branding theory has to adapt to changes and how.

Branding was approached from two perspectives. In the first part, we focused on the process of how brand managers can build strong brands. From the literature review, it was evident that in the new marketing communications environment consumers became involved and attached to brands more than before. Consequently, we proposed that the main change in this environment is in the consumer-brand relationship building. The brand identity management process was examined, and a new brand identity management process was proposed. In the next step, the focus was on the brand equity theory that presents the external stakeholder view of brands. Due to these changes, a new consumer-based brand equity model (hereinafter: CBBE) was proposed in the dissertation, including the traditional CBBE elements (brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty), and a new CBBE element, brand relationship.

In the next step, marketing communications theory was examined to determine how different marketing communication tools build brands today. Based on the findings, we focused on television advertising among the traditional marketing communication tools, and on electronic word-of-mouth (hereinafter: eWOM) among the new marketing communication tools, since they were proposed to have a high impact on brands.

In the main part of the dissertation, we explored the impact of selected traditional and new marketing communication tools on brands. There were two conceptual models proposed in the dissertation, the CBBE model, and the impact of selected marketing communication tools on the CBBE model. Two CBBE models were examined to determine whether the recent brand equity theory should change. The traditional CBBE model includes traditional CBBE elements, namely brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. The new CBBE model includes the traditional CBBE elements and the additional element, brand relationship. Since we wanted to examine how marketing communications influence CBBE, we proposed an impact model, where television advertising and eWOM were regarded as antecedents for both the traditional and new CBBE models.

In the doctoral dissertation, we combined qualitative and quantitative approaches. In the exploratory qualitative studies, both in-depth interviews and focus groups were carried out. In-depth interviews were conducted with brand managers to examine recent branding practice in the new marketing communications environment. In addition, focus groups were carried out among consumers to gain consumer understanding of brands and marketing communications. Based on our findings, we performed a quantitative study in three European countries: Great Britain, Slovenia, and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The countries differ in the accessibility and use of the Internet in households.

Before examining the proposed models, univariate, bivariate, and multivariate statistical methods were used. The conceptual models were tested using structural equations modelling. The results showed that the branding theory has to be reconsidered. Brand relationship was found to enhance CBBE and to be an important CBBE element on all samples. Furthermore, results from the structural equation modelling imply that selected marketing communication tools build brands differently. Television advertising spending enhanced brand awareness with brand image. eWOM, which was measured with two constructs, eWOM quality and eWOM activity, had a different impact on CBBE elements. eWOM quality was found to have a significant impact on brand awareness with brand image and on perceived quality. Its impact was highest on perceived quality. eWOM activity was found to build CBBE elements differently. eWOM activity enhanced brand loyalty and brand relationship. The impact of eWOM activity was highest on brand relationship.

Since all competing models yielded acceptable model fit, they were further examined with the cross-validation procedure to determine which of the models is superior. The cross-validation procedure showed that the traditional CBBE model could be better. Nevertheless, when we added selected marketing communication tools as antecedents of the CBBE elements, the results did not confirm any model as superior. Therefore, further examination of the models is needed in the future.

The impact of selected marketing communication tools on the new CBBE model implies that brands are built differently today. Brand relationship was proposed as an additional CBBE element in this new environment. A new marketing communication tool, eWOM activity, was found to have a high impact on brand relationship. Due to these findings, we believe that traditional CBBE theory should be refined with the additional CBBE element of brand relationship to capture the changes brought by new marketing communication tools.

Key words: consumer-based brand equity, brand relationship, marketing communications, television advertising, electronic word-of-mouth

VPLIV SODOBNIH TRŽENJSKO-KOMUNIKACIJSKIH ORODIJ NA PREMOŽENJE BLAGOVNE ZNAMKE

POVZETEK

V doktorski disertaciji preučujem, ali so spremembe v trženjskem komuniciranju zaradi pojava novih, interaktivnih in digitalnih, trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij toliko spremenile managiranje blagovnih znamk, da je treba razviti novo teorijo managementa blagovnih znamk. Skrbniki blagovnih znamk so v novem trženjsko-komunikacijskem okolju izgubili nadzor nad trženjskim komuniciranjem, saj so porabniki postali aktivni soustvarjalci sporočil in doživetij blagovnih znamk. Znanstveniki se zato sprašujejo, ali je treba prilagoditi teorijo managementa blagovnih znamk in kako.

V doktorski disertaciji na management blagovnih znamk gledam z dveh zornih kotov. V prvem delu se osredotočim na vidik skrbnikov znamk in na proces grajenja močnih blagovnih znamk. Novo trženjsko-komunikacijsko okolje je porabnikom omogočilo večjo vpletenost in povezanost z znamkami kot kdaj prej. Osrednja sprememba v novem okolju je torej v grajenju odnosa med znamko in porabnikom. Na osnovi ugotovitev predlagam spremembe v managementu identitete blagovne znamke. V drugem delu se osredotočim na vidik zunanjih deležnikov prek teorije premoženja blagovne znamke. Na podlagi ugotovljenih sprememb v okolju predlagam nov model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, ki poleg tradicionalnih elementov premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, kot so zavedanje, podoba, zaznana kakovost in zvestoba blagovni znamki, vsebuje tudi nov element, odnos z blagovno znamko.

V naslednjem poglavju se osredotočim na trženjsko komuniciranje, da bi odkrila, katera trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja gradijo premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov v novem okolju. Nato se osredotočim na televizijsko oglaševanje in spletno trženje od ust do ust, ki sta zaznani kot orodji z visokim vplivom na premoženje blagovnih znamk v današnjem okolju.

V osrednjem delu disertacije preverjam, kakšen je vpliv tradicionalnih in novih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. Predlagam dva konceptualna modela; model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov ter model vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. V disertaciji preverjam dva modela premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, da bi odkrila, ali je treba prilagoditi teorijo managementa blagovnih znamk. Tradicionalni model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov vsebuje naslednje elemente: zavedanje in podobo znamke, zaznano kakovost in zvestobo znamki. Novi model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov poleg naštetih elementov vsebuje tudi nov element, odnos z blagovno znamko.

Dalje predlagam tudi dva konceptualna modela vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na tradicionalni in novi model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. V predlaganih modelih vpliva so zaznana vložena sredstva v televizijsko oglaševanje ter zaznano spletno trženje od ust do ust predlagana kot antecedensa obeh modelov premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov.

V doktorski disertaciji kombiniram dva metodološka pristopa, in sicer kvalitativni in kvantitativni pristop. V okviru kvalitativne eksploratorne analize izvedem tako globinske intervjuje s skrbniki blagovnih znamk kot fokusne skupine s porabniki. Na podlagi ugotovitev izvedem kvantitativno raziskavo v treh evropskih državah; Veliki Britaniji, Sloveniji ter Bosni in Hercegovini. Države se med seboj razlikujejo glede na dostopnost in uporabo interneta v gospodinjstvih. Pred testiranjem predlaganih modelov najprej analiziram podatke po univariatnih, bivariatnih in multivariatnih statističnih metodah, nato pa preverim konceptualne modele z uporabo modeliranja z linearnimi strukturnimi enačbami.

Rezultati pokažejo, da je odnos z blagovno znamko pomemben element predlaganega novega modela premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. Rezultati pokažejo tudi, da se vpliv izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov razlikuje. Zaznana vložena sredstva v televizijsko oglaševanje povečujejo zavedanje in podobo blagovne znamke. Nasprotno ima spletno trženje od ust do ust, ki sem ga naprej razdelila na kakovost spletnega trženja od ust do ust in aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust, različen vpliv na elemente premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. Kakovost spletnega trženja od ust do ust ima pozitiven vpliv na zavedanje in podobo znamke ter na zaznano kakovost. Vpliv kakovosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust je največji na zaznano kakovost blagovne znamke. Aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust vplivajo na zvestobo blagovni znamki ter na odnos z blagovno znamko. Vpliv aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust je največji na odnos z znamko.

Predlagani model vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na nov model premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov predlaga, da se v današnjem okolju močne znamke gradi drugače kot v preteklosti. Rezultati raziskave nakazujejo, da se odnos z blagovno znamko gradi le z novim orodjem, spletnim trženjem od ust do ust. Na podlagi ugotovitev zaključim, da je treba v merjenje premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov dodati novo mero, odnos z blagovno znamko.

Ključne besede: premoženje blagovne znamke, odnos do blagovne znamke, trženjsko komuniciranje, televizijsko oglaševanje, spletno trženje od ust do ust

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INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, branding has developed into one of the most dominant topics in marketing studies. Branding has become so valuable because of its impact on the consumers' valuation of products and services and the company's success in the marketplace. Brands thus have become the most influential marketing tool for product or service differentiation and present a promise of value in consumers' eyes (Keller & Lehman, 2006). As a result, brand is perceived as one of the most important intangible assets of a company (Aaker, 1991, 1996a; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; de Chernatony & McDonald, 2001; de Chernatony, 2010), and branding has become companies' key marketing priority (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Kapferer, 2005; Keller, 2009; Keller & Lehmann, 2006).

Due to the underlying facts about branding, it is not surprising that the number of articles concerning brand management and brand valuation has skyrocketed in the recent decades in the scientific marketing literature. From stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984, p. 46), we can divide branding articles into two categories: those that study brands from the internal stakeholder perspective and those that investigate the external stakeholder perspective (de Chernatony & Harris, 2000; Konečnik Ruzzier & Ruzzier, 2009). From the internal stakeholder point of view, researchers have studied the process of brand identity building (Balmer & Stotvig, 1997; Ind, 1997; Kapferer, 1997) and the brand identity management process (Aaker & Joachinsthaler, 2000). The main aim of studies from the internal stakeholder perspective has been to define steps for how to build strong brands. On the other hand, studies from the external stakeholder point of view have focused mainly on brand perceptions, from both financial and strategic perspectives (Keller, 1993; Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Keller & Lehmann, 2006).

How consumers perceive brands is of vital importance for brand managers because brand perceptions influence consumers' intentions to purchase and have an indirect impact on a brand's financial success. The belief that perceived marketing efforts have a stronger impact on consumers' behaviour and their brand perceptions than actual marketing efforts has been stressed in many brand-related studies (Biel, 1992; Aaker & Biel, 1992; Aaker 1991, 1996a; Keller, 1993; Cobb-Walgren, Ruble & Donthu, 1995). Consequently, numerous research articles have focused on consumers' perceptions of brands, rather than on brands' actual performance (Aaker, 1991, 1996a; Keller, 1993). As a result the concept of customer-based brand equity (CBBE) emerged (Aaker & Biel, 1992; Aaker 1991, 1996a; Keller, 1993; Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Park & Srinivasan, 1994; Rangaswamy, Burke & Oliva, 1993; Swait Erdem, Louviere & Doubelaar, 1993) and is extensively used today when measuring brand perceptions in customers' eyes.

Academics believe that all marketing mix elements have an impact on brand equity (Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Yoo, Donthu & Lee, 2000; Srivastava, Fahey & Christensen, 2001). Every contact the consumer has with the brand, from marketing communication activities, price and packaging, channels to the behaviour of salespeople and internal employees affects consumers' brand perceptions (Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2002; Srivastava et al., 2001; Duncan & Mulhern, 2004; Argyriou, Kitchen & Melewar, 2006).

Problem definition

In the early part of the 21st century, marketing communication (MC) tools changed dramatically due to the emergence of information and communications technology (ICT) and the rise in use of the internet as a new MC medium (Winer, 2009, p. 108). Immense differences in the combination of diverse MC tools are available to marketers today. MCs travel in many directions and marketers cannot control them as easily as in the past. Interactive and digital MCs have become important topics of research (Winer, 2009; Keller, 2009, 2010).

In the environment based on ICT, customers have also changed immensely and their needs and wants have become too diverse to be satisfied with the traditional MC approach (Kumar, 2010, p. 73). Customers now can interact with companies, media and each other through media based on the internet or digital technology (Hoffman & Novak, 1996, pp. 52-53). The lines in the digital world became increasingly blurred when blogs, forums and social networking sites became sources for customers' brand evaluations (Winer, 2009; Keller, 2010).

In the past, academics researched how consumers perceive traditional MC tools. Their focus was mainly based on perceptions of different types of advertising, such as, television, radio and print advertising (Larkin, 1979; Edell & Keller, 1989; Buchholz & Smith, 1991; McNeal & Ji, 1999; Hsu, Yang, & Su, 2007). Today, the main focus is centred on new MC tools and how consumers perceive them (Yoon & Kim, 2001; Hollis, 2005; Nagar, 2009; Keller, 2009, 2010). However, only a few studies have connected perceptions of new MC tools with brand equity perceptions. Consequently, there is a lack of incisive connections between the so-called new MC mix and its effect on brand equity (Keller, 2010). Leading academics in the branding field, such as Kevin Lane Keller (2010), even question whether it is necessary to develop new brand knowledge and meaning theory to understand the effects of new MC tools on brand equity.

Since there is a lack of studies examining the impact of new MC tools on brand equity, our research will contribute to a better understanding of the impact of new MC tools on CBBE. Furthermore, as postulated by Keller (2010), we will try to answer the question regarding whether brand equity theory should change due to the effects of new MC tools. Therefore, the topic of the dissertation has the potential to add important knowledge to MC and branding theory as well as practice and therefore, it is important to both academics and marketers in the new digital era.

Purpose of the dissertation

Changes in the marketplace have opened up numerous new research topics in marketing, where branding and MCs a leading role. The aim of the dissertation is to fill the gap in the existing scientific literature concerning brand building in the new MC environment. We will try to provide answers to the following questions:

1. Should brand identity development and management processes adapt and change due to the emergence of new MC tools?
2. Should CBBE measurement change due to the emergence of new MC tools?
3. To what extent do new MC tools affect CBBE building?
4. Do the impact of traditional MC tools like television advertising and the impact of new MC tools on CBBE differ?

The outlined questions are of huge importance to scientific marketing research worldwide, which is evident also in the Marketing Science Institute's (2010) research priorities for the period from 2010 to 2012, where two among eight research priority topics outlined the importance of changes in MCs and the challenge of managing brands in the new, transformed marketplace. Furthermore, the Marketing Science Institute (2014) also emphasises that the priorities from 2014 to 2016 are connected with our research topic.
1) The first priority from 2014 to 2016 is connected with measuring and communicating the value of marketing activities and investments and questions what measures should be used to evaluate short-run customer response and long-term brand-building effects.
2) The second priority is connected with leveraging digital/social/mobile technology where one of the emphasised issues is how marketers should use mobile and social media marketing to communicate with consumers and whether these activities should be factored into customer relationship management and brand building.

The purpose of the proposed dissertation is to deepen the existing knowledge about brand building, especially focused on CBBE and the impact of both new and traditional MC tools on CBBE. The intent is to develop a conceptual framework, which will connect new MC tools and traditional advertising with CBBE elements. The purpose is to provide answers regarding whether brand identity management and brand equity measurement should adapt to the new MC environment, where relationships play a vital role. The developed conceptual framework will help both practitioners and academics gain new knowledge about brand equity formation in the new MC environment.

So as to provide clear guidelines on how to manage brands and new MCs, we will study the impact of new MC tools on CBBE in diverse countries (in countries with low, medium and high use and accessibility to ICT) and diverse brand types. At least two brand types will be included in the research as so to formulate a reliable measurement instrument.

With the research results, we want to demonstrate that newly emerged MC tools play an important role in CBBE building, which is our main research hypothesis. We want to provide evidence for both academics and practitioners of whether upgrading recent branding theory and practice should be considered.

Theory and the research methodology

In the theoretical part, we present in depth the literature review of two broad topics of branding and MCs. In both chapters, we present widely accepted findings from the two research streams and current changes in this topics due to developments of ICT.

In the chapter dedicated to branding, the modern approach to branding is presented. Current topics that have emerged in branding recently, like consumer engagement, consumer co-creation, the importance of brand experiences and brand relationships, are stressed out. Based on these new topics, we postulate new theories that should be considered, such as the new brand definition, new brand identity model and new CBBE model which are the outcomes of this doctoral dissertation.

In the subsequent chapter dedicated to MC and its impact on brands, we present the distinction among the traditional and new MC mix and new MC tools which emerged due to changes in ICT. Among the new MC tools, the emphasis is centred especially on word-of-mouth marketing. The information regarding measurement of perceptions of MC tools will be presented and later serve as a starting point for the preparation of measurement instruments.

We proceed to qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. For the qualitative research, two methods are used, each devoted to one target group. With the purpose of examining the recent practice in branding and the use of MCs in practice, we focus first on brand experts. In-depth interviews are used to gain new insights into the topic. On the other hand, we also target consumers since our aim is to research their opinions and experiences with brands and new MC tools. Focus groups are employed instead of in-depth interviews to encourage consumers to interact with each other and discuss their similar or diverse views regarding the topics.

Next, we proceed to quantitative research. An online panel in three target countries, Great Britain, Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina, is used for the purposes of our study. We invite respondents older than 18 years to participate in our research. They present potential target consumers of the brands involved in the study. We receive 976 questionnaires from the three countries (341 from Great Britain, 321 from Slovenia and 314 from Bosnia and Herzegovina) were received. Age and gender distribution of all three samples reflect the population characteristics of the three countries. The sample is also balanced by brands, achieving an equal number in age groups and gender receiving the same distribution of brands.

Then, statistical analyses are conducted. From simpler statistical analyses such as univariate and bivariate statistical methods, we proceed to more complicated methods such as exploratory factor analyses and structural equation modelling. With the use of structural equations, a traditional CBBE model is compared to the proposed new CBBE model which includes among the traditional constructs the newly proposed construct of brand relationship. Further on, we proceed to our main model, the impact of selected MC tools on traditional and new CBBE. We expect that new MC tools will enhance brand relationship more than traditional MC tools.

Potential contribution of the dissertation

From the theoretical point of view, contributions of the doctoral dissertation can be divided into four parts: contributions to branding theory, contributions to brand identity theory, contributions to brand equity theory and contributions regarding the impact of new MC tools on CBBE elements. First, the in-depth literature review of all presented parts can be seen as an important contribution of the dissertation. Second, the new theories that upgrade the existing theories will be developed for all exposed parts. Third, the new conceptual framework for measuring brand equity will be presented to fill the gap in the existing brand equity literature. Moreover, the role of new MC tools versus the most important traditional MC tools in the brand equity building will be presented in a new conceptual framework.

The dissertation also makes several methodological contributions. First, we describe the preparation of a measurement instrument for both the new CBBE model and the impact of selected MC tools on the CBBE model. While the qualitative research methodology will give us a in-depth insight into the topics under investigation, findings from the quantitative research will provide empirical evidence for verifying the proposed CBBE model and the model that includes the impact of selected MC tools. Furthermore, a measurement instrument which can be equally applied to measuring brand equity in diverse countries will be developed.

This doctoral dissertation will also contribute to both practitioners and academics. First, the theoretical contribution will help brand owners and academics determine the most appropriate ways to develop and manage brand identities. Second, the theory and research results will help both academics and practitioners decide which CBBE measure is best for application to brands. We will provide a framework for brand equity measurement which can be applied in diverse markets and is therefore appropriate for measuring brands in a global marketplace. Moreover, the results from our research will help practitioners decide which MC tools are the most efficient for enhancing diverse CBBE elements. Finally, our research results will help practitioners efficiently use diverse MC tools to reach diverse marketing goals.

Structure of the dissertation

This doctoral dissertation consists of seven chapters. The introductory part, which is included in the first chapter, is followed by two theoretical chapters in which we present the theory of branding and MCs.

In Chapter 2, titled The modern approach to branding, recent branding theories are presented. This chapter is devoted to four main themes: brand characteristics and definitions, relationships with different brand types and a two-dimensional approach to branding, divided into brand identity and brand equity theories. Recent research streams are presented in each subchapter and new theories are proposed regarding each main theme.

Chapter 3 is titled Impact of MCs on brand equity building. The main distinction is made among brand managers' view and consumers' view of MCs. Further on, recent findings about the meaning and impact of new communication tools in brand equity formation are presented. In addition subchapters related to brand managers' view on MCs, we present the traditional and new MC mix. Furthermore, consumers' view of MCs is presented, where the main part is devoted to the consumer stimuli response model. In additional subchapters customers' perceptions of selected MC tools are studied.

Chapter 4, Research design, is devoted to the research structure and qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. In relation to qualitative research, in-depth interviews and focus group methodologies are presented. In chapters related to the quantitative research methodology, a conceptual model, hypotheses development, the study instrument, the data collection process, and methods used for data analysis are presented.

Chapter 5 is the main chapter of the dissertation and includes analysis and results of the empirical research. Information gained from in-depth interviews with brand managers and results from focus groups are presented. The next part of the chapter is devoted to results of a quantitative study conducted in three European countries; Great Britain, Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. We start with socio-demographic characteristics of respondents from each included country and their use of the internet and mobile phones as well as their acquaintance with mobile advertising tools. Using univariate and bivariate statistical methods, further analyses focus on particular brands, respondents' involvement in product or service category, previous brand usage and previous brand experiences. Further constructs from the CBBE model and chosen MC tools are examined. Next, the factor structure of the proposed constructs is tested via exploratory factor analysis. Hypotheses are tested by using structural equation modelling. Four models are tested: traditional CBBE model, new CBBE model, the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model and the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model.

In Chapter 6, major findings are highlighted and discussed. In Chapter 7 we present our conclusions. Moreover, both theoretical and methodological contributions are presented. Further on, implications for brand owners, limitations and further research opportunities are outlined.

2 THE MODERN APPROACH TO BRANDING

Branding appeared centuries ago. Its roots date back to Greek and Roman times, when shop keepers used symbols to indicate the type of goods they sold to differentiate them from other suppliers. Already at that time, the brand logo had been introduced (de Chernatony & McDonald, 1996; Keller, 1998). From the Middle Ages to the end of the nineteenth century, branding developed in such a way that brand symbols were used to distinguish products among different suppliers as the guarantee of an original (de Chernatony & McDonald, 1996, p. 23). This understanding of brands is embodied in the general brand definition of the American Marketing Association, which defines brand as a name, term, design, symbol or any other attribute, whose aim is **to distinguish** goods or services of one company from another (American Marketing Association, n.d.).

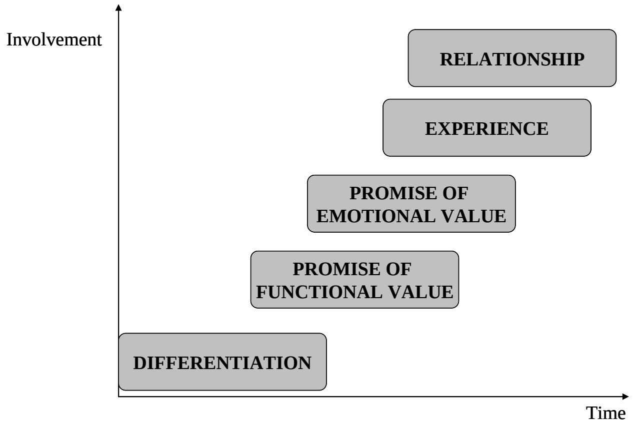
This brand definition is too narrow today, when both practitioners and academics see brands not exclusively as a means for a company's product or service differentiation. De Chernatony and McDonald (2001, p. 20) put forth brand classification, which represents a further step in defining brands, describing a brand as a product, service, person or place in which consumers perceive a unique added value that matches their needs more closely than competitive brands. Their definition stresses that anything can be a brand as long as consumers perceive in it added value, which embodies the beliefs of both practitioners and academics. According to academics, brands' value can be functional (Farguhar, 1990), rational (Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004) or tangible (Kotler & Keller, 2006) and it is communicated when relating to the performance of products or services (Kotler & Keller, 2006; Kotler, Keller, Brady, Goodman & Hansen, 2009). In contrast brands are seen as assets that enhance value beyond that (Farguhar, 1990; Kotler & Keller, 2006). From the modern branding perspective, brands present also a promise of intangible, symbolic and emotional value (Lassar, Mittal & Sharma, 1995; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004) related to what the brand stands for.

Both **functional** and **emotional values** enable stakeholders to recognise a promised brand **experience** (Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004). All these brand characteristics are embodied in de Chernatony's (2010, p. 17) definition stating that "*brand is a cluster of functional and emotional values that enables a promise to be made about a unique and welcomed experience".* In modern branding brand promises and values are communicated indirectly; mainly emphasised in stories about brands (Scott, 1994; Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott, 2002; Pride, 2002; Scolari 2008; Konečnik Ruzzier, Lapajne, Drapal, & de Chernatony, 2009; Barker & Gower, 2010).

Brand experiences arise when consumers get in touch with a brand, which occurs in diverse settings. Schmitt (1999) proposes five types of brand experiences: senses, feelings, thinking, acts and relations. Brand experience is therefore seen as both an internal consumer response, such as sensations, feelings and cognitions, and a behavioural response, which emerges due to consumer contact with brand-related stimuli (Brakus, Schmidt & Zarantonello, 2009, pp. 52-53). Brand experiences vary in strength, intensity and valence over time and affect consumer satisfaction and loyalty (Oliver, 1997; Brakus et al., 2009).

Another step concerning brand characterisation was taken in 1992 when Blackston (1992) proposed that the main focus of academics should be **brand relationship** building. In 1998, Fournier (1998) published her conceptualisation of brand relationship building blocks, which became a basis for many future brand relationship studies. In 1998, Duncan and Moriarty (1998) proposed that what helps build brand relationships are interactive MCs. Another step further in the brand relationship theory emerged with the so-called electronic revolution, when branding in digital environments appeared and positioned brands even more closely to consumers. Consequently, brands in the digital world are no longer perceived as social objects. Instead, they are socially constructed with consumer participation (Merrilees & Fry, 2002). Muniz and O'Guinn (2001, p. 427) claim that brand relationship building evolves within the brand communities. Consumers in the digital world experience brands on a different level. They become the **co-creators** of the brand value and experience (Ind & Riondino, 2001; de Chernatony & Christodoulides, 2004; da Silva & Alwi, 2008). Therefore, the primairy emphasis in branding is in building brand relationships (Fournier, 1998; Srivastava, Shervani & Fahey, 1998; Wadia, 2001; Ind & Riondino, 2001; Rubinstein, 2002; de Chernatony & Christodoulides, 2004, Keller, 2001, 2009, 2010; Kim & Ko, 2012; Jalilvand & Saimei, 2012).

Figure 1. The Evolution of Brand Definitions in Time



The evolution of brand definitions is presented in Figure 1. From the figure it is evident that consumers have become more and more involved with brands, which means that brands have started to treat their consumers not only as external stakeholders, but also as their intimate friends and co-creators of brand experiences. Recently, academics (Fournier, 1998; Srivastava et al., 1998; Wadia, 2001; Ind & Riondino, 2001; Rubinstein, 2002; de Chernatony & Christodoulides, 2004) have emphasised that brands have relationships with consumers. The closest attempt to represent this evolution of brand definition was made by Dall'Olmo Riley and de Chernatony (2000, p. 140), who stated that the concept of brand has developed from a name given to differentiate products to that of a relationship based on trust.

The above conditions call for a new brand definition which incorporates the changed involvement of consumers in the brand development process. To our knowledge, no published brand definitions incorporate the above described shift in branding theory, despite many academics (Blackston, 1992; Fournier, 1998; Srivastava et al, 1998; Dall'Olmo Riley & de Chernatony, 2000; Wadia, 2001; Ind & Riondino, 2001; Rubinstein, 2002; Merrilees & Fry, 2002; de Chernatony & Christodoulides, 2004) having already emphasised the importance of building strong brand relationships. Therefore, we propose a new brand definition, which will be taken into account when referring to brands in the dissertation:
"*Brand is a product or other entity which is co-created by consumers and with which consumers build unique and long-lasting brand-consumer relationships that fulfil their needs and wants better than competitive brands".*

The outlined brand definition stresses that the key to building a successful brand in today's environment is to create unique and long-lasting brand relationships and involve consumers in the creation of brand experiences.

2.1 Brand characteristics and definitions

Academics have examined different brand types; among them are **product** brands (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Lassar et al., 1995), **service** brands (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985; Turley & Moore, 1995; Mackay, 2001; de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999), **corporate** brands (Abratt, 1989; Balmer, 1995, 2001; Ind, 1997; de Chernatony, 2002; Dowling, 2002; Kavaritz; 2005), **place** brands (Cai, 2002; Olins, 2002; Pride, 2002; Morgan et al., 2002; Hankinson, 2007; Konečnik Ruzzier & Ruzzier, 2009), **retailer** brands (Bergen, Dutta & Shungan, 1996; Aliawadi & Keller, 2004; Rios & Riquelme, 2008) and even **people** as brands (Keller, 1998; Reeves, de Chernatony & Carrigan, 2006; Keller, Apéria & Georgson, 2008; de Chernatony 2010). Different brand types have their own characteristics; nevertheless, core branding principles remain the same across all brand types (Turley & Moore, 1995; Ind, 1997; de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999; Dowling, 2002; Cai, 2002; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007).

Product is the fundamental market commodity and according to Kotler (1998, p. 432), is defined as: *"anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use or consumption that may satisfy a need or want. Thus, a product may be a physical good, service, retail store, person, organization, place or idea"*. We do not adopt this broad product definition to avoid misunderstanding of diverse brand types. Therefore, we will refer to products when referring to physical goods and will name the exact brand type, such as service brand when referring to other brand types. Additionally, when we refer to all types of commodities offered in the market, we will use the term "product or other entity", which has been used by several researchers (de Chernatony & dall'Olmo Riley, 1998). The most commonly studied brand types (product, service, corporate and place brands), will be presented.

When talking about **products as physical goods**, marketers distinguish between non-durable or fast-moving consumer goods (FCMGs) and durable goods (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 508). The two types of goods differ in consumer product involvement, frequency of purchase, durability, price and purchased volumes. The differences between the two product types are presented in Table 1. The distinguishing characteristics of the two types of products will serve us later in choosing from among different product brands for our research.

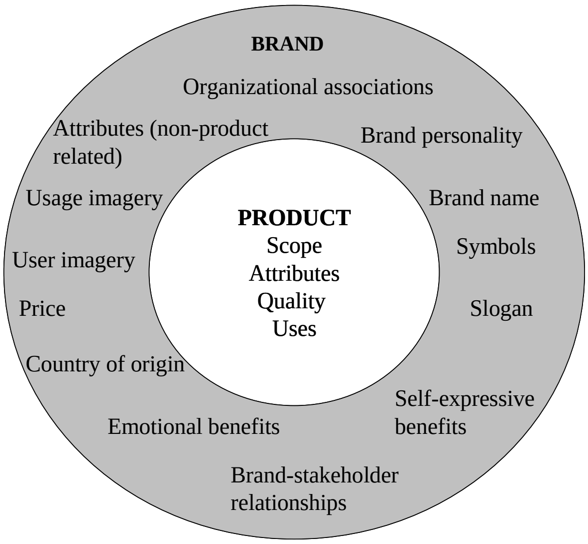
Table 1. Characteristics of Durable and Non-Durable Goods

Characteristics	**Non- durable goods**	**Durable goods**
Product involvement	Low	High
Frequency of purchase	High	Low
Durability	From one day to one year	More than one year
Price	Low	Medium or high
Volumes	High	Low
Examples	Grocery items, newspapers etc.	Clothing, furniture, cars etc.

Source: Adapted from P. Kotler et al., *Marketing Management*, 2009, p. 508.

Product brands are the most essential type of brand, since all branding principles refer primarily to products (Vazifehdust & Norouzi, 2011). In the branding literature, product brands are understood more broadly than products alone (Aaker, 2010, p. 72). Several authors present the views of branding experts and academics regarding product brands (Aaker, 2010; Keller, 1993; Aaker & Joachinsthaler, 2000). They stress that product characteristics include scope, attributes, quality and uses. On the other hand, product brand characteristics include all product and other characteristics, such as country of origin, brand personality, symbols, slogans and brand-stakeholder relationships. Product brand characteristics are shown in Figure 2. All presented features are relevant not only to product brands but also to other brand types. Furthermore, these features can also be seen as the building blocks of the broader concept of brand identity, which will be presented in depth in Chapter 2.3.

Figure 2. Product versus Product Brand



Source: Adapted from D. A. Aaker, *Building Strong Brands*, 2010, p. 74; K. L. Keller, *Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity*, 1993, pp. 1-22; D. A. Aaker and E. Joachimsthaler, *Brand Leadership*, 2000, p. 52.

In service-dominant economies, where services account for at least three quarters of gross domestic product (GDP), a need to conceptualise **service brands** has emerged (Balmer, 1995; Turley & Moore, 1995; Mackay, 2001; de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999; Klaus & Maklan, 2007). Today, when local businesses have left their brick-and-mortar stores or broadened their business to the digital environment, the majority of online businesses has employed service branding principles and the concept of **online brands** has emerged in the literature (Deans, Gray, Ibbostsm, Osborne & Knichtbridge, 2003; Dou & Krishnamurthy, 2007; Rios & Riquelme, 2008). Nevertheless, academics believe that the features of online brands remain the same as those of service brands or corporate brands and that what has changed online is only brand attachment (Christodoulides et al., 2004; Christodoulides, de Chernatony, Furrer, Shiu & Ambiola, 2006).

A vast number of academics has pointed out that **services** differ from physical goods via four main characteristics: intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability of production and consumption, and perishability since they perish at the same moment they are consumed (Rathmell, 1966; Grönroos, 1978; Anderson, Fornell & Rust, 1997; de Chernatony & Segal-Horn; 2001). Although the majority does not provide any empirical evidence to support this distinction between products and services, this has belief prevailed in the literature (Edget & Parkinson, 1993; Moeller, 2010) and hence special service characteristics were examined further.

Intangibility is seen as the most fundamental concept in services marketing theory and one of the leading arguments for why services should be branded differently than physical goods (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985; de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999; de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001). Services cannot be touched or felt like physical goods and therefore one of the leading managerial challenges in services marketing is how to manage services to overcome the lack of physical evidence (Edgett & Parkingson, 1993; Klaus & Makalan, 2007).

Heterogeneity of quality represents one of the highest concerns in service management (Parasuraman et al., 1985). Every consumption of a service is different due to the varied interactions between consumers and employees. Effective quality control is therefore the most essential tool to assure the consistent delivery of service among all employees (de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001; Klaus & Makalan, 2007).

Inseparability of production and consumption tells us that a customer must be present during the production of services. Services are different from physical goods because services are first sold and later simultaneously produced and consumed (Parasuraman et al., 1985). The main opportunity in services is therefore to build relationships with consumers in a way that consumers become co-creators of service value (de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001; Klaus & Makalan, 2007).

Perishability means that services cannot be stocked and they must be consumed when they are produced. Due to this highlighted characteristic, service providers are highly affected by demand changes (Parasuraman et al., 1985).

With the emergence of new technologies the inseparability of production and consumption and perishability can be overcome by technologically based tools, like web-based lectures for distance learning. Therefore, there already exist academics claiming a paradigm shift in the service marketing literature (Moeller, 2010).

Researchers furthermore argue that service brands differ from product brands not only because of their distinguishing characteristics but also because of their organisation's culture and employees' actions and attitudes (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999; de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2003). Researchers (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999) therefore have claimed that the company represents the core of the service brand. Service brands are consequently more difficult to manage than product brands.

The implementation of branding principles in a service context requires significant attention (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999; Klaus & Maklan, 2007; Kimpakorn & Tocquer, 2010). Major challenges for service brands include properly answering questions regarding how to overcome the problems with intangibility and how to lower the perceived risk levels (Mattila, 2000; Dou & Krishnamurthy, 2007). In the digital environment, answers for these questions become even more important because traditional service quality cues (like facilities, employees and equipment) are unobservable online (Dou & Krishnamurthy, 2007).

Corporate brands have also garnered considerable attention among academics (Ind, 1997; Balmer, 1995; de Chernatony, 1999; Ind & Riondino, 2001). Corporate brand definitions stress that the corporate brand is built around values that symbolise an organisation and these corporate values represent the main distinction among product and corporate brands (Ind, 1997; de Chernatony, 1999; Balmer & Grey, 2003; de Chernatony & McDonald, 2003). Ind (1997, p. 3) outlines three distinct characteristics of corporate brands: **intangibility**, **complexity** and **responsibility**. Complexity means that corporate brands need to manage a complex organisation with a vast number of products and services, many employees and diverse divisions, local society and media and therefore constitute very complex entities. Moreover, corporations do not exist independently of society and therefore corporate brands must act responsibly.

Corporate brands also differ from product and service brands in the number of involved stakeholders, since numerous internal and external stakeholders are involved with corporations, which makes their management extremely complex (Melewar & Jenkins, 2002; Knox & Bickerton, 2003; de Chernatony, 2010). One of the most important aims of corporate branding is to ensure a consistent image and steady interactions among all stakeholder groups (de Chernatony, 2010, p. 37). The important role of internal stakeholders, mainly employees, is emphasised in corporate branding literature, where corporate brands are understood as equivalent to service brands (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999; de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001). Employees in corporate branding literature are recognised as brands' "ambassadors" who make a brand unique (Harris & de Chernatony, 2001).

Knox and Bickerton (2003, p. 6) suggest that most companies, especially on the web, share the same corporate and product or service brand name. Davies and Chun (2002, p. 144) distinguish among three types of corporate brands: corporate brands that rely heavily on product branding (like P&G), corporate brands that use their corporate names to label products (like Nestlé) and corporate brands that use the same corporate names (like Hilton). From the listed facts, we can see that the line between corporate versus service and even corporate versus product brands can be blurred in many cases.

Place or **destination brands** concern branding of geographic units such as continents, countries, cities, regions and even smaller geographic entities (Buhalis, 2000; Cai, 2002). An interest in studying and analysing place brands has grown in recent years in the scientific literature (Cai, 2002; Konecnik, 2004; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott, 2002, 2003; Pike, 2005). Several academics stress parallel characteristics of place and corporate brands (Kavaratzis, 2005; Hankinson, 2007).

Nevertheless, place brands are even more complex due to the huge volume of involved stakeholders (Buhalis, 2000; Konečnik & Go, 2008; Morgan et al., 2002, 2003; Pike, 2005). Buhalis (2000, p. 99) points out that a dynamic relationship among stakeholder groups is needed and only cooperation among all stakeholders enables long-term success and the sustainable development of the tourism destination. How to include all influential stakeholders in the process of destination brand development and furthermore in the process of brand implementation is among the biggest challenges in destination branding (Konecnik Ruzzier & Petek, 2012).

Place brands consist of unique combinations of products and services that are managed by both private and public organisations and destination marketers have less control in place brand relationships and experiences than marketers of other brand types (Hankinson, 2009, p. 98). Several constraints are associated with place branding, including the inherited name and history of a place, dependence on micro-environmental factors (like politics, currency fluctuations and weather conditions) and geographic limitations (Cai, 2002; Balakrishnan, 2009). Furthermore, place brands are mostly service dependent, which makes the process of their management even more complex (Pike, 2005; Balakrishnan, 2009). Therefore, due to their outlined characteristics, place brands are regarded as the most complex brand type.

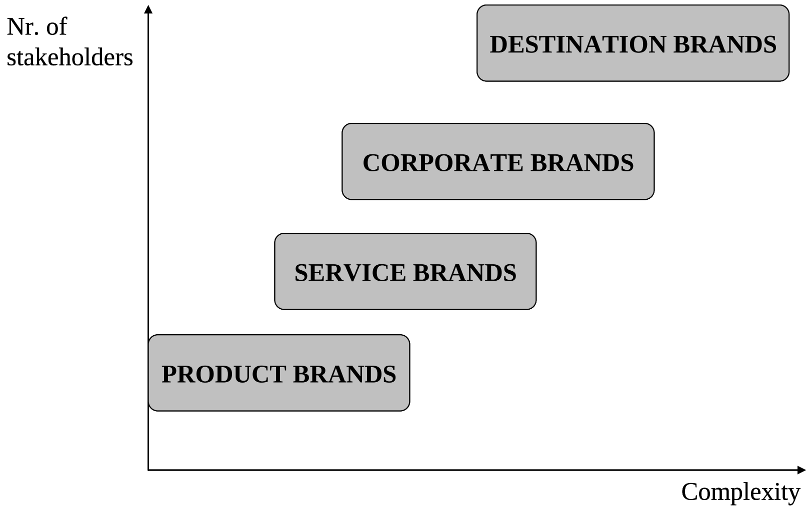
2.2 Relationship between different brand types

Different brand types demand diverse managerial skills due to their dissimilar characteristics. The variation in characteristics of diverse brand types has already been presented, but we will approach brand management from the stakeholder theory perspective, a management theory proposed by Freeman (1984). Freeman (1984, p. 46) defines stakeholders as *"any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives"*. After Freeman's (1984, p. 25) stakeholder conceptualisation, a number of diverse stakeholder models emerged in scientific management theory (Freeman, 1994; Phillips, Freeman & Wicks, 2003; Fassin, 2009) and even today there is little consensus on the most appropriate definition of stakeholder groups (Podnar & Jančič, 2006; Maessen, Van Seters & Van Rijckevorsel, 2007; Fassin, 2009). Nevertheless, Freemann's refined stakeholder model from 2003 is one of the most frequently cited in the literature (Fassin, 2009). In his refined stakeholder model, Freeman (2003) divides stakeholders into two groups. Financiers (also investors or shareholders), suppliers, employees, communities and customers are regarded as internal stakeholders. Governments, environmentalists, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), critics, media and others are regarded as external stakeholders (Fassin, 2009).

In marketing theory, where the emphasis has primarily been centred on customers and their needs and wants, the theory of several influential stakeholder groups presents a shift in marketing thinking (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Currently, academics stress that brands cannot be successful by focusing solely on one stakeholder group (de Chernatony, McDonald & Wallace, 2010; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013). The recent view in branding theory divides stakeholders into two groups; to internal and external (de Chernatony & Harris, 2000; Konecnik & Go, 2008; de Chernatony, 2010).

Product brands include the lowest number of stakeholders and also the importance of some internal stakeholders, especially employees, is also lower for product brands than the to other presented brand types. The service and corporate branding literature emphasises internal stakeholders, mainly employees. Nevertheless, corporate brands are differentiated from service brands in the number of stakeholders and also in the importance of some external stakeholders, like local society, government and environmentalists, which makes their management more complex (Balmer & Soenen, 1999; de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999; de Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001). Far more multifaceted is the destination brand, which has a vast number of internal and external stakeholders and is therefore substantially more complex to manage than other brand types (Buhalis, 2000; Hankinson, 2009; Pike, 2005; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013). However, the complexity of destination brands varies: for example country brands are more complex, than city brands (Hankinson, 2009). The ratio among complexity and number of stakeholders for chosen brand types is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Complexity and Number of Stakeholders for Different Brand Types

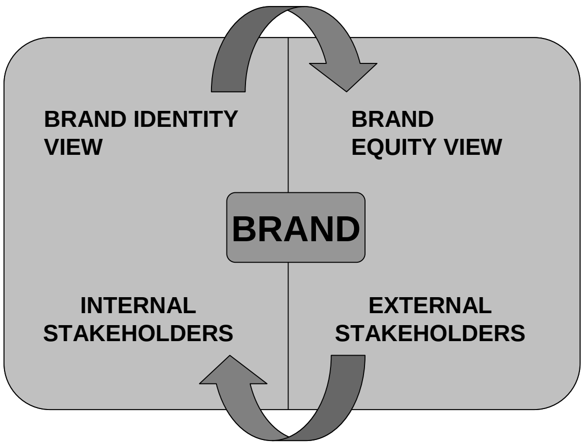


Brand managers and academics should consider that different brand types require diverse management skills for successful management. As shown in Figure 3, destination brands stand out due to their high complexity and the vast number of influential stakeholders and therefore are the brands that require the highest amount of brand management knowledge to build unique and long-lasting relationships among all relevant stakeholder groups. The highlighted characteristics of diverse brand types will serve us afterwards when choosing the exact brand types for our research.

2.3 A two-dimensional approach to branding

As stated, the emphasis on diverse stakeholders is also apparent in the branding literature (Maignan, Ferell & Ferell, 2005; Konecnik & Go, 2008; Konecnik Ruzzier & Ruzzier, 2009; de Chernatony, 2010). Academics study brands mainly from the internal and external stakeholder perspective (de Chernatony & Harris, 2000; Konecnik & Go, 2008; Konecnik Ruzzier & Ruzzier, 2009; de Chernatony, 2010). On this basis, a two-dimensional approach to branding has become evident in the branding literature (Konecnik Ruzzier & Ruzzier, 2009; de Chernatony, 2010) where, on the one hand, the emphasis is centred on internal stakeholders and brand identity development and, on the other hand, it is focused on external stakeholders and brand equity development (Konecnik Ruzzier & Ruzzier, 2009; de Chernatony, 2010). Our belief is that the two approaches should be connected to build unique and long lasting relationships between a brand and its stakeholders. The described two-dimensional thinking in branding literature is presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4. A Two-Dimensional Approach to Branding



Source: Adapted from M. Konecnik Ruzzier and M. Ruzzier, *A Two-Dimensional Approach to Branding: Integrating Identity and Equity*, 2009; L. de Chernatony, *From Brand Vision to Brand Evaluation*, 2010.

From the **internal stakeholder point of view**, researchers' aim is to define the process of **brand identity** building (Balmer & Stotvig, 1997; Ind, 1997; Kapferer, 1997; de Chernatony, 1999; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000). Brand identity represents what the company wants the brand to stand for and is the driver of all brand-building efforts (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000, pp. 40-43). The topic has attracted considerable attention among academics due to its exceptional importance in the brand-building process (Aaker, 1996a; Balmer & Stotvig, 1997; Ind, 1997; Kapferer, 1997; de Chernatony, 1999; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Keller, 2008) and therefore several **brand identity models** have been developed in the literature (Ind, 1997; Balmer & Stovig, 1997; Kapferer, 1997; de Chernatony, 1999, 2010; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Burmann & Zeplin, 2004). Most have proposed to build product, service and corporate brand identities; nevertheless, recently academics have also presented models for developing destination brand identity (Cai, 2002; Balakrishnan, 2009; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013).

The aim of brand identity studies is to define steps to build **strong brands**, since a unique brand identity and its successful management are the foundations of a strong brand position in the marketplace, which is a key brand management priority (Aaker, 1991, 1996a; Kapferer, 2005; Keller, 2009). Strong brands help companies succeed on three levels: organisational, product and market. On the organisational level, they help organisations generate higher revenues in the long term (Keller, 2003; Simmons, Thomas & Truong, 2010), increase organisations' market value (Kohli & Thakor, 1997; Kapferer, 1997; Kay, 2006) and facilitate growth and expansion into other product categories (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). On the product level, strong brands bring higher price premiums (Aaker, 1996a; Simmons et al., 2010), increase MC effectiveness (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Keller, 2009), lower price elasticity and help a company gain wider product distribution (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Strong brands also help companies establish their identity in a marketplace (Aaker, 1996a), build strong relationships with consumers (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Keller, 2003; Rios & Riquelme, 2008; Simmons et al., 2010) and consequently create high brand equity (Aaker, 1991, 1996a; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Rios & Riquelme, 2008).

Studies from the **external stakeholder point of view** have focused mainly on brand perceptions. Among widely studied brand perceptions are brand equity studies. Academics studying brand equity have focused on financial (Barwise, Higson, Likierman & Marsh, 1989; Wentz, 1989; Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Shankar, Azar, & Fuller, 2008) and strategic perspectives (Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Blackston, 1992; Keller, 1993, 1998, 2001, 2008, 2010; Faircloth, Capella, & Alford, 2001; Yoo & Donthu, 2001, 2002; Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2005). Brand equity studies emphasise a brand's value on the market, from both the investor and consumer points of view (Keller, 1993; Keller & Lehmann, 2006), today defined as **firm-based brand equity** and **customer-based brand equity (CBBE)** (Capon, Hulbert, & Pitt, 2001; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004, 2010). Firm-based brand equity is devoted to estimating brand value for accounting, merger, purchase and divestiture purposes (Keller, 1993, p. 1). In contrast, CBBE is devoted to improving marketing productivity and increasing the efficiency of marketing expenses through the knowledge created in consumers' minds. Nevertheless, academics warn that financial motivations have a low added value if managers do not have knowledge of strategic brand building (Keller, 1993, p. 2).

Even though both views have been widely studied in the past with several theoretical models developed both from the brand identity (Aaker, 1996a; Ind, 1997; Balmer & Stotvig, 1997; Kapferer, 1997; de Chernatony, 1999; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Keller, 2008) and brand equity perspectives (Aaker, 1991, 1996a; Keller, 1993; Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Park & Srinivasan, 1994; Rangaswamy, Burke, & Oliva, 1993; Swait et al., 1993), no widely acknowledged framework is available in the literature. Both views will be examined in this dissertation, although the main part will focus on the brand equity perspective, specifically on CBBE, since consumers' brand perceptions are acknowledged to be of the greatest importance for the brand's success (Kimani & Wright, 1989; Kirmani, 1990; Biel, 1992; Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Yoo et al., 2000; Chattopadhyay, Shivani, & Krishnan, 2009). Nevertheless, academics emphasise that brand identity presents only a starting point for brand building (Aaker, 1996a; Kapferer, 1997; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Konecnik & Go, 2008; de Chernatony, 2010).

2.3.1 Brand identity view

Having a strong brand is every organisation's wish. However, brands are made, not born. The process of their construction is complex and brand managers require knowledge of how to build them. Therefore, academics studying brand identity are trying to provide "the recipe" for how to develop the basis for strong brand building.

Like the initial brand definitions, the earliest brand identity classifications also equate brand identity with **visual identity** (Balmer, 1995; van Riel & Balmer, 1997). Elements of visual brand identity include name, logo, symbol, slogan, colour, typography, packaging and, recently also website domain name (Melewar & Saunders, 1998; Keller et al., 2008; de Chernatony, 2010). Even though visual identity has considerable importance in brand building, it represents only one component among all other elements that form brand identity (van Riel & Balmer, 1997; de Chernatony, 2010). The brand iceberg represents the recent view of brand identity theory, separating brand identity into its visible and invisible parts, with the invisible part gaining in importance (Davidson, 1997; de Chernatony, 2010). Kapferer (1997, p. 91) emphasises that when defining brands' identity practitioners need to answer a simple question: "Who are we?" The answer to this question is not simple and this is the reason for the importance of brand identity studies in the scientific branding literature.

Even though academics have widely recognised brand identity as a core concept in the brand development process and despite the concept having attracted a lot of interest among practitioners and academics, there is no widely acknowledged brand identity definition (Balmer, 2001; Melewar & Jenkis, 2002; Blamer & Grey, 2003; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006; de Chernatony, 2010). One of the most frequently cited brand identity definitions originates in Aaker (1996a, p. 68), who states that "*brand identity is a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain. These associations represent what the brand stands for and imply a promise to customers from the organization members*". Moreover, a lot of attention has been devoted to the definition of a corporate brand identity, which has been studied since the 1990s as a strategic brand management tool (Bendixen & Abratt, 2007). One of the first corporate brand identity definitions was proposed by Olins (1995, p. 3), who equated corporate identity with the managerial task of presenting the organisation through experiences and perceptions to all stakeholders. Van Riel and Balmer (1997, p. 355) furthermore define this identity as the ethos, aims and values that present a characteristics differentiating the brand from its competitors.

A significant volume of brand identity frameworks has been developed in the scientific literature, where the emphasis has centred on two basic views: academics on one side focused on developing brand identity models (van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Kapferer, 1997; Balmer & Soenen, 1999; de Chernatony, 1999, 2010; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013), and on the other side describing the brand identity management process (van Riel, 1995; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013). Only a few authors have comprehensively introduced both brand identity models and brand identity management processes (van Riel, 1995; Aaker, 1996a; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Konecnik & Go, 2008; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013). The way brands are developed and managed is the basis for brand building; this also has an impact on how stakeholders view and evaluate brands. Consequently, several brand identity management processes will be reviewed in this chapter. As such, the primary aim of this chapter is to determine what the most appropriate process to build strong brands is in the environment, where the main focus in branding is brand relationship building.

The review of proposed brand identity management processes is presented Table 2. Brand identity management processes were proposed for managing diverse brand types. Aaker and Joachimsthaler's (2000) brand identity planning model provides a good basis for updates in the dissertation, since it includes three essential steps, strategic brand analysis, brand identity system and also its implementation. Nevertheless, the model will be refined and therefore our proposal of the renewed brand identity management process will be presented at the end of the chapter. We will first present steps in the brand identity management process as proposed by Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000), starting with strategic brand analysis, defining the brand identity model and presenting brand identity implementation process.

Table 2. Brand Identity Management Processes

Author(s) (Year)	**Brand identity management process**	**Model's name**	**Brand type**
van Riel (1995); van Riel & Balmer (1997)	1. Problem analysis 2. Current positioning (identity mix, image research and competitor analysis) 3. Gap analysis (maintaining or adjusting current positioning) 4. Determination of consequences for corporate identity mix	Corporate identity programme	C

(table continues)

(continued)

	5. Implementation of corporate identity programme 6. Evaluation		
Aaker (1996a)	1. Strategic brand analysis (customer, competitor and self-analysis) 2. Brand identity system (brand identity, value proposition, credibility and relationship) 3. Brand identity implementation system (brand position, execution and tracking)	Brand identity planning model	P, S, C, D
Markwick & Fill (1995)	1. Brand personality definition 2. Self-analysis and management communications 3. Brand identity definition 4. Marketing communications 5. Image research 6. Strategic management	Corporate identity management process	C
Aaker & Joachimsthaler (2000)	1. Strategic brand analysis (customer, competitor and self-analysis) 2. Brand identity system (brand identity, value proposition, credibility and relationship) 3. Brand identity implementation system (brand identity elaboration, brand position, brand-building programs and tracking)	Brand identity planning model	P, S, C, D
Konecnik & Go (2008)	1. Strategic brand analysis (tourist, competitor and self-analysis) 2. Brand identity system 3. Brand identity implementation system (brand identity elaboration, brand position, marketing strategy)	Tourism destination brand identity framework	D
de Chernatony (2010)	1. Brand building process: brand vision, organizational culture, brand objectives, audit brandsphere, brand essence 2. Internal implementation 3. Brand resourcing 4. Brand evaluation	Process of building and sustaining brands	P, S, C
Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony (2013)	1. Secondary data review (previous brand building efforts, review of country branding practices) 2. Primary data collection (opinion leaders, key stakeholder groups) 3. Brand identity development	Place brand identity development	D

Note. P = product brands, S = service brands, C = corporate brands, D = destination brands.

Source: Own characterization based on cited sources.

2.3.1.1 Strategic brand analysis

As proposed by several academics (van Riel, 1995; Aaker, 1996; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Konecnik & Go, 2008, Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013), strategic brand analysis should include a review of all relevant data about a brand, its stakeholders and competitors. This step prepares brand managers to understand their brand, the competitive environment and the brand's key stakeholder groups (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000, p. 40).

Key **stakeholder analysis** should comprise primary data collection and quantitative or qualitative research that includes opinion leaders and key internal and external stakeholders (Marwick & Fill, 1995; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013). Both internal and external stakeholders should participate in brand identity building from the beginning (Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013). In this phase, segmentation and targeting should also be considered (Aaker, 1996a; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Konecnik & Go, 2008).

Competitor analysis should incorporate a review of good and bad branding practices and a review of the identities of competing brands (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013). Brand managers should become familiar with the advantages and disadvantages of competing brands, their brand image and their position in the marketplace (van Riel, 1995; Aaker, 1996; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000, Konecnik & Go, 2008).

Self-analysis should identify of the brand's strengths, weaknesses, strategies, values, position in the marketplace and ability to deliver its promises and build brand-stakeholder relationships (Aaker, 1996a; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Konecnik & Go, 2008).

2.3.1.2 Brand identity model

Brand identity models have been proposed for different brand types, with most of the brand identity studies focused on corporate brand identity development (van Riel, 1995; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Balmer & Soenen, 1999; Balmer, 2001; Melewar & Jenkins, 2002; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006). Furthermore, only a few studies have focused solely on product or service brand identities (Upshaw, 1995; Kapferer, 1997). Most recently, destination brand identity models have been introduced (Konecnik & Go, 2008; Balakrishnan, 2009; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013), with Konecnik Ruzzier and de Chernatony (2013) presenting the most comprehensive framework, since they stress the importance of all key stakeholders who define, live and implement the brand. With some minor adjustments, their framework can be used for developing brand identity of all brand types, not only country brands as proposed in their paper. A comprehensive review of brand identity models is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Brand Identity Models

Author(s) (Year)	**Brand identity elements**	**Model's name**	***Brand type***
Birkigt & Stadler (1986)	Personality, behaviour, communication, symbolism	Identity mix	C

(table continues)

(continued)

Melewar (1993)	Communications, design, culture (values, philosophy, mission, principles, country-of-origin, guidelines, history, founder, subculture), behaviour, structure, industry identity, strategy	Corporate identity	C
Upshaw (1995)	Positioning and personality (brand essence), brand name, marketing communication, promotion/merchandising, product/service performance, selling strategies, logo/graphic system	Total brand identity	P, S
van Riel (1995); van Riel & Balmer (1997)	Personality, behaviour, communication, symbolism	Corporate identity programme	C
Aaker (1996); Aaker & Joachimsthaler (2000)	Brand as product, organization, person and symbol, value and benefits, credibility and relationships	Brand identity system	P, S, C
Kapferer (1997)	Physique, personality, culture, customers' self-projection, customers' reflection, relationships	Brand identity prism	P
Ind (1997)	Mission, philosophy, values, culture	Strategic corporate identity	C
Blackett & Boad (1999)	Values, beliefs, associations, personality, vision, mission	Interbrand's Brand Blueprint	P, S, C
Vyse (1999) (in de Chernatony, 2010, p. 271)	Target, insight, competition, benefits, proposition, values, reasons to believe, essence, properties	Brand fingerprint	P, S, C
Balmer & Soenen (1999)	Soul (values, culture, images, employees affinities, history), mind (vision and philosophy, strategy, performance, architecture, ownership), voice (communication, symbolism, behaviour)	Corporate identity mix	C
de Chernatony (1999)	Vision, culture, relationships, positioning, personality, presentation	Brand identity model	C
Jones (2000) (in de Chernatony, 2010, p. 271)	Beliefs, capabilities, behaviours, environment	Brand identity triangle	S
Balmer (2001)	Strategy, structure, communication, culture	Identity mix	C
Melewar & Jenkins (2002)	Communication and visual identity, behaviour, corporate culture, market conditions	Corporate identity	C
Melewar & Karaosmanoglu (2006)	Structure, design, strategy (positioning and differentiation), culture (mission, vision, values), behaviour, communications, industry identity	Corporate identity	C
Konecnik & Go (2008)	Brand as product, organization, symbol and personality, culture	Brand identity framework	D
Balakrishnan, 2009	Vision, stakeholder management, customer targeting, positioning or differentiation, brand components, communication strategy	Branding strategy	D

(table continues)

(continued)

de Chernatony (2010)	Positioning, culture and vision, personality, presentation, relationships	Brand identity components	P, S, C
Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony (2013)	Benefits, mission, vision, values, distinguishing preferences, personality, core promise, core values, stakeholders	Destination brand identity model	D

Note. P = product brands, S = service brands, C = corporate brands, D = destination brands.

The literature review reveals that several academics have already included brand relationships in their brand identity models (Aaker, 1996a; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Kapferer, 1997; de Chernatony, 1999, 2010). Since there are many building blocks used to build brand identity, we believe that the most commonly used building blocks should constitute the brand identity. On the basis of the reviewed literature presented in Table 3, we propose a new brand identity model. This model includes the elements proposed in the majority of the published brand identity frameworks. The model is primarily built on Konecnik Ruzzier and de Chernatony's (2013) brand identity model, but with a few adjustments. Konecnik Ruzzier and de Chernatony's (2013) do not propose that brand relationships are the building blocks of their destination brand identity model. Instead, they consider stakeholders as part of the model. Consequently, the major adjustment in our proposed brand identity model is in the inclusion of brand relationships. This is based on the importance of diverse stakeholder-to-brand and stakeholder-to-stakeholder relationships. The proposed brand identity elements are as follows:

- **Values** (Melewar, 1993; Aaker, 1996a; Ind, 1997; Balmer & Soenen, 1999; Blackett & Boad, 1999; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013)
- **Vision** (Balmer & Soenen, 1999; Blackett & Boad, 1999; de Chernatony , 1999, 2010; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Balakrishnan, 2009; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013)
- **Mission** (Melewar, 1993; Ind, 1997; Blackett & Boad, 1999; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013)
- **Personality** (van Riel, 1995; Upshaw, 1995; Aaker, 1996a; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Kapferer, 1997; Blackett & Boad, 1999; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; de Chernatony, 1999; 2010; Konecnik & Go, 2008; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013)
- **Core competencies** (Upshaw, 1995; de Chernatony, 1999, 2010; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006; Balakrishnan, 2009; Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013)
- **Relationships** (Aaker, 1996a; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Kapferer, 1997; de Chernatony, 1999, 2010).

Values contribute to differentiation, relationship building and behaviour (Aaker, 1996a; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; de Chernatony, 2010). Values should communicate **functional**, **emotional** or **self-expressive benefits** to provide value and build brand-stakeholder relationships. Functional benefits are based on product characteristics that provide functional utility to consumers, whereas emotional benefits are based on positive feelings that contribute to unique brand experiences. The strongest brand identities are built on both functional and emotional benefits. A brand identity that is based on a self-expressive benefit provides a way for consumers to express themselves through the brand (Aaker, 1996a, pp. 95-100).

The literature review revealed that the **vision** plays the central role in brand identity models (van Riel, 1995; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Balmer & Soenen, 1999; Balakrishnan, 2009; de Chernatony, 2010). Vision represents the reason for the brand's existence and embodies its core values (Collins & Porras, 1996). De Chernatony (2010, p. 113) argues that proposing a brand's vision means proposing the brand's benefits to all stakeholders over a long time period. Three components of a powerful vision are future environment, brands purpose and values. The vision should be forward oriented, desirable and inspirational, but also achievable, stretching and communicable (de Chernatony, 2010, p. 119).

Mission is seen as the most essential element of brands' philosophy (Abratt, 1989; Melewar & Karaosmanoglu, 2006). Compared to vision, mission is past and present oriented (Konecnik Ruzzier & de Chernatony, 2013). It represents a purpose statement which differentiates the brand from its competitors (van Riel & Balmer, 1997) and embodies the commitment to exceed planned assignments.

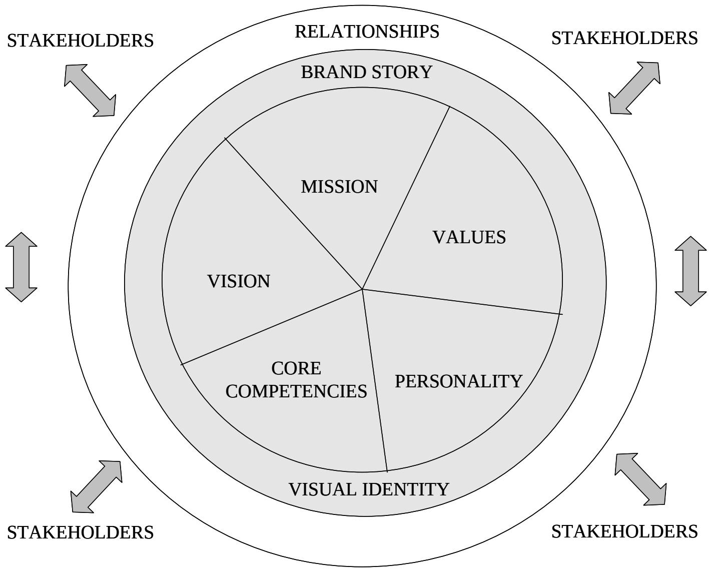
Personality is a set of human traits associated with a brand (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003, p. 151). A brand can be described with human characteristics, such as demographics, lifestyle or human personality traits. Brand personality enables brands to build relationships with people who possess the same personality characteristics and therefore presents the basis for brand-customer relationships (Aaker, 1996a, p. 84).

Core competencies are strong, favourable and unique brand attributes or associations. They should to be derived from the brand's vision and values (de Chernatony, 1999; Harris & de Chernatony, 2001; Keller & et al., 2008). Defining core competencies is known as positioning the brand, which means defining the unique selling proposition or sustainable competitive advantage of the brand (Keller et al., 2008, p. 104).

Relationships are voluntary ties among consumers and brands (Fournier, 1998; Blackston, 1992; Chang & Chieng, 2006). Both partners need to be active in affecting, defining and redefining the relationship (Hinde, 1979; Fournier, 1998). The brand becomes an active participant in relationships through the internal staff (de Chernatony, 1999; Harris & de

Chernatony, 2001). What are the appropriate relationships among the brand and its stakeholders should be defined by brand owners. Since relationships change over time, they should be evaluated by internal staff over and over again (de Chernatony, 1999; Harris & de Chernatony, 2001).

Figure 5. Brand Identity Model



The proposed brand identity model with all chosen building-blocks is presented in Figure 5. Brand identity in the proposed model is defined by the unique **relationships** among the brand and its stakeholders (Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1996a; Kapferer, 1997; de Chernatony, 1999, 2010; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Harris & de Chernatony, 2001). Stakeholders are co-creators of brand identity, its relationships and experiences.

Brand identity presentation should be based on the story about a focal brand. **Brand story** is therefore considered the core of brand identity, connecting all identity elements into a core brand story (Scott, 1994; Morgan et al., 2002; Pride, 2002; Konečnik Ruzzier et al., 2009; Barker & Gower, 2010).

2.3.1.3 Brand identity implementation

Successful brand identity implementation represents a powerful organisational intangible asset, provides a vehicle for brand management and is the source of a sustainable competitive advantage (Aaker, 1996a, p. 201). Brand identity implementation provides that the brand's identity is communicated to all stakeholders in an appropriate way and enables building strong and long-lasting brand relationships.

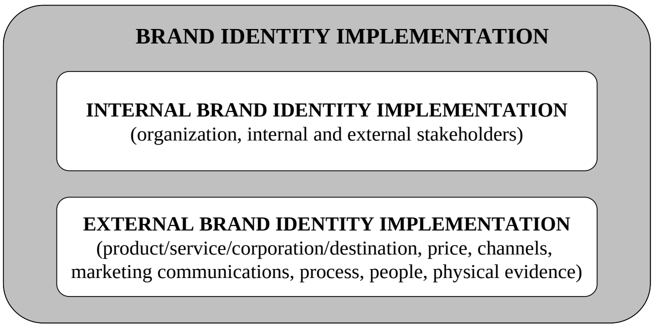
As already noted, we will take as a basis for our brand identity management process development Aaker and Joachimsthaler's (2000) brand identity planning model, with a few adjustments. Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000, p. 44) divide the brand identity implementation process into four phases: brand identity elaboration, brand position, brand building programmes and tracking. Brand identity elaboration (including leadership, friendship, trust and relationship definition) and brand position (including among others targeting and positioning) should be included in the previous steps, as proposed in our renewed model in Figure 5. Therefore, only one part of brand position as understood by Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000) will be regarded as a part of the brand identity implementation process, namely, active communications with all stakeholders, which will be broadened. Also, tracking, as understood by Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2000), will be excluded from the brand implementation process and included in the proposed external brand equity view, which will be presented in the following chapter. Therefore, the brand implementation process will be understood as a process of strategic development of marketing activities that are based on the brand's identity which is built with stakeholder co-creation with an aim to build strong brands.

De Chernatony (2010, p. 294) stresses the importance of internal brand identity implementation. He emphasises that internal stakeholders play the leading role in delivering and communicating brand's promise through all contact points. Furthermore, external stakeholders should be able to experience the core of the brand's identity, which includes the brand's promise and brand relationships, through every contact with the focal brand (de Chernatony, 2010, p. 303). Moreover, Madhavaran, Badrinarayanan and McDonald (2005, p. 76) propose that top management support plays a crucial part in brand identity implementation and highlight that brand identity should be first incorporated into the organisation's culture. Internal brand identity implementation should therefore be based on actions made by top management, to incorporate brand's identity into organization's culture and enable the identification of all internal stakeholders with the brand. Only when all internal stakeholders identify with the brands can the external brand identity implementation processes begin.

Brand identity implementation is addressed from the marketing mix perspective, where brand identity is incorporated into product or other entity, pricing, channel and MC strategies (Yoo et al., 2000; Argyriou et al., 2006; Srivastava et al., 2001; Keller et al., 2008; Keller, 2009). Additional marketing mix elements should be considered when considering the brand identity implementation of other brand types. For service brands, people, physical evidence and processes should also be considered (Booms & Bitner, 1981). To sum up, all marketing activities represent a vital part of the brand implementation process and have an impact on brand building. Brand identity should therefore be revealed with every contact the external stakeholder has with the brand (Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2002; Srivastava et al., 2001; Duncan & Mulhern, 2004; Argyriou et al., 2006; de Chernatony, 2010).

Due to the presented view among academics we recommend a new characterisation of the brand identity implementation process which includes incorporating the brand's identity first internally among internal and external stakeholders and secondly externally to all brands' activities. The proposed brand identity implementation process is presented in Figure 6.

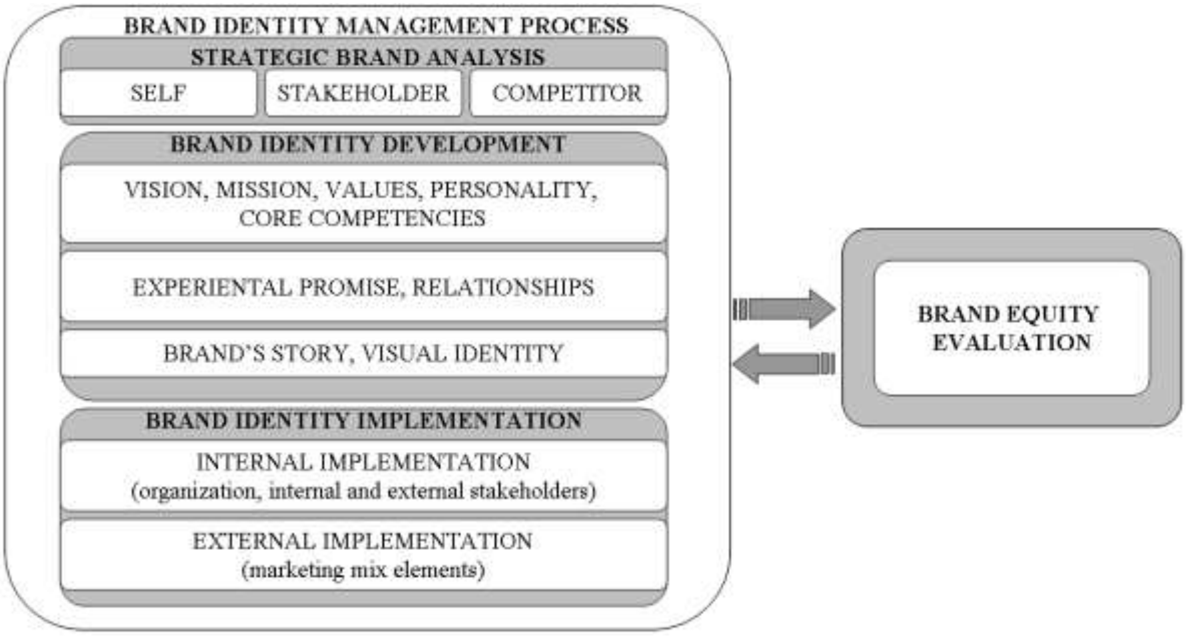
Figure 6. Brand Identity Implementation Process



Creating and maintaining brand identity is the first step in building strong brands (Aaker, 1996a; Keller, 2003). The process does not end when brand identity is implemented to all brands contact points, however. Brand managers should constantly verify whether a brand's identity is delivered in the appropriate way and whether there is consistency among diverse contact points since brand experiences and brand-stakeholder relationships can be heterogeneous and can change over time. Brand managers should therefore know how external stakeholders respond to brand marketing activities. Consumer response to marketing activities is mostly defined in terms of consumer perceptions, preferences and behaviour arising from marketing mix actions (Keller, 1993). Therefore, brand equity in the eyes of external stakeholders should be measured. Both processes (brand identity and brand equity building) require dynamic management to ensure that desired brand identity is delivered to each external stakeholder and that this delivered brand identity builds brand equity.

Nevertheless, the importance of brand identity in brand equity building has been emphasised relatively lately, since at the beginning of brand identity studies academics outlined the linkage among brand identity and brand image (Markwick & Fill, 1997; van Riel & Balmer, 1997; Balmer & Stotvig, 1997). These works were based on the study of Abratt (1989), who drew attention to the corporate identity and corporate image interface (Balmer & Stotvig, 1997). Later, de Chernatony (1999) introduced a new theory, claiming that academics should not be solely focused on the brand identity and brand image connection and proposed a brand identity–brand reputation linkage, claiming that reputation is a better externally oriented measure, since it relates to external brand perceptions in a long-time period. Recently, the view of the advocates of brand identity – brand equity linkage - has prevailed (Madhavaran et al., 2005; Keller et al., 2008; de Chernatony, 2010).

Figure 7. Brand Identity Management Process



The proposed brand identity management process is presented in Figure 7, which is built with already presented parts that include strategic brand analysis, brand identity development and brand identity implementation. As already emphasised, brand identity implementation and brand equity building should be connected to correct gaps between desired brand identity and actual brand identity in the eyes of brand stakeholders. Brand equity evaluation does not represent the next step in the brand identity management process, but rather an additional step that brand managers need to take to understand their brand value from diverse stakeholder perspectives. With knowledge about the brand's equity in the eyes of diverse stakeholders, brand managers will be able to minimise the gaps in perceptions regarding the desired brand identity. How to approach the process of brand equity building by stakeholders will be presented in the following chapter.

2.3.2 Brand equity view

A process of managing brand identity that leads to building strong brands is proposed in the previous chapters. Strong brands are those with high brand equity in stakeholders' minds. Consequently, brand equity theories have emerged in the literature aiming to measure the strength of brands. The topic of brand equity has attracted immense attention among academics and practitioners during the last decades (Aaker & Biel, 1992; Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Keller, 1993, 1998, 2008, 2010; Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Park & Srinivasan, 1994; Rangaswamy et al., 1993; Swait et al., 1993; Berry, 2000; Faircloth et al., 2001; Yoo & Donthu, 2001, 2002). Prior research recognised a positive effect of brand equity on consumer behaviour, since brand equity influences consumer preferences, purchase intentions and brand choice (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995). The positive effects of high brand equity are evident also on the company level through reductions in consumer price sensitivity (Aaker, 1996b; Erdem et al. 1999; Keller & Lehman, 2006; Hoeffler & Keller, 2003; Simmons et al., 2010), increasing MC effectiveness (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Hoeffler & Keller, 2003; Keller, 2009), enhancing shareholder value (Kerin & Sethuraman, 1998) and market share (Agarwal & Rao, 1996) and facilitating brand extensions (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Hoeffler & Keller, 2003; Keller & Lehmann, 2006).

Brand equity has been studied from two perspectives and is today defined as **firm-based brand equity** and **customer-based brand equity (CBBE)** (Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004, 2010). Even though the brand equity concept is widely accepted and thoroughly studied in the branding literature, little consensus exists regarding brand equity conceptualisation or its building blocks (Keller, 1993; Lassar et al., 1995; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004, 2010). Due to this lack of an acknowledged brand equity conceptualisation, an overview of the mostly emphasised brand equity definitions is provided (see Table 4).

The observed brand equity definitions emphasise brand equity building on both the company and consumer level; however, the consumer-based definitions prevail. Therefore, we will predominantly focus on the CBBE view, which academics also emphasise as being of higher importance in the brand equity building process by academics (Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Keller, 1993, 2009; Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Keller et. al., 2008).

Table 4. Brand Equity Conceptualizations

Author's (Year, page)	**Brand equity definition**	**Focus**
Farquhar (1989, p. 7)	*Brand equity is the **"added value"** with which a given brand endows a product.*	Consumer-based
Aaker (1991, p. 15)	*Brand equity is a **set of assets (and liabilities)** linked to a brand's name and symbol **that adds to (or subtracts from) the value** provided by a product or service to a firm and/or that firm's customers.*	Consumer-based and firm-based
Marketing Science Institute (in Srivastava & Shocker, 1991, p. 5)	***Set of associations and behaviour** on the part of a brand's consumers, channel members and parent corporation **that permits the brand to earn greater volume or greater margins** than it could without the brand name.*	Consumer-based and firm-based
Kamakura & Russel (1991); Keller (1993)	*Customer-based brand equity is defined as the **differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response** to the marketing of the brand.*	Consumer-based
Keller (1993, p. 1)	*Brand equity is defined in terms of the **marketing efforts uniquely attributable to the brand** – when certain outcomes result from the marketing of a product or service because of its brand name that would not occur if the same product or service did not have that name.*	Consumer-based
Simon & Sullivan (1993, p. 2)	***Incremental cash flows** which accrue to branded products over and above the cash flows which would result from the sale of unbranded products.*	Firm-based

(table continues)

(continued)

Lassar, Mittal & Sharma (1995, p. 13)	*Brand equity is the **enhancement in the perceived utility and desirability** a brand name confers on a product. It is the consumers' **perception of the overall superiority** of a product carrying that brand name when compared to other brands.*	Consumer-based
Erdem & Swait (1998, p. 140)	***Value of a brand signal** to consumers.*	Consumer-based
Yoo & Donthu (2001, p. 1)	*Consumer's **different response** between a focal brand and an unbranded product when both have the same level of marketing stimuli and product attributes. The difference in response may be attributed to brand name and **demonstrates the effects of the long-term marketing invested** into the brand.*	Consumer-based
Schultz (2002, p. 113)	*The **differential response** by consumers, customers, employees, other firms, or any relevant constituency to the words, actions, communications, products or services provided by an identified corporate brand entity.*	Consumer-based
Page & Lepkowska-White (2002, p. 231)	*Web equity is a **consumer familiarity and perceptions** about a Web site.*	Consumer-based
Agyriou, Kitchen & Melewar (2005, p. 575)	*Brand equity refers to **tangible and intangible value of brand** and emphasises the strategic goals of branding, such as the **creation of brand knowledge in consumer's minds** from the firm's investment in various marketing and corporate communication programmes.*	Consumer-based
Keller & Lehmann (2006, p. 745)	*Brand equity is **part of the attraction to—or repulsion from—a particular product** from a particular company generated by the "non-objective" part of the product offering, i.e., not by the product attributes per se.*	Consumer-based
Keller & Lehmann (2006, p. 745)	*Brand equity is **the additional value** (i.e., discounted cash flow) that accrues to a firm because of the presence of the brand name that would not accrue to an equivalent unbranded product.*	Firm-based
Christodoulides, de Chernatony, Furrer, Shiu & Abimbola (2006, p. 803)	*Online retail/service brand equity is **a relational type of intangible asset** that is co-created through the interaction between consumers and e-tail brand.*	Consumer-based
Chattopadhyay, Shivani & Krishnan (2009, p. 109)	*Brand equity is the **incremental utility or value added** to a product by its brand name.*	Consumer-based
Keller et al., (2008); Keller (2009, 2010)	*Reflects the intensity or depth of the psychological bond that customers have with the brand, as well as the level of activity engendered by its loyalty.*	Consumer-based

Source: Own characterization based on cited sources.

Well-established brand equity definitions include those of Aaker (1991), Keller (1993) and the Marketing Science Institute (cited in Srivastava & Shocker, 1991, p. 5) (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004; Argyriou et al., 2006). Among them Aaker's (1991) and the Marketing Science Institute's (cited in Srivastava & Shocker, 1991, p. 5) cover both consumer-based and firm-based brand equity approaches, whereas definitions by Kamakura and Russel (1991) and Keller (1993) stress only the consumer-based level. Nevertheless, the majority of presented definitions regard brand equity as **added value** to the brand. Researchers have mainly regarded added value as a consequence of **prior marketing activities** (Kamakura & Russel, 1991; Keller, 1993; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Schultz, 2002; Argyriou et al., 2006). Recently, **brand relationship** building has been stressed as an indicator of high brand equity (Christodoulides et al., 2006; Keller et al., 2008; Keller, 2009, 2010). Christodoulides et al. (2006) emphasise in their CBBE definition that brand equity is co-created through interaction among consumers. Nevertheless, they focus only on online retail/service brands. We adopt this conceptualisation and propose a new CBBE definition: "*Consumer-based brand equity is the added value of a brand co-created by consumers due to evolving brand relationships*". We believe this definition can be applied to all brand types, since brands today are present in both online and offline environments.

In view of the evolution of ICT, academics began to question whether the brand building process in the online and offline environments should be conceptualised identically. Therefore, several academics proposed that brand equity is established differently in the online setting (Page & Lepkowska-White, 2002; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004; Christodoulides et al., 2006). Consequently, **online brand equity** definitions emerged, with the aim to define the equity of brands that exist only in the online environment (Page & Lepkowska-White, 2002; Christodoulides et al., 2006). Diverse elements have been proposed, some based on Keller's (1993) and Aaker's (1991, 1996b) conceptualisation and others based on other elements. Page and Lepkowska-White (2002) and Na and Marshall (2005) suggest that brand equity can be created similarly offline and online based on Keller's brand equity elements. Page and Lepkowska-White (2002, p. 231) develop the web equity framework, which includes web awareness and web image. They stress that the main difference in the online environment is in the marketing mix antecedents. On the other hand, Rios and Riquelme (2008, 2010) examine brand equity elements as proposed by Aaker (1991, 1996b) in an online context and confirm the connections between brand equity and four dimensions: brand loyalty, value associations, brand awareness and trust associations.

In contrast, Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2004, p. 176) argue that in an internet environment brand equity measures defined as Aaker's "brand equity ten" do not suffice. They developed ten internet-specific brand equity measures, which should be added based to their belief in the Aaker's brand equity ten. The ten proposed internet-specific measures are online brand experience, interactivity, customisation, relevance, site design, customer service, order fulfilment, quality of brand relationships, communities and website logs. Furthermore, an alternative model of online brand equity measurement has been proposed by Christodoulides et al. (2006, pp. 803-807), who define online retail/service (ORS) brand equity. ORS brand equity consists of five dimensions: emotional connection, online experience, responsive service nature, trust and fulfilment. Christodoulides et al. (2006, pp. 814-816) prove in an internet-based survey among UK internet shoppers that the ORS brand equity measure can serve as a tool for measuring ORS brand equity.

The increasing number of Smartphone owners worldwide provided marketers with tools to present brands also on mobile platforms. Consequently **mobile brand equity** conceptualisations have been developed (Sheng & Teo, 2012, p. 1). Nevertheless, Sheng and Teo (2012, p. 1) propose that Yoo and Donthu's (2001) brand equity elements are appropriate building blocks of mobile brand equity.

The conceptualisation published by Christodoulides et al. (2006, p. 803) is consistent with the recent dynamic changes in the environment and considers interactions and relationships among brands and consumers but does not consider brands in online and offline settings. Since external stakeholders do not come in contact with brands only in the online environment, we believe that only an online brand equity conceptualisation should be reconsidered. Therefore, we adopt an opinion held by several academics (Na & Marshall, 2005; Rios & Riquelme, 2008, 2010) that brand equity should be conceptualised for any brand type independently if the brand exists in online or offline environments or in both, since every brand equity is constructed in the consumer's mind with every contact the consumer has with the brand and the contacts occur for most brands in both environments. Therefore, we will search for the CBBE conceptualisation that can be applied to all brands in all environments.

Recently, Keller (2001, 2009, 2010) presented an alternative CBBE model and introduced a new brand equity measure, the **brand resonance model**, which has already been adopted by some academics (Atilgan, Safak & Serkan, 2002; Aziz & Jasin, 2010). The brand resonance model takes into account interactivity and brand relationship building. In his first conceptualisation Keller (2001) proposes six building blocks of brand resonance: salience, performance, imagery, judgment, feelings and resonance. In this new model, salience stands for brand awareness and performance and imagery stand for brand associations. Among judgments, four types of brand opinions are important: quality, credibility, consideration and superiority. Feelings, on the other hand, include diverse emotional reactions to brands. Resonance is built through brand loyalty, attachment, community and engagement. Keller (2001, 2009) describes brand resonance as relationships among consumers and the brand.

In another brand resonance model conceptualisation, Keller (2010, pp. 61-62) outlines five elements as building blocks of the brand resonance model, named the 5 As: awareness, associations, attitudes, attachment and activity. Attitudes include a consumer's judgments and feelings about a brand. Attachment and activity are regarded as brand loyalty affirmation. Brand attachment means that consumers express brand love and have a sense of brand community. Brand activity tells how frequently consumers engage in brand activities such as purchase, brand website visit and word-of-mouth and presents the behavioural loyalty component (Keller, 2010).

Empirical validation of the proposed brand resonance model has been provided by Kakati and Choudhury (2013) for durables and Jung, Lee, Kin and Yang (2014) for luxury fashion brands. However, traditional brand equity measures are found in both empirical examinations and in both proposed Kellers' (2001, 2010) models. What has changed in the proposed models mainly involves the name conceptualisation of nearly the same brand equity elements. Nevertheless, we believe the new brand resonance model takes one step forward in brand equity conceptualisation, since Keller (2001, 2009, 2010) incorporates inside-the-model changes which occurred due to the emergence of ICT. Therefore, in his new model, Keller argues that a special bond is formed among the consumers and the brand and stresses out that the consumers in the changed environment become co-creators of the brand's experiences.

Because of the interactive environment, a special relationship among consumer and the brand is built. We also believe that changes in the new environment should be taken into account when defining CBBE elements, which is consistent with the thinking of several academics (Lemon et al., 2001; Keller, 2001, 2009, 2010; Atilgan et al., 2002; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004; Christodoulides et al., 2006; Chang & Chieng, 2006; Keller et al., 2008; Aziz & Jasin, 2010). We believe that brand relationships are the main difference that distinguishes brand building through traditional MC tools and today's brand building where interactivity and co-creation of brand experiences are enabled.

Chang and Chieng (2006) are the first authors who focused on brand relationships in connection with other CBBE elements. In their model, brand relationship is perceived as a final outcome of the brand relationship model, which is built through brand associations, brand image, brand attitudes, individual experiences and brand personality. The model was tested in Taipei and China and the connections among brand image, brand associations and brand attitudes with brand relationship were supported. These findings are important for our model conceptualisation. In this doctoral dissertation, we will therefore follow the brand resonance model as proposed by Keller (2001, 2009, 2010) and the model of Chang and Chieng's (2006) and try to determine whether the highest possible outcome in brand building is the formation of brand relationships.

Another alternative model of CBBE is from Lemon et al. (2001), who consider **customer equity** to be built of diverse equities, namely, value equity, brand equity and relationship equity (2001, p. 22). **Value equity** is a customer's perception of the objective value of the organisation's offering. Perceived quality, price and convenience are building blocks of value equity. **Brand equity** is built through images and meanings and includes brand awareness, attitude towards the brand and corporate ethics. The key element in customer equity is **relationship equity**, defined as the customers' intention to stick with the brand, despite objective brand value and subjective brand equity measures. Relationship equity is enhanced by loyalty programmes, special recognition and treatment, affinity and community-building and knowledge-building programmes. Lemon et al. (2001) present quite different views on brand equity theory, since they claim CBBE consists of four building blocks of equity. Nevertheless, their emphasis on relationships as the most crucial part of customer equity is relevant in today's highly competitive and changing environment. This provides us with further evidence that brand relationships should be taken into account when defining and measuring CBBE. While Rust, Lemon and Zeithaml (2004) provide empirical evidence for the proposed model, Kim and Ko (2012) provide empirical evidence for their proposed conceptualisation of diverse equities; nevertheless, their impact on consumer equity is not supported. Therefore, the model should be tested further.

To sum up, diverse brand equity models have been proposed in the branding literature over time. There is no consensus regarding which model is the best. However, through the years, the models have evolved and diverse building blocks have been considered. Recently, academics have made efforts to define how the emergence of new technology influences brand equity building blocks. Due to relatively diverse brand equity construct conceptualisations and the emergence of online, mobile and relationship brand equity models, broader research on this topic is required to ensure that the most significant brand equity elements will be chosen. The literature review of brand equity models and their building blocks is therefore presented in Table 5. This review will serve us in defining which is the most appropriate CBBE model and building blocks for today's environment.

Table 5. Different Customer-Based Brand Equity Models

Author(s), (Year)	**Type of study**	**Customer-based brand equity elements**						
		BA	**BAs**	**BI**	**PQ**	**BL**	**BR**	**Other elements**
Farquar (1989)	T			x				Evaluation, attitudes
Biel (1992)	T		(S)	x				market behaviour measures
Aaker (1991, 1996b)	T	x	x	(S)	x	x		market behaviour measures
Keller (1993)	T	x	(S)	x	(S)	(C)		
Cobb-Walgren et al. (1995)	Quan, ANT & CON	x	x		x			
Yoo et al. (2000)	Quan, ANT	x*	(S)*		x*	x*		Overall brand equity
Eagle & Kitchen (2000)	Qual, ANT & CON	x	x		x	x*		market behaviour measures
Berry (2000)	T, ANT	x						Meaning
Keller (2001b)	T, ANT	(S)			(S)	(S)		Salience, performance, imagery, judgements, feelings, resonance
Yoo & Donthu (2001)	Quan, MD, CON	x*	x*		x*	x*		Overall brand equity
Lemon et al. (2001)	T	(S)			(S)	(S)	x	Value equity, Brand equity, Relationship equity
Kim, Sharma & Setzekorn (2002)	T, ON, ANT, CON	x						Knowledge

(table continues)

(continued)

Page & Lepkowska-White (2002)	T, ON, ANT & CON	x		x		(C)		
Christodoulides & de Chernatony (2004)	T, ON	x	x		x	x	x	10 internet specific measures, market behaviour measures
Altigan et al. (2005)	Quan	x	x		x	x*		
Villarejo-Ramos & Sances-Franco (2005)	Quan, ANT	x*		x*	x*	x*		
Madhavaram et al. (2005)	T, ANT	x		x				
Na & Marshall (2005)	T, ON, MD, CON	x	(S)	x				Attitudes
Christodoulides et al. (2006)	Quan, ON,						x*	5 ORS brand measures*
Chang & Chieng (2006)	Quan, MD, ANT		x*	x*			x*	Brand attitude*, Brand personality
Konecnik & Gartner (2007)	Quan, MD	x*		x*	x*	x*		
Rios & Riquelme (2008)	Quan, ON, MD	x	(S)			x*		Trust Ass, value Ass*
Rios & Riquelme (2010)	Quan, ON, ANT	x*	(S)			x*		Trust Ass*, value Ass
Keller (2010)	T, ANT	x	x					Attitude, attachmnent, action
Cattopadhyay et al. (2009)	Quan, ANT	x			x*			
Cattopadhyay, Dutta & Shivani (2010)	Quan, ANT	x			x			
Kim & Hyun (2011)	Quan, MD, ANT	x*	x*		x*	x*		
Kim & Ko (2012)	Quan, ANT, CON						x*	Value equity*, Brand equity*, Consumer equity
Sheng & Teo (2012)	Quan, MOB, ANT	x	x		x	x		
Buil, de Chernatony & Martínez (2013)	Quan, ANT	x*	x*		x*	x*		
Total		**24**	**17**	**10**	**16**	**16**	**4**	**43 different**
Total significant		**7**	**5**	**3**	**7**	**10**	**3**	

Note. Type of study: T = theoretical, Quan = quantitative study, Qual = qualitative study, ON = online setting, MOB = mobile setting, MD = measurement development, ANT = antecedents, CON = consequences Brand equity elements: BA = brand awareness, BAs = brand associations, BI = brand image, PQ = perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship, * = significant ($p < 0.05$), (C) = consequence, (S) = sub dimension.

Source: Own conceptualization, based on cited sources.

Academics have defined CBBE with diverse elements (Farquar, 1989; Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Keller, 1993, 1998, 2008, 2010; Yoo & Donthu, 2001, 2002). Most frequently cited are CBBE elements as defined by Aaker (1991, 1996b) and Keller (1993, 1998). Aaker (1991, 1996b) is the first author to develop a brand equity measure, called The Brand Equity Ten, to measure brand equity across products and markets. The model consists of five categories, with the first four representing customer brand perceptions (loyalty, perceived quality, associations and awareness) and the fifth representing market behaviour measures. Keller (1993, 1998, 2008, 2010), on the other hand, states that brand equity represents consumers' knowledge about the brand, which consists of brand awareness with brand image.

As presented in Table 5, CBBE elements are mostly referred to as brand awareness, brand associations, brand image, perceived quality and brand loyalty (Aaker, 1996b; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Villarejo-Ramos & Sánchez-Franco, 2005). Several models include brand associations as a sub-dimension of brand awareness (Yoo et al., 2000; Rios & Riquelme, 2008, 2010; Kim & Hyun, 2011) or brand image (Keller, 1993; Na & Marshall, 2005). In a few models, brand loyalty is regarded as a consequence of brand equity and not as its element (Keller, 1993; Page & Lepkowska-White, 2002). Nevertheless, brand loyalty is the most significant brand equity element in several studies (Yoo et al., 2000; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Villarejo-Ramos & Sánchez-Franco, 2005; Altigan et al., 2005; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Riquelme, 2008, 2010; Kim & Hyun, 2011), followed by perceived quality, brand awareness and associations. Furthermore, various authors have proposed additional brand equity elements, such as brand relationship, trust, attitude and overall brand equity (Farquar, 1989; Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Rios & Riquelme, 2008, 2010; Keller, 2010).

Even though all these authors acknowledge that the brand-building environment has changed, most continue to use the brand equity elements proposed by Aaker (1991, 1996b) or Keller (1993) (Madhavaram et al., 2005; Na & Marshall, 2005; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Rios & Riquelme, 2008, 2010; Cattopadhyay et al., 2009, 2010; Kim & Hyun, 2011; Sheng & Teo, 2012). Nevertheless, some authors overcome these assumptions with an emphasis on the changed environment and, consequently, propose additional (Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004) or thoroughly new CBBE elements (Lemon et al., 2001; Keller, 2001, 2009; 2010; Christodoulides et al., 2006; Sheng & Teo, 2012). Conceptualisations of online and even mobile brand equity emerged in the literature; among them, ORS brand equity elements are significant in building the brand equity of online service brands (Christodoulides et al., 2006). Nevertheless, as stated earlier, brand equity should involve the same elements in online, mobile and offline environments, since we believe today's consumers come in contact with the brand in diverse settings.

Even though new brand equity models and elements have been proposed, we believe that the elements proposed by Aaker (1991, 1996b) and Keller (1993) suffice to some extent. Several authors share this view, emphasising that it is not clear why traditional elements cannot not be applied to online brands and online retail services (Page & Lepkowska-White, 2002; Na & Marshall, 2005; Rios & Riquelme, 2008, 2010). Furthermore, several confirmations exist in the studies conducted in recent years on brands that occurred in both online and traditional settings; the findings indicate that brand loyalty, image, awareness, associations and perceived quality are significant CBBE elements. We propose that brand associations should be regarded as a sub-dimension of brand image, as outlined by both Aaker (1996b) and Keller (1993). The proposed elements occur in the majority of studies and we believe that by combining Aaker's (1991, 1996b) (awareness, associations, perceived quality and loyalty) and Keller's (1993, 1998) elements (awareness and image) we can to some extent capture the CBBE construct.

Nevertheless, the interactions among the brands and consumers have changed. This is the result of the direct dialogue between the brands and the consumers that is now possible due to the emergence of the internet and mobile technologies. This dialogue can be conducted in person or long distance. We also propose the addition of an element to the model to capture these environmental changes. As several researchers have stressed, it is the interactions among the brands and consumers that has changed. Consequently, consumers and brands can now build relationships. Lemon et al. (2001) considered brand relationship building to be the gluing of the brand to the consumers. They believe that relationships can be built through brand loyalty and affinity programmes, special recognition and treatment, community-building, and knowledge-building programmes. They warn that the importance of relationships may vary across industries. Even though they outline the significant importance of digital technologies in building brand relationships, they consider brand relationships to be built through interactions with the brand in diverse settings, which are not only limited to online settings. Kim & Ko (2012) empirically tested the model proposed by Lemon et al. (2001). They proved that the interactions among consumers in the social networking sites had a positive and significant effect on relationship equity. As such, Kim & Ko (2012) provided evidence that interactive MCs impact the relationships among consumers and brands. This finding concurs with that of several academics (Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Keller, 2001, 2009, 2010; Winer, 2009).

Therefore, we believe that brand relationships should also be considered an aspect of CBBE (Lemon et al., 2001; Keller, 2001, 2009, 2010; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004; Christodoulides et al., 2006; Chang & Chieng, 2006). In subsequent chapters, we will present each of the CBBE elements considered to be building blocks of our proposed model and also emphasised in Keller's brand resonance model (2008, 2011). We will take into account for our model conceptualisation the following CBBE elements: brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty and brand relationship.

2.3.2.1 Brand awareness

Keller (1993, p. 102) emphasises that brand equity occurs with a high level of brand awareness and therefore brand awareness is the most crucial element of the CBBE model (Rossiter & Percy, 1987; Keller, 1993; Ye & van Raaij, 2004). Brand awareness is associated with the strength of the brands' trace in consumers' memory and revealed by consumers' ability to identify the brand under diverse circumstances (Rossiter & Percy, 1987; Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Keller, 1993; Kapferer, 1997; Keller, 2009). In general, brand awareness consists of two elements: brand recognition and brand recall (Rossiter & Percy, 1987; Keller, 1993, 2009). **Brand recognition** refers to consumer ability to confirm prior brand exposure. On the other hand, **brand recall** is the ability to recall the brand when given the product category, fulfilled needs or purchase and usage situations (Keller, 1993).

Aaker (1996b, p. 114) additionally divides awareness into the categories of recognition, recall, top-of-mind, brand dominance, brand knowledge and brand opinion. Recognition is the most important for new brands and the **top-of-mind position** has significance for well-known brands (Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Aaker, 1996b; Rios & Riquelme, 2008). **Brand dominance** is evident when there is only one brand recalled in an exposed setting. **Brand knowledge** refers to brand salience and reflects the depth and breadth of brand awareness in a customer's mind; it is the customer's knowledge of what the focal brand stands for (Aaker, 1996b; Keller, 2001, 2010). **Brand opinion** reflects whether consumers have established an opinion about the brand. Furthermore, brand awareness is not regarded only as brand name awareness; rather, awareness can be established in many forms, including visual identity, packaging and location awareness (Rossiter & Percy, 1987; Aaker, 1996b; Macdonald & Sharp, 2003).

Brand awareness affects consumers' perceptions, attitudes, brand choice and loyalty (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993; Hollis, 2005) and therefore plays a crucial role in consumer decision making (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Narayana & Markin, 1975; Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco, 2005). Brand awareness has an important role in the brand consideration set (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Keller, 1993; Macdonald & Sharp, 2003), where the higher the brand awareness, the more likely the brand will be considered during the decision-making process. This is important since consumers usually only buy brands with which they are familiar (Jacoby, Syzabillo & Busato-Schach, 1977; Keller, 1993). Furthermore, in low-involvement circumstances, only a minimum level of brand awareness is sufficient for future product choice (Keller, 1993). Keller (2009) additionally emphasises that any action in which the brand is noticed by a consumer can increase brand awareness and this should be evident at least in increased brand recognition.

On the other hand, several academics have provided empirical evidence that brand awareness and associations represent the same brand equity dimension (Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Rios & Riquelme, 2008, 2010; Kim & Hyun, 2011). Keller (1993) and Aaker (1996b) stress that brand awareness influences the formation of brand associations and brand image. Furthermore, brand awareness has a direct and positive effect on **brand image** (Keller, 1993; Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Martinez, Montaner, & Pina, 2009) and enhances both **perceived quality** (Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Rios & Riquelme, 2008; Martinez et al., 2009; Kim & Hyun, 2011) and **brand loyalty** (Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Rios & Riquelme, 2008; Kim & Hyun, 2011).

Brand awareness is built through diverse marketing activities, and MCs are particularly important (Rossiter & Percy, 1987; Yoo et al., 2000; Ind & Riondino, 2001; Keller, 2002). Nevertheless, brand awareness studies have only recently been linked to online marketing activities (Illfeld & Winer, 2002; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2003; Hollis, 2005; Trappey & Woodside, 2005; Rios & Riquelme, 2008; Naik & Peters, 2009; Keller, 2010). Several researchers have emphasised that online and interactive MCs increase brand awareness (Trappey & Woodside, 2005; McCarthy & Fram, 2008; Naik & Peters, 2009; Keller, 2010).

2.3.2.2 Brand image

Brand image is a concept in the marketing literature that has led to many discussions among academics and practitioners. There is no general agreement about the most appropriate brand image definition, even though the brand image concept is evident in consumer research from the 1950s (Dobni & Zinkham, 1990, p. 110). Dobni and Zinkham (1990, pp. 111-115) divide brand image definitions into five groups:

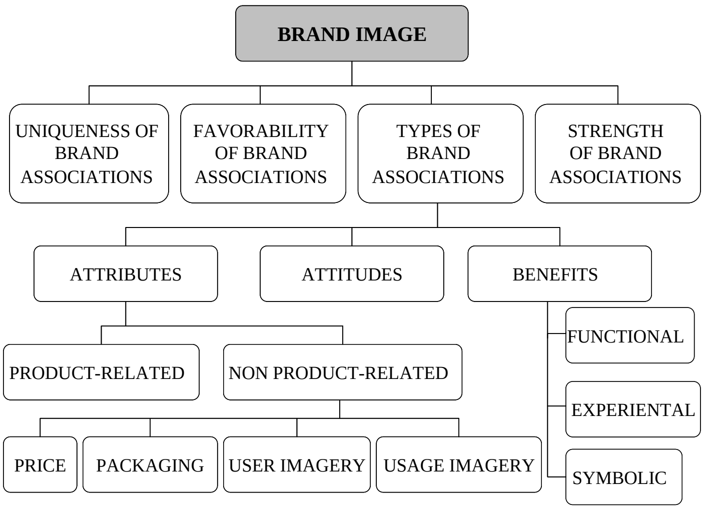
- Blanket definitions (Herzog, 1963; Runyon & Stevvart, 1987), which are regarded as very broad brand image definitions and include conceptualisations like associations, perceptions and impressions.
- Definitions based on symbolism (Frazer, 1983; Noth, 1988), which emphasise the role of symbols in building brand images.
- Definitions emphasising meanings and messages (Somers, 1963; Durgee & Stuart, 1987), which emphasise meanings, while meanings explanations vary.
- Definitions based on personification (Bettinger et al., 1979; Sirgy, 1985), which regard brand image as human personalities.
- Definitions based on cognition and psychological aspects (Park, Jaworski & Macinnis, 1986; Bullmore, 1984), which regard brand image as ideas, feelings, attitudes, mental constructs, understandings or expectations.

Today, acknowledged definitions describe brand image as **associations** or **perceptions** linked to a brand (Herzog, 1963; Krishnan, 1996; Fombrun & van Riel, 1997; Biel, 1992; Keller, 1993, 1998; Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Na, Marshall, & Keller, 1999; Harris & de Chernatony, 2001; Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Krishnan (1996) defines brand image as perceptions that are formed from a variety of sources, including consumer experiences and MCs, which is a view shared by numerous academics (Agryriou et al., 2005; Keller &

Lehmann, 2006). Academics stress that brand image is built through diverse MCs from mass media to short-term marketing activities (Knox, 1996; Gommans, Krishnan, & Scheffold, 2001; Keller et al., 2008). The important role of advertising in creating brand associations and brand image is especially emphasised (Biel, 1992; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000; Toncar & Munch, 2001; Dahlén, Murray & Nordenstam, 2004). Also, the positive impact of online advertising on brand image is evident in the literature (Hollis, 2005). In recent years, academics have highlighted the important role of the brand website as the most important vehicle to strengthen brand image online (Ducoffe, 1996; Leong, Huang & Stanners, 1998; Supphellen & Nysveen, 2001; Merilles & Fry, 2002; Mùller & Chandon, 2003).

Keller (1993, 1998) argues that brand image is the core element of CBBE and suggests that a necessary condition for brand image formation is the establishment of a brand node in the customer's memory. Positive brand image means that the customer has favourable, strong and unique brand associations. Keller further defines brand image with four elements: uniqueness, strength, favourability and type of brand associations. **Uniqueness of brand association** means that strong, favourable and unique brand associations must be incorporated into brand identity to ensure a brand's success in the marketplace. **Strength of brand associations** depends on the quantity and quality of information as it enters the customer's memory. **Favourability of brand associations** means that consumers have favourable brand associations when they believe that the brands can satisfy their needs and wants (see Figure 8).

Figure 8. Brand Image Conceptualization



Source: K. L. Keller, *Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity* ,1993, p. 7.

Among **types of associations,** Keller (1993) stresses benefits, attributes and attitudes. **Benefits** relate to the product or service's ability to provide functional, experiential or symbolic benefits (Park et al., 1986). **Attributes** relate to the descriptive features of product or service and are product- or non-product-related. **Attitudes** are regarded as consumers' overall brand evaluations (Wilkie, 1986) and can be related to beliefs about product- or non-product-related attributes and benefits. Attitudes have a value-expressive role and permit individuals to express themselves (Katz, 1960; Lutz, 1991). Keller's (1993) understanding of the brand image concept is presented.

Also, Biel (1992, p. 7) shares Keller's view while emphasising brand image as the key driver of brand equity. His understanding of the brand image construct is similar to Keller's (1993), since he describes it as associations linked to a brand. He furthermore divides brand image into three components: **image of a product**, **image of a maker (corporate image)** and **image of a user**. All types of image are influenced by diverse functional and soft attributes. He stresses that the importance of the each category varies among diverse brands. In contrast, Aaker (1996b, p. 111) emphasises that brand associations involve brand image dimensions and divides associations in three categories: brand-as-product (also brand value), brand-as-person and brand-as-organisation. **Brand-as-product** focuses on the brand's value and relates to functional benefits and the utility of purchasing and possessing the brand. The **brand-as-person** perspective relates to brand personality, which provides a link to emotional and self-expressive benefits. **Brand-as-organisation** considers the organisation behind the brand and the formed organisational associations. Also, in Aaker's (1996b) view, all three categories vary by brand.

These brand image conceptualisations are comparable. The link between Biel's (1992) and Keller's (1993) conceptualisation runs from Biel's (1992) brand images to Keller's (1993) brand attributes. Furthermore, Biel's (1992) and Aaker's (1996b) conceptualisations divide brand image into three categories: product, personal and organisational associations. The only difference among their conceptualisations is that Aaker (1996b) understands product associations as mainly functional, whereas Biel (1992) divides product image into functional and soft components. Due to these similar brand image understandings, even though the brand image definition is not universal, several authors in the field (Keller, 1993; Biel, 1992; Aaker, 1991, 1996b) share a parallel opinion about the construct and define it as a set of associations linked to a brand. Therefore, brand associations will be regarded as building blocks of a brand image construct and not of a brand awareness construct as proposed by some academics (Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Rios & Riquelme, 2008, 2010; Kim & Hyun, 2011).

Several academics regard brand image as a strategic tool for brand loyalty development (Yoo et al., 2000; Gommans et al., 2009; Alwi, 2009, Martínez et al., 2009). These researchers suggest that brand image is influenced by brand awareness through the formation of brand associations (Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Keller, 1993; Chattopadhyay et al., 2009; Martinez et al., 2009).

2.3.2.3 Perceived quality

Two types of quality are emphasised in numerous studies: objective and perceived quality (Zeithaml, 1988; Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Moorthy & Zhao, 2000). **Objective** or **actual quality** is used to describe concrete technical product superiority (Zeithaml, 1988). The terms used to capture objective quality dimensions also include conformance quality (Crosby, 1979; Buzzell & Gale, 1987) and manufacturing-based quality (Garvin, 1983), among others. Nevertheless, **conformance quality** and **manufacturing-based quality** present a narrower view than objective quality since they refer to quality as meeting a set of manufacturing or other standards and specifications (Crosby, 1979; Garvin, 1983; Buzzell & Gale, 1987; Duncan & Moriarty, 1998).

Perceived quality is reflected in a consumer's judgment regarding a product's general excellence or superiority (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 3). Perceived quality refers to an overall quality judgment and not to judgment of individual quality elements (Zeithaml, 1988; Aaker & Keller, 1990; Boulding & Kirmani, 1993); it is a broader concept than objective quality (Jacoby, Olson, & Haddock, 1971; Zeithaml, 1988; Moorthy & Zhao, 2000). Aaker (1996b, p. 109) regards perceived quality as a key dimension of CBBE and associates it with price premium, price elasticity, brand usage and stock return.

Quality attributes are divided into intrinsic and extrinsic (Zeithaml, 1988). **Intrinsic attributes** include the physical composition of the product, such as colour, flavour and texture. On the other hand, **extrinsic attributes**, such as price and brand name, relate to the product but are not part of it. Numerous researchers have developed models based on consumers' use of extrinsic cues as indicators of quality (Dawar & Parker, 1994; Dodds & Monroe, 1985; Erickson & Johansson, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988; Teas & Agarwal, 2000). Furthermore, academics stress that intrinsic and extrinsic attributes vary among brand types (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988; Zeithaml, 1988).

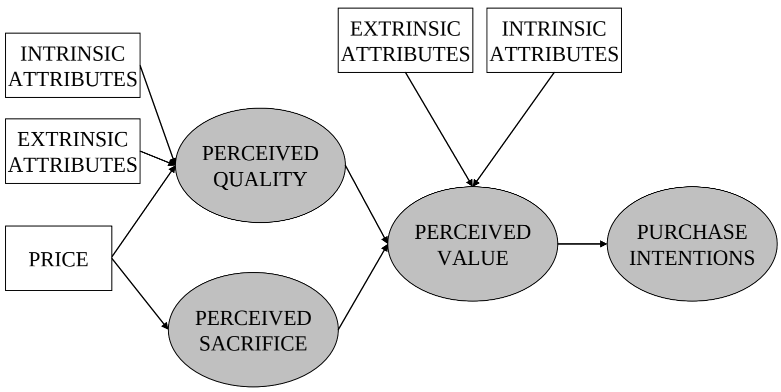
If we look to Keller's (1993) brand image conceptualisation (see Figure 9), we can see that even if Keller does not consider perceived quality as a part of CBBE measurement, he includes **attributes** in brand image dimension in a similar manner as described in the perceived quality literature (Zeithaml, 1988, Teas & Agarwal, 2000; Konečnik, 2005). Therefore, we can conclude that in his model Keller (1993) also includes intrinsic and extrinsic attributes of perceived quality, but inside a much broader brand image construct. This finding speaks in favour of including perceived quality construct in our model.

One of the most researched extrinsic quality attributes is **price** (Dawar & Parker, 1994; Moorthy & Zhao, 2000; Konečnik, 2005). Consumers make quality judgments based on price, especially when lacking other quality indicators and commonly perceive the price-quality association as stronger than it actually is (Boyle & Lathrop, 2009). Even though numerous authors have empirically confirmed price-quality relationships, many connections have low significance (Doods & Monroe, 1985; Boyle & Lathrop, 2009). Researchers emphasise that price-quality relationships are entity dependent (Zeithaml, 1988; Boyle & Lathrop, 2009). Consequently, relationships among price and perceived quality of durable goods are non-significant or negatively significant, whereas among non-durable goods they are mostly significant (Boyle & Lathrop, 2009).

Previous studies focused on price-quality relationships have also considered several other extrinsic attributes. In particular, **brand name** (Jacoby et al., 1971; Dodds & Monroe 1985; Moorthy & Zhao, 2000) and **country-of-origin** studies (Teas & Agarwal, 2000) are well documented.

Perceived quality is often mentioned in connection with **perceived value**. Even though some authors suggest that consumers' perceptions do not differ when making quality or value evaluations (Keller, 1993; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000; Rios & Riquelme, 2008), the prevalent view is that perceived quality and perceived value are different concepts and should therefore be measured separately (Zeithaml, 1988; Aaker, 1996b; Teas & Agarwal, 2000). Perceived value differs from perceived quality also in the trade-off component between perceived quality (positive relationship) and perceived sacrifice (negative relationship) (Doods & Monroe, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988; Teas & Agarwal, 2000). Perceived quality is thus an antecedent of perceived value (Doods & Monroe, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988; Aaker, 1996b; Teas & Agarwal, 2000) and **purchase intentions** (Doods & Monroe, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988; Duncan & Moriarty, 1998). In online environments, intention to re-use a website or information technology is emphasised (Loiacono et al., 2007; Udo et al., 2010).

Figure 9. Relationships between Perceived Quality, Perceived Value, and Purchase Intentions



Source: Adapted from W. B. Doods and K. B. Monroe, *The Effect of Brand and Price Information on Subjective Product Evaluation*, 1985, p. 86; V. A. Zeithaml, *Consumer perceptions of price, quality and value: a means-end model and synthesis evidence*, 1988, p. 4; and R. K. Teas and S. Agarwal, *The Effects of Extrinsic Product Cues on Consumers' Perceptions of Quality, Sacrifice, and Value*, 2000, p. 279.

In recent years, academics have conceptualised perceived quality of online service brands, usually referred to as **e-service quality** or **web service quality** (Santos, 2003; Udo, Bagchi, & Kirsch, 2010). Santos (2003) defines e-service quality as overall perceptions, judgments and evaluations of the quality of services in virtual worlds. On the other hand, several authors have claimed that e-service quality refers to the ability of a website to provide efficient and effective shopping, purchasing and delivery of goods and services (in Udo et al., 2010). Several measurement instruments of online service quality have been developed, but none has been widely acknowledged (Loiacono, Watson, & Goodhue, 2007).

Perceived quality is highly associated with brand equity measures (Aaker, 1996b, p. 109). Academics suggest that a direct positive relationship exists between brand awareness and perceived quality (Martinez et al., 2009). Furthermore, perceptions of high quality are regarded as a basis for brand loyalty (Aaker, 1996b; Oliver, 1997; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Kim & Hyun, 2011). Aaker (1996, p. 110) furthermore suggests that it is valuable to monitor perceived quality by loyalty segment, since interpretation of perceived quality by loyal versus non-loyal consumers may differ.

Several conceptualisations of perceived quality measurement have been developed. Since the quality construct is entity dependent, academics have tried to develop a measurement instrument to measure quality in diverse brand types (see Table 6). Several measures have been developed for particular product or service categories, such as food (Bonner & Nelson, 1985 in Zethaml, 1988), beverages (Zethaml, 1988) and banking services (Schumann et al., 2001). In particular, perceived service quality (Parasuraman et al., 1985, 1988; Brady & Cronin, 2001; Schumann et. al., 2010) and quality of online service brands (Yoo & Donthu, 2001a; Palmer, 2002; Lociacono et al., 2002, 2007; Udo et al., 2010) have garnered attention in recent years. Even though the service quality measurement called SERQUAL, presented by Parasuraman et al. (1988), has been widely used, it has also been commonly criticised (Brady & Cronin, 2001; Udo et. al, 2010). Nevertheless, no other more widely acknowledged service quality measure has emerged. Several authors have developed measurement scales that can be applied to all brand types, including Doods, Monroe and Grewal (1991), Boulding and Kirmani (1993), Aaker (1996b) and Yoo et al. (2000). Even though overall measures do not capture the exact brand type characteristics, they are acknowledged in perceived quality research (Teas & Agarwal, 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco, 2005).

Table 6. Dimensions of Perceived Quality

Author(s) (Year)	**Brand type (category or scale)**	**Dimensions**
Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985)	Service brands	Reliability, responsiveness, competence, access, courtesy, communication, credibility, security, understanding/knowing the customer, tangibles
Bonner & Nelson (1985) (in Zethaml, 1988)	Product brands (food category)	Rich/full flavour, natural taste, fresh taste, good aroma, appetizing looks
Garvin (1987)	Product brands	Performance, features, reliability, conformance, durability, serviceability, aesthetics, perceived quality/image

(table continues)

(continued)

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988)	Service brands (SERQUAL)	Reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy, tangibles
Doods, Monroe & Grewal (1991), Teas & Agarwal (2000)	All brand types	Reliability, workmanship, quality, dependability, durability
Cited in Zeithaml (1988)	Product brands (beverages)	Purity, freshness, flavour, appearance
Boulding & Kirmani (1993)	All brand types (perceived overall quality)	Quality compared to a number of other brands, low/high quality
Aaker (1996b)	All brand types	Quality, consistency, leadership/popularity
Yoo & Donthu (2001a)	Online service brands (SITEQUAL)	Ease of use, design, processing speed, security
Brady & Cronin (2001)	Service brands	Attitude, behaviour, experience, ambient conditions, design, social factors, waiting time, tangibles, valence
Palmer (2002)	Online service brands (Web site quality)	Content richness, interactivity, navigation, organization
Lociacono et al. (2002)	Online service brands (WEBQUAL)	Usefulness, ease of use, entertainment, complimentary relationship
Koufaris (2002) (in Lociacono et al., 2007)	Online service brands (Website quality)	Usefulness, perceived control, ease of use, download time, responsiveness, shopping enjoyment, concentration
Yoo et al. (2000); Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco (2005)	All brand types	Quality, satisfaction, reliability, continuous innovativeness, quality leadership, appreciation, respect
Schumann et. al. (2010)	Service brands (banks)	Service quality, competence, experienced financial institute
Lociacono et al. (2007)	Online service brands (WEBQUAL)	Informational fit-to-task, tailored information, trust, response time, ease of understanding, intuitive operations, visual appeal, innovativeness, emotional appeal, consistent image, on-line completeness, relative advantage
Udo, Bagchi & Kirsch, 2010	Online service brands (Web service quality)	Ease of navigation, responsiveness, assurance, currency of information, other design qualities

2.3.2.4 Brand loyalty

Many academics emphasise **brand loyalty** as the core element of brand equity (Aaker, 1996b; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Yoo et al., 2000; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000; Clarke, 2001; Rios & Riquelme, 2008, 2010). Also, academics who do not consider loyalty to be among the brand equity elements emphasise that brand loyalty is a consequence of high brand equity (Keller, 1993; Na et al., 1999; Page & Lepkowska-White, 2002). Brand loyalty has been used as a measure of success in marketing strategy (Knox & Walker, 2001; Dong-Mo, 2003; Keller et al., 2008), since it enables marketers to charge premium prices, reduce selling costs, gain advantages from brand extensions, possess higher bargaining power and present a strong barrier to new entries (Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Oliver, 1997, 1999; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Gommans et al., 2001; Clarke, 2001).

First brand loyalty definitions emphasise that the fundamental indicator of brand loyalty is the amount the customer is prepared to pay for the brand versus another brand that offers similar benefits (Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Oliver, 1997, 1999; Chandhuri & Holbrook, 2001). In the earliest stages of brand loyalty construct development, academics even proposed rules to define the occurrence of loyalty. Among the well-known rules of thumb is a "three in a row criterion" which suggests that a consumer is loyal when three or more purchases of one brand in a row occur (Dong-Mo, 2003). Nevertheless, brand loyalty represents the attachment that customers have to a brand, which results in consistent purchases of the focal brand over time (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1987; Aaker, 1991).

Even though first brand loyalty definitions mainly emphasise the behavioural aspect of loyalty, the concept is broader than only purchase behaviour. Therefore, several academics have suggested that loyalty includes both **attitudinal** and **behavioural** components (Day, 1969; Jacoby & Chestnut, 1987; Keller, 1993; Baldinger & Rudinson, 1996; Morgan, 2000; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Attitudinal brand loyalty refers to the psychological bonds between customers and brands (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Assael (1992) furthermore stresses that attitudinal brand loyalty results in positive consumer attitudes towards brands and the outcome is consistent word-of-mouth engagement and steady purchases over time (in Rios & Riquelme, 2008). Attitudinal loyalty is assumed to be more stable than behavioural loyalty and is therefore seen as a better indicator of loyalty (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Shang, Chen & Liao, 2006). Moreover, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001, p. 91) propose that behavioural loyalty leads to bigger market share and attitudinal loyalty leads to higher relative price of a brand.

Furthermore, Oliver (1999, p. 34) characterises loyalty as a commitment to repurchase or repatronise the favoured product or service regardless of marketers' efforts to attract the consumer with other purchase opportunities. Oliver additionally (1997, 1999) defines brand loyalty in four stages: cognitive, affective, conative and action. **Cognitive** loyalty refers to the formation of favourable beliefs about a brand. **Affective** loyalty represents a higher loyalty stage and occurs due to satisfaction with a brand. Liking and brand attitudes develop at this stage. **The conative** stage refers to commitments and intentions to repurchase a brand, whereas the **action** stage results in constant brand purchases. In Oliver's (1999) view, consumers can become loyal at each stage.

In recent years, authors have emphasised that brand loyalty occurs not only in traditional, but also in online environments. Loyalty is considered the most important driver of brand equity online (Yoo et al., 2000; Rafig & Fulford, 2005; Rios & Riquelme, 2008).

Academics refer to brand loyalty in online environments as **online** or **e-brand loyalty** (Srinivasan, Anderson & Ponnavolu, 2002; Rafig & Fulford, 2005).

Trust and **satisfaction** have a significant effect on loyalty and have gained a lot of attention in brand loyalty research (Floh & Treiblmaier, 2006; Casaló, Flavián & Guinaliu, 2008). **Trust** plays a central role in enhancing both behavioural and attitudinal loyalty (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Several authors define trust as customer reliance on the ability of the brand to carry out its function and emphasise that trust is especially relevant in uncertain situations in which consumers feel vulnerable (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). Therefore, it is no surprise that trust is immensely important in online environments due to the absence of physical evidence online (Jevons & Gabbott, 2000; Gommans et al., 2001; Rowley, 2008; Rios & Riquelme, 2008).

Satisfaction reflects evaluations of products or other entities after their purchase. Oliver (1999, p. 34) defines satisfaction as pleasurable fulfilment of needs, goals or desires. Therefore, high perceived quality is an antecedent of satisfaction and hence loyalty (Oliver, 1997, 1999; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Kim & Hyun, 2011). The relationship between brand loyalty and satisfaction is asymmetric, since satisfaction does not necessarily lead to loyalty but loyalty is driven by satisfaction (Oliver 1999; Gommans et al., 2001). Aaker (1991, 1996b) furthermore emphasises that satisfaction is an especially powerful measure of loyalty for service brands, where loyalty is usually a consequence of experience. This view is also highly important for online service brands.

Previous research implies direct and indirect connections between brand loyalty and other brand equity dimensions. Brand awareness has been empirically proven to have an effect on loyalty (Rios & Riquelme, 2008). Brand loyalty is also a consequence of brand associations (Keller, 1993; Na et al., 1999; Yoo et al., 2000; Kim & Hyun, 2011). Furthermore, brand image has both a direct and indirect impact on brand loyalty (Yoo et al., 2000; Dong-Mo, 2003; da Silva & Alwi, 2008; Martinez et al., 2009). Perceived quality influences brand loyalty (Oliver, 1997, 1999; Aaker, 1991; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Kim & Hyun, 2011). Satisfaction and brand value act as mediators among the constructs (Oliver, 1997, 1999; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Kim & Hyun, 2011). Some academics have suggested that brand associations and perceived quality affect brand loyalty first and only afterwards affect brand equity (Yoo et al., 2000). In addition, a hierarchy of effects is assumed, where brand awareness and brand associations precede perceived quality and only afterwards brand loyalty (Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Cretu & Brodie, 2007; Kim & Hyun, 2011). These assumptions will be taken into account and researched further in our empirical study.

Brand loyalty is developed by engaging customers in multiple activities, where higher customer involvement results in higher brand loyalty (Trappey III & Woodside, 2005). Brand loyalty is significantly and positively connected to both offline and online word-of-mouth and customer reviews and recommendations (Srinivasan et. al. 2002; Rafig & Fulford, 2005; Casaló et al., 2008). Furthermore, a direct connection between both traditional and mobile advertising and brand loyalty has been proposed (Mylonpoulous & Doukidis, 2003; Dahlen et al., 2004). Nevertheless, the impact of both traditional and new MCs on brand loyalty is still a subject for further research, since it represents an underdeveloped field of study.

2.3.2.5 Brand relationship

Kotler et al. (2009, p. 815) suggest that today the development of marketing is centred on stakeholder relationships, consumer retention and consumer value stimulated by relationship marketing practices. Several leading academics have described **relationship marketing** as a paradigm shift in marketing theory and practice (Fournier, 1998; Kotler & Armstrong, 2000; Dall'Olmo Riley & de Chernatony, 2000; Kotler et al., 2009). Kotler and Armstrong (2000) define relationship marketing as a long-term marketing strategy whose goal is to deliver long-term consumer value. Kotler et al. (2009, p. 815) furthermore emphasise that successful relationships occur only when companies successfully deliver on their promises. Moreover, Muniz and O'Guinn (2001, p. 427) claim that relationship marketing theory will become reality with the development of brand communities, which have emerged to a great extent in today's environment.

Customer-brand relationship or **brand relationship** theory emerged with Blackston (1992), who stated that academics should focus on brand relationships to overcome the limitations of studying brand images. Blackston (1992, p. 80) claims that brand relationships are the logical extension of the concept of brand personality. Consequently, theories of brand love, brand commitment, brand satisfaction and brand trust as building blocks of brand relationships have received considerable attention from academics (Fournier, 1998; Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012). The brand relationship characterisation originates from the person-to-person relationships studied in personality research and social psychology (Smit, Bronner, & Tolboom, 2007, p. 627). The brand relationship is therefore defined as a psychological bond between the consumer and the brand, which is voluntary and enforced interdependently between them (Blackston, 1992, 2000; Fournier, 1998; Keller, 2001, 2009; Chang & Chieng, 2006; Tsai, 2011).

Fournier (1998) is one of the first to describe the building blocks of the brand relationship construct. On the basis of qualitative research, she proposes six dimensions that constitute the construct of **brand relationship quality**: brand love/passion, self-connection, commitment, interdependence, intimacy and brand-partner quality. The brand relationship quality construct is an extension of the relationship quality construct proposed in the marketing literature (Crosby, Evans & Cowles, 1990; Vesel & Zabkar, 20). Relationship quality in general refers to the relationships between organisations and consumers (Vesel & Zabkar, 2010, p. 1336) and is defined as an overall assessment of the strength of a relationship (De Wulf, Oderkerken-Schröder & Iacobucci, 2001; Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012). Numerous researchers have followed Fournier's (1998) conceptualisation, empirically researching the construct of brand relationship quality with diverse elements (Chang & Chieng, 2006; Smith et al., 2007; Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008; Vesel & Zabkar, 2010; Tsai, 2011; Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012). For a review of the literature on the dimensions of brand relationship quality, see Appendix A. Commitment is considered a brand relationship dimension by all researched authors, followed by brand love, self-connection, intimacy and partner quality, which were proposed as dimensions of brand relationship by five authors.

Brand commitment refers to intentions to behave in a direction to maintain relationships (Fournier, 1998). Morgan and Hunt (1994) define it as a desire to continue the relationship combined with a willingness to make efforts to do so (in Aaker, Fournier, & Basel, 2004). Smit et al. (2007) further describe brand commitment as a willingness to make small sacrifices. **Brand love** is defined as the feelings consumers have about the brand (Smit et al., 2007). **Intimacy** is by Altman and Taylor (1973) defined as a deep understanding of partners who can share intimate information (in Aaker et al., 2004). Intimacy refers to closeness between the partner and the brand (Smit et al., 2007). **Self-connection**, on the other hand, reflects whether partners have a lot in common and are connected through diverse self-parts (Smit et al., 2007). **Partner quality** is furthermore perceived as brands' possibility to act and be a partner or companion (Fournier, 1998). This reflects the way a consumer has been treated by the brand through the years (Smit et al., 2007).

Furthermore, Aaker et al. (2004) define the construct of **brand relationship strength**, which has nearly the same dimensions as proposed by Fournier (1998); therefore, it can also be regarded as a part of the brand relationship quality construct. Several other measures have been used for measuring brand relationships; **customer brand identification** (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Burmann & Zeplin, 2004; Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012) and **relationship investment** (Nysveen et al., 2005; Sung & Campbell, 2007; Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008) are among them. Customer brand identification is based on social identity and organisational identification theories and represents the extent to which the brand expresses and enhances customers' identity (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012, p. 37). On the other hand, relationship investment theory argues that a consumer's commitment to a relationship should be enhanced when the consumer is satisfied with the relationship, has no better alternatives and has invested a lot in the relationship (Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008, p. 447).

Breivik and Thorbjørnsen (2008) compare the brand relationship quality model, consisting of passion, self-connection, commitment, interdependence, intimacy and partner quality, to the brand relationship investment model, consisting of relationship investment, commitment, switching costs and satisfaction. The brand relationship investment model can determine both strong and weak relationships and thus can present a clear interpretation of brand relationships. While the brand relationship quality model needs additional modifications, Breivik and Thorbjørnsen (2008) conclude that the model has potential but should be examined further. Nevertheless, their study presents a further step in conceptualising brand relationship measurement. Smit et al. (2007) also investigate the brand relationship quality construct and find that brand relationships differ according to brand personality and brand type; beer and car brands exhibited higher brand relationship quality than computer or shampoo brands.

Keller (2001, 2009, 2010) also deals with the brand relationship construct in his proposed brand resonance model. Even though he considers brand resonance to consist of brand loyalty, attachment, community and engagement, in his further conceptualisation of the construct he proposes that brand resonance stands for relationships between consumers and the brand. Furthermore, he postulates that when considering brand resonance consumers and brands have to answer the question: "What about you and me?" (Keller, 2001, p. 17). Keller (2009) distinguishes among four types of brand resonance: brand loyalty, attitudinal attachment, sense of community and active engagement. Brand loyalty refers to repeat purchases or so-called behavioural loyalty. Attidunal attachment refers to consumers' perceptions of a brand as being something special in a broader context. Consumers express brand love (e.g. see the brand as a small pleasure) when attidunally attached to the brand. The next step is a sense of community, when consumers identify with the brand community and people associated with the brand.

In Kellers' conceptualisation, active engagement represents the strongest affirmation of brand loyalty and shows that consumers are prepared to invest more in the relationship with a brand than just money and time during the consumption process. Since Keller's conceptualisation of brand resonance also includes constructs of brand love and brand commitment, we can conclude that he considers brand relationship to be the most important element of the brand resonance model.

For the above stated reasons, we argue that there is no acknowledged universal brand relationship definition. Nevertheless, numerous researchers stress brand relationship quality as the most appropriate for measuring brand relationship (Fournier, 1998; Aaker et al., 2004; Chang & Chieng, 2006; Smith et al., 2007; Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008; Tsai, 2011; Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012).

Customer relationships are closely connected to CBBE (Leone et al., 2006, p. 128). Chang and Chieng (2006) are the first to focus on brand relationship as a part of CBBE measurement. They provide evidence that the brand relationship construct is enhanced by brand image, brand attitude, brand associations and to some extent brand personality and experiences. Their findings are important for our model conceptualisation. On the other hand, Lemon et al. (2001) provide a diverse conceptualisation compared to other CBBE measurements. They present three equities as building blocks of consumer equity: brand equity, value equity and relationship equity. In their conceptualisation of relationship equity, the relationships are seen as tendencies of consumers to go beyond brand assessments. Brand loyalty programmes and community building are proposed to enhance relationship equity.

Previous research implies direct connections between the brand relationship and other brand equity dimensions and sees the brand relationship as an ultimate marketing goal. The brand relationship is thus considered to be the final step of the CBBE model (Keller, 2001, 2009; Chang & Chieng, 2006).

Brand awareness is needed for relationship existence and therefore a positive relationship between the two constructs is predicted (Keller, 2001, 2009; Kimpakorn & Tocquer, 2002; Chang & Chieng, 2006; Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008). Furthermore, **perceived quality** is an important antecedent of brand relationship (Chang & Chieng, 2006; Chen & Hsieh, 2011); nevertheless, empirical evidence for this assumption is scarce (Chen & Hsieh, 2011). Several academics have proposed a positive relationship between **brand associations** (Aaker, 1996; Chang & Chieng, 2006; Chen & Hsieh, 2011) and **brand image** (Blackston, 1992; Faquar, 1990; Chang & Chieng, 2006; Chen & Hsieh, 2011) with brand relationship. Chang and Chieng (2006) show positive and significant connections between brand image and brand relationship quality.

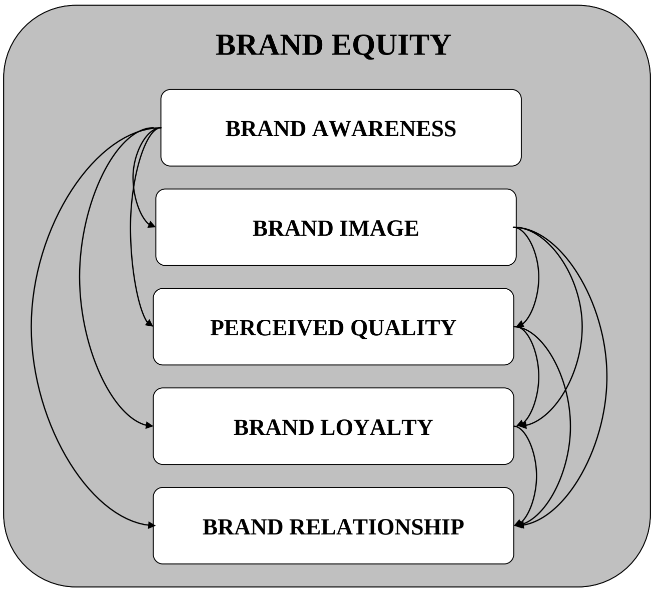
Furthermore, the **brand loyalty** literature is strongly related to brand relationship theory (Fournier, 1998). Researchers understand the connections among the two constructs differently. The brand relationship is understood as:

- **an antecedent of brand loyalty** (De Wulf et al., 2001; Vesel & Zabkar, 2010),
- **a construct that includes brand loyalty inside its sub-dimensions** (Fournier, 1998; Lemon et al., 2001, Kim & Ko, 2012; Aaker et al., 2004; Smit et al., 2007; Tsai, 2011),
- **a higher-level dimension of brand loyalty within other constructs** (Keller, 2001, 2009, 2010),
- **an outcome of brand loyalty** (Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou, 2013).

The authors primarily regard the brand relationship as a construct that includes brand loyalty inside of its sub-dimensions. Most researchers regard brand loyalty as part of the brand commitment (Fournier, 1998; Aaker et al., 2004; Smit et al., 2007; Kimpakorn & Tocquer, 2010; Tsai, 2011), brand love (Fournier, 1998, Roberts, 2004; Tsai, 2011), partner quality (Aaker et al., 2004), passion (Fournier, 1998) and self-attachment (Fournier, 1998). Others regard the brand relationship as an antecedent of brand loyalty (De Wulf et al., 2001; Vesel & Zabkar, 2010), the highest dimension of brand resonance in the brand resonance model (Keller, 2001, 2009, 2010) or its outcome (Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou, 2013). Based on these findings and the previously presented building blocks of brand relationships as outlined by several authors (e.g., brand commitment, brand love, intimacy, self-connection and partner quality), special attention will be devoted to the brand relationship building. In order to ascertain the brand relationship as a stand-alone construct, the brand relationship, constituting of the sub-dimensions of intimacy and self-connection, will be considered. These sub-dimensions have not been mentioned in any of the previously mentioned definitions that connect both brand loyalty and brand relationships. The measurement items for brand relationship and brand loyalty will therefore be carefully chosen and checked over before conducting the final study.

In summary, based on the literature review, the direct and indirect connections between the brand equity elements exist. The constructs are correlated and there is a hierarchy of effects among them. All articulated connections, presented in the previous chapters, are illustrated in Figure 10. The proposed connections among the brand equity elements will be tested in the dissertation using quantitative research and structural equation modelling.

Figure 10. Connections among Building Blocks of Brand Equity



3 IMPACT OF MCS ON BRAND EQUITY BUILDING

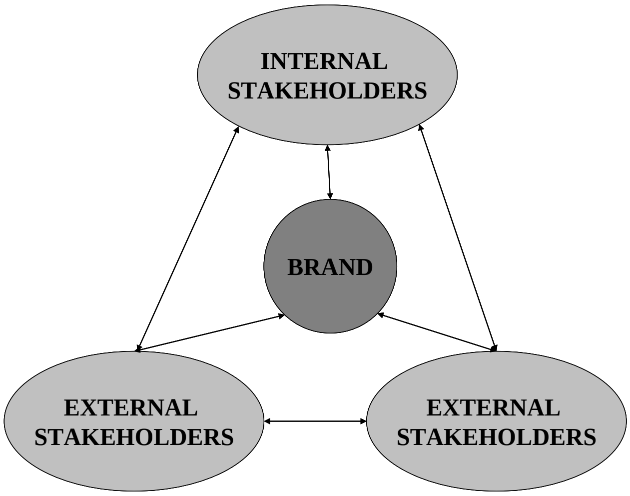
MCs are a brand's "voice" and the basic tool for creating brand experiences and establishing brand relationships (Keller, 2009, 2010); therefore, MCs are crucial strategic tools for building brands (Keller, 1993, 2003; Kitchen et al., 2004; McArthur & Griffin, 1997; Naik & Raman, 2003; Reid, 2003). MCs are important from both an **internal** and **external perspective**. Therefore, two views on MCs will be presented in the dissertation: brand managers' view and customers' view.

3.1 Brand managers' view about MCs

MCs have several important functions for the company. They enable linking brands to people, places, events, feelings and experiences (Keller, 2009, p. 149). They also contribute to a company's financial success by increasing sales and shareholder value (Luo & Donthu, 2006; Kotler et al., 2009; Keller, 2009).

Consequently brand managers see MCs as tools for building brands. There are diverse MC options available to brand managers, especially today as the environment has changed and marketers have accepted that communication does not travel in one, but rather many directions. Communications are seen to travel in four diverse directions: between the brand and external stakeholders, between external stakeholders, between internal and external stakeholders and between brand and internal stakeholders. These communications form the diverse interactions and diverse relationships between the brand and its stakeholders (Keller, 2009, p. 152). The varied directions of MCs are presented in Figure 11. One of the biggest challenges in this new environment is managing diverse MC options, since marketers cannot fully control them.

Figure 11. Diverse Directions of MCs



Source: Adapted from K. L. Keller, *Building strong brands in a modern marketing communication environment*, 2009, p. 152).

In the past, brand managers had an option to include five diverse MC tools in their integrated marketing communication (IMC) strategy. Today, these tools are regarded as tools of the **traditional MC mix**, which consists of **advertising**, **public relations**, **personal selling**, **sales promotion** and **direct marketing** (Kotler & Armstrong, 2001; Kotler, 2004). Most traditional communication tools do not enable marketers to create an interactive dialogue and build strong relationships with external stakeholders since they mainly travel in one direction (Winer, 2009; Keller, 2010). Therefore, in the 21st century, the traditional MC mix will not suffice.

The mass communications approach also seems to be a thing of the past. One-to-one and one-to-many interactions are available today to both marketers and diverse stakeholder groups in the digital environment. **Interactive** and **digital MCs** therefore have become important topics from the marketers' perspective (Winer, 2009; Hoffman & Novak, 2009; Keller, 2009, 2010). Digital MCs refer to communications and interactions between the organisation or brand and its customers using digital channels and ICT (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 124). With regards to digital MCs, the term **new media** is widely used in the literature (Shankar & Hollinger, 2007; Naik & Peters, 2009; Winner, 2010; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). Shankar and Hollinger (in Winer, 2009, pp. 110-111) divide new media into three groups: intrusive, non-intrusive and user-generated.

Numerous new media do not fit inside the traditional MC mix. Therefore, a **new MC mix** emerged which includes the following tools (Kotler et al., 2009; Keller, 2010): **advertising, public relations, personal selling, sales promotion, direct marketing, events and experiences, interactive marketing** and **word-of-mouth marketing.** Also, traditional MC tools have changed, with a plethora of new communication mediums available in the market. The above-described changes in the MC environment will be presented in the following part of the dissertation. The review of traditional and new MC tools will help us decide which MC tools are the most important in brand equity building.

3.1.1 New MC mix

3.1.1.1 Advertising

Advertising is defined as "any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services by an identified sponsor" (Belch & Belch, 1998, p. 14). Advertisements are often filled with elements that create brand differentiation and therefore have an important role in building brand equity (Aaker & Biel, 1993; Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Yoo et al., 2000). On the other hand, advertising contributes to building brand value and affects brand sales, market share and brand choice (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000). Since advertising effects are seen over a long time period and have negative effects on competitor brands, several academics consider advertising to be an organisation's asset (Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Keller & Lehman, 2006). In the past, advertising was communicated through four traditional mediums: television, radio, magazines and newspapers and place. Advertising through these mediums is today referred to as traditional or offline advertising (Leong et al., 1998; Yoon & Kim, 2001; Trusov, Bucklin & Pauwels, 2009; Okazaki & Barwise, 2011). In the digital era, new advertising mediums have appeared, including the internet and mobile phones and, hence, online and mobile advertising.

Television advertising is the most powerful advertising tool due to its high reach of the target market and mass coverage, as well as its effectiveness in demonstrating both tangible and intangible brand characteristics (Edell & Keller, 1989; Kotler et al., 2009).

Nevertheless, television advertising has a few disadvantages, including high production and overall costs, low selectivity, clutter creation and a short lifetime (Keller et al., 2008; Kotler et al., 2009). Also, television advertising has changed and today we must consider interactive television advertising tools, which require viewers' actions and are still under development.

Radio advertising is an effective MC tool for targeting diverse audiences. Other advantages of radio advertising are low production costs, high frequency and flexibility (Keller et al., 2008). The most evident disadvantage of radio advertisements is the lack of images, which can be somewhat overcomed by creative use of music and sound (Kotler et al., 2009).

Print advertising refers to advertising in newspapers and magazines. Print advertisements enable marketers to give consumers detailed brand information and are particularly efficient in communicating user and usage imagery; magazine advertisements outperform newspaper advertisements. The format of an advertisement, such as size, colour and illustration, largely affect its impact. Furthermore, print advertisements allow the use of coupons and achieve wide coverage. Nevertheless, they have several disadvantages, including a short lifetime, static image and lack of flexibility and audio effects (Keller et al., 2008; Kotler et al., 2009).

Place or out-of-home advertising refers to the use of untraditional advertising tools, aiming to complement more traditional advertising. Mediums used for place advertisements are diverse, from traditional outdoor billboards and posters, point-of-sale products (like in-store advertising on shopping trolleys) and product placements in TV shows, movies and videogames to unconventional places like classrooms. Place advertisements enable high flexibility and exposure and have low advertising costs and therefore present an interesting option for brand managers to reach their target audience anywhere, from shopping in their favourite supermarket to relaxing in their favourite vacation spot (Keller et al., 2008, pp. 249-250).

Online advertising, also regarded as web, internet or electronic advertising, emerged in 1994, when the first static banner was launched on Hotwired, the first commercial online magazine (Hollis, 2005; Nagar, 2009). Several online advertising tools are available for marketers. Winer (2009, p. 110) divides online advertising into intrusive and non-intrusive online advertising. Intrusive online advertising includes buttons, banners, skyscrapers, rectangles, interstitials and pop-ups. In contrast, non-intrusive online advertising includes streaming audio or video, destination sites and sponsored search or other paid links. To define online advertising tools, we will follow the definition proposed by Harden and Heyman (2009), who divide online advertising tools into online banners, interstitials, pop-ups, video advertisements and buttons and multimedia advertisements. Nevertheless, social media advertising should also be considered as one among many online advertising tools.

Online advertising differs from traditional advertising in several respects, since it enables unlimited delivery of information beyond time and space and unlimited amounts and sources of information. Furthermore, online advertising compared to traditional advertising allows interactivity and therefore encourages dialogue between the brand and its consumers and helps in building brand relationships Yoon & Kim, 2001, Dou & Krishnamurthy, 2007; Vorveld, Neijens & Smit, 2009). With the use of online advertising, brand managers can identify and target individual customers or markets and track and analyse individual consumer behaviour (Tsang, Ho, & Liang, 2004, p. 68). Nagar (2009, pp. 247-248) outlines as advantages of online advertising its costs, unlimited advertising space, unlimited number of exposures and ability to act as a sales or distribution channel. As disadvantages of online advertising he stresses clutter, trust issues due to the presence of unsecured websites and irritation due to the frequency of unwanted pop-up advertisements.

Mobile advertising, also referred to as **wireless advertising**, is most basically defined as advertising communicated via a mobile phone (Mobile Marketing Association, 2008, p. 23). The high penetration rate of mobile phones has resulted in increasing interest in contacting consumers via these devices (Tsang et al., 2004, p. 65). Mobile phones are highly personal devices. Consumers can be accessed via their mobile phone at any time and any place, which makes it an interesting medium for marketers, but also a complicated medium, since consumers do not want to be bothered with commercial messages on a daily basis. The first mobile advertising tool was short text messaging (SMS), which was introduced in the United Kingdom in 1992 (Trappey III & Woodside, 2005, p. 382). Even though short text messaging is even today the most popular mobile application (Caroll et al., 2007), companies can use numerous types of mobile advertising, including mobile web advertising, short text messaging, multimedia messaging (MMS), mobile video, TV advertising and mobile application advertising (Mobile Marketing Association, 2011, pp. 3-17).

Several authors have characterised mobile advertising as permission-, incentive- or location-based (Barwise & Strong, 2002; Tsang et al., 2004). **Permission-based advertising** refers to gaining a consumer’s authorisation to receive advertising messages. The objective of permission-based advertising is for consumers to have an opportunity not only to authorise but also to prevent receiving commercial messages (Tezinde, Smith, & Murphy, 2002). Permission marketing in the European Union (EU) countries is written into EU legislation and requires gaining explicit permission from consumers before contacting them with any mobile or online advertisement (Bamba & Barnes, p. 816). Numerous academics have highlighted **permission** as the most crucial factor in mobile advertising acceptance (Godin, 1999; Trappey III & Woodside, 2005).

Krishnamurthy (2001) stresses six factors that affect consumer willingness to give permission to brands: message relevance, special offers, and personalisation according to time, location, consumers' preferences and consumer control. Moreover, **trust** is considered highly important in mobile advertising (Okozaki, Katsura, & Nishiyama, 2007). Consumers gain financial rewards with **incentive-based advertising** by agreeing to receive diverse advertising messages (Tsang et al., 2004, p. 68). On the other hand, **location-based advertising** refers to communication with consumers at specific locations. Special location-tracking technologies, like Bluetooth and Wi-Fi devices, allow marketers to capture consumers with location-adopted mobile advertising messages in diverse locations (Unni & Harmon, 2007, p. 28).

Since our aim is to compare traditional and new MCs, television advertising as a traditional MC tool seems to be the most appropriate for comparison to the new MC tools because television advertising has had the highest impact on brands in the past. Therefore, television advertising will be studied more thoroughly in further chapters.

3.1.1.2 Public relations

Public relations (**PR**) gained ground in the 1990s with the spread of public opinion in the USA (Chase, 1994; Appelgate, 2005; Podnar & Golob, 2009). Public relations includes a variety of programmes to promote or protect a companys' image or individual products (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 744). PR helps brand managers build brand awareness, increase communication credibility and boost enthusiasm of internal stakeholders (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 746). Public relations are often used interchangeably with the term publicity. **Publicity** refers to non-personal communications such as press releases, media interviews and press conferences. On the other hand, PR includes events, lobbying, annual reports and fundraising and is a broader concept than publicity alone (Keller et al., 2008, p. 262). Academics therefore divide public relations tools into seven major groups: **publications**, **events**, **sponsorships**, **news**, **speeches**, **public service activities** and **identity media** (Varadajan & Menon, 1988; Kotler et al., 2009).

Public relations has experienced a huge transformation in the new media environment (Taylor, Kent, & White, 2001; Gregory, 2004; Kirat, 2007). Many tools have been added to the traditional public relations tools. The most important medium in public relations is the internet, which changed the balance of power between an organisation and its external stakeholders (Gregory, 2004, p. 246). The **website** is acknowledged as the most important public relations tool on the internet by practitioners and academics. It is used to provide information for both internal and external stakeholders. Moreover, websites are perceived to be a strategic public relations tool for strengthening brand relationships (Newland Hill & White, 2000, p. 42). Accordingly, most Fortune 500 organisations use websites to enhance public relations (Newland Hill & White, 2000, pp. 31-32). Kirat (2007, p. 170) suggests a wide list of tools that are available to strengthen brands' public relations on websites, including newsrooms, speech archives, news clippings, PR contact numbers, virtual tours, films, videos, press releases and their archives, news, company and executive profiles, online publications and visitors' comments and suggestions. Other tools for online public relations include electronic mail, intranets, extranets and CD-ROMs (Kirat, 2007, p. 166). Among the new public relations tools, Keller et al. (2009, p. 263) also mention buzz marketing or word-of-mouth marketing, where the importance of blogs and social media is emphasised (Porter, Tramell, Chung & Kim, 2007; Xifra & Huertas, 2008).

3.1.1.3 Personal selling

Personal selling refers to face-to-face interaction with one or more prospective purchasers with the aim of making sales (Futrel, 1992; Marks, 1997). The role of **salespeople** is crucial in personal selling, since they serve as a link between a brand and its customers. Salespeople therefore can create friendly and helpful shopping environments and serve as a valuable source of customer information (Yang et al., 2008; Keller et al., 2008; Kotler et al., 2009). Organisations employ a variety of selling tools, known as the selling mix. The traditional mix includes among the salespeople teleselling representatives, national account representatives and part-time sales forces and also includes selling through the use of partners (Moncrief & Marshall, 2005). Personal selling is the only MC tool from the traditional marketing mix that involves interactivity and two-way relationships.

Personal selling techniques have changed in the new communications environment. The internet has enabled salespeople to increase their productivity by providing a plethora of online services and databases to enhance sales and identify and build relationships with customers (Walsh & Godfrey, 2000; Buehrer, Senecal & Pullins, 2005; Long, Tellefsen & Lichental, 2007). Salespeople today use a variety of technologies, including sales force automation (SFA) and customer relationship management (CRM) technologies (Buehrer et al., 2005; Long et al., 2007). A new selling tool, **internet selling**, emerged with the advance of the internet (Moncrief & Marshall, 2005). **Websites** became the ultimate selling tool for boosting sales and connecting with customers 24 hours per day and therefore for brand building. Since salespersons' interactions with consumers are highly important to provide consumers with the promised brand experience and develop relationships, a well-developed internet selling website should enable interactions among salespeople and consumers. One option is enabling chat with a live salesperson during the purchase process (Poddar, Donthu, & Wei, 2009, p. 442). To assure this interaction, avatars appear in the internet environment, acting as online sales assistants to evoke feelings of human-to-human interactions (Keeling, McGoldrick, & Beatty, 2010). Academics argue that avatars do not need to be representations of human beings, since a non-human spokesman may in some cases better represent a brand (Stafford, Stafford, & Day, 2002; Keeling et al., 2010).

3.1.1.4 Sales promotions

Sales promotions consist of diverse short-term incentive tools that encourage trial or use of a product or other entity (Keller et al., 2008; Kotler et al., 2009). Sales promotions are used by brand managers to change consumer behaviour (Keller et al., 2008; Kotler et al., 2009). Sales promotions are divided into two groups, **monetary** and **non-monetary promotions**, and they vary in their objectives and also in their impact on brand equity (Buil et al., 2013, p. 3). Kotler et al. (2009, p. 738) divide customer sales promotion tools into thirteen categories: samples, coupons, cash refund offers, price packs, premiums, frequency programmes, prizes, patronage awards, product warranties, tie-in promotions, cross-promotions, point-of-purchase displays and demonstrations. Price-based promotions are the most commonly used sales promotion tools and are believed to have a direct influence on consumer buying behaviour (Peattie & Peattie, 1995).

Sales promotions have dramatically developed due to the progress of ICT, which enabled organisations to develop customer-responsive promotions in online settings (Chatterjee & McGuinnis, 2010; Gide & Riad Shams, 2011). Today, sales promotions enable organisations to target individual customers and personalise promotions according to their prior behaviour and online identity. Customers' registration and permission to use their data is acquired to provide effective customisation (Chatterjee & McGuinnis, 2010, p. 13). **Websites** are a primary medium for online sales promotions with an immense number of sales promotion tools available, including free gifts, coupons, discounts and free shipping (Hu, Lin, & Zang, 2003; Park & Lenon, 2009). Nevertheless, personal shopping assistants are available both on the internet and on mobile phones, suggesting that **mobile applications** are the newest medium for sales promotions available to marketers (Grewal et al., 2011, p. S45). Hsu (1998) argues that online sales promotion tools can be divided into three groups: cash discounts, commodity presentations and reward drawing activities (in Changchien, Lee, & Hsu, 2004, p. 38). On the other hand, Grewal et al. (2011, p. S44) divide promotions into **loyalty data-based promotions** and **online history-based promotions**, with respect not only to internet settings but also to mobile setting and kiosks. Their sales promotions conceptualisation is, according to our view, the most appropriate due to the latest developments in ICT.

3.1.1.5 Direct marketing

Direct marketing emerged in the late 1800s in the USA with the placement of direct response advertising in magazines (Silverstein, 2002, p. 20). Stone (1995) proposes that direct marketing concerns reaching the right people with the right offer, using the right creative approach and in the end being able to accurately measure the results (in Scovoti & Spiller, 2006, p. 89). There are many direct marketing tools, including direct selling, direct mail, telemarketing, direct-action advertising, catalogue selling and cable selling (American Marketing Association, n.d.). The main objectives of direct marketing campaigns are usually customer response or purchase.

Direct marketing has gained in interactivity due to the advance of ICT, since direct marketing activities have moved to online and mobile mediums. In the new environment, customers are asked to use specific tools such as a toll-free telephone number or a link to a website which enable marketers to trace their behaviour and store their activities in databases. Shultz (1993) stresses three aspects of direct marketing that are gained through interactivity: data availability, its capture and analysis, interactive offers and messages and evaluation of direct marketing activities (in Karson & Korgaonkar, 2001). Characteristics of direct marketing are its precise targeting, personalisation, immediate action, invisibility for competitors and measurability (Roberts & Berger, 1999, pp. 4-5).

Email marketing is a part of digital direct marketing tools and refers to direct emails and spams. Kotler et al. (2009, p. 129) argue that most internet users notice the difference between spams and direct emails from the companies with which they already have built relationships, which speaks in favour of using the email marketing approach with prior consumer permission.

3.1.1.6 Events and experiences

Events and experiences are regarded as the new MC tool by marketing gurus like Phillip Kotler and Kevin Lane Keller (Keller et al., 2008; Kotler et al., 2009; Keller, 2010). Even though events are seen as one of the major public relations tools (Varadajan & Menon, 1988; Kotler et al., 2009), they are an important part of organisations' integrated MCs and will therefore be regarded as a separate tool in the dissertation. Events and experiences are described as company-sponsored activities and programmes designed to create brand-related interactions on a daily basis or for special occasions (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 691). Platforms used to communicate events and experiences include sports, entertainment, festivals, arts, causes, factory tours, company museums and street activities (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 692). Some authors regard **event marketing** mainly as event sponsorship (Keller et al., 2008; Kotler et al., 2009), where the parallel among events as public relations tools can be drawn. On the other hand, authors like Cornwell and Maignan (1998, p. 5) warn that event marketing is more than just event sponsorship. They emphasise that two terms can be used when describing events; "*marketing with events*" refers to event sponsorship and "*marketing of events*" refers to organisations' communication tools that aim to enhance brand equity and boost sales (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998, p. 5). It is no surprise that events today are regarded as among the fastest growing MC tools (Sneath, Finnie, & Grace Close, 2005, p. 374) and as one of the most appropriate tools for brand building (Close, Finney, Lacey, & Sneath, 2006, p. 423). Events therefore enable brands to engage with their consumers and build brand community (Close et al., 2006).

Creating experiences has become a leading topic in marketing. With this new shift, terms like **experiential marketing** and **customer experience management** (CEM) have emerged, where CEM refers to the process of strategically managing a customer's entire brand experience (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 743). Chou (2009, p. 995) describes experiential marketing as "*experience centred relationship marketing*" and argues that brand relationships are reactions to previous brand experiences. Schmitt (1999) proposes five types of experiences: sense, emotion, intellect, action and connection (in Chou, 2009, p. 995). On the other hand, Brakus et al. (2009, p. 52) define brand experience as sensations, feelings, cognitions, and behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimulus. We believe the definition that describes the new MC tool of events and experiences most appropriately is put forth by Schmitt (1999), who describes it as an experiential marketing tool that focuses on customer experiences (in Close et al., 2006, p. 420). The main advantage of events and experiences is that they offer opportunities for brand interaction and relationship building. Kotler et al. (2009, pp. 710-711) also list among the main advantages of events and experiences their relevance, since they enable consumers to get personally involved, involvement, since they enable consumers' active engagement, and implicitness, since they represent the "soft sell".

3.1.1.7 Interactive marketing

Interactive marketing represents a paradigm shift in MCs (Duncan & Moriarty, 1998, p. 8). Interactivity refers to the capability to communicate directly regardless of distance or time (Simmons et al., 2010). Interactivity is regarded as the major differentiating characteristic of the new MC mix (Keller, 2009; Voorveld, Neijens & Smit, 2010; Simmons et al., 2010). Concepts connected with interactivity are active user control, two-way communication and synchronicity (Voorveld et al., 2010; Simmons et al., 2010). However, interactivity does not exist only in the digital world, since personal selling and telemarketing are also interactive, but not digital (Wind & Mahajan, 2001). Nevertheless, interactive marketing refers to **digital activities and programmes** designed to engage customers and directly or indirectly enhance brand equity and boost sales (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 691). Keller (2009, p. 147) lists websites, microsites, search advertisements, display advertisements, interstitials, internet-specific advertisements and videos, sponsorships, alliances, online communities, email and mobile marketing as just some of the interactive marketing tools available to both marketers and consumers. Furthermore, mobile marketing is growing in importance and has the potential to affect each brand equity element (Shankar & Balasubramainan, 2009; Keller, 2010).

Key advantages of interactive marketing include its interactivity, customisation, personalisation, up-to-date information, accountability and traceability (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 753). Keller (2010, p. 62) suggests that interactive marketing is not without challenges, since customers themselves define the rules of engagement. They control interactivity by selecting information, offerings and agents they are willing to accept and therefore marketers are loosing control over their communications. Several academics argue that the level of interactivity is directly connected to perceived levels of trust, which is of the highest importance in digital environments (Merrilees & Fry, 2003; Simmons et al., 2010). Academics also suggest that interactive marketing has a direct impact on each element of CBBE (Shankar & Balasubramainan, 2009; Keller, 2009, 2010).

3.1.1.8 Word-of-mouth marketing

Word-of-mouth (**WOM**) represents the oldest means of advertising communication (Dellarocas, 2003; Godes & Mayzlin, 2004; Goyette, Ricard, Bergeron & Marticotte, 2010; Chan & Ngai, 2011). WOM has been comprehensively studied in the past and numerous definitions of the concept have emerged (Goyette et al., 2010, p. 6). The most basic characterisation defines WOM as an informal and non-commercial exchange, flow of information, communication or conversation between two individuals (Goyette et al., 2010, p. 6). In the earliest research, Katz and Lazarfeld (1955) postulate that WOM is more effective than advertising and personal selling, a statement that has been verified over time (Day, 1971; Price & Feick, 1984; Murray, 1991). Researchers have furthermore examined the importance of social structures in WOM and postulated that the impact of WOM depends on relationships among consumers. The “weak ties” versus “strong ties” relationship conceptualisation was introduced by Granovetter (1973) and has been used by academics ever since (Godes & Mayzlin, 2004; Gruen, Osmonbekov & Czaplewski, 2006; de Bruyn & Lilien, 2009). Sources of strong ties are considered to be more influential than sources of weak ties regarding WOM creation (Brown & Reingen, 1987; Frenzen & Nakamoto, 1993). Many researchers emphasise that WOM has immense influence on consumer behaviour and brand evaluations (Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1955; Harrison-Walker, 2001; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Park & Lee, 2009; Goyette et al., 2010; Chu & Kim, 2011). Researchers regard WOM not only as a driver of consumer behaviour but also as an outcome and provide empirical evidence for this assumption (Richins, 1993; Bowman & Narayandas, 2001).

Prior to the development of the digital technology, WOM occurred only in physical environments. Today, WOM is also present in the internet-based environment and it occurs face to face or via other mediums such as phone, mobile, mail and interactive digital platforms. WOM in digital environments, called **electronic word-of-mouth**, also **online word-of-mouth** or **word-of-mouse** (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 704), occurs in numerous online platforms such as blogs, emails, consumer review websites, forums, virtual communities and social networking sites (Dwyer, 2007; Chu & Kim, 2011). Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004, p. 39) define eWOM as any statement made by a consumer about a product, company or brand which is available to crowds of people and institutions via the internet. Electronic WOM is a powerful tool because it allows marketers to reach, listen and talk to consumers to gain a better understanding of their needs, wants and purchase behaviour. It furthermore enables them to build long-lasting and strong relationships between brand and consumer. Researchers believe that eWOM has higher credibility, empathy and relevance than marketer-created content on digital platforms (Lee, Rodgers, & Kim, 2009). Furthermore, some researchers point out that eWOM is more influential than offline WOM due to its speed, convenience, reach and absence of face-to-face pressure (Sun et al., 2006; Phelps et al., 2004). Research furthermore reveals that eWOM affects online as well as offline purchase decisions (Godes & Mayzlin, 2004; Liu, 2006; Dellarocas, Zhang & Awad, 2007; Chan & Ngai, 2011). Even though the emergence of eWOM brought many advantages to marketers, it also put them in a difficult position because consumers' recommendations and warnings can spread faster on the internet than ever before.

Due to the appearance of word-of-mouth in digital environments, **word-of-mouth marketing** has become the centre of attention among academics and practitioners (Dellarocas, 2003; Sernovitz, 2006; Jaffe, 2007; Kelly, 2007; De Bruyn & Lilien, 2009; Rosen, 2009; Trusov et al., 2009; Kozinetz, de Valck, Wojnicki & Wilner, 2010). Today's marketers can actively manage WOM through targeted communication programmes which are later actively co-produced in consumer-to-consumer networks (Kozinetz et al., 2010, p. 72). Marketers are consequently able to influence consumer decision making (Dellarocas, 2003, 2006; Chan & Ngai, 2011).

Andy Serovitz, the chief executive officer of the Word-of-Mouth Marketing Association, stresses that consumers like to talk about brands and therefore the main challenge is to get consumers to talk about your brand (Ferguson, 2008, p. 180). The main aim of WOM marketing is thus to stimulate WOM about a brand from trusted personal sources rather than on an impersonal basis (Winer, 2009, p. 111). Personal sources present the most valuable and trustworthy information about brands compared to information provided by other means of communication (Shang et al., 2006; Winer, 2009). Nevertheless, even though WOM is informal and non-commercial, it is driven by MCs. This was revealed in the study conducted in the American market which showed that in 50 percent of WOM communications consumers refer to MCs (Keller, 2007, p. 451). WOM marketing can thus be defined as the planned act of influencing consumer-to-consumer communications by engaging in special WOM marketing techniques, such as **viral marketing**, **guerrilla marketing**, **buzz marketing** and **social media marketing** (Kozinetz et al., 2010, p. 71).

The term **viral marketing** was introduced in 1997 by Steve Jurvetson and Tim Draper (Phelps et al., 2004, p. 344) and is defined as an act of mutually sharing and spreading marketing-relevant information, initially sent by marketers to stimulate and capitalise on WOM (Van der Lans et al., 2010). The term viral refers to an initial message which spreads among consumers like a virus (Montgomery, 2001, p. 93). Marketers can use varied tools to seed viral messages, from online and mobile tools to offline tools (Ferguson, 2008; Van der Lans et al., 2010; Hinz et al., 2011). Hinz et al. (2011, pp. 55-56) outline four success factors for viral marketing campaigns: content, structure of the social network, behavioural characteristics of recipients and their incentives for sharing the content and seeding strategy. An important feature of viral marketing is its measurability since it enables marketers to accurately measure consumer behaviour and consumer actions when receiving a viral message (Van der Lans et al., 2010, p. 350).

Guerilla marketing was first introduced by Jay Conrad Levinson in 1984. When the concept emerged, it represented an unconventional marketing approach for small businesses based on a very low budget and relying on time, energy and imagination. Levinson's (2001, p. 7) definition of guerilla marketing as an activity of achieving conventional goals with unconventional techniques can be applied to all settings, since the concept was adopted by all businesses, from small operations to international organisations (Dahlén, Granlund, & Grenors, 2009; Kotler et al., 2009). Rather than functional brand attributes, guerilla marketing campaigns are based on emotional attributes. The objectives of guerrilla marketing are diverse, from enhancing brand awareness to creating brand relationships. Guerilla marketing techniques have enabled companies such as Red Bull to grow and become the most valuable brands in their product category (Baltes & Leibing, 2008; Dahlén et al., 2009).

Buzz marketing is defined as a means of WOM conversation, both online and offline, which is derived from a formal corporate strategy with a view to creating an impression of spontaneity (Goyette et al., 2010, p. 9). Carriers of brand messages are carefully chosen, since marketers reveal buzz messages only to a few selected consumers, who then spread the message; this is when the so-called "buzz" about a brand begins. With the buzz marketing technique, marketers provide incentives to buzz agents to spread favourable WOM about a brand (McCarthy & Fram, 2008; Goyette et al., 2010). Buzz marketing generates excitement, creates publicity and transmits new brand-related information (Kotler et al., 2009, pp. 703-704). The main objective of buzz marketing is thus to create brand relationships and enhance brand loyalty (Goyette et al., 2010). Buzz marketing is highly cost-effective compared to advertising campaigns; nevertheless, the main disadvantage of buzz marketing is that consumers may not consider buzz agents to be authentic and credible sources of information (Notarantonio & Quigley, Jr., 2009, p. 462). Notarantonio and Quigley Jr. (2009) therefore warn that although buzz marketing can be more effective than traditional advertising it can have adverse effects on brands when consumers recognise the true intentions of buzz agents.

Social media marketing refers to marketing through the group of internet-based applications that allow the creation of user-generated content (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p. 61). According to Kaplan and Haenlein (2010, p. 61), two concepts are connected to social media marketing: user-generated content and web 2.0. Social media or consumer-generated media refer to the variety of new digital tools where information is created, initiated, circulated and used by consumers to educate each other about brands, personalities and other issues (Blackshaw & Nazzaro, 2004, p. 2). Social media include a wide range of online WOM tools. Mangold and Faulds (2009, p. 358) divide social media into 15 categories; among them are social networking sites (like Facebook and MySpace), creativity works-sharing sites (like YouTube and Flickr), collaborative websites (like Wikipedia), virtual worlds (like Second Life), company-sponsored websites and blogs (like Apple.com and Vocalpoint by P&G), user-sponsored blogs (like the unofficial Apple Weblog), company-sponsored cause or help sites (like click2quit.com), invitation-only social networks (like ASmallWorld.net), business networking sites (like LinkedIn) and commerce communities (like eBay and Amazon), among others. Due to user-generated content creation, social media represent essential tools for establishing strong brand-customer relationships (Magnold & Faulds, 2009; Chu & Kim, 2011).

Among social media marketing tools, **social networking sites** (**SNSs**) have received considerable attention from both researchers and practitioners (Chu & Kim, 2011, p. 48). SNSs have become the fastest growing communications media in the world (Fogel & Nehmad, 2008; Morgan, Snelson, & Elison-Bowers, 2010; Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010). The first SNS emerged as early as 1997 with a social networking site called Six Degrees (Boyd & Elison, 2008, p. 212). Currently, numerous SNSs exist in the online environment; Facebook is the most extensively used, with more than 1.415 million users (Statista, 2015). SNSs provide a connection between companies and the target audience, since they allow companies to determine consumer behaviour and directly connect online with consumers (Demerling, 2010, p. 35). Electronic WOM in SNSs can be examined through opinion seeking, opinion giving and opinion passing (Chu & Kim, 2011). Researchers suggest that eWOM in SNSs enhances brand awareness and boosts sales (McCarthy & Fram, 2008; Demerling, 2010). Social networking marketing activities also create positive brand equity (Simmons, 2008; Simmons et al., 2010), but, nevertheless, the research about this topic is still in its infancy and researchers have called for further examination of how eWOM in SNSs influences brand equity (Winer, 2009).

3.2 Customers' view about MCs

In this chapter, we will present a process for how consumers react to diverse stimuli they come across in various marketer- and non-marketer-generated activities. According to the latest knowledge of how marketing decisions help build brands (Kotler et al., 2009; Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999), we present a consumer stimuli-response model (see Figure 12). The first step represents the problem recognition, which is stimulated by marketing or other stimuli, where MCs play a very important role. After consumers recognise the stimuli, they start to filter information, and both consumer psychology and consumers' characteristics play crucial roles. Only after consumers start to evaluate diverse alternatives does the CBBE model play a pivotal role and affect the actions consumers will take. Each stage will be presented further, with the main emphasis on the way consumers filter information gathered from the environment.

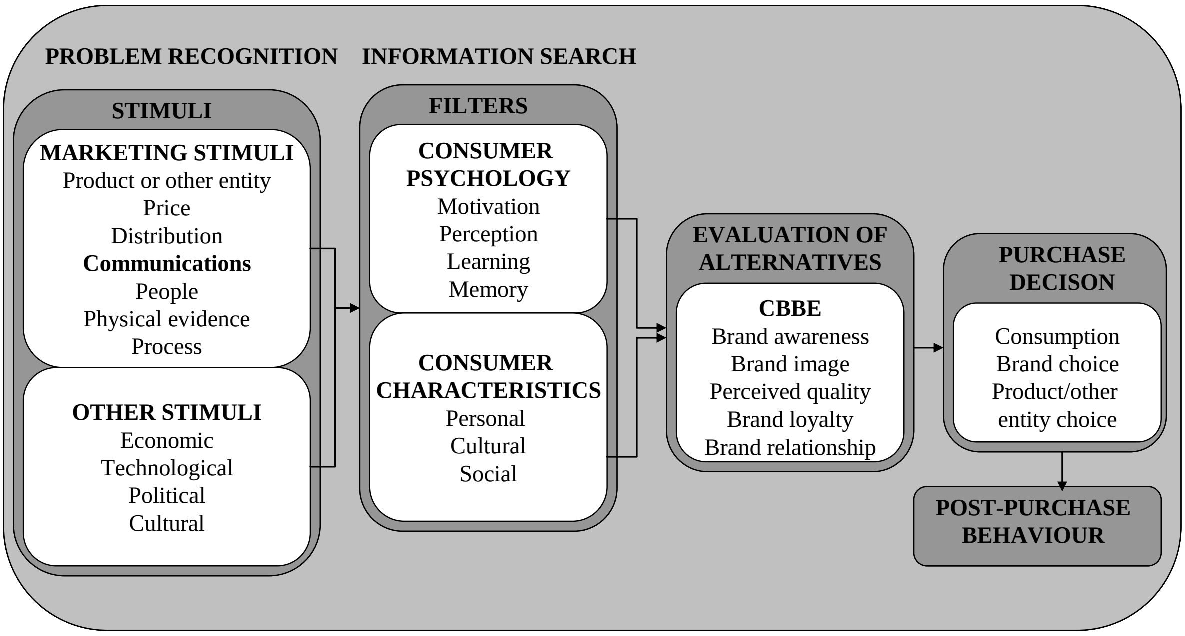
Consumers' brand perceptions are formed on the basis of diverse marketing **stimuli**, known also as contact points (Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Belch & Belch, 2004).

Marketing stimuli, like the product or other entity, price, distribution, **MCs** and others, have an impact on consumer brand perceptions and consumer behaviour. Moreover, such stimuli include not only marketing stimuli but also other **environmental stimuli**, like economic, cultural, political and technological stimuli that affect consumers' brand perceptions and brand choices (Kotler et al., 2009, pp. 237-238). When consumers get in touch with all the stimuli, they do not process all of them because the human brain does not have this capability due to the clutter of information received on a daily basis. Research has shown that people process only around seven bits of information simultaneously and therefore merge information into larger clusters (de Chernatony & McDonald, 1996, p. 73).

If we focus only on MCs, we can say that the majority of MCs reaches consumers when the consumers are not thinking about brands. Furthermore, consumers today are exposed to even more marketing stimuli than in the past because brands are trying to reach them not only in physical but also in digital environments. As a result, the majority of branded messages is not relevant to consumers at the exposure time (Ducoffe, 1996, p. 22). Therefore, consumers filter information in their brains and acquire and retain just the information that is relevant to them. Consumer personal, cultural and social **characteristics** represent one **filter**, since consumers acquire those brands that are perceived as similar to them and satisfy their exact needs and wants. The second filter involves **psychological factors** that are present in consumers' subconscious and have a strong impact on their reactions, since each individual reacts differently to diverse marketing and non-marketing stimuli. Four basic psychological factors that affect consumers are motivation, perception, learning and memory (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 238).

There are three well-known theories of **motivation**: Sigmund Freud's theory, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory and Herzberg's theory. **Sigmund Freund's theory** postulates that consumers are not aware of or do not fully understand their motives behind brand choice. On the other hand, **Maslow's theory** emphasises a hierarchy among diverse consumer needs. When the most basic needs, like psychological and safety needs, are fulfilled, consumers are motivated to satisfy higher needs, like social, esteem and self-actualisation needs. In contrast, **Herzberg's theory** divides needs and wants into satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Satisfiers must be present to motivate consumers towards purchase or other behaviour (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 238). There is a joint connection among all the presented motivation theories; all of them emphasise the importance of needs and wants behind motivation for acquiring brands. Consumers will acquire more brand information only when they are motivated and perceive that by acquiring the brand they can satisfy their needs or wants.

Figure 12. Consumer Stimuli-Response Model



Source: Adapted from P. Kotler et al., *Marketing Management*, 2009, p. 238 and D. Vakratsas and T. Ambler, *How Advertising Works: What Do We Really Know?*, 1999, p. 26).

When brand managers want to influence consumers' wants and motivate them to think about a brand, the consumers' reactions will depend on **perceptions**. Perception is the process by which people select, organise and interpret information to create a meaningful picture (Kotler et al., 2009). Since perceptions differ among consumers, from a marketing point of view, they are more important than reality.

Consumers' brand perceptions are influenced by two processes: filtering of information, which is known as perceptual selectivity, and categorising brands, which is known as perceptual organisation (de Chernatony & McDonald, 1996, p. 74). There are several stages in the process of **perceptual selectivity**: selective attention, selective distortion and selective retention (Evans, Jamal, & Foxall, 2006; Kotler et al., 2009). **Selective attention** postulates that consumers are screening only the most relevant stimuli and are not processing the non-relevant information. They are more likely to notice stimuli that relate to a current need, belief or anticipation and also stimuli that are larger than usual (Kotler et al., 2009, pp. 239-240). **Selective distortion** refers to the tendency to interpret information in a way that is consistent with prior beliefs and expectations (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 240). Selective distortion argues in favour of strong brands, since consumers will interpret brand-related information in a way that supports existing beliefs about brands (de Chernatony & McDonald, 1996; Kotler et al., 2009). In the following process of **selective retention**, consumers retain only information that supports their prior attitudes and beliefs. When the process of perceptual selectivity is completed, consumers start to organise the retained information. During the process of **perceptual organisation**, consumers group a large amount of information into clusters to reduce information complexity. This phase helps consumers organise competing brands according to their characteristics (de

Chernatony & McDonald, 1996, pp. 76-77). In the end, all brand-related stimuli merge into one brand message and therefore these messages must be consistent to avoid misunderstanding of the brand's focal message (de Chernatony & McDonald, 1996; Lee & Park, 2007). Much research evidence supports this assumption, especially from Gestalt psychology, which postulates that people perceive objects as an integrated whole of all stimuli and not as a sum of individual parts. The last stage in organising perceptions is "closure", where consumers fill the gaps in information which was not processed via the latest stimulus (de Chernatony & McDonald, 1996, p. 77).

The next stage is **learning**, which is primarily **based on prior experience** and is an important antecedent of consumer behaviour because most behaviour is learned. Researchers believe that learning is processed through the interplay of several inputs, such as drivers, stimuli, cues, responses and reinforcement. Furthermore, due to the learning process, consumers generalise responses to similar stimuli, known as generalisation, and at the same time recognise differences in similar stimuli and respond accordingly, known as discrimination (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 240).

All these stages affect how consumers perceive brands and how brand information is stored in consumers' **memory**. Cognitive psychologists believe that memory is formed as an associative model which consists of a set of nodes and links (Keller, 1993; Kotler et al., 2009). **Nodes** represent stored information and are connected through **links** of diverse strength. Cognitive psychologists distinguish between long-term and short-term memory. Information is stored only temporarily in the **short-term memory.** On the other hand, **long-term memory** consists of stored information and experiences gained over a lifetime (Kotler et al., 2009, p. 241). Long-term memory is extremely long-lasting and therefore information stored in long-term memory diminishes very slowly. Even though information is available in the memory, it may not be easily accessible and therefore strong reminders are required to retrieve the information from memory (Keller, 1993).

Although cognitive psychology and the associative network memory model are dominant in the marketing literature, one field is not covered in the theory, the unconscious processing of information, because cognitive psychologists consider only conscious information processing (Yoo, 2008, p. 3). Furthermore, several researchers have postulated that consumers do not need to process the whole message to be influenced by it (Dreze & Hussherr, 2003). Given that individuals can process information unconsciously, which is the general assumption of the majority of contemporary psychology theories, not only conscious, but also unconscious processing of information should be considered when studying the impact of diverse stimuli on memory and brand perceptions (Yoo, 2008, p. 3). Contemporary psychologists distinguish between explicit and implicit memory (Yoo, 2008). **Explicit memory** is defined as an intentional and conscious retrieval of information, which can be regarded as consisting of both short- and long-term memory from the cognitive psychology perspective. On the other hand, **implicit memory** represents the unconscious retrieval of information. **Priming effects** are the result of unconscious processing and can be measured by implicit memory tests, such as word completion (Yoo, 2008, p. 4).

Knowledge of the **existence of implicit memory** is of extreme importance when measuring the effectiveness of online advertising, since it is evident from the literature review that the majority of consumers does not remember or even notice online advertisements (Dreze & Hussherr, 2003; Shankar & Hollinger, 2007; Yoo, 2008). Indeed, consumers avoid looking at online advertisements and half of online banner exposure is not attended to (Dreze & Hussherr, 2003, p. 18). Only online advertisements that draw attention are processed consciously, whereas others are processed only at an unconscious level (Yoo, 2008, p. 4). Several researchers have provided evidence that even though consumers ignore online advertisements they experience priming effects from the implicit memory, which affects perceptions of the advertised brand (Yun, 2008; Yoo, 2008; Demerling, 2010).

The above-presented process has an impact on the way consumers see and evaluate brands, which has a further impact on consumer behaviour (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999, p. 26). The first MC response model was introduced by Joyce (1967) in the 1960s with an AIDA model (Argyriou et al., 2006, p. 580). The AIDA stands for attention (A), interest (I), desire (D) and action (A) (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). Later, numerous MC response models emerged, with the hierarchy of effects models dominating ever since (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999).

Vakratsas and Ambler (1999, p. 27) review more than 250 books and articles and suggest seven groups of MC response models, with five groups having hierarchy of effect models. In those models, MCs, especially advertising, are believed to influence cognition (thinking) or/and affect (feeling) or/and experience (doing) (see Table 7). The remaining two groups of MC response models do not assume any particular hierarchy. Among them are market response models, which are econometric models that typically relate advertising to consumer purchase decisions (like sales or brand choice). In the last group are hierarchy-free models, which suggest that MCs are a part of the brands' whole and where cognition, affect and experience are engaged simultaneously and interactively (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999, pp. 28-35). On the basis of the literature review, Vakratsas and Ambler (1999, pp. 36-38) propose a new space model where MCs' effectiveness is measured with experience (E), affect (A) and cognition (C) (EAC space model), with no fixed hierarchy but in a three-dimensional space. EAC space coordinates should be adjusted to the context, such as product category, competitive environment, marketing mix, stage of the product life cycle and target audience.

Table 7. Models Explaining the Impact of MCs on Consumers

Model	Notation	Sequence of effects	Examples
Market response	(-)	(-)	Advertising elasticity, carryover, response functions, reach and frequency
Cognitive information	C	“Think”	Advertising for search, experience and ambiguous goods, a signal for product quality, price sensitivity
Pure affect	A	“Feel”	Affective responses, ad likability, attitude toward the ad
Persuasive hierarchy	CA	“Think” → “Feel” → “Do”	AIDA, hierarchy-of-effects, innovation-adoption, ELM* etc.
Low-involvement hierarchy	CEA	“Think” → “Do” → “Feel”	Advertising for search, experience and ambiguous goods, advertising-experience interaction
Integrative	(C)(A)(E)	Not fixed hierarchy	FCB grid, Rossister-Percy grid, IIRM**, EAC space etc.
Hierarchy-free	NH	No hierarchy	Advertising process interaction

Note. A = Affect, C = Cognition, E = Experience, * ELM (Elaboration Likelihood Model), ** IIRM (Information Integration Response Model).

Source: Adapted from D. Vakratsas and T. Ambler, *How Advertising Works: What Do We Really Know?*, 1999, pp. 27-36.

On the basis of the literature review of Vakratsas and Ambler (1999), we can postulate that three stages of MCs’ impact have been acknowledged in all the research streams: thinking, feeling and doing. Furthermore, diverse product-involvement and diverse processing of information searches have been added to the models to distinguish among diverse purchase situations, like the FCB (Foote, Cone and Belding) grid (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999; Ilfeld & Winer, 2002).

The topic of how advertising works has been researched also from the perspective of practitioners in the paper by Nyilasy and Reid (2009), published in the Journal of Advertising. Nyilasy and Reid (2009) provided evidence that the practitioners views do not differ highly from the theories presented by Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) back in 1999. Two conceptualisations on how advertising really works are evident from the practitioners understanding: the persuasive hierarchy and hierarchy-free advertising effects. One group of practitioners stressed that there is a hierarchy among the advertising effects that consists of several stages: attention, awareness, rational attitudes, emotional attitudes, and behavioural responses. The main differences in the practitioners understanding is that the emotional effects are regarded as more important than the rational effects among practitioners; the academics disagree. The second group emphasises that there are only two steps: creating awareness and engaging consumers, both rationally and emotionally. Two additional understandings of advertising effects are emphasised by practitioners: the mutation of effects from the short to the long term, resulting in less effective advertising through time and a high importance of creativity in advertising effectiveness.

Based on the theories, the CBBE model could be understood as the hierarchy of the effects model. This model enables consumers to compare the brand equities of diverse alternative brands that can fulfil their needs and wants. Therefore, consumers evaluate different brands before making the final decision and purchase among one of the brands in their consideration set. Numerous researchers have suggested that the thinking stage should present the initial impact of MCs, since consumers cannot feel the brand or take action if they are not aware of the brand. According to this assumption, the CBBE model proposes that after consumers are aware of the brand they start to develop brand-related associations and form brand perceptions, like brand image and perceived quality. Furthermore, due to established connections among the consumer and the brand, both attitudinal and behavioural loyalty emerges and finally the brand relationship is established. Several academics have argued that brand communications engage consumers and brands and present the basis for establishing long-term brand relationships (Davis, Buchanan-Oliver & Brodie, 2000; Keller, 1993, 1998, 2001; Chang & Chieng, 2006). We can therefore claim that with the CBBE model a hierarchy of effects of MCs on brand equity elements is considered. Especially in the fist phase, brand awareness is considered crucial for brands' success in the marketplace.

3.2.1 Customers' perceptions of diverse MC tools

How consumers perceive and react to diverse forms of MCs has been an ongoing subject from the earliest marketing literature through the present. Many factors influence consumers' evaluations of diverse MC tools, as presented in the consumer stimuli-response model in Figure 12.

From the literature, it is evident that consumer perceptions of advertising have gained considerable attention among academics (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). In the past, academics examined consumers' perceptions of traditional advertising tools, with a focus mainly on television advertising (Larkin, 1979; Edell & Keller, 1989; Buchholz & Schmith, 1991; McNeal & Ji, 1999). Traditional advertising is losing its importance. In response, marketers are using a plethora of the available MC tools. In recent years, academics have focused also on other MC tools and the way they are perceived by consumers (Keller, 2009).

Duncan and Moriarty (1998) proposed that marketers should supplement mass communications with a more personal communication approach. They postulated that interactive communications are the basis for brand relationship building. Keller (2009, p. 141) outlined the importance of the interactive communications in brand relationship building. He postulated that there are several personal communication types that can be built, both online and offline, and that their special characteristic is in their interactivity. He proposes that direct marketing, interactive marketing, WOM marketing, and personal selling are personal MC tools. Therefore, Keller (2009, 2010) focused his recent work on interactive MCs and its impact on brands. He postulated that interactive marketing communications have an impact on all CBBE elements. In his new CBBE model, called the brand resonance model, Keller (2009) proposed that brand resonance is the highest branding objective. Brand resonance has four dimensions: behavioural loyalty, attitudinal attachment, sense of community and active engagement. The last two dimensions, sense of community and active engagement, are built through interactions among the consumers, the brand and other stakeholders.

The last ten years has seen a rising number of studies focusing on WOM marketing as one of the most interactive tools marketers gained with advances in technology (Chan & Ngai, 2011). WOM in electronic environments and how consumers perceive and react to eWOM messages are emerging topics in the research. How the marketer-based and non-marketer-based messages about products and other entities that can be found on diverse platforms, from branded websites to forums and social networking sites, are perceived by consumers is among the most important topics in MCs studies today. Researchers have agreed that eWOM has changed MCs to the extent that new theories are needed (Keller, 2009, 2010; Chan & Ngai, 2011). Consequently, the main focus in this chapter will be on consumer perceptions of television advertising, as it is still a very important traditional MC tool, and on eWOM, as a new interactive MC tool. Both are believed to be important to brand building today (Illfeld & Winer, 2002; Villanueva, Yoo & Hanssens, 2008).

3.2.1.1 Consumer perceptions of advertising

Numerous academics emphasise that advertising is the primary contributor to brand perceptions (Farquar, 1989; Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Danaher & Rossister, 2011). In the past, academics thoroughly researched how consumers perceive different types of traditional advertising, such as television, radio and print advertising (Larkin, 1979; Edell & Keller, 1989; Buchholz & Schmith, 1991; McNeal & Ji, 1999; Hsu et al., 2007). Their research results confirm that consumers distinguish between diverse traditional advertising tools and are even able to evaluate them. Furthermore, several authors have postulated the existence of synergies among diverse traditional advertising tools. Edell and Keller (1989), for example, demonstrate with laboratory experiments that consumers recall television advertisements when listening to radio advertisements. Synergy among magazine and television advertisements has also been found by Confer and McGlathery (1991) (in Naik & Peters, 2009, p. 290). With the concept of within-media synergies, academics suggest that brand managers should coordinate diverse MC options to increase their impact on consumers (Edell & Keller, 1989; Keller, 2003; Naik & Raman, 2003; Danaher & Rossister, 2011). Also, synergies among new and traditional advertising have also been found (Abraham, 2008; Naik & Peters, 2009).

Perceptions of advertising have been examined with diverse concepts. One widely examined concept involves perceptions of **advertising spending** (Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Kirmani, 1990; Yoo et al., 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sánchez-Franco, 2005; Chattopadhyay et al., 2009; Buil et al., 2013). People usually perceive that they can trust more highly advertised brands because they interpret advertising spending as a sign of brand owners' confidence in the brand (Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Kirmani, 1990; Moorthy & Zhao, 2000; Yoo et al., 2000). Also, the perceptions of the **frequency of advertising** have been examined (Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Yoo et al., 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sánchez-Franco, 2005; Chattopadhyay et al., 2010), which are highly connected to advertising spending, since highly advertised brands have both high advertising repetition and thus also higher investments in advertising (Moorthy & Zhao, 2000; Chattopadhyay et al., 2010). Therefore, high perceived frequency of advertising also signals brand confidence and simplifies brand choice (Chattopadhyay et al., 2010). Perceptions of the frequency of advertising have been researched both for traditional advertising tools, such as television and print advertising, and also on new advertising tools and online and mobile advertising frequency perceptions (Barwise & Strong, 2002; Chattopadhyay et al., 2010).

Perceived advertising spending and frequency have usually been measured with quantitative techniques, with structured statements evaluated mainly using Likert scales (Yoo et al., 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sánchez-Franco, 2005; Chattopadhyay et al., 2009; Buil et al., 2013). Several academics (Kirmani, 1990, 1997; Kirmani & Wright; 1989) have also used qualitative techniques such as experiments together with quantitative questionnaires.

On the other hand, a widely researched field is attitudes towards advertising in general and attitudes towards the ad (AAd). Several researchers (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; Ducoffe, 1996) have postulated that attitudes towards advertising in general affect attitudes towards the ad. Therefore, consumers' **attitudes towards advertising in general** should be measured since these attitudes are likely to influence consumers' exposure, attention and reaction to brand advertisements (Alwitt & Prabhakar, 1992; Schlosser, Shavitt & Kanfer, 1999). From the reviewed 28 articles (see Appendix B), 50 diverse attributes have been used to measure attitudes towards advertising in general. Among them only five have been used in multiple studies, informativeness (20 times), entertainment (11 times), irritation (10 times), credibility (8 times) and hedonic/pleasure (8 times), where the hedonic/pleasure attribute could be merged with entertainment (see measurement scales of hedonic/pleasure, Pollay & Mittal, 1993, p. 102, and of entertainment, Ducoffe, 1996, p. 28). Therefore, we propose that attitudes towards advertising in general can be measured with the four attributes of informativeness, entertainment, irritation and credibility. These four attributes have been used jointly in several studies (Brackett & Carr, 2001; Tsang et al., 2004). The other attributes used to measure attitudes towards advertising are presented in Appendix B. Attitudes towards advertising in general have been measured mainly with quantitative techniques using structured questions and evaluated mainly with Likert scales (MacKenzie

& Lutz, 1989; Pollay & Mittal, 1993; Andrews, Durvasula & Netemeyer, 1994; Schlosser et al., 1999; Millan & Mittal, 2010). For measuring attitudes towards the ad, quantitative techniques have mainly been used while most authors listed in Appendix C have used structured questions evaluated by semantic differentials (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; Kirmani, 1990; Buil et al., 2013).

From the early studies of attitudes towards advertising in general, it is evident that consumers hold favourable attitudes and perceive advertising as important (Bauer & Greyser, 1986). Later, with more and more clutter in advertising messages, several studies found that consumers had mostly negative attitudes towards advertising (Alwitt & Prabhaker, 1992; Ducoffe, 1996). Mixed attitudes towards advertising are evident today as consumers range from severe critics to advertising enthusiasts; furthermore, the results regarding attitudes towards advertising differ significantly among cultures (Andrews et al., 1994; Petrovici & Paliwoda, 2007; Millan & Mittal, 2010). Consumers stress that the ability of advertisements to provide information about products or other entities is important and therefore most consumers perceive advertising to be informative (Ducoffe, 1996). Furthermore, consumers perceive TV advertising to be entertaining, while advertising in print media is seen as more reliable and believable (Larkin, 1979; Bauer & Greyser, 1986; Ducoffe, 1996).

Ducoffe (1996) is the first to measure attitudes towards online advertising in general. The envolution of diverse attitudes towards online advertising in general are evident. Ducoffe (1995) reports that consumers perceived online advertising as somewhat valuable and did not consider it to be irritating; rather, they considered it to be informative and moderately entertaining. In their replication study, Brackett and Carr (2001) note some differences since students used in the study perceived online advertising as slightly entertaining and irritating. Furthermore, respondents in Nagar (2009) considered online advertising in general to be informative, entertaining, irritating and not as deceptive as television advertising. Just recently, an additional research topic has emerged, measurement of perceptions of advertising in social networks. Social network advertising is considered entertaining and informative (Taylor, Lewin, & Strutton, 2011, p. 267). Authors have also reported that consumers find it to be invasive and thus raise consumer concerns about their own privacy.

Only recently have academics focused on attitudes towards mobile advertising. Mainly negative attitudes towards mobile advertising have been reported (Tsang et al., 2004; Chowdhury et al., 2006; Bamba & Barnes, 2007; Peters, Amato & Hollenbeck, 2007). Nevertheless, Tsang et al. (2004) find that permission-based mobile advertising generates a positive attitude. Even though studies have shown that consumers perceive short message service (SMS) advertising as intrusive, they are willing to accept advertisements as long as they are relevant and provide them with some benefits (Trappey III & Woodside, 2005).

Entertainment and credibility have the major role in forming positive attitudes towards mobile advertising (Tsang et al., 2004; Chowdhury et al., 2006; Altuna & Konuk, 2009).

Attitude towards the ad (AAd) is the next measurement used to measure advertising perceptions. AAd influences brand attitudes and brand choice (Mitchell & Olson, 1981; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; Homer, 1990; Voorveld et al., 2009; Buil et al., 2013). Attitudes towards the ad have been used to evaluate concrete advertisements shown to consumers and advertisements that have been used in advertising campaigns prior to surveys. Numerous studies are centred on measuring attitude towards the ad and numerous attributes are used. We reviewed 45 articles studying attitude towards the ad. The most heavily used attributes include good (33 times), likeable (25 times), interesting (22 times), pleasant (18 times), favourable (12 times), informative (10 times) and irritating (10 times), believable (5 times) and appealing (5 times). Antonyms were mostly used along with positive attributes. For the list of reviewed articles, attributes and their frequencies, see Appendix C.

To sum up, perceptions of advertising can be measured in several ways. We believe that all three measures (perceived advertising spending or frequency of advertising, attitude towards advertising in general and attitude towards advertisements of the focal brand) can be used to capture real perceptions of the advertising of the researched brand. Further examination is needed to ascertain what measure is best when connecting advertising perceptions to brand equity. Perceived advertising spending and attitude towards advertising have been researched jointly in connection to CBBE elements only by Kirmani (1990) and Buil et al. (2013).

3.2.1.2 Consumer perceptions of eWOM

Due to the emergence of digital technology, consumers can communicate globally with hundreds of people about brands. The interactivity of new media has enabled consumers to become more than just passive recipients of information, allowing them not only to click on and read information that interests them but also to pass on their own opinions and co-create brand-related content which is visible to everyone using the internet on devices from computers to mobile phones (Dellarocas, 2003, 2006; Hill & Morgan, 2011; Chan & Ngai, 2011). In this environment, marketers must understand:

- What drives consumers to consume and produce eWOM?
- How consumers perceive eWOM content?

In their review of 94 articles researching eWOM, Chan and Ngai (2011) divide eWOM into **eWOM as input**, **eWOM as process** and **eWOM as output**. Since we want to grasp the consumer understanding of eWOM, eWOM input and process will be considered in this chapter. Chan and Ngai (2011) report that among the inputs of eWOM, writer's, reader's and marketer's motivations for writing or reading eWOM messages have been researched.

Researchers have found that **motivations for consuming eWOM messages** are mainly utilitarian, which means that consumers are either searching for advice before the purchase or consumption of a product or other entitiy (Hennig-Thurau & Walsh, 2004; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010).

Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004) found that what **motivates production of eWOM messages** are concern for other consumers, social benefits and economic incentives. To a lesser extent, consumers are motivated to produce eWOM messages when searching for advice. Researchers have also reported differences among consumers who produce eWOM messages:

- The first group, labelled *self-interested helpers,* is driven by economic incentives and is the largest group. Hence, concern for other customers was evident within this group of consumers.
- The second group, labelled *true altruists*, is interested in helping both consumers and companies.
- The third group of consumers, labelled *multiple-motive consumers*, has diverse motivations to produce eWOM messages, while economic incentives are least important for them.
- The fourth group represents *consumer advocates* who produce eWOM with the highest concern for other consumers. In this group are consumers with the highest education.

Phelps et al. (2004) examine consumer **motivations to pass along email messages**. Their findings imply that consumers report excitement, satisfaction and happiness and feel helpful when forwarding an email message. Email messages must be perceived as likeable and important for recipients to pass them along. Phelps et al. (2004) also find diverse consumer groups based on their motivations to pass along email messages. In general, they report two groups of consumers: viral mavens and infrequent senders. Viral mavens pass along a high percentage of email messages and also receive a high number of such messages. Infrequent senders, on the other hand, differ in their receiving or sending email messages to their friends. In general, infrequent senders will pass along an email only when the message meets their standards for relevance and quality. One group of infrequent senders receives low numbers of messages but sends out many. The findings suggest that marketers should rely on viral mavens and also on the exposed group of infrequent senders to enhance the eWOM of their brands.

Furthermore, Ho and Dempsey (2010) study **motivations to forward online content**. The need to be distinct from others and the need to maintain satisfactory relationships are the main motivations for forwarding online content. Contrary needs for belonging and control are not among the motivations to forward online content.

Also, **motives to participate in online communities** have been researched. Nambisan and Baron (2009) and Dholakia et al. (2010) provide evidence that consumers are motivated to participate in online communities due to functional and social benefits (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). Standing out in the crowd is one of the motives behind participation in online communities (Chiu, Hsu, and Wang, 2006). Sledgianowski and Kulviwat (2009) furthermore suggest that perceived playfulness and the volume of consumers in an online community are the highest motivations for participating in an online community (in Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010).

From the outlined studies, similar conclusions can be found postulating that among the main motives to produce eWOM are helping others and standing out in the crowd. These motivations differ from utilitarian motivations for consuming eWOM.

To address how consumers perceive eWOM messages, we need to focus on the eWOM process as proposed by Chan and Ngai (2011). The eWOM process was measured with eWOM message characteristics such as eWOM valence, volume, credibility, content, quality and usefulness. Also, platforms and systems used to generate eWOM content have been studied (Chan & Ngai, 2011). In this regard, note that eWOM messages can be perceived differently by different groups of consumers and can result in diverse reactions (Cheung, Lee, & Rabjohn, 2008). Nevertheless, there are some general reactions to eWOM messages.

According to the **eWOM valence,** consumers pay more attention to negative than positive eWOM (Park & Lee, 2009; Lee et al., 2009; Doh & Hwang, 2009; Cheung & Thadani, 2012). This finding is in line with the so-called *negativity effect* which is consistent among diverse situations and not linked only to eWOM perceptions (Baumeister et al., 2001). In their experiment with university students, Lee et al. (2009) find that extremely negative reviews had a greater impact than extremely positive reviews. Furthermore, even moderately negative reviews had a greater impact than extremely positive reviews, providing evidence that consumers pay more attention to negative reviews and that negative reviews have a higher impact on their perceptions and behaviour.

eWOM volume measures the total amount of eWOM (Liu, 2006). eWOM volume has a high impact on consumer behaviour (Bowman & Narayandas, 2001; Godes & Mayzlin, 2004; Liu, 2006; Rezvani, Hoseini & Samadzadeh, 2012; Tsao & Ming-Tsang, 2012; Cheung & Tidani, 2012). Nevertheless, higher eWOM volume does not always mean a higher impact on consumer behaviour. Sher and Lee (2009) report that the impact of eWOM volume can be moderated by scepticism. Furthermore, Park, Lee and Ham (2007) provide evidence that the perceptions of eWOM volume differ according to the receivers' characteristics and involvement.

Contrary to eWOM valence and volume, eWOM quality and credibility are more difficult for consumers to evaluate (Chaterjee, 2001; Lee & Joun, 2009).

eWOM quality refers to the degree of relevance and usefulness of eWOM (Neveen & Ragowsky, 2008). Chaterjee (2001) postulates that determining the quality of eWOM is difficult because consumers are aware of marketers' intentions behind the eWOM. Therefore, consumers often search for diverse cues to determine eWOM quality (Lee & Joun, 2009). Among these cues are platforms used for eWOM (Lee & Joun, 2009), eWOM volume (Neveen & Ragowsky, 2008), eWOM credibility (Nabi & Hendriks, 2003; Colliander & Dahlén, 2011) and perceived communication benefit (Neveen & Ragowsky, 2008), among others. Neveen and Ragowsky (2008) postulate that consumers perceive eWOM quality as higher when there are numerous responses from other consumers to a subject matter and therefore eWOM quality and volume should be positively connected. Several studies propose that eWOM quality perceptions differ across gender (Gefen & Ridgins, 2005; Neveen & Ragowsky, 2008).

eWOM credibility can be defined as the extent to which consumers perceive information as believable, true or factual (Nabi & Hendriks, 2003; Cheung et al., 2009). The question of eWOM credibility arises with the unlimited and unfiltered amount of eWOM messages that can be found online. Consumers consider only those eWOM messages they consider credible (Cheung et al., 2009; Colliander & Dahlén, 2011). eWOM credibility is therefore one of the most important factors of eWOM adoption (Cheung et al., 2009). eWOM provided by more relevant sources is perceived to be more credible and useful (Cheung et al., 2009; Wu & Wang, 2010; Colliander & Dahlén, 2011).

Researchers have also focused on **eWOM platforms**, which can be divided into marketer-generated and non-marketer-generated platforms. eWOM platforms can be used as cues for determining eWOM quality and eWOM credibility (Xue & Phelps, 2004; Lee & Joun, 2009). eWOM on marketer-generated websites can be perceived by consumers as highly influenced by marketers and hence also with hidden intentions to sell products or other entities (Xue & Phelps, 2004; Lee & Joun, 2009). eWOM on non-marketer-generated platforms can therefore be seen as more authentic (Xue & Phelps, 2004; Colliander & Dahlén, 2011). However, some findings postulate that the eWOM on marketer-generated and non-marketer-generated platforms does not differ regarding the product or other entity judgment. Lee and Joun (2009) find in their study that consumers perceive with the highest suspicion eWOM posted on personal blogs and therefore are less likely to recommend a product or other entity which is exposed on a personal blog versus those exposed on independent product review sites or even brand websites. In contrast, in their study of personal blogs, Colliander and Dahlén (2011) find the opposite, suggesting that information on blogs compared to information posted in online magazines is more credible since consumers may form special relationships with bloggers. Based on these mixed findings, eWOM on diverse platforms and its impact on brands should be examined further.

How to measure eWOM has been a subject of importance in recent scientific literature. Measuring WOM in electronic environments has to some extent adapted the measures of WOM in traditional settings. By the 1950s, researchers had started to study consumers' comprehension of WOM in traditional offline environments. The earliest WOM effectiveness study by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) was survey-based and followed by more than 70 studies measuring WOM with self-reports or surveys (in Trusov, Bucklin, & Pauwels, 2009, p. 91). Nevertheless, only a few studies have used multiple-item measures, since the majority has not focused on WOM as a primary object of study (Harrison-Walker, 2001; Goyette et al., 2010). Authors have measured WOM in offline environments with both open and structured questions. Open questions included direct questions like: "How many people did you tell?" (Bowman & Narayandas, 2001). Even though most of the studies are unidimensional, they focused on several aspects of WOM, including WOM valence (Swan & Oliver, 1989; Richins, 1983), WOM intentions (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996; Bowman & Narayandas, 2001; Cho & Rutherford, 2011), opinion leadership and opinion seeking (Harrison-Walker, 2001), WOM volume (Van den Bulte & Lilien, 2001, 2003; Harrison-Walker, 2001) and WOM content (Bone, 1992).

Several approaches can be used to grasp what consumers are saying about the brand in online environments and therefore diverse research techniques have been employed. These studies differ from those measuring WOM in traditional environments. An example is **content analysis** via an automatic computing system which has been used extensively by both practitioners (like Nielsens' BuzzMetrics) and academics (Godes & Mayzlin, 2004; Andreassen & Streukens, 2009; Simmons et al., 2011). Content analysis is a technique for analysing visual or verbal data with an aim to objectively quantifying the content of communication between a sender and a receiver (Harwood & Garry, 2003). The main criticism of content analysis involves its subjectivity (Harwood & Garry, 2003, p. 484).

The **online ethnography** or **netnography** approach is the most commonly used by academics in varied online platforms, including SNSs, blogs and forums (Andreassen & Streukens, 2009; Kozinetz et al., 2010). Even though netnography allows researchers to grasp real eWOM conversations and consumer behaviour, the technique does not allow for generalising findings outside the researched communities or for generalisation techniques that are difficult to employ (Kozinets, 2002, p. 62). Furthermore, subjectivity also remains an issue in netnographic research (Chan & Ngai, 2011).

Experiments in online environments regarding eWOM research have also been used by academics (Senecal & Nantel, 2004; Lee et al., 2009). Many important findings came from experiments, like those of the impact of negative reviews versus extremely positive reviews on brands (Lee et al., 2009).

On the other hand, researchers have also focused on **quantitative research**, adapting WOM measurement scales for offline settings to online environments. The literature review reveals that articles dealing with eWOM measurement using measurement scales are emerging. Measures of eWOM have focused on measuring eWOM in diverse settings, including SNSs (Chu & Kim, 2011), forums (Gruen et al., 2006) and reviews and recommendations (Chen & Xie, 2008). Researchers have also focused on measuring eWOM in general (Sun et al., 2006; Goyette et al., 2010).

Academics have measured **eWOM as input**, **process** and **output** to understand consumers' view of WOM marketing (Chan & Ngai, 2011, p. 494). A review of articles in which measurement scales are proposed for eWOM inputs, process and outputs is presented in Table 8.

Table 8. eWOM Measurement Scales

Author(s), (Year)	**Journal**	**eWOM dimensions (Nr of items)**	**Type of scales**	**Brand type**
Srinivasan et al. (2002)	Journal of Retailing	Community¹ (5), eWOM² (4)	Likert scale	S
Sun et al. (2006)	Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication	Online opinion leadership¹ (8), Online opinion seeking¹ (8), Online forwarding¹ (6), Online chatting¹ (5)	Likert scale	S (music)
Gruen et al. (2006)	Journal of Business Research	eWOM as loyalty intention³	Likert scale	P
van Dolen et al. (2007)	Journal of Retailing	Positive eWOM² (2)	Likert scale	S (chat service)
Casaló et al. (2008)	International Journal of Bank Marketing	Positive eWOM² (2)	Likert scale	S (website)
Neveen & Ragowsky (2008)	Journal of Management Information System	eWOM quality² (3), motivation to participate in eWOM¹ (2), perceived usefulness² (8), responsive participation² (4)	Likert scale	P (reviews)
Cheung et al. (2009)	International Journal of Electronic Commerce	eWOM strength² (4), Source credibility² (4), Confirmation of prior believe² (3), eWOM consistency² (2), eWOM rating² (3), eWOM credibility² (3), eWOM adoption³ (5)	Likert scale	S (forum)
Dahlén et al. (2009)	Journal of Consumer Marketing	eWOM intention¹ (1)	Unstructured	P (diverse categories), S (airline)

(table contuniues)

(continued)

Goyette et al. (2010)	Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences	eWOM intensity² (3), Positive valence WOM² (6), Negative valence WOM² (2), WOM content² (8)	Likert scale	S (online service companies)
Wu & Wang (2010)	Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics	eWOM appeal² (2), eWOM source credibility² (10)	Likert scale, semantic differential	P (shampoo, notebook)
Bambauer-Sachse & Magnold (2011)	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	eWOM persuasiveness² (2), eWOM credibility² (2), eWOM suspectibility² (4)	Likert scale	P (computers, cameras)
Chu & Kim (2011)	International Journal of Advertising	Opinion seeking¹ (3), Opinion giving¹ (3), Opinion passing¹ (3)	Likert scale	P

Note. P – product brand, S - service brand, C – corporate brand, D – destination brand, ¹ - eWOM as input, ² - eWOM as process, ³ - eWOM as output.

Source: Adapted by Y. Y. Y. Chan and E. W. T. Ngai, Conceptualizing electronic word-of-mouth activity: An input-process-output perspective, 2011 and above cited sources.

Measurement of **inputs** of WOM in digital environments broadened WOM measures from opinion leadership and opinion seeking (Srinivasan et al., 2002; Sun et al., 2006; Chu & Kim, 2011) to opinion giving and passing (Sun et al., 2006; Chu & Kim, 2011) and eWOM intention (Dahlén et al., 2009; Chu & Kim, 2011).

Electronic WOM **process** measures mainly refer to the eWOM message, which is the core of the eWOM process (Chan & Ngai, 2011, p. 495). Measurement scales for electronic WOM valence (Srinivasan, et al., 2002; van Dolen et al., 2007; Casaló et al., 2008; Goyette et al., 2010), content (Goyette et al., 2010), credibility (Cheung et al., 2009; Wu & Wang, 2010; Bambauer-Sachse & Magnold, 2011), quality (Neveen & Ragowsky, 2008), strength (Cheung et al., 2009) and others have been proposed. According to the literature review, process measures have prevailed, with most studies focusing on eWOM valence (see Table 8).

Furthermore, measurement scales for measuring the **consequences** of eWOM have suggested measuring eWOM adoption (Cheung et al., 2009). Nevertheless, among the proposed measurement scales, only a few have followed the procedure for systematically developing and empirically validating scales as proposed Churchill (1979) and Anderson and Gerbing (1988) (in Goyette et al., 2010).

For the purpose of measuring eWOM perceptions and eWOM's impact on brands, eWOM inputs and eWOM process measures seem to be the most important. Therefore, we will focus on eWOM opinion seeking, opinion giving and opinion passing measures as proposed by Chu and Kim (2011). Furthermore, we will also focus on the eWOM message. Since eWOM quality and eWOM credibility are highly important, we will employ these two constructs to measure eWOM messages.

3.2.2 Meaning and impact of new MC tools in brand equity formation

Due to the changes in the marketing environment, exact effects of new MC tools on brand equity formation are poorly examined in the scientific literature. The majority of studies focused on traditional advertising, since advertising is perceived to be one of the most important MC tools in the process of CBBE building (Aaker & Beal, 1993; Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995). Only in recent years academics focused on researching the effects of new MC tools on brand equity building, but the research of this topic is still in its infancy (Trappey III & Woodside, 2005; Keller & Lehmann, 2003; Mylonopoulos & Doukidis, 2003; Chattopadhyay et al.; Keller, 2010). Chattopadhyay et al. (2010, p. 175) are the only authors who researched jointly the impact of few new and traditional MC tools on CBBE. The study of Chattopadhyay et al. (2010) covers perceptions of print, television, online and mobile advertising and their impact on CBBE. Other authors mainly focused only on researching one new MC tool and its effects on brands.

Due to the underlying facts, Keller (2010, pp. 62-68) emphasises the lack of incisive connections between the new MC mix and its effect on brand equity and questions whether it is necessary to develop new brand knowledge and meaning theory to understand the effects of new media on brand equity. In their review of articles covering eWOM, Chan and Ngai (2011, p. 507) also call for further research on this topic, where they especially mention the limited number of studies on the impact of eWOM on brands. As a result, the impact of the new MCs on brand equity will be examined in this dissertation, with a focus on WOM in electronic environments. We will compare the effects of traditional advertising, namely, television advertising, and eWOM on brand equity to determine whether the impact of traditional and new MCs on CBBE differs and how.

3.2.2.1 Impact of traditional advertising on brand equity formation

Advertising is believed to influence brand equity to a greater extent than any other MC tool. Academics therefore have emphasised the important role of advertising in building **brand awareness** (Rossiter & Percy, 1987; Yoo et al., 2000; Ind & Riondino, 2001). Several academics have argued that advertising focused on verifiable attributes, such as price and physical characteristics, influences brand associations (Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Keller, 1991). Furthermore, positioning advertising is also believed to create brand associations (Aaker & Shansby, 1982; Simon & Sullivan, 1993). Therefore, advertising plays an important role in creating **brand associations** and **brand image** (Biel, 1992; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000; Toncar & Munch, 2001; Dahlén et al., 2004). Academics also postulate that advertising affects brand equity through **perceived quality,** since heavy advertising enhances perceived quality for experience goods (Milgrom & Roberts, 1986; Simon & Sullivan, 1993). Most authors have focused on advertising spending and its impact on perceived quality (Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Kirmani, 1990) and found positive relationships among them. A direct connection between traditional advertising and **brand loyalty** has also been proposed (Mylonpoulous & Doukidis; 2003; Dahlen et. al, 2004; Yoo et al., 2000; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000). No articles evident in the literature examine the impact of traditional advertising on brand relationship.

Since customers' perceptions about marketing activities are thought to be more important than actual marketing activities (Kimani & Wright, 1989; Kirmani, 1990; Biel, 1992; Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Duncan & Moriarty, 1998; Yoo et al., 2000; Chattopadhyay et al., 2009), academics have mainly focused on perceived **advertising spending** and perceived **frequency of advertising** and its impact on CBBE (Kirmani, 1990; Boulding, Lee, & Staelin 1994; Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Yoo et al., 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sánchez-Franco, 2005; Chattopadhyay et al., 2009; Chattopadhyay et al., 2010). Therefore, we will also focus on the television advertising spending construct. Several studies have shown positive correlations between advertising spending and CBBE elements. From the literature review, we can conclude that connections between advertising and perceived quality and brand awareness have been thoroughly examined. Nevertheless, only a few studies have examined the impact of advertising spending on brand image and brand loyalty. As early as the 1990s, Biel (1993) reports a need for research about brand image and its relation to consumer preferences (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995) and research on this topic is still needed. Furthermore, none of the studies has examined the impact of perceived advertising on brand relationships, which will be one of the aims of this study (see Table 9).

Table 9. Empirically Proven Connections between Advertising and Brand Equity Elements

Author(s) (Year)	**Measures**	**Brand awareness**	**Brand image**	**Perceived quality**	**Brand loyalty**	**Brand relationship**
Johnson (1984)	AD spending				x	
Kirmani & Wright (1989)	AD spending			x		
Kirmani (1990)	AD spending			x		
Kirmani (1990)	AAd			x		
Light (1990) (in Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995)	AD spending			x		
Krishnan & Chakravarti (1993/ 2003)	Ad awareness	x/x	x/x (Ass)			
Cobb-Walgren et al. (1995)	AD spending (from data)	x	x (Ass)	x		
Homer (1995)	AD size	x		x		
Homer (1995)	AD spending			x		
Yoo et al. (2000)	AD spending			x	x	
Eagle & Kitchen (2000)	AD effects	x	x (Ass)	x	x	
Ilfeld & Winer (2002)	AD spending (real data)	x				
Dahlén et al., (2004)	AD recall		x			

(table continues)

(continued)

Trappey & Woodside (2005)	AD perceptions	x			x	
Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco (2005)	AD spending	x	x	x		
Chattopadhyay et al. (2009)	AD frequency	x				
Chattopadhyay et al. (2010)	AD frequency (TV)	x		x (1st time buyers only)		
Buil et al. (2013)	AD spending	x**				
Buil et al. (2013)	AAd	x**	x** (Ass)	x**		
Total		**12**	**6**	**11**	**4**	**0**

Note. AD = advertising, Ad = advertisement, AAd = Attitude toward the advertisement, (Ass) = Associations
* = p < 0.1, ** = p < 0.05, *** = x < 0.01.

Kirmani (1990, 1997) suggests that **attitude towards the ad (AAd)** affects one brand equity dimension, perceived quality. Only recently have attitude towards the ad of the focal brand and its impact on other brand equity elements been examined. A pioneering study in this regard is Buil et al. (2013), who show that attitude towards the ad is extremely important in building brand equity. Positive and significant effects of attitude towards the ad on brand awareness, perceived quality and brand associations exist (Buil et al., 2013). Moreover, attitude towards the ad influenced brand equity elements to a greater extent than perceived advertising spending (Buil et al., 2013, p. 1). Since only one published study has combined attitude towards the ad and brand equity elements, we believe further studies should examine this connection.

3.2.2.2 Impact of eWOM on brands

WOM in electronic environments and its impact on brands has become a hot research topic. This is evident from the literature review from Chan and Ngai (2011), who find that most articles concerning eWOM have focused on eWOM outcomes, especially the impact of eWOM on sales, purchase, brand attitude and purchase decisions (Chan & Ngai, 2011; Cheung & Thadani, 2012).

In the studies that focused on the impact of eWOM on **brand attitudes**, researchers have focused on the impact of eWOM valence (Lee et al., 2009; Doh & Hwang, 2009; Wu & Wang, 2010). In their study of students, Lee et al. (2009) report that negative eWOM leads to more negative brand attitudes, while postitive eWOM leads to more favourable brand attitudes. Wu and Wang (2010) prove that positive eWOM with high message source credibility has a more positive impact on brand attitudes than eWOM messages with lower source credibility. Furthermore, Doh and Hwang (2009) provide similar evidence but also report that some negative eWOM does not harm brand attitude, but even enhances positive brand attitudes. Therefore, they propose that only positive eWOM enhances brand attitude to a lesser extent than positive eWOM with some negative messages. The impact of eWOM platforms on brand attitudes has also been researched. Xue and Phelps (2004) research the impact of platforms where eWOM is posted on brand attitudes and find no significant differences in impact between eWOM posted on company websites and eWOM posted on independent forums and brand attitudes.

Many studies have focused on the impact of eWOM on **purchase intentions** Doh & Hwang, 2009; Long-Yi & Ching-Yuh, 2010; Jalilvand & Saimei, 2012). Park et al. (2007) suggest that both quality and quantity of eWOM influence purchase intentions. Doh and Hwang (2009) provide evidence that when consumers arrive with more positive eWOM, their purchase intentions are highest. The same evidence is provided by Long-Yi and Ching-Yuh (2010). On the other hand, the hypothesis that negative eWOM weakens purchase intentions is not supported (Long-Yi & Ching-Yuh, 2010). Jalilvand and Saimei (2012) find that eWOM use has a positive and significant impact on purchase intentions for an Indian automobile brand. Park et al. (2007) provide evidence that eWOM quality has a positive impact on purchase intentions.

In contrast, there is little research investigating the **impact of eWOM on CBBE** and its elements. Nevertheless, from the published scientific articles, it is evident that research on this topic began emerging in 2012. Only two studies have focused on the impact of eWOM on CBBE. Rezvani et al. (2012) researched the impact of eWOM source type, valence and volume on the traditional CBBE model, consisting of brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality and brand loyalty. The positive impact of eWOM volume was found for all proposed CBBE elements. In contrast, the impact of eWOM source was not significant. Furthermore, the impact of eWOM valence had a negative impact on brand awareness and brand associations. Its impact on perceived quality and brand loyalty was not supported. Kim and Ko (2012) present a model consisting of several equities (brand, value, relationship and consumer equity). They report an impact of social media marketing activities on both relationship equity and brand equity for a luxury fashion brand. Other studies have focused just on one of several CBBE elements. A literature review of the articles researching the impact of diverse eWOM concepts on CBBE elements is presented in Table 10.

Table 10. Empirically Proven Connections between eWOM and Brand Equity Elements

Author(s), (Year)	**Measures**	**Brand awareness**	**Brand image**	**Perceived quality**	**Brand loyalty**	**Brand relationship**
Ilfeld & Winer (2002)	eWOM	x				
Srinivansan et al. (2002)	Community				x	
Kim et al. (2002)	eWOM	x				
Gruen, Osmonbrkov & Czaplewski (2006)	C2C know-how exchange online				x	

(table continues)

(continued)

Kim & Ko (2012)	Social media marketing activities					x
Jalilvand & Saimei (2012)	eWOM		x			
Rezvani, Hoseini & Samadzadeh (2012)	eWOM volume	x	x (Ass)	x	x	
Rezvani, Hoseini & Samadzadeh (2012)	eWOM valence	-x	-x (Ass)			
Lis & Horst (2013)*	Positive eWOM					x
Torlak et al. (2014)	Persuasiveness, credibility and susceptibility of eWOM		x			
Charo et al. (2015)	eWOM		x			
Total		**4**	**5**	**1**	**3**	**2**

Note. -x = negative connection, *brand commitment.

Source: Adapted from above cited sources.

Academics have proposed a positive influence of eWOM on brand equity elements (Ilfeld & Winer, 2002; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Demerling, 2010; Chan & Ngai, 2011; Kim & Ko, 2012; Wu & Wang, 2011). Despite several researchers proposing that eWOM influences **brand awareness** (McCarthy & Fram, 2008; Ferguson, 2008; Demerling, 2010; Wu & Wang, 2011; Rezvani et al., 2012), empirical evidence supporting the connection is provided only by Ilfeld and Winer (2002), Kim et al. (2002) and Rezvani et al. (2012). Illfeld and Winer (2002) propose that eWOM is the basic influencer of brand awareness due to the buzz created on the internet and prove this connection with empirical data. Rezvani et al. (2012) support the positive impact of eWOM volume on brand awareness but find a negative impact of eWOM valence on brand awareness.

The impact of eWOM on brand image has been researched in several recent papers. A survey conducted on the youth consumer market in Turkey reports positive affects of eWOM on **brand image** of cellular phones (Torlak et al., 2014). Jalilvand and Samiei (2012) research the impact of eWOM in destination brands and their findings support the notion that eWOM enhances the brand image of a destination.

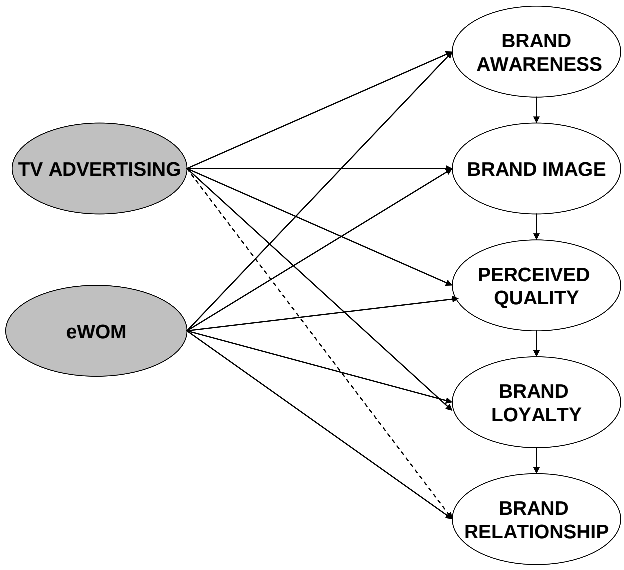
The impact of eWOM volume on **perceived quality** has been supported only by Rezvani et al. (2012). Therefore, further research is needed regarding whether other eWOM measures enhance perceived quality.

The impact of eWOM on **brand loyalty** has been postulated by several researchers (Srinivasan et al., 2002; Chan & Ngai, 2011). Rezvani et al. (2012) provide evidence that eWOM volume enhances brand loyalty. Srinivasan et al. (2002) report that the eWOM community enhances the brand loyalty of a website. Furthermore, brand loyalty enhances further WOM activities regarding the website. Consumer-to-consumer exchange of information online also enhances brand loyalty of an online forum (Gruen et al., 2006).

Academics only recently have proposed that eWOM affects **brand relationships**, since it encourages co-creation of unique value though interactions with brands in diverse online environments (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004; Ferguson, 2008; Demerling, 2010; Kim & Ko, 2012). This assumption has been empirically proven by Kim and Ko (2012) in research on luxury fashion brands in Korea. They prove that social media marketing activities enhance both relationship and brand equity. Positive eWOM also has a positive influence on brand commitment (Lis & Horst, 2013), which is one of the most frequently used building blocks for measuring brand relationships.

In the last five years, studies have begun to focus on eWOM and its impact on brands. Nevertheless, to our knowledge, studies measuring eWOM in connection with CBBE are limited. The proposed connections among new and traditional MC tools and CBBE elements from the reviewed articles are presented in Figure 13. Both empirically proven and theoretically proposed relationships are included.

Figure 13. The Relationship between Selected MC Tools and Brand Equity Elements



Note. Empirically proven connections
Theoretically proposed connections

Studies measuring the impact of other brand-related constructs such as brand attitudes and purchase intentions provide some evidence that eWOM has a higher impact on brands than television advertising. Abzari, Ghassemi and Vosta (2014) compare the impact of radio and television advertising and social media content on brand attitudes and find that the impact of social media on brand attitude is much greater than the impact of traditional media. Colliander and Dahlén (2011) compare the impact of branded blogs and advertising in online magazines and find that messages on blogs enhanced brand attitudes and influenced purchase behaviour to a greater extent than online advertisements, concluding that eWOM activities have a greater impact on brands. Our study will therefore fill the gap in the existing literature and examine the connection among traditional MCs (television advertising) and eWOM and proposed brand equity elements for the traditional and new CBBE model.

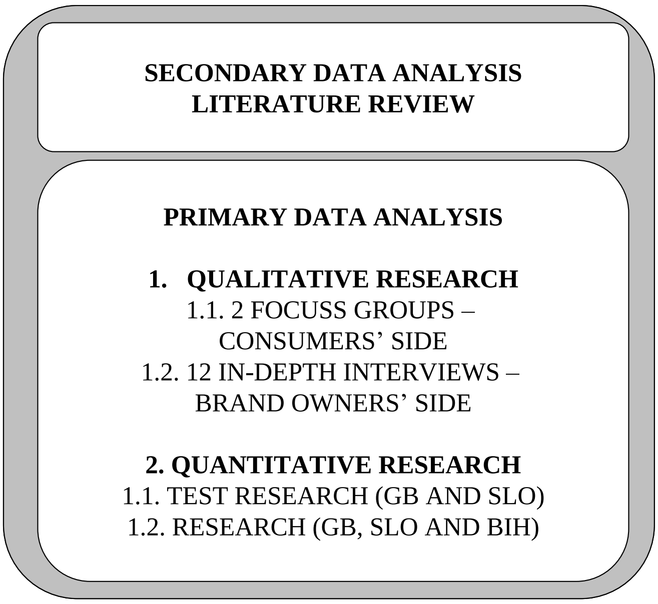
4 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 Research structure

The structure of the research is presented in Figure 14. To deepen the existing knowledge of CBBE and the impact of selected MC tools on CBBE, a **secondary data analysis** was conducted with the **literature review**. This was presented in the previous chapters.

In the next phase, a **primary data analysis** and the research structure will be presented. First, we took a **qualitative approach** and studied brand owners and consumers' opinions about brands' MCs. We gathered **2 focus groups** to determine what consumers think of brands and especially new MC tools. These groups gave us insights that we could not gather from other sources. We also wanted to discover how brand owners understand the concepts of brand identity and brand equity and which MC tools they use to communicate with their customers. Therefore **12 in-depth interviews** were conducted with brand managers.

Figure 14. Research Structure



After these qualitative studies, we prepared **quantitative research** on three countries to investigate the impact of new MC tools on brand equity. The selected countries differed with regard to the use and accessibility of ICT in households. As an example of a country with low development regarding use and accessibility of ICT in households, Bosnia and Herzegovina was selected. Slovenia served as an example of a middle developed country, while Great Britain was chosen as one of the most developed European countries regarding the use and accessibility of ICT in households. Several factors influenced country selection: internet access in households, mobile penetration rates and differences in internet use, such as the use of internet banking and social networking sites. Data about internet accessibility and mobile penetration by country is presented in Table 11. As expected, Great Britain has the highest rate of internet access and mobile penetration in the European Union. Bosnia and Herzegovina has much lower rates of internet accessibility and penetration compared to the other two countries in the study as well as to the European average.

Table 11. Internet Accessibility and Mobile Penetration in 2012 for EU 27 and Three Chosen Countries

	GREAT BRITAIN	**SLOVENIA**	**BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA**	**EU27**
% of population				
Internet access	83.00	74.00	57.00	76.00
Broadband connection	80.00	73.00	12.15	72.00
Mobile penetration	137.05	106.94	83.00	130.55
Mobile broadband penetration	7.90	2.70	2.50	8.60

Source: Eurostat, *Internet access and use in 2012*, 2012 and European Commission, *Supply of services in monitoring regulatory and market developments for electronic communications and information society services in Enlargement Countries*, 2012 and Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, *Transport*, 2013.

Furthermore, the use of internet in the chosen countries was examined. According to Internet World Stats (2011), 52.26% of British use Facebook, whose are followed by 36.57% of Slovenians and 34.67% of Bosnians. Other Internet usage data is presented in Table 12. We can conclude that British inhabitants use internet more often than Slovenians and the average European citizen. Data on the use of internet is not available for Bosnia and Herzegovina, neither from the Agency for statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina nor any other organisation, therefore, the data presented refers only to Great Britain and Slovenia. From the previously presented data, we can assume that internet use is lower in Bosnia and Herzegovina compared to the other two chosen countries.

Table 12. Internet Use in 2012 for EU 27 and Two Chosen Countries

	GB	**SLO**	**EU27**
% of population			
Regular users (at least once a week)	79.5	65.0	65.0
Frequent users (every day or almost every day)	65.6	54.5	53.1
Looking for information about goods and services online	62.8	56.6	56.1
Uploading self-created content to be shared	31.8	28.7	22.0
Downloading games, music, films or images	33.5	28.6	27.9
Using online banking	45.5	28.5	36.0
E-mail	(89.3)*	(85.7)*	(88.7)*
Posting messages to chat sites, SNSs and blogs	u	(55.0)*	(46.7)*
Internet phone/video calls	u	(22.0)*	(27.0)*

Note. * % of online users, u = unreliable data, n.d. = no data.

Source: Digital Agenda for Europe, 2012.

The **preliminary quantitative research** was conducted in Great Britain and Slovenia. In September 2012, the **final online study**, based on respondents' comments, was conducted in Great Britain, Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina.

4.2 Preliminary qualitative research

Two qualitative research studies with data gathered from internal and external stakeholder perspectives were conducted. Both were of exploratory nature to gain insights in branding and MCs from two perspectives.

4.2.1 Qualitative research methodology

4.2.1.1 In-depth interviews methodology

In order to discover core brand identities and which MC tools are used to communicate with customers, in-depth interviews with brand managers were conducted. We assumed that there were no differences among countries in terms of positioning and core brand identity, since we believe that the marketers' goal is to avoid confusion in brand positioning globally. Several academics also highlight the importance of consistent brand identity and brand positioning over time and markets (Aaker, 1996b; Ries & Ries, 1998; D'Alessandro, 2001; Dewhirst & Davis, 2005). Nevertheless, we assume there could be differences in the use of MC tools among countries. In-depth interviews were conducted in the country with the middle level of accessibility and use of internet in households.

We took a qualitative approach to confirm the proposed building blocks of brand identity and brand equity and explore whether the development in MCs is as proposed in the literature review, because it allows to approach complex phenomena in a systematic way (Gummesson, 2005). In-depth interviews were used to capture brand experts' understanding of the topic. We considered the brand experts' opinions the most appropriate for the interviews, because they deal with brands on a daily basis and have an overall view of a brand's activities.

Of the twelve brand experts interviewed five had the job title "brand manager" and seven "marketing director". To quality as a brand expert for the sample, they had to be frequently presented in marketing conferences as speakers or members of committees, or be mentioned in media several times regarding brand management of the focal brands. Moreover, we chose different brand profiles to include diverse brand types and diverse market orientations. Respondent profiles are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Respondent Profile from In-depth Interviews

	Nr. of brand experts
Title	
Brand manager	**5**
Marketing director	**7**
Organizations' market orientation	
Global	**5**
Central and East European market	**5**
Only local	**2**
Managed brand type	
Non-durable product brand	**4**
Durable product brand	**3**
Service brand	**5**
Destination brand	**1**

4.2.1.2 Focus groups methodology

The second study was focused on consumers and their understanding of brands and MCs, focused especially on new MC tools. Since research about consumers' perceptions of brands and MCs was a preparation step for a final quantitative research, the focus-group interviews were exploratory in nature. Our aim was to gain a deeper understanding of the concepts, and to develop new ideas and hypotheses. Morgan (1996, p. 130) defines focus groups as a research technique to collect data through group interaction on a pre-defined theme. Focus groups are an appropriate technique for our research, since they have been used within communication studies to research the effects of films and television programs since the beginning of movies and TV (Merton, Fisk & Kendall, 1956). In our research topic, it is believed that the primary target consumers for new MC tools are young adults, from 18 to 35 or 40 years old (Kim, Kim & Park, 2010; Taylor et al., 2011). Therefore, we separated the focus groups by age. The first focus group's respondents were between 18 years and 40 years old and the second focus group's respondents were between 40 years and 65 years old. We did not interview respondents older than 65, since they are unlikely to be familiar with the new MC tools, despite using some new technologies (Olson, O'Brien, Rogers & Charness, 2011).

Pre-prepared steering guides were used for both focus groups. Dialogues were recorded and subsequently transcribed. The focus groups lasted one and a half hours and two and a half hours, respectively. Both focus groups had one break of approximately 15 minutes. As for the in-depth interviews, we chose content analysis as the most appropriate method for data analysis, since the research questions were formed on the basis of the literature review (Carson, Gilmore, Perry & Gronhaug, 2001; Harwood & Garry, 2003). Findings are presented in text and summary tables, which is possible due to the chosen option of content analysis (Harwood & Garry, 2003; Duriau, Reger & Pfarrer, 2007). Respondent profiles for both focus groups are presented in Table 14.

Table 14. Respondent Profile from Focus Groups

	Focus group 1	Focus group 2
Number of participants	8	8
Age group	18 – 40 years	40 – 65 years
Min and max age	min 23, max 38	min 49, max 61
Average age	28.13 years	54.37 years
Gender	4 women, 4 men	4 women, 4 men
Finished education	4 secondary school, 4 university	1 primary school, 6 secondary school, 1 university
Employment	1 unemployed, 2 students, 5 employed	1 director, 2 retired, 5 employed

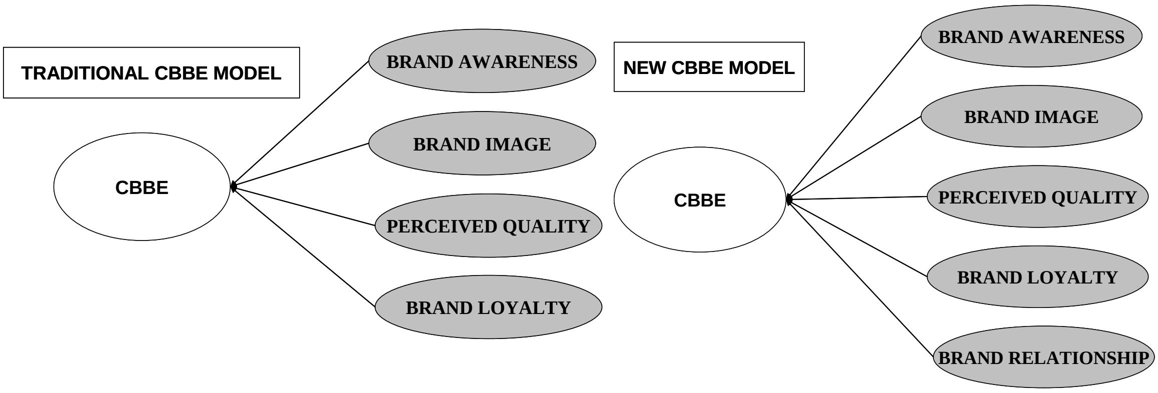
4.3 Quantitative research and model verification

The aim of the dissertation is to develop a conceptual framework that clearly demonstrates how new MC tools influence CBBE in different countries and for different brand types. Therefore, in the quantitative study, the proposed models were tested in three different countries to determine whether the impact of new MC tools is higher in countries with more accessible ICT. The main focus is to examine the impact of new and traditional MC tools on CBBE. We want to demonstrate that new MC tools play an important role in the process of CBBE building. Main research constructs and hypotheses based on preliminary research were formulated in advance.

4.3.1 Conceptual model

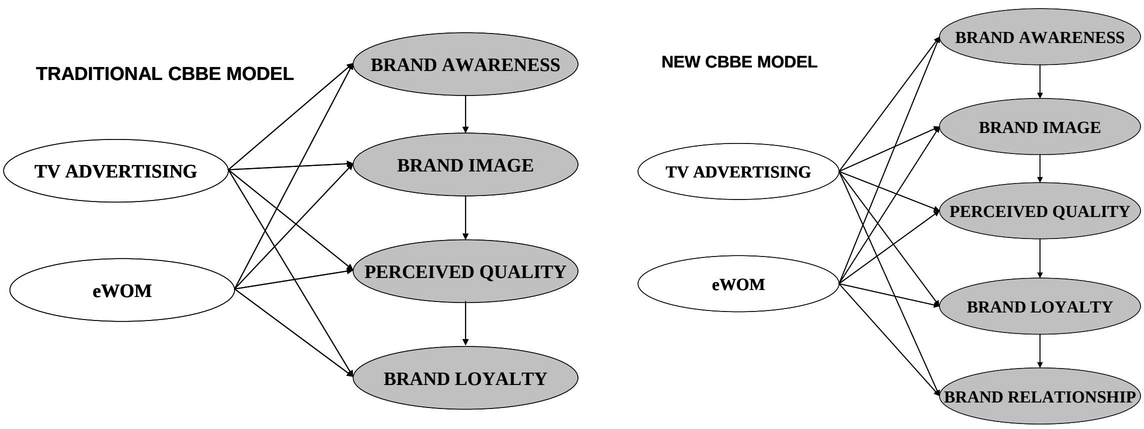
The conceptual model consists of the new and traditional MC tools on the one side and of the CBBE model on the other side. The traditional CBBE model includes constructs proposed by the two leading authors in this area, Aaker (1991 and 1996b) and Keller (1993, 1998), i.e. brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. The new CBBE model contains an additional construct, brand relationship, which has been studied quite thoroughly in recent literature (Blackston, 1992; Fournier, 1998; Keller, 2001, 2009; Aaker et al., 2004; Papista & Dimitriadis, 2012). Keller (2001, 2009) puts forth a renewed brand equity model, called brand resonance pyramid, proposing that consumers start building relationships with brands in the new communications environment. Brand resonance at the top of the pyramid defined as "*the nature of relationship customers have with a brand*" (Keller, 2009, p. 144) is what we call brand relationship in our proposed model. Since we propose a new CBBE model (see Figure 15), the traditional and new CBBE models will be tested separately. We propose that connections among constructs in the proposed CBBE model exist, and that the importance of each construct is different. CBBE models can be applied to all brand types.

Figure 15. The Traditional and the New CBBE Models



In the next step, the main conceptual model of the impact of selected MC tools on CBBE will be tested. Television advertising is still very important in brand building according to the literature review and findings from qualitative research. The new MC tool, eWOM, was found an important tool for building brands. Participants of focus groups recalled eWOM better than online or mobile advertising. Therefore the impact of television advertising, as the traditional MC tool, and eWOM, as one of the most important recent MC tools, on CBBE elements, will be examined (see Figure 16). Thorough conceptualizations of each construct have been presented in previous chapters. Our aim is to present a comprehensive conceptual model, connecting new and traditional MC tools on the one hand, and CBBE on the other hand for different countries and different brand types. Therefore, the three countries of Great Britain, Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina, and two brand types, i.e. product and service brands, were chosen for the study. The developed conceptual model should help both practitioners and academics to manage any type of brand in the new MCs environment and enable them to choose the right MC tools to strengthen brand equity.

Figure 16. Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional and the New CBBE Models



4.3.2 Hypotheses development

In the following section, the hypotheses will be presented. There are two fundamental hypotheses, which will be analysed in detail, and additional sub hypotheses will be added. The first set of hypotheses supposes that the CBBE is built from diverse elements. We suppose that there are positive and significant relationships among CBBE elements.

The second set of hypotheses relates to diverse MCs and their impact on the CBBE. The assumption is that each MC tool positively affects CBBE. We will attempt to ascertain the extent of the importance of eWOM in comparison to television advertising, which are regarded to play a significant role in the process of CBBE building today.

4.3.2.1 Hypotheses related to CBBE

CBBE has been the object of numerous studies since the 1990s. Two authors dominate literature on this construct: Aaker (1991, 1996b) defines a brand equity measure with brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and market behaviour measures. In contrast, Keller (1993, 1998) in his first conceptualizations mentions only brand awareness and brand image as the most important CBBE elements in his conceptualisations. Several researchers (Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Villarejo-Ramos & Sances-Franco, 2005; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Kim & Hyun, 2011; Buil et al., 2013) statistically confirmed that brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty are important CBBE elements. Nevertheless, in more recent studies, Keller (2001, 2009, 2010) redefines his CBBE model with a brand resonance model including six elements: salience, performance, imagery, feelings, judgements, and resonance. Brand resonance, is regarded as the most important element, and represents the relationship between the brand and the customer (Keller, 2009, p. 144). In this model, brand loyalty is presented as a sub dimension of brand resonance. Furthermore, Chang and Chieng (2006) provide evidence that brand associations and brand image enhance brand relationships. Therefore, we will consider not only traditionally accepted and already statistically confirmed brand equity elements (brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty) but also the newly proposed brand relationship as building blocks of CBBE. Brand relationship is considered to be the final stage of the CBBE model (Keller, 2001, 2009; Chang & Chieng, 2006).

Hypothesis 1: **The level of customer-based brand equity (CBBE) is positively related to the extent to which dimensions are evident in the product or other entity.**
H1a: The level of CBBE is related positively to the extent to which consumers are aware of the brand.
H1b: The level of CBBE is positively related to the extent to which consumers have an image of a brand.

H1c: The level of CBBE is positively related to the extent to which consumers perceive quality of a brand.
H1d: The level of CBBE is positively related to the extent to which consumer are loyal to a brand.
H1e: The level of CBBE is positively related to the extent to which consumers have relationship with a brand.

Academics found several positive and significant relationships between CBBE elements. Brand awareness was found to enhance brand image, perceived quality and brand loyalty (Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Martinez et al., 2009; Rios & Riquelme, 2008; Kim & Hyun, 2011). Brand image and perceived quality are regarded to increase brand loyalty (Aaker, 1996b; Yoo et al., 2000; Kim & Hyun, 2011) and brand relationship (Chang & Chieng, 2006; Chen & Hsieh, 2011). Brand loyalty is strongly related to brand relationship (Fournier, 1998; Keller, 2001, 2009; Vesel & Zabkar, 2010). Therefore, we expect the strongest relationship between brand loyalty and brand relationship constructs.

Hypothesis 2: There are positive and significant relationships between proposed customer-based brand equity (CBBE) elements.
H2ab: There is a positive and significant relationship between brand awareness and brand image.
H2ac: There is a positive and significant relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality.
H2ad: There is a positive and significant relationship between brand awareness and brand loyalty.
H2ae: There is a positive and significant relationship between brand awareness and brand relationship.
H2bc: There is a positive and significant relationship between brand image and perceived quality.
H2bd: There is a positive and significant relationship between brand image and brand loyalty.
H2be: There is a positive and significant relationship between brand image and brand relationship.
H2cd: There is a positive and significant relationship between perceived quality and brand loyalty.
H2ce: There is a positive and significant relationship between perceived quality and brand relationship.
H2de: There is a positive and significant relationship between brand loyalty and brand relationship.

Even though there is a lack of research on how brand usage affects brands and their equity, there have been several attempts in the past to explain this relationship in the past. In their study, Bird et al. (1970) show how previous brand usage influences brand image. They stress that brand attitudes depend on how recently respondents have used the brand. Their study was replicated forty years later by Romaniuk, Bogomolova and Dall'Olmo Riley (2012) who confirmed their findings in today's' environment. Furthermore Oakeful and

McCarthy (2010) showed that consumers posses more brand-related associations with increased brand usage, and that these associations are multidimensional.

H3: Previous brand usage significantly influences consumers' perceptions of customer-based brand equity (CBBE).
H3.1a: Brand awareness differs from consumers who have already used a brand compared to consumers who have not used the focal brand.
H3.1b: Brand image differs from consumers who have already used a brand compared to consumers who have not used the focal brand.
H3.1c: Perceived quality differs from consumers who have already used a brand compared to consumers who have not used the focal brand.
H3.1d: Brand loyalty differs from consumers who have already used a brand compared to consumers who have not used the focal brand.

Additional hypotheses:
H3.2a: Brand awareness differs from consumers who are currently using a brand compared to consumers who have used a brand in the past, but do not use it now.
H3.2b: Brand image differs from consumers who are currently using a brand compared to consumers who have used a brand in the past, but do not use it now.
H3.2c: Perceived quality differs from consumers who are currently using a brand compared to consumers who have used a brand in the past, but do not use it now.
H3.2d: Brand loyalty differs from consumers who are currently using a brand compared to consumers who have used a brand in the past, but do not use it now.
H3.2e: Brand relationship differs from consumers who are currently using a brand compared to consumers who have used a brand in the past, but do not use it now.

The topic of brand experiences is recent in scientific literature, and only a handful of studies examine its impact on brands (Brakus et. al, 2009; Ismail, Melewar, Lim, Woodside, 2011). Brand experiences vary in valence, since consumers may have positive, neutral, or even negative brand experiences. Brand experiences are proposed to affect brand awareness (Biedenbach & Marell, 2010), brand associations (Brakus et al., 2009; Biedenbach & Marell, 2010; Zaratonello & Schmitt, 2010), perceived quality (Biedenbach & Marell, 2010) and brand loyalty (Oliver, 1997; Brakus et al., 2009; Biedenbach & Marell, 2010; Ismail et. al, 2011). To our knowledge, scarce research published examines the impact of brand experiences on brand relationships. Nevertheless, the valence of brand experiences should have an impact on brand relationship, since brand relationship can develop only via brand experiences. Therefore we postulate:

H4: Previous brand experience significantly influences consumers' perceptions of customer-based brand equity (CBBE).
H4a: Brand awareness differs from consumers who have positive previous brand experience compared to consumers who have negative brand experience.

H4b: Brand image differs from consumers who have positive previous brand experience compared to consumers who have negative brand experience.
H4c: Perceived quality differs from consumers who have positive previous brand experience compared to consumers who have negative brand experience.
H4d: Brand loyalty differs from consumers who have positive previous brand experience compared to consumers who have negative brand experience.
H4e: Brand relationship differs from consumers who have positive previous brand experience compared to consumers who have negative brand experience.

4.3.2.2 Hypotheses related to selected MC tools and their impact on CBBE

MCs are acknowledged to be the basic tool for building brands and therefore CBBE (McArthur & Griffin, 1997; Keller, 1993, 2003; Naik & Raman, 2003; Reid, 2003). Advertising and word-of-mouth marketing are believed to be one of the key MC tolls when considering brand building (Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1995; Illfeld & Winer, 2002; Villanueva et al., 2008). We will examine television advertising and eWOM, the latest novelty, in the new media environment. On the basis of the literature review, we propose that the more consumers perceive to be invested in television advertising the higher their perception of CBBE elements will be. Furthermore, the higher eWOM quality and credibility and the more eWOM activity are observed by consumers, the higher awareness, image, and quality of a brand will be perceived and stronger brand loyalty and relationships will result.

H5: Customer-based brand equity (CBBE) elements are positively related to the perceived MCs activities of the brand.

H5.1 Customer-based brand equity* (CBBE*) elements are positively related to the perceived television advertising spending for the brand.
H5.1a: Brand awareness is positively related to the perceived television advertising spending invested of the brand.
H5.1b: Brand image is positively related to the perceived television advertising spending of the brand.
H5.1c: Perceived quality is positively related to the perceived television advertising spending of the brand.
H5.1d: Brand loyalty is positively related to the perceived television advertising spending of the brand.
H5.1e: Brand relationship is positively related to the perceived television advertising spending of the brand.

The positive impact of eWOM on CBBE elements is proposed by several academics (Ilfeld & Winer, 2002; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Demerling, 2010; Chan & Ngai, 2011; Kim & Ko, 2012; Wu & Wang, 2011), nevertheless, empirical research about this topic is still evolving. Empirical evidence about the impact of eWOM on brand awareness is provided in the studies of Ilfeld & Winer (2002) and Kim et al. (2002). Recently, researchers provided evidence that eWOM impacts brand image (Torlak et al., 2014). Rezvani et. al. (2012) on the other side provide mixed evidence, postulating that not all eWOM builds all CBBE elements. The effect of eWOM valence was found not to enhance perceived quality and brand loyalty. Moreover, eWOM valence had negative impact on brand awareness. However, the authors provide evidence that eWOM volume enhances all CBBE elements. Srinivasan et al. (2002), Gruen et al. (2006), and Rezvani et al. (2012) provided empirical evidence of the impact of eWOM on brand loyalty. Kim & Ko (2012) provide evidence of its impact on brand relationship. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H5.2 Customer-based brand equity (CBBE) elements are positively related to eWOM of the brand.

H5.2.1 Customer-based brand equity (CBBE) elements are positively related to the eWOM quality of the brand.

H5.2.1a: Brand awareness is positively related to the eWOM quality of the brand.

H5.2.1b: Brand image is positively related to the eWOM quality of the brand.

H5.2.1c: Perceived quality is positively related to the eWOM quality of the brand.

H5.2.1d: Brand loyalty is positively related to the eWOM quality of the brand.

H5.2.1e: Brand relationship is positively related to the eWOM quality of the brand.

H5.2.2 Customer-based brand equity (CBBE) elements are positively related to the eWOM activity of the brand.

H5.2.2a: Brand awareness is positively related to the eWOM activity of the brand.

H5.2.2b: Brand image is positively related to the eWOM activity of the brand.

H5.2.2c: Perceived quality is positively related to the eWOM activity of the brand.

H5.2.2d: Brand loyalty is positively related to the eWOM activity of the brand.

H5.2.2e: Brand relationship is positively related to the eWOM activity of the brand.

The degree of consumer involvement in the product or entity category is acknowledged to be a major variable affecting advertising strategy (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Wu, 2001). Consumer involvement is predicted to have a moderating effect on information processing of advertisements (Eddel & Keller, 1989; Wang, Wang & Cheng-Kiang, 2009). Several authors (Buchholz & Smith, 1991; Wu, 2001; Wang et al., 2009) have shown a positive relationship among consumer involvement and advertising effectiveness and therefore proposed consumer involvement as an important indicator for advertising strategy. On the basis of these findings, we propose that a consumer’s involvement in the product or service category significantly influences perceptions of diverse types of advertising and eWOM.

H6: Consumers’ involvement in the product or entity category significantly influences their perceptions of television advertising spending and eWOM.

H6a: Perceptions about television advertising spending differ from consumers who are involved in the product or entity category compared to consumers who are not involved in the product or service category.

H6b: Perceptions of eWOM differ from consumers who are involved in the product or entity category compared to consumers who are not involved in the product or service category.

Several researchers (Bauer & Greyser, 1968; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; Ducoffe, 1996) proposed attitudes toward advertising in general affect attitudes toward the ad. Furthermore, MacKenzie and Lutz (1989) proposed that attitudes toward advertising in general impact both advertisement perceptions and attitude toward the ad. Therefore, several academics proposed consumers' attitudes toward advertising in general should be measured, since they are expected to influence consumers' exposure, attention and reaction to brand advertisements (Alwitt & Prabhakar, 1992; Schlosser et al., 1999). Different dimensions of attitudes toward advertising in general are proposed in the literature. Of these, irritation is believed to negatively influence on perceptions of advertising, while others are believed to have a positive influence (Ducoffe, 1996). Based on these findings we propose a further hypothesis:

H7: Attitudes toward advertising in general significantly influence consumers' perceptions of different forms of advertising.
H7.1a: Attitudes toward advertising in general significantly positively influence consumers' perceptions of television advertising spending.
H7.1b: Attitudes toward advertising in general significantly positively influence consumers' perceptions of eWOM.

Since irritation is believed to have a negative impact on advertising perceptions we postulate the following hypotheses:
H7.2a: Advertising irritation significantly negatively influences consumers' perceptions of television advertising spending.
H7.2b: Advertising irritation significantly negatively influences consumers' perceptions of eWOM.

Since several academics stressed that the primary target consumers for new MC tools are young adults typically from 18 years to 35 years or 40 years old (Kim et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2011; Colliander & Dahlén, 2011), we believe these notions should also be considered in our study. Moreover, respondents older than 65 years, are believed to not be very keen with the new MC tools, even though they use some of the new technologies, albeit to a lesser extent than younger adults (Olson et. al, 2011). Therefore we postulate the next hypotheses:

H8: Respondent age group significantly influences their perceptions of eWOM.
H8a: Electronic WOM perceptions differ from the younger group of respondents (aged from 18 year to 40 years) compared to older group of respondents (aged from 41 years to 65 years).

4.3.3 Quantitative research methodology

4.3.3.1 The study instrument

With the aim to formulate clear guidelines and a reliable measurement instrument, two brand types were included in the research, namely product and service brands. Since product brand characteristics are diverse, we chose among two types of products: non-durable and durable. During the brand type selection process, we applied the following criteria: brands had to be available in each of the selected countries and had to differ in terms of market share. Furthermore, all brands had to be well known globally, and hence, they had to appear in the global brand rankings. The Interbrand brand ranking was chosen in this dissertation. The use of the diverse global brand rankings in the brand selection procedure is common practice in the brand equity research (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; Netemeyer et al., 2004; Kim & Ko, 2012; Buil et al., 2013). Furthermore, all selected brands had to use all types of advertising and eWOM globally.

Based on the restrictions, we chose three brand categories. For non-durable product brands, we chose the carbonated drink category and two well-known brands: Coca Cola and Pepsi. For durable product brands, we felt that automotive brands were the most suitable option. The automotive brands of BMW and Volkswagen were selected. The same automotive brands were selected by Buil et al. (2013) in a British market study. For service brands we chose the credit card category, since people, processes and physical evidence vary to a smaller extent for payments with credit cards compared to several other types of service. The brands VISA and American Express were selected. With this brand variety we attempted to achieve applicability of the scale across all brand types. Individual brands were ignored in the analysis since the main goal of our research was to analyse and identify relationships among constructs and not to analyse CBBE of individual brands. This procedure has been used by several researchers in prior studies (Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Buil et al., 2013).

Since we examined six brands we prepared six different versions of the questionnaire for each chosen country. Question items for each brand were identical, only brand names, product or service category and brand usage items differed. The basic questionnaire was prepared in English. The questionnaire was subsequently translated into Slovenian and Bosnian. Bilingual experts made both the original translations as well as the translations of the results back to English. All experts work in marketing research and are therefore acquainted with marketing terminology in the chosen countries.

A highly structured questionnaire, consisting of five parts, was used in the survey. Before answering the first part, respondents were asked whether they own a mobile phone, since only mobile phone owners were able to answer to all survey questions. Respondents without a mobile phone were excluded from the survey. In the **first part,** respondents were asked about their involvement in the product or service category, brand usage, and prior brand experience. In the **second part**, elements of CBBE for selected brands were examined; brand awareness, brand identity, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand relationship. In the **third part**, the perceived impact of selected MC tools was examined. Television advertising spending and eWOM quality, credibility and activity were investigated. The **fourth part** was devoted to the examination of respondents' internet and mobile usage and their acquaintance with mobile advertising tools. Questions devoted to internet usage asked about their internet use, the appliances they use for connecting to the internet, the purposes for which they use the internet, the tools they use and their primary social networking site. Questions devoted to mobile usage asked whether they own of a smart phone, whether they ever applied to receive advertisements on their mobile phone, prior experience with mobile advertising tools, and the use of internet on mobile phone. The **fifth part** regarded the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents (gender, age, employment, education, number of members in household, and household income).

The study instrument included mainly closed questions. Only in the fourth part, about the Internet and mobile usage, respondents were able to write down additional information. Each studied construct (brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty, brand relationship, television advertising spending, eWOM quality, eWOM credibility, and eWOM activities) was measured with several items. A unipolar 7-point Lickert scale was employed for measuring the constructs. Due to the findings from the focus groups we added also the eighth option, the "don't know" answer, for television advertising spending, since there could be a number of respondents who really did not know or remember brands' advertisements on television and therefore a neutral mean or the extremely negative solution would not be an appropriate answer for them. There were several items with a negative direction included (regarding constructs product or service category involvement, brand image, attitudes toward advertising in general, and eWOM quality). We reverse-coded the items with negative direction in further analyses.

We attempted to avoid the common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Lee, 2003) with the inclusion of several tools. Firstly, by assuring respondents of their total anonymity in relation to their answers to the survey question. We also assured them that there are no right or wrong answers and that what matters is their personal opinion. Different scale formats were included in the survey. These included simple entry type questions, multiple-choice questions, rating scales and Likert scales. The multiple-choice questions included different anchors. We included a 7 point Likert scale to avoid quick and easily accessible responses to the previous items. We grouped the items into two constructs: brand awareness and brand image. We also avoided the use of negative item wording as much as possible. In order to lessen the halo effect (Thorndike, 1920) from well known brand names and their evaluations, half the respondents were first asked to evaluate MCs of the focal brand and only then had to evaluate their brand equity. In the second and third part, the measurement items of constructs were not fixed but their sequence was randomly chosen for each respondent to avoid any differences in answers due to the sequence of measurement items and constructs.

4.3.3.2 Operationalization of the variables

The questionnaire items that measure the proposed constructs were based on existing scales. In the first part of the questionnaire, involvement in the product or service category, brand usage and brand experience were operationalised.

Consumer involvement was introduced by Sherif and Cantril back in 1947 and since then received considerable attention among academics (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Broderick & Mueller, 1999). Consumer involvement represents the prediction for future consumer behaviour (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Broderick & Mueller, 1999) and can be conceptualized as the extent to which consumers are engaged in diverse aspects of the consumption process (Broderick & Mueller, 1999, p. 97). It has been recognised as a major predictor for advertising strategy (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Wu, 2001). In high involvement situations, consumers perceive a greater amount of risk to be associated with a purchase (Auger, Devinney, Louviere, & Burke, 2010). Therefore, consumers are more willing to place more effort in the processing of incoming information (Lee & Schumann, 2004). They are also more likely to be influenced by messages in advertisements (Zhang & Zinkhan, 2006; Kong & Zhang, 2013). There are numerous consumer involvement scales available in literature (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Broderick & Mueller, 1999). The product or service involvement scale in our study is based on Yoo and Donthu's study (2001), where instead of a 5-point Likert scale a 7-point Likert scale was employed, anchors included 1- totally disagree and 7- totally agree. One reverse-coded item was included which is marked with (R):

- I am very involved with product category X.
- I use the product category X very often.
- I am a product category X expert.
- I am not interested in the product category X (R).

Brand usage refers to nodes that represent brands linked to their usage situations (Serota & Bhargava, 2010, p. 455). Brand usage is of vast importance when considering brand attitude formations. Bird et al. (1970, p. 307) stress that the number of consumers that have an opinion about a focal brand depends on how recently they have used the brand and therefore brand usage is important to be included in our study. Bird et al. (1970) divide consumers into three groups based on their brand usage. The first group is called "current users", those who use a brand in the present time. The second group includes "past users", who used a brand in the past but do not use it currently. The third group has never used the brand and is referred to as "never trieds" (Bird et al., 1970). We applied the brand usage scale proposed by Bird et al. (1970), which has recently been reused in the study of

Romaniuk et al. (2012). We consider "current users" as those owning the brand in the moment, purchasing it within the last 4 weeks, or being current customers of a brand (non-durable product brands), "past users" who purchased the brand in the past or being past customers of a brand and "never trieds" who have never purchased or used the brand. We asked respondents in our study to indicate which statement refers to their brand usage. The measures differed according to the studied brand type as proposed by Romaniuk et al. (2012). Non-durable and durable product brands and service brands were measured using the following:

- "Current users": I bought brand X in the last 4 weeks./ I currently own brand X./ I am a current customer of brand X.
- "Past users": I bought brand X in the past, but not in the last 4 weeks./ I owned brand X in the past./ I am a past customer of brand X.
- "Never trieds": I have no past history of using brand X./ I never owned brand X./ I have never used brand X.

Brand experience is conceptualised as individual interior consumer responses that are evoked by a brand-related stimulus (Brakus et al., 2009, p. 53). Brand experiences vary in strength, intensity, valence and duration (Brakus et al. 2009). In our study we considered only valence of brand experiences, since we wanted to know whether respondents had past positive, negative, or no experiences with the focal brand. We asked them what their prior experience is with brand X:

- Extremely negative
- Negative
- Neither negative, neither positive
- Positive
- Extremely positive
- No experiences

In the second part we examined CBBE elements. All measurement items are based on existing scales that have been used in several studies.

Diverse measures of brand awareness are proposed in the literature, some include **yes or no techniques** like Aaker's (1996b, p. 144) question for brand recognition ("Have you heard of the X brand?"), while some include **open techniques** like Aaker's (1996b, p. 144) question for brand recall and top-of-mind position ("What brands of X can you recall?"). Furthermore, brand recognition can be measured with brand name or with "**perceptually degraded" versions of the brand**, for example brand names with missing letters, distorted brand elements, etc. (Keller, 1993; Keller et al., 2008). In contrast, several authors propose awareness measurement with **closed questions**, mainly including statement evaluations by Likert scales, e.g. "I know what X looks like", "I can recognize X among other competing brands", "I am aware of X brand" and "I know X brand" (Rossister & Percy, 1987; Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco, 2005). We adopted the measures proposed by Yoo et al. (2000), which were later reused by several researchers (Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco, 2005; Kim & Hyun, 2011; Buil et al., 2013). We also used a single measure from Netemeyer et al. (2004), which was already used jointly with items of Yoo et al. (2000) in the study of Buil et al. (2013). Instead of the 5-point scale used by Yoo et al. (2000) we used a 7-point Likert scale with anchors at 1 "I totally disagree" and 7 "I totally agree". A 7-point Likert scale was already used in several studies (Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco, 2005; Kim & Hyun, 2011; Buil et al., 2013). Brand awareness measurement in this study consisted of five items adapted by Yoo et al. (2000) and Netemeyer et al. (2004):

- When I think of product or service category, X is the brand that first comes to mind.
- I am aware of X.
- I can recognize X among other competing brands.
- I know X.
- I know what X looks like.

Brand image was measured with different techniques in the scientific literature. Both qualitative and quantitative research techniques are proposed. Levy (1978) proposes projective techniques for qualitative analysis such as picture interpretation, sentence completion or brand personality descriptions. Keller (1993) proposes free brand association tasks by asking questions of "who, what, where, when, why, and how" about the brand. One of the more complicated measurement techniques uses multidimensional scaling and respondents need to determine their perceived images of several brands. Brand similarities can be judged by tangible or intangible associations (Keller et al., 2008). For quantitative research techniques both structured and unstructured techniques are proposed (Keller et al., 2008). Authors suggest including statement evaluations by Likert scales (Aaker, 1991, 1996b; Yoo et al., 2000; Martinez et al., 2004) or semantic differentials (Keller et al., 2008) for the structured approach. Several academics argue that measuring brand images and associations requires customised measurement for different brand types (Dobni & Zinkham, 1990; Park & Srinivasan, 1994; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007). However, in numerous studies (Lassar et al., 1995; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco, 2005) brand image measurement items are general and could therefore be used for all brand types. Therefore, we used a measurement scale proposed by Yoo et al. (2001) and later re-used by Villarejo-Ramos and Sancez-Franco (2004). We used a 7-ponit Likert scale with anchors at 1 "I totally disagree" and 7 "I totally agree". One reverse-coded item was included which is marked with (R):

- Some characteristics of brand X come to my mind quickly.
- I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of brand X.
- I have difficulty in imagining brand X in my mind. (R)
- Brand X has a strong personality.
- I have a clear impression of the type of people who use brand X.

Perceived quality and its measurement received a lot of attention by academics. Most measurement techniques for perceived quality are structured techniques; nevertheless the importance of prior examination with unstructured techniques should be considered for different quality conceptualization of different brand types. Some authors propose measurement scales with wordings such as: high/average/inferior quality, the best/one of the best/one of the worst/the worst quality, or consistent/inconsistent quality (Aaker, 1996b). Various brand-type-dependent perceived quality measurements have been developed. Especially measures for perceived service quality in both physical and online environment received a vast amount of interest in the academic world (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Brady & Cronin, 2001; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Palmer, 2002; Lociacono et al., 2002, 2007; Schumann et al., 2010; Udo et al., 2010). However, a few authors developed perceived quality measurement scales that could be applied to all brand types which have been used in a number of studies (Doods et al., 1991; Boulding & Kirmani, 1993; Aaker, 1996b; Teas & Agarwal, 2000; Yoo et al., 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco, 2005), which is why we used this measurement technique. Statement evaluations with Likert scales are most commonly used (Boulding & Kirmani, 1993; Parasuraman et al., 1985, 1988; Lassar et al., 1995; Yoo et al., 2000; Teas & Agarwal, 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco, 2005). Therefore, we used a perceived quality scale proposed by Yoo et al. (2000) and applied a 7-ponit Likert scale with anchors at 1 “I totally disagree” and 7 “I totally agree”. We also cross-checked the perceived quality measurement scale with the brand image measurement scale to ensure that perceived quality is not included in both measurements:

- Brand X must be of very good quality.
- The likely quality of brand X is extremely high.
- The likelihood that brand X is reliable is very high.
- Brand X is of high quality.

Brand loyalty measurement was centred on both, behavioural and attitudinal loyalty in order to capture the entire loyalty concept. Unstructured and structured measurement techniques have been employed. Open ended unstructured questions like “Would you buy the brand on the next opportunity?” or “Would you recommend the product or service to others?” were proposed (Aaker, 1996b, p. 108). Several authors measured brand loyalty with statement evaluations including Likert scales, where both attitudinal and behavioural loyalty statements are proposed (Yoo et al., 2000; Suppehellen & Nysveen, 2001; Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco, 2005). Therefore, we employed this technique and measured brand loyalty as proposed by Yoo et al. (2000) and Villarejo-Ramos & Sancez-Franco (2005). We used a 7-point Likert scale with anchors at 1 “I totally disagree” and 7 “I totally agree”.

- I consider myself to be loyal to brand X.
- Brand X would be my first choice.
- I will not buy other brands if brand X is available.

- If another brand is not different from brand X in any way, it seems smarter to purchase brand X.
- I intend to purchase brand X in the near future.
- I intend to recommend brand X to my friends.

The basis for **brand relationship** measurement was made by Fournier (1998) with a qualitative study via in-depth interviews. She proposed several sub-dimensions of brand relationship: love and passion, self-connection, commitment, interdependence, intimacy, and partner quality. On this foundation, quantitative research techniques emerged and brand relationship was measured mainly with the sub-constructs proposed by Fournier's (1998). Since several of the sub-dimensions of brand relationships, proposed by Fournier (1998), were used many times for describing brand loyalty (e.g., brand commitment), we will only use two building blocks: self-connection and intimacy. These building blocks were not mentioned in connection with brand loyalty. Statement evaluations with Likert scales prevailed in the literature (Aaker et al., 2004; Chang & Chieng, 2006; Smith et al., 2007; Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008; Tsai, 2011) and therefore we also used Likert scales to capture the brand relationship construct. A 7-point Likert scale with anchors at 1 "I totally disagree" and 7 "I totally agree" was used in our study. For the purpose of our research we employed two constructs as proposed by Fournier (1998) and other authors, with measurement items for self-connection and intimacy. Measurement scales proposed by Aaker et al. (2004) and Breivik and Thorbjørnsen (2008) have been used. We cross-checked measurement scale with the brand loyalty measurement scale to ensure that neither of the constructs is included in both measurements:
Self-connection (Aaker et al., 2004):

- Brand X says a lot about the kind of person I would like to be.
- Brand X helps me make a statement about what is important to me in life.
- Using brand X lets me be a part of a shared community of like-minded consumers.

Intimacy (Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008):

- I feel like brand X actually cares about me.
- Brand X really listens to what I have to say.
- I feel as though brand X really understands me.

It is generally believed that **attitudes toward advertising** should be considered when measuring advertising perceptions since they are likely to influence exposure, attention, and reaction to brand advertisements (Alwitt & Prabhakar, 1992; Schlosser et al., 1999). There have been numerous attributes used to measure attitudes toward advertising in general (see Appendix B). Nevertheless, only five have been used in a vast amount of studies: informativeness (20 studies), entertainment (11 studies), irritation (10 studies), credibility (8 studies) and hedonic/pleasure (8 studies). We decided to apply a scale from Ducoffe (1996), which was widely used in scientific papers, which proposed five attributes: informativeness, entertainment, irritation, credibility, and advertising value.

Attitudes toward advertising in general have been measured with quantitative techniques using structured questions, and evaluated mainly with Likert scales or semantic differentials (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; Pollay & Mittal, 1993; Andrews et al., 1994; Schlosser et al., 1999; Millan & Mittal, 2010). Since we use Likert scales throughout our study, we decided to apply a 7-ponit Likert scale for measuring attitudes toward advertising, with anchors at 1 "I totally disagree" and 7 "I totally agree". Reverse-coded items are marked with (R):

Informativeness:

- Advertising is a good source of product/service information.
- Advertising supplies relevant product/service information.
- Advertising provides timely information.

Entertainment:

- Advertising is entertaining.
- Advertising is enjoyable.
- Advertising is pleasing.

Credibility:

- Advertising is credible.
- Advertising is trustworthy.
- Advertising is believable.

Irritation:

- Advertising insults people's intelligence. (R)
- Advertising is annoying. (R)
- Advertising is irritating. (R)

Advertising value:

- Advertising is useful.
- Advertising is valuable.
- Advertising is important.

Perceptions of advertising have been examined with different concepts. Since people perceive that they can trust more highly advertised brands perceived advertising spending was studied by academics (Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Yoo et al., 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sánchez-Franco, 2005; Chattopadhyay et al., 2009; Buil et al., 2013). Highly connected to advertising spending are the perceptions of the frequency of advertising (Kirmani & Wright, 1989; Chattopadhyay et al., 2010), since highly advertised brands are also perceived to be advertised more frequently (Moorthy & Zhao, 2000; Chattopadhyay et al., 2010). Perceived advertising spending is measured with quantitative techniques, mainly with statement evaluation with Likert scales (Yoo et al., 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sánchez-Franco, 2005; Chattopadhyay et al., 2009; Buil et al., 2013). Most authors studied perceptions of advertising spending in general (Yoo et al., 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sánchez-Franco, 2005; Buil et al., 2013), while only a few focused on different types of advertising. We adopted the measures from Yoo et al. (2000) for measuring perceived advertising spending in general and adopted them for perceived television advertising spending. We applied a 7-point Likert scale with anchors at 1 "I totally disagree" and 7 "I totally agree". Findings from the focus groups implied that sometimes consumers are not able to remember advertisements on diverse platforms. To ensure that respondents who did not remember whether they saw advertisements or not would get an option to expose this we added the "don't know" answer as an eighth option. Measurement items are presented below:

Perceived television advertising spending:

- Brand X is intensively advertised on television.
- The ad campaigns on television for brand X seem very expensive compared to campaigns for competing brands.
- The ad campaigns on television for brand X are seen frequently.

eWOM was measured from two diverse perspectives: the eWOM input and eWOM process, which have been examined by academics (Chan & Ngai, 2011, p. 494) (see Table 9 for the literature review). For measuring perceptions of eWOM input, eWOM messages are of the vast importance and therefore we focused on measurement scales of eWOM quality (Neveen & Ragovsky, 2008; Gefen & Ridings, 2005) and eWOM credibility (Cheung e tal., 2009). Since the scales were prepared for product reviews (Neveen & Ragovsky, 2008; Cheung et al. 2009) we operationalised them to be suited for brands. We applied a 7-point Likert scale with anchors at 1 "I totally disagree" and 7 "I totally agree". The reverse-coded item is marked with (R).

eWOM quality (adapted by Neveen & Ragovsky, 2008; Gefen & Ridings, 2005):

- The information about brand X on the Internet is helpful.
- The information about brand X on the Internet is usually not the information I need. (R)

eWOM credibility (adapted by Cheung et al., 2009):

- The information about brand X on the Internet is factual.
- The information about brand X on the Internet is accurate.

We also measured the eWOM activity, as a part of the eWOM process. We adopted the measures as proposed by Chu and Kim (2011) when measuring the eWOM in SNSs. They divided eWOM activity into three categories:

Opinion seeking:

- When I consider buying brand X, I ask for advice on the Internet.
- I like to get opinions on the Internet before I buy brand X.
- I feel more comfortable choosing brand X when I have gotten an opinion of it on the Internet.

Opinion passing:

- When I receive information or opinions about brand X from a friend, I pass it along to my friends.

- I like to pass along interesting information about brand X from one group of my contacts to another.
- I pass along my contacts' positive reviews of brand X to other contacts on the Internet.

Opinion giving:

- I often persuade my contacts on the Internet to buy brand X.
- My contacts on the Internet pick brand X based on what I have told them.
- On the Internet, I often influence my contacts' opinions about brand X.

4.3.3.3 Data collection

Data for our quantitative research was collected online by using an online consumer panel. Online consumer panels represent a relatively new method in marketing research. Nevertheless, they are becoming widely used in marketing research (Lohse, Bellman & Johnson, 2000; Neslin, Novak, Baker & Hoffman, 2009). Advantages of online panel data include flexibility, speed and timeliness, global reach, and inclusion of controlled sampling methods (Evans & Mathur, 2005). Researchers also point out several disadvantages of panel data such as panel conditioning, meaning that panel members are atypical as a result of being on the panel. A second disadvantage, panel attrition, may cause response bias, but incentives for panel members are believed to reduce it. Furthermore, authors mention panel selection bias, since panel members are not representatives of the population (Lohse et al., 2000). In the context of this study, the advantages of online consumer panel data prevailed.

We tried to lower the biases and the problem of non-representativeness of the sample with quotas based on respondents' demographic characteristics. The sample was balanced by age and gender in all three chosen countries, as we wanted a sample representative for the population aged from 18 to 64. Quotas for Great Britain and Slovenia derived from the Eurostat data for 1st of January 2011. Since Bosnia and Herzegovina is not included in the Eurostat databases due to its non-membership in the European Union, and since the Federal Office of Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina's most recent census was from the 1990s, we used quotas for age and gender provided by a local market research agency. A local agency was selected for this study, and we conducted the research on their consumer online panels for Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The consumer online panel of Great Britain was conducted by its partner agency in Great Britain. Quotas for the chosen countries are presented in Appendix I.

Respondents were told the study is a part of a doctoral dissertation. They were also told there is no right or wrong answer and what matters is their personal opinion. Confidentiality and anonymity was also promised. There were 342 questionnaires collected in Great Britain, 321 in Slovenia and 314 in Bosnia and Herzegovina. After collecting the data, we conducted statistical analysis and tested the proposed conceptual models.

4.3.3.4 Data analysis

The study of the impact of selected MC tools on the CBBE model was conducted in three countries: Great Britain, Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Therefore, all results are presented from the viewpoint of the three respondent groups. In the analysis, we used unvariate, bivariate and multivariate statistical analyses. At first, we used univariate statistical methods and calculated means, frequencies, and standard deviations for all items included in the study. Further on, additional hypotheses with the use of bivariate statistical methods where tested, employing the independent sample t-test.

Next, we proceeded to test the proposed hypotheses and structural models. For an empirical verification of the conceptual model, the LISREL programme was employed (Hayduk, 1987; Diamantopolous, 1994; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Before conducting the structural equation modelling, we ran exploratory factor analyses in SPSS to examine whether the proposed measurement items measured the proposed constructs in all three countries. After eliminating poorly fitted variables and defining the final constructs, we proceeded to the confirmatory factor analysis in Lisrel 8 to test the measurement model. We tested measurement models of four proposed models; the traditional CBBE model, the new CBBE model, the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model, and the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model. We proceeded to testing structural models with the maximum likelihood method. All models were tested on our three country-specific samples and also on a merged sample in order to validate the findings. We additionally applied the cross validation procedure to determine which of the models better explained brand equity building with the selected MC tools. Moreover, the measurement and structural invariance were tested to ascertain that the research measures present the same underlying constructs and that the structural paths are the same in all selected countries.

5 ANALYSIS AND RESULTS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

5.1 Results of preliminary qualitative research

5.1.1 Results from in-depth interviews

In-depth interviews with brand experts were divided into four parts: brand identity, brand equity, MCs, and the impact of MCs on brand equity. All parts included both theoretical questions and questions related to their brands (see also Appendix D).

In the **first part**, we wanted to determine how brand experts understand the concept of **brand identity**, whether they use another term for the same concept, and what they regard as its building blocks. Brand experts were very familiar with the concept of brand identity, even though some of them used other terms to define the concept, like brand essence, brand style, brand core, and brand idea. All of them emphasised there are two sides of identity, one communicated through visual identity elements, and another invisibly communicating brands' values, core competencies, personality etc.

There were 44 different building blocks of brand identity mentioned (see Table 15). Visual identity was mentioned the most, followed by brand characteristics and values, which were explained by the majority of interviewees as one of the main building blocks of a brand's identity. The brand identity blocks that were proposed in the latest academic literature, such as story, smells, senses, people, emotions, and feelings were mentioned by only a few brand experts, showing that new brand identity conceptualizations are still emerging.

Table 15. Building Blocks of Brand Identity Model

Mentioned brand identity building blocks	**Frequency**
Visual	17
Characteristics	12
Values	10
Communication	7
Feelings	6
Vision, value, name, logo	4
Symbol, sales, promise, positioning, personality, emotions, colour	3
Strategy, senses, mission, meanings, functional, emotional, facts, associations, advertising	2
Wish, understanding, tradition, style, story, smells, slogan, responsibility, reasons, products, presentation, philosophy, people, image, expressions, character, benefits, attributes, activities	1

The incorporation of brand stories, brand relationships, brand experiences, and stakeholders into brands identity are among the novelties emerging in the recent scientific articles, which are being adopted by the majority of the most developed businesses. Therefore we propose:

P1: Brand identity is a multidimensional construct which includes the diverse combination of building blocks aiming to describe brand identity as an integral whole.

P2: Brand experts' knowledge about brand identity is consistent with the traditional brand identity literature; however the newest brand identity conceptualizations are still emerging.

In the **second part** of the qualitative study we focused on brand experts understanding of the concept of **customer-based brand equity (CBBE)**. Brand experts stressed several building blocks of CBBE and we found that the majority understood CBBE concept as its value on the market since value was mentioned by majority, followed by perception, and willingness to pay higher price (see Table 16).

Table 16. CBBE Conceptualization

Customer-based brand equity conceptualization	**Frequency**
Value	7

(table continues)

(continued)

Perception	4
Willingness to pay higher price	3
Market share, price, quality, trust, image	2
Capital, fondness, associations, differentiation, reputation, top of mind position, promise, first choice, relationship, uniqueness	1

Therefore, we asked brand experts what signals high brand equity in the consumers' eyes. Trust, willingness to pay more, loyalty, and sales were mentioned (Table 17). There were mixed opinions regarding whether brand awareness is a brand equity component. As one brand expert responded: "Awareness does not suffice, there needs to be some activity and you need a good association." Another brand expert advocated this by saying: "In a market saturated with brands, the fact that the consumer recalls your brand is a sign that you have done a lot."

Table 17. Indicators of High Brand Equity in Consumers' Eyes

Indicators of high brand equity in consumers' eyes	**Frequency**
Trust, willingness to pay higher price	4
Loyalty, sales	3
Awareness, word-of-mouth	2
Recognition, promise, price, financial data, positive image in media, value, brand decision, market share, relationship, satisfaction	1

Since only one brand expert recalled brand relationship as a building block of brand equity we asked them also whether brand relationships should also be considered a CBBE building block. Brand relationships were acknowledged by the majority as CBBE building blocks. One expert mentioned brand relationship emerged due to the ability of two-way communications among brands and consumers. Another suggested that brands need to be very honest with their consumers and compared brand relationship with marriage explaining that both were based on give and take.

The literature review revealed that several building-blocks were used for brand relationship conceptualisation. These included commitment, love, intimacy, self-connection and partner quality. As such, we asked respondents whether they would describe a brand relationship with these building-blocks. Only one brand expert agreed to use all of the outlined elements. Another expert used all of them except for partner quality. Other brand experts acknowledged that only some of the proposed building-blocks were appropriate. Some experts proposed their own conceptualisation. Intimacy and love were outlined three times. This was followed by loyalty, feelings and partnerships, which were outlined twice. Other proposed building-blocks were being in love, attractiveness, passion, fondness and sympathy. Two brand experts stressed that the brand relationship represents the whole spectrum of relationships relevant also among humans. It also acknowledged that this spectrum of relationship can be transferred to brand-consumer relationships without any difficulty. Two brand experts outlined that what matters is the intensity of the relationship among the brand and the consumer.

The brand managers also shared their views about the consumer perceptions of their brands. Two brand managers outlined that the perceptions of their brands differed by market. Another manager emphasised that their brands are differently perceived across the different target groups. Three brand experts stated that their consumers trust their brands. The majority of brand experts postulated that brands prevail when customers are loyal to the brand. Moreover, the majority of brand experts emphasised that their consumers have a special relationship with their brands; these customers are their loyal customers.

These findings are in favour of including brand relationship into our research, and we postulate:

P3: Brand equity is a multidimensional construct, which should include brand relationships.

P4: *Brand experts' conclusions about brand equity elements are consistent with the recent branding literature.*

In the **third part** we wanted to analyse if brand experts believe the **MCs mix** changed due to development of ICT. All brand experts believe digital communications are changing the way of communicating their brands. Nevertheless, they are sceptic that new mediums, such as social networking sites and smart phones, will prevail, compared to television, which is still regarded as the most efficient and effective tool for brand building. Therefore, they believe that even though MCs mix has changed dramatically, traditional media will not become extinct, but it will have to adapt to diverse platforms. As one brand manager explained: "Also traditional media will adapt to changes, since we cannot talk anymore about traditional media, these are evolving, adapting to the consumers' needs". In the words of one brand manager: "I believe that five to ten years from now television and internet will be the same appliance".

Nevertheless, online advertising, especially in social networking sites and with online banners is widespread, and brand experts measure their effectiveness and efficiency. Brand experts overwhelmingly use measuring techniques provided by online corporations like Google or Facebook for measuring the success of their online communication campaigns. One brand manager said they are using netnography, a technique of qualitative research on the web, which is used broadly in more developed markets (Kozinets, 2002). We also wanted to find out how brand experts define the term eWOM. Eight of them said they understand the term as sharing information in an online environment. Five of them mentioned Facebook as the most representative tool of eWOM.

Our findings regarding mobile advertising reveal that mobile advertising is still not as developed as is suggested in the current literature. Even though brand experts use mobile

advertising, they mentioned their concern about its efficiency and effectiveness. Nevertheless, they see the future especially in this media. The importance of brands in this new environment was explained by one brand manager stating: “Brands are becoming more and more important in this new media world, not the platforms”. In view of brand experts views we make several propositions:
P5: Traditional marketing communication tools need to be adapted for different platforms.
P6: *In the future, brands and not platforms will have a focal role.*
P7: *The focal role is still centred on the traditional marketing communication tools, and digital communications are still evolving.*

In the **fourth part**, we asked brand experts how they think **MCs impact brand equity**. All of them suggested that MCs have a huge impact on brand equity. In the words of one brand expert: »Brands cannot live without communications«. Another brand expert emphasised: »Brand equity is basically built through communications«. From these findings the huge importance of MCs in building CBBE was acknowledged. Both traditional and new MC tools are seen to have an impact on CBBE. The impact of MCs on brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty and brand relationship was confirmed by the majority, and several brand experts suggest that perceived quality is not as much affected by communications as other elements. Moreover, brand experts emphasised that everything they do affects brand equity and, therefore, all marketing mix elements have to be taken into consideration. Price and place were mentioned by several brand experts to have a big impact on brand equity.

The majority of brand experts agreed it depends on the target market which, traditional or new media, have a higher impact on brand equity elements. They believe that for young consumers there is higher impact of new media than traditional, whereas the inverse is true for older consumers. Nevertheless, they emphasised that traditional media has more impact when we talk about brand awareness and brand image for all target groups. In contrast they in majority believed that new MC tools have more impact when talking about perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand relationship. Based on these findings we propose:
P8: All brands’ activities affect CBBE; marketing communications could have a crucial role.
P9: Marketing communications affect all CBBE elements; the impact differs by element and target market.
P10: Both traditional and new media are important when building CBBE.

In summary, our in-depth interviews revealed that brand experts in Slovenia, regardless of their brands’ market orientation and brand type, follow the recent changes in the environment and they are adapting to them. They are aware that branding is becoming crucially important. However, we identified the gap between brand identity understanding in the emerging branding theory and practice. The gap is evident in the use of mobile communications, since brand experts are still adapting to this new media due to its perceived lower effectiveness. However, they believe mobile communications will become more important in the future. Furthermore, our findings reveal that traditional marketing communication tools are still most important for some target groups. These findings are important and will be considered when preparing our quantitative study.

Some limitations of this research have to be emphasised. In-depth interviews have been made with brand experts, coming from real organisations. Some authors (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998) criticise the inclusion of brand managers and marketing directors in the studies, since they are believed to be lacking a long-term vision and propose brand consultants instead. Furthermore, we interviewed 12 brand experts, which does not follow Gordon and Langmaid's (1998) suggestion of a sample size of 20 brand experts for in-depth interviews (in de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998).

5.1.2 Results from focus groups

The results from focus groups are divided into three parts. Only the most important findings will be presented. All parts include both general questions and questions related to well-known brands, of which several will also be included in our quantitative research. Since the focus groups included respondents from different age groups, we will also present whether there were differences between age groups. When we refer to respondents, we will always use the masculine form for simplicity. The full list of questions asked in the focus groups is presented in Appendix E.

In the **first part devoted to brands**, respondents were at first asked whether they have a favourite brand. At first the majority denied, but they soon started to list their favourites. Respondents prefer some brands over others due to a variety factors. One responded, when speaking about his relationship with one brand: "This has been my dream brand for over 40 to 50 years".

Respondents used 35 different descriptions of brands and reasons why they like or do not like some brands. We put all descriptions in ten categories which are presented in Table 18. In the majority of these descriptions, price and quality were mentioned in connection to brands. Even though respondents believed a good brand is connected to higher quality, the question whether higher price really means better quality remained unanswered.

Table 18. Reasons For and Against Favouring Brands

Reasons for and against favouring brands	**Frequency**
Higher price is not a signal of a good product	9
Brand means higher quality	9
Domestic (Slovene) product	9
Higher price as a signal of a good product	7
Brand does not mean higher quality	7

(table continues)

(continued)

Brand likeability	5
Gathered brand information	4
Reliance on brands	3
Familiarity with brand	3
Brand relationship	1

The next question was referred to brand loyalty. Only three respondents answered they are not loyal to brands, while four stated they are loyal. Other claimed that even though they are loyal to some brands this does not prevent them to look for other alternatives. Mostly satisfaction with the brand was stated as a reason for brand loyalty, followed by familiarity, previous positive experience and price. Five respondents furthermore acknowledged they have a special relationship with brands, four stated this relationship is positive and one that he has negative relationship with one brand. One responded described his brand relationship with these words: "Surely, if you use a brand during all your life….then you will return to it". Reasons mentioned in favour of brand relationships were: life-long knowledge of the brand, childhood values, satisfaction, loyalty, the most important asset of the company, development, advertising, and quality. Reasons mentioned when talking against brand relationship were dissatisfaction, false brands' promises, and following a brand without thinking. From these findings we can postulate that respondents agreed that they are loyal to brands and that brand relationships may exist; therefore, we postulate:

P1: Consumers prefer certain brands over the others; this idea is based on both rational and emotional relationships with the brand.

P2: Brand relationships exist also in the consumers' minds.

In the **second part**, we examined respondents' **understanding of MCs**. Findings from the focus groups revealed consumers first think about advertising when mentioning MCs. Consumer then distinguish different forms of advertising, but mix up advertising with other MC tools. Their first responses regarding their attitudes toward advertising in general were: "it is very frequent", "the more stupid it is, the better it works" and "it is irritating". Several respondents outlined that the most irritating ones are advertisements that cannot be stopped or avoided, like those on internet and on television. Several respondents described characteristics of advertisements. Three respondents expressed they like television advertisements the most, since they are able to make an impression with beautiful pictures.

From the respondents' answers we notice that they remember television advertisements of focal brands and they can even evaluate them. Respondents recalled 16 different brands and 4 different product groups without mentioning any particular brand from television advertising. Recalled product groups and brands are presented in Table 19. From these responses we can conclude that respondents remember television advertisements and can also evaluate them. We showed this on the example of recalled television advertisements from Coca-Cola, where respondents stated their television advertisements are likeable, said they look like a fairy tale and also the slogan "I love Coca Cola" was stated twice. The findings are different from print advertisements, since respondents recalled television ads rather than print advertisements and were unable to evaluate them.

Table 19. Recalled Product Groups and Brands From Television Advertisements

Product groups	**Recalled brands (frequency)**
Washing powders	Vanish (1), Ariel (1)
Telecommunications	Simobil (1), Telecom (1)
Yogurts	Danone (1), Na planincah* (3)
Cars	Volkswagen (1)
Food	Oreo biscuits (1)
Beverages	Coca-Cola (1)
Cosmetics	Nivea (1)
Dog food	Pedigree (1)
Sanitary pad	Always (1)
Gambling	Jackpot (1)
Clothing	Calzedonia (1)
Total	**16**

Note. * A brand by Danone with a Slovenian name.

Since the following questions that followed were focused on new MC tools we also wanted to know whether our respondents quickly accept new technologies. The majority of our respondents outlined they do not accept new technologies very quickly. Nevertheless four respondents agreed they accept new technologies rapidly, all of these were in the younger age group.

Furthermore, respondents were able to recall online advertisements, but they were far more difficult to be evaluated. Respondents mentioned nine different brands and four product groups from online advertisements. Respondents agreed they see online advertisements but they do not remember them. One said: “I know I have seen it but I do not know what it was about”. Findings about mobile advertising understanding reveal that it is even more difficult to remember mobile advertisements. Respondents could remember several brands advertised on mobile phones, but were not able to recall them and not able to evaluate them. In the majority respondents refer to SMS advertising when asked about mobile advertisements. Other mobile advertising tools are unknown to the majority.

Almost half the respondents answered they often search for information about brands, the majority of these were in the younger age group. When we asked respondents how they understand eWOM, they answered “as reccommendations”. Furthermore, respondents remembered exact eWOM activities only when referring to a concrete brand, while when not referring to any brand they recalled less eWOM activities. For example, when referring to BMW, two respondents agreed they received information about BMW from their friends and one claimed that he sent some information about BMW to his friends. Therefore, our findings reveal there is some eWOM about brands. We propose:

P3: Television advertising remains the most effective media for building brand perceptions.
P4: Online and mobile advertising are recalled only with difficulty.
P5: eWOM activities are recalled to a greater extent when specific brands are mentioned.

The **third part was devoted to impacts of MCs on brands**. At first we asked respondents whether they think MCs have an impact on how they perceive brands. In the words of one respondent: “Even if you do not let them get to you, it gets into your unconsciousness, even if you do not remember an advertisement, you have it inside your brains, since they are bombarding you a few times a day.” The huge importance of MCs in building brand perceptions was acknowledged. Both traditional and new MC tools were stressed out to have an impact on brands. Advertising and WOM were mentioned to have the highest effect on brand perceptions. The impact of MCs on brand image and brand loyalty was expressed by the majority. Respondents said that perceived quality is not affected only by communications but also by other elements. One respondent advocated said: “It is hard to say, when you just see something on television.” Furthermore, respondents suggested advertising may not affect brand relationships. Regarding eWOM and its impact on brand perceptions respondents mentioned it has an impact but they were concerned whether the eWOM was not made by organizations alone. Respondents agreed eWOM could affect brand perceptions to the same extent like advertising. Based on this we postulate:
P6: Marketing communications have a crucial role in forming brand perceptions.
P7: Marketing communications affect each brand dimension, and the impact differs by element.
P8: Both traditional and new media are important for brand equity building.

5.2 Results of quantitative research

5.2.1 Sample characteristics

The quantitative study was conducted through an online consumer panel. Alltogether we received 976 questionnaires from all three countries. Three versions of questionnaires are presented in Appendices: one for non-durable product brand in English, one for durable product brand in Slovenian, and one for service brand in Bosnian (Appendix F, G and H accordingly). The final sample consisted of 341 respondents from Great Britain, 321 respondents from Slovenia, and 314 respondents from Bosnia and Herzegovina. Age and gender distribution of all three samples reflect the characteristics of the populations in the three markets (the population data is shown in Appendix I). The sample was balanced by brands, so that the same number of age groups and gender also got the same distribution of brands in the sample. The distribution of brands by country is shown in Table 20.

Table 20. Distribution of Brands by Country

	Great Britain		Slovenia		Bosnia and Herzegovina	
Brand	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
BMW	57	16.7	51	15.9	52	16.6
Volkswagen	61	17.9	57	17.8	58	18.5
American Express	60	17.6	53	16.5	51	16.2
VISA	55	16.1	51	15.9	50	15.9
Coca-Cola	53	15.5	55	17.1	51	16.2
Pepsi	55	16.1	54	16.8	52	16.6
Total	**341**	**100.0**	**321**	**100.0**	**314**	**100.0**

Sociodemographic characteristics of British, Slovenian and Bosnian respondents are shown in Table 21. The categorization does not differ between countries in order to allow easier comparison of the data.

In the **British sample** there were more women (52.2%). Respondents were between 18 years and 64 years old. Their age distribution is included in Table 21. Most of the respondents came from suburbs (44.9%), followed by city inhabitants (29.6%) and finally rural area (24.0%). Most of the respondents from British sample had two household members (42.5%). There were 57.5% of employed respondents. The distribution of other employment statuses was quite similarly distributed, from the highest 9.1% of respondents who were housewives to the lowest 8.2% of respondents who were even retired or unemployed. Most of the respondents had university degree (66.3%) or finished secondary school (20.2%). Regarding household income, there were 32.3% of respondents with below-average household income and 25.5% with above-average income, 19.1% considered themselves to have average income.

In the **Slovenian sample**, there were slightly more men than women (52.3%). The age distribution is presented in Table 21. Most of respondents came from the city (52.0%), followed by suburbs (26.5%) and rural areas (21.2%). Most respondents had two (26.2%), three (26.8%), or four (26.2%) household members. There were 54.5% of employed respondents, followed by students or scholars (16.2%), and the retired (13.4%). Most respondents finished secondary school (48.9%), or held a university degree (41.1%). Regarding household income, most respondents had below-average income (26.2%). The distribution of other household income ranks was quite equally distributed, from the highest 17.8% of respondents whose income was slightly above average, to the lowest 15.6% of respondents whose income was average.

There were equal number of men and women in the **Bosnian sample** (50.0%). The age distribution is presented in Table 21. Most respondents came from the city (82.2%), followed by suburbs (15.6%), and rural areas (2.2%). Most respondents had three (31.8%) or four (30.9%) household members. There were 57.3% employed respondents, followed by the unemployed (15.0%) and students or scholars (13.7%). Most respondents had finished secondary school (44.3%) or held a university degree (43.9%). Regarding household income, most respondents had above- or below-average income (both 27.1%), followed by average income (21.0%).

Table 21. Sociodemographic Characteristics of Respondents

Sociodemographic characteristics	**British respondents n = 341**	**Slovenian respondents n = 321**	**Bosnian respondents n = 314**
	Percentage	**Percentage**	**Percentage**
Gender			
Male	47.8	52.3	50.0
Female	52.2	47.7	50.0
Age groups			
18-24	17.0	13.1	16.2
25-34	20.2	21.2	20.1
35-44	21.1	21.5	23.2
45-54	20.8	23.7	22.9
55-64	20.8	20.6	17.5
Type of settlement			
City	29.6	52.0	82.2
Suburbs	44.9	26.5	15.6
Rural area	24.0	21.2	2.2
Do not want to answer	1.5	0.3	0.0
Number of household members			
1	12.9	8.7	5.1
2	42.5	26.2	21.0
3	18.8	26.8	31.8
4	16.7	26.2	30.9
5	6.2	7.5	7.6
6	2.1	3.1	1.9
7 or more	0.9	1.5	1.3
Do not want to answer	0.0	0.0	0.3
Employment status			
Student/Scholar	8.5	16.2	13.7
Employed	57.5	54.5	57.3
Self-employed	8.5	6.2	3.2
Housewife	9.1	0.9	2.2
Unemployed	8.2	8.7	15.0
Retired	8.2	13.4	8.6
Education level			
Primary school	1.5	5.6	1.3
Secondary school	20.2	48.9	44.3
University degree	66.3	41.1	43.9
Master degree	7.6	3.4	9.9
Doctor degree	0.9	0.3	0.3
Specialization	3.5	0.6	0.3

(table continues)

(continued)

Household income			
Above average	25.5	16,2	21.7
Slightly above average	9.1	17,8	17.8
Average	19.1	15,6	21.0
Slightly below average	7.6	16,2	11.8
Below average	32.3	26,2	21.7
Do not want to answer	6.5	8,1	6.1

Besides the socio-demographic characteristics, we also wanted to gain insight into respondents' use of ICT, more particularly their use of internet, which devices they use to connect to the internet, the purposes why they are using internet, and which internet tools they are using.

From Table 22 we can see that British respondents use internet most often, since 97.9% of them use internet often or even more frequently, with 63.6% of British respondents saying they always use internet. Slovenian respondents are slightly less numerous to always use internet (54.8%) and Bosnian even less (46.8%). Nevertheless, 96.6% of Slovenian respondents use internet often or more frequently, compared to 81.5% of Bosnian respondents.

Table 22. Structure of Respondents According to the Use of Internet by Country

Internet use	Great Britain		Slovenia		Bosnia and Herzegovina	
	Percentage	Cumulative percentage	Percentage	Cumulative percentage	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
Internet usage						
Always	63.6	63.6	54.8	54.8	46.8	46.8
Very often	27.6	91.2	27.4	82.2	16.9	63.7
Often	6.7	97.9	14.3	96.6	17.8	81.5
Sometimes	2.1	100.0	3.1	99.7	13.4	94.9
Rarely	0.0	100.0	0.0	99.7	2.2	97.1
Very rarely	0.0	100.0	0.3	100.0	2.9	100.0
Never	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	100.0

In all three countries, respondents use mainly computers or laptops to access internet, followed by mobile phone and tablet computers (see Table 23). Tablet computers are more often used by British respondents (5.8%), followed by Slovenian (3.4%) and Bosnian (1.9%) respondents.

Table 23. Descriptive Statistics for Appliances Used for Reaching Internet

Appliances used for reaching Internet	Great Britain			Slovenia			Bosnia and Herzegovina		
	Mean	SD	SE	Mean	SD	SE	Mean	SD	SE
Computer or laptop	79.7	24.2	1.3	83.9	22.0	1.2	85.5	20.2	1.1

(table continues)

(continued)

Tablet computer	5.8	14.8	0.8	3.4	12.0	0.6	1.9	7.4	0.4
Mobile phone	14.6	19.5	1.1	13.5	18.6	1.0	12.6	18.4	1.0

There are many purposes why respondents in all countries use internet. Majority of respondents use internet for multiple purposes, for example more than half of Slovenian respondents stated they use internet for at least seven purposes, followed by more than half the British with at least six purposes and more than half Bosnians with at least five purposes. For the distribution across samples refer to Appendix J, Table 1. Almost all respondents from all three countries used internet at least for reading and sending emails. Regarding other purposes, there are big differences between countries. For example, in Great Britain and Slovenia the second most frequent purpose is in to search information about goods and services, while in Bosnia and Herzegovina respondents cited reading online newspapers and magazines as the second most frequent purpose. The use of online shopping and online banking also differs greatly among countries: it is most frequent in Great Britain with more than 80%, followed by Slovenia with more than 55% and finally Bosnia and Herzegovina with less than 30% of online shopping and less than 17% for online banking. Other huge differences between countries are to what extent respondents use internet for searching information about brands, where the highest percentage of British search information about brands online (66.3%), compared to a lesser percentage of Slovenians (56.4%) and even fewer Bosnians (36.9%) (see Appendix J, Table 2).

Respondents in all three countries use multiple internet tools (see Appendix J, Table 3). More than half the British and Bosnians use at least five tools, followed by more than half Slovenians with at least four used internet tools. Eight tools are used by 11,7% of British, followed by Bosnians (8.3%) and Slovenians (2.8%). Almost all respondents from all three countries use at least email, nevertheless, fewer Bosnians (85.7%) use email compared to the British (96.2%) or Slovenians (94.4%). The same holds true for the use of search engines, where 85.6% British and 88.5% of Slovenians use search engines compared to 70.4% of Bosnians. There are differences also for other tools as well, with more Bosnians using creativity works sharing sites compared to British and Slovenian respondents. Furthermore, fewer Slovenian respondents use social networking sites (59.2%) or collaborative sites like Wikipedia (27.4%) compared to respondents from other two countries. Other data about internet tools usage by country is presented in Appendix J, Table 4. We asked those respondents who declared they use social networking sites to indicate out their primary social networking site. Facebook is used most frequently in all countries. Other social networking sites are used less frequently (see Appendix J, Table 5).

Furthermore, we wanted to gain information about their mobile phone usage and knowledge of diverse mobile advertising tools. Ownership of smart phones, internet usage on mobile devices, and respondents' previous experience with permission for receiving mobile advertisements was examined. Previous experience with different mobile advertising tools in all three countries was examined.

There are quite significant differences in usage of mobile phone tools between countries. Britain has the highest percentage of smart phone owners (62.2%), followed by Slovenia (45.5%) and finally Bosnia and Herzegovina (30.9%). Nevertheless, the highest percentage of Slovenians applied to receive advertisements on their mobile devices (45.2%), followed by Bosnians with 38.9%. In contrast only 16.4% of British respondents applied to receive advertisements on mobile phones. Nevertheless, British respondents use internet on their mobile devices to a greater extent than Slovenian or Bosnian respondents. Therefore 41.1% of British respondents use internet on their mobile device often or more frequently, compared to only 26.2% of Slovenians and 23.6% of Bosnians from the sample. Britain also has the smallest percentage of respondents who have never used internet on mobile device (27.6%), compared to Slovenian (37.4%) or Bosnian (40.8%) respondents (see Appendix K, Table 2).

Regarding respondents' previous experience with mobile advertising tools we examined whether they are acquainted with SMS, MMS and Bluetooth advertising, mobile applications, QR codes, and mobile internet advertising. SMS advertising seems to be well-known especially in Slovenia, where only 9.3% of respondents did not have any previous experience with this type of advertising, compared to 30.3% of Bosnian respondents and 36.7% of British respondents. All respondents had more positive than negative experience with SMS advertising in all three countries. MMS advertising is known to a lesser extent in all three countries, where Slovenian respondents stand out in knowing this type of advertising compared to British or Bosnians. Nevertheless, respondents of all three countries mentioned more positive than negative experiences with MMS advertising. Bluetooth advertising is not well known in all three countries, where more than half the respondents stated to not have any previous experience with this mobile advertising option. Those who have had some experience with Bluetooth advertising evaluated the experience in majority as neutral in all three countries. The lowest percentage of respondents in all three countries had already some previous experience with QR codes, where less than 40% of them actually had some previous experience with this type of advertising and most these stated this experience was neutral. Regarding mobile internet advertising about 50% of respondents in all countries did not have any experience with this kind of advertisements. Furthermore, most respondents from all three countries rated experience with this type of advertising as neutral (see Appendix K, Table 2).

5.2.2 Analysis of respondents' previous experience with researched brands

Before focusing on CBBE evaluations we wanted to see whether respondents already had some previous experience with researched brands. Therefore, we asked them three types of questions about previous brand experience: their product or service category involvement, previous brand usage and previous experience with the brand appointed to them.

Data shows that respondents already had experiences with the product or service category appointed to them (see Table 24). Slovenian and Bosnian respondents seem to be more involved in the product or service category. Slovenian (mean = 4.28) and Bosnian (mean = 4.03) respondents agreed they are involved with product or service category than British respondents (mean = 3.27). All respondents neither agreed neither disagreed they use product or service category very often. Even though respondents from all three countries disagreed they are product or service category experts, they are interested in the product or service category. From results we can postulate that the term expert could be too strong term to be used in the product or service category measurement. Other terms should be used instead, like specialist or others.

Table 24. Descriptive Statistics for Product or Service Category Involvement

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
I am very involved with product/service category.	3.27	2.00	0.11	4.28	1.54	0.09	4.03	1.92	0.11
I use product/service category very often.	3.61	2.07	0.11	4.10	2.15	0.12	4.19	2.19	0.12
I am a product/service category expert.	2.77	1.78	0.10	2.64	1.61	0.09	2.82	1.84	0.10
I am not interested in product/service category. (R)	4.38	2.02	0.11	4.85	2.00	0.11	4.82	2.05	0.12

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = "Totally disagree" and 7 = "Totally agree"; (R) marks the reverse-coded item
M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error.

According to the data nearly half the respondents in all three countries had already owned, purchased or used the brand appointed to them (see Table 25). The lowest percentage of brand users is found in the Slovenian sample (44.0%). There are 33.7% of current brand users in Great Britain, 15% of current brand users in Slovenia, and 25.5% of current brand users in Bosnia and Herzegovina. In contrast, quite a high percentage of respondents had never owned, purchased or used the appointed brand. Even though some of the respondents did not use the appointed brand yet, the chosen brands are well known around the globe. Nevertheless, we excluded the question about the relationship with the brand for those respondents who had never used, purchased, or owned a brand.

Table 25. Structure of Respondents According to Previous Brand Usage

Percentage	**Great Britain**	**Slovenia**	**Bosnia and Herzegovina**
I currently own a brand. *	33.7	15.0	25.5
I owned a brand in the past.*	22.9	29.0	28.0
I never owned a brand.*	43.4	56.0	46.5

Note. Measurement items above were used for product brands for durable goods.

The majority of respondents from Great Britain already had some experience with the appointed brand (79.2%). The percentage of respondents that had experiences with the brand was lower in the other two countries: 58.6% of Slovenian respondents and 62.1% of Bosnian respondents already had brand experience (see Table 26). Respondents in all three countries had more positive than negative experiences. Nevertheless, quite a big percentage of respondents also stated they had neither negative nor positive brand experience. As in the previous question we excluded respondents who had no experience with the researched brand from evaluation of brand relationship.

Table 26. Structure of Respondents According to Prior Brand Experience

	Great Britain	**Slovenia**	**Bosnia and Herzegovina**
Percentage			
Extremely negative	1.2	0.3	0.3
Negative	4.4	2.5	1.6
Neither negative, neither positive	26.7	22.7	21.0
Positive	30.8	22.7	26.4
Extremely positive	16.1	10.3	12.7
No experiences	20.8	41.4	37.9

The analysis of previous experience with the researched brands shows that some respondents were not involved with the appointed brand. Even though some of them did not own, buy or use an appointed brand it seems they were still familiar with this products or service category. Respondents from Great Britain had more experiences with researched brands compared to respondents from the other two countries, even though they seemed to be more involved with the product and service category.

5.2.3 Analysis of the CBBE elements

Respondents from all three countries were neutral on the question if the appointed brand is the first brand that comes to mind, with a mean score from 4.14 to 3.61 (see Table 27). Nevertheless, standard deviations were high (from 1.79 to 2.14), showing that there were big differences among respondents' opinions in all samples. Respondents from Great Britain (mean = 6.12) and Slovenia (mean = 6.39) strongly agreed they were aware of the brand appointed to them, while Bosnian respondents agreed. Respondents from all three countries agreed they recognized the researched brand among others and knowing it. Respondents from all three countries strongly agreed they knew what the brand looks like.

Table 27. Descriptive Statistics for Brand Awareness

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
BA1: When I think of	4.28	1.79	0.10	3.61	2.06	0.12	4.14	2.14	0.12

(table continues)

(continued)

product/service category, X is the brand that first comes to mind.									
BA2: I am aware of X.	6.12	1.20	0.07	6.39	1.33	0.08	5.16	1.77	0.10
BA3: I can recognize X among other competing brands.	5.58	1.45	0.08	5.49	1.68	0.09	5.69	1.70	0.10
BA4: I know X.	5.24	1.61	0.09	5.35	1.78	0.10	5.03	1.94	0.11
BA5: I know what X looks like.	5.72	1.37	0.07	5.70	1.61	0.09	5.99	1.52	0.09

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = "Totally disagree" and 7 = "Totally agree", M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error, BA = brand awareness.

While British (mean = 4.77) and Bosnian (mean = 4.56) respondents slightly agreed they could quickly recall some characteristics of the researched brand, Slovenian respondents were close to a neutral mean (mean = 4.28) (see Table 28). Nevertheless, a standard deviation of 2.03 for Slovenian respondents was the highest for this measurement item. All respondents showed higher agreement they could quickly recall the symbol or logo of the brand. They all disagreed with having difficulty in imagining the brand in their mind, with Bosnian respondents showing the strongest disagreement (mean = 5.52). Respondents from all countries agreed that the researched brand has a strong personality. In contrast, they showed mixed opinions about having a clear impression of the type of people who use the researched brand. While British respondents slightly agreed (mean = 4.53), Slovenian (mean = 3.68) and Bosnian (mean = 4.16) respondents were more neutral.

Table 28. Descriptive Statistics for Brand Image

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
BI1: Some characteristics of X come to my mind quickly.	4.77	1.59	0.09	4.28	2.03	0.11	4.56	1.99	0.11
BI2: I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of X.	5.57	1.56	0.08	5.23	1.85	0.10	5.51	1.93	0.11
BI3: I have difficulty in imagining X in my mind. (R)	5.26	1.73	0.09	4.85	2.00	0.11	5.52	1.86	0.11
BI4: X has a strong personality.	5.26	1.42	0.08	4.83	1.81	0.10	4.95	1.82	0.10
BI5: I have a clear impression of the type of people who use X.	4.53	1.53	0.08	3.68	1.83	0.10	4.14	1.86	0.11

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = "Totally disagree" and 7 = "Totally agree"; (R) marks the reverse-coded item, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error, brand image.

Regarding the perceived quality of the brand, respondents from all three countries agreed that the brand must be of very good and high quality, that quality is likely extremely high and that the brand is likely to be very reliable (see Table 29). Mean values range from 5.13 to 5.45.

Table 29. Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Quality

	Great Britain			Slovenia			Bosnia and Herzegovina		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
PQ1: X must be of very good quality.	5.18	1.44	0.08	5.45	1.48	0.08	5.38	1.68	0.10
PQ2: The likely quality of X is extremely high.	5.24	1.39	0.08	5.15	1.57	0.09	5.26	1.73	0.10
PQ3: The likelihood that X is reliable is very high.	5.31	1.36	0.07	5.13	1.54	0.09	5.24	1.68	0.10
PQ4: X is of high quality.	5.26	1.41	0.08	5.14	1.57	0.09	5.26	1.70	0.10

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = “Totally disagree” and 7 = “Totally agree”, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error, PQ = perceived quality.

All respondents slightly disagreed they consider themselves loyal to the researched brand (see Table 30). While British (3.82) and Bosnian (3.89) respondents were neutral that the researched brand would be their first choice, Slovenian respondents slightly disagreed (mean 3.00). Nevertheless, the standard deviation was high for all samples (1.91 to 2.09). While British and Slovenian respondents slightly disagreed they would not buy other brands if the researched brand was available in the stores, British respondents were neutral. All respondents showed a neutral opinion on the question if it seems smarter to purchase the researched brand if another brand is not different. Nevertheless, the standard deviation was high for this measurement item, ranging from 1.74 to 2.03. While British and Bosnian respondents were neutral about purchasing a brand in the near future or recommending it to their friends, Slovenian respondents disagreed on average. Nevertheless, high standard deviations are evident for all samples, mainly among Slovenian and Bosnian respondents (1.87 to 2.09).

Table 30. Descriptive Statistics for Brand Loyalty

	Great Britain			Slovenia			Bosnia and Herzegovina		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
BL1: I consider myself to be loyal to X.	3.34	2.01	0.11	2.49	1.92	0.11	3.38	2.09	0.12
BL2: X would be my first choice.	3.82	1.91	0.10	3.00	2.01	0.11	3.89	2.09	0.12
BL3: I will not buy other brands if X is available.	3.40	1.91	0.10	2.98	1.93	0.11	3.72	2.00	0.11
BL4: If another brand is not different from X in any way, it seems smarter to purchase X.	4.11	1.74	0.09	3.72	2.03	0.11	4.46	1.93	0.11
BL5: I intend to purchase X in the near future.	4.02	1.98	0.11	3.11	2.01	0.11	3.68	2.04	0.12

(table continues)

(continued)

BL6: I intend to recommend X to my friends.	3.59	1.83	0.10	2.98	1.87	0.10	3.88	1.89	0.11

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = "Totally disagree" and 7 = "Totally agree", M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error, BL = brand loyalty.

As already noted, questions on brand relationship were only asked to a limited number of respondents. Respondents who did not use the brand and did not have any brand experience in the past were excluded from the question, since without previous experience relationships cannot evolve. There were 192 British, 138 Slovenian, and 168 Bosnian respondents that answered questions on brand relationship (see Table 31).

While respondents from Great Britain and Slovenia disagreed with all items measuring self-connection with brands, the mean score for respondents from Bosnia was close to the neutral position for two measurement items. Respondents from Slovenia showed the highest disagreement (mean scores from 2.46 to 2.51). Nevertheless, standard deviations for all samples ranged from 1.65 to 2.00, showing there were mixed opinions among respondents. The highest standard deviations were found in the Bosnian sample.

Regarding their intimate relationship with brands, respondents from all three countries disagreed with the statement that they feel like a brand cares about them or listens to what they have to say. While British and Slovenian respondents disagreed that the researched brand understands them, Bosnian respondents were of neutral opinion. Slovenian respondents showed the strongest disagreement with all three measurement items. To sum up, on average, respondents did not feel intimate with the researched brand (see Table 31).

Table 31. Descriptive Statistics for Brand Relationship

	Great Britain (n = 192)			**Slovenia (n = 138)**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina (n = 168)**		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
Self-connection									
BRSC1: X says a lot about the kind of person I would like to be.	3.41	1.71	0.12	2.51	1.82	0.16	3.51	1.90	0.15
BRSC2: X helps me make a statement about what is important to me in life.	3.34	1.70	0.12	2.46	1.73	0.15	3.29	1.95	0.15
BRSC3: Using X lets me be a part of a shared community of like-minded consumers.	3.39	1.65	0.12	2.46	1.83	0.16	3.57	2.00	0.16
Intimacy									
BRIN1: I feel like X actually cares about me.	3.39	1.67	0.12	2.48	1.76	0.15	3.41	1.91	0.15

(table continues)

(continued)

BRIN2: X really listens to what I have to say.	3.42	1.65	0.12	2.59	1.67	0.14	3.38	1.84	0.14
BRIN3: I feel as though X really understands me.	3.46	1.64	0.12	2.55	1.71	0.14	3.52	1.89	0.15

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = "Totally disagree" and 7 = "Totally agree", n = number of respondents, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error, BRSC = brand relationship self-connection, BRIN = brand relationship intimacy.

5.2.4 Analysis of respondents' perceptions of MC tools

In the next part, the respondents' perceptions of advertising in general and diverse Mc tools, used by brands, were examined. Respondents from all three countries agreed advertising is a good source of product or service information and that the information is timely (see Table 32). Mixed attitudes were found regarding relevance of product or service information provided via advertising. Mean scores were 4.69, 4.18, and 4.62 for British, Slovenian, and Bosnian respondents respectively.

Respondents from all three countries showed mixed attitudes toward the entertainment value of advertising. While British and Slovenian respondents showed neutral attitudes, Bosnian respondents slightly agreed advertising is entertaining and enjoyable. Nevertheless, all respondents neither agreed nor disagreed advertising is pleasing. Respondents showed mixed attitudes on whether advertising is credible, trustworthy, and believable. While Slovenian respondents disagreed, British and Bosnian respondents were neutral.

Bosnian respondents (mean = 4.85) agreed advertising does not insult people's intelligence. In contrast, British (mean = 4.19) and Slovenian (4.48) respondents were close to neutral. All respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that advertising is annoying and irritating. Nevertheless, all respondents agreed advertising is useful and important; Bosnian respondents showed the strongest agreement. While Slovenian respondents (mean = 3.99) were neutral regarding the value of advertising, British (mean = 4.66) and Bosnian (mean = 4.89) respondents agreed advertising is valuable. From these results, we can conclude there are differences among attitudes toward advertising in general between the samples from the three countries.

Table 32. Descriptive Statistics for Attitudes toward Advertising in General

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
Informativeness									
ADINF1: Advertising is a good source of product/service	4.81	1.36	0.07	4.65	1.62	0.09	5.07	1.68	0.10

(table continues)

(continued)

information.									
ADINF2: Advertising supplies relevant product/service information.	4.69	1.30	0.07	4.18	1.66	0.09	4.62	1.56	0.09
ADINF3: Advertising provides timely information.	4.59	1.27	0.07	4.70	1.61	0.09	4.91	1.56	0.09
Entertainment									
ADENT1: Advertising is entertaining.	4.50	1.31	0.07	4.33	1.62	0.09	4.72	1.57	0.09
ADENT2: Advertising is enjoyable.	4.29	1.37	0.07	3.55	1.60	0.09	4.74	1.61	0.09
ADENT3: Advertising is pleasing.	4.16	1.31	0.07	3.93	1.55	0.09	4.43	1.48	0.08
Credibility									
ADCRE1: Advertising is credible.	4.05	1.33	0.07	3.43	1.50	0.08	4.35	1.47	0.08
ADCRE2: Advertising is trustworthy.	3.73	1.37	0.07	3.40	1.56	0.09	4.11	1.64	0.09
ADCRE3: Advertising is believable.	4.03	1.32	0.07	3.32	1.56	0.09	3.77	1.62	0.09
Irritation									
ADIRR1: Advertising insults people's intelligence. (R)	4.19	1.53	0.08	4.48	1.81	0.10	4.85	1.73	0.10
ADIRR2: Advertising is annoying. (R)	3.73	1.54	0.08	4.06	1.78	0.10	4.08	1.72	0.10
ADIRR3: Advertising is irritating. (R)	3.73	1.53	0.08	3.85	1.79	0.10	4.32	1.78	0.10
Advertising value									
ADVAL1: Advertising is useful.	4.87	1.29	0.07	4.61	1.59	0.09	5.45	1.47	0.08
ADVAL2: Advertising is valuable.	4.66	1.37	0.07	3.99	1.63	0.09	4.89	1.59	0.09
ADVAL3: Advertising is important.	4.84	1.45	0.08	4.85	1.56	0.09	5.61	1.48	0.08

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = “Totally disagree” and 7 = “Totally agree”; (R) marks the reverse-coded item, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error, ADINF = informativeness, ADENT = entertainment, ADCRE = credibility, ADIRR = irritation, ADVAL = advertising value.

The next set of results is devoted to perceptions of advertising spending. The question items allowed respondents to choose “Don’t know” for measurement items of perceptions of advertising spending. Regarding the perceptions of television advertising spending, there were nearly 304 British, 260 Slovenian, and 265 Bosnian respondents who answered all questions. Respondents from all three countries were neutral on whether the researched brand is intensively advertised on television (mean scores between 3.82 and 4.25). Nevertheless, there were high standard deviations in the Slovenian and Bosnian samples (see Table 33). While Bosnian respondents slightly agreed that television campaigns for the researched brand seem expensive compared to campaigns of competing brands, British and Slovenian respondents were close to neutral. British and Bosnian respondents were neutral on the question whether television campaigns for the researched brand are seen frequently; Slovenian respondents slightly disagreed (mean = 3.44).

Table 33. Descriptive Statistics for Perceptions of Television Advertising Spending

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
TAS1: X is intensively advertised on television.	3.96	1.50	0.08	3.82	1.87	0.11	4.25	1.99	0.12
TAS2: The ad campaigns on television for X seem very expensive compared to campaigns for competing brands.	4.23	1.34	0.08	4.01	1.71	0.11	4.52	1.75	0.11
TAS3: The ad campaigns on television for X are seen frequently.	4.07	1.49	0.08	3.44	1.88	0.11	4.43	1.98	0.12

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = “Totally disagree” and 7 = “Totally agree”, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error, TAS = television advertising spending.

The next section is devoted to the eWOM analysis. All respondents were neutral about all measurement items regarding eWOM quality and credibility (see Table 34), with mean scores from 3.92 to 4.41. The standard deviations among British respondents were quite low, ranging from 1.00 to 1.39, showing that their opinions were quite similar. Also standard deviations among Slovenian and Bosnian respondents were lower than the standard deviations for other measured constructs, showing that their opinions were similar.

Table 34. Descriptive Statistics for eWOM Quality and Credibility

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
eWOM quality									
eWOMQ1: The information about X on the Internet is helpful.	3.96	1.39	0.08	3.95	1.69	0.09	4.41	1.59	0.09
eWOMQ2: The information about X on the Internet is usually not the information I need. (R)	3.92	1.21	0.07	4.18	1.64	0.09	4.06	1.66	0.09
eWOM credibility									
eWOMC1: The information about X on the Internet is factual.	4.31	1.06	0.06	4.13	1.53	0.09	4.25	1.43	0.08
eWOMC2: The information about X on the Internet is accurate.	4.30	1.00	0.05	4.05	1.53	0.09	4.37	1.41	0.08

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = “Totally disagree” and 7 = “Totally agree”; (R) marks the reverse-coded item, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error, eWOMQ = eWOM quality, eWOMC = eWOM credibility.

Regarding eWOM activities, we asked respondents whether they search for or give their own brand-related opinions on the Internet. Regarding opinion seeking, respondents from all three countries disagreed with the measurement items (means between 2.62 and 3.37). Nevertheless, British respondents were neutral on whether they feel more comfortable choosing the researched brand when they get opinions on the internet (mean = 3.57). For all measurement items of opinion seeking, high standard deviations were found for all samples (from 1.73 to 2.07). Respondents from all three countries slightly disagreed they pass opinions and give opinions about a brand on the internet to their friends or contacts. The highest disagreement for all samples was found regarding persuading their contacts on the internet to buy the appointed brand. Standard deviations for opinion passing were from 1.65 to 1.95, showing that respondents' opinions were not so united (see Table 35).

Table 35. Descriptive Statistics for Respondents' eWOM activity

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		
	M	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**	**M**	**SD**	**SE**
Opinion seeking									
eWOMS1: When I consider buying X, I ask for advice on the Internet.	2.96	1.76	0.10	2.62	1.73	0.10	3.37	2.00	0.11
eWOMS2: I like to get opinions on the Internet before I buy X.	3.16	1.88	0.10	3.24	2.07	0.12	2.97	1.92	0.11
eWOMS3: I feel more comfortable choosing X when I have gotten an opinion of it on the Internet.	3.17	1.81	0.10	3.16	1.94	0.11	3.57	1.99	0.11
Opinion passing									
eWOMP1: When I receive information or opinions about X from a friend, I pass it along to my friends.	2.90	1.76	0.10	2.83	1.86	0.10	3.26	1.95	0.11
eWOMP2: I like to pass along interesting information about X from one group of my contacts to another.	2.75	1.75	0.10	2.63	1.76	0.10	3.20	1.91	0.11
eWOMP3: I pass along my contacts' positive reviews of X to other contacts on the Internet.	2.64	1.65	0.09	2.50	1.68	0.09	3.07	1.78	0.10
Opinion giving									
eWOMG1: I often persuade my contacts on the Internet to buy X.	2.43	1.57	0.09	2.16	1.53	0.09	2.67	1.76	0.10
eWOMG2: My contacts on the Internet pick X based on what I have told them.	2.56	1.63	0.09	2.44	1.64	0.09	2.81	1.71	0.10
eWOMG3: On the Internet, I often influence my contacts' opinions about X.	2.60	1.65	0.09	2.41	1.55	0.09	3.06	1.82	0.10

Note. 7-point scale: 1 = "Totally disagree" and 7 = "Totally agree"; M = mean, SD = standard deviation, SE = standard error, eWOMS = eWOM sending, eWOMP = eWOM passing, eWOMG = eWOM opinion giving.

5.2.5 Exploratory factor analysis

In the next step of the quantitative analysis we determined the factor structure of the constructs in our model. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) facilitated the preparation of the data for additional multivariate research techniques. It enabled us to define a structure based on the data and to eliminate items not useful for the analysis (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). The EFA was used with an aim to determine whether the proposed constructs should be used as one single factor or if it should constitute the independent dimensions. The traditional and new CBBE models and attitudes towards advertising in the general scales were tested to determine the ideal number of factors and relevant variables. We then performed individual factor analyses concerning the perceptions of the selected MC tools, namely television advertising, eWOM inputs, and the eWOM process. This was conducted to determine whether the constructs are unidimensional or constitute several dimensions.

We preformed the first EFA for the **traditional CBBE model**. Regarding factor loadings we followed the suggestions made by Hair et al. (2010) who stressed that values greater than 0.50 are needed. Before examining the factor loadings we looked at some other measures of appropriateness of the EFA. The EFA was made separately on all three samples. We used the principal axis factoring extraction method. In order to decide which rotation to use, we ran the oblique rotation first, where we choose the oblimin method. We looked at the factor correlation matrix for the traditional CBBE model for all three countries and since there were more correlations above 0.32, we decided that oblique rotation method is the most suitable for our data (Brown, 2009, p. 21) (see Table 36).

Table 36. Factor Correlation Matrix for the Traditional CBBE Model

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		
Factor	**BA & BI**	**PQ**	**BL**	**BA & BI**	**PQ**	**BL**	**BA & BI**	**PQ**	**BL**
BA&BI	1.00	-0.36	-0.55	1.00	-0.35	-0.47	1.00	0.38	0.43
PQ	-0.36	1.00	0.48	-0.35	1.00	0.41	0.38	1.00	0.40
BL	-0.55	0.48	1.00	-0.47	0.41	1.00	0.43	0.40	1.00

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ – perceived quality, BL – brand loyalty.

We looked at KMO measure, Barlett’s test of sphericity, communalities, and the proportion of the explained variance (see Table 37). The KMO measure is a measure of sampling adequacy. KMO measures higher than 0.917 in all samples indicate that correlations are very compact and that factors are distinct and reliable (Field, 2013, p. 684). Barlett’s test of sphericity indicates that the correlation matrix has significant correlations for all samples. There was more than 66.88% of variance explained in all three samples.

Communalities with values below 0.30 and factor loadings below 0.50 were excluded from further analysis. Initially, a four-factor solution for 20 measurement items was identified in the Slovene and Bosnian samples, while the British sample immediately produced a three-factor solution. After the elimination of items with low communalities and factor loadings, the exploratory factor analysis was performed again until all low factor loadings and communalities were excluded.

Table 37. Measures of Appropriateness of EFA for the Traditional CBBE Model

Criterion/Sample	**Great Britain**	**Slovenia**	**Bosnia and Herzegovina**
Extraction method	PAF	PAF	PAF
Rotation method	Oblimin	Oblimin	Oblimin
Number ob observations	341	321	314
KMO measure	0.943	0.917	0.921
Bartlett's test of sphericity			
Approx. Chi Square	5913.359	4417.648	4155.891
df	153	120	136
Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.000
Comunalities			
Initial	0.573 to 0.900	0.402 to 0.894	0.477 to 0.895
Extraction	0.550 to 0.943	0.355 to 0.930	0.496 to 0.931
Variance explained			
Initial eigenvalues	76.72	75.03	72.31
Extraction sums of squared loadings	72.57	69.95	66.88
Number of factors	3	3	3

Note. PAF – principal axis factoring, df = degrees of freedom, Sig. = Significance.

Although a four-factor solution was expected in all samples, only a three-factor solution was produced in all samples. Nearly all items had low cross-loadings, lower than +/-0.10. The first factor was brand awareness with brand image in all samples. This outcome cannot be surprising since we already presented there are different views on the topic whether brand awareness and brand image with brand associations present one or two distinct constructs. Some empirical studies merge the two constructs into one (Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Rios & Riquellme, 2008, 2010). The second factor was labelled perceived quality, and the third brand loyalty. All items loaded on expected three-factor solution, except for the first brand awareness item which loaded on brand loyalty factor in all samples (see Table 38).

Table 38. Exploratory Factor Analysis for the Traditional CBBE Model

Sample	**Great Britain**			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		
VAR/ DIM	**BA&BI**	**PQ**	**BL**	**BA&BI**	**PQ**	**BL**	**BA&BI**	**PQ**	**BL**
BA1			-0.65			-0.57			-0.59
BA2	0.76			0.56			0.62		
BA3	0.81			0.71			0.77		
BA4	0.72			0.74			0.70		

(table continues)

(continued)

BA5	0.83			0.89			0.82		
BI1	0.69			0.62			0.63		
BI2	0.78			0.76			0.71		
BI4	0.58								
PQ1		-0.89			-0.82			0.78	
PQ2		-0.96			-0.96			0.94	
PQ3		-0.82			-0.96			0.89	
PQ4		-0.87			-0.90			0.91	
BL1			0.93			-0.87			0.89
BL2			0.86			-0.90			0.84
BL3			0.89			-0.87			0.82
BL4			0.65			-0.65			0.67
BL5			0.77			-0.83			0.82
BL6			0.80			-0.82			0.69

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ – perceived quality, BL – brand loyalty.

The second EFA was performed for the **new CBBE model** (see Table 39). We checked the factor correlation matrix for the new CBBE model for all three countries. The oblique rotation method has been used (Brown, 2009, p. 21). There are high correlations found among brand loyalty and brand relationship, and among perceived quality and brand loyalty on all samples. The highest difference is in the correlations among perceived quality and brand awareness with brand image, where on the British sample are high correlations found, while on the other two samples the correlations are lower.

Table 39. Factor Correlation Matrix for the New CBBE Model

	Great Britain				**Slovenia**				**Bosnia and Herzegovina**			
	BA &BI	**PQ**	**BL**	**BR**	**BA &BI**	**PQ**	**BL**	**BR**	**BA& BI**	**PQ**	**BL**	**BR**
BA& BI	1,00	-0.56	0.34	0.11	1.00	-0.28	-0.33	0.08	1.00	-0.27	-0.27	0.15
PQ	-0.56	1.00	-0.54	-0.38	-0.28	1.00	0.57	-0.45	-0.27	1.00	0.52	-0.37
BL	0.34	-0.54	1.00	0.59	-0.33	0.57	1.00	-0.67	-0.27	0.52	1.00	-0.53
BR	0.11	-0.38	0.59	1.00	0.08	-0.45	-0.67	1.00	0.15	-0.37	-0.53	1.00

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ – perceived quality, BL – brand loyalty, BR – brand relationship.

KMO measures were higher than 0.917 in all samples, meaning that correlations are very compact and that factors are distinct and reliable (Field, 2013, p. 684). Barlett’s test of sphericity indicates that correlation matrix has significant correlations for all samples. Communalities with values below 0.30 and factor loadings below 0.50 were excluded from further analysis. There was more than 67.50% of variance explained in all three samples (see Table 40).

Table 40. Measures of Appropriateness of EFA for the New CBBE Model

Criterion/Sample	Great Britain	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina
Extraction method	PAF	PAF	PAF
Rotation method	Oblimin	Oblimin	Oblimin
N	192	138	168
KMO measure	0.934	0.926	0.917
Bartlett's test of sphericity			
Approx. Chi Square	4344.06	2945.242	3366.853
df	231	231	253
Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.000
Comunalities			
Initial	0.582 to 0.912	0.411 to 0.916	0.433 to 0.900
Extraction	0.526 to 0.935	0.404 to 0.940	0.316 to 0.928
Variance explained			
Initial eigenvalues	79.36	76.94	72.98
Extraction sums of squared loadings	75.10	72.20	67.50
Nr. of factors	4	4	4

Note. PAF – principal axis factoring, df = degrees of freedom, Sig. = Significance.

Initially, a five-factor solution for 24 measurement items was identified in the Slovenian sample and a four-factor solution in the British and Bosnian samples. After the elimination of items with low communalities and factor loadings the exploratory factor analysis was performed again. A four-factor solution was found in all samples. Nearly all items had low cross-loadings, lower than +/-0.10. The first factor in all samples was brand awareness with brand image. The second factor was perceived quality. The third factor was brand loyalty and the fourth brand relationship in all samples (see Table 41).

Table 41. Exploratory Factor Analysis for the New CBBE Model

	Great Britain				Slovenia				Bosnia and Herzegovina			
	BA& BI	PQ	BL	BR	BA& BI	PQ	BL	BR	BA& BI	PQ	BL	BR
BA1			0.64				-0.57				-0.66	
BA2	0.79				0.66				0.52			
BA3	0.74				0.58				0.70			
BA4	0.63				0.75				0.72			
BA5	0.79				0.87				0.75			
BI1	0.65				0.59				0.51			
BI2	0.79				0.65				0.64			
BI4	0.60											
BI5												0.55
PQ1		-0.91				-0.79				-0.74		
PQ2		-0.91				-0.93				-0.87		
PQ3		-0.78				-0.96				-0.84		
PQ4		-0.91				-0.93				-0.79		

(table continues)

(continued)

BL1			0.78				-0.74				-0.74	
BL2			0.85				-0.84				-0.93	
BL3			0.79				-0.87				-0.76	
BL4											-0.62	
BL5			0.64				-0.76				-0.67	
BL6							-0.62					
BR1				0.89				0.81				0.79
BR2				0.80				0.85				0.84
BR3				0.87				0.92				0.74
BR4				0.86				0.78				0.84
BR5				0.75				0.91				0.72
BR6				0.86				0.91				0.78

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ – perceived quality, BL – brand loyalty, BR – brand relationship, (R) = reverse-coded item.

In a next step, individual factor analyses were run for attitudes toward advertising in general, perceived television advertising spending and eWOM. We followed the same procedure as for traditional and new CBBE models. The principal axis factoring extraction method was used and oblimin rotation.

There was a five-factor solution proposed from the literature review for **attitudes toward advertising in general**. The five proposed dimensions were informativeness, entertainment, credibility, irritation, and advertising value. However, the EFA produced a two-factor solution in the British and Slovenian samples and a three-factor solution in the Bosnian sample. The first factor was advertising value in general for the British and Slovenian samples. The second factor was advertising irritation for all samples. The third factor in the Bosnian sample refers to advertising credibility. Differences between countries are not surprising, since different cultures generally have different attitudes toward advertising in general, and therefore diverse factors were found (see Table 42). Finding mainly a two-factor solution is surprising and therefore shows that attitudes toward advertising have changed severely over time.

Table 42. Exploratory Factor Analysis for the Attitudes toward Advertising

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**			
	F 1	**F 2**	**Com**	**F 1**	**F 2**	**Com**	**F 1**	**F 2**	**F 3**	**Com**
ADINF1	0.89		0.71	0.75		0.56				
ADINF2	0.80		0.63						0.63	0.63
ADINF3	0.87		0.71	0.81		0.61				
ADENT1	0.68		0.59	0.55		0.46	0.68			0.55
ADENT2	0.66		0.68				0.79			0.56
ADENT3	0.66		0.66				0.57			0.61
ADCRE1	0.78		0.67	0.75		0.55			0.59	0.54
ADCRE2	0.64		0.52	0.79		0.63			0.67	0.57

(table continues)

(continued)

ADCRE3	0.68		0.57	0.69		0.52			0.82	0.57
ADIRR1 (R)		0.62	0.47		0.54	0.41		0.61		0.39
ADIRR2 (R)		0.87	0.77		0.83	0.73		0.77		0.55
ADIRR3 (R)		0.89	0.76		0.92	0.76		0.72		0.58
ADVAL1	0.91		0.73	0.78		0.61	0.79			0.68
ADVAL2	0.89		0.72	0.70		0.53	0.71			0.65
ADVAL3	0.91		0.75	0.79		0.55	0.72			0.50

Note. F = Factor, Com = Communalities, (R) = reverse-coded item, ADINF = informativeness, ADENT = entertainment, ADCRE = credibility, ADIRR = irritation, ADVAL = advertising value, F1 = ADVAL, F2 = ADIRR, F3 = ADCRE.

The next factor analysis was run for **perceptions of television advertising spending**. A single-factor solution was obtained (see Table 43) in all three countries, showing that our measures are appropriate for measuring the construct.

Table 43. Exploratory Factor Analysis for the Perceived Television Advertising Spending

	Great Britain		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	
	TAS	**Comm.**	**TAS**	**Comm.**	**TAS**	**Comm.**
Television advertising spending						
TAS1	0.88	0.78	0.92	0.85	0.97	0.93
TAS2	0.57	0.32	0.68	0.47	0.69	0.48
TAS3	0.90	0.81	0.85	0.73	0.92	0.85

Note. Comm. = Communalities, TAS = television advertising spending.

The next factor analysis was run for eWOM input, where the literature review proposed a two-factor solution; eWOM quality and credibility. The final solution included one factor for all samples, which can be an important finding for future studies. Nevertheless, the reverse-coded item was included only in the British sample (see Table 44). Since eWOM credibility is understood as one of the eWOM quality cues, we believe that finding only one factor eWOM quality is in accordance with previous literature.

Table 44. Exploratory Factor Analysis for the eWOM Quality

	Great Britain		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	
	eWOMQ	**Comm.**	**eWOMQ**	**Comm.**	**eWOMQ**	**Comm.**
eWOMQ1	0.73	0.53	0.77	0.60	0.87	0.76
eWOMQ2 (R)	0.76	0.58				
eWOMC1	0.87	0.76	0.89	0.80	0.83	0.70
eWOMC2	0.91	0.83	0.90	0.81	0.86	0.74

Note. Comm. = Communalities, (R) = reverse-coded item, WOMQ = WOM quality, WOMC = WOM credibility.

The next factor analysis was run for eWOM process, where the literature review proposed a three-factor solution: eWOM seeking, eWOM passing, and eWOM giving. The final solution included one factor for the British and Bosnian samples, and a two-factor solution for the Slovenian sample (see Table 45). The first factor in the Slovenian sample is labelled eWOM seeking, while the second factor is labelled eWOM activity, since it includes two activities eWOM passing and eWOM giving. We labelled the only factor in the British and the Bosnian samples eWOM activity.

Table 45. Exploratory Factor Analysis for the eWOM Activity

	Great Britain		**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	
VAR/DIM	**eWOMA**	**Com**	**eWOMA**	**eWOMS**	**Com**	**eWOMA**	**Com**
eWOMS1	0.80	0.95		0.71	0.64	0.73	0.53
eWOMS2	0.78	0.91		0.93	0.79	0.74	0.54
eWOMS3	0.81	0.65		0.82	0.70	0.78	0.60
eWOMP1	0.85	0.72	0.62		0.61	0.82	0.68
eWOMP2	0.89	0.80	0.77		0.65	0.85	0.72
eWOMP3	0.92	0.84	0.82		0.71	0.87	0.76
eWOMG1	0.88	0.78	0.90		0.71	0.77	0.60
eWOMG2	0.89	0.79	0.89		0.76	0.86	0.74
eWOMG3	0.93	0.87	0.79		0.62	0.84	0.71

Note. Com = Communalities, eWOMS = opinion seeking, eWOMP = opinion passing, eWOMG = opinion giving, eWOMA = eWOM activity.

5.2.6 Measurement and structural model testing

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed in order to confirm the findings from the exploratory factor analysis. To evaluate our measurement model we focused on relationships among latent variables and their indicators. Our aim was to determine the validity and reliability of the measures for our constructs (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). We present the results for all three samples (British, Slovenian and Bosnian) jointly. Next, we test our model also on a merged data, by merging the samples from three countries. As already presented in EFA there a few variables were excluded from further analysis since they did not exceed the threshold for factor loadings of 0.5 and 0.3 for communalities. In a next step, we excluded from the measurement model also the first variable measuring brand awareness (BA1), since it did not load on expected construct (it loaded on brand loyalty construct instead of brand awareness) in all samples, and some additional variables for better model comparability.

The next step after measurement model evaluation, presents the structural model evaluation. With the structural model we wanted firstly, to investigate the relationships among CBBE elements and CBBE as a second order factor and secondly, we wanted to test the impact of selected MC tools on CBBE. The proposed models will be tested with the maximum likelihood estimation method.

We divided our results into two parts. At first we test the CBBE model. The traditional and new CBBE models will be tested. The traditional CBBE model will be tested on the whole data and on brand consumers' data, while the new CBBE model will be tested only on brand consumers' data. All models will be further tested on the merged sample from all three countries. Since we predict the existence of some correlations among constructs of the CBBE model, we will perform the second-order confirmatory factor analysis, with CBBE construct as a second order factor (Byrne, Baron, Larsson & Melin, 1995). Brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty and in the new CBBE model also brand relationship, are related to a higher-order factor of CBBE. All covariations among CBBE elements in this model are considered to be explained by the second-order factor.

Next, we will focus on the impact of selected MC tools on the CBBE model. Two models will be tested; the model of the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model and the model of the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model. The models will be tested on brand customers' data on samples for each country, and also on the merged sample. Models will be tested also on a merged sample. The exogenous variables in the impact models are perceived television advertising spending, eWOM quality and eWOM activity. The endogenous variables are brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty and in the new CBBE model also brand relationship. To test the impact of selected MC tools on the CBBE models the values of the cases with the "Don't know" answers for the construct television advertising spending will be added to the mean values.

5.2.6.1 CBBE model

5.2.6.1.1 Traditional CBBE model

5.2.6.1.1.1 Measurement model for the traditional CBBE model on the whole data

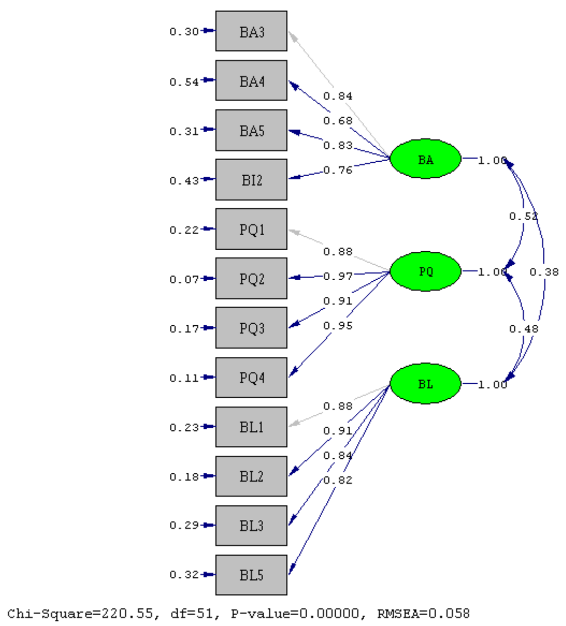
At first, measurements models were checked for any unreasonable estimates, like negative error variances, negative standardized factor loadings, or correlation coefficients outside the range of +/-1 (Hair et al., 2010). With this inspection we wanted to assure we can trust the quality of our measures and the relationship between latent variables and their indicators (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Global fit statistics for all three samples are presented in Table 46. Even though the value of Chi-Square is high, the ratio between Chi-Square and degrees of freedom is between 1.82 and 4.32 which is below the suggested threshold of 5 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989) and therefore suggests a reasonable fit. RMSEA is below 0.08 for the Slovenian, Bosnian, and merged samples, which suggests a reasonable fit. RMSEA for British sample is slightly higher (0.081), suggesting a mediocre fit of the model (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p. 85). SRMRs for all samples are below 0.50 indicating a good fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p. 87). CFI, NFI, NNFI, GFI, AGFI and IFI are very good since they are all above 0.90 for all samples. According to the global fit statistics we can conclude that the models are acceptable for all samples, including merged data.

Table 46. Measurement Model for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data

Fit statistics	Great Britain	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Merged data
Df	24	32	24	51
P	0.0000	0.0000	0.0051	0.0000
Chi-Square	77.76	79.73	45.48	220.55
Chi-Square/Df	3.24	2.49	1.82	4.32
RMSEA	0.081	0.068	0.053	0.058
SRMR	0.045	0.039	0.042	0.036
CFI	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.99
NFI	0.98	0.97	0.98	0.99
NNFI	0.98	0.98	0.99	0.99
GFI	0.95	0.95	0.97	0.96
IFI	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.99

Next, we checked unstandardised solution and squared multiple correlations (R^2) for the traditional CBBE model on all three samples and on the merged data separately (see Appendix L, Point 1). Standardized solution and t-values are presented in the same table for all three countries. Squared multiple correlations are high in all three samples, with one exception of a moderate value for BA4 and BI2 in the Bosnian sample and BA4 on the merged data. Squared multiple correlations indicate that the manifest variables are good measures of the latent variables. The most reliable indicator in all samples measured perceived quality construct (PQ2) stating that the likely quality of brand X is extremely high. We then checked validity with the t-test. All indicator loadings are significant for our model, while all t-values significantly exceeding the +/-1.96 threshold. This tells us the indicators are good representatives of our constructs. The measurement model for the merged sample is shown in Figure 17.

Figure 17. Measurement Model for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data for the Merged Sample – Standardized Solution



To assess the **discriminant validity test**, we calculated the correlation matrix among the latent variables (Table 47). The correlations among the latent variables and the squares of the correlations are presented in the same table. None of the correlation coefficients were found to be outside of the range of +/-1; they were mostly between low and moderate, which indicates the validity of the proposed constructs. Since the correlations between brand awareness, brand image and perceived quality were higher than 0.50 for two samples and the correlations between perceived quality and brand loyalty were higher than 0.50 for the British sample, we proceeded to conduct additional discriminant validity testing.

Table 47. Correlation Matrix between Latent Variables and Discriminant Validity for the Traditional CBBE Measurement Model on the Whole Data

Great Britain			
	BA & BI	PQ	BL
BA & BI	1.00	0.38	0.21
PQ	0.62	1.00	0.34
BL	0.46	0.58	1.00
Slovenia			
	BA & BI	PQ	BL
BA & BI	1.00	0.21	0.13
PQ	0.46	1.00	0.19
BL	0.36	0.44	1.00
Bosnia and Herzegovina			
	BA & BI	PQ	BL
BA & BI	1.00	0.22	0.19
PQ	0.47	1.00	0.23
BL	0.44	0.48	1.00
Merged data			
	BA & BI	PQ	BL
BA & BI	1.00	0.27	0.14
PQ	0.52	1.00	0.23
BL	0.38	0.48	1.00

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty.

Additionally we calculated the composite reliability (Pc) for each latent variable, using the equation: $Pc = (\Sigma\lambda)^2/[(\Sigma\lambda)^2+\Sigma(\theta)]$, where Pc stands for composite reliability, λ for indicator loadings and θ for indicator error variances (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p. 90) (see Table 48). All composite reliabilities highly exceed the threshold of 0.60, stating that indicators provide reliable measurement for all constructs. The average variance extracted (Pv) was calculated, using the equation: $Pv = (\Sigma\lambda^2)/[\Sigma\lambda^2+\Sigma(\theta)]$. The desired threshold higher than 0.50, was achieved for all constructs in all three countries, meaning that higher amount of variance in the indicators is accounted for constructs compared to the one captured in measurement error.

Table 48. Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data

Construct	**Great Britain**		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		**Merged data**	
	Pv	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**
BA & BI	0.661	0.853	0.598	0.856	0.534	0.772	0.611	0.862
PQ	0.913	0.969	0.866	0.951	0.854	0.946	0.858	0.960
BL	0.791	0.919	0.781	0.914	0.725	0.888	0.693	0.921

Note. Pv = average variance extracted (Pv > 0.50), Pc = composite reliability (Pc > 0.60); BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ = perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty.

As proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), we compared the average variance extracted (Pv) of the measures with the square of the parameter estimates between the measures. If the average variance extracted estimates were greater than the square of the correlations between the two constructs, evidence of discriminant validity exists (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Netemeyer, Johnston & Burton, 1990). The results are presented in Tables 47 and 48. Since all of the average variances extracted were greater than the squares of the correlations, the discriminant validity is confirmed for all constructs. Therefore, all constructs were prepared for a further analysis.

Before conducting the structural equation modelling, we checked our data for **common method bias**. As was previously discussed, prior to the data collection process, there were several steps conducted to diminish the common method bias, as proposed by Posakoff et al. (2003). We tested our data with the most commonly used test, Harman's single factor test (Posakoff et al., 2003). We conducted the test by using a confirmatory factor analysis. We wanted to determine whether there was a possibility that the majority of the variance accounted for can be accounted for by one general factor. As such, all items were forced to load on a single factor. All models with a single factor yielded a very poor model fit for all of the samples (Appendix L, Point 2.1). Therefore, we concluded that the data was not affected by common method bias.

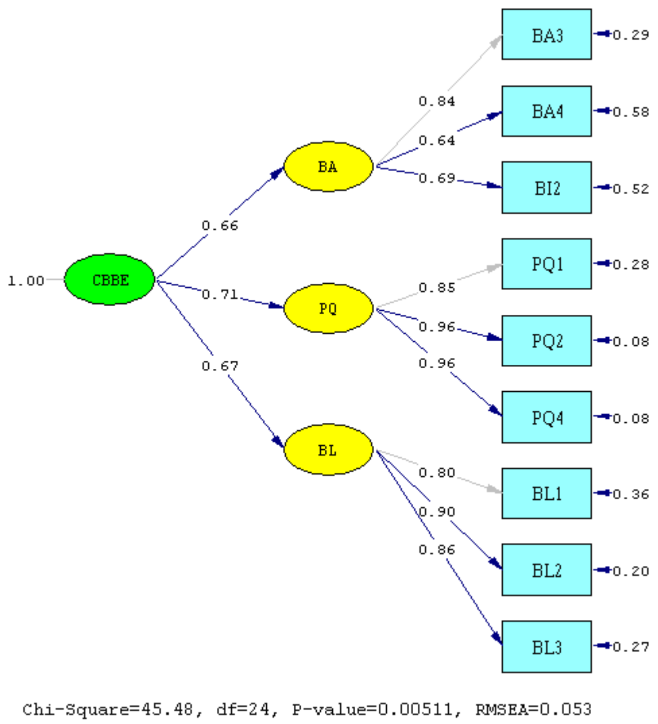
Podsakoff et al. (2003) warned that Harman's single factor test does not statistically control for the common method variance. Therefore, we proceeded to test the common method variance with the marker variable test, proposed by Lindell and Whitney (2001). The "marker variable" is a variable that is theoretically unrelated to all of the other constructs of the interest examined (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The correlation among the "marker variable" and the constructs used in the model were examined. We chose the item "What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?" as the "marker variable". The results are presented in Appendix L, Point 2.2. The Pearson correlation coefficients among the marker variable and the constructs of the traditional CBBE model were examined. All correlation coefficients were low and were not significant. Therefore, the common method variance was not supported.

5.2.6.1.1.2 The structural model for the traditional CBBE model on the whole data

The goodness-of fit statistics for the structural model on the whole data is the same as for the measurement model of the traditional CBBE model on the whole data (see Table 47). After the assessment of the structural model, numerous authors propose that a researcher should never neglect another important issue, a power assesment (MacCallum, Browne & Sugawara, 1996; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Conducting a power analysis is important because of the role of a sample size. Power analysis is especially important with very large samples or smaller samples. Power analysis can find the occurrence of Type I Error, due to which we can reject the correct model, or Type II Error, due to which we can accept the incorrect model (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, pp. 93-97). For the results see Appendix L, Point 3.

Anderson and Gerbing (1988) propose also a two-step approach for testing the model with the specification of nested models. The authors propose to construct different models. First, researchers should take into account a proposed theoretical model and a saturated model, which is the same as the measurement model. Furthermore, structural submodels, constrained, and unconstrained models should also be presented. With the decision tree framework researchers can then decide whether to accept the theoretical or consider also the constrained or unconstrained models. Since our measurement and structural models have the same χ^2 and degrees of freedom, the approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) cannot be utilized.

Figure 18. The Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data for the Bosnian Sample



A summary of relationships among CBBE elements and CBBE is presented in Table 49. The structural model for Bosnian sample is presented in Figure 18. The importance of all proposed elements in CBBE building (brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty) were supported for all samples. Low differences among standardized loadings and path coefficients for all proposed CBBE elements for all samples indicate that all elements are important building blocks of CBBE. Moreover, perceived quality is the most important element in CBBE for all samples. Perceived quality explained from 79.00% to 51.00% of the variance of CBBE in all samples. The variance explained by all elements is consistent for all samples which show that all included elements are important CBBE elements.

Table 49. Results of Hypotheses Testing for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data

Great Britain					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R^2**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.70	11.37	0.49	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.89	14.69	0.79	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.66	10.83	0.43	Supported
Slovenia					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R^2**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.61	7.81	0.37	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.75	9.35	0.56	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.58	7.89	0.34	Supported
Bosnia and Herzegovina					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R^2**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.66	8.59	0.44	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.71	9.49	0.51	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.67	8.70	0.45	Supported
Merged data					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R^2**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.65	15.37	0.42	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.81	18.51	0.65	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.59	14.96	0.35	Supported

Note. SS = standardized solution, BA & BI = brand awareness w brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, CBBE = customer-based brand equity.

5.2.6.1.1.3 Measurement model for the traditional CBBE model on brand consumers' data

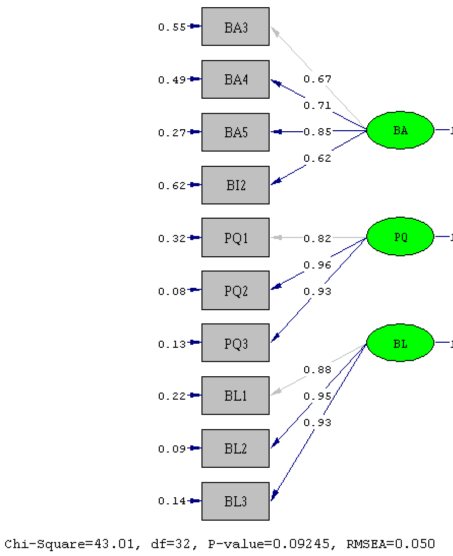
We tested the traditional CBBE model on brand consumers' data to compare the traditional with the new CBBE models. As previously the measurement model was checked for any unreasonable estimates. Global fit statistics for all three samples is presented in Table 50. The ratio among Chi-Square and degrees of freedom is below 3 for the British and merged samples and below 2 for the Slovenian and Bosnian samples, which suggests a good fit. For the Slovenian and Bosnian samples, the RMSEA suggests a good fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). RMSEA for the British sample is above 0.080, which suggests a mediocre fit of the model. RMSEA for the merged data suggests a reasonable fit. SRMR is good for British, Bosnian and merged samples, while it is above the recommended threshold for the Slovenian sample. CFI, NFI, NNFI, GFI and IFI are very good since they are all highly above 0.90 for all samples. According to the global fit statistics we can conclude that the traditional CBBE model is also acceptable on the brand customers' data for all samples. The measurement model for Slovenia is shown in Figure 19.

Table 50. Measurement Model Fit for the Traditional CBBE Model on Brand Customers' Data

Fit statistics	Great Britain	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Merged data
Df	24	32	24	51
P	0.0002	0.0925	0.3481	0.000
Chi-Square	56.41	43.01	26.10	150.00
Chi-Square/Df	2.35	1.34	1.09	2.94
RMSEA	0.084	0.050	0.023	0.062
SRMR	0.048	0.068	0.023	0.040
CFI	0.98	0.99	1.00	0.99
NFI	0.98	0.97	0.98	0.98
NNFI	0.98	0.99	1.00	0.98
GFI	0.94	0.94	0.97	0.95
IFI	0.98	0.99	1.00	0.99

Next, we checked unstandardised and standardised solution, squared multiple correlations (R^2), and t-values for the traditional CBBE model on brand customers' data for all three countries (see Appendix M, Point 1). Squared multiple correlations are from moderate to high in all three samples. All indicator loadings are significant for our model, while all t-values highly exceed the +/-1.96 threshold. This tells us the indicators are good representatives of our constructs.

Figure 19. Measurement Model for the Traditional CBBE Model on Brand Consumers' Data for the Slovenian Sample – Standardized Solution



In order to assess the discriminant validity test we calculated the correlation matrix among latent variables and squares of the correlation coefficients (see Table 51). Brand awareness with brand image and perceived quality constructs are highly correlated in the British sample which is the same as on the whole data. Perceived quality and brand loyalty are highly correlated in all samples, which could be expected since the sample includes only brand consumers.

Table 51. Correlation Matrix between Latent Variables and Discriminant Validity for the Traditional CBBE Measurement Model on Brand Consumers' Data

Great Britain			
	BA & BI	PQ	BL
BA & BI	1.00	0.42	0.25
PQ	0.65	1.00	0.49
BL	0.50	0.70	1.00
Slovenia			
	BA & BI	PQ	BL
BA & BI	1.00	0.07	0.08
PQ	0.27	1.00	0.40
BL	0.29	0.63	1.00
Bosnia and Herzegovina			
	BA & BI	PQ	BL
BA & BI	1.00	0.20	0.10
PQ	0.45	1.00	0.45
BL	0.32	0.67	1.00
Merged data			
	BA & BI	PQ	BL
BA & BI	1.00	0.21	0.11
PQ	0.46	1.00	0.42
BL	0.33	0.65	1.00

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty.

Additionally we calculated the composite reliability (Pc) and average variance extracted (Pv). The desired thresholds were achieved for all constructs in all three country samples as well as on the merged data (see Table 52).

Table 52. Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted for the Traditional CBBE Model on Brand Consumers' Data

Construct	**Great Britain**		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		**Merged data**	
	Pv	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**	**Pc**	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**
BA & BI	0.643	0.843	0.516	0.808	0.758	0.808	0.564	0.837
PQ	0.921	0.972	0.822	0.831	0.936	0.932	0.837	0.953
BL	0.806	0.926	0.861	0.806	0.926	0.944	0.703	0.933

Note. Pv = average variance extracted (Pv > 0.50), Pc = composite reliability (Pc > 0.60); BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ = perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty.

Since the correlations between several constructs were high, we proceeded to conduct additional discriminant validity testing, as proposed by Fornell & Larcker (1981). The

AVE for each construct was compared to the square of the correlation coefficients between each pair of 148 constructs. All constructs (Tables 51 and 52) passed the additional discriminant validity tests. Hence, the results confirmed the discriminant validity of the constructs.

For the traditional CBBE model on the brand consumers' data, we checked for the presence of the **common method bias** before conducting the structural equation modelling. The data was tested with Harmans' single factor test (Posakoff et al., 2003) by using a confirmatory factor analysis by forcing all items to load on a single factor. All models with a single factor had a poor model fit for all of the samples (Appendix M, Point 2.1). Therefore, we established that there is no common method bias problem.

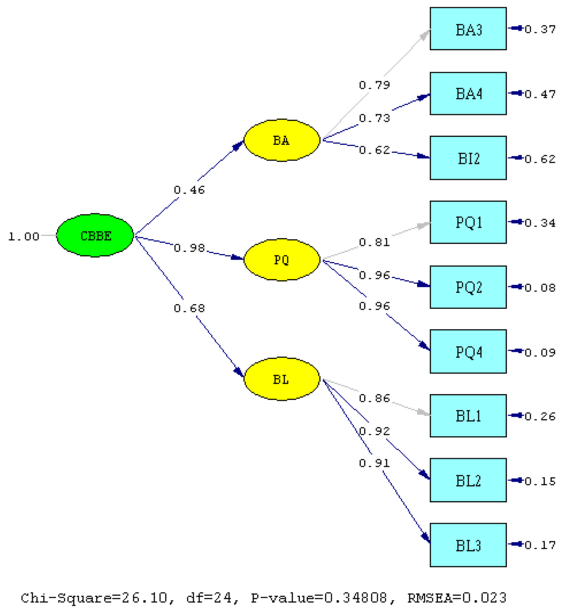
We proceeded to test the common method variance with the marker variable test (Lindell & Whitney, 2001) for the traditional model on the brand consumers' data. The item "What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?" was chosen as a marker variable. The results are presented in Appendix M, Point 2.2. All Pearson correlations among the constructs were low and not significant. Therefore, we concluded that there is no problem with the common method variance.

5.2.6.1.1.4 The structural model for the traditional CBBE model on brand consumers' data

The structural model for the traditional CBBE model on brand consumers' data consists of the same exogenous and endogenous variables as the model on the whole data (see Figure 20). All models on samples from all three countries, along with the merged sample, demonstrate an acceptable fit. For the global fit statistics of the structural model check the measurement model, since both models have the same goodness-of-fit statistics (see Table 50). According to the results we can conclude that the structural model for the traditional CBBE model is acceptable on the brand customers' data for all samples.

For the traditional CBBE model on brand consumers' data we conducted a power analysis. We calculated the exact and close fits of the proposed traditional CBBE model on our four samples. Due to the smaller sample sizes for country-specific samples the power is low. Nevertheless, the model on the merged sample has a high power. See Appendix M, Point 3, for the results of power analysis for all samples. Since the measurement and structural models produced the same goodness-of-fit statistics, the approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) was not utilized.

Figure 20. The Traditional CBBE Model on Brand Consumers' Data on the Bosnian Sample



A summary of the relationship among CBBE elements and CBBE is presented in Table 53. The importance of all proposed elements in CBBE building (brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty) were supported for all samples. The results differ by sample. Standardized loadings for perceived quality construct in the British, Bosnian, and merged samples are very high, indicating that perceived quality is the most important element of CBBE. However, in the Slovenian sample, the most important CBBE element is brand loyalty. Perceived quality explained 91.00, 59.00, 95.00 and 91.00 per cent of the variance of CBBE in the British, Slovenian, Bosnian, and merged samples, accordingly. The variance explained by all elements is not consistent for all samples which show that even though all included elements are important CBBE elements their importance may vary by country. This is consistent with findings from the in-depth interviews with brand managers, where they mentioned that consumers hold different brand perceptions on diverse markets. The variance explained by the perceived quality was higher than 91.00 per cent of variance of the CBBE in the British, Bosnian and merged models. This illustrates that the perceived quality among brand consumers in some countries is of utmost importance.

Table 53. Results of Hypotheses Testing for the Traditional CBBE Model on Brand Customers' Data

Great Britain					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R^2**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.68	8.38	0.46	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.96	12.86	0.91	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.73	9.41	0.53	Supported

(table continues)

(continued)

Slovenia					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R²**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.35	3.17	0.12	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.77	5.35	0.59	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.82	5.60	0.67	Supported
Bosnia and Herzegovina					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R²**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.46	4.57	0.21	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.98	7.60	0.95	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.68	6.53	0.47	Supported
Merged data					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R²**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.48	8.61	0.23	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.95	14.02	0.91	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.68	11.93	0.46	Supported

Note. SS = standardized solution, BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty.

5.2.6.1.2 New CBBE model

5.2.6.1.2.1 Measurement model for the new CBBE model on brand consumers' data

The new CBBE measurement model was tested only on brand consumers' data. Alike previously we checked the new CBBE measurement model for any unreasonable estimates. The inspection showed no elements were outside the proposed range and therefore we decided to trust our measures. Global fit statistics for all samples are presented in Table 54. The ratio between Chi-Square and degrees of freedom is below 2 for all samples, which suggests a good fit.

RMSEA for the Slovenian, Bosnian, and merged samples is below 0.50, which suggests a good fit. RMSEA for British sample is below 0.70, which suggests a reasonable fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). SRMR for the British, Bosnian, and merged samples represents a good fit of the model and reasonable fit for the Slovenian sample. All other fit statistics suggest a good fit, and therefore we can accept the new CBBE model as a reasonable model.

Table 54. Global Fit Statistics for the New CBBE Measurement Model on Brand Consumers' Data

Fit statistics	**Great Britain**	**Slovenia**	**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	**Merged data**
Df	84	84	84	129
P	0.0000	0.0392	0.0202	0.0000
Chi-Square	159.13	108.15	112.64	268.02

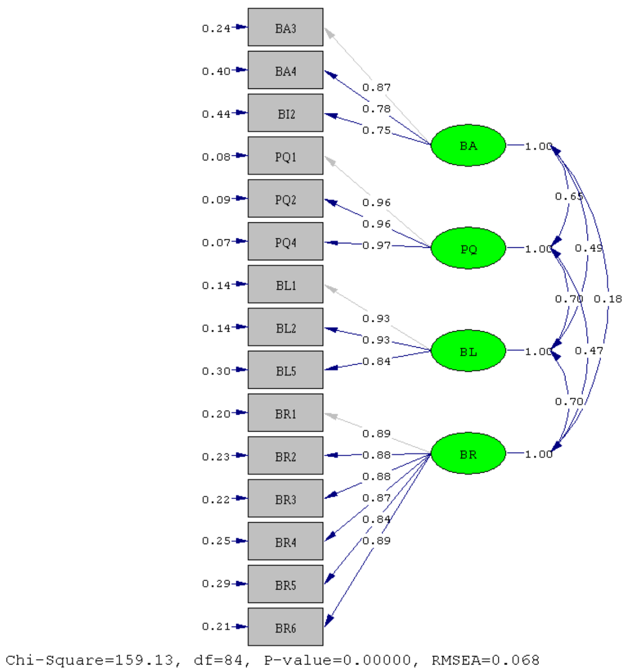
(table continues)

(continued)

Chi-Square/Df	1.89	1.29	1.34	2.08
RMSEA	0.068	0.046	0.045	0.047
SRMR	0.046	0.055	0.036	0.035
CFI	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99
NFI	0.97	0.97	0.98	0.99
NNFI	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99
GFI	0.90	0.90	0.92	0.94
IFI	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99

We also checked unstandardised solution, squared multiple correlations (R^2), standardized solution, and t-values for the new CBBE model (see Appendix N, Ponit 1). Squared multiple correlations are high for all three samples with minor exceptions of moderate squared multiple correlations, mainly for the measurement items of brand awareness with brand image, namely items BA3 and BI2. The inspection of the unstandardised and standardised solution, and t-values showed that indicators are good representatives of our constructs. The measurement model for Great Britain is shown in Figure 21.

Figure 21. Measurement Model for the New CBBE Model on Brand Consumers' Data for Great Britain



We then calculated the correlation matrix among the latent variables with correlations and the square of the correlation coefficients. This was conducted to test the discriminant validity of our constructs (Table 55). The correlations between some of the dimensions were quite high for all of the samples. The correlation for brand loyalty and brand relationship ranged from 0.70 to 0.77 and the correlation for perceived quality and brand loyalty ranged from 0.63 to 0.70. Consequently, we proceeded to conduct further discriminant validity testing.

Table 55. Correlation Matrix between Latent Variables and Discriminant Validity for the New CBBE Model on Brand Consumers' Data

Great Britain				
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	BR
BA & BI	1.00	0.42	0.24	0.03
PQ	0.65	1.00	0.49	0.22
BL	0.49	0.70	1.00	0.49
BR	0.18	0.47	0.70	1.00
Slovenia				
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	BR
BA & BI	1.00	0.07	0.08	0.03
PQ	0.27	1.00	0.40	0.27
BL	0.29	0.63	1.00	0.40
BR	0.18	0.52	0.77	1.00
Bosnia and Herzegovina				
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	BR
BA & BI	1.00	0.20	0.10	0.03
PQ	0.45	1.00	0.45	0.32
BL	0.31	0.67	1.00	0.53
BR	0.17	0.57	0.73	1.00
Merged data				
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	BR
BA & BI	1.00	0.21	0.11	0.02
PQ	0.46	1.00	0.42	0.26
BL	0.33	0.65	1.00	0.55
BR	0.13	0.51	0.74	1.00

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship.

Next, the average variance extracted (Pv) and composite reliability (Pc) were calculated (see Table 56). The desired threshold of higher than 0.50 was achieved for all constructs in all three countries. Moreover, all composite reliabilities highly exceed the threshold of 0.60, stating that indicators provide reliable measurement for all constructs.

Table 56. Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted for the New CBBE Model on Brand Consumers' Data

Construct	**Great Britain**		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		**Merged data**	
	Pv	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**
BA & BI	0.641	0.842	0.516	0.808	0.513	0.757	0.563	0.837
PQ	0.921	0.972	0.823	0.933	0.826	0.934	0.837	0.953
BL	0.808	0.926	0.850	0.944	0.802	0.924	0.773	0.931
BR	0.766	0.952	0.796	0.951	0.790	0.958	0.797	0.959

Note. Pv = average variance extracted (Pv > 0.50), Pc = composite reliability (Pc > 0.60); BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship.

We compared the average variance extracted (Pv) from the measures with the square of the parameter estimate between the measures, according to the Fornell & Larckers' (1981) test. The results are presented in Tables 55 and 56. All of the average variances that were extracted were greater than the squares of the correlations between the constructs. As such, the results confirm the discriminant validity of the elements.

We also checked the presence of the **common method bias** (Posakoff et al., 2003). We tested the data with Harmans' single factor test (Posakoff et al., 2003) by using a confirmatory factor analysis. All items were forced to load on a single factor. All models had bad model fits on all of the samples (Appendix N, Point 2.1). Therefore, we concluded that there is no problem with the common method bias. We proceeded to test the common method variance with the marker variable test (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). The item "What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?" was chosen as the marker variable. The results are presented in Appendix N, Point 2.2. All Pearson correlations among the constructs were low and not significant. Based on the results, we concluded that there is no problem with the common method variance.

5.2.6.1.2.2 The structural model for the new CBBE model on brand consumers' data

The structural model for the new CBBE model on brand consumers' data consists of four exogenous variables (brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty and brand relationship) and one endogenous variable, CBBE. The goodness-of fit statistics are presented in Table 57. RMSEA is good for the Slovenian sample and reasonable for the Bosnian and merged samples. RMSEA is mediocre for the British sample (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000, p. 85). SRMR is above 0.50 for all samples, which raises some doubts regarding the goodness fit for the models.

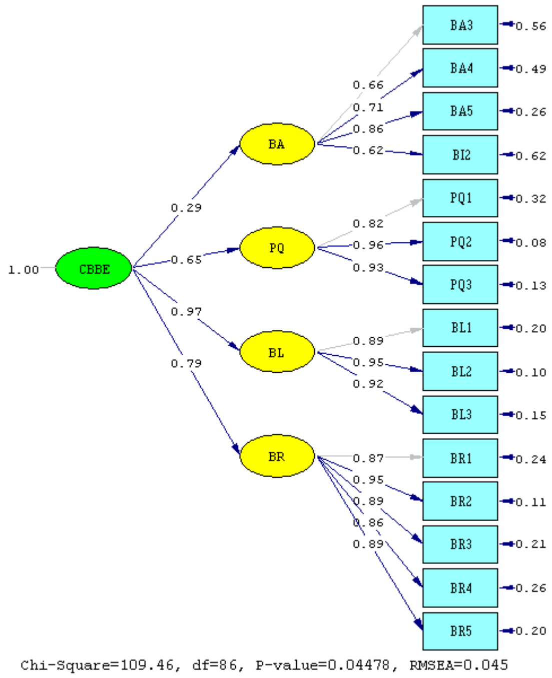
However, other fit statistics like CFI, NFI, NNFI, GFI and IFI are good, indicating an acceptable fit. The only exception is GFI for the British model, which is below the desired 0.90 threshold. The overall fit statistics are reasonable, and therefore we can accept models from the three countries.

Table 57. Global Fit Statistics for the New CBBE Structural Model on Brand Consumers' Data

Fit statistics	Great Britain	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Merged data
Df	86	86	86	131
P	0.0000	0.0448	0.0035	0.0000
Chi-Square	214.59	109.46	125.57	329.50
Chi-Square/Df	2.50	1.27	1.46	2.52
RMSEA	0.088	0.045	0.052	0.055
SRMR	0.086	0.062	0.055	0.069
CFI	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99
NFI	0.96	0.97	0.97	0.98
NNFI	0.97	0.99	0.99	0.99
GFI	0.87	0.90	0.91	0.93
IFI	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.99

We conducted a power analysis also for the new CBBE model on brand consumers' data (see Appendix N, Point 3). Finally, the theoretical model was compared to other possible solutions according to the proposed decision tree framework by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). For the results see Appendix N, Point 4. The structural model for the Slovenian sample is presented in Figure 22.

Figure 22. New CBBE Model on Brand Consumers' Data for the Slovenian Sample



Relationships among CBBE elements and a second-order factor in the new CBBE model are presented in Table 58. The importance of all proposed elements in CBBE building (brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand relationship) were supported for all samples. There were low differences among standardized loadings and path coefficients among samples. The most important element is brand loyalty in all samples. The second most important element varies by samples; in the British sample perceived quality is more important than brand relationship, while in the Slovenian, Bosnian, and merged samples brand relationship is more important. The least important element in all samples is the brand awareness with brand image element.

Brand loyalty explained 91.0%, 94.0% and 85.0% of the variance of CBBE in the British, Slovenian, and Bosnian samples, accordingly. This data tells us that brand loyalty is the most important CBBE element, while the brand awareness with brand image is the least important. The importance of brand relationship varies. It is second most important CBBE element in the Slovenian, Bosnian and merged samples, and third most important element in the British sample, where perceived quality is found to be more important.

Table 58. Results of Hypotheses Testing for the New CBBE Model on Brand Consumers' Data

Great Britain					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R²**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.55	6.82	0.31	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.75	10.81	0.56	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.95	13.54	0.91	Supported
BR – CBBE (H1e)	+	0.69	9.40	0.48	Supported
Slovenia					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R²**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.29	2.91	0.09	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.65	7.08	0.42	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.97	11.10	0.94	Supported
BR – CBBE (H1e)	+	0.79	8.92	0.63	Supported
Bosnia and Herzegovina					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R²**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.36	3.81	0.13	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.74	8.74	0.43	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.92	11.27	0.85	Supported
BR – CBBE (H1e)	+	0.78	9.51	0.61	Supported
MERGED					
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**SS**	**t-test**	**R²**	**Result**
BA & BI – CBBE (H1ab)	+	0.34	6.63	0.12	Supported
PQ – CBBE (H1c)	+	0.68	14.41	0.46	Supported
BL - CBBE (H1d)	+	0.96	21.71	0.93	Supported
BR – CBBE (H1e)	+	0.76	16.35	0.58	Supported

Note. SS = standardized solution, BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship, CBBE = customer-based brand equity.

5.2.6.2 Impact of selected MC tools on the CBBE model

5.2.6.2.1 Impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model

5.2.6.2.1.1 Measurement model for the Impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model on brand consumers' data

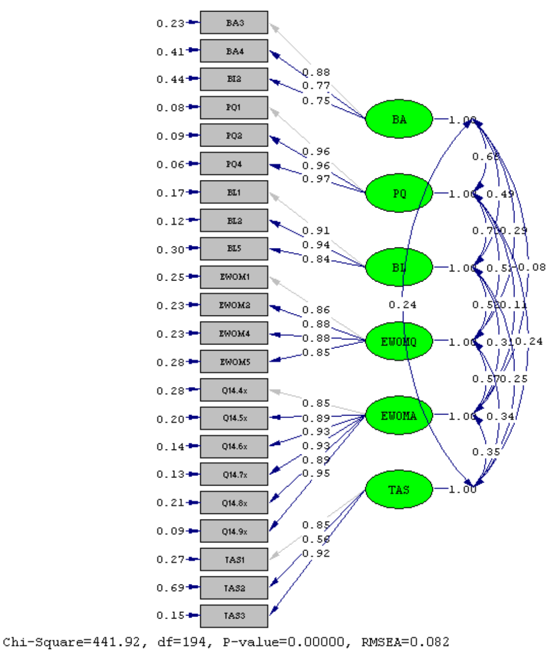
At first the measurement model for the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model was checked for any unreasonable estimates. Global fit statistics for all three samples are presented in Table 59. The ratio among Chi-Square and degrees of freedom is below 3 for all samples, which suggest a good fit. RMSEA is below 0.05 for the Slovenian, Bosnian, and merged samples which suggests a good fit (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). RMSEA for the British sample is 0.082 which represents a mediocre fit of the model. SRMR is good for the British, Bosnian, and merged samples, while it is above the desired threshold for the Slovenian sample. CFI, NFI, NNFI and IFI are all very high and therefore present good model fit. GFI is below the desired threshold of 0.90 for all three country specific samples, but it is above the desired threshold for the merged data sample.

Table 59. CFA Global Fit Statistics for the Impact of Selected MC Tolls on the Traditional CBBE Model

Fit statistics	Great Britain	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Merged data
Df	194	215	194	260
P	0.0000	0.0014	0.0002	0.0000
Chi-Square	441.92	282.07	272.63	534.23
Chi-Square/Df	2.28	1.31	1.41	2.06
RMSEA	0.082	0.048	0.049	0.046
SRMR	0.047	0.063	0.048	0.038
CFI	0.97	0.97	0.99	0.99
NFI	0.94	0.92	0.96	0.98
NNFI	0.96	0.97	0.98	0.99
GFI	0.83	0.85	0.87	0.92
IFI	0.97	0.97	0.99	0.99

Next, we checked unstandardised and standardised solution, t-test, and squared multiple correlations (R^2) (see Appendix O, Point 1). Squared multiple correlations are from moderate to high in all three samples. In the British sample they range from 0.31 to 0.94, in the Slovenian sample from 0.38 to 0.91 and in the Bosnian sample from 0.35 to 0.92. Therefore the manifest variables are good measures of the latent variables. All indicator loadings are significant for our model, while all t-values highly exceed the +/-1.96 threshold. This tells us that the indicators are good representatives of our constructs. The measurement model for the British sample is shown in Figure 23.

Figure 23. Measurement Model for the Impact of Selected MC tools on the Traditional CBBE Model for the British Sample, Standardized Solution



To asses the discriminant validity test we calculated the correlation matrix between latent variables and the squares of the correlation coefficients (see Table 60). None of the correlation coefficients is outside the range of +/-1. There are high correlations between perceived quality and brand loyalty, between perceived quality and eWOM quality and also between eWOM quality and eWOM activity in British, Bosnian, and merged samples. In the Slovenian sample the only high correlations are found between perceived quality and brand loyalty. There are some negative correlations found which differ between samples. eWOM activity is negatively correlated to brand awareness with brand image in the British and merged samples. There is also a negative correlation between perceived quality and television advertising spending in the Slovenian sample.

Table 60. Correlation Matrix between Latent Variables and Discriminant Validity for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

Great Britain						
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	EWOMQ	EWOMA	TAS
BA & BI	1.00	0.42	0.24	0.08	0.01	0.06
PQ	0.65	1.00	0.49	0.27	0.01	0.06
BL	0.49	0.70	1.00	0.27	0.10	0.06
EWOMQ	0.29	0.52	0.52	1.00	0.33	0.12
EWOMA	-0.08	0.10	0.31	0.57	1.00	0.12
TAS	0.24	0.24	0.25	0.34	0.35	1.00
Slovenia						
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	EWOMQ	EWOMA	TAS
BA & BI	1.00	0.07	0.08	0.12	0.00	0.10
PQ	0.27	1.00	0.40	0.20	0.03	0.02
BL	0.28	0.63	1.00	0.12	0.14	0.01
EWOMQ	0.34	0.45	0.34	1.00	0.16	0.00
EWOMA	0.04	0.18	0.37	0.40	1.00	0.04
TAS	0.32	-0.14	0.10	0.04	0.19	1.00
Bosnia and Herzegovina						
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	EWOMQ	EWOMA	TAS
BA & BI	1.00	0.19	0.10	0.04	0.01	0.10
PQ	0.44	1.00	0.45	0.35	0.15	0.04
BL	0.32	0.67	1.00	0.23	0.25	0.07
EWOMQ	0.20	0.59	0.48	1.00	0.35	0.03
EWOMA	0.09	0.39	0.50	0.59	1.00	0.03
TAS	0.32	0.21	0.27	0.17	0.17	1.00
Merged data						
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	EWOMQ	EWOMA	TAS
BA & BI	1.00	0.21	0.11	0.06	0.00	0.14
PQ	0.46	1.00	0.42	0.27	0.05	0.01
BL	0.33	0.65	1.00	0.21	0.18	0.05
EWOMQ	0.24	0.52	0.46	1.00	0.28	0.04
EWOMA	-0.01	0.22	0.42	0.53	1.00	0.08
TAS	0.37	0.11	0.23	0.19	0.28	1.00

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, eWOMQ = eWOM quality, eWOMA = eWOM activity, TAS = television advertising spending.

Additionally, we calculated also the composite reliability (Pc) and average variance extracted (Pv). The desired thresholds were achieved for all constructs in all three countries and on the merged sample (see Table 61). The lowest average variance extracted was achieved for brand awareness with brand image on all samples. The only exception is high average variance extracted for brand awareness with brand image on the British sample.

Table 61. Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted for the Impact of Selected MC tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

Construct	**Great Britain**		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		**Merged data**	
	Pv	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**
BA & BI	0.641	0.842	0.517	0.808	0.513	0.757	0.565	0.838
PQ	0.924	0.973	0.824	0.933	0.826	0.934	0.837	0.953
BL	0.804	0.925	0.848	0.943	0.804	0.925	0.775	0.932
EWOMQ	0.753	0.924	0.673	0.890	0.721	0.912	0.710	0.907
EWOMA	0.825	0.966	0.680	0.927	0.706	0.944	0.825	0.966
TAS	0.629	0.830	0.665	0.854	0.738	0.876	0.670	0.855

Note. Pv = average variance extracted (Pv > 0.50), Pc = composite reliability (Pc > 0.60); BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ = perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, eWOMQ = eWOM quality, eWOMA = eWOM activity, TAS = television advertising spending.

We then calculated the discriminant validity, according to Fornell and Larckers' (1981) procedure, for the constructs with correlations that were higher than 0.50. The results confirm the discriminant validity of the elements, since all of the average variances that were extracted were larger than the squares of the correlations between the constructs (Tables 60 and 61).

Even though there were additional steps taken to avoid common method bias with the impact models, we tested the data with Harman's single factor test, as before (Posakoff et al., 2003), with the use of the confirmatory factor analysis. A single factor solution was obtained with Harman's one factor model. The model fits on all samples were bad, and therefore, unacceptable (Table 62). Based on the results, we concluded that it is not likely that our data has a common method bias. We proceeded to test the common method variance with the marker variable test (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). As a marker variable, the item "What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?" was chosen. Since all Pearson correlations among the constructs were low and not significant, we concluded that no problem exists with the common method variance. The results are presented in Appendix O, Point 2.2.

5.2.6.2.1.2 Structural model for the Impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model

Next, we proceeded to testing the structural model for the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model. The goodness-of fit statistics are presented in Table 68. The values of Chi-Square were high and significant for all samples. However, the ratio between Chi-Square and degrees of freedom was below the suggested threshold of 2 or 3 for all samples. RMSEA was below 0.05 for the Slovenian, Bosnian, and merged samples, which suggested a good fit. RMSEA for the British sample suggested mediocre fit. SRMR was below the recommended cut-off point of 0.050 for all samples, except the Slovenian one. CFI, NFI, NNFI and IFI were very good for all samples. However, GFI exceeded the threshold of 0.90 only on the merged sample. According to the fit statistics we can conclude that the structural model is reasonable on all samples (see Table 62).

Table 62. Global Fit Statistics for the Structural Model of the Impact of MCs on the Traditional CBBE Model

Fit statistics	Great Britain	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Merged data
Df	195	216	195	261
P	0.0000	0.0013	0.0000	0.0000
Chi-Square	443.60	284.00	272.38	534.83
Chi-Square /Df	2.27	1.31	1.40	2.05
RMSEA	0.082	0.048	0.049	0.046
SRMR	0.049	0.064	0.048	0.038
CFI	0.97	0.97	0.99	0.99
NFI	0.94	0.92	0.96	0.98
NNFI	0.96	0.97	0.98	0.99
GFI	0.83	0.85	0.87	0.92
IFI	0.97	0.97	0.99	0.99

A power analysis was conducted for proposed model on all samples. Furthermore the theoretical model was compared to other possible solutions in accordance with the decision-tree framework (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, p. 420). For results see Appendix O, Point 3 and Ponit 4.

Selected MC tools explained the highest proportion of variance of perceived quality in the Bosnian (36%), British (34%), and merged (28%) samples. Selected MC tools explained the highest percentage of variance (24%) of brand awareness with brand image in the Slovenian sample (see Table 63). Variance explained by all variables was the highest for the brand loyalty construct, which accounted for approximately 50% for all samples.

Table 63. Variance Explained (R^2) by Selected MC Tools and CBBE Elements for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

	Great Britain		Slovenia		Bosnia and Herzegovina		Merged data	
	R^2 (RF)	R^2 (SE)	R^2 (RF)	R^2 (SE)	R^2 (RF)	R^2 (SE)	R^2 (RF)	R^2 (SE)
BA & BI	0.22	0.22	0.24	0.24	0.13	0.13	0.16	0.16
PQ	0.34	0.55	0.22	0.26	0.36	0.46	0.28	0.40
BL	0.28	0.54	0.18	0.48	0.33	0.53	0.27	0.51

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship, RF = Reduced form equations, SE = Structural equations.

The structural model for the Slovenian sample is presented in Figure 24. A summary of the relationships among variables in the structural model is presented in Table 64.

Figure 24. The Structural Model for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model for the Slovenian Sample

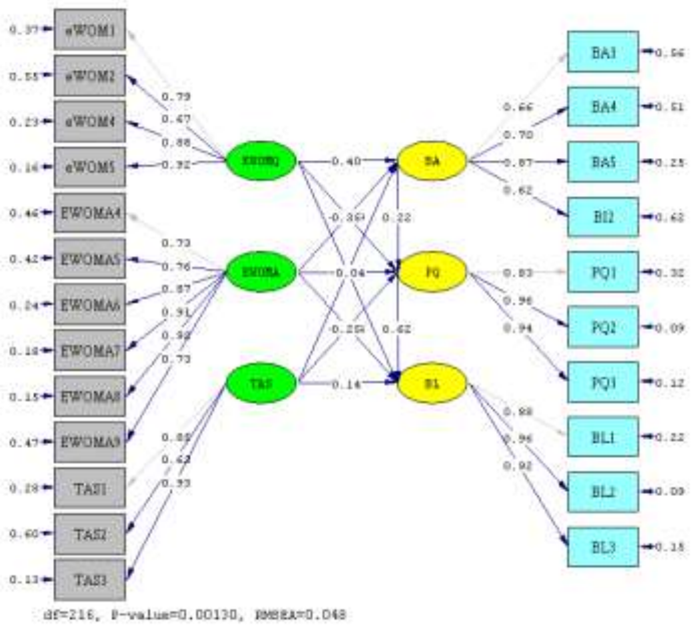


Table 64. Results of Hypotheses Testing for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

Hypothesis	**+ / -**	**Great Britain**		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		**Merged data**	
		Coefficient (t-test)*	**Result**	**Coefficient (t-test)***	**Result**	**Coefficient (t-test)***	**Result**	**Coefficient (t-test)***	**Result**
BA & BI – PQ (H2bc)	+	0.52 (7.15)	S	0.22 (2.17)	S	0.34 (4.12)	S	0.37 (7.77)	S
PQ – BL (H2f)	+	0.63 (8.77)	S	0.62 (6.91)	S	0.55 (6.40)	S	0.58 (12.61)	S
EWOMQ – BA & BI (H5.2.1ab)	+	0.45 (4.62)	S	0.40 (3.66)	S	0.19 (1.66)	NS	0.33 (5.43)	S
EWOMQ – PQ (H5.2.1c)	+	0.43 (5.28)	S	0.35 (3.38)	S	0.48 (5.18)	S	0.44 (8.22)	S
EWOMQ– BL (H5.2.1d)	+	0.09 (1.04)	NS	-0.04 (-0.49)	NS	-0.03 (-0.34)	NS	0.00 (0.08)	NS
EWOMA – BA & BI (H5.2.2ab)	+	-0.42 (-4.45)	NS	-0.19 (-1.84)	NS	-0.07 (-0.64)	NS	-0.26 (-4.36)	NS
EWOMA – PQ (H5.2.2c)	+	-0.10 (-1.27)	NS	0.07 (0.76)	NS	0.07 (0.84)	NS	0.02 (0.35)	NS
EWOMA– BL (H5.2.2d)	+	0.18 (2.48)	S	0.25 (3.08)	S	0.29 (3.63)	S	0.26 (5.85)	S
TAS – BA & BI (H5.1ab)	+	0.24 (2.87)	S	0.35 (3.48)	S	0.30 (3.32)	S	0.28 (5.41)	S
TAS – PQ (H5.1c)	+	0.01 (0.13)	NS	-0.24 (-2.55)	NS	0.00 (0.03)	NS	-0.08 (-1.79)	NS

(table continues)

(continued)

TAS – BL (H5.1d)	+	0.01 (0.12)	NS	0.14 (1.94)	NS	0.11 (1.83)	NS	0.09 (2.50)	S

Note. * Significant at $p \leq 0.05$, $t \geq +/- 1.96$, S = Supported, NS = Not supported, BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, eWOMQ = eWOM quality, eWOMA = eWOM activity, TAS = television advertising spending.

Brand awareness with brand image was found to have a direct relationship with perceived quality on all samples. Further, perceived quality was found to enhance brand loyalty on all samples. eWOM quality had a positive and significant impact on brand awareness with brand image and perceived quality on all samples. The only exception is its not significant impact on the Bosnian sample.

Positive and significant impact of eWOM activity on brand loyalty was found on all samples. Contrary, the positive impact of eWOM activity was not supported for brand awareness with brand image and perceived quality. Its impact on brand awareness was even found to be negative and significant on the British and merged samples. Television advertising spending has an impact on brand awareness with brand image for all samples. The impact of television advertising spending on brand loyalty is supported only for the merged sample.

5.2.6.2.2 Impact of selected MC tools on new the CBBE model

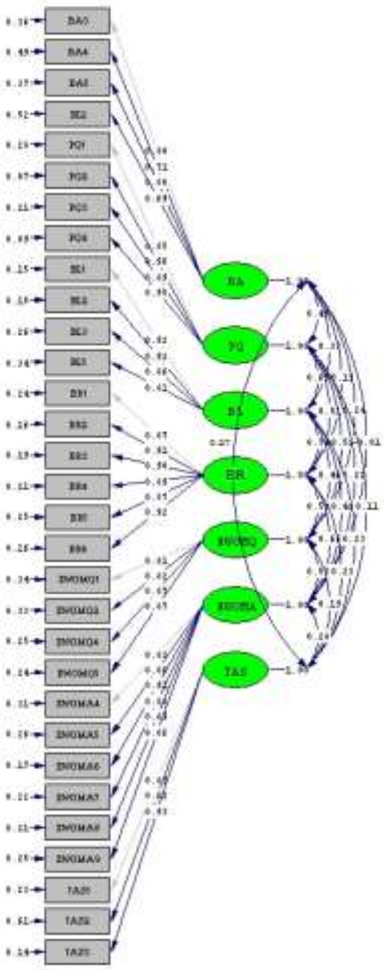
5.2.6.2.2.1 Measurement model for the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model

As previously, we checked the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE measurement model for any unreasonable estimates. Global fit statistics for all three country-specific samples and for the merged sample are presented in Table 65. The ratio between Chi-Square and degrees of freedom is below 3 for all samples, which suggests a good fit. RMSEA is good and below the 0.05 threshold for the Slovenian, Bosnian, and merged samples. RMSEA is reasonable for the British sample, since it is below 0.08 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). SRMR is good for the British, Bosnian, and merged samples and above the suggested threshold of 0.50 for the Slovenian sample. CFI, NFI, NNFI and IFI are good for all samples, while GFI is below the suggested threshold of 0.90 for the country-specific samples. However, GFI is above the suggested threshold for the merged sample. We can accept the model as reasonable for all samples. The measurement model for merged sample is shown in Figure 25.

Table 65. Global Fit Statistics for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Measurement Model

Fit statistics	Great Britain	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Merged data
Df	329	329	329	413
P	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Chi-Square	662.97	450.16	453.60	731.57
Chi-Square/Df	2.02	1.37	1.38	1.77
RMSEA	0.073	0.052	0.048	0.039
SRMR	0.045	0.061	0.050	0.036
CFI	0.98	0.97	0.99	0.99
NFI	0.96	0.93	0.96	0.98
NNFI	0.97	0.97	0.98	0.99
GFI	0.80	0.81	0.84	0.91
IFI	0.98	0.97	0.99	0.99

Figure 25. Measurement Model for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model for the Merged Sample, Standardized Solution



As previously we checked unstandardised solution, squared multiple correlations (R^2), standardised solution, and t-values for the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model (see Appendix P, Point 1). Squared multiple correlations were in majority high for all samples. The exceptions are the squared multiple correlations for the brand awareness with brand image items (BA3 and BI2) and television advertising spending item (TAS2) with middle to low squared multiple correlations on all samples. The inspection showed that indicators are reliable and good representatives of our constructs.

We calculated the correlation matrix between latent variables and squared correlation coefficients in order to test the discriminant validity of our constructs (see Table 66). Even though there were some high correlations evident, others were from low to moderate which additionally indicates the validity of the proposed constructs. However, the correlations between some dimensions like among brand loyalty and brand relationship and eWOM activity and brand relationship were quite high for all samples, demonstrating convergence of dimensions.

Table 66. Correlation Matrix between Latent Variables and Discriminant Validity for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

GREAT BRITAIN							
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	BR	EWOMQ	EWOMA	TAS
BA & BI	1.00	0.42	0.24	0.03	0.08	0.01	0.06
PQ	0.65	1.00	0.49	0.22	0.27	0.01	0.06
BL	0.49	0.70	1.00	0.49	0.28	0.10	0.06
BR	0.17	0.47	0.70	1.00	0.41	0.50	0.12
EWOMQ	0.29	0.52	0.53	0.64	1.00	0.34	0.12
EWOMA	-0.08	0.11	0.31	0.71	0.58	1.00	0.12
TAS	0.24	0.24	0.25	0.35	0.34	0.35	1.00
SLOVENIA							
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	BR	EWOMQ	EWOMA	TAS
BA & BI	1.00	0.07	0.08	0.03	0.12	0.00	0.10
PQ	0.27	1.00	0.38	0.27	0.20	0.03	0.02
BL	0.29	0.62	1.00	0.59	0.12	0.14	0.01
BR	0.18	0.52	0.77	1.00	0.16	0.29	0.01
EWOMQ	0.34	0.45	0.34	0.40	1.00	0.16	0.00
EWOMA	0.04	0.18	0.37	0.54	0.40	1.00	0.04
TAS	0.32	-0.14	0.10	0.11	0.04	0.20	1.00
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA							
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	BR	EWOMQ	EWOMA	TAS
BA & BI	1.00	0.19	0.10	0.03	0.04	0.01	0.10
PQ	0.44	1.00	0.45	0.33	0.35	0.15	0.04
BL	0.31	0.67	1.00	0.53	0.24	0.26	0.04
BR	0.16	0.57	0.73	1.00	0.26	0.42	0.04
EWOMQ	0.19	0.59	0.49	0.51	1.00	0.35	0.03
EWOMA	0.09	0.39	0.51	0.65	0.59	1.00	0.03
TAS	0.32	0.21	0.27	0.19	0.17	0.17	1.00
MERGED DATA							
	BA & BI	PQ	BL	BR	EWOMQ	EWOMA	TAS
BA & BI	1.00	0.21	0.11	0.02	0.06	0.00	0.07
PQ	0.46	1.00	0.42	0.26	0.27	0.05	0.01
BL	0.33	0.65	1.00	0.55	0.21	0.18	0.05
BR	0.13	0.51	0.74	1.00	0.27	0.44	0.05
EWOMQ	0.24	0.52	0.46	0.52	1.00	0.28	0.04
EWOMA	-0.01	0.22	0.42	0.66	0.53	1.00	0.08
TAS	0.27	0.11	0.23	0.23	0.19	0.28	1.00

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship, EWOMQ = eWOM quality; EWOMA = eWOM activity, TAS = television advertising spending.

Next, the average variance extracted (Pv) was calculated. The desired thresholds were achieved for all constructs in all three countries (see Table 67).

Table 67. Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

Construct	**Great Britain**		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		**Merged data**	
	Pv	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**	**Pv**	**Pc**
BA & BI	0.643	0.843	0.517	0.808	0.514	0.757	0.565	0.838
PQ	0.921	0.972	0.823	0.933	0.829	0.936	0.837	0.953
BL	0.808	0.926	0.877	0.955	0.802	0.924	0.774	0.932
BR	0.636	0.951	0.797	0.951	0.792	0.958	0.798	0.960
EWOMQ	0.751	0.923	0.673	0.890	0.721	0.912	0.710	0.907
EWOMA	0.825	0.966	0.681	0.927	0.736	0.944	0.763	0.951
TAS	0.631	0.831	0.661	0.851	0.706	0.876	0.672	0.857

Note. Pv = average variance extracted (Pv > 0.50), Pc = composite reliability (Pc > 0.60), BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship, EWOMQ = eWOM quality; EWOMA = eWOM activity, TAS = television advertising spending.

We additionally calculated the discriminant validity test, according to Fornell & Larckers' (1981) procedure. The results confirm the discriminant validity of the elements, since all average variances extracted were higher than the squares of the correlations between the constructs (Tables 66 and 67).

The impact of the selected MC tools on the new CBBE measurement model was tested using Harmans' single factor test (Posakoff et al., 2003). The confirmatory factor analysis was applied. The model fit statistics were bad for all of the samples (Table 68). Based on the results, we established that it is not likely that our data has common method bias. We then tested the common method variance with the marker variable test (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). As a marker variable, the item "What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?" was chosen. All Pearson correlations among the constructs were low and not significant. Therefore, we concluded that no problem with the common method variance exists. The results are presented in Appendix P, Point 2.2.

5.2.6.2.2.2 Structural model for the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model

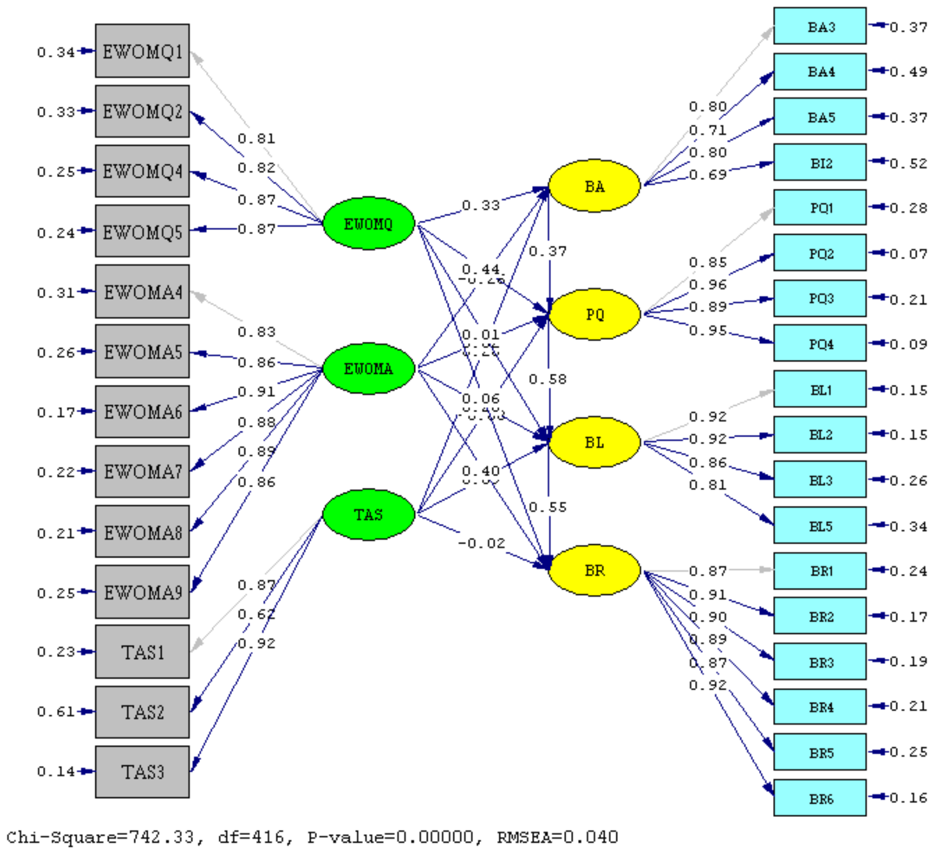
The global fit statistics for the structural model is presented in Table 68. Even though Chi-square is high and significant in all samples, the difference between Chi-square and degrees of freedom is good and below 3. RMSEA is good for the Bosnian and merged samples and reasonable for the British and Slovenian samples. SRMR is good for all samples, except for the Slovenian sample. CFI, NFI, NNFI, and IFI are good for all samples. GFI is good for the merged sample and below the suggested threshold for the country-specific samples. Based on these results the models are acceptable.

Table 68. Global Fit Statistics for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Structural Model

Fit statistics	Great Britain	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Merged data
Df	332	332	332	416
P	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Chi-Square	670.14	452.07	458.21	742.33
Chi-Square/Df	2.01	1.36	1.38	1.78
RMSEA	0.073	0.051	0.048	0.040
SRMR	0.047	0.062	0.050	0.037
CFI	0.98	0.97	0.99	0.99
NFI	0.95	0.93	0.96	0.98
NNFI	0.97	0.97	0.98	0.99
GFI	0.80	0.81	0.84	0.91
IFI	0.98	0.97	0.99	0.99

A power analysis and decision-tree framework testing were conducted also for the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model. For results see Appendix P, Point 3 and Point 4. The graphical representation of the model on the merged sample is shown in Figure 26.

Figure 26. Structural Model for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model for the Merged Sample



A summary of the relationships between variables in the structural models is presented in Table 69. The direct relationship between brand awareness with brand image and perceived quality was supported on all samples. The direct relationships between perceived quality and brand loyalty and brand loyalty and brand relationship were equally confirmed.

eWOM quality had an impact on brand awareness with brand image and perceived quality for all samples, with the exception of its impact on brand awareness with brand image on the Bosnian sample. The impact of eWOM quality on brand loyalty and brand relationship was not confirmed.

In contrast, eWOM activity had the impact on brand loyalty and brand relationship in all samples. The positive impact of eWOM activity on brand awareness with brand image and on perceived quality was not confirmed. In contrast, a negative and significant impact of eWOM activity was found on the British and merged samples. Television advertising spending was found to have an impact on brand awareness with brand image in all samples. Its impact on brand loyalty was confirmed only on the merged sample.

Table 69. Results of Hypotheses Testing for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

Hypothesis	**+ /-**	**Great Britain**		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		**Merged data**	
		Coefficient (t-test)*	**S/ NS**	**Coefficient (t-test)***	**S/ NS**	**Coefficient (t-test)***	**S/ NS**	**Coefficient (t-test)***	**S/ NS**
BA & BI – PQ (H2bc)	+	0.52 (7.15)	S	0.23 (2.18)	S	0.34 (4.12)	S	0.37 (7.78)	S
PQ – BL (H2f)	+	0.63 (8.86)	S	0.62 (6.98)	S	0.55 (6.51)	S	0.58 (12.74)	S
BL – BR (H2g)	+	0.50 (9.06)	S	0.65 (8.81)	S	0.54 (7.26)	S	0.55 (14.90)	S
EWOMQ – BA & BI (H5.2.1ab)	+	0.45 (4.63)	S	0.40 (3.66)	S	0.19 (1.67)	NS	0.33 (5.45)	S
EWOMQ – PQ (H5.2.1c)	+	0.42 (5.27)	S	0.35 (3.38)	S	0.48 (5.17)	S	0.44 (8.20)	S
EWOMQ – BL (H5.2.1d)	+	0.10 (1.14)	NS	-0.04 (-0.51)	NS	-0.03 (-0.32)	NS	0.01 (0.10)	NS
EWOMQ – BR (H5.2.1e)	+	0.07 (1.20)	NS	0.08 (1.19)	NS	0.05 (0.67)	NS	0.06 (1.66)	NS
EWOMA – BA & BI (H5.2.2ab)	+	-0.43 (-4.49)	NS	-0.19 (-1.85)	NS	-0.07 (-0.67)	NS	-0.26 (-4.44)	NS
EWOMA – PQ (H5.2.2c)	+	-0.09 (-1.23)	NS	0.07 (0.78)	NS	0.07 (0.89)	NS	0.02 (0.44)	NS
EWOMA – BL (H5.2.2d)	+	0.19 (2.54)	S	0.25 (3.11)	S	0.29 (3.67)	S	0.26 (5.85)	S
EWOMA – BR (H5.2.2e)	+	0.50 (8.40)	S	0.27 (3.86)	S	0.35 (4.80)	S	0.40 (10.57)	S
TAS – BA & BI (H5.1ab)	+	0.24 (2.87)	S	0.35 (3.48)	S	0.30 (3.33)	S	0.28 (5.43)	S

(table continues)

(continued)

TAS – PQ (H5.1c)	+	0.01 (0.12)	NS	-0.24 (-2.55)	NS	0.00 (0.01)	NS	-0.08 (-1.83)	NS
TAS – BL (H5.1d)	+	0.00 (0.07)	NS	0.14 (1.93)	NS	0.11 (1.82)	NS	0.09 (2.48)	S
TAS – BR (H5.1e)	+	0.02 (0.43)	NS	-0.01 (-0.15)	NS	-0.03 (-0.54)	NS	-0.02 (-0.61)	NS

Note. * Significant at $p \leq 0.05$, t≥ +/- 1.96, S = Supported, NS = Not supported, BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship, EWOMQ = eWOM quality; EWOMA = eWOM activity, TAS = television advertising spending.

Selected MC tools explained the highest proportion of variance of brand relationship, from 58% for the British sample to 48% for the merged, 45% for the Bosnian and 33% for the Slovenian samples (Table 70). Variance explained of brand relationship was as high as 65% to 76% by selected MC tools and CBBE elements together. Selected MC tools explained the lowest proportion of variance of brand awareness with brand image for the British, Bosnian, and merged samples. In contrast, selected MC tools explained the lowest proportion of variance of brand loyalty in the Slovenian sample. The impact of selected MC tools on all CBBE elements was higher than the direct impact of CBBE elements on all samples. The proportion of variance explained of brand loyalty was around 50% for all samples.

Table 70. Variance Explained (R^2) by Selected MC Tools and CBBE Elements for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

	Great Britain		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**		**Merged data**	
	R^2 (RF)	**R^2 (SE)**	**R^2 (RF)**	**R^2 (SE)**	**R^2 (RF)**	**R^2 (SE)**	**R^2 (RF)**	**R^2 (SE)**
BA & BI	0.22	0.22	0.24	0.24	0.13	0.13	0.16	0.16
PQ	0.34	0.55	0.22	0.26	0.36	0.46	0.28	0.40
BL	0.29	0.55	0.18	0.48	0.34	0.54	0.27	0.51
BR	0.58	0.76	0.33	0.67	0.45	0.65	0.48	0.71

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ =perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship, RF = Reduced form equations, SE = Structural equations.

5.2.6.3 Model cross-validation

Through the dissertation, based on the theory and the changed MCs environment, we proposed that the traditional CBBE model should be redefined. We proposed the new CBBE model which includes additional construct, brand relationship. Furthermore, we proposed also two impact models, the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and on the new CBBE models. In order to finally conclude which two among four proposed models is best, the models' cross-validation was taken into account.

Diverse model cross-validation procedures exist. The simplest one is to apply the **validity generalization**, as proposed by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000). The objective of this procedure is to find the model that replicates best across diverse populations. We applied this procedure to our two competing CBBE models based on our four samples. We compared the goodness-of-fit statistics, model power and Chi-Square significance test to ascertain which model is better replicated for the different populations. The results (Table 71) reveal that we cannot conclude which of the proposed models replicates better across our sample.

Table 71. Comparing the Traditional and New CBBE Models for Different Samples

	Traditional CBBE	**New CBBE**
Great Britain	B	A
Slovenia	B	A
Bosnia and Herzegovina	A	B
Merged data	A	B
Conclusion	**C**	**C**

Note. A – better model, B - worse model, C – competing models.

The same procedure was applied also to the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE models. Results are presented in Table 72. According to the results from this procedure we also cannot conclude which among the models is better, since it replicates differently on the samples. Therefore further testing is needed.

Table 72. Comparing the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional and New CBBE Models for Different Samples

	Impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model	**Impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model**
Great Britain	B	A
Slovenia	A	B
Bosnia and Herzegovina	A	B
Merged data	B	A
Conclusion	**C**	**C**

Note. A – better model, B worse model, C – competing models.

Cuceck and Browne (1983) propose that the **cross-validation index** (hereinafter: CVI) should be computed in order to compare competing models. This procedure is known as the model cross-validation and proposed to be the best solution by several academics (MacCallum et al., 1994; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). The double cross-validation procedure is proposed where the fitted and asymptotic covariance matrices based on the calibration and validation samples are computed and compared twice. The model with the lowest CVI should be selected.

We followed this procedure by dividing our merged sample into half (each sub-sample consisted of 249 cases). We used sub-sample A as a calibration sample and sub-sample B as a validation sample. With the double cross-validation procedure the role of the two samples after the first round changed, and sub-sample A became a validation and sub-sample B a calibration sample.

The results of the double-validation procedure for the comparison of the traditional and new CBBE models are presented in Table 73. CVI of the traditional model in the first cross-validation procedure is lower (CVI = 209.23) than CVI of the proposed new CBBE model (230.81), suggesting that the traditional model is better. In the second round the CVI of the traditional model remains lower, suggesting that the traditional model is better. Even though this is contradictory with the results gained with the validity generalization procedure, we can conclude that the traditional model could be better.

Table 73. Double Cross-Validation Results for the Comparison between the Traditional and New CBBE Models

	Traditional CBBE	**New CBBE**
SB, ΣA	CVI = 209.23	CVI = 230.81
SA, ΣB	CVI = 115.13	CVI = 135.67

Note. SB, SA = fitted covariance matrix for sub-samples A or B; ΣA, ΣB = asymptotic covariance matrix for sub-samples A or B.

When comparing the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and the new CBBE models the results are not as clear as above. In the first cross-validation procedure the CVI is lower for the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model (see Table 74). In the second round the CVI is lower for the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model. The results for the impact models are mixed and therefore also with the double cross-validation procedure we cannot conclude which model is better. We believe further examination of which among the models is better is needed. We propose to test models on other samples in the future to be able to decide which model is better. Even though the CVI tested on the CBBE models proposed the traditional model is better, the CVI of the impact of the selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model is not considered to be better and the final conclusions therefore cannot be done.

Table 74. Double Cross-Validation Results for the Comparison Between the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional and New CBBE Models

	Impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE	**Impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE**
SB, ΣA	CVI = 295.22	CVI = 322.97
SA, ΣB	CVI = 169.93	CVI = 161.62

Note. SB, SA = fitted covariance matrix for sub-samples A or B; ΣA, ΣB = asymptotic covariance matrix for sub-samples A or B.

5.2.6.4 Cross-national measurement invariance

Our aim was to develop a measurement instrument that could be used in diverse cultures. Therefore, it is suggested not only to develop a model in one country and validate it in other countries but to check the measurement instrument for cross-national measurement invariance (Hui & Triandis, 1985; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Horn (1991) postulated that the conclusions of a study are not strong without evidence of measurement invariance (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998, p. 78). Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998, pp. 80-81) presented a framework that assesses measurement invariance in cross-national consumer research. They proposed that three levels of measurement invariance should be included to validate a model across cultures. More specifically, they stated that a researcher should take three necessary steps and examine the configural, metric and scalar invariance of the measurement instrument across countries. Hence, we include these steps in our measurement instrument.

A χ^2 difference test was used to assess the cross validation of the measurement model, as proposed by Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998). With the χ^2difference test, the null and alternative hypotheses are tested. The χ^2 test is dependent on the sample's size. Therefore, researchers should be careful when using it, since there is a probability that it will reject a reasonable model when the sample size is large and accept a poor fitting model when the sample size is small (van de Schoot, Lugtig & Hox, 2012). Since our sample sizes are relatively small, we also use the goodness of fit indices to determine whether the models are adequate. Model fit will be considered adequate when it achieves the desired thresholds: the ratio among the χ^2 and degrees of freedom is not above 3, the CFI value is above 0.95, and RMSEA is not above 0.10. Additional tests regarding the fit indices can be used to ascertain the decision. Some academics propose the CFI difference test, since it is independent of the sample size and model complexity (Vanderburg & Lance, 2000; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). A reduction of the CFI by 0.01 or more indicates that a null hypothesis of no difference should be rejected (Guo et al., 2009).

Different invariance forms are needed to achieve different study goals (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). The primary aim of our study was to develop a measurement instrument for the proposed models which could be applied among the diverse brands and diverse countries. Therefore, a configural and metric invariance should be tested. Before comparing the models with a multi-group procedure, we provide evidence that the proposed models provide an acceptable fit for all of the country-specific samples.

We will test the measurement invariance for our four proposed models: the traditional CBBE model, the new CBBE models, the impact of the selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model, and that same impact on the new CBBE models. All measurement invariance models include the same items, which differs from the model testing in the previous chapters. All items that are included in the previous models are tested for the cross-cultural measurement invariance in three countries.

The variables included the following items:

- Brand awareness: BA3, BA4, BA5 and BI2.
- Perceived quality: PQ1, PQ2, PQ3, and PQ4.
- Brand loyalty: BL1, BL2, BL3, and BL5.
- Brand relationship: BR1, BR2, BR3, BR4, BR5, and BR6.
- eWOM quality: EWOMQ1, EWOMQ2, EWOMQ4 and EWOMQ5.

- eWOM activity: EWOMA4, EWOMA5, EWOMA6, EWOMA7, EWOMA8 and EWOMA9.
- Television advertising spending: TAS1, TAS2 and TAS3.

The summary of the goodness-of-fit indices for the measurement models is provided in Table 75. All measurement models yielded an acceptable fit.

Table 75. Summary of Measurement Model Goodness-of-fit Indices for Proposed Models

	χ^2	p	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	GFI
Traditional CBBE model								
Great Britain	144.19	0.000	51	2.83	0.098	0.064	0.98	0.89
Slovenia	82.51	0.003	51	1.62	0.067	0.067	0.98	0.91
Bosnia and Herzegovina	116.97	0.000	51	2.29	0.088	0.050	0.97	0.90
New CBBE model								
Great Britain	263.14	0.000	129	2.04	0.074	0.054	0.98	0.87
Slovenia	177.95	0.003	129	1.38	0.053	0.054	0.99	0.87
Bosnia and Herzegovina	221.37	0.000	129	1.72	0.065	0.055	0.98	0.87
Impact of selected MC tolls on the traditional CBBE model								
Great Britain	566.68	0.000	260	2.18	0.079	0.053	0.97	0.81
Slovenia	350.49	0.002	260	1.35	0.050	0.063	0.97	0.83
Bosnia and Herzegovina	399.81	0.000	260	1.54	0.057	0.055	0.98	0.84
Impact of selected MC tolls on the new CBBE model								
Great Britain	809.90	0.000	413	1.97	0.071	0.049	0.98	0.79
Slovenia	561.81	0.000	413	1.36	0.051	0.060	0.98	0.79
Bosnia and Herzegovina	597.14	0.000	413	1.45	0.052	0.057	0.98	0.81

The next step was to test the measurement invariance with the multi-group procedure. We adapted the examples of the LISREL syntax using the Simplis command language, as proposed by Milfont and Fischer (2010) for measurement invariance testing. The results are presented in Table 76 for all of the proposed models.

To assess the **configural invariance**, the measurement items should be formatted with the same salient and non-salient factor loadings across countries (Horn & McArdle, 1992, Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Configural invariance therefore shows whether individuals from diverse countries conceptualise the construct equally (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998, p. 80) propose that configural invariance is supported when three goals are achieved: the model with zero loadings on non-target factors fits the data well for all researched countries, all salient factor loadings are significantly different from zero and the factor correlations are significantly below unity.

With the use of the confirmatory factor analysis, we prove that all four proposed models fit the data well in all three countries. The structural relationships are specified in all three country-specific samples, which imply that the model is equal across the samples.

Moreover, the coefficients in the relationships are estimated independently across the samples.

The fit indices for all of the models are as follows:

- the traditional CBBE model (χ^2/df = 2.93, RMSEA = 0.108, CFI = 0.96),
- the new CBBE model (χ^2/df = 1.98, RMSEA = 0.077, CFI = 0.98),
- the impact of the selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model (χ^2/df = 2.00, RMSEA = 0.078, CFI = 0.96),
- the impact of the selected MC tools on the new CBBE model (χ^2/df = 1.80, RMSEA = 0.070, CFI = 0.97).

Moreover, all standardised factor loadings were highly significant in all countries; for all models, the value exceeded 0.60. Therefore, we conclude that the measures achieved the configural invariance. As such, we proceeded with the metric invariance testing (Table 76).

For the **metric invariance**, we tested whether the values of the factor loadings for each item on each factor were the same across countries (Schmitt & Kuljanin, 2008, p. 211). The metric invariance introduces the concept of equal scale intervals across the countries (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). It indicates that respondents from diverse countries respond to items in the same manner (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Wasti et al., 2007). When the metric invariance is satisfied, the obtained ratings can be compared across countries. An observed item difference indicates the differences among the groups in the latent constructs (Milfont & Fischer, 2010). The hypothesis of a full metric invariance was conducted by constraining the factor loadings to be invariant across the countries. Metric invariance models are nested within configural invariance models. Three tests were used to compare the relative fit of the models: χ^2 and the degrees of freedom difference tests, the model fit indices and the CFI difference. When establishing a metric invariance, researchers may proceed by testing the scalar invariance (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Vanderburg & Lance, 2000; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Schmitt & Kuljanin, 2008). The only difference from testing the configural invariance was in the omitted structural relationships among the samples. We therefore assumed that the coefficients for the second and third samples were the same as the first sample.

The **full metric invariance** for the **traditional CBBE model** was inspected. Even though the fit statistics of the full metric invariance model improved (χ^2/df = 2.84, RMSEA = 0.106, CFI = 0.96) and the CFI remained the same, the χ^2 increased substantially and the χ^2 difference was found significant ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 36.76, Δdf = 18, p = 0.006) (Table 76). The evaluation therefore called for a further examination of the modification indices (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). The highest among the modification indices suggested relaxing the constraints for the PQ1. The model significantly improved and the χ^2

difference was not found to be significant. Therefore, we concluded that the partial metric invariance was supported for the traditional CBBE model.

The same procedure was used for the **new CBBE model**. The full metric invariance model fits the data as well as the configural model. However, the χ^2 difference was found to be significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 55.96$, $\Delta df = 28$, $p = 0.001$) (Table 76). The CFI in the metric invariance model remained the same, which could be evidence to propose that there is no difference among the models. However, the evaluation called for a further examination of the modification indices (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). The highest modification index suggested relaxing the constraints for PQ1. The model fit improved and the χ^2 difference was not found to be significant. We therefore supported the partial metric invariance for the new CBBE model.

Next, we proceeded to test the **metric invariance** for the **impact models**. The full metric invariance model fit for **the impact of the selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model** slightly worsened ($\chi^2/df = 2.11$, RMSEA = 0.082, CFI = 0.95). The CFI decreased and the χ^2 increased. The differences were found to be significant. The inspection of the highest modification indices suggested relaxing the constraints for PQ1, EWOMA9, EWOMQ2, EWOMQ4, EWOMQ5, TAS1 and TAS3, with the highest promise of a decrease in χ^2. With all of the outlined modification indices taken into account, the model fit improved significantly. Both the χ^2 difference and CFI difference were not found to be significant. Therefore, the partial metric invariance was supported.

The full metric invariance for the **impact of the selected MC tools on the new CBBE model** was inspected. The fit statistics of the full metric invariance model was just slightly worse than the fit statistics of the configural model ($\chi^2/df = 1.86$, RMSEA = 0.072, CFI = 0.97) (Table 76). However, while the CFI remained the same, the χ^2 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 169.48$, $\Delta df = 48$, $p = 0.000$) increased substantially. The highest modification indices suggested relaxing the constraints for PQ1, EWOMA9, EWOMQ2, EWOMQ4, EWOMQ5, TAS1 and TAS3. When including all of the proposed modifications, the model fit improved significantly. Therefore, the partial metric invariance was satisfied.

Even though our aim was to develop a measurement instrument which could be applied among diverse countries, which does not require mean comparisons among countries, we will also inspect the models for a **scalar invariance**. Scalar invariance determines whether the cross-national dissimilarities in the means of the observed constructs are due to dissimilarities in the means of the constructs (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Establishing scalar invariance means that the latent factors means can be meaningfully compared across the groups. To assess whether the measures possess scalar invariance, we restricted all intercepts to be equal across the countries.

The scalar invariance for the traditional and new CBBE models was inspected. The goodness of fit statistics of the full scalar invariance for the **traditional CBBE model** worsened substantially. The largest among the modification indices suggested relaxing the constraints for PQ1. The model fit improved, but the χ^2 difference was found to be significant. By relaxing the additional constraints proposed by the modification indices, neither the model fit nor the χ^2 difference improved substantially. Hence, we conclude that the partial scalar invariance is not supported with the traditional CBBE model.

The goodness of fit statistics of the full scalar invariance for the **new CBBE model** worsened. The χ^2 increased substantially and the χ^2 difference was found to be significant (Table 76). The highest among the modification indices suggested a relaxing of the constraints for PQ1. This led the model fit to improve. However, the χ^2 difference was still found to be significant. Hence, relaxing the additional constraints did not improve the model fit. Therefore, we conclude that the partial scalar invariance for the new CBBE model is not supported.

Next, the full scalar invariance for the impact models was examined. The full scalar invariance for the **impact of the selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model** yielded poorer fit indices. Therefore, the full scalar invariance was not supported (Table 76). Based on the modification indices, we relaxed several constraints. These included: PQ1, EWOMA9, EWOMQ2, EWOMQ4, EWOMQ5, TAS1 and TAS3. The model fit improved accordingly; however, the partial scalar invariance was not supported, due to significant χ^2 difference.

The **impact of the selected MC tools on the new CBBE model** was examined. The fit statistics for the full scalar invariance model worsened substantially. Therefore, we relaxed several of the constraints: PQ1, EWOMA9, EWOMQ2, EWOMQ4, EWOMQ5, TAS1 and TAS3. The model fit of the partial scalar invariance substantially improved. However, the χ^2 difference was still found to be significant. Consequently, we concluded that the partial scalar invariance was not supported for the impact of the selected MC tools on the new CBBE model (Table 76).

Table 76. Measurement Invariance Testing

Fit statistics	**χ^2 (df)**	**χ^2/df**	**RMSEA**	**CFI**	**NNFI**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**Δdf**	**p**	**S/NS**
Traditional CBBE model									
Full Configural inv.	500.98* (171)	2.93	0.108	0.96	0.96	-	-	-	S
Full Metric inv.	537.74* (189)	2.84	0.106	0.96	0.96	36.76	18	0.006	NS
Partial Metric inv.	520.11* (187)	2.78	0.104	0.96	0.96	19.13	16	0.262	S
Full Scalar inv.	636.71* (207)	3.08	0.112	0.95	0.95	135.73	36	0.000	NS

(table continues)

(continued)

Partial Scalar inv.	585.39* (203)	2.88	0.107	0.96	0.96	84.41	32	0.000	NS
New CBBE model									
Full Configural inv.	821.33* (415)	1.98	0.077	0.98	0.98	-	-	-	S
Full Metric inv.	877.29* (443)	1.98	0.077	0.98	0.98	55.96	28	0.001	NS
Partial Metric inv.	858.53* (441)	1.95	0.076	0.98	0.98	37.20	26	0.072	S
Full Scalar inv.	978.86* (471)	2.08	0.081	0.97	0.97	157.53	56	0.000	NS
Partial Scalar inv.	927.70* (467)	1.99	0.077	0.97	0.98	106.37	52	0.000	NS
Impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model									
Full Configural inv.	1652.68* (826)	2.00	0.078	0.96	0.96	-	-	-	S
Full Metric inv.	1819.05* (864)	2.11	0.082	0.95	0.95	166.37	38	0.000	NS
Partial Metric inv.	1686.23* (850)	1.98	0.077	0.96	0.96	33.55	24	0.093	S
Full Scalar inv.	1968.21* (902)	2.18	0.085	0.95	0.95	315.53	76	0.000	NS
Partial Scalar inv.	1750.75* (874)	2.00	0.078	0.96	0.96	98.07	48	0.000	NS
Impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model									
Full Configural inv.	2337.23* (1298)	1.80	0.070	0.97	0.97	-	-	-	S
Full Metric inv.	2506.71* (1346)	1.86	0.072	0.97	0.97	169.48	48	0.000	NS
Partial Metric inv.	2368.20* (1332)	1.78	0.069	0.97	0.97	30.97	34	0.617	S
Full Scalar inv.	2654.02* (1394)	1.90	0.074	0.96	0.96	316.79	96	0.000	NS
Partial Scalar inv.	2435.77* (1366)	1.78	0.069	0.97	0.97	98.54	68	0.009	NS

Note. * p = 0.000, S = supported, NS = not supported.

The results from the measurement invariance testing enable us to confirm the configural invariances for all of the models. According to the results, the items are reliable across the country-specific samples. The results reveal that individuals from diverse countries conceptualise them equally. Only the partial metric measurement invariances were supported for the proposed models. Item PQ1 was found variant in both the traditional and new CBBE models. All measures of brand awareness (i.e., brand image, brand loyalty and brand relationship) were invariant. Moreover, three items of eWOM quality, two of TAS, one of PQ and one of eWOM activity were found variant for the impact of the selected MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE models. Byrne, Shavelson and Muthén (1989) outline that as long as there are at least two loadings and intercepts that are constrained equally across the groups, valid inferences about the differences between the latent factor means in the model can be made (van der Schoot, Lugtig & Hox, 2012). Only one measure of both, eWOM quality and television advertising spending, was invariant. Hence, we can conclude that eWOM quality and television advertising spending varied across the selected countries and the constructs cannot be comparable among the groups. In addition, the scalar invariance was not supported for any of the models.

5.2.6.4.1 Cross-national structural invariance

Since we wanted to determine whether the proposed structural models are invariant across the selected countries, we tested the models for structural invariance. Partial measurement invariance models were considered for testing the structural invariance, following the procedure of Yoo and Donthu (2002, pp. 388-390). Using the partial measurement invariance models, all four proposed models were tested for the invariance of the structural paths across the British, Slovenian, and Bosnian samples. The partial configural, partial metric and partial scalar invariance models were tested for all four of the proposed models with the same procedure used for testing the cross-national measurement invariance. A χ^2 difference test was used to assess the cross validation of the measurement model (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). We also used the goodness of fit indices and the CFI difference test to determine whether the models were adequate.

Firstly, the **traditional CBBE structural invariance model** was inspected. The partial configural invariance structural model yielded an acceptable model fit. Therefore, the partial configural structural invariance was supported (Table 77). We continued with testing the partial metric structural invariance. Due to the significant χ^2 difference, we could not support the partial metric structural invariance. Based on the procedure in Yoo and Donthu (2002), we tested the invariance of the structural paths independently. Only one path was relaxed to vary across the countries; all other paths were constrained to be equivalent. The path from brand loyalty to CBBE, as a second-order factor, was found to be variant. Therefore, we conclude that the impact of brand loyalty on CBBE varied across countries. This result is consistent with the results in Yoo and Donthu's (2002) study.

Secondly, the **new CBBE structural invariance model** was tested. Both the partial configural and partial metric structural invariance were supported. Hence, we conclude that the structural paths among the CBBE elements and the CBBE are in the new structural model invariant across the country-specific samples. The partial scalar invariance was not supported, due to the significant χ^2 difference (Table 77).

Thirdly, the **impact of the selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE structural invariance model** was then tested (Table 77). The partial configural, metric and scalar invariances were confirmed. Consequently, we conclude that the structural paths among the CBBE elements and the CBBE are in the new structural model invariant across the country-specific samples. However, from the results of the measurement invariance testing, eWOM quality and television advertising spending were not found to be comparable across the countries.

Finally, the structural invariance for the **impact of the selected MC tools on the new CBBE structural invariance model** was inspected. The partial configural, metric and scalar invariances were confirmed, proposing that the structural model is invariant across the country specific samples. The same results were found in the previous model; eWOM quality and television advertising spending constructs are variant across the countries, which is evident from the obtained measurement invariance testing (Table 77).

Table 77. Structural Invariance Testing

Fit statistics	**χ^2 (df)**	**χ^2 /df**	**RMSEA**	**CFI**	**NNFI**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**Δdf**	**p**	**S/NS/PS**
Traditional CBBE model									
Partial Configural inv.	485.63* (172)	2.82	0.105	0.96	0.96	-	-	-	S
Partial Metric inv.	525.47* (190)	2.77	0.103	0.96	0.96	39.84	18	0.002	NS
Partial Metric inv. with the path BA – CBBE invariant	505.08* (189)	2.67	0.101	0.96	0.96	19.45	17	0.303	S
Partial Metric inv. – with the path PQ – CBBE invariant	499.18* (188)	2.66	0.100	0.96	0.96	13.55	16	0.632	S
Partial Metric inv. with the path BL – CBBE invariant	525.76* (189)	2.78	0.104	0.96	0.96	40.13	16	0.001	NS
Partial Scalar inv. with the path BL-CBBE invariant	591.69* (205)	2.89	0.107	0.96	0.96	106.06	33	0.000	NS
New CBBE model									
Partial Configural inv.	888.87* (424)	2.10	0.082	0.97	0.97	-	-	-	S
Partial Metric inv.	921.16* (456)	2.02	0.079	0.97	0.97	32.29	32	0.452	S
Partial Scalar inv.	992.14* (482)	2.06	0.080	0.97	0.97	103.27	58	0.000	NS
Impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model									
Partial Configural inv.	1757.70* (837)	2.10	0.082	0.96	0.95	-	-	-	S
Partial Metric	1719.07*	1.99	0.077	0.96	0.96	38.63	28	0.0	S

(table continues)

(continued)

inv.	(865)							87	
Partial Scalar inv.	1784.14* (889)	2.01	0.078	0.96	0.96	26.44	52	0.999	S
Impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model									
Partial Configural inv.	2455.09* (1310)	1.87	0.073	0.97	0.97	-	-	-	S
Partial Metric inv.	2418.79* (1356)	1.78	0.069	0.97	0.97	36.3	46	0.847	S
Partial Scalar inv.	2486.74* (1390)	1.79	0.069	0.97	0.97	31.65	80	0.999	S

Note. * p = 0.000, S = supported, NS = not supported.

Several observations can be made with structural invariance testing. Only invariant items were included in the partial structural invariance model. eWOM quality and television advertising spending were the constructs that greatly differed among the selected countries. Therefore, based on the structural invariance model, we cannot make valid conclusions about the differences between the latent factor means among diverse countries in the model (Byrne, Shavelson & Muthén, 1989). However, the partial structural configural and metric invariances were confirmed for all of the models. While the partial scalar invariance was not confirmed for the traditional and new CBBE models, it was confirmed for the two impact models. Brand loyalty was not found to have an equivalent impact on the traditional CBBE in all three countries. However, the impact of brand loyalty was found to be equivalent when testing the new CBBE model.

5.2.6.5 Testing of other hypotheses

The other hypotheses (H3 to H4 regarding CBBE and H6, H7 and H8 regarding selected MC tools and their impact on the CBBE model) that were proposed but not tested within our researched models will be presented in this section. These hypotheses are important for our topic since they can help marketers predict evaluations of selected MC tools and CBBE.

We tested the Hypothesis 3 with the independent sample t-test. All hypotheses from H3.1a to H3.1e were supported for all countries. Based on results we can support hypotheses from H3.2c to H3.2e for all countries. The exceptions are perceptions of brand awareness with brand image where differences were not significant for several measurement items and therefore we cannot support hypotheses H3.2a and H3.2b. For research results see Appendix Q, Tables 1 and 2.

Hypothesis 4 was tested with the independent sample t-test. Respondents without previous brand experiences were excluded from testing. Based on results we can support all hypotheses in all samples and conclude that perceptions of CBBE elements differ from consumers who have positive previous brand experience compared to consumers who have negative brand experiences. For research results on the British, Slovenian and Bosnian samples see Appendix Q, Table 3.

The independent samples t-test was used for testing the Hypothesis 6. Hypothesis 6a was not supported for all samples, meaning that perceptions of television advertising spending did not differ according to the consumer involvement in product or category. In the Bosnian sample Hypothesis 6a was supported only on TAS2 item. The Hypothesis 6b was on the other side supported for all eWOM quality and eWOM activity items, with some exceptions of items for each country (see Appendix Q, Table 4). It is evident from all samples that consumer involvement is a significant indicator of perceptions of eWOM quality and eWOM activity but not of perceived television advertising spending.

Next, Hypothesis 7 and its subhypotheses were tested by checking correlation coefficients. Results of the hypotheses testing are presented in Appendix Q, Table 5. The correlation coefficients among advertising value and selected MC tools were positive and significant for all samples. Consequently hypotheses H7.1a and H7.1b were supported. Contrary to our predictions the correlation coefficients among irritation and selected MC tools were positive and therefore hypotheses H7.2a and H7.2b were not supported. The relationship among irritation was found positive and significant for eWOM quality for all samples and eWOM activity for the British and Bosnian samples. These results are surprising and call for further examination.

Hypothesis 8 was tested with independent sample t-test. From research results is evident that age influences perceptions of new MC tools differently in researched countries. We can support all hypotheses only in the British sample. In the Slovenian sample we found differences in perceptions among older and younger respondents only for some eWOM quality and eWOM activity items (Appendix Q, Table 6). Moreover, in the Bosnian sample there are differences among young and older respondents just for the item saying: “When I consider buying a brand I ask for advice on the Internet”. Therefore the hypothesis can be supported only on the British sample, partially supported on the Slovenian sample and not supported on the Bosnian sample.

6 SUMMARY OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Along the chapters of the doctoral dissertation, we presented the changes ICT has brought to brand management. The new brand definition postulated at the beginning of the dissertation was just a starting point for presenting the changes that occurred in branding. Following a proposed theory on how to build strong brands, we prepared a foundation for the development of the new CBBE model.

We investigated the proposed theory with **qualitative research** to gain better understanding of the topics. **In-depth interviews with brand managers** led to the conclusion to add brand relationship into the CBBE measurement. Brand managers recognized **brand relationships as important** and described them to be conceptualised the same as relationships among people. They furthermore acknowledged brands are built differently today, but the continuing **importance of television advertising** as a powerful tool was underlined. **eWOM was stressed to be the main difference in MC tools,** rather than mobile and online advertising.

In addition to these interviews, **focus groups with consumers** gave us better insight into how consumers perceive brands and their communications. For consumers it was hard to acknowledge they like brands, but when they were willing to admit it, they revealed their true brand perceptions. Respondents **agreed they are loyal to brands** and that they **have a relationship with them**. This relationship was evident especially when they had been using the brand for a long time. Consumers revealed **television advertising is still a very powerful tool**. They could recall television advertisements of certain brands. Based on their answers, we found they **could recall eWOM activities of certain brands**, but their recall of online or mobile advertising was very limited. These conclusions were incorporated in the preparation of both proposed conceptual models.

Due to a variety of methods used and theories examined, we will divide the discussion into four parts. The **first part** is reserved for the presentation of equivalences and differences between our three samples according to their use of internet and mobile phones and regarding their perceptions of brands appointed to them and their MCs. In the **second part,** we will present the findings related to the CBBE model and other hypotheses connected to brand perceptions. The **third part** will contain a presentation connected with MCs and their impact on proposed CBBE models. In the third part, the results of the hypotheses testing on a bivariate level connected with MCs will be presented. The **fourth part** will be devoted to the cross-validation of the proposed models, namely the CBBE models and the impact of selected MC tools on the proposed CBBE models.

To start, the **British sample** differed from the other two samples in some socio-demographic characteristics. British respondents had higher education, 66.3% hold a university degree. They lived in majority in suburbs in households with two members. British respondents differed also according to their internet use. Above 90% of them used internet very often or always, which is the highest percentage among the samples. They also used tablet computers and mobile phones for connecting to the Internet with the highest percentage. British respondents used Internet for many purposes, including online shopping, online banking, and searching for information about brands. Due to these characteristics, they are regarded to be advanced Internet users.

British respondents at first seemed to be less involved in the product or service category of the appointed brand than the respondents from the other two samples. Nevertheless, there was the highest percentage of brand users in the British sample; and only 20.8% of them did not have any previous experience with the appointed brand. There were the lowest standard deviations found on the British sample regarding almost all measurement items for all CBBE elements. British respondents were aware of the appointed brand and had a brand image in their minds. They strongly agreed they can quickly recall a symbol or logo of the brand. They perceived brands' quality to be high. Furthermore, they were mainly neutral regarding their loyalty to appointed brand. Nevertheless, they slightly disagreed they consider themselves loyal and that they will not buy other brands if the appointed brand is available in the store. There was the highest standard deviation found in the measurement items for brand loyalty, showing that their opinions were rather mixed. Furthermore, they disagreed about being connected and intimate with appointed brand.

Regarding MCs, they showed their agreement with the information content and value of advertising, and were neutral about its entertainment, irritation, and credibility. They perceived television advertising spending of the appointed brand as somehow neutral with the lowest standard deviation among samples. Their perceptions of all eWOM measurement items were quite neutral, with the lowest standard deviations among samples.

In contrast, **Slovenian respondents** differed from the two samples in where they lived, since half of them came from the city. They reported to live in households with two to four members. They used the Internet less than British respondents and more than Bosnians. Slovenian respondents used advanced internet tools, like online shopping and banking, but to a lesser extent than British respondents did. However, their use of social networking sites was the lowest among samples. The use of the Internet on mobile phones was, as expected, lower among Slovenian respondents than among British respondents.

Slovenian respondents were quite involved in the product or service category of the appointed brand. Nevertheless, only 44.0% were brand users, which is quite a low percentage compared to British and Bosnian respondents. The highest percentage of Slovenian respondents also claimed not to have any brand experiences (41.4%). Nevertheless, Slovenian respondents were highly aware of the brand appointed to them and had an image of the brand in their minds. However, they were neutral about having a strong impression of the type of people who use the appointed brand. They agreed the appointed brand is of high quality. Slovenian respondents reported to be less loyal to the appointed brands compared to the other two samples since they slightly disagreed with all measurement items. The only exception was in their neutral opinion that it seems smarter to purchase the appointed brand if another brand is not different from it. The lowest connection and intimacy with brands is found among Slovenian respondents.

Regarding attitudes about advertising in general, Slovenian respondents evaluated advertising credibility and value lower than British and Bosnian respondents. They disagreed with advertising credibility, which is different from the British and Bosnian samples, where neutral attitudes were reported. High standard deviations were found regarding measurement items for perceived television advertising spending, showing mixed perceptions, even though a neutral opinion about television advertising spending of appointed brands was found. Despite the fact that they disagreed about eWOM opinion seeking, passing and giving, there are high standard deviations found regarding all measurement items. The highest standard deviation is found on the statement do they like to get opinions on the Internet before buying the appointed brands (standard deviation = 2.07).

Bosnian respondents differed from the other two samples according to household size, since the majority lived in households with three to four members. The majority of respondents was from the city, which highly differs from the other two samples. There were 15% of unemployed Bosnian respondents, which is half more than in the other two samples. They also differed on internet use. Only 63.7% of Bosnian respondents used the Internet very often or always. Moreover, the majority used the internet for reading online newspapers and magazines and only 30% of them used the internet for online shopping. This data shows that they can be considered as basic internet users.

Bosnian respondents reported their high involvement in the product or service category. There were 53.3 % of brand users and only 37.9 % of respondents without any previous brand experiences. Even though they neither agreed neither disagreed that appointed brand is the first brand that comes to their mind when they think of the product or service category, there was a very high standard deviation of 2.06 found, showing that there were quite diverse opinions among respondents. However, they were highly aware of appointed brands. Bosnian respondents agreed to have an image about appointed brand in their minds. They strongly agreed they can recall brand logo or symbol and that they can easily imagine a brand in their minds. Nevertheless, like Slovenian respondents, they neither agreed neither disagreed having a clear impression of the type of people who used appointed brand. On average, they agreed that appointed brands are of high quality, and were neutral about their loyalty to the brand. However, very strong standard deviations, mainly above 2.0 were found regarding measurement items of brand loyalty, showing diversity of opinions. They showed somehow neutral opinion about their self-connection with appointed brand and slight disagreement to be intimate with it. On average, there were the highest standard deviations found regarding all CBBE elements in the Bosnian sample, showing their mixed perceptions.

When evaluating attitudes toward advertising in general Bosnian respondents showed their highest agreement regarding advertising value compared to other samples. They slightly agreed advertising is entertaining and enjoyable, while British and Slovenian respondents showed neutral attitudes. Even though their perceptions about television advertising spending of appointed brand were found to be neutral, their opinions were quite diverse due to high standard deviations. Nevertheless, in contrast to Slovenian and British, Bosnian respondents slightly agreed that the ad campaigns on television for appointed brand seem expensive compared to campaigns for competing brands. Neutral opinions about eWOM quality and credibility were found on the Bosnian sample. They disagreed about searching for, passing or giving their opinions about appointed brand. Nevertheless, high standard deviations were found especially regarding all measurement items for opinion seeking and opinion passing, showing that Bosnian respondents' opinions were quite diverse.

In the **second part,** we present findings from testing the proposed **traditional and new CBBE models** and connections among their elements. We wanted to investigate whether our proposed CBBE elements, namely brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty and the newly proposed element, brand relationship, represent CBBE model better than traditional CBBE elements only. We therefore tested two models, the traditional and new CBBE model on all three samples and on a merged sample. The **exploratory factor analysis** for both traditional and new CBBE elements proposed that brand awareness with brand image should be treated as one element. Since this was evident also from a previous study by Yoo et al. (2000), we merged two elements into brand awareness with brand image. Brand relationship was found to be a stand-alone element as being introduced by Fournier (1998) and not as a part of brand loyalty, as proposed by some academics (Keller, 2001, 2009, 2010; Lemon et al., 2001). Furthermore, self-connection and intimacy were proposed to be merged into one element, brand relationship. Chang and Chieng (2006) already provided evidence that different dimensions of brand relationship constitute one construct, namely brand relationship.

With proceeding to the **confirmatory factor analysis**, we wanted to investigate which of the two proposed models is better and test the relationships between CBBE elements. The fit indexes for both, traditional and new CBBE measurement models indicated acceptable model fits on all samples. All proposed CBBE elements demonstrated high reliabilities, since composite reliabilities and average variance extracted exceeded proposed thresholds. The lowest average variance extracted was found for brand awareness with brand image, which could be expected since we merged two CBBE elements into one. Both traditional and new CBBE structural models also yielded acceptable fits and were therefore accepted on all country-specific and merged samples.

Brand awareness with brand image was found to be the second most important CBBE element of the traditional CBBE model when tested on the whole data. Moreover, when being tested on the brand consumers' data other elements became more important. Brand awareness with brand image was therefore the least important element in the traditional CBBE model tested on the brand consumers' data. When additional construct brand relationship was employed, the importance of brand awareness with brand image in the new CBBE model even lowers. From the findings, we can postulate that brand awareness with brand image is very important when considering all potential customers. However, when considering past or recent users brand awareness with brand image loses in importance and other elements, like perceived quality, brand loyalty and brand relationship become more important.

Perceived quality was acknowledged the most important CBBE element of the traditional CBBE model. Its importance is very high on both whole and brand consumers' data, showing that both brand consumers and non-consumers according to the traditional CBBE model evaluate brands mainly due to brands' quality. Nevertheless, brand loyalty was the most important CBBE element for Slovenian respondents on brand consumers' data. Furthermore, when adding to the model the additional construct, brand relationship, the importance of perceived quality lowers. For British consumers perceived quality became the second most important CBBE element, while for Slovenian and Bosnian consumers its importance lowered, and became the third most important element. Since there were quite high correlations found between perceived quality and brand relationship, the inclusion of the latter diminishes the importance of the perceived quality in the new CBBE model. From the findings, we can conclude that when targeting all potential customers, perceived quality should be emphasised, while when targeting past or recent brand users, managers should focus also on other CBBE elements.

Brand loyalty was found to be the third most important element of the traditional CBBE model on the whole data on British and Slovenian samples. When being tested on the Bosnian sample, it was shown to be the second most important CBBE element. Nevertheless, its importance was very close to the importance of brand awareness with brand image in all samples. When we tested the model on brand consumers' data, its importance varied. Brand loyalty became the most important element on the Slovenian sample and the second most important element on the British and Bosnian samples. In the new CBBE model, brand loyalty presents the most important CBBE element on all samples. These findings reveal that both perceived quality and brand loyalty are important CBBE elements. Nevertheless, marketers should not only focus on perceived quality but also on brand loyalty in order to build successful brands.

Brand relationship was acknowledged a very important element in the new CBBE model. It was found to be the second most important element in the Slovenian and Bosnian samples. In the British sample, perceived quality remained a very important element in the new CBBE model, and therefore, brand relationship was found to be the third most important CBBE element. From the results, it is evident that brand users search for something more than just quality cues when evaluating brands. Becoming intimate and connected to brand seems to be more important than quality. Nevertheless, since the importance of brand relationships varies across countries, further examination is needed. However, from the findings we can postulate that brand relationship is highly connected with both brand loyalty and perceived quality, since its inclusion diminishes the importance of perceived quality and enhances the importance of brand loyalty in the new CBBE model.

From the cross-cultural structural invariance results, it is evident that the **impact of brand loyalty on CBBE varies between the countries**. Therefore, it would be very important to examine whether cultural differences influence perception of CBBE elements. Using Hofstede's model of national culture it would be very interesting to explore whether the importance of brand relationship and perceived quality and other CBBE elements varies according to the dimensions proposed by Hofstede; namely power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and long- versus short-term orientation (2001). These findings could help brand managers which CBBE element to enhance in different cultures to achieve the highest impact on overall brand equity.

Finally, according to the above presented results we can confirm that **all proposed CBBE elements are important building-blocks** of the **traditional and new CBBE models** (see Table 78). Hypothesis 1 it therefore entirely supported. We provide evidence that CBBE measurement has to be reconsidered. Brand relationship was found to enhance CBBE and to be hence an important element of the new CBBE model on all samples. In Slovenian and Bosnian samples brand relationship was found to be the second most important CBBE element, which additionally supports its inclusion into the CBBE model. The same results were found also on a merged sample. Nevertheless, we did not provide evidence that the new CBBE model is better, since both models are acceptable and therefore we believe further examination is needed.

Findings from testing traditional and new CBBE models also imply that there are positive and significant relationships between all proposed CBBE elements and therefore we can entirely support Hypothesis 2. The highest correlations were found between brand relationship and brand loyalty, ranging from 0.70 to 0.77. High correlations were found also between brand loyalty and perceived quality (from 0.63 to 0.70) and perceived quality and brand relationship (from 0.47 to 0.57) for all samples. In the British sample, brand awareness with brand image was highly correlated with both perceived quality (0.65) and brand loyalty (0.49). In other samples the correlations were not as high as in the British sample. There were also correlations between brand awareness with brand image with brand relationship, but these are the lowest among all CBBE elements (from 0.13 to 0.18). In the second-order factor analysis, all covariations between CBBE elements are explained by the second-order factor, CBBE.

Table 78. Summary of Hypotheses and Results for the Traditional and New CBBE Models

	GB	**SLO**	**BIH**
Hypothesis 1: **The level of CBBE is related positively to the extent to which dimensions are evident in the product or other entity.**	**S**	**S**	**S**
H1ab: BA & BI - CBBE (+)	S	S	S
H1c: PQ – CBBE (+)	S	S	S
H1d: BL – CBBE (+)	S	S	S

(table continues)

(continued)

H1e: BR – CBBE (+)	S	S	S
Hypothesis 2: There are positive and significant relationships among proposed CBBE elements.	**S**	**S**	**S**
H2ab: BA – BI (+)	S	S	S
H2abc: BA & BI – PQ (+)	S	S	S
H2bd: BA & BI – BL (+)	S	S	S
H2be: BA & BI – BR (+)	S	S	S
H2cd: PQ – BL (+)	S	S	S
H2ce: PQ –BR (+)	S	S	S
H2de: BL – BR (+)	S	S	S

Note. GB = Great Britain, SLO = Slovenia, BIH = Bosnia and Herzegovina, S = supported.

We further on proceeded to the testing of other hypotheses connected with the CBBE construct. **Previous brand usage** was found to significantly influence consumers' perceptions of CBBE elements (see Table 79). The perceptions of all CBBE elements were found to be **different for brand users and non-users**. Brand users evaluated brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality and brand loyalty differently and therefore we entirely supported Hypothesis H3.1. However, the difference in consumers' perceptions was not entirely supported among **recent and past users** regarding brand awareness with brand image and therefore the Hypothesis H.3.2 was only partially supported. The differences in perceptions were supported for some brand awareness measurement items, especially regarding the first measurement item, measuring recall of a brand, where the differences were found on all samples. Moreover, the differences in perceptions of brand image among recent and past users were evident especially on the Slovenian sample. The differences in the measurement item regarding brand personality were found on both British and Bosnian samples. From the results, we can postulate that especially perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand relationship could differ among recent and past brand users. Therefore, brand managers should try to enhance perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand relationships for past brand users and therefore encourage them to become recent brand users.

Table 79. Summary of Hypotheses and Results for the Influence of Previous Brand Use on CBBE

Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H3: Previous brand usage significantly influences consumers' perceptions of CBBE.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H3.1: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ CBBE	**S**	**S**	**S**
H3.1a: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ BA	S	S	S
H3.1b: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ BI	S	S	S
H3.1c: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ PQ	S	S	S
H3.1d: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ BL	S	S	S
H3.2: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ CBBE	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H3.2a: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ BA	NS	NS	NS

(table continues)

(continued)

H3.2b: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ BI	PS	S	PS
H3.2c: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ PQ	S	S	S
H3.2d: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ BL	S	S	S
H3.2e: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ BR	S	S	S

Note. GB = Great Britain, SLO = Slovenia, BIH = Bosnia and Herzegovina, BUS = brand users, BNUS = brand non-users, PBUS = past users, RBUS = recent users, S = supported, NS = not supported.

Previous brand experience and its relationship with CBBE elements were also tested. According to the results previous positive or negative brand experience significantly influenced consumer perceptions of all CBBE elements. Therefore, we supported the proposed Hypothesis 4 (see Table 80). The important finding is that negative brand experiences influence also brand awareness, showing that consumers with negative brand experiences seem to recall and recognise brands to a lower extent are less aware of brands and know less about brands. Findings support that the main goal of marketers should be to ensure positive brand experiences, since our results imply that brand experiences influence all CBBE elements.

Table 80. Summary of Hypotheses and Results for the Influence of Previous Brand Experience on CBBE

Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H4: Previous brand experience significantly influences consumers' perceptions of CBBE.	**S**	**S**	**S**
H4a: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ BA	S	S	S
H4b: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ BI	S	S	S
H4c: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ PQ	S	S	S
H4d: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ BL	S	S	S
H4e: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ BR	S	S	S

Note. GB = Great Britain, SLO = Slovenia, BIH = Bosnia and Herzegovina, PBEX = positive brand experience, NBEX = negative brand experience, S = supported.

In the **third part,** we examined connections between selected MC tools and their impact on the proposed traditional and new CBBE models. With the use of the **exploratory factor analysis,** we confirmed that all items of television advertising spending present one common factor. Moreover, also eWOM quality and eWOM credibility were found to present one common factor. Since eWOM credibility was proposed to be one of the cues of eWOM quality (Nabi & Handriks, 2003; Colliander & Dahlén, 2011) this finding was not surprising and we therefore merged eWOM quality and eWOM credibility into one construct, labelled **eWOM quality**. Exploratory factor analysis produced a one factor solution also for eWOM seeking, eWOM passing, and eWOM giving on the British and Bosnian samples, while eWOM seeking was found to be a separate factor on the Slovenian sample. We therefore jointed all measurement items into a common factor, eWOM activity, on the British and Bosnian samples. In the Slovenian sample, two factors were considered, eWOM seeking and eWOM activity. The findings about eWOM activities are not in line with previous findings of Chu and Kim (2011) who found eWOM activities in

SNSs to be consisting of three distinct dimensions. Nevertheless, their study measured eWOM in SNSs while our measures were adapted to eWOM on the Internet in general, which could lead to different conclusions.

In proceeding to the **confirmatory factor analysis**, we wanted to investigate which among the two proposed impact models, namely the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model, is better. The fit indexes for both impact models indicated acceptable model fits on all samples. All proposed constructs demonstrated high reliabilities, since composite reliabilities and average variance extracted highly exceeded proposed thresholds. Model fits for both impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE structural models were acceptable and both models were consequently accepted on all samples.

eWOM quality was found to highly enhance both brand awareness with brand image and also perceived quality in both traditional and new CBBE models. Its impact on brand awareness with brand image was not supported only on a Bosnian sample for both impact models. However, our findings show that eWOM quality is not a powerful tool for enhancing brand loyalty and brand relationships. This is in line with the findings by Rezvani et al. (2012) who in their recent study reveal that it is not necessary that all eWOM activities build all CBBE elements.

The impact of **eWOM activity** on brand awareness with brand image was contrary to our predictions that eWOM activity enhances all CBBE elements found to be negative on all samples (see Table 81). Its impact was even found to be negative and significant on the British and merged samples. This finding could be connected with the finding of Rezvani et al. (2012) where they warn that the valence of eWOM negatively influences brand awareness with brand image. However, from our measurement items we cannot predict whether eWOM activities had any negative connotation. Since new media enable consumers to share their opinions about brands on the Internet and marketers do not have control over the messages, it seems this could have a negative impact on brand awareness with brand image on all markets.

Furthermore, the impact of eWOM activity on perceived quality varied across samples. Its impact was found positive and not significant on Slovenian, Bosnian and merged samples. However, the impact of eWOM activity on perceived quality was found negative and not significant in British sample. Our findings imply that brand managers should be very cautious with eWOM activities, since they can lower brand awareness with brand image and on markets with the high and advanced use of the Internet they could also harm to some extent perceptions of quality of a brand. This findings call for further examination especially on the markets with the high use of the Internet.

Nevertheless, in the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional CBBE model, eWOM activity was found to enhance brand loyalty on all samples. Furthermore, when adding additional construct, brand relationship, into the new impact model, the results showed that eWOM activity had the highest impact on brand relationship. This was especially evident on the British sample, where the impact of eWOM activity on brand relationship was very high (0.50). Therefore, without including brand relationship into the CBBE measurement, the true impact of eWOM activity would not be evident and both academics and practitioners could lose an insight into how brands are built with eWOM activities. Therefore, it seems wiser to use other MCs when the goal it to enhance brand awareness with brand image on all markets, regardless of the Internet use. Furthermore, other MCs should be used to enhance perceived quality with advanced Internet users. Nevertheless, when marketers want to encourage building brand relationships and brand loyalty, eWOM activities should be encouraged on all markets.

Perceived television advertising spending was proposed to enhance all CBBE elements. Contrary results confirmed only its impact on brand awareness with brand image in both impact models for all samples, where its impact was positive and highly significant (see Table 81). On the merged sample, an impact of perceived television advertising spending on brand loyalty was also found. Contrary to the previous studies, where the impact of television advertising spending on perceived quality was, in the majority, supported (Yoo et. al., 2000; Cobb-Walgren et al., 2000; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & SancezFranco, 2005), our findings fails to find this impact. This could be due to the fact that the construct was found to vary across the countries and is, therefore, not comparable across the groups. However, several studies confirmed the impact of advertising spending on brand loyalty (Yoo et. al., 2000; Eagle & Kitchen, 2000; Trappey & Woodside, 2005), which was confirmed only on the merged sample in our study. Nevertheless, Buil et al. (2013) already found that advertising spending enhances only brand awareness. Furthermore, Chattopadhyay et al. (2010) also warn there are differences in the impact of television advertising spending on perceived quality between first-time and repeat buyers. In their study, the impact of television advertising spending on perceived quality was only confirmed for first-time buyers (Chattopadhyay et al., 2010).

Our findings imply that in the new MCs environment the higher budgets for television advertising are not efficient for building perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand relationship. Nevertheless, television advertising spending remains an important MC tool for enhancing brand awareness with brand image. Impact of television advertising spending on brand awareness with brand image was found to be the lowest on the British sample, followed by Bosnian sample and finally the highest on the Slovenian sample. From the findings, we can postulate that on the markets where the use of the Internet is still lower, television advertising spending could be more important in building brand awareness with brand image. Since its impact is higher on Slovenian than on Bosnian sample, not only Internet use but also other factors influence the impact of television advertising spending on brand awareness with brand image. We predict that in the forthcoming decade television advertising spending will remain an important MC tool especially for building brand awareness with brand image, but it will become even less important on all markets. The results of the hypotheses testing are presented in Table 78.

Table 81. Summary of Hypotheses and Results for the Influence of Perceived MCs activities on the CBBE

Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H5: CBBE elements are positively related to perceived MCs activities of the brand.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H5.1* CBBE *elements are positively related to the perceived television advertising spending for the brand.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H5.1ab: TAS – BA & BI (+)	S	S	S
H5.1c: TAS – PQ (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.1d: TAS- BL (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.1e: TAS - BR (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2 CBBE elements are positively related to eWOM of the brand.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H5.2.1 CBBE elements are positively related to eWOM quality of the brand.	PS	PS	PS
H5.2.1ab: eWOMQ – BA & BI (+)	S	S	NS
H5.2.1c: eWOMQ – PQ (+)	S	S	S
H5.2.1d: eWOMQ – BL (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2.1e: eWOMQ – BR (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2.2 CBBE elements are positively related to eWOM activity of the brand.	PS	PS	PS
H5.2.2ab: eWOMA – BA & BI (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2.2c: eWOMA – PQ (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2.2d: eWOMA – BL (+)	S	S	S
H5.2.2e: eWOMA – BR (+)	S	S	S

Note. GB = Great Britain, SLO = Slovenia, BIH = Bosnia and Herzegovina, S = supported, NS = not supported, PS = partially supported.

From the findings of the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE models **brand awareness with brand image** were enhanced by both traditional and new MC tolls, namely **television advertising spending** and **eWOM quality**. On the British, Slovenian and merged samples eWOM quality enhanced brand awareness with brand image more than television advertising spending, showing that the quality of information about brands found on the Internet is very important especially on the markets with higher Internet usage. Marketers should therefore put a lot of effort in presenting their brands on the Internet with factual, helpful, and accurate information. On the other side the impact of television advertising spending on brand awareness with brand image was the highest on the Slovenian and Bosnian samples, showing that higher budgets for television advertising could enhance brand awareness with brand image especially on the markets with basic or not highly advanced Internet users. The results are in accordance with our predictions, showing that traditional MC tools on markets with lower Internet usage play more important role in building brand awareness with brand image. Therefore, investments in television advertising should be higher in the markets with the lower use of the Internet.

Moreover, on the British and merged samples **brand awareness with brand image** was found to be **lowered with the eWOM activity**. Marketers should therefore be cautious when using eWOM activity for enhancing brand awareness with brand image since its effect, especially on the markets with advanced Internet users, can be negative.

Perceived quality was found to be enhanced only by **eWOM quality** for the selected MC tools. eWOM quality seemed to be very important for building perceptions of a quality of a brand, since its impact was high on all samples (coefficients from 0.48 to 0.35). The impact of eWOM quality on perceived quality was found to be the lowest on the Slovenian sample and the highest on the Bosnian sample, which is contrary to the findings about its impact on brand awareness with brand image. These results could be due to the findings from the measurement invariance testing, where we determined that the eWOM quality is not comparable between the countries. Nevertheless, the importance of factual, accurate, and helpful information about brands on the Internet is very important for enhancing perceived quality of a brand, which is highly supported in all countries.

Brand loyalty was enhanced by **eWOM activity**, which is evident in both impact models. The impact of eWOM activity on brand loyalty was equivalent in all markets. Among the selected MC tools, **eWOM activity** was found to be the only relevant tool for building **brand relationship**. Without the inclusion of brand relationship into the model the impact of eWOM activity could be underestimated. Moreover, its impact on brand loyalty is lower on all samples, which signals that eWOM activity is especially important for brand relationship building.

The results from the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE models imply that selected MC tools build CBBE differently than it was evident in the past. Even though television advertising spending was still found to be an important MC tool, it had an impact mainly on brand awareness with brand image. Its impact on perceived quality was not found on any sample, even though academics in the past proposed there is a high and significant impact of television advertising spending especially on perceived quality (Johnson, 1984; Kirmani, 1990; Yoo et al., 2000; Villarejo-Ramos & Sances Franco, 2005). Nevertheless, the latest studies already emphasised that television advertising spending is not as successful as in the past in enhancing perceived quality or brand loyalty (Chattopadhyay et al., 2010; Buil et al., 2013). Our findings suggest that perceived quality is nowadays build differently than in the past, where the importance of eWOM quality is emphasised. Furthermore, television advertising spending could have some impact on brand loyalty, which is evident only from the merged sample, so this finding has to be researched further in the future. However, its impact on brand awareness with brand image is still high and therefore television advertising should not be neglected. The impact of television advertising spending on brand awareness with brand image is still evident on all markets, where its impact is especially high on the markets with more basic Internet users.

As a new MC tool, eWOM, seems to enhance CBBE elements differently than television advertising spending. Different eWOM tools have different impact on CBBE elements, as it was already presented in the study by Rezvani et al. (2012). Our findings imply that eWOM quality enhances brand awareness with brand image and perceived quality. On the other side eWOM activity enhances brand loyalty and brand relationship. The impact of eWOM activity on brand awareness with brand image is contrary to predictions found negative and even significant on the British and merged samples. Furthermore, its negative and not significant impact on perceived quality is evident on the British sample. The negative impact of eWOM activity on brand awareness with brand image signals to marketers that eWOM activity is a powerful tool but has to be used with caution. Therefore, marketers are put in front of a challenge when to encourage more eWOM activities. It seems that the goal of eWOM activity should be in evolving brand loyalty and brand relationships, while for enhancing brand awareness with brand image other MC tools should be used. Our findings imply that marketers should nowadays focus on different eWOM aspects, ensuring that consumers can find information on the Internet that is of good quality and furthermore try to encourage consumers into different eWOM activities in order to evolve their brand equities.

We further on focused also on other hypotheses connected with the perceptions of MC tools that were tested with the bivariate statistical methods. Based on previous studies we proposed that consumer involvement influences perceptions of different MC tools. Our findings imply that **consumers' involvement in the product or other entity category** significantly **influences only eWOM quality and eWOM activity**, but not perceived television advertising spending (see Table 82). It seems that involvement in the product or service category is nowadays important only when considering new MC tool, eWOM, which is not in line with the previous studies. More involved consumers perceive eWOM quality and eWOM activity differently and therefore marketers should target more involved consumers especially with eWOM. Contrary, our findings signal that for more involved consumers into the product of entity category television advertising spending is not more efficient than for less involved consumers. Findings therefore imply that the influence of television advertising spending is the same for both involved and not involved consumers and therefore the importance of television advertising spending for involved consumers is lower nowadays than in the past.

Table 82. Summary of Hypotheses and Results for the Influence of Consumer Involvement on Perceptions of MCs

H6: Consumers' involvement in the product or entity category significantly influences their perceptions of television advertising spending and eWOM.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H6a: CINV - TAS	NS	NS	NS
H6b: CINV - eWOM	S	S	S

Note. GB = Great Britain, SLO = Slovenia, BIH = Bosnia and Herzegovina, S = supported, NS = not supported, PS = partially supported.

We furthermore explored, whether attitudes toward advertising in general influence consumers' perceptions of different MCs. Advertising value was found to have a significant and positive influence on perceptions of television advertising spending and also on eWOM perceptions. The predicted negative influence was not supported for advertising irritation and therefore Hypotheses 7.2.a and H.7.2.b were not supported. Hypothesis 7 was therefore only partially supported (see Table 83). It seems that even though consumers are irritated with advertising messages, this irritation does not negatively influence perceptions of selected MC tools, which is a good sign for marketers.

Table 83. Summary of Hypotheses and Results for the Influence of Attitudes toward Advertising in General on Diverse MC Tools

Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H7: Attitudes toward advertising in general significantly influence consumers' perceptions of diverse Mc tools.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H7.1a: ADVAL – TAS (+)	S	S	S
H7.1b: ADVAL – eWOM (+)	S	S	S
H7.2a: ADIRR – TAS (-)	NS	NS	NS
H7.2b: ADIRR – eWOM (-)	NS	NS	NS

Note. GB = Great Britain, SLO = Slovenia, BIH = Bosnia and Herzegovina, S = supported, NS = not supported, PS = partially supported.

From the literature review, it was evident that there could be **different perceptions among younger and older respondents regarding new MC tools**. Results from hypotheses testing are quite surprising, since the hypotheses was entirely supported only on the British sample, partially supported on the Slovenian sample, and not supported on the Bosnian sample. Therefore we could only partially support the last hypotheses H8 (see Table 84). The highest differences in perceptions of new MC tools would be expected on the Bosnian sample with more basic Internet users, but the results are opposite, since differences are entirely supported only on the British sample with highly advanced Internet users. This findings call for further examination in the future in order to be able to give guidelines for marketers what audience to target in the future on which markets with their eWOM tools. The overview of all of the tested hypotheses and a summary of the results is presented in Appendix R.

Table 84. Summary of Hypotheses and Results for the Influence of Age on eWOM Perceptions

Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H8: Respondent age group significantly influences their perceptions of eWOM.	**S**	**PS**	**NS**
H8a: Electronic WOM perceptions differ among younger group of respondents (from 18 to 40) compared to older group of respondents (from 41 to 65).	S	PS	NS

Note. GB = Great Britain, SLO = Slovenia, BIH = Bosnia and Herzegovina, S = supported, NS = not supported, PS = partially supported.

Finally, in the **fourth part** we examined which of the two proposed models was better, namely traditional or new CBBE model, and impact of selected MC tools on the traditional or on the new CBBE model. Previous findings reveal that all models yielded acceptable model fits. The models were at first compared with the so-called **validity-generalization** procedure as proposed by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000, p. 130). Based on the results we could not decide which of the models was better so we proceeded to the calculation of the **cross-validation index** (CVI). The comparison of the traditional and new CBBE models proposed that the traditional CBBE model was better. We therefore made a conclusion that the traditional model could be better. Before making the final decision, we wanted to explore results from testing the proposed impact models. The cross-validation index for the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE models showed that we cannot decide which between the two models is superior. Therefore, further examination is needed in the future. Nevertheless, the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model gave us additional insight into how brands are built with the new MC tools. Therefore we believe that the new impact model could be regarded as superior due to its explanatory power of how new MC tools, especially eWOM activity, build CBBE.

To conclude, our proposed impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model implies that brands are nowadays built differently. Brand relationships are built only through new MC tool, eWOM activity, proposing that brand relationships could be included in the measurement of CBBE. We therefore believe that traditional CBBE measurement should be reconsidered and refined with the additional CBBE element, brand relationship.

7 CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Contributions

7.1.1 Theoretical contributions

Theoretical contributions of the doctoral dissertation can be divided into five parts: contributions to branding theory, contributions to brand identity theory, contributions to brand equity theory, contributions to MCs theory, and contributions to connections among selected MC tools and CBBE theory.

Firstly, **contributions to branding theory** refer to the **new brand definition** which emerged from a new understanding of the branding concepts. The new brand definition proposes that brands as entities occur based on relationships consumers have with products or other entities. Even though in the new branding theory brand relationships are proposed to evolve with emergence of interactive MC tools, the proposed brand definition is to our knowledge new.

Secondly, **contributions to brand identity theory** are evident by proposing **the new brand identity model**, where brand consumer interaction in form of relationships is proposed as the basis for the brand identity. Encouraging stakeholders to become co-creators of brand identities and brand story, as the main brand identity elements is to our knowledge a novel brand identity development approach presented in the academic literature which later should be incorporated into branding practice.

The third and main contributions of the doctoral dissertation are **contributions to brand equity theory**. Since our previous contributions explain that brand relationships emerge when products or other entities are considered as brands and therefore brand identities should be built along with consumer co-creation, a brand equity construct was proposed to include also the brand relationship element. In order to confirm this theory, we tested two structural models. The first, referred to as the traditional CBBE model, included the traditional CBBE elements (brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality and brand loyalty). The newly proposed CBBE model consisted of all traditional CBBE elements and, in addition, the brand relationship construct. Using structural equation modelling we confirmed that both, the traditional and the new CBBE models, are adequate, and all elements (brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand relationships) were supported to enhance CBBE.

The further contribution to the brand equity theory was achieved with the **comparison of the traditional and new CBBE models**. Examination with the double cross-validation procedure showed that the traditional CBBE model could be better in explaining CBBE measurement. However, we wanted to know also how selected MC tools impact CBBE elements. Therefore, we tested the proposed models even further with the impact of selected new and traditional MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE model and examined the relevance of including brand relationship into the CBBE measurement even further.

Additional contributions to the brand equity theory were made in this doctoral dissertation. Firstly, we can support the **brand relationship conceptualization**. Several researchers proposed that the brand relationship construct has several sub dimensions. Based on our research results from three countries, we can conclude that brand relationship is a one-dimensional construct, since the exploratory factor analysis in all researched countries showed two dimensions of brand relationship can be treated as one, namely brand relationship.

The second additional contribution to brand equity theory is in **comparison of the two constructs, brand loyalty and brand relationship**. We found different understanding of the constructs in the literature. Several authors proposed brand loyalty can be treated as a sub dimension of brand relationship. Evidence of our study based on results from three countries showed that **brand loyalty and brand relationship are different constructs**, and therefore should be treated as two different CBBE elements. Nevertheless, as proposed in the literature, there are high correlations among the two constructs.

The **contributions to the MCs theory** are in exploring attitudes toward advertising in general in the new MCs environment. Even though many academics proposed attitudes towards advertising in general consist of several building blocks, mainly exposed as information content, entertainment, irritation, credibility, and value, we provide evidence that this has changed. There are **fewer building blocks of attitudes toward advertising in general** evident nowadays; mainly its value and irritation. On a Bosnian sample three building blocks of attitudes toward advertising in general were found, namely value, irritation, and credibility, which is more than on British and Slovenian samples. From the results, we can postulate that information content, and entertainment of advertising are not as important and distinct as it was evident in the past.

Another contribution to the MCs theory is the finding that nowadays **consumer involvement in the product or entity category does not influence perceptions of television advertising spending**. However, we find that evidence perceptions of eWOM differ with higher consumer involvement and therefore marketers should target consumers who are more involved with their eWOM campaigns.

At last, **contributions refer also to connections among the MCs and the CBBE theory**. Impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE models was examined. Academics proposed, mostly theoretically, that the new MC tools should be due to their interactivity able to enhance brand relationships via consumer engagement and co-creation of brand experiences.

Our results imply that the impact of traditional and new MC tools on the CBBE elements differs. Television advertising spending was found to have a positive impact on brand awareness with brand image. Nevertheless, its impact on other CBBE elements was not supported, with one exception of its impact on brand loyalty on the merged sample. Contrary, we provide evidence that eWOM is a powerful tool for brand building, since it has diverse impacts on different CBBE elements. eWOM was measured with two constructs, eWOM quality and eWOM activity. eWOM quality enhanced brand awareness with brand image and perceived quality of a brand. Nevertheless, its impact on brand loyalty and brand relationship was not supported. On the other hand, eWOM activity enhanced brand loyalty and brand relationships, while its impact on brand awareness with brand image was rather negative. Results imply there is a high distinction in how traditional and new MCs build brands and provide evidence which tool is the most successful for enhancing diverse CBBE elements.

The further contribution to the MC and brand equity theory is also in **comparison of two impact models**, namely the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE models. Both impact models were compared with the cross-validation procedure. The results imply there is no evidence which model is better. Nevertheless, the new impact model gave us a better insight into how brands are build with the selected new MC tools. Therefore we believe that the inclusion of brand relationship into CBBE should be highly considered.

7.1.2 Methodological contributions

Methodological contributions of this doctoral dissertation are several. Firstly, we can contribute the preparation of a measurement instrument both for the new CBBE model and for the impact of selected MC tools on traditional and new CBBE.

Since no previous research includes the newly proposed dimension of brand relationship in the CBBE measurement, the major methodological contribution is **the measurement instrument of new CBBE model and impact models**. Special attention was put to the previously used measurement scales for the constructs of brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand relationship, which could be equally applied for all brand types. Secondly **measurement instruments for measuring perceptions of MC tools** are the next contribution of this dissertation. We adapted eWOM measurement scales, eWOM quality to the branding context and eWOM activity to the eWOM on the internet in general, and not only in SNSs. Composite reliability and average variance extracted provided evidence that measurement scales are reliable in measuring the proposed constructs.

The key contribution is the **empirical evidence for verification of the proposed new CBBE model** which includes among traditionally employed constructs (brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty) also brand relationship construct. The new CBBE model was found to be acceptable on all samples. Moreover, brand relationship was acknowledged as an important CBBE element. Even though the comparison of the traditional and new CBBE models with the cross-validation procedure proposed that traditional model could be better, we believe that further examination of the models is needed in the future, since the new model exposed the high importance of included brand relationship.

The next methodological contribution lies in the **inclusion of the selected new and traditional MC tools as antecedents of the proposed CBBE elements**. With this model we wanted to find out how selected MC tools build CBBE. Both models, the impact of selected MC tools on the traditional and new CBBE, were found to be acceptable. Nevertheless, selected MC tools were found to build CBBE differently. eWOM activity was found to significantly enhance brand relationship. However, the comparison of the models with the cross-validation procedure did not confirm which model is better. Therefore we concluded that both models are good. Nevertheless, the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model gave us deeper insight into brand building in the new MCs environment with the new MC tool, eWOM activity. Therefore, we believe, that brand relationship should be included into CBBE measurement to be able to understand the impact of new, interactive and digital, MC tools on brands.

7.1.3 Implications for brand owners

Both theoretical and empirical contributions of the doctoral dissertation can help brand owners in four main fields.

Firstly, theoretical contributions can help brand owners to **decide how to develop and manage their brand identities.** Brand identity development is of vast importance for brand owners, since brand identity helps them position their brands and enables them their stakeholders to connect to brands. The proposed brand identity model suggests brand owners should write their brand identities together with their external stakeholders from the initial stage, and should include stakeholders into the process later on, when brand identities evolve with consumer co-creation. Our model is of a vast importance for brand owners since results from in-depth interviews conducted with brand managers and marketing directors imply that the majority do not consider brand relationships when developing their brand identities. With our framework, brand owners could follow recent findings from the academic literature.

Secondly, theory and research results can help brand owners to **decide how to measure their brand equities**. Findings from our research propose that brand owners should include diverse constructs when measuring equities of their brands. Our research suggests that brand relationship is an important CBBE element. We therefore propose all proposed constructs should be included, when measuring brand equity: brand awareness with brand image, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and brand relationship. By conducting longitudinal brand equity research, brand owners can find out how their brands are evolving over time and which brand equity elements are becoming more important.

Thirdly, contributions of the dissertation can help brand owners to **measure perceptions of included MC tools**. Measurement scales used in the study can be adapted by practitioners and used to measure perceptions of MC tools for different brand types in different countries.

At last, results from our research can help brand owners **decide which MC tools are the most efficient for achieving their communication and marketing goals**. Television advertising is found to be the most efficient when the communication goal is to enhance brand awareness with brand image. To some extent, brand managers can use television advertising for enhancing brand loyalty, but these findings have to be explored further. The most successful MC tool for building brands is according to our research eWOM. eWOM quality enhances brand awareness with brand image and also perceived quality. This result is of a high importance for brand owners since they can manage WOM quality on the Internet with several tools, like managing brand-related information on brand websites, social networking sites etc. Furthermore, our results provide evidence that brand loyalty and brand relationships are build through eWOM activity. Therefore, brand managers should try to encourage their consumers to pass along and give opinions about their brands in diverse online settings. Nevertheless, there is caution needed with eWOM activity, since it was found to have negative impact especially on brand awareness with brand image. Brand managers should therefore use eWOM activity to enhance brand loyalty and brand relationships and not try to enhance brand awareness with brand image via eWOM activities. Other tools, like eWOM quality and television advertising spending should be used to raise brand awareness with brand image instead. Our research results could help brand managers to reconsider which MC tools are most important for achieving diverse MC goals and therefore how to divide their communication budgets. Our advice is to put even more attention to eWOM tools and therefore to re-evaluate their eWOM activities.

7.2 Limitations and further research opportunities

Even though we listed several contributions of our research we should also point out the limitations of our research; and based on this we provide suggestions for future research opportunities. At first, we will divide the limitations into two parts. The first part deals with the **limitations of the qualitative research** and the second with the **limitations of the quantitative research**.

Regarding the limitations of the qualitative research, we would first like to point out the **limitations of the in-depth interviews** with brand managers and marketing directors. Some authors (Freeling, 1994; de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998) criticise the inclusion of practitioners from organisations in qualitative studies. A lack of long-term vision is considered their main disadvantage and the inclusion of brand consultants is proposed instead. Furthermore, there were 12 brand experts included in the research, which according to Gordon and Langmaid (1998) is not a large enough sample size (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998, 2000). At least 20 experts are considered enough for making valuable conclusions. We furthermore believe in-depth interviews should be made in different markets, not only in Slovenia, and therefore we encourage other researchers to conduct in-depth interviews with practitioners in other countries and compare results with our research.

Furthermore, we would like to expose the **limitations regarding focus groups**. There were only two focus groups conducted, one with younger and the other with older respondents. In order to gain deeper insight more focus groups should be included.

Furthermore, some constructs under investigation, like brand relationships, brand image, and the perceptions of MC tools would demand a deeper understanding and therefore we propose that in further research only one of the topics should be included in the research with several focus groups.

There are also several **limitations of our quantitative research**. The **first limitation** is connected **with countries included**. Research was conducted in three European countries, which differed in accessibility and use of the internet in households. However, the study should be transferred also to the non-European context, in order to improve its generalisability. Therefore, we propose similar studies should be conducted in other developed and non-developed countries.

There are also **limitations with included measurement scales**. Measures of both perceived MC efforts and brand equity elements can be further defined and developed. Even though measures are highly reliable in all three countries some improvements are still needed. Brand image measures should be improved since we could not assure brand image as a standalone construct with used measurement scales.

Moreover, we **could apply also other new MC tools** in order to determine their impact on the CBBE elements and consequently better understand the creation of CBBE nowadays. Therefore, we believe future research should combine other new and traditional MC tools in order to ascertain their impact on brands.

Another limitation of the survey is in **measuring the reported consumer evaluation of the selected MC tools and brands**, as it is based on consumer perceptions, not on their actual behaviour. Hence, the perceptions of the selected MC tools could be a reflection of the perceived brand equity, rather than the perceptions of the real MCs. Therefore, we propose that a similar study should be conducted based on the real consumer behaviour data or manipulated through experiments and compared with our findings.

At last, we would also like to expose as the **limitation the timing when the qualitative and quantitative studies were conducted**. Since the studies were conducted in 2012, we believe that a lot has changed from that time and therefore a longitudinal study would be needed in order to explore whether consumer perceptions have already changed due to further advances in the MCs tools and higher usage of the Internet. Since new MCs emerged only lately, there are many unknown gaps of how these new MC tools build brands. Therefore, we would like to encourage both academics and practitioners for further research of the topics presented in the dissertation. We believe that the biggest changes in this regards are yet to come and that consumers will in the future engage with brands even to a higher extent than it is seen nowadays. Brand managers who will be able to understand and incorporate the changes in their marketing activities nowadays will become true winners of the interactive future.

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APPENDICES

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Brand Relationship Definitions

Table 1. Constructs Used To Define Brand Relationship

Author(s), (Year)	**Fournier (1998)**	**Aaker et al., (2004)**	**Chang & Chieng (2006)**	**Smith et al. (2007)**	**Breivik & Thorbjørnsen (2008)**	**Breivik & Thorbjørnsen (2008)**	**Tsai (2011)**	**Papista & Dimitriadis (2012)**	**Total**
Theory	**BRQ**	**BRS**	**BRQ**	**BRQ**	**BRQ**	**BRI**	**BRQ**	**BRQ**	
Love/Passion	x/x		x/-	x/x	-/x		x/-	x/-	**5/3**
Self-connection	x	x	x	x	x				**5**
Commitment	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	**8**
Interdependence	x				x				**2**
Intimacy	x	x		x	x			x	**5**
Partner quality	x	x	x	x	x				**5**
Functional			x						**1**
Attachment			x	x					**3**
Satisfaction		x				x	x	x	**4**
Switching costs							x		**1**
Trust				x			x	x	**3**
Loyalty							x		**1**
Relationship investment						x			**1**
Quality of alternatives						x			**1**
Nostalgic connection				x					**1**
Privilege							x		**1**
Uniqueness							x		**1**

Note. BRQ = Brand relationship quality, BRI = Brand relationship investment, BRS = Brand relationship strength.

Source: Based on above-cited sources.

Appendix B: Attitudes toward Advertising in General and Their Attributes

Table 1. Literature Review of Articles Concerning Attitudes toward Advertising and Their Attributes

Author(s), (Year)	**Informativeness**	**Entertainment**	**Irritation**	**Credibility**	**Hedonic/ Pleasure**
Wells, Leavitt & McConville (1971)			x		
Schilinger (1979)		x			
Aaker & Bruzzone (1981)		x	x		
Moldovan (1985)				x	
Muehling (1987)					
MacKenzie & Lutz (1989)				x	
Aaker & Stayman (1990)	x		x		
Pollay & Mittal (1993)	x				x
Andrews, Durvasula & Netemeyer (1994)					
Ducoffe (1995)	x	x	x		
Ducoffe (1996)	x	x	x		
Donthu & Gilliland (1996)	x				
Schlosser, Shavitt & Kanfer (1999)	x	x			
Brackett & Carr (2001)	x	x	x	x	
Kroaonkar, Sliverblat & O`Leary (2001)	x				x
Wang, Zhang, Choi & D`Eredita (2002)	x	x	x	x	
Barrio-Garcia & Luque-Martinez (2003)	x				
Tsang, Ho & Liang (2004)	x	x	x	x	
Petrovici & Marinov (2005)	x				x
Ashill & Yavas (2005)					
Zhang & Wang (2005)	x	x	x	x	
D`Souza & Taghian (2005)					
Tan & Chia (2007)	x				x
Petrovici, Marinova, Marinov & Lee (2007)	x				x
Petrovici & Paliwoda (2007)	x				x
Wang, Sun, Lei & Toncar (2009)	x	x		x	
Nagar (2009)	x	x	x		
Millan & Mittal (2010)	x				x
Ling, Piew, Chai (2010)	x			x	x
Total	**20**	**11**	**10**	**8**	**8**

(table continues)

(continued)

Author(s), (Year)	**Social role**	**Good for economy**	**Beleivable**	**Falsity/ No sense**	**Value corruption**	**Good/ Bad**
Wells, Leavitt & McConville (1971)						
Schilinger (1979)						
Aaker & Bruzzone (1981)						
Moldovan (1985)						
Muehling (1987)						x
MacKenzie & Lutz (1989)			x			
Aaker & Stayman (1990)			x			
Pollay & Mittal (1993)	x	x		x	x	
Andrews, Durvasula & Netemeyer (1994)						x
Ducoffe (1995)						
Ducoffe (1996)						
Donthu & Gilliland (1996)						
Schlosser, Shavitt & Kanfer (1999)						
Brackett & Carr (2001)						
Kroaonkar, Sliverblat & O`Leary (2001)	x	x		x	x	
Wang, Zhang, Choi & D`Eredita (2002)						
Barrio-Garcia & Luque-Martinez (2003)			x			
Tsang, Ho & Liang (2004)						
Petrovici & Marinov (2005)	x					
Ashill & Yavas (2005)			x			
Zhang & Wang (2005)						
D`Souza & Taghian (2005)			x			x
Tan & Chia (2007)	x	x		x		
Petrovici, Marinova, Marinov & Lee (2007)	x	x		x		
Petrovici & Paliwoda (2007)	x					x
Wang, Sun, Lei & Toncar (2009)		x			x	
Nagar (2009)						
Millan & Mittal (2010)	x	x		x	x	
Ling, Piew, Chai (2010)		x				
Total	**7**	**7**	**5**	**5**	**4**	**4**

(table continues)

(continued)

Author(s), (Year)	**Positive/ Negative**	**Materialism**	**Attention**	**Relevant**	**Favourable**	**Value**
Wells, Leavitt & McConville (1971)				x		
Schilinger (1979)				x		
Aaker & Bruzzone (1981)				x		
Moldovan (1985)						
Muehling (1987)	x				x	
MacKenzie & Lutz (1989)						
Aaker & Stayman (1990)						
Pollay & Mittal (1993)		x				
Andrews, Durvasula & Netemeyer (1994)	x				x	
Ducoffe (1995)						x
Ducoffe (1996)						x
Donthu & Gilliland (1996)			x			
Schlosser, Shavitt & Kanfer (1999)						
Brackett & Carr (2001)						x
Kroaonkar, Sliverblat & O`Leary (2001)						
Wang, Zhang, Choi & D`Eredita (2002)						
Barrio-Garcia & Luque-Martinez (2003)			x			
Tsang, Ho & Liang (2004)						
Petrovici & Marinov (2005)						
Ashill & Yavas (2005)						
Zhang & Wang (2005)						
D`Souza & Taghian (2005)					x	
Tan & Chia (2007)		x				
Petrovici, Marinova, Marinov & Lee (2007)						
Petrovici & Paliwoda (2007)	x					
Wang, Sun, Lei & Toncar (2009)						
Nagar (2009)			x			
Millan & Mittal (2010)		x				
Ling, Piew, Chai (2010)						
Total	**3**	**3**	**3**	**3**	**3**	**3**

(table continues)

(continued)

Author(s), (Year)	**Relevant demographics**	**Interactivity**	**Warmth**	**Familiarity**	**Confusing**
Wells, Leavitt & McConville (1971)					
Schilinger (1979)				x	x
Aaker & Bruzzone (1981)			x		
Moldovan (1985)					
Muehling (1987)					
MacKenzie & Lutz (1989)					
Aaker & Stayman (1990)			x	x	x
Pollay & Mittal (1993)					
Andrews, Durvasula & Netemeyer (1994)					
Ducoffe (1995)					
Ducoffe (1996)					
Donthu & Gilliland (1996)					
Schlosser, Shavitt & Kanfer (1999)					
Brackett & Carr (2001)	x				
Kroaonkar, Sliverblat & O`Leary (2001)					
Wang, Zhang, Choi & D`Eredita (2002)	x	x			
Barrio-Garcia & Luque-Martinez (2003)					
Tsang, Ho & Liang (2004)	x				
Petrovici & Marinov (2005)					
Ashill & Yavas (2005)					
Zhang & Wang (2005)		x			
D`Souza & Taghian (2005)					
Tan & Chia (2007)					
Petrovici, Marinova, Marinov & Lee (2007)					
Petrovici & Paliwoda (2007)					
Wang, Sun, Lei & Toncar (2009)					
Nagar (2009)					
Millan & Mittal (2010)					
Ling, Piew, Chai (2010)					
Total	**3**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**

(table continues)

(continued)

Author(s), (Year)	**Pleasant**	**Deceptiveness**	**Emphatetic**	**Other:**
Wells, Leavitt & McConville (1971)				Humorous, Sensual, Vigurous, Unique
Schilinger (1979)			x	Alineating, Brand reinforcing
Aaker & Bruzzone (1981)				
Moldovan (1985)			x	Clear, Tasteless
Muehling (1987)				
MacKenzie & Lutz (1989)				
Aaker & Stayman (1990)				Dullness, Liveliness, Amusement
Pollay & Mittal (1993)				
Andrews, Durvasula & Netemeyer (1994)				
Ducoffe (1995)				
Ducoffe (1996)				
Donthu & Gilliland (1996)		x		
Schlosser, Shavitt & Kanfer (1999)				Indignity, Usefulness, Trust
Brackett & Carr (2001)				
Kroaonkar, Sliverblat & O`Leary (2001)				
Wang, Zhang, Choi & D`Eredita (2002)				
Barrio-Garcia & Luque-Martinez (2003)				Involvement, Cognition, Intensity, Promotes undesirable values
Tsang, Ho & Liang (2004)				
Petrovici & Marinov (2005)				
Ashill & Yavas (2005)				Control, Economic
Zhang & Wang (2005)				
D`Souza & Taghian (2005)	x			Convincing
Tan & Chia (2007)				
Petrovici, Marinova, Marinov & Lee (2007)				
Petrovici & Paliwoda (2007)	x			Social integration, Value incongruence
Wang, Sun, Lei & Toncar (2009)				
Nagar (2009)		x		Emotions, Participating action
Millan & Mittal (2010)				
Ling, Piew, Chai (2010)				

Total	**2**	**2**	**2**	**1**

Appendix C: Attitude toward Advertisement and Most Common Attributes

Table 1. Litterature Review of Articles on Attitudes toward Advertisement with Its Most Common Attributes

Author(s), (Year)	**Good**	**Likeable**	**Interesting**	**Pleasant**	**Favourable**
Miller & Marks (1992)	x	x	x		
McQuarrie & Mick (1992)		x		x	
Chattopadhyay & Nedungadi (1992)	x	x	x	x	
Donthu (1992)		x			
Peterson, Wilson & Brown (1992)			x		
Laczinak & Muehling (1993)	x	x	x	x	
Machleit, Allen & Madden (1993)	x	x	x	x	
MacInnis & Stayman (1993)	x	x			
Singh & Cole (1993)	x	x	x	x	
Smith (1993)	x			x	x
Yi (1993)	x	x	x		
Henthorne, LaTour & Nataraajan (1993)	x		x		
Kellaris, Cox & Cox (1993)	x	x	x	x	
Goodstein (1993)	x	x			x
Darley & Smith (1993)	x		x		
Burns, Biswas & Babin (1993)	x		x		
LaTour & Henthorne (1994)	x				
Tripp, Jensen & Carlson (1994)	x	x	x		
Neese & Taylor (1994)		x			
Lord, Lee & Sauer (1994)					
Lord, Lee & Sauer (1995)	x			x	x
Schuhwerk & Lekoff-Hagius (1995)	x		x	x	x
Kamp & MacInnis (1995)		x			
Darley & Smith (1995)	x		x	x	
Derbaix (1995)					
Burnkrant & Unnava (1995)	x				x
Homer(1995)	x	x		x	x
Stafford & Day (1995)	x	x	x		
Pham (1996)	x	x			x
LaTour, Snipes & Bliss (1996)	x				
Stafford (1996)	x	x			x
Simpson, Horton & Brown (1996)	x	x			x
Ha (1996)		x	x	x	
Zhang (1996)		x	x	x	
Zhang & Gelb (1996)		x	x	x	
Rosenberg, Pieters & Wedel (1997)	x				
LaTour & Rotfeld (1997)	x		x		
Taylor, Miracle & Wilson (1997)	x	x			
Shiv, Edell & Payne (1997)	x	x			
Kirmani (1997)	x		x	x	
Babin & Burns (1997)	x		x	x	x
Baumgartner, Sujan & Padgett (1997)	x			x	x
Day & Stafford (1997)	x	x			x
Gong & Maddox (2003)			x	x	
Buil, de Chernatony & Martínez (2013)					
Total	**33**	**25**	**22**	**18**	**12**

(table continues)

(continued)

Author(s), (Year)	**Informative**	**Irritating**	**Beleivable**	**Appealing**	**Attractive**
Miller & Marks (1992)		x			
McQuarrie & Mick (1992)					
Chattopadhyay & Nedungadi (1992)					
Donthu (1992)	x		x	x	x
Peterson, Wilson & Brown (1992)	x			x	
Laczinak & Muehling (1993)				x	x
Machleit, Allen & Madden (1993)					
MacInnis & Stayman (1993)				x	
Singh & Cole (1993)	x		x		
Smith (1993)					
Yi (1993)		x			
Henthorne, LaTour & Nataraajan (1993)	x				
Kellaris, Cox & Cox (1993)					
Goodstein (1993)					
Darley & Smith (1993)		x			
Burns, Biswas & Babin (1993)					
LaTour & Henthorne (1994)	x	x			
Tripp, Jensen & Carlson (1994)		x			
Neese & Taylor (1994)	x		x		
Lord, Lee & Sauer (1994)			x		
Lord, Lee & Sauer (1995)					
Schuhwerk & Lekoff-Hagius (1995)			x		
Kamp & MacInnis (1995)					
Darley & Smith (1995)		x			
Derbaix (1995)	x				
Burnkrant & Unnava (1995)					
Homer(1995b)					
Stafford & Day (1995)		x			
Pham (1996)					
LaTour, Snipes & Bliss (1996)	x				
Stafford (1996)					
Simpson, Horton & Brown (1996)					
Ha (1996)					
Zhang (1996)		x			
Zhang & Gelb (1996)		x			
Rosenberg, Pieters & Wedel (1997)					x
LaTour & Rotfeld (1997)	x				
Taylor, Miracle & Wilson (1997)					
Shiv, Edell & Payne (1997)				x	
Kirmani (1997)		x			
Babin & Burns (1997)					
Baumgartner, Sujan & Padgett (1997)					
Day & Stafford (1997)					
Gong & Maddox (2003)	x				
Buil, de Chernatony & Martínez (2013)					
Total	**10**	**10**	**5**	**5**	**3**

Source: Adapted from above cited sources.

Appendix D: Steering Guide Used for the In-depth Interviews with Brand Experts

Introduction

At first, I would like to thank you for taking the time for meeting with me. As I already explained on the phone, we are going to talk about brands and marketing communications. We will also look into your brands' communications. Your answers will help us add insight to the modern theory of branding and to the conclusions how marketing communications, especially new media, influence brand equity.

As we already discussed, the interview will take approximately one hour and a half, possibly less, depending on where our conversation takes us. The interview will be recorded, since I would not like to lose any of your comments. I will also take some additional notes. I hope you do not have any problem with me recording our conversation.

We assure you total anonymity: your answers will only be known to the research team. Your name will not be noted. Even if I include some of your opinions verbatim in the final report, I will mention only brand experts and not your name or your brand. When you have doubts about answering any question, we can skip the question. Is that okay for you? Do you have any other questions before we start the interview? Then I propose we begin.

A. Brand identity

1. What does the concept of brand identity represent in your opinion?
2. Do you use any other name for it?
3. What are the building blocks of brand identity in your opinion?

Brand identity and own brand

1. How would you define identity of your brand?
2. How do you communicate your brand identity, do you follow any rules?
3. How would you define your target group?
4. Do you have one or more target groups?
5. Do you adapt communications for different target groups?

B. Brand equity

1. What does the concept of customer-based brand equity represent in your opinion?
2. Do you use any other name for it?
3. How can we see that the brand has a high equity in the consumers' eyes, in your opinion?
4. Which are the building blocks of customer-based brand equity, in your opinion?
5. Is brand awareness enough to talk about brand equity?
6. The most mentioned building blocks of customer-based brand equity are brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. Do you believe the construct should also include some other building blocks?
7. Could brand relationship also be included as a building block of customer-based brand equity?
8. How would you describe the concept of brand relationship?
9. Would you use concepts like intimacy, commitment, love, self-connection, partner quality to describe relationships between brand and consumers?

Brand equity and own brand

1. How do you think your consumers see your brand?
2. Do you measure brand perceptions from the consumer side?
3. Do you measure brand perceptions systematically?
4. Do you have many loyal customers?
5. Could you say that your customers have a special relationship with your brand?

C. Marketing communications

1. Which are on your own opinion main tools of the marketing communications mix?
2. Did on your own opinion marketing communication mix changed due to emergence of new technologies and how?
3. Do you use different marketing communication tools in differently developed countries or you have similar marketing communication campaigns on all markets?
4. How do you measure effectiveness and efficiency of marketing communications?
5. In your own opinion, are only financial measures important to measure effectiveness and efficiency of marketing communications?
6. How do you besides of financial measures evaluate effectiveness and efficiency of communication campaigns?
7. What are on your own opinion future trends in marketing communications?
8. Do you think that online and mobile advertising will overtake television advertising?
9. Did these changes already occur in more developed markets?
10. When will this happen in Slovenia?

Marketing communications and own brand

1. Which are marketing communications tools are the most important for communicating your brand?
2. How do you organize your budget between marketing communication tools?
3. How much of your budget do you give for advertising and how much for other marketing communication tools?
4. How much of your budget is given for traditional advertising?
5. How much of your budget is given to new media?
6. To which marketing communication tools do you consumers respond most favourably?

Online advertising

1. Do you often advertise online?
2. Which forms of online advertising do you use?
3. Where are you present with online advertising?
4. Under which marketing communication tool would you position brand website? Would you position brand website under advertising?
5. What are your target groups online?
6. Which characteristics are on your own opinion the most important for preparing a good online advertisement?
7. Which online advertisement was the most successful during the last year, and which the least successful? What do you think was the reason for its success/failure?

Electronic word-of-mouth

1. What do you understand under the concept electronic word-of-mouth?
2. Which electronic word-of-mouth tools do you use?
3. Where are you present with electronic word-of-mouth?
4. How do you measure effectiveness and efficiency of electronic word-of-mouth campaigns?
5. What electronic word-of-mouth campaign was in the last year most successful?

Mobile advertising

1. Are you present on mobile phones with your brand webpage?
2. Do you use mobile advertising and how often?
3. Which forms of mobile advertising do you use?
4. Do you gain consumer permission prior sending any mobile advertising messages?
5. How do your consumers respond to mobile advertising?
6. Which characteristics are on your own opinion the most important for preparing a good mobile advertisement?
7. Which mobile advertisement was the most successful last year, and which the least successful? What do you think was the reason for its success/failure?

D. Marketing communications and brand equity

1. How do on your own opinion marketing communications impact customer-based brand equity?
2. Do marketing communications have an impact on brand awareness?
3. Do marketing communications have an impact on brand image?
4. Do marketing communications have an impact on perceived quality?
5. Do marketing communications have an impact on brand loyalty?
6. Do marketing communications have an impact on brand relationship?
7. Which marketing communication tools have the highest impact on customer-based brand equity?
8. Which marketing communication tools have the highest impact on brand awareness?
9. Which marketing communication tools have the highest impact on brand image?
10. Which marketing communication tools have the highest impact on perceived quality?
11. Which marketing communication tools have the highest impact on brand loyalty?
12. Which marketing communication tools have the highest impact on brand relationship?
13. What also has an effect on customer-based brand equity besides marketing communications?
14. What is the impact of price on customer-based brand equity?
15. Is price more important than marketing communications?
16. What is the impact of distribution on customer-based brand equity?

Conclusion

The interview is now concluded. Would you maybe add some other thing that we might have forgotten? Thank you for your time.

Appendix E: Steering Guide Used for Focus Groups

Introduction

At first, I would like to thank all of you for taking your time for meeting with the group and me. As I already presented you via phone, we are going to talk about brands and marketing communications. We will mainly focus on online and mobile advertising and your activities on the Internet. We will also talk about your perceptions of some brands and their advertising activities. As we already discussed the focus group will take approximately two hours, possibly less or more, which depends where we will be taken along our conversation. Everything will be tape recorded, since I would not like to lose any of your comments. My colleague will also take some additional notes. I hope you do not have any problem due to recording our conversation.

Let me also give you some additional directions. I will lead the conversation with questions. Sine we want to hear opinions from all of you please do not hesitate to talk openly. Each opinion is important; therefore, we would like to encourage you to share your opinion also when it is not consistent with the group opinion. We would really like to see two parts and not just united opinions, since each opinion matters in order to be able to get to know the topic deeply.

We assure you total anonymity. Your answers will be known only to research team. Your name will not be noted. Even if I mention some of the phrases in the final report, I will not include your name or any of your characteristics. Will it be ok from your side? Do you have any other questions before we start with the interview? Then I propose we begin.

A. Brands

1. Do you have a favourite brand?
2. Why do you like some brands more than the others?
3. Are you loyal to brands that you like?
4. Do you have a special relationship with some brands?
5. What is this relationship like?
6. Could you talk about some special connection with brands, like for example partnership?

B. Marketing communications

1. What do you understand under marketing communications?
2. Which marketing communication tools do you know?

Advertising

1. What is your opinion about advertising in general?
2. With which types of advertising are you familiar?
3. Could you say you like some types of advertising more than the others? Which and why?
4. Could you say some types of advertising irritate you more than the others? Which and why?

Television advertising

1. Do you remember any brands that are intensively advertised on television?
2. Could you maybe describe television advertisements for Volkswagen?

Print advertising

1. Do you remember any brands that are intensively advertised in newspapers and magazines?
2. Could you maybe describe print advertisements for Pepsi?
3. What about print advertisements of Coca Cola?
4. What do you think about print advertisements of Coca Cola?

Internet use

1. Do you use Internet?
2. How often? Many times per day?
3. What do you usually do on the Internet?
4. Which tools do you usually use on the Internet?
5. Do you use social networking sites? Which ones?
6. Which is your primary social networking site?
7. Do you on your opinion quickly accept new technologies?

Activities on the Internet

1. At first I would like to know if you know what is word-of-mouth?
2. What do you imagine under the concept electronic word-of-mouth?
3. Do you often search for opinions on the Internet for brands?
4. What did you receive lately information connected with brands from your friends?
5. If we take for example BMW, which information about it do you see or search for on the Internet?
6. Did any friend already send you some information about BMW?
7. Did you already forward some information about BMW to your friends?

Online advertising

1. What do you understand under online advertising?
2. Would you say web pages could be considered as online advertising? Where would you position them instead?
3. Which online advertisements do you remember? List all the brands you can think of.
4. If we now focus on brand McDonalds, could you say McDonalds is intensively advertised on the Internet?
5. Do you see McDonalds' online advertisements often?
6. Could you evaluate McDonalds' advertisements with adjectives, like fun, creative, informative, interactive etc.?

Mobile phone use

1. Do you have a mobile phone?
2. Do you have a Smart phone?
3. For those of you who do not have Smart phones, do you often use internet on mobile phones?
4. For those of you who have Smart phones, could you tell me for what purposes do you use them?

5. Do you use some branded applications?

Mobile advertising

1. What do you understand under mobile advertising?
2. Do you know Bluetooth advertising?
3. Do you know QR codes?
4. Did you allow any brand to send you advertising messages on your mobile phone? To what brands did you allow this?
5. Did you lately notice some mobile advertisement that you can still memorize? List all that you can remember.
6. Did you ever respond to MMS or SMS advertisement or forwarded it to your friends?
7. If we now focus on Coca Cola, could you say it is intensively advertised on the mobile phones?

Impact of marketing communications on brands

1. Could you say communications have a big impact on how you perceive brands?
2. Would you say advertising has the highest impact on how you perceive brands?
3. What means of communication affects your brand perception?
4. Could you say advertising effects on the image you have about a brand?
5. Does advertising influence the way you perceive the quality of a brand?
6. Does advertising influence on your brand loyalty?
7. Does advertising influence the relationship you have with a brand?
8. What impacts have recommendations about brand perceptions?
9. What about online recommendations from people you do not know?
10. Does electronic word-of-mouth affect the image you have of a brand?
11. Is this effect higher compared to advertising?
12. Does electronic word-of-mouth influence the way you perceive the quality of a brand?
13. Does electronic word-of-mouth influence your brand loyalty?
14. Does electronic word-of-mouth affect the relationship you have with a brand?

Appendix F: Questionnaire for Non-durable Product Brand in the English Language

QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT THE IMPACT OF NEW AND OLD MARKETING COMMUNICATION TOOLS ON CUSTOMER-BASED BRAND EQUITY

To start, we would like to thank you for taking 15 minutes to participate in this research organized by the Faculty of Economics from the University of Ljubljana in Slovenia. We would like to evaluate which marketing communication tools are important for building brand equity. Questions ask about your **PERSONAL OPINION;** therefore, there are no right or wrong answers. In the last part, some general questions about your usage of the Internet and mobile devices as well as your personal data will be asked.

We assure you **total anonymity** for your answers. No individual responses will be released. All answers will be aggregated and only used for research purposes. Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Before we start with the research, we would like to ask you a question about your usage of mobile phones.

Do you have a mobile phone?

- Yes
- No >> Thank you for your interest in participating in this research. Nevertheless, the ownership of a mobile phone is necessary in order to participate in the research. Sadly, your mobile phone response does not fulfil this demand. Thank you again.

We would like to ask you about your **involvement in the carbonated drink category**. Please rate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements on a 7-point scale, where 1 means that you "totally disagree with the statement" and 7 that you "totally agree with the statement".

	1- totally disagree				7 – totally agree		
I am very involved with the carbonated drink category.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I use the carbonated drink category very often.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am a carbonated drink category expert.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am not interested in the carbonated drink category.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate which statement refers to your **usage of Coca Cola** from the carbonated drink category.

- I bought Coca Cola in the last 4 weeks.
- I bought Coca Cola in the past, but not in the last 4 weeks.
- I have no past history of using Coca Cola. >> Questions about prior experience and brand relationship will be skipped

What is your **prior experience with Coca Cola**?

- Extremely negative
- Negative
- Neither negative, neither positive
- Positive
- Extremely positive
- No experiences

This part of the questionnaire refers to your **opinion of Coca Cola**. Please rate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements on a 7-point scale, where 1 means that you "totally disagree with the statement" and 7 that you "totally agree with the statement".

	1- totally disagree				7 – totally agree		
When I think of carbonated drink category, Coca Cola is the brand that first comes to mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am aware of Coca Cola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can recognize Coca Cola among other competing brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I know Coca Cola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I know what Coca Cola looks like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Some characteristics of Coca Cola come to my mind quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of Coca Cola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have difficulty in imagining Coca Cola in my mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Coca Cola has a strong personality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have a clear impression of the type of people who use Coca Cola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This section refers to your **opinion about the quality of Coca Cola**. Please rate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements on a 7-point scale, where 1 means that you "totally disagree with the statement" and 7 that you "totally agree with the statement".

	1- totally disagree				7 – totally agree		
Coca Cola must be of very good quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likely quality of Coca Cola is extremely high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The likelihood that Coca Cola is reliable is very high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Coca Cola is of high quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This section refers to your **loyalty to Coca Cola**. Please rate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements on a 7-point scale, where 1 means that you "totally disagree with the statement" and 7 that you "totally agree with the statement".

	1- totally disagree				7 – totally agree		
I consider myself to be loyal to Coca Cola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Coca Cola would be my first choice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will not buy other brands if Coca Cola is available.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If another brand is not different from Coca Cola in any way, it seems smarter to purchase Coca Cola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to purchase Coca Cola in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I intend to recommend Coca Cola to my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This part of the questionnaire refers to your **relationship with Coca Cola**. Please rate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements on a 7-point scale, where 1 means that you "totally disagree with the statement" and 7 that you "totally agree with the statement".

	1- totally disagree						7 – totally agree
Coca Cola says a lot about the kind of person I would like to be.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Coca Cola helps me make a statement about what is important to me in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Using Coca Cola lets me be a part of a shared community of like-minded consumers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel like Coca Cola actually cares about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Coca Cola really listens to what I have to say.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel as though Coca Cola really understands me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We would like to ask you about your opinion about **advertising in general**. Rate your agreement or disagreement with the statements on a 7-point scale, where 1 means that you "totally disagree with the statement" and 7 that you "totally agree with the statement".

	1- totally disagree						7 – totally agree
Advertising is a good source of product/service information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising supplies relevant product/service information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising provides timely information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is entertaining.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is pleasing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is credible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is trustworthy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is believable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising insults people's intelligence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is annoying.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is irritating.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is useful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is valuable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Advertising is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Now think about **TELEVISION advertising of Coca Cola** and evaluate the statements below. Rate your agreement or disagreement with the statements on a 7-point scale, where 1 means that you "totally disagree with the statement" and 7 that you "totally agree with the statement".

	1- totally disagree						7 – totally agree	Don't know
Coca Cola is intensively advertised on television.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
The ad campaigns on television for Coca Cola seem very expensive compared to campaigns for competing brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
The ad campaigns on television for Coca Cola are seen frequently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

We would like to gather your opinion also about information for Coca Cola on the Internet. Think about the presence of Coca Cola on **diverse Internet tools that allow sharing of information about Coca Cola** (**like emails, forums, blogs, social networking sites, virtual worlds, online communities, etc.).**

Please rate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements on a 7-point scale, where 1 means that you "totally disagree with the statement" and 7 that you "totally agree with the statement".

	1- totally disagree						7 – totally agree
The information about Coca Cola on the Internet is helpful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The information about Coca Cola on the Internet is usually not the information I need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The information about Coca Cola on the Internet is factual.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The information about Coca Cola on the Internet is accurate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We would also like to know what your **actions are regarding information about Coca Cola on the Internet**. Please rate your agreement or disagreement with the following statements on a 7-point scale, where 1 means that you "totally disagree with the statement" and 7 that you "totally agree with the statement".

	1- totally disagree						7 – totally agree
When I consider buying Coca Cola, I ask for advice on the Internet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to get opinions on the Internet before I buy Coca Cola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel more comfortable choosing Coca Cola when I have gotten an opinion of it on the Internet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I receive information or opinions about Coca Cola from a friend, I pass it along to my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to pass along interesting information about Coca Cola from one group of my contacts to another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I pass along my contacts' positive reviews of Coca Cola to other contacts on the Internet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I often persuade my contacts on the Internet to buy Coca Cola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My contacts on the Internet pick Coca Cola based on what I have told them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
On the Internet, I often influence my contacts' opinions about Coca Cola.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The survey is almost finished. We would just like to know some additional information about your mobile and Internet usage and about your personal data.

How often do you use the Internet?

- Always.
- Very often.
- Often.
- Sometimes.
- Rarely.
- Very rarely.
- Never.

Rate in percentage the amount of time spent on below-stated appliances when using the Internet (if you do not use one or more of the below-listed appliances for Internet usage, fill the line with 0).

- Computer or laptop __ %
- Tablet computer __%
- Mobile phone __%

Total: 100 %

For what purposes do you usually use the Internet? (Select all that apply)

- For reading and sending emails
- For searching information about goods and services
- For searching information about brands
- For shopping online
- For online banking
- For reading online newspapers and magazines
- For reading information forums, blogs and other chat sites
- For searching games, films, images, videos or music
- For uploading self-created content
- For talking with friends and acquaintances
- Other: _______________

Which tools on the Internet do you usually use? (Select all that apply)

- Email
- Forums
- Blogs
- Social networking sites (like Facebook, etc.)
- Collaborative sites (like Wikipedia, etc.)
- Creativity works sharing sites (like Youtube, etc.)

- Websites
- Search engines (like Google, etc.)
- Other: ___________________

Choose your primary social networking site (Choose only **ONE** from the list below)

- MySpace
- Facebook
- Twitter
- Hi5
- Badoo
- Google+
- LinkedIn
- Other: _____________________________
- I am not a member of any social networking site

Do you have a smart phone?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

Have you ever applied to receive advertisements (SMS, MMS, Bluetooth or mobile applications) on your mobile phone?

- Yes
- No
- Do not know

What is your prior experience with receiving mobile advertising tools?

	Extremely negative.	Negative.	Neutral.	Positive.	Extremely positive.	No experiences.
SMS						
MMS						
Bluetooth						
Mobile applications						
QR codes						
Mobile Internet advertising						

How often do you use the Internet on your mobile phone?

- Always.
- Very often.
- Often.
- Sometimes.
- Rarely.
- Very rarely.
- Never.

Gender:

- Male
- Female

Year of birth: 19_ _

Employment status:

- Student/Scholar
- Employed
- Self-employed
- Housewife
- Unemployed
- Retired

Finished education:

- Primary school
- Secondary school
- University degree
- Master degree
- Doctor degree

Number of members in household: ________

How would you estimate your household's monthly income as compared to the British average?

- Above average > Go to the ending statement
- Below average > Go to the ending statement
- Average > Go to the next question

If you indicated that your monthly income is above average, is it…

- Slightly above average?
- Exactly average?
- Slightly below average?

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Appendix G: Questionnaire for Durable Product Brand in the Slovenian Language

VPRAŠALNIK O VPLIVU NOVIH IN STARIH TRŽENJSKO-KOMUNIKACIJSKIH ORODIJ NA PREMOŽENJE BLAGOVNIH ZNAMK V OČEH PORABNIKOV

Najprej bi se vam radi zahvalili, da si boste vzeli 15 minut časa za sodelovanje v raziskavi, ki jo izvajamo pod okriljem Ekonomske fakultete, Univerze v Ljubljani. Z raziskavo želimo oceniti katera trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja pomembno prispevajo h gradnji premoženja blagovnih znamk. Zanima nas vaše **OSEBNO MNENJE**; torej ni pravilnih ali napačnih odgovorov. V zadnjem delu vprašalnika vam bomo zastavili še nekaj splošnih vprašanj o vaši uporabi interneta in mobilnih telefonov, prosili vas bomo tudi za nekaj vaših osebnih podatkov.

Zagotavljamo vam **popolno anonimnost**. Posamezni odgovori ne bodo razkriti. Vsa vprašanja bodo agregirana in uporabljena samo za potrebe raziskave. Za sodelovanje v raziskavi se vam najlepše zahvaljujemo!

Preden začnete odgovarjati na vprašanja nas zanima kakšna je vaša uporaba mobilnih telefonov.

Ali imate mobilni telefon?
- Da.
- Ne. >> Hvala za vašo pripravljenost za sodelovanje, vendar je lastništvo mobilnega telefona pogoj za sodelovanje v raziskavi. Žal vaša uporaba mobilnih telefonov ne ustreza temu kriteriju. Hvala še enkrat.

Zanima nas vaša **vpletenost v kategorijo osebnih avtomobilov**. Prosimo, ocenite vaše strinjanje oz. nestrinjanje s spodnjimi trditvami na 7-stopenjski lestvici, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se s trditvijo »sploh ne strinjate« in ocena 7, da se s trditvijo »popolnoma strinjate«.

	1- sploh se ne strinjam						7- popolnoma se strinjam
Veliko vem o osebnih avtomobilih.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Avtomobile uporabljam zelo pogosto.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sem strokovnjak/-inja za avtomobile.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nisem zainteresiran/-a za avtomobile.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Prosimo označite katera trditev se sklada z vašo **uporabo znamke Volkswagen** iz kategorije avtomobilov.

- Trenutno sem lastnik/-ca Volkswagna.
- V preteklosti sem bil lastnik/-ca Volkswagna.
- Nikoli nisem bil/-a lastnik/-ca Volkswagna. >> Vprašanja o odnosu z blagovno znamko bodo izpuščena.

Kakšne so vaše **pretekle izkušnje z znamko Volkswagen**?

- Zelo negativne.
- Negativne.
- Niti negativne niti pozitivne.
- Pozitivne.
- Zelo pozitivne.
- Nimam izkušenj.

Ta del vprašalnika se nanaša na vaše **mnenje o znamki Volkswagen**. Prosimo, ocenite vaše strinjanje oz. nestrinjanje s spodnjimi trditvami na 7-stopenjski lestvici, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se s trditvijo »sploh ne strinjate« in ocena 7, da se s trditvijo »popolnoma strinjate«.

	1- sploh se ne strinjam						7- popolnoma se strinjam
Ko pomislim na avtomobile je Volkswagen prva znamka, ki mi pride na misel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Slišal/-a sem že za znamko Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volkswagen bi prepoznal/-a med drugimi konkurenčnimi znamkami.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Poznam Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Vem kako izgleda Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hitro se lahko spomnim nekaterih lastnosti Volkswagna.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hitro lahko prikličem simbol ali logotip znamke Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Težko si predstavljam znamko Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volkswagen ima močno osebnost.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Imam jasno predstavo o značilnostih ljudi, ki uporabljajo Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ta del vprašalnika se nanaša na vaše **mnenje o kakovosti znamke Volkswagen**. Prosimo, ocenite vaše strinjanje oz. nestrinjanje s spodnjimi trditvami na 7-stopenjski lestvici, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se s trditvijo »sploh ne strinjate« in ocena 7, da se s trditvijo »popolnoma strinjate«.

	1- sploh se ne strinjam						7- popolnoma se strinjam
Pričakujem, da je Volkswagen dobre kakovosti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Zelo verjetno je, da je Volkswagen zelo kakovosten.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Zelo verjetno je, da je Volkswagen zelo zanesljiv.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volkswagen je znamka visoke kakovosti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ta del vprašalnika se nanaša na vašo **zvestobo znamki Volkswagen**. Prosimo, ocenite vaše strinjanje oz. nestrinjanje s spodnjimi trditvami na 7-stopenjski lestvici, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se s trditvijo »sploh ne strinjate« in ocena 7, da se s trditvijo »popolnoma strinjate«.

	1- sploh se ne strinjam						7- popolnoma se strinjam
Zvest/-a sem znamki Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volkswagen bi bil moja prva izbira.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Če je na voljo Volkswagen, ne bi kupil/-a druge znamke.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Če druga znamka ni v ničemer drugačna od Volkswagna, se zdi pametneje kupiti Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
V bližnji prihodnosti nameravam kupiti Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mojim prijateljem nameravam priporočiti Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ta del vprašalnika se nanaša na vaš **odnos do znamke Volkswagen**. Prosimo, ocenite vaše strinjanje oz. nestrinjanje s spodnjimi trditvami na 7-stopenjski lestvici, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se s trditvijo »sploh ne strinjate« in ocena 7, da se s trditvijo »popolnoma strinjate«.

	1- sploh se ne strinjam			7- popolnoma se strinjam			
Volkswagen pove veliko o tem kakšna oseba si želim biti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volkswagen mi pomaga izraziti, kaj mi je pomembno v življenju.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Uporaba Volkswagna mi omogoča, da sem del skupnosti enako mislečih ljudi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Čutim, da Volkswagen resnično skrbi zame.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Volkswagen res posluša moje mnenje.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Čutim, da me Volkswagen res razume.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Zanima nas vaše **mnenje o oglaševanju na splošno**. Ocenite vaše strinjanje oz. nestrinjanje s spodnjimi trditvami na 7-stopenjski lestvici, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se s trditvijo »sploh ne strinjate« in ocena 7, da se s trditvijo »popolnoma strinjate«.

	1- sploh se ne strinjam			7- popolnoma se strinjam			
Oglaševanje je dober vir informacij o izdelkih oz. storitvah.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje ponuja relevantne informacije o izdelkih oz. storitvah.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je vir najnovejših informacij.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je zabavno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje mi je v užitek.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je prijetno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je verodostojno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je vredno zaupanja.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanju lahko verjamem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje žali človeško inteligenco.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je zoprno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je nadležno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je koristno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je dragoceno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglaševanje je pomembno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Sedaj pomislite na **TELEVIZIJSKO oglaševanje znamke Volkswagen** in ovrednotite spodnje trditve. Ocenite vaše strinjanje oz. nestrinjanje s spodnjimi trditvami na 7-stopenjski lestvici, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se s trditvijo »sploh ne strinjate« in ocena 7, da se s trditvijo »popolnoma strinjate«.

	1- sploh se ne strinjam			7- popolnoma se strinjam				Ne vem
Volkswagen se intenzivno oglašuje na televiziji.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

(table continues)

Televizijski oglasi za Volkswagen se zdijo zelo dragi v primerjavi z oglasi konkurenčnih znamk.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
Televizijske oglase za Volkswagen opazim zelo pogosto.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

(continued)

Sedaj bi želeli pridobiti še vaše **mnenje o informacijah o Volkswagnu**, **ki jih najdete na internetu**. Pomislite na prisotnost Volkswagna na različnih internetnih orodjih, ki omogočajo izmenjavo informacij o Volkswagnu (kot so elektronska pošta, forumi, spletni dnevniki, družbena omrežja, virtualni svetovi, spletne skupnosti itd). Prosimo, ocenite vaše strinjanje oz. nestrinjanje s spodnjimi trditvami na 7-stopenjski lestvici, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se s trditvijo »sploh ne strinjate« in ocena 7, da se s trditvijo »popolnoma strinjate«.

	1- sploh se ne strinjam 7- popolnoma se strinjam						
Informacije, ki jih dobim na spletu o Volkswagnu, so mi v pomoč.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Informacije, ki jih dobim na spletu o Volkswagnu največkrat niso informacije, ki jih potrebujem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Informacije, ki jih dobim na spletu o Volkswagnu temeljijo na znanih dejstvih.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Informacije, ki jih dobim na spletu o Volkswagnu so točne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Sedaj bi želeli izvedeti tudi, kakšna so **vaše aktivnosti, na podlagi prejetih informacij o Volkswagnu na spletu**. Prosimo, ocenite vaše strinjanje oz. nestrinjanje s spodnjimi trditvami na 7-stopenjski lestvici, kjer ocena 1 pomeni, da se s trditvijo »sploh ne strinjate« in ocena 7, da se s trditvijo »popolnoma strinjate«.

	1- sploh se ne strinjam 7- popolnoma se strinjam						
Kadar razmišljam o nakupu Volkswagna, vprašam za nasvet na spletu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pred nakupom Volkswagna želim pridobiti različna mnenja, ki jih najdem na spletu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bolje se počutim ob izbiri Volkswagna, če sem pred tem pridobil/-a mnenja o znamki na spletu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kadar dobim informacije ali mnenja o Volkswagnu od prijatelja, jih posredujem naprej svojim prijateljem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Rad/-a posredujem zanimive informacije o Volkswagnu med različne skupine mojih kontaktov.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pozitivna mnenja o Volkswagnu s strani mojih kontaktov posredujem ostalim kontaktom na spletu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pogosto prepričam moje kontakte na spletu, da si kupijo Volkswagen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Moji kontakti na spletu izberejo Volkswagen na podlagi mojega priporočila.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Velikokrat vplivam na mnenja mojih kontaktov o Volkswagnu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Raziskava je skoraj zaključena. Želeli bi pridobiti le še nekaj dodatnih informacij o vaši uporabi interneta in mobilnega telefona ter o vaši osebnih podatkih.

Kako pogosto uporabljate internet?

- Vedno.
- Zelo pogosto.
- Pogosto.
- Občasno.
- Redko.
- Zelo redko.
- Nikoli.

Ocenite v procentih kolikšen delež časa porabite za uporabo interneta na navedenih napravah (če katere od naprav ne uporabljate za dostop do interneta, izpolnite prazen prostor z 0).

- Računalnik ali prenosni računalnik __ %
- Tablični računalnik __ %
- Mobilni telefon __ %

Skupaj: 100%

Za katere namene ponavadi uporabljate internet? (Obkrožite lahko več odgovorov)

- Za branje in pošiljanje elektronske pošte
- Za iskanje informacij o izdelkih in storitvah
- Za iskanje informacij o znamkah
- Za spletno nakupovanje
- Za spletno bančništvo
- Za branje spletnih časopisov in revij
- Za branje informacij na forumih, spletnih dnevnikih (blogih) in drugih spletnih klepetalnicah
- Za iskanje iger, filmov, slik, videov ali glasbe
- Za nalaganje vsebin, ki jih ustvarim sam
- Za pogovore s prijatelji in znanci
- Drugo: ________________________

Katera orodja na internetu največkrat uporabljate? (Obkrožite lahko več odgovorov)

- Elektronska pošta
- Forumi
- Spletni dnevniki (blogi)
- Strani za skupno ustvarjanje vsebin (kot je Wikipedia, itd..)
- Strani za deljenje ustvarjalnih vsebin (kot je Youtube, itd.)
- Spletne strani
- Spletni iskalniki (kot je Google, itd.)
- Družbena omrežja (kot so Facebook, Google+ itd.) >> Če izbere ta odgovor gre na naslednje vprašanje, če ne se to vprašanje izpusti

- Drugo: ___________________

Izberite svojo primarno spletno družbeno omrežje (Obkrožite **ENO** izmed naštetih družabnih omrežij)
- MySpace
- Facebook
- Twitter
- Hi5
- Badoo
- Google+
- LinkedIn
- Drugo: ____________________________
- Nisem član nobenega spletnega družbenega omrežja.

Ali imate pametni telefon?
- Da
- Ne
- Ne vem

Ali ste se kdaj prijavili za prejemanje oglasnih sporočil (SMS, MMS, Bluetooth ali mobilne aplikacije) na vaš mobilni telefon?
- Da
- Ne
- Ne vem

Kakšne so vaše pretekle izkušnje s spodnjimi mobilnimi oglaševalskimi orodji?

	Zelo negativne	Negativne	Niti negativne niti pozitivne	Pozitivne	Zelo pozitivne	Nimam izkušenj
SMS						
MMS						
Bluetooth						
Mobilne aplikacije						
QR kode						
Mobilno spletno oglaševanje						

Kako pogosto uporabljate internet na vašem mobilnem telefonu?
- Vedno.
- Zelo pogosto.
- Pogosto.
- Občasno.
- Redko.
- Zelo redko.
- Nikoli.

Spol:

- Moški
- Ženski

Letnica rojstva: 19_ _

Zaposlitveni status status:
- Dijak/inja /Študent/-ka
- Zaposlen/-a
- Samozaposlen/-a
- Gospodinja
- Brezposeln/-a
- Upokojenec/-ka

Končana izobrazba:
- Osnovna šola
- Srednja šola
- Višja šola/Fakulteta
- Magisterij
- Doktorat

Trenuten kraj bivanja:
- Mesto
- Manjši kraj
- Vas

Število članov v gospodinjstvu: ________

Kako bi ocenili mesečni prihodek vašega gospodinjstva glede na Slovensko povprečje?
- Nadpovprečen > Konec raziskave
- Podpovprečen > Konec raziksave
- Povprečen > Če odgovorijo na to vprašanje skoči na naslednje vprašanje

Če ste odgovorili, da je mesečni prihodek vašega gospodinjstva povprečen, ali je…
- nekoliko nad povprečjem?
- ravno povprečen?
- Nekoliko pod povprečjem?

Najlepša vam hvala za sodelovanje!

Appendix H: Questionnaire for Service Brand in the Bosnian Language

ISTRAŽIVANJE O UTICAJA NOVIH I STARIH MARKETING KOMUNIKACIONIH ALATA NA KUPČEVU PROCJENU VRIJEDNOSTI MARKE

Za početak, želimo Vam se zahvaliti što ćete izdvojiti 15 minuta za učešće u istraživanju koje provodi Ekonomski fakultet Univerziteta u Ljubljani, Slovenija. Ovim istraživanjem želimo ocijeniti koji alati marketinške komunikacije su važni za izgradnju vrijednosti marke. Pitanja u upitniku se odnose na Vaše LIČNO MIŠLJENJE, te zbog toga ne postoji tačan ili pogrešan odgovor. U zadnjem dijelu upitnika će biti postavljena generalna pitanja o upotrebi Interneta i mobilnih telefona, kao i pitanja o Vašim ličnim podacima.

Vaši odgovori su **u potpunosti** anonimni. Ni jedan individualni odgovor neće biti nigdje objavljen. Svi odgovori će se posmatrati zbirno i biće korišteni samo za potrebe istraživanja. Veliko hvala za Vašu saradnju!

Prije nego što počnemo sa istraživanjem, želimo Vam postaviti pitanje o korištenju mobilnih telefona.

Da li imate mobilni telefon?
- Da
- Ne >> Hvala Vam za Vaš interes za učešće u ovom istraživanju. Ipak, neophodno je posjedovati mobilni telefon kako bi se učestvovalo u studiji. Na žalost, Vaš odgovor na ovo pitanje ne zadovoljava taj kriterij. Hvala još jednom.

Želimo Vam postaviti pitanja o Vašoj **upoznatosti sa kategorijom kreditnih kartica.** Molimo Vas da svoje slaganje ili ne slaganje sa izjavama ispod izrazite na skali od 1 do 7, gdje 1 znači da se „apsolutno ne slažete sa izjavom“, a 7 da se „apsolutno slažete sa izjavom“.

	1- apsolutno se ne slažem						7 – apsolutno se slažem
Veoma mnogo znam o kreditnim karticama.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Koristim kreditne kartice veoma često.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ja sam ekspert za kreditne kartice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nisam zainteresovan/a za kreditne kartice .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Molimo da navedete koja se izjava odnosi na intenzitet Vašeg korištenja VISA kartice, iz kategorije kreditnih kartica.

- Trenutno koristim VISA karticu.
- Koristio/la sam VISA karticu.
- Nikad nisam koristio/la VISA karticu. >> Pitanja o prethodnem iskustvu i odnosu prema brendu će biti preskočena.

Kakvo je Vaše prethodno iskustvo sa VISA karticom?
- Apsolutno negativno.
- Negativno.
- Ni negativno ni pozitivno.
- Pozitivno.
- Apsolutno pozitivno.
- Nemam iskustva sa VISA karticom.

Ovaj dio upitnika se odnosi na Vaše **mišljenje o VISA-i.** Molimo Vas da svoje slaganje ili ne slaganje sa narednim tvrdnjama rangirate na skali od 1 do 7, gdje 1 znači da se „apsolutno ne slažete sa izjavom“, a 7 da se „apsolutno slažete sa izjavom“.

	1- apsolutno se ne slažem 7 – apsolutno se slažem						
Kada mislim o kreditnim karticama, VISA je prva marka koji mi padne na pamet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Svjestan/na sam VISA-e.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mogu prepoznati VISA-u među ostalim konkurentskim markama	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Poznajem VISA-u.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Znam kako VISA izgleda.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Neke karakteristike VISA-e mi mogu brzo pasti na pamet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mogu se brzo sjetiti VISA-inog simbola ili logotipa.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Teško mi je zamisliti VISA-u svojoj glavi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VISA ima snažnu osobnost.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Imam jasnu impresiju o tipu ljudi koji koriste VISA-u.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ovaj dio upitnika se odnosi na Vaše **mišljenje o kvalitetu VISA-e.** Molimo Vas da svoje slaganje ili ne slaganje sa narednim tvrdnjama rangirate na skali od 1 do 7, gdje 1 znači da se „apsolutno ne slažete sa izjavom“, a 7 da se „apsolutno slažete sa izjavom“.

	1- apsolutno se ne slažem 7 – apsolutno se slažem						
VISA mora biti jako kvalitetna.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Vjerovatnoća da je VISA kvalitetna je izuzetno visoka.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Vjerovatnoća da je VISA pouzdana je veoma visoka.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VISA je visoke kvalitete.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ovaj dio upitnika se odnosi na Vašu **lojalnost VISA-i**. Molimo Vas da svoje slaganje ili ne slaganje sa narednim tvrdnjama rangirate na skali od 1 do 7, gdje 1 znači da se „apsolutno ne slažete sa izjavom“, a 7 da se „apsolutno slažete sa izjavom“.

	1- apsolutno se ne slažem 7 – apsolutno se slažem						
Smatram se lojalnim/om VISA-i.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VISA bi bila moj prvi izbor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ne bih kupio/la drugu marku ukoliko je VISA dostupna.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ukoliko druge marke nisu ni na koji način različite od VISA-e, čini se pametnijim kupiti VISA-u.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Namjeravam kupiti VISA-u u bliskoj budućnosti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Namjeravam preporučiti VISA-u mojim prijateljima.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ovaj dio upitnika se odnosi na Vaš **odnos prema VISA-i**. Molimo Vas da svoje slaganje ili ne slaganje sa narednim tvrdnjama rangirate na skali od 1 do 7, gdje 1 znači da se „apsolutno ne slažete sa izjavom", a 7 da se „apsolutno slažete sa izjavom".

	1- apsolutno se ne slažem 7 – apsolutno se slažem						
VISA govori mnogo o tipu osobe koja bi želio/željela biti.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VISA mi pomaže da pokažem šta mi je važno u životu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Korištenje VISA-e daje mi priliku da budem dio zajednice korisnika koji su istog mišljenja kao i ja.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Osjećam kao da je VISA-i zapravo stalo do mene.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
VISA zaista sluša ono što imam da kažem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Osjećam kao da me VISA zaista razumije.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Želimo Vam postaviti pitanja o Vašom mišljenju o **oglašavanju uopće.** Molimo Vas da svoje slaganje ili ne slaganje sa narednim tvrdnjama rangirate na skali od 1 do 7, gdje 1 znači da se „apsolutno ne slažete sa izjavom", a 7 da se „apsolutno slažete sa izjavom".

	1- apsolutno se ne slažem 7 – apsolutno se slažem						
Oglašavanje je dobar izvor informacija o proizvodu/usluzi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje daje relevantne informacije o proizvodu/usluzi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje pruža pravovremene informacije.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje je zabavno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
U oglašavanju se može uživati.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje je ugodno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje je kredibilno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje je pouzdano.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
U oglašavanje se može vjerovati.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje vrijeđa inteligenciju ljudi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje je naporno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje iritira.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje je korisno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje je dragocjeno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Oglašavanje je važno.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Sada Vas molimo da mislite na **oglašivačke poruke VISA-e na TELEVIZIJI** i ocijenite stavove ispod. Molimo Vas da svoje slaganje ili ne slaganje sa narednim tvrdnjama rangirate na skali od 1 do 7, gdje 1 znači da se „apsolutno ne slažete sa izjavom", a 7 da se „apsolutno slažete sa izjavom".

	1- apsolutno se ne slažem 7 – apsolutno se slažem							Ne znam
VISA se intenzivno oglašava na televiziji.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

(table continues)

Oglašivačke kampanje za VISA-u na televiziji se čine veoma skupe kada se uporede sa kampanjama konkurentskih marki.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
Oglašivačke kampanje za VISA-u se mogu često vidjeti na televiziji.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0

(continued)

Željeli bismo da saznamo i Vaše mišljenje o informacijama koje su o VISA-i dostupne na Internetu. Razmislite o prisutnosti VISA-e na **različitim Internet alatima koji omogućavaju razmjenu informacija (kao što su e-mailovi, forumi, blogovi, društvene mreže, virtuelni svijetovi, online zajednice itd.).**

Molimo Vas da svoje slaganje ili ne slaganje sa narednim tvrdnjama rangirate na skali od 1 do 7, gdje 1 znači da se „apsolutno ne slažete sa izjavom", a 7 da se „apsolutno slažete sa izjavom".

	1- apsolutno se ne slažem 7 – apsolutno se slažem						
Informacije o VISA-i na Internetu su od pomoći.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Informacije o VISA-i na Internetu obično nisu one informacije koje mi trebaju.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Informacije o VISA-i na Internetu odražavaju činjenično stanje.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Informacije o VISA-i na Internetu su tačne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Također, željeli bi znati koje **aktivnosti poduzimate po pitanju informacija o VISA-i koje su dostupne na Internetu.** Molimo Vas da svoje slaganje ili ne slaganje sa narednim tvrdnjama rangirate na skali od 1 do 7, gdje 1 znači da se „apsolutno ne slažete sa izjavom", a 7 da se „apsolutno slažete sa izjavom".

	1- apsolutno se ne slažem 7 – apsolutno se slažem						
Kada razmišljam o kupovini VISA-e, savjet tražim na Internetu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gradim svoje mišljenje na osnovu Internet prije nego što kupim VISA-u.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Osjećam se ugodnije prilikom izbora VISA-e kada sam upoznat sa mišljenjem o njoj na Internetu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kada dobijem informaciju ili mišljenja o VISA-i od prijatelja, prosljeđujem ih mojim prijateljima.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Informacije o VISA-i koje sam dobio/la od jedne grupe kontakata volim proslijediti drugoj grupi kontakata.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prosljeđujem pozitivne kritike VISA-e od strane mojih kontakata drugim kontaktima na Internetu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Često ubijedim moje Internet poznanike da kupe VISA-u.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Moji Internetu kontakti biraju VISA-u zbog onoga što sam im ja rekao/la.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Na Internetu, često imam uticaja na mišljenje mojih poznanika o VISA-i.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Ovo istraživanje je skoro završeno. Sada bismo željeli znati neke dodatne informacije o Vašem korištenju mobitela i Interneta, te Vaše lične podatke.

Koliko često koristite Internet?

- Uvijek.
- Veoma često.
- Često.
- Ponekad.
- Rijetko.
- Veoma rijetko.
- Nikad.

Odredite u procentima koliko vremena provedete na Internetu koristeći uređaje koji su navedeni ispod (ukoliko ne koristite jedan ili više uređaja za korištenje Interneta, popunite liniju sa 0).

- Kompjuter ili laptop __ %
- Tablet računar __%
- Mobilni telefon __%

Ukupno: 100 %

U koju svrhu najčešće koristite Internet? (Odaberite sve što odgovara)

- Za čitanje i slanje e-mailova
- Za pretragu informacija o proizvodima i uslugama
- Za pretragu informacija o markama
- Za online kupovinu
- Za online bankarstvo
- Za čitanje online novina i magazina
- Za čitanje informacija na forumima, blogovima i drugima sličnim stranicama
- Za pretragu igrica, filmova, slika, videa ili muzike
- Za upload vlastito-kreiranog sadržaja
- Za razgovor sa prijateljima i poznanicima
- Drugo: _______________

Koje Internet alate najčešće koristite? (Odaberite sve što odgovara)

- E-mail
- Forumi
- Blogovi
- Društvene mreže (kao što je Facebook, Google+, itd.) >> Ukoliko odaberete ovaj alat, idite na naredno pitanje; ukoliko ne, preskočite naredno pitanje.
- Kolaborativne stranice (kao što je Wikipedia, itd.)
- Stranice za dijeljenje kreativnog sadržaja (kao što je Youtube, itd.)
- Webstranice
- Pretraživače (kao što je Google, etc.)
- Drugo: ___________________

Odaberite Vašu društvenu mrežu koju najviše koristite (Odaberite samo **JEDNU** sa liste ispod)

- MySpace
- Facebook
- Twitter
- Hi5
- Badoo
- Google+
- LinkedIn
- Drugo: ___________________________
- Nisam član/ica niti jedne stranice za društveno umrežavanje

Da li imate „pametni" telefon (smart phone)?

- Da
- Ne
- Ne znam

Da li ste ikad odabrali opciju primanja oglašivačkih poruka (SMS, MMS, Bluetoothe ili mobilna aplikacija) na Vaš mobilni telefon?

- Da
- Ne
- Ne znam

Kakvo je Vaše prethodno iskustvo sa primanjem oglašivačkih poruke putem mobitela?

	Krajnje negativno	Negativno	Neutralno	Pozitivno	Krajnje pozitivno	Bez iskustva
SMS						
MMS						
Bluetooth						
Mobilne aplikacije						
QR kodovi						
Oglašavanje putem mobilnog Interneta						

Koliko često koristite Internet na Vašem mobilnom telefonu?

- Uvijek.
- Veoma često.
- Često.
- Ponekad.
- Rijetko.
- Veoma rijetko.
- Nikad.

Pol:

- Muško
- Žensko

Godina rođenja: 19_ _

Zaposlenje:
- Student/Učenik
- Zaposlen/a
- Samozaposlen/a
- Domaćica
- Nezaposlen/a
- Umirovljen/a

Obrazovanje:
- Osnovna škola
- Srednja škola
- Univerzitetska diploma
- Master diploma
- Doktorska diploma

Trenutno mjesto prebivališta:
- Gradsko
- Prigradsko
- Ruralno

Broj članova domaćinstva: ________

Kako bi ocijenili mjesečne prihode Vašeg domaćinstva u poređenju sa prosjekom u Bosni i Hercegovini?

- Iznad prosjeka > Na konačni nagovor
- Ispod prosjeka > Na konačni nagovor
- Prosječno > Na slijedeče pitanje

Ukoliko ste označili da je Vaš mjesečni prihod <u>prosječan, </u>da li je on…
- Malo iznad prosjeka?
- Tačno prosjek?
- Malo ispod prosjeka?

Veliko hvala za Vašu saradnju!

Appendix I: Quotas Used for Great Britian, Slovenia and Bosnia and Herzegovina

Table 1: Quotas for Slovenia

Gender	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Age	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
18-24	88.245	81.742	6,5	6,0
25-34	159.456	144.199	11,7	10,6
35-44	156.204	145.354	11,5	10,7
44-54	158.320	152.318	11,6	11,2
55-64	137.825	136.886	10,1	10,1
Total	**700.050**	**660.499**	**51,4**	**48,6**

Source: EUROSTAT.

Table 2: Quotas for Great Britain

Gender	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Age	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
18-24	3.061.269	2.895.265	7,9	7,4
25-34	4.181.929	4.053.723	10,7	10,4
35-44	4.336.510	4.408.695	11,2	11,3
44-54	4.257.702	4.378.393	10,9	11,3
55-64	3.603.484	3.749.620	9,3	9,6
Total	**19.440.894**	**19.485.696**	**50,0**	**50,0**

Source: EUROSTAT.

Table 3: Quotas for Bosnia and Herzegovina

Gender	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Age	**Frequency**		**Percentage**	
18-24	182.287	195.999	7,45	8,01
25-34	244.807	262.639	10,01	10,74
35-44	257.989	274.399	10,55	11,22
44-54	284.353	305.759	11,63	12,50
55-64	220.326	217.559	9,01	8,89
Total	**1.189.763**	**1.256.356**	**48,64**	**51,36**

Source: Research agency data.

Appendix J: Internet Use by Country

Table 1. Structure of Respondents according to Mentioned Number of Purposes for Internet Use

At least…	Great Britain		Slovenia		Bosnia and Herzegovina	
	Number	**Percentage**	**Number**	**Percentage**	**Number**	**Percentage**
1 purpose	341	100.0	321	100.0	314	100.0
2 purposes	334	98.0	316	98.4	295	94.0
3 purposes	328	96.2	315	98.1	262	83.4
4 purposes	314	92.1	290	90.3	230	73.3
5 purposes	277	81.2	256	79.8	187	59.6
6 purposes	219	64.2	210	65.4	140	44.6
7 purposes	169	49.6	161	50.2	98	31.2
8 purposes	126	37.0	111	34.6	62	19.8
9 purposes	83	24.3	61	19.0	38	12.1
10 purposes	41	12.0	23	7.2	17	5.4

Table 2. Structure of Respondents according to the Purposes for Internet Use

	Great Britain		Slovenia		Bosnia and Herzegovina	
	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Reading and sending emails	332	97.4	312	97.2	265	84.4
Searching information about goods and services	316	92.7	297	92.5	213	67.8
Shopping online	292	85.6	179	55.8	88	28.0
Online banking	278	81.5	190	59.2	53	16.9
For searching information about brands	226	66.3	181	56.4	116	36.9
Talking with friends and acquaintances	193	56.6	201	62.6	201	64.1
Searching games, films, images, videos or music	172	50.4	187	58.3	164	52.2
Reading online newspapers and magazines	171	50.2	225	70.1	253	80.6
Reading information forums, blogs and other chat sites	167	49.0	212	66.0	182	58.0
Uploading self-created content	80	23.5	72	22.4	71	22.6

(table continues)

(continued)

Other:	5	1.5	9	2.8	20	6.4
	Browsing, gaming/ streaming, playing games, genealogy research, valued opinions		3x education, 3x work, social networking, searching for manuals, news		7x work, 6x education, 2x Facebook, Skype, news, searching for information, finding friends, education	

Table 3. Structure of Respondents according to the Mentioned Number of the Used Internet Tools

	Great Britain		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	
	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
1 tool	341	100.0	321	100.0	314	100.0
2 tools	329	96.5	308	96.0	283	90.1
3 tools	309	90.6	280	87.2	251	79.9
4 tools	243	71.3	216	67.3	211	67.2
5 tools	182	53.4	142	44.2	169	53.8
6 tools	135	39.6	89	27.7	114	36.3
7 tools	79	23.2	35	10.9	65	20.7
8 tools	40	11.7	9	2.8	26	8.3

Table 4. Structure of Respondents according to Internet Tools Used

	Great Britain		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	
	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Email	328	96.2	303	94.4	269	85.7
Search engines (like Google etc.)	292	85.6	284	88.5	221	70.4
Websites	271	79.5	213	66.4	195	62.1
Social networking sites (like Facebook, Google+ etc.)	248	72.7	190	59.2	233	74.2
Creativity works sharing sites (like Youtube etc.)	164	48.1	149	46.4	194	61.8
Collaborative sites (like Wikipedia etc.)	155	45.5	88	27.4	155	49.4
Forums	122	35.8	123	38.3	112	35.7
Blogs	76	22.3	43	13.4	45	14.3
Other:	2	0.6	6	1.9	9	2.9
	Comparison sites, Skype		2x news, online banking, dictionaries, trackers		5x Skype, games, information, everything, transfers	

Table 5. Structure of Respondents according to Primary Social Networking Site

Social networking site	**Great Britain**		**Slovenia**		**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	
	Frequency	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Facebook	219	64.2	55	17.1	184	58.6
Twitter	19	5.6	0	0.0	5	1.6
Google+	9	1.5	12	3.7	35	11.1
Linkedin	4	1.2	1	0.3	2	0.6
MySpace	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Hi5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Badoo	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
Other	0	0.0	2	0.6	1	0.3
Not a member of any	1	0.3	17	5.3	6	1.9
Missing	93	27.3	233	72.6	81	25.8
Total	**341**	**100.0**	**321**	**100.0**	**314**	**100.0**

Appendix K: Previous Experience with Mobile Phones and Mobile Advertising Tools

Table 1. Structure of Respondents according to Mobile Phone Usage

	Great Britain		Slovenia		Bosnia and Herzegovina	
	Percentage	**Cumulative percentage**	**Percentage**	**Cumulative percentage**	**Percentage**	**Cumulative percentage**
Smart phone ownership						
Yes	62.2	62.2	44.5	44.5	30.9	30.9
No	37.2	99.4	52.0	96.6	65.6	96.5
Do not know	0.6	100.0	3.4	100.0	3.5	100.0
Ever applied to receive advertisements on mobile phone						
Yes	16.4	16.4	45.2	45.2	38.9	38.9
No	80.6	97.1	52.0	97.2	56.1	94.9
Do not know	2.9	100.0	2.8	100.0	5.1	100.0
Internet usage on mobile phone						
Always	15.8	15.8	7.8	7.8	4.1	4.1
Very often	14.7	30.5	7.5	15.3	10.2	14.3
Often	10.6	41.1	10.9	26.2	9.2	23.6
Sometimes	16.1	57.2	14.6	40.8	13.7	37.3
Rarely	7.0	64.2	6.9	47.7	10.2	47.5
Very rarely	8.2	72.4	15.0	62.6	11.8	59.2
Never	27.6	100.0	37.4	100.0	40.8	100.0

Table 2. Structure of Respondents according to Previous Experience with Mobile Advertising Tools

	Great Britain		Slovenia		Bosnia and Herzegovina	
	Percentage	**Cumulative percentage**	**Percentage**	**Cumulative percentage**	**Percentage**	**Cumulative percentage**
SMS						
Extremely negative	14.7	14.7	13.1	13.1	7.0	7.0
Negative	11.7	26.4	13.1	26.2	9.6	16.6
Neutral	15.5	41.9	25.9	52.0	21.0	37.6
Positive	13.5	55.4	24.3	76.3	24.2	61.8
Extremely positive	7.9	63.3	14.3	90.7	8.0	69.7
No experiences	36.7	100.0	9.3	100.0	30.3	100.0
MMS						
Extremely negative	9.7	9.7	10.0	10.0	5.1	5.1
Negative	8.2	17.9	8.4	18.4	5.1	10.2
Neutral	17.6	35.5	24.0	42.4	16.2	26.4
Positive	7.9	43.4	17.1	59.5	11.5	37.9
Extremely positive	5.0	48.4	7.8	67.3	3.5	41.4
No experiences	51.6	100.0	32.7	100.0	58.6	100.0

(table continues)

(continued)

Bluetooth						
Extremely negative	7.0	7.0	7.2	7.2	5.1	5.1
Negative	6.5	13.5	4.7	11.8	4.1	9.2
Neutral	16.1	29.6	18.1	29.9	15.3	24.5
Positive	7.3	37.0	8.4	38.3	15.0	39.5
Extremely positive	5.3	42.2	7.2	45.5	6.7	46.2
No experiences	57.8	100.0	54.5	100.0	53.8	100.0
Mobile applications						
Extremely negative	8.8	8.8	7.8	7.8	3.8	3.8
Negative	7.3	16.1	5.6	13.4	5.1	8.9
Neutral	15.5	31.7	19.6	33.0	17.2	26.1
Positive	12.6	44.3	13.4	46.4	11.8	37.9
Extremely positive	7.3	51.6	4.7	51.1	5.1	43.0
No experiences	48.4	100.0	48.9	100.0	57.0	100.0
QR codes						
Extremely negative	6.5	6.5	7.5	7.5	3.8	3.8
Negative	4.7	11.1	4.7	12.1	3.8	7.6
Neutral	15.5	26.7	18.7	30.8	15.6	23.2
Positive	8.5	35.2	5.9	36.8	6.1	29.3
Extremely positive	4.7	39.9	2.8	39.6	3.8	33.1
No experiences	60.1	100.0	60.4	100.0	66.9	100.0
Mobile Internet advertising						
Extremely negative	8.2	8.2	10.9	10.9	3.8	3.8
Negative	9.7	17.9	7.2	18.1	3.8	7.6
Neutral	18.5	36.4	22.1	40.2	18.8	26.4
Positive	10.6	46.9	6.9	47.0	10.8	37.3
Extremely positive	2.9	49.9	2.2	49.2	4.1	41.4
No experiences	50.1	100.0	50.8	100.0	58.6	100.0

Appendix L: Testing of the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data

1 Measurement Model Testing of the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data

Table 1. Unstandardised Solution, Squared Multiple Correlations, Standardised Solution and t-test for the Traditional CBBE Measurement Model on the Whole Data

Sample	**Great Britain**				**Slovenia**				**Bosnia and Herzegovina**				**Merged data**			
Dim.	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**
BA3	1.00	0.82	0.91		1.00	0.61	0.78		1.00	0.71	0.84		1.00	0.70	0.91	
BA4	0.88	0.51	0.72	14.68	0.97	0.51	0.72	12.78	0.87	0.42	0.64	10.05	0.89	0.46	0.72	22.19
BA5					1.06	0.74	0.86	15.30					0.93	0.69		28.40
BI2	0.96	0.65	0.89	16.92	1.03	0.54	0.73	13.17	0.93	0.48	0.69	10.57	1.00	0.57	0.89	25.44
PQ1	1.00	0.91	0.95		1.00	0.76	0.87		1.00	0.72	0.85		1.00	0.78	0.95	
PQ2	0.97	0.92	0.96	40.47	1.17	0.93	0.96	27.31	1.16	0.92	0.96	24.72	1.11	0.93	0.96	50.57
PQ3					1.13	0.91	0.95	26.71					1.03	0.83		43.73
PQ4	0.98	0.91	0.95	39.79					1.14	0.92	0.96	24.65	1.09	0.89	0.95	47.74
BL1	1.00	0.81	0.90		1.00	0.68	0.82		1.00	0.64	0.80		1.00	0.77	0.90	
BL2	0.98	0.86	0.93	25.47	1.17	0.84		20.07	1.12	0.80	0.90	17.08	1.03	0.82	0.93	39.58
BL3					1.11	0.82	0.89	19.82	1.03	0.73	0.86	16.52	0.92	0.71		34.59
BL5	0.91	0.70	0.84	21.26									0.93	0.68	0.84	33.28

Note. US = unstandardized solution, R^2 = squared multiple correlation, SS = standardized solution, BA3-5 = brand awareness item, BI2 = brand image item, PQ1-4 = perceived quality item, BL1-3,5 = brand loyalty item.

2 Common Method Bias

2.1 Harman's One Factor Model

Table 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Harman's One Factor Test for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data

	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NFI	NNFI	GFI	IFI
Great Britain											
CFA model	77.76	877.72	24	3.24	0.081	0.045	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.95	0.99
Harman's one factor model	955.48		27	35.39	0.318	0.170	0.76	0.76	0.68	0.62	0.76
Slovenia											
CFA model	79.73	1137.70	32	2.49	0.068	0.039	0.98	0.97	0.98	0.95	0.98
Harman's one factor model	1217.43		35	34.78	0.325	0.210	0.65	0.64	0.55	0.57	0.65
Bosnia and Herzegovina											
CFA model	45.48	715.97	24	1.82	0.053	0.042	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.97	0.99
Harman's one factor model	761.45		27	28.20	0.295	0.180	0.72	0.72	0.63	0.65	0.72
Merged data											
CFA model	220.55	4677.39	51	4.32	0.058	0.036	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.96	0.99
Harman's one factor model	4897.94		54	90.70	0.303	0.190	0.75	0.75	0.70	0.54	0.75

2.2 Marker Variable Test

Table 3. Marker Variable Test for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data

		Pearson correlation		
		BA & BI	**PQ**	**BL**
Great Britain	**Marker variable***	-0.062	0.060	0.024
Slovenia		0.057	0.111	-0.002
Bosnia and Herzegovina		-0.068	0.007	-0.011
Merged data		-0.012	0.065	0.025

Note. There are no significant correlations, * What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?

3 Power Testing for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data

We calculated the exact and close fits of the proposed model on our four samples (see Appendix M, Table 1). On three samples the Type II error occurs, which means there is a risk not to reject an incorrect model. Since the exact and close model fits are around 0.80 or above the suggested threshold we can conclude that we could detect, whether there would be some serious specification errors. However, the model tested on the Bosnian sample is significant and its power is low and therefore we can reject the model for the Bosnian sample based on power analysis.

Table 4. Power of the Traditional CBBE Model on the Whole Data

	Great Britain	**Slovenia**	**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	**Merged data**
Exact fit	0.746	0.809	0.677	1.0
Close fit	0.759	0.831	0.721	0.999
Power	High	High	Low	High
Chi-square	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant

Appendix M: Testing of the Traditional CBBE Model on Brand Customers' Data

1 Measurement Model Testing of the Traditional CBBE Model on Brand Customers' Data

Table 1: Unstandardised Solution, Squared Multiple Correlations, Standardised Solution and T-test for the Traditional CBBE Measurement Model on Brand Customers' Data

Sample	**Great Britain**				**Slovenia**				**Bosnia and Herzegovina**				**Merged data**			
Dim.	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**
BA3	1.00	0.76	0.87		1.00	0.45	0.67		1.00	0.63	0.79		1.00	0.63	0.80	
BA4	0.91	0.61	0.78	11.53	0.93	0.51	0.71	6.93	0.95	0.53	0.73	7.24	0.90	0.51	0.72	15.59
BA5					1.04	0.73	0.85	7.49					0.87	0.62	0.79	17.07
BI2	0.86	0.56	0.75	11.08	0.95	0.38	0.62	6.15	0.86	0.38	0.62	6.65	0.92	0.48	0.70	15.10
PQ1	1.00	0.92	0.96		1.00	0.68	0.82		1.00	0.66	0.81		1.00	0.72	0.85	
PQ2	0.93	0.91	0.96	31.08	1.26	0.92	0.96	14.76	1.28	0.92	0.96	15.97	1.18	0.93	0.96	31.79
PQ3					1.18	0.87	0.93	14.31					1.04	0.79	0.89	26.99
PQ4	0.94	0.93	0.97	33.10					1.25	0.91	0.96	15.96	1.16	0.91	0.95	31.18
BL1	1.00	0.82	0.91		1.00	0.78	0.89		1.00	0.74	0.86		1.00	0.83	0.91	
BL2	0.97	0.89	0.94	20.76	1.07	0.91	0.95	17.64	1.05	0.85	0.92	16.28	0.99	0.87	0.93	34.00
BL3					1.01	0.86	0.93	16.65	1.01	0.83	0.91	15.95	0.92	0.75	0.86	28.48
BL5	0.83	0.71	0.84	16.47									0.83	0.66	0.81	25.11

Note. US = unstandardized solution, R^2 = squared multiple correlation, SS = standardized solution, BA3-5 = brand awareness item, BI2 = brand image item, PQ1-4 =perceived quality item, BL1-3,5 = brand loyalty item.

2 Common Method Bias

2.1 Harman's One Factor Model

Table 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Harman's One Factor Test for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Brand Consumers' Data

	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	Df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NFI	NNFI	GFI	IFI
Great Britain											
CFA model	56.41	416.45	24	2.35	0.084	0.048	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.94	0.98
Harman's one factor model	472.86		27	17.51	0.294	0.140	0.82	0.81	0.75	0.65	0.82
Slovenia											
CFA model	43.01	446.22	32	1.34	0.050	0.068	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.94	0.99
Harman's one factor model	489.23		35	13.98	0.308	0.190	0.67	0.65	0.57	0.58	0.67
Bosnia and Herzegovina											
CFA model	26.01	338.82	24	1.09	0.023	0.023	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.97	1.00
Harman's one factor model	364.83		27	13.51	0.274	0.140	0.77	0.75	0.69	0.67	0.77
Merged data											
CFA model	150.00	2102.13	51	2.94	0.062	0.040	0.99	0.98	0.98	0.95	0.99
Harman's one factor model	2252.13		54	41.71	0.286	0.160	0.79	0.78	0.74	0.57	0.79

2.2 Marker Variable Test

Table 3. Marker Variable Test for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Brand Consumers' Data

		Pearson correlation		
		BA & BI	**PQ**	**BL**
Great Britain	**Marker variable***	0.107	0.127	0.140
Slovenia		-0.138	-0.015	-0.081
Bosnia and Herzegovina		0.107	0.057	0.046
Merged data		0.036	0.050	0.049

Note. There are no significant correlations, * What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?

3 Power Testing for the Traditional CBBE Model on the Brand Consumers' Data

We calculated the exact and close fits of the proposed traditional CBBE model on our four samples. Due to the smaller sample sizes for country-specific samples the power is low. Nevertheless, the model on the merged sample has a high power. The model tested on the British sample is significant and its power is low, therefore we can reject the model due to the power analysis. Type I errors occur on models tested on the Slovenian and Bosnian samples which means that there is a high probability to reject a correct model. The analysis does not have enough power to detect serious misspecification problems and therefore we could easily reject a correct model. The model on a merged data shows a Type II error, which means there is a danger not to reject an incorrect model. Nevertheless, the power of this model is high and therefore on a model on a merged data we could detect serious misspecifications of the model. The model can be accepted as adequate on a merged data.

Table 4. Power of the Traditional CBBE Model on the Brand Consumers' Data

	Great Britain	**Slovenia**	**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	**Merged data**
Exact fit	0.427	0.351	0.368	0.997
Close fit	0.494	0.437	0.436	0.996
Power	Low	Low	Low	High
Chi-square	Significant	Not significant	Not significant	Significant

Appendix N: Testing of the New CBBE Model on Brand Customers' Data

1 Measurement Model Testing of the New CBBE Model on Brand Consumers' Data

Table 1. Unstandardised Solution, Squared Multiple Correlations, Standardised Solution and T-test for the New CBBE Measurement Model on Brand Consumers' Data

Sample	**Great Britain**				**Slovenia**				**Bosnia and Herzegovina**				**Merged data**			
Dim.	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**
BA3	1.00	0.76	0.87		1.00	0.45	0.67		1.00	0.65	0.81		1.00	0.64	0.80	
BA4	0.90	0.60	0.78	11.66	0.92	0.51	0.71	6.94	0.91	0.51	0.72	7.24	0.89	0.51	0.72	15.65
BA5					1.03	0.73	0.85	7.51					0.86	0.62	0.79	17.19
BI2	0.85	0.56	0.75	11.15	0.94	0.38	0.62	6.16	0.84	0.37	0.61	6.64	0.91	0.48	0.69	15.09
PQ1	1.00	0.92	0.96		1.00	0.68	0.82		1.00	0.66	0.81		1.00	0.72	0.85	
PQ2	0.93	0.91	0.96	31.21	1.27	0.92	0.96	14.74	1.28	0.92	0.96	15.98	1.18	0.93	0.96	31.79
PQ3					1.18	0.87	0.93	14.30					1.04	0.79	0.89	26.98
PQ4	0.93	0.93	0.97	33.04					1.125	0.91	0.95	15.91	1.16	0.91	0.95	31.10
BL1	1.00	0.86	0.93		1.00	0.80	0.89		1.00	0.74	0.86		1.00	0.85	0.92	
BL2	0.93	0.86	0.93	21.05	1.05	0.90	0.95	18.30	1.03	0.82	0.90	16.06	0.97	0.85	0.92	34.51
BL3					0.99	0.85	0.92	17.17	1.02	0.85	0.92	16.59	0.90	0.74	0.86	29.27
BL5	0.81	0.70	0.84	16.92									0.82	0.66	0.81	25.71
BR1	1.00	0.80	0.89		1.00	0.76	0.87		1.00	0.70	0.84		1.00	0.76	0.87	
BR2	0.98	0.77	0.88	18.00	1.03	0.89	0.95	17.05	1.12	0.84	0.92	16.13	1.04	0.83	0.91	30.12
BR3	0.95	0.78	0.88	18.13	1.02	0.79	0.89	14.84	1.12	0.80	0.90	15.44	1.04	0.81	0.90	28.98
BR4	0.95	0.75	0.87	17.47	0.96	0.74	0.86	13.96	1.09	0.83	0.91	15.97	1.00	0.79	0.89	28.40
BR5	0.91	0.71	0.84	16.44	0.94	0.80	0.89	14.97	0.98	0.72	0.85	14.06	0.95	0.75	0.87	27.02
BR6	0.95	0.79	0.89	18.38					1.09	0.85	0.92	16.33	1.02	0.84	0.92	30.49

Note. US = unstandardized solution, R^2 = squared multiple correlation, SS = standardized solution, BA3-5 = brand awareness item, BI2 = brand image item, PQ1-4 =perceived quality item, BL1-3,5 = brand loyalty item, BR1-6 = brand relationship item.

2 Common Method Bias

2.1 Harman's One Factor Model

Table 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Harman's One Factor Test for the New CBBE Model on the Brand Consumers' Data

	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NFI	NNFI	GFI	IFI
GREAT BRITAIN											
CFA model	159.13	2092.99	84	1.89	0.068	0.046	0.98	0.97	0.98	0.90	0.98
Harman's one factor model	2252.12		90	25.02	0.35	0.18	0.77	0.75	0.73	0.39	0.77
SLOVENIA											
CFA model	108.15	827.13	84	1.29	0.046	0.055	0.99	0.97	0.99	0.90	0.99
Harman's one factor model	935.28		90	10.39	0.262	0.150	0.80	0.78	0.77	0.52	0.80
BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA											
CFA model	112.64	935.73	84	1.34	0.045	0.036	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.92	0.99
Harman's one factor model	1048.37		90	11.65	0.253	0.140	0.84	0.82	0.81	0.54	0.84
MERGED DATA											
CFA model	268.02	5883.36	129	2.08	0.047	0.035	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.94	0.99
Harman's one factor model	6151.38		135	45.57	0.299	0.170	0.81	0.81	0.79	0.42	0.81

2.2 Marker Variable Test

Table 3. Marker Variable Test for the New CBBE Model on the Brand Consumers' Data

		Pearson correlation			
		BA & BI	**PQ**	**BL**	**BR**
Great Britain	**Marker variable***	0.107	0.127	0.140	0.054
Slovenia		-0.138	-0.015	-0.081	-0.158
Bosnia and Herzegovina		0.107	0.057	0.046	-0.017
Merged data		0.036	0.050	0.049	-0.021

Note. There are no significant correlations, * What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?

3 Power Testing for the New CBBE Model

We calculated the exact and close fits of the proposed new CBBE model on our four samples (see Table 1). For the three models tested we found high power, which leads to a Type II error due to a significant Chi-square, which means there is a danger to accept an incorrect model. Due to power tests we can conclude that the models on the British, Bosnian and merged samples are adequate, since we could detect serious misspecifications of the model. Type I error occurs on a model tested on the Slovenian sample which means that there is a probability to reject a correct model.

Table 4. Power of the New CBBE Model on the Brand Consumers' Data

	Great Britain	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Merged data
Exact fit	0.849	0.641	0.766	0.999
Close fit	0.915	0.773	0.866	0.999
Power	High	Low	High	High
Chi-square	Significant	Not significant	Significant	Significant

4 Decision-tree Testing for the New CBBE Model

In line with the decision-tree framework we tested the alternative models of the new CBBE model. The only sound option to obtain an unconstrained model was to predict the direct impact of brand awareness on perceived quality. For the constrained model the only sound solution was to add the construct of brand image to the model, since excluding any other relationship would eliminate other latent variables (see Table 1).

Table 5. Alternative models for the New CBBE Model on the Brand Consumers' Data

	Great Britain			Slovenia			Bosnia and Herzegovina			Merged data		
	χ^2	Df	p	χ^2	df	p	χ^2	df	p	χ^2	df	p
Mt	214.59	86	0.00	109.46	86	0.05	125.57	86	0.00	329.50	131	0.00
Ms	159.13	84	0.00	108.15	84	0.04	112.64	84	0.02	268.02	129	0.00

Mc	376.46	130	0.00	253.17	130	0.00	249.43	130	0.00	744.33	184	0.00

(table continues)

(continued)

Mu	173.30	85	0.00	109.02	85	0.04	115.23	85	0.02	284.99	130	0.00

Note. χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, p = significance, Mt = theoretical model, Ms = saturated model, Mc = constrained model, Mu = unconstrained model.

At first, we compared the theoretical and saturated models, then the constrained and theoretical models and next the theoretical and unconstrained models. The analysis stopped with the third step for the model on the Slovenian sample which led to the conclusion for the acceptance of the theoretical model. For the other models the next step was also to compare the unconstrained with the saturated model. All comparisons for the models on the British and merged samples yielded a significant difference. Since there were no other parameters that were theoretically meaningful to be relaxed, we did not propose any other unconstrained model and accepted the theoretical model. The suggestion from testing the alternative models on the Bosnian sample led to the acceptance of the uncontrained model. Since this was not the case with other models, the only sound solution was to accept the theoretical model on all samples (see Table 2).

Table 6. Testing of Alternative Models for the New CBBE Model

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**			**Merged data**		
	$\Delta\chi^2$	**Δdf**	**S/N**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**Δdf**	**S/N**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**Δdf**	**S/N**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**Δdf**	**S/N**
Mt – Ms	55.46	2	S	1.31	2	N	12.93	2	S	61.48	2	S
Mc – Mt	161.87	44	S	143.17	44	S	123.86	44	S	414.83	53	S
Mt - Mu	41.29	1	S	0.44	1	N	10.34	1	S	44.51	1	S
Mu - Ms	14.17	1	S				2.59	1	N	16.97	1	S

Note. $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in Chi-square, Δdf = change in degrees of freedom, Mt = theoretical model, Ms = saturated model, Mc = constrained model, Mu = unconstrained model, S = significant, N = non-significant.

Appendix O: Testing of the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

1 Measurement Model Testing of the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

Table 1. Unstandardised Solution, Squared Multiple Correlations, Standardised Solution and t-test for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

Sample	**Great Britain**				**Slovenia**				**Bosnia and Herzegovina**				**Merged data**			
Dim.	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R^2**	**SS**	**t-test**
BA3	1.00	0.77	0.88		1.00	0.44	0.66		1.00	0.68	0.83		1.00	0.64	0.80	
BA4	0.89	0.59	0.77	11.62	0.92	0.49	0.70	6.90	0.89	0.51	0.71	7.42	0.89	0.51	0.71	15.63
BA5					1.06	0.75	0.87	7.69					0.87	0.63	0.80	17.38
BI2	0.85	0.56	0.75	11.26	0.95	0.38	0.62	6.19	0.79	0.35	0.59	6.59	0.91	0.48	0.69	15.11
PQ1	1.00	0.92	0.96		1.00	0.68	0.83		1.00	0.66	0.81		1.00	0.72	0.85	
PQ2	0.93	0.91	0.96	30.89	1.26	0.91	0.95	14.78	1.29	0.92	0.96	15.99	1.18	0.93	0.96	31.73
PQ3					1.18	0.88	0.94	14.43					1.04	0.79	0.89	27.02
PQ4	0.94	0.94	0.97	33.11					1.25	0.91	0.95	15.88	1.16	0.91	0.95	31.18
BL1	1.00	0.83	0.91		1.00	0.78	0.88		1.00	0.73	0.85		1.00	0.83	0.91	
BL2	0.95	0.88	0.94	21.06	1.07	0.91	0.95	17.75	1.05	0.84	0.92	16.12	0.99	0.86	0.93	34.06
BL3					1.00	0.85	0.94	16.68	1.02	0.84	0.92	16.06	0.92	0.75	0.87	28.76
BL5	0.82	0.70	0.84	16.64									0.83	0.66	0.81	25.06
EWOMQ 1	1.00	0.75	0.86		1.00	0.63	0.79		1.00	0.64	0.80		1.00	0.66	0.81	
EWOMQ 2	0.98	0.77	0.88	16.10	0.86	0.45	0.67	8.26	1.15	0.81	0.90	13.48	1.02	0.67	0.82	20.73
EWOMQ 4	0.85	0.77	0.88	16.14	1.09	0.77	0.88	11.64	1.00	0.68	0.83	12.01	1.00	0.75	0.87	22.44
EWOMQ 5	0.74	0.72	0.85	15.23	1.10	0.84	0.92	12.14	1.04	0.75	0.87	12.86	0.97	0.76	0.87	22.73
EWOMA 4	1.00	0.72	0.85		1.00	0.54	0.73		1.00	0.78	0.88		1.00	0.69	0.83	

EWOMA 5	1.06	0.80	0.89	16.91	1.00	0.58	0.76	9.02	0.97	0.77	0.87	16.12	1.02	0.74	0.86	24.22
EWOMA 6	1.03	0.86	0.93	18.25	1.07	0.76	0.87	10.37	0.93	0.82	0.91	17.48	1.01	0.83	0.91	26.53
EWOMA 7	0.99	0.87	0.93	18.29	1.03	0.82	0.91	10.86	0.85	0.64	0.80	13.55	0.96	0.78	0.88	25.16
EWOMA 8	1.00	0.79	0.89	16.79	1.12	0.85	0.92	11.05	0.85	0.74	0.86	15.49	0.97	0.79	0.88	25.63
EWOMA 9	1.05	0.91	0.95	19.20	0.83	0.53	0.73	8.57	0.89	0.68	0.82	14.31	0.96	0.74	0.86	24.27
TAS1	1.00	0.73	0.85		1.00	0.73	0.85		1.00	0.85	0.92		1.00	0.77	0.89	
TAS2	0.62	0.31	0.56	7.98	0.57	0.41	0.64	8.03	0.61	0.43	0.65	9.69	0.61	0.39	0.62	15.11
TAS3	1.02	0.85	0.92	11.90	1.14	0.86	0.93	11.05	1.00	0.84	0.92	14.71	1.08	0.85	0.92	21.65

(table continues)

(continued)

Note. US = unstandardized solution, R^2 = squared multiple correlation, SS = standardized solution, BA3-5 = brand awareness item, BI2 = brand image item, PQ1-4 =perceived quality item, BL1-3,5 = brand loyalty item, eWOMQ1-3,4-5 = eWOM quality item, eWOMA4-9 = eWOM activity item, TAS1-3 = television advertising spending item

2 Common Method Bias

2.1 Harman’s One Factor Model

Table 62. Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Harman’s One Factor Test for the Impact of Selected MCs on the Traditional CBBE Model

	X^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NFI	NNFI	GFI	IFI
Great Britain											
CFA model	441.92	4456.26	194	2.28	0.082	0.047	0.97	0.94	0.96	0.83	0.97
Harman’s one factor model	4898.18		209	23.44	0.343	0.26	0.64	0.62	0.60	0.30	0.64
Slovenia											
CFA model	282.07	2177.57	215	1.31	0.048	0.063	0.97	0.92	0.97	0.85	0.97
Harman’s one factor model	2459.64		230	10.69	0.266	0.19	0.56	0.53	0.52	0.39	0.57

Bosnia and Herzegovina											
CFA model	272.63	2233.64	194	1.41	0.049	0.048	0.99	0.96	0.98	0.87	0.99

(table continues)

(continued)

Harman’s one factor model	2506.27		209	11.99	0.257	0.160	0.73	0.71	0.70	0.42	0.73
Merged data											
CFA model	534.23	10832.74	260	2.06	0.046	0.038	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.92	0.99
Harman’s one factor model	11366.97		275	41.33	0.285	0.180	0.70	0.69	0.67	0.35	0.70

2.2 Marker Variable test

Table 3. Marker Variable Test for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

		Pearson correlation					
		BA & BI	**PQ**	**BL**	**eWOMQ**	**eWOMA**	**TAS**
Great Britain	**Marker variable***	0.107	0.127	0.140	0.116	-0.014	-0.022
Slovenia		-0.138	-0.015	-0.081			
Bosnia and Herzegovina		0.107	0.057	0.046	0.073	0.064	0.076
Merged data		0.036	0.050	0.049	0.020	0.008	0.070

Note. There are no significant correlations, * What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?

3 Power Testing for the Impact of Selected MC tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

A power analysis was conducted for the impact of selected MC tool on the traditional CBBE model. Exact and close fits on our four samples were calculated (see Table 1). The power is high for the proposed models on all four samples. For the model tested on all samples we found a Type II error, which means there is a danger not to reject an incorrect model. Due to power tests we can conclude that the models are adequate, since we would be able to detect major specification errors, with the high power.

Table 4. Power of the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

	Great Britain	**Slovenia**	**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	**Merged data**
Exact fit	0.989	0.929	0.969	1.00
Close fit	0.998	0.983	0.993	1.00

Power	High	High	High	High
Chi-square	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant

4 Decision-tree Testing for the Impact of Selected MC tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

The theoretical model of the impact of selected MC tools was compared to other possible solutions. The only sound option for an unconstrained model was to add the direct path from brand awareness with brand image to brand loyalty, which led to exactly the same Chi-Square and degrees of freedom as for the saturated model. For the constrained model the only sound solution was to remove the direct path from perceived quality to brand loyalty (see Table 1).

Table 5. Alternative Models for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**			**Merged data**		
	χ^2	**df**	**P**	χ^2	**df**	**p**	χ^2	**df**	**p**	χ^2	**df**	**p**
Mt	443.60	195	0.00	284.00	216	0.00	272.38	195	0.00	534.83	261	0.00
Ms	441.92	194	0.00	282.07	215	0.00	272.63	194	0.00	534.23	260	0.00
Mc	499.68	196	0.00	329.24	217	0.00	305.16	196	0.00	675.29	262	0.00
Mu	441.92	194	0.00	282.07	215	0.00	272.63	194	0.00	534.23	260	0.00

Note. χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, p = significance, Mt = theoretical model, Ms = saturated model, Mc = constrained model, Mu = unconstrained model.

We first compared theoretical and saturated models, then the constrained and theoretical models and further theoretical and unconstrained models. The analysis stopped with the third step for models on all samples which led to the conclusion for the acceptance of the theoretical model. Therefore we can conclude that the proposed model is the best among other possible solutions (see Table 2).

Table 6. Testing of Alternative Models of the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the Traditional CBBE Model

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**			**Merged data**		
	$\Delta\chi^2$	**Δdf**	**S/N**	$\Delta\chi^2$	**Δdf**	**S/N**	$\Delta\chi^2$	**Δdf**	**S/N**	$\Delta\chi^2$	**Δdf**	**S/N**
Mt – Ms	1.68	1	N	1.93	1	N	0.25	1	N	0.60	1	N

Mc – Mt	56.08	1	S	45.24	1	S	32.78	1	S	140.46	1	S
Mt - Mu	1.68	1	N	1.93	1	N	0.25	1	N	0.60	1	N

Note. $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in Chi-square, Δdf = change in degrees of freedom, Mt = theoretical model, Ms = saturated model, Mc = constrained model, Mu = unconstrained model, S = significant, N = non-significant.

Appendix P: Testing of the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

1 Measurement Model Testing of the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

Table 1. Unstandardised Solution, Squared Multiple Correlations, Standardised Solution and t-test for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

	Great Britain				**Slovenia**				**Bosnia and Herzegovina**				**Merged data**			
Dim.	**US**	**R²**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R²**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R²**	**SS**	**t-test**	**US**	**R²**	**SS**	**t-test**
BA3	1.00	0.77	0.88		1.00	0.45	0.67		1.00	0.70	0.84		1.00	0.64	0.80	
BA4	0.89	0.60	0.77	11.67	0.91	0.49	0.70	6.91	0.86	0.49	0.70	7.40	0.88	0.51	0.71	15.66
BA5					1.05	0.75	0.86	7.72					0.87	0.63	0.80	17.44
BI2	0.85	0.56	0.75	11.28	0.95	0.38	0.62	6.21	0.78	0.35	0.59	6.58	0.90	0.48	0.69	15.12
PQ1	1.00	0.92	0.96		1.00	0.68	0.82		1.00	0.66	0.81		1.00	0.72	0.85	
PQ2	0.93	0.91	0.96	31.06	1.26	0.91	0.95	14.76	1.29	0.92	0.96	15.98	1.18	0.93	0.96	31.73
PQ3					1.18	0.88	0.94	14.43					1.04	0.79	0.89	27.02
PQ4	0.94	0.93	0.97	33.02					1.25	0.91	0.95	15.84	1.16	0.91	0.95	31.10
BL1	1.00	0.86	0.93		1.00	0.80	0.89		1.00	0.74	0.86		1.00	0.85	0.92	
BL2	0.93	0.86	0.93	21.57	1.05	0.90	0.95	18.26	1.03	0.82	0.90	16.04	0.97	0.85	0.92	34.50
BL3					0.99	0.85	0.92	17.17	1.02	0.85	0.92	16.58	0.90	0.74	0.86	29.24
BL5	0.81	0.70	0.84	16.96									0.82	0.66	0.81	25.73
BR1	1.00	0.80	0.90		1.00	0.76	0.87		1.00	0.70	0.84		1.00	0.76	0.87	
BR2	0.98	0.78	0.88	18.36	1.03	0.89	0.94	16.94	1.12	0.85	0.92	16.25	1.04	0.84	0.91	30.28
BR3	0.94	0.77	0.88	18.26	1.03	0.80	0.89	15.00	1.12	0.80	0.90	15.47	1.04	0.81	0.90	29.12
BR4	0.95	0.76	0.87	17.79	0.96	0.74	0.86	13.96	1.09	0.83	0.91	16.06	1.00	0.79	0.89	28.54
BR5	0.91	0.71	0.84	16.50	0.94	0.80	0.89	15.04	0.98	0.72	0.85	14.04	0.94	0.75	0.87	27.02
BR6	0.94	0.77	0.88	18.26					1.09	0.85	0.92	16.28	1.02	0.84	0.92	30.46
EWOMQ1	1.00	0.75	0.86		1.00	0.63	0.79		1.00	0.64	0.80		1.00	0.66	0.81	

(table continues)

(continued)

EWOMQ2	0.98	0.77	0.87	16.11	0.86	0.45	0.67	8.27	1.15	0.81	0.90	13.49	1.02	0.67	0.82	20.76
EWOMQ4	0.85	0.77	0.88	16.16	1.09	0.77	0.88	11.64	1.00	0.68	0.83	12.01	1.00	0.75	0.87	22.46
EWOMQ5	0.74	0.72	0.85	15.23	1.10	0.84	0.92	12.18	1.04	0.75	0.87	12.86	0.97	0.76	0.87	22.75
EWOMA4	1.00	0.72	0.85		1.00	0.54	0.73		1.00	0.87	0.88		1.00	0.69	0.83	
EWOMA5	1.06	0.80	0.89	16.88	1.00	0.58	0.76	9.02	0.97	0.76	0.87	15.95	1.02	0.74	0.86	24.07
EWOMA6	1.03	0.86	0.93	18.20	1.07	0.76	0.87	10.43	0.93	0.82	0.91	17.47	1.01	0.83	0.91	26.55
EWOMA7	1.00	0.87	0.93	18.37	1.03	0.82	0.91	10.89	0.85	0.64	0.80	13.64	0.96	0.78	0.88	25.25
EWOMA8	1.00	0.79	0.89	16.79	1.11	0.85	0.92	11.06	0.86	0.74	0.86	15.62	0.97	0.79	0.89	25.67
EWOMA9	1.05	0.91	0.95	19.14	0.83	0.54	0.73	8.63	0.89	0.68	0.82	14.34	0.96	0.75	0.86	24.32
TAS1	1.00	0.74	0.86		1.00	0.72	0.85		1.00	0.85	0.92		1.00	0.77	0.87	
TAS2	0.62	0.31	0.56	7.99	0.57	0.40	0.63	8.00	0.61	0.43	0.65	9.69	0.61	0.39	0.62	15.10
TAS3	1.01	0.84	0.92	11.94	1.15	0.86	0.93	11.04	1.00	0.84	0.92	14.72	1.09	0.86	0.93	21.65

Note: US = unstandardized solution, R^2 = squared multiple correlation, SS = standardized solution, BA3-5 = brand awareness item, BI2 = brand image item, PQ1-4 =perceived quality item, BL1-3,5 = brand loyalty item, BR1-6 = brand relationship item, eWOMQ1-2,4-5 = eWOM item, eWOMA4-9 = eWOM activity item, TAS1-3 = television advertising spending item.

2 Common Method Bias

2.1 Harman's One Factor Model

Table 2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Harman's One Factor Test for the Impact of Selected MCs on the Traditional CBBE Model

	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NFI	NNFI	GFI	IFI
Great Britain											
CFA model	66.97	5731.86	329	2.02	0.073	0.045	0.98	0.96	0.97	0.80	0.98
Harman's one factor model	5798.83		350	16.57	0.285	0.170	0.79	0.77	0.77	0.32	0.79
Slovenia											
CFA model	450.16	2335.05	329	1.37	0.052	0.061	0.97	0.93	0.97	0.81	0.97
Harman's one factor model	2785.21		350	7.96	0.225	0.170	0.73	0.69	0.70	0.41	0.73
Bosnia and Herzegovina											
CFA model	453.60	2835.11	329	1.38	0.048	0.050	0.99	0.96	0.98	0.84	0.99
Harman's one factor model	3288.71		350	9.40	0.224	0.140	0.82	0.80	0.81	0.42	0.82
Merged data											
CFA model	731.57	12509.03	413	1.77	0.039	0.036	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.91	0.99
Harman's one factor model	13240.60		434	30.51	0.244	0.160	0.81	0.80	0.80	0.37	0.81

2.2 Marker Variable Test

Table 3. Marker Variable Test for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

		Pearson correlation						
		BA & BI	**PQ**	**BL**	**BR**	**eWOMQ**	**eWOMA**	**TAS**
Great Britain	**Marker variable***	0.107	0.127	0.140	0.054	0.116	-0.014	-0.022
Slovenia		-0.138	-0.015	-0.081	-0.158	-0.162	-0.090	0.111
Bosnia and Herzegovina		0.107	0.057	0.046	-0.017	0.073	0.064	0.076
Merged data		0.036	0.050	0.049	-0.021	0.020	0.008	0.070

Note. There are no significant correlations, * What is your prior experience with mobile internet advertising?

3 Power Testing for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

A power analysis was conducted for the impact of MCs on the new CBBE model. Exact and close fits of the proposed model on our four samples were calculated (Table 1). The power is high for the proposed models on all four samples. On all samples, we found a type II error, signalling that there is a danger to accept an inadequate model. However, the results of the power tests confirm that the models are adequate, confirming we could detect major specification errors.

Table 4. Power of the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

	Great Britain	**Slovenia**	**Bosnia and Herzegovina**	**Merged data**
Exact fit	1.000	1.000	0.998	1.000
Close fit	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Power	High	High	High	High
Chi-square	Significant	Significant	Significant	Significant
Type of Error	Type II	Type II	Type II	Type II

4 Decision-tree Testing for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

The theoretical model of the impact of selected MC tools on the new CBBE model was compared to other possible models according to the decision tree framework (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, p. 420). The only sound option for an unconstrained model was to add the direct path from brand awareness with brand image to brand loyalty. For the constrained model, the only sound solution was to remove the direct path from perceived quality to brand loyalty (Table 1).

Table 5. Alternative Models for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**			**Merged data**		
	χ^2	**Df**	**P**	**χ^2**	**df**	**p**	**χ^2**	**df**	**p**	**χ^2**	**df**	**p**

Mt	670.14	332	0.00	452.07	332	0.00	458.21	332	0.00	742.33	416	0.00
Ms	662.97	329	0.00	450.16	329	0.00	453.60	329	0.00	731.57	413	0.00

(table continues)

(continued)

Mc	721.86	333	0.00	498.55	333	0.00	494.34	333	0.00	881.62	417	0.00
Mu	668.42	331	0.00	449.84	331	0.00	458.33	331	0.00	741.77	415	0.00
Mu'										739.58	414	0.00

Note. χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, p = significance, Mt = theoretical model, Ms = saturated model, Mc = constrained model, Mu = unconstrained model, Mu' = second unconstrained model.

Starting with a comparison of the theoretical and saturated models on all samples, followed by a comparison of the constrained and theoretical model, and further the coparison of the theoretical and unconstrained model (see Table 2), the analysis stopped with the third step for models on country samples. The results led to accept the theoretical model. On the merged sample, the decision-tree framework led to construct an additional unconstrained model (Mu'). The only additional option was to add the direct path from perceived quality to brand relationship. Since this solution led to the additional construction of the model, and further, the additional unconstrained model would produce the same statistics as the saturated model, the analysis concluded at this step. With no more theoretically meaningful parameters available, the theoretical model was accepted for the merged sample as well.

Table 6. Testing of Alternative Models for the Impact of Selected MC Tools on the New CBBE Model

	Great Britain			**Slovenia**			**Bosnia and Herzegovina**			**Merged data**		
	$\Delta\chi^2$	**Δdf**	**S/N**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**Δdf**	**S/N**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**Δdf**	**S/N**	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**Δdf**	**S/N**
Mt – Ms	7.17	3	N	1.91	3	N	4.61	3	N	10.76	3	S
Mc – Mt	51.72	1	S	46.48	1	S	36.13	1	S	139.29	1	S
Mt – Mu	1.72	1	N	2.23	1	N	0.12	1	N	0.56	1	N
Mt – Mu'										2.75	1	N

Note. $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in Chi-square, Δdf = change in degrees of freedom, Mt = theoretical model, Ms = saturated model, Mc = constrained model, Mu = unconstrained model, S = significant, N = non-significant.

Appendix Q: Testing of Other Hypotheses

Table 1. Statistically Significant Differences in Perceptions of CBBE Elements According to Previous Brand Usage – "Never Trieds" versus Current and Past Consumers

Great Britain						
	1 (n1 = 148)		**2 (n2 = 193)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
BA1	3.63	1.66	4.78	1.72	-6.20	0.000
BA2	5.91	1.22	6.28	1.16	-2.89	0.040
BA3	5.17	1.46	5.90	1.37	-4.73	0.000
BA4	4.68	1.71	5.66	1.39	-5.85	0.000
BA5	5.39	1.39	5.97	1.29	-4.03	0.000
BI1	4.49	1.58	4.98	1.56	-2.91	0.040
BI2	5.18	1.71	5.87	1.37	-4.13	0.000
BI3 (R)	4.99	1.70	5.46	1.73	-2.50	0.013
PQ1	4.95	1.41	5.35	1.44	-2.60	0.010
PQ2	5.04	1.43	5.39	1.34	-2.35	0.020
PQ3	5.01	1.41	5.54	1.27	-3.64	0.000
PQ4	4.99	1.45	5.48	1.33	-3.24	0.001
BL1	2.39	1.58	4.23	1.94	-9.36	0.000
BL2	2.93	1.67	4.50	1.80	-8.25	0.000
BL3	2.57	1.53	4.04	1.93	-7.56	0.000
BL4	3.61	1.60	4.50	1.75	-4.86	0.000
BL5	2.87	1.65	4.90	1.74	-10.91	0.000
BL6	2.93	1.62	4.10	1.82	-6.20	0.000
Slovenia						
	1 (n1 = 180)		**2 (n2 = 141)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
BA1	3.01	1.73	4.39	2.18	-3.63	0.001
BA2	6.14	1.55	6.71	0.91	-3.88	0.000
BA3	5.21	1.78	5.84	1.49	-3.36	0.001
BA4	4.74	1.86	6.13	1.31	-7.57	0.000
BA5	5.27	1.76	6.26	1.91	-5.68	0.000
BI1	3.73	1.96	4.99	1.89	-5.80	0.000
BI2	4.86	1.98	5.72	1.53	-4.26	0.000
BI3 (R)	5.27	1.74	6.16	1.26	-5.12	0.000
BI4	4.60	1.80	5.11	1.78	-2.55	0.011
BL1	1.79	1.23	3.38	2.25	-8.02	0.000
BL2	2.52	1.67	3.63	2.23	-5.11	0.000
BL3	2.52	1.60	3.55	2.16	-4.88	0.000
BL4	3.18	1.87	4.40	2.02	-5.60	0.000
BL5	2.47	1.71	3.92	2.07	-6.89	0.000
BL6	2.58	1.65	3.49	2.00	-4.47	0.000
Bosnia and Herzegovina						
	1 (n1 = 146)		**2 (n2 = 168)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**

(table continues)

(continued)

BA1	3.42	1.97	4.77	2.08	-5.90	0.000
BA2	4.79	1.93	5.49	1.55	-3.56	0.000
BA3	5.32	1.88	6.01	1.47	-3.66	0.000
BA4	4.15	2.01	5.80	1.51	-8.27	0.000
BA5	5.63	1.77	6.30	1.20	-3.96	0.000
BI1	3.89	2.05	5.15	1.73	-5.89	0.000
BI2	5.08	2.15	5.89	1.62	-3.80	0.000
BI3 (R)	5.25	1.97	5.75	1.73	-2.38	0.018
BI4	4.68	1.90	5.18	1.71	-2.45	0.015
BL1	2.47	1.79	4.17	2.02	-7.84	0.000
BL2	3.10	1.94	4.57	1.97	-6.63	0.000
BL3	3.06	1.88	4.30	1.93	-5.74	0.000
BL4	3.92	1.95	4.92	1.80	-4.72	0.000
BL5	2.75	1.78	4.48	1.91	-8.29	0.000
BL6	3.33	1.76	4.36	1.87	-5.01	0.000

Note. 1 = "never-trieds", 2 = current and past consumers, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, T-test = independent sample t-test (equal variance assumed), Variable scale: from 1 to 7 (1- totally disagree, 7 – totally agree).

Table 2. Statistically Significant Differences in Perceptions of CBBE Elements According to Previous Brand Usage – Current versus Past Consumers

Great Britain						
	1 (n1 = 115)		**2 (n2 = 78)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
BA1	5.67	1.49	3.91	1.68	6.32	0.000
BA3	6.14	1.06	5.53	1.66	3.18	0.020
BA4	5.96	1.25	5.23	1.48	3.68	0.000
BI1	5.17	1.51	4.71	1.61	2.06	0.041
BI4	5.55	1.39	5.05	1.56	2.32	0.022
PQ1	5.73	1.26	4.79	1.51	4.66	0.000
PQ2	5.69	1.24	4.96	1.37	3.82	0.000
PQ3	5.83	1.16	5.13	1.31	3.88	0.000
PQ4	5.79	1.19	5.01	1.41	4.14	0.000
BL1	4.95	1.74	3.17	1.74	6.98	0.000
BL2	5.15	1.55	3.55	1.73	6.69	0.000
BL3	4.59	1.87	3.22	1.74	5.15	0.000
BL4	4.96	1.62	3.83	1.72	4.61	0.000
BL5	5.62	1.37	3.85	1.70	7.98	0.000
BL6	4.64	1.66	3.29	1.74	5.43	0.000
BR1	3.71	1.63	2.97	1.75	2.98	0.000
BR2	3.74	1.66	2.76	1.61	4.08	0.000
BR3	3.68	1.63	2.95	1.59	3.11	0.000
BR4	3.61	1.67	3.06	1.63	2.26	0.000
BR5	3.78	1.55	2.80	1.67	3.76	0.000
BR6	3.79	1.65	2.97	1.51	3.48	0.000

(table continues)

(continued)

Slovenia						
	1 (n1 = 48)		**2 (n2 = 93)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
BA1	5.48	1.68	3.83	2.20	4,56	0.000
BA3	6.23	1.21	6.66	1.02	2.29	0.024
PQ2	5.42	1.43	4.84	1.75	1.98	0.050
PQ4	5.48	1.46	4.86	1.72	2.13	0.035
BL1	4.83	2.05	2.62	1.97	6.22	0.000
BL2	4.83	1.99	3.01	2.10	4.96	0.000
BL3	4.65	1.93	2.99	2.06	4.62	0.000
BL4	4.96	1.84	4.12	2.06	3.37	0.019
BL5	5.25	1.63	3.24	1.94	6.15	0.000
BL6	4.56	1.80	2.94	1.88	4.95	0.000
BR1	3.17	1.98	2.16	1.63	3.22	0.002
BR2	3.17	1.73	2.08	1.61	3.69	0.000
BR3	3.15	1.96	2.10	1.65	3.32	0.001
BR4	3.17	1.85	2.11	1.61	3.48	0.001
BR5	3.21	1.70	2.27	1.56	3.27	0.001
BR6	3.15	1.80	2.23	1.57	3.09	0.002
Bosnia and Herzegovina						
	1 (n1 = 80)		**2 (n2 = 88)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
BA1	5.63	1.67	4.00	2.12	5.48	0.000
BA4	6.08	1.33	5.55	1.62	2.30	0.022
BI4	5.55	1.59	4.85	1.75	2.69	0.008
PQ1	5.91	1.42	5.05	1.84	3.39	0.001
PQ2	5.51	1.68	4.72	1.94	2.84	0.005
PQ4	5.60	1.48	5.69	1.97	3.35	0.001
BL1	5.18	1.70	3.26	1.86	6.94	0.000
BL2	5.51	1.44	3.72	2.01	6.60	0.000
BL3	5.08	1.73	3.59	1.83	5.39	0.000
BL4	5.59	1.53	4.32	1.82	4.87	0.000
BL5	5.24	1.72	3.80	1.83	5.26	0.000
BL6	5.03	1.76	3.76	1.77	4.62	0.000
BR1	3.86	1.85	3.19	1.90	2.31	0.000
BR2	3.85	2.02	2.78	1.74	3.67	0.000
BR3	4.11	1.93	3.07	1.95	3.49	0.000
BR4	3.95	1.95	2.91	1.73	3.67	0.000
BR5	3.84	1.95	2.95	1.65	3.19	0.000
BR6	4.09	1.89	3.00	1.74	3.88	0.000

Note. 1 = "current consumers", 2 = past consumers, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, T-test = independent sample t-test (equal variance assumed), Variable scale: from 1 to 7 (1- totally disagree, 7 – totally agree).

Table 3. Statistically Significant Differences in Perceptions of CBBE Elements According to Previous Brand Experiences on the British, Slovenian, and Bosnian Samples

Great Britain						
	1 (n1 = 160)		**2 (n2 = 110)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
BA1	5.04	1.62	3.65	1.63	6.98	0.000
BA2	6.41	0.97	6.00	1.26	3.03	0.003
BA3	6.13	1.07	5.25	1.48	5.60	0.000
BA4	5.90	1.22	5.04	1.42	5.33	0.000
BA5	6.24	0.97	5.43	1.43	5.59	0.000
BI1	5.31	1.37	4.49	1.50	4.67	0.000
BI2	6.18	1.13	5.24	1.59	5.73	0.000
BI3	2.36	1.72	2.86	1.59	2.45	0.015
BI4	5.78	1.23	4.77	1.45	6.16	0.000
BI5	4.89	1.41	4.27	1.57	3.36	0.001
PQ1	5.87	1.09	4.32	1.49	9.88	0.000
PQ2	5.92	1.06	4.35	1.38	10.60	0.000
PQ3	5.96	1.05	4.55	1.34	9.66	0.000
PQ4	5.94	1.07	4.49	1.43	9.50	0.000
BL1	4.43	1.95	2.51	1.57	8.60	0.000
BL2	4.76	1.74	2.92	1.64	8.74	0.000
BL3	4.04	1.99	2.76	1.64	5.57	0.000
BL4	4.89	1.63	3.25	1.53	8.31	0.000
BL5	5.07	1.66	3.12	1.78	9.21	0.000
BL6	4.42	1.70	2.72	1.53	8.39	0.000
BR1	3.88	1.65	2.42	1.41	6.03	0.000
BR2	3.75	1.68	2.48	1.42	5.51	0.000
BR3	3.73	1.64	2.66	1.41	4.41	0.000
BR4	3.79	1.66	2.55	1.38	5.13	0.000
BR5	3.86	1.57	2.50	1.43	5.76	0.000
BR6	3.87	1.59	2.60	1.40	5.83	0.000
Slovenia						
	1 (n1 = 48)		**2 (n2 = 93)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
BA1	4.73	1.96	3.55	2.14	3.92	0.000
BA3	6.26	1.14	5.51	1.57	3.80	0.000
BA5	6.43	1.00	6.01	1.37	2.50	0.015
BI1	5.53	1.70	4.45	1.83	4.16	0.000
BI2	6.08	1.31	5.50	1.52	2.79	0.006
BI3	6.44	1.10	5.78	1.49	3.51	0.001
BI4	5.55	1.53	4.76	1.84	3.22	0.002
BI5	4.29	1.83	3.49	1.86	2.97	0.003
PQ1	6.12	1.03	4.83	1.71	6.44	0.000

PQ2	5.90	1.14	4.33	1.71	7.51	0.000
PQ3	5.88	1.08	4.35	1.65	7.62	0.000

(table continues)

(continued)

PQ4	5.93	1.12	4.28	1.71	8.00	0.000
BL1	3.76	2.22	2.22	1.62	5.31	0.000
BL2	4.31	2.09	2.37	1.69	6.87	0.000
BL3	4.16	2.14	2.46	1.62	5.98	0.000
BL4	5.02	1.97	3.39	1.63	6.06	0.000
BL5	4.39	2.02	2.74	1.79	5.81	0.000
BL6	4.15	1.96	2.40	1.50	6.71	0.000
BR1	3.04	1.96	1.82	1.33	4.14	0.000
BR2	3.05	1.84	1.68	1.19	5.00	0.000
BR3	3.03	2.00	1.73	1.25	4.39	0.000
BR4	3.05	1.93	1.73	1.18	4.67	0.000
BR5	3.03	1.81	2.03	1.26	3.61	0.000
BR6	3.08	1.82	1.87	1.26	4.40	0.000
Bosnia and Herzegovina						
	1 (n1 = 123)		**2 (n2 = 72)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
BA1	4.99	1.89	3.92	2.24	3.58	0.000
BA2	5.73	1.37	4.99	1.83	3.23	0.001
BA4	5.82	1.44	5.25	1.94	2.35	0.020
BI1	5.40	1.49	4.38	2.04	4.03	0.000
BI2	6.09	1.36	5.49	2.05	2.47	0.014
BI3	5.89	1.61	5.35	2.02	2.08	0.039
BI4	5.62	1.38	4.28	1.95	5.60	0.000
BI5	4.29	1.71	3.76	1.78	2.05	0.042
PQ1	5.87	1.26	4.51	2.06	5.70	0.000
PQ2	5.76	1.34	3.97	1.94	7.61	0.000
PQ3	5.64	1.47	4.28	1.84	5.70	0.000
PQ4	5.78	1.26	4.03	1.94	7.64	0.000
BL1	4.79	1.84	2.69	1.67	7.94	0.000
BL2	5.19	1.69	2.97	1.78	8.68	0.000
BL3	4.80	1.74	3.06	1.72	6.77	0.000
BL4	5.40	1.45	3.88	1.98	6.16	0.000
BL5	4.94	1.75	3.04	1.83	7.15	0.000
BL6	4.96	1.59	3.11	1.61	7.80	0.000
BR1	4.04	1.76	2.45	1.74	5.58	0.000
BR2	3.93	1.89	2.02	1.37	6.74	0.000
BR3	4.16	1.89	2.38	1.68	5.99	0.000
BR4	3.98	1.82	2.25	1.52	6.13	0.000
BR5	3.89	1.77	2.33	1.54	5.60	0.000
BR6	4.18	1.68	2.20	1.57	7.36	0.000

Note. 1 = positive brand experiences, 2 = negative brand experiences (including neither negative neither positive), M = mean, SD = standard deviation, T-test = independent sample t-test (equal variance assumed), Variable scale: from 1 to 7 (1- totally disagree, 7 – totally agree).

Table 4. Statistically Significant Differences in Perceptions of the Influence of Consumer Involvement on Perceptions of Selected MC Tools

Great Britain						
	1 (n1 = 178)		**2 (n2 = 164)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
EWOMQ1	4.19	1.42	3.74	1.34	3.01	0.003
EWOMQ2	4.07	1.06	3.74	1.33	2.55	0.011
EWOMQ4	4.46	1.20	4.17	0.90	2.55	0.011
EWOMQ5	4.45	1.11	4.16	0.86	2.72	0.007
EWOMA1	3.25	1.75	2.69	1.73	2.94	0.004
EWOMA4	3.27	1.84	2.57	1.63	3.75	0.000
EWOMA5	3.01	1.87	2.50	1.60	2.73	0.007
EWOMA6	2.93	1.72	2.37	1.53	3.16	0.002
EWOMA7	2.66	1.69	2.22	1.43	2.63	0.009
EWOMA8	2.83	1.76	2.31	1.46	2.93	0.004
EWOMA9	2.87	1.74	2.34	1.52	2.99	0.003
Slovenia						
	1 (n1 = 164)		**2 (n2 = 157)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
EWOMQ1	4.40	1.42	3.80	1.66	5.53	0.000
EWOMQ2	4.39	1.59	3.50	1.68	4.90	0.000
EWOMQ4	4.49	1.37	3.76	1.61	4.34	0.000
EWOMQ5	4.38	1.45	3.70	1.54	4.07	0.000
EWOMA1	3.07	1.74	2.18	1.62	4.57	0.000
EWOMA2	3.73	2.06	2.73	1.96	4.47	0.000
EWOMA3	3.55	1.87	2.75	1.92	3.83	0.000
EWOMA4	3.12	1.88	2.52	1.80	2.89	0.004
EWOMA5	2.91	1.78	2.33	1.70	3.03	0.003
EWOMA6	2.87	1.82	2.11	1.44	4.10	0.000
EWOMA7	2.45	1.67	1.85	1.30	3.53	0.000
EWOMA8	2.73	1.70	2.15	1.53	3.24	0.001
EWOMA9	2.62	1.58	2.20	1.48	2.48	0.014
Bosnia and Herzegovina						
	1 (n1 = 163)		**2 (n2 = 151)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
TAS2	4.71	1.68	4.32	1.50	2.17	0.031
EWOMQ5	4.52	1.32	4.20	1.49	2.04	0.042
EWOMA3	3.81	1.88	3.32	2.08	2.20	0.029
EWOMA4	3.61	1.91	2.88	1.94	3.34	0.001
EWOMA5	3.50	1.85	2.87	1.93	2.95	0.003
EWOMA6	3.35	1.72	2.76	1.80	2.96	0.003

EWOMA7	2.95	1.74	2.37	1.74	2.95	0.003
EWOMA8	3.06	1.67	2.55	1.72	2.64	0.009
EWOMA9	3.28	1.74	2.81	1.88	2.29	0.023

Table 5. Testing the Relationship Among Attitude Toward Advertising in General and Selected MC Tools

Great Britain				
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**Correlation coefficient**	**p**	**Result**
ADVAL – TAS (H7.1a)	+	0.282	0.000	Supported
ADVAL – eWOMQ (H7.1b)	+	0.337	0.000	Supported
ADVAL – eWOMA (H7.1b)	+	0.428	0.000	Supported
ADIRR – TAS (H7.2a)	-	0.110	0.102	Not supported
ADIRR – eWOMQ (H7.2b)	-	0.142	0.034	Not supported
ADIRR – eWOMA (H7.2b)	-	0.210	0.002	Not supported
Slovenia				
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**Correlation coefficient**	**p**	**Result**
ADVAL – TAS (H7.1a)	+	0.242	0.000	Supported
ADVAL – eWOMQ (H7.1b)	+	0.396	0.000	Supported
ADVAL – eWOMA (H7.1b)	+	0.259	0.000	Supported
ADIRR – TAS (H7.2a)	-	0.093	0.097	Not supported
ADIRR – eWOMQ (H7.2b)	-	0.208	0.000	Not supported
ADIRR – eWOMA (H7.2b)	-	0.105	0.060	Not supported
Bosnia and Herzegovina				
Hypothesis	**Sign**	**Correlation coefficient**	**p**	**Result**
ADVAL – TAS (H7.1a)	+	0.204	0.000	Supported
ADVAL – eWOMQ (H7.1b)	+	0.391	0.000	Supported
ADVAL – eWOMA (H7.1b)	+	0.247	0.000	Supported
ADIRR – TAS (H7.2a)	-	0.007	0.907	Not supported
ADIRR – eWOMQ (H7.2b)	-	0.181	0.001	Not supported
ADIRR – eWOMA (H7.2b)	-	0.173	0.002	Not supported

Note. ADVAL = advertising value, ADIRR = irritation, TAS = television advertising spending, eWOMQ = eWOM quality, eWOMA = eWOM activity, p = significance.

Table 6. Statistically Significant Differences in eWOM Quality and eWOM Activity Due to Age of Respondents

Great Britain						
	1 (n1 = 176)		**2 (n2 = 165)**			
	M	**SD**	**M**	**SD**	**T-test**	**Sig.**
eWOMQ1	4.18	1.40	3.72	1.35	3.14	0.002
eWOMQ4	4.44	1.12	4.16	0.98	2.44	0.015
eWOMQ5	4.45	1.06	4.15	0.90	2.84	0.005
eWOMA1	3.39	1.70	2.50	1.71	4.81	0.000

eWOMA2	3.64	1.80	2.65	1.84	5.02	0.000
eWOMA3	3.74	1.72	2.55	1.70	6.43	0.000
eWOMA4	3.40	1.70	2.38	1.67	5.58	0.000
eWOMA5	3.28	1.71	2.17	1.60	6.13	0.000
eWOMA6	3.15	1.62	2.08	1.49	6.33	0.000
eWOMA7	2.95	1.60	1.88	1.33	6.68	0.000

(table continues)

(continued)

eWOMA8	3.03	1.66	2.05	1.45	5.79	0.000
eWOMA9	3.17	1.61	1.98	1.46	7.13	0.000
Slovenia						
	1 (n1 = 155)		**2 (n2 = 166)**			
eWOMQ1	4.31	1.47	3.92	1.63	2.27	0.024
eWOMQ2	4.20	1.58	3.72	1.76	2.55	0.011
eWOMQ5	4.27	1.42	3.84	1.60	2.56	0.011
eWOMA1	2.82	1.73	2.41	1.72	2.03	0.043
eWOMA3	3.43	1.94	2.90	1.90	2.47	0.014
eWOMA9	2.59	1.59	2.25	1.49	2.02	0.044
Bosnia and Herzegovina						
	1 (n1 = 165)		**2 (n2 = 149)**			
eWOMA1	3.60	2.14	3.11	1.81	2.16	0.032

Note. 1 = younger respondents (18–40 years), 2 = older respondents (41-65 years), M = mean, SD = standard deviation, t-test = independent sample t-test (equal variance assumed), Variable scale: from 1 to 7 (1- totally disagree, 7 – totally agree), eWOMQ = eWOM quality, eWOMA = eWOM activity.

Appendix R: Summary of the Hypotheses and Results

Table 1. Summary of the Hypotheses and Results

	GB	SLO	BIH
Hypothesis 1: The level of CBBE is related positively to the extent to which dimensions are evident in the product or other entity.	**S**	**S**	**S**
H1ab: BA & BI - CBBE (+)	S	S	S
H1c: PQ – CBBE (+)	S	S	S
H1d: BL – CBBE (+)	S	S	S
H1e: BR – CBBE (+)	S	S	S
Hypothesis 2: There are positive and significant relationships among proposed CBBE elements.	**S**	**S**	**S**
H2ab: BA – BI (+)	S	S	S
H2abc BA & BI – PQ (+)	S	S	S
H2bd: BA & BI – BL (+)	S	S	S
H2be: BA & BI – BR (+)	S	S	S
H2cd: PQ – BL (+)	S	S	S
H2ce: PQ –BR (+)	S	S	S
H2de: BL – BR (+)	S	S	S
Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H3: Previous brand usage significantly influences consumers' perceptions of CBBE.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H3.1: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ CBBE	**S**	**S**	**S**
H3.1a: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ BA	S	S	S
H3.1b: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ BI	S	S	S
H3.1c: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ PQ	S	S	S
H3.1d: BUS ∧ BNUS ≠ BL	S	S	S
H3.2: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ CBBE	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H3.2a: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ BA	NS	NS	NS
H3.2b: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ BI	PS	S	PS
H3.2c: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ PQ	S	S	S
H3.2d: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ BL	S	S	S
H3.2e: RBUS ∧ PBUS ≠ BR	S	S	S
Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H4: Previous brand experience significantly influences consumers' perceptions of CBBE.	**S**	**S**	**S**
H4a: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ BA	S	S	S
H4b: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ BI	S	S	S
H4c: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ PQ	S	S	S
H4d: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ BL	S	S	S
H4e: PBEX ∧ NBEX ≠ BR	S	S	S
Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H5: CBBE elements are positively related to perceived MCs activities of the brand.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H5.1* CBBE *elements are positively related to the perceived television advertising spending for the brand.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H5.1ab: TAS – BA & BI (+)	S	S	S

(table continues)

(continued)

H5.1c: TAS – PQ (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.1d: TAS- BL (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.1e: TAS - BR (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2 CBBE elements are positively related to eWOM of the brand.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H5.2.1 CBBE elements are positively related to eWOM quality of the brand.	PS	PS	PS
H5.2.1ab: eWOMQ – BA & BI (+)	S	S	NS
H5.2.1c: eWOMQ – PQ (+)	S	S	S
H5.2.1d: eWOMQ – BL (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2.1e: eWOMQ – BR (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2.2 CBBE elements are positively related to eWOM activity of the brand.	PS	PS	PS
H5.2.2ab: eWOMA – BA & BI (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2.2c: eWOMA – PQ (+)	NS	NS	NS
H5.2.2d: eWOMA – BL (+)	S	S	S
H5.2.2e: eWOMA – BR (+)	S	S	S
H6: Consumers' involvement in the product or entity category significantly influences their perceptions of television advertising spending and eWOM.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H6a: CINV - TAS	NS	NS	NS
H6b: CINV - eWOM	S	S	S
Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H7: Attitudes toward advertising in general significantly influence consumers' perceptions of diverse Mc tools.	**PS**	**PS**	**PS**
H7.1a: ADVAL – TAS (+)	S	S	S
H7.1b: ADVAL – eWOM (+)	S	S	S
H7.2a: ADIRR – TAS (-)	NS	NS	NS
H7.2b: ADIRR – eWOM (-)	NS	NS	NS
Hypothesis	**GB**	**SLO**	**BIH**
H8: Respondent age group significantly influences their perceptions of eWOM.	**S**	**PS**	**NS**
H8a: Electronic WOM perceptions differ among younger group of respondents (from 18 to 40) compared to older group of respondents (from 41 to 65).	S	PS	NS

Note. BA & BI = brand awareness with brand image, PQ = perceived quality, BL = brand loyalty, BR = brand relationship, CBBE = consumer-based brand equity, eWOMQ = eWOM quality, eWOMA = eWOM activity, TAS = television advertising spending, BUS = brand users, NBUS = non brand users, RBUS = recent brand users, PBUS = previous brand users, PBEX = positive brand experience, NBEX = negative brand experience, ADVAL = advertising value, ADIRR – advertising irritation, CINV – consumer involvement, GB = Great Britain, SLO = Slovenia, BIH = Bosnia and Herzegovina, S = supported, NS = not supported, PS = partially supported, BUS = brand users, BNUS = brand non-users, PBUS = past users, RBUS = recent users.

Appendix S: A List of Frequently Used Abbreviations

BA = brand awareness
BI = brand image
BIH = Bosnia and Herzegovina
BL = brand loyalty
BR = brand relationship
CBBE = consumer-based brand equity
eWOM = electronic word-of-mouth
eWOMA = electronic word-of-mouth activity
eWOMQ = electronic word-of-mouth quality
GB = Great Britain
MC(s) = marketing communication(s)
PQ = perceived quality
SLO = Slovenia
SNS = social-networking site
TAS = television advertising spending
WOM = word-of-mouth

Appendix T: English – Slovenian Dictionary

Brand awareness (BA) = zavedanje blagovne znamke
Brand equity = premoženje blagovne znamke
Brand image (BI) = podoba blagovne znamke
Brand loyalty (BL) = zvestoba blagovni zanmki
Brand relationship (BR) = odnos z blagovno znamko
Consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) = premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov
Electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) = spletno trženje od ust do ust
Electronic word-of-mouth activity (eWOMA) = aktivnosti spletnega trženja o dust do ust
Electronic word-of-mouth quality (eWOMQ) = kakovost spletnega trženja od ust do ust
Marketing communications (MCs) = trženjsko komuniciranje
Marketing communication tools = trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja
Mobile advertising = mobilno oglaševanje
Online advertising = spletno oglaševanje
Perceived quality (PQ)= zaznana kakovost
Social-networking site (SNS) = družbena omrežja
Television advertising = televizijsko oglaševanje
Television advertising spending (TAS) = vložena sredstva v televizijsko oglaševanje
Word-of-mouth (WOM) = trženje od ust do ust

Appendix U: Summary in Slovenian language/ Daljši povzetek disertacije v slovenskem jeziku

VPLIV SODOBNIH TRŽENJSKO-KOMUNIKACIJSKIH ORODIJ NA PREMOŽENJE BLAGOVNE ZNAMKE

DALJŠI POVZETEK

V zadnjih desetletjih se je področje managementa blagovnih znamk razvilo v eno najpomembnejših področij trženja. Kljub temu, da je področje managementa blagovnih znamk v trženjski literaturi eno najbolj raziskanih področij, pa so spremembe v trženjskem komuniciranju, ki so nastale zaradi pojava novih, interaktivnih in digitalnih, trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij, spremenile način grajenja močnih blagovnih znamk. V središče doktorske disertacije je zato postavljeno vprašanje, ali so spremembe v trženjskem komuniciranju toliko spremenile managiranje blagovnih znamk, da je treba prilagoditi teorijo in prakso managementa blagovnih znamk. V doktorski disertaciji na management blagovnih znamk gledam z dveh zornih kotov, z vidika skrbnikov blagovnih znamk, kjer se osredotočim na proces managementa identitete blagovne znamke ter z vidika zunanjih deležnikov blagovnih znamk, kjer se osredotočim na proces grajenja premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov.

Namen doktorske disertacije je prispevati k razvoju znanstvene discipline managementa blagovnih znamk na eni strani in trženjskega komuniciranja na drugi strani ter njune povezave. Na podlagi ugotovitev raziskave bodo tako znanstveniki s področja trženja kot tržniki pridobili nova znanja o grajenju premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov s tradicionalnimi in novimi trženjsko-komunikacijskimi orodji. Glavni namen doktorske disertacije je torej poiskati odgovor na vprašanje, ali je treba prilagoditi proces managementa blagovnih znamk zaradi sprememb v trženjskem komuniciranju. Namen disertacije je tudi razviti konceptualni model, ki bo povezal na eni strani tradicionalna in nova trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja in na drugi strani premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov.

Cilj doktorske disertacije je odgovoriti na naslednja vprašanja:

- Ali je treba prilagoditi proces managiranja identitete blagovne znamke zaradi pojava novih, interaktivnih in digitalnih, trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij?
- Ali je treba spremeniti merjenje premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov zaradi pojava novih, interaktivnih in digitalnih, trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij?
- Kako nova trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja gradijo premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov?
- Ali se vpliv tradicionalnih in novih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na

premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov razlikuje?

V prvem delu disertacije se osredotočim na vidik skrbnikov blagovnih znamk in trenutnih teorij o procesu grajenja močnih blagovnih znamk. Najprej se osredotočim na blagovno znamko kot entiteto in proučim, kako se je pojmovanje blagovne znamke spreminjalo skozi čas. Po pregledu teorije ugotovim, da so danes v znanstveni literaturi v ospredje postavljeni odnosi med znamko in deležniki. Vzpostavljanje odnosov med znamko in deležniki je med drugim omogočil tudi razvoj informacijsko-komunikacijske tehnologije in pojav novih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij. Po pregledu objavljenih opredelitev blagovnih znamk ugotovim, da opredelitve blagovne znamke ne upoštevajo zadnjih sprememb v okolju, zato predlagam novo opredelitev blagovne znamke kot:
»Blagovna znamka je produkt ali druga entiteta, ki jo so-ustvarjajo porabniki in s katero porabniki zgradijo edinstvene in dolgotrajne odnose.«

Predlagana nova opredelitev blagovne znamke mi pomeni vodilo skozi celotno disertacijo. Na podlagi izpostavljenih ugotovitev in po analiziranju procesov managementa identitete blagovne znamke predlagam nov proces managementa identitete blagovne znamke, skupaj z novim modelom identitete blagovne znamke, ki v model identitete blagovne znamke postavlja odnos med znamko in porabnikom. Novi model identitete blagovne znamke v grajenje identitete vključuje tako notranje kot zunanje deležnike. Skrbnikom blagovnih znamk predlagam vključitev zunanjih deležnikov v razvoj identitete znamke od samega začetka in tako zgraditev blagovne znamke, na podlagi odnosa med blagovno znamko in deležnikom. Proces managementa identitete blagovne znamke se ne nanaša le na nove blagovne znamke, ampak tudi na blagovne znamke, ki so že prisotne na trgu. Že uveljavljene blagovne znamke naj novi model uporabijo ob ponovnem pozicioniranju blagovnih znamk.

V drugem delu poglavja se osredotočim na vidik zunanjih deležnikov prek teorije premoženja blagovne znamke. Osredotočim se na premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. Na podlagi primerjav opredelitev premoženja blagovnih znamk in njegovih elementov lahko potrdim dosedanje ugotovitve znanstvenikov s področja trženja, ki ugotavljajo, da v literaturi ni konsenza o opredelitvi premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov (Keller, 1993; Lassar, Mittal & Sharma, 1995; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2004, 2010).

Večina opredelitev koncepta premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov temelji na tradicionalnih opredelitvah premoženja blagovne znamke kot dodane vrednosti. Kljub temu v zadnjih opredelitvah zaznam, da znanstveniki s področja trženja že postavljajo v ospredje tudi grajenje odnosov med znamko in porabnikom. Eno izmed teh opredelitev so podali Christodoulides et al. (2006), ki poudarjajo, da je premoženje blagovnih znamk v

očeh porabnikov soustvarjeno skozi interakcijo s porabniki. Kljub temu se Christodoulides et al. (2006) osredotočijo le na premoženje blagovnih znamk na spletu. V doktorski disertaciji na podlagi te opredelitve predlagam novo definicijo premoženja blagovne znamke, ki velja za vse tipe znamk:
“Premoženje blagovne znamke je dodana vrednost v očeh porabnikov, ki je soustvarjeno skupaj s porabniki na podlagi razvijajočih se odnosov med porabniki in blagovno znamko.”

Na podlagi ugotovljenih sprememb v okolju predlagam nov model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, ki poleg tradicionalnih elementov premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, kot so zavedanje znamke, podoba znamke, zaznana kakovost in zvestoba blagovni znamki, vsebuje tudi nov element, odnos z blagovno znamko. Osredotočim se na intimnost z blagovno znamko in medsebojno povezavo z blagovno znamko kot dvema dimenzijama odnosa z blagovno znamko.

V naslednjem poglavju se osredotočim na trženjsko komuniciranje, da bi odkrila, katera tradicionalna in nova trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja imajo največji vpliv na grajenje premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. Tudi na trženjsko komuniciranje gledam z dveh zornih kotov. Z vidika skrbnikov blagovnih znamk se osredotočim na trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja, ki jih imajo danes na voljo tržniki za komuniciranje s svojimi deležniki. Z vidika zunanjih deležnikov blagovnih znamk pa se osredotočim na proces zaznavanja različnih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij s strani porabnikov. Na podlagi ugotovitev se osredotočim na eno tradicionalno trženjsko-komunikacijsko orodje, in sicer na televizijsko oglaševanje, ter na drugi strani na novo trženjsko-komunikacijsko orodje, trženje od ust do ust. Pri trženju od ust do ust se osredotočim na spletno trženje od ust do ust, ki je tako v znanstveni kot strokovni literaturi v zadnjem desetletju poželo največ zanimanja.

V naslednjem podpoglavju preučim predhodno literaturo o vplivu izbranih orodij na premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. Na podlagi literature ugotovim, da so avtorji največ pozornosti namenili vplivu televizijskega oglaševanja na stališča do blagovne znamke in njegovemu vplivu na nakupno namero. Manjše število raziskav je namenjenih vplivu televizijskega oglaševanja na premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov, kjer se večina študij osredotoča na merjenje vpliva oglaševanja na splošno na premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. Izmed študij, ki vključujejo raziskavo vpliva televizijskega oglaševanja na premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov, avtorji Chattopadhyay et al. (2010) proučujejo tako vpliv zaznanega televizijskega oglaševanja kot oglaševanja v tiskanih medijih ter spletnega in mobilnega oglaševanja na premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov.

Avtorji se pri preučevanju spletnega trženja od ust do ust osredotočijo na tri različne vidike spletnega trženja od ust do ust, in sicer preučujejo motivacijo za uporabo spletnega trženja od ust do ust, lastnosti sporočil spletnega trženja od ust do ust ter spletno trženje od ust do ust kot rezultat predhodnih aktivnosti. Za potrebe ugotovitve vpliva spletnega trženja od ust do ust na premoženje blagovnih znamk se osredotočim na kakovost in verodostojnost spletnega trženja od ust do ust in na različne aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust, ki so iskanje, posredovanje in podajanje mnenj o blagovnih znamkah na spletu.

V zadnjih letih je objavljenih nekaj prispevkov, ki se ukvarjajo z vplivom spletnega trženja od ust do ust na elemente premoženja blagovnih znamk. Avtorji v študijah raziskujejo vpliv spletnega trženja od ust do ust na tradicionalne elemente premoženja blagovnih znamk (Srinivansan et al., 2002; Rezvani, Hoseini & Samadzadeh, 2012; Torlak et al., 2014) ali njegov vpliv na odnos z blagovno znamko (Kim & Ko, 2012; Lis & Horst, 2013). Kljub temu, nihče izmed avtorjev ne poveže vpliva spletnega trženja od ust do ust na vse predlagane elemente premoženja. Kim in Ko (2011) sicer preverjata različne oblike premoženja blagovnih znamk, med katerimi je tudi premoženje odnosov, vendar jima ne uspe dokazati, da premoženje odnosov vpliva na premoženje porabnikov.

Pregledu literature sledi opredelitev uporabljene metodologije. V doktorski disertaciji kombiniram dva metodološka pristopa, in sicer kvalitativni in kvantitativni pristop. Pri kvalitativni eksploratorni raziskavi izvedem 12 globinskih intervjujev in 2 fokusni skupini. Globinske intervjuje izvedem s skrbniki blagovnih znamk, da bi ugotovila, ali se managiranje blagovnih znamk v praksi razlikuje glede na predpostavljeno teorijo. Poleg tega ugotavljam, katera trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja uporabljajo skrbniki blagovnih znamk pri komunikaciji s porabniki ter katera orodja navajajo kot najbolj primerna za grajenje znamk v današnjem okolju. Na drugi strani z izvedbo fokusnih skupin pridobim vpogled v to, kako porabniki zaznavajo različna trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja, kako jih uporabljajo in vrednotijo. Preverjam tudi, ali imajo porabniki z nekaterimi blagovnimi znamkami razvit poseben odnos.

Na podlagi rezultatov kvalitativne raziskave in pregleda teorije predlagam dva konceptualna modela, model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov ter model vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. Konceptualna modela mi bosta pomagala odgovoriti na vprašanje, ali je treba prilagoditi teorijo managementa blagovnih znamk zaradi novih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij. V disertaciji zato preverjam dva modela premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, tradicionalni in predlagani novi model. Tradicionalni model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov vsebuje tradicionalne elemente premoženja: zavedanje blagovne znamke, podobo blagovne znamke, zaznano kakovost ter zvestobo blagovni znamki. Predlagani novi model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov pa poleg tradicionalnih elementov premoženja vsebuje tudi nov element, odnos z blagovno znamko. Dalje predlagam tudi dva konceptualna modela vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovnih znamk. Najprej se osredotočim na model vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na tradicionalni model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, nato pa na model vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na predlagani novi model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. Razlika med modeloma je v vključitvi novega elementa, odnosa z znamko, v novi model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. V predlaganih modelih vpliva so zaznana vložena sredstva v televizijsko oglaševanje ter zaznano spletno trženje od ust do ust predlagana kot predhodnika elementov premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. Na podlagi konceptualnih modelov in teorije oblikujem hipoteze in merske lestvice posameznih konstruktov, ki jih nato raziščem z uporabo kvantitativne raziskave.

Da bi oblikovala jasne smernice in zanesljiv merski instrument, v raziskavo vključim dva tipa blagovnih znamk, in sicer znamke izdelkov in znamke storitev. Ker se izdelki močno razlikujejo med seboj glede na trajanje, v raziskavo vključim dva tipa znamk izdelkov, in sicer znamke trajnih izdelkov ter znamke netrajnih izdelkov. Poleg tega pri vključitvi znamk v raziskavo upoštevam še dodatna merila. Vse znamke so prisotne v vseh izbranih državah. Njihov tržni delež se v izbranih državah razlikuje, prav tako se razlikuje tudi vpletenost porabnikov v nakupni proces. Vse proučevane znamke so dovolj močne, da so uvrščene na lestvico Interbrand, ki meri premoženje blagovnih znamk v mednarodnem okolju. Poleg tega izbrane znamke uporabljajo različna trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja, med njimi tudi televizijsko oglaševanje in spletno trženje od ust do ust na mednarodni ravni. Glede na predstavljena merila izberem naslednje blagovne znamke: znamke netrajnih izdelkov (Coca Cola in Pepsi), znamke trajnih izdelkov (BMW in Volkswagen) in znamke storitev (VISA in American Express). Pri preverjanju rezultatov raziskave se ne osredotočim na posamezne blagovne znamke, saj je cilj raziskave v analizi konstruktov in odnosov med spremenljivkami in ne v analiziranju premoženja posameznih blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov na različnih trgih. Tak pristop je v zadnjem času uporabilo več znanstvenikov s področja trženja (Yoo, Donthu & Lee, 2000; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Buil et al., 2013).

Na tej podlagi izvedem kvantitativno raziskavo v treh evropskih državah. Izbrane države, Velika Britanija, Slovenija in Bosna in Hercegovina, se med seboj razlikujejo glede na dostopnost in uporabo interneta v gospodinjstvih. Raziskava je izvedena na podlagi spletnega panela prek slovenske trženjsko-raziskovalne agencije v Sloveniji in v Bosni in Hercegovini. Njihova partnerska trženjsko-raziskovalna agencija izvede raziskavo v Veliki Britaniji. V raziskavo so povabljeni respondenti, stari od 18 do 65 let. Reprezentativnost je zagotovljena s kvotnim vzorčenjem. Vzorec je uravnotežen po spolu in starosti in zato odraža sestavo splošne populacije vseh treh držav. Poleg tega je vzorec uravnotežen glede na dodeljeno blagovno znamko. Skupaj prejmem 976 izpolnjenih vprašalnikov iz vseh treh držav (341 iz Velike Britanije, 321 iz Slovenije in 314 iz Bosne in Hercegovine).

Pred testiranjem predlaganih modelov na začetku analiziram podatke po univariatnih in bivariatnih statističnih metodah. Najprej predstavim značilnosti anketirancev glede na spol, starost, izobrazbo, zaposlitveni status, tip naselja, od koder prihajajo, število članov gospodinjstva in dohodek gospodinjstva. V drugem delu se osredotočim na njihovo uporabo in poznavanje interneta in različnih orodij ter tudi na poznavanje mobilnega oglaševanja. Na podlagi opisnih statistik ugotovim, da obstajajo razlike v uporabi tako interneta kot mobilnega telefona med respondenti posameznih držav. Respondenti iz Velike Britanije uporabljajo internet bolj pogosto in z več nameni kot respondenti iz Slovenije. Najnižja stopnja uporabe interneta je zaznana med respondenti iz Bosne in Herzegovine. Podobno je z uporabo mobilnega telefona, kjer so po uporabi pametnih telefonov in interneta na mobilnikih prvi britanski, sledijo jim slovenski in na koncu bosanski respondenti.

Nato preverim vpletenost respondentov v kategorijo izdelkov ali storitev dodeljene blagovne znamke, njihove predhodne izkušnje z blagovno znamko in uporabo. Na podlagi opisnih statistik ugotovim, da so slovenski in bosanski respondenti bolj vpleteni v produktno ali storitveno kategorijo. V splošnem je v vzorec vključenih okoli 50 odstotkov sedanjih ali preteklih uporabnikov dodeljenih znamk. Največ uporabnikov je med respondenti iz Velike Britanije (56,6 %), najmanj pa med respondenti iz Slovenije (44,0 %). Le 20,8 odstotka respondentov iz Velike Britanije nima predhodnih izkušenj z dodeljeno blagovno znamko.

Nato sledi preverjanje posameznih elementov premoženja znamke, stališč do oglaševanja na splošno, zaznavanja vloženih sredstev v televizijsko oglaševanje ter zaznano kvaliteto in aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust. Respondenti iz vseh treh držav se močno zavedajo dodeljenih blagovnih znamk, poleg tega imajo visoko podobo o blagovnih znamkah. Respondenti zaznavajo znamke kot visoko kakovostne, kljub temu pa se v večini ne strinjajo, da so dodeljenim znamkam zvesti. Poleg tega se ne strinjajo, da imajo z znamko odnos, zato poudarjajo, da se ne počutijo povezani in intimni z znamko. Na drugi strani ugotavljam, da so stališča do oglaševanja na splošno v vseh treh državah pozitivna. Najvišje strinjanje z vrednostjo oglaševanja zaznam na bosanskem vzorcu. Glede zaznanih vloženih sredstev v televizijsko oglaševanje so respondenti v povprečju nevtralni. Kljub temu med bosanskimi respondenti zaznam rahlo strinjanje, da blagovna znamka vloži veliko sredstev v televizijsko oglaševanje v primerjavi s konkurenti. Respondenti iz vseh držav pokažejo nevtralno mnenje o verodostojnosti in kakovosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust za dodeljeno blagovno znamko. S trditvami o aktivnostih spletnega trženja od ust do ust, in sicer glede iskanja, posredovanja in podajanja mnenj o blagovnih znamkah na internetu, se respondenti iz vseh treh držav s trditvami ne strinjajo.

Pred končnim testiranjem konceptualnega modela izvedem še eksploratorno faktorsko analizo za vse izbrane konstrukte. Kljub pričakovanjem, da bo vsak element premoženja blagovne znamke samostojen konstrukt, faktorska analiza pokaže, da je smiselno združiti elementa zavedanja blagovne znamke in podobe blagovne znamke v en konstrukt. Poleg tega faktorska analiza pokaže potrebno združitev posameznih dimenzij odnosa z znamko v konstrukt odnos z znamko. Tradicionalni model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnika tako vsebuje naslednje dimenzije: zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke, zaznano kakovost ter zvestobo blagovni znamki. Novi predlagani model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnika vsebuje še dodatni element, odnos z blagovno znamko.

Na podlagi rezultatov ekploratorne faktorske analize združim vse konstrukte pozitivnih stališč do oglaševanja na splošno v en konstrukt, ki ga poimenujem vrednost oglaševanja na splošno. Razlika nastane samo na bosanskem vzorcu, kjer se pokaže kot samostojna dimenzija verodostojnost oglaševanja na splošno. Negativne trditve, ki prikazujejo iritacijo do oglaševanja na splošno pa združim v konstrukt, irritacija do oglaševanja. Faktorska analiza tudi pokaže, da sta kakovost in verodostojnost spletnega trženja od ust do ust en konstrukt, zato ju združim v kakovost spletnega trženja od ust do ust. Vse tri aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust so prav enoten konstrukt, razen na slovenskem vzorcu, kjer se na podlagi faktorske analize izoblikujeta dva konstrukta, in sicer iskanje spletnega trženja od ust do ust ter aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust. Faktorska analiza je pomemben korak pri analizi faktorjev tako elementov premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov kot stališč do oglaševanja na splošno, kakovosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust ter aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust.

Sledi preverjanje konceptualnega modela z uporabo modeliranja z linearnimi strukturnimi enačbami. Najprej preverim merske modele, kjer so predstavljene povezave med latentnimi spremenljivkami in njihovimi indikatorji. Kasneje preverim še strukturne modele, kjer so opredeljene povezave med latentnimi spremenljivkami. Najprej se osredotočim na predlagana konceptualna modela premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov na vzorcih vseh treh držav in tudi na skupnem združenem vzorcu.

Tradicionalni model premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov je analiziran dvakrat, in sicer na celotnem vzorcu posamezne države in kasneje tudi na vzorcu porabnikov blagovne znamke. Indeksi prileganja pokažejo, da se merski model dobro prilega podatkom na obeh vzorcih (na celotnem in na vzorcu porabnikov blagovne znamke) v vseh državah. Vsi konstrukti presežejo želene vrednosti glede zanesljivosti merjenja in povprečne pojasnjene variance. V naslednjem koraku preverim strukturni model, za katerega indeksi prileganja na obeh vzorcih v vseh državah prav tako pokažejo, da se dobro prilegajo podatkom. V model so vključene tri eksogene spremenljivke: zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke, zaznana kakovost in zvestoba blagovni znamki. Endogena spremenljivka premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov predstavlja element drugega reda. S strukturnim modelom lahko potrdim vse predpostavljene hipoteze, ki se navezujejo na smiselnost vključitve posameznih elementov blagovne znamke v model premoženja. Zaznana kakovost je najpomembnejši element v tradicionalnem modelu premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov tako na celotnem vzorcu, kot na vzorcu porabnikov blagovne znamke. Edina izjema je slovenski vzorec porabnikov, kjer se kot najpomembnejši element pokaže zvestoba blagovni znamki.

Enak postopek ponovim tudi na novem modelu premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. V model je dodan nov element, odnos z blagovno znamko. Indeksi prileganja pokažejo, da se merski model dobro prilega podatkom. Vsi konstrukti presežejo želene vrednosti glede zanesljivosti merjenja in povprečne pojasnjene variance. Nato preverim še strukturni model. V model so vključene štiri eksogene spremenljivke: zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke, zaznana kakovost, zvestoba blagovni znamki in odnos z blagovno znamko ter endogena spremenljivka premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, ki je element drugega reda. Indeksi prileganja pokažejo, da se strukturni model prav tako dobro prilega podatkom. S strukturnim modelom lahko potrdim vse predpostavljene hipoteze novega modela premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, ki potrjujejo vključitev odnosa z znamko v model. V novem modelu premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov v vseh državah kot najpomembnejši element pokaže zvestoba znamki. Po pomembnosti zvestobi sledi odnos z znamko na slovenskem in bosanskem vzorcu, medtem, ko na britanskem vzorcu kot drugi najpomembnejši element premoženja ostaja zaznana kakovost.

Potem preverim še modela vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na tradicionalni in novi model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. Oba modela sta testirana na vzorcu porabnikov znamke iz vseh treh držav ter na skupnem združenem vzorcu. Najprej preverim model vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na tradicionalni model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. Indeksi prileganja pokažejo, da se merski model dobro prilega podatkom v vseh treh državah. Vsi konstrukti presežejo želene vrednosti zanesljivosti merjenja in povprečne pojasnjene variance. Nato preverim še strukturni model. V strukturni model so vključene tri eksogene spremenljivke: zaznana vložena sredstva v televizijsko oglaševanje, kakovost spletnega trženja od ust do ust ter aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust ter tri endogene spremenljivke: zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke, zaznana kakovost in zvestoba blagovni znamki. Predpostavljena je hierarhija odnosov med elementi premoženja blagovne znamke.

S strukturnim modelom lahko potrdim vse predpostavljene hipoteze, ki se navezujejo na elemente premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov na vseh vzorcih. Na podlagi strukturnega modela lahko zaključim, da je vpliv izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov različen. Rezultati raziskave pokažejo, da zaznana vložena sredstva v televizijsko oglaševanje povečujejo zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke. Potrjen je tudi njihov vpliv na zvestobo znamki, vendar samo na združenem vzorcu porabnikov. Kakovost spletnega trženja od ust do ust ima pozitiven vpliv na zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke ter na zaznano kakovost. Edina izjema je vpliv kakovosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust na zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke na vzorcu porabnikov iz Bosne in Hercegovine. Po drugi strani imajo aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust pozitiven vpliv le na zvestobo blagovni znamki. Vpliv aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust na zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke ter na zaznano kakovost je v nasprotju s pričakovanji negativen. Rezultati nakazujejo, da je potrebna velika previdnost pri spodbujanju aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust, saj ima tako pozitivne kot negativne vplive na elemente premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov.

Zatem preverim še model vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na novi model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. Edina razlika med predhodnim in novim strukturnim modelom je v vključitvi dodatne endogene spremenljivke, odnosa z blagovno znamko. Indeksi prileganja pokažejo, da se merski model dobro prilega podatkom v vseh državah in konstrukti presežejo želene vrednosti zanesljivosti merjenja in povprečne pojasnjene variance, zato preverim še strukturni model. Z njim lahko potrdim vse predpostavljene hipoteze, ki se navezujejo na elemente premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov na vseh vzorcih, kar potrjuje vključitev dodatnega elementa odnosa z znamko v model. Na podlagi strukturnega modela prav tako lahko ugotovim, da je vpliv izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov različen. Zaznana vložena sredstva v televizijsko oglaševanje povečujejo zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke. Vpliv zaznanih vloženih sredstev na druge elemente premoženja blagovne znamke ni potrjen, razen na zvestobo znamki na združenem vzorcu. Na drugi strani novo trženjsko-komunikacijsko orodje, spletno trženje od ust do ust, premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov gradi drugače. Kakovost spletnega trženja od ust do ust ima pozitiven vpliv na zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke ter na zaznano kakovost. Izjema je vpliv kakovosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust na zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke na vzorcu porabnikov iz Bosne in Hercegovine. Vpliv kakovosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust je največji na zaznano kakovost. Nasprotno imajo aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust značilen vpliv na zvestobo znamki ter na odnos z znamko, kar je potrjeno na vzorcih vseh držav. Vpliv aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust je največji na odnos z blagovno znamko. Kljub temu rezultati pokažejo, da imajo aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust negativen, a statistično neznačilen vpliv na zavedanje s podobo blagovne znamke v vseh državah. Negativen, a statistično neznačilen vpliv aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust na zaznano kakovost je viden na britanskem vzorcu.

Ugotovitve raziskave nakazujejo, da je televizijsko oglaševanje pomembno orodje pri grajenju zavedanja s podobo blagovne znamke na vseh trgih. Nasprotno rezultati raziskave pokažejo, da aktivnosti in kakovost spletnega trženja od ust do ust gradijo znamke drugače. Nova trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja vplivajo ne le na tradicionalne elemente premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov, ampak tudi na predlagani novi element, odnos z znamko. Kakovost spletnega trženja od ust do ust najbolj vpliva na zaznano kakovost znamke. Na drugi strani aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust vplivajo tako na zvestobo, kot na odnos z znamko na vseh trgih. Nasprotno od pričakovanj pa je vpliv aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust na zavedanje s podobo znamke negativen. Glede na to, da je v znanosti in v praksi v zadnjem desetletju poudarek predvsem na odnosih z znamko, rezultati nakazujejo, da bi bilo treba graditi na aktivnostih spletnega trženja od ust do ust, saj imajo največji vpliv na odnos z znamko. Kljub temu pa je pri spodbujanju aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust potrebna previdnost, saj je njihov vpliv tako na zavedanje s podobo znamke kot tudi na zaznano kakovost lahko tudi negativen, kar se kaže predvsem na trgu, kjer je stopnja uporabe interneta zelo visoka.

Ker lahko na podlagi ugotovitev sprejmem vse predlagane modele, se nato lotim preverjanja, kateri izmed predlaganim modelov je boljši. Avtorji predlagajo preverjanje modelov z indeksom prečnega preverjanja. Prečnega preverjanja se lotim s postopkom dvojnega prečnega preverjanja. Model, ki ima v obeh ponovitvah nižji indeks prečnega preverjanja naj bi bil boljši (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Rezultati primerjave tradicionalnega in novega modela premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov pokažejo, da naj bi bil boljši tradicionalni model. Potem se lotim še primerjave modelov vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na predlagana tradicionalni in novi model premoženja blagovne znamke. Na podlagi indeksa prečnega preverjanja ne morem ugotoviti kateri model je boljši, zato sprejmem oba predlagana modela vpliva. Glede na to, da z dodajanjem novih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij v model premoženja ugotovim, da imajo nova orodja drugačen vpliv na premoženje blagovne znamke, kljub vsemu predlagam sprejetje novega modela vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov.

Rezultati raziskave pokažejo, da je treba razmisliti o vključitvi novega elementa, odnosa z blagovno znamko, v merjenje premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. Odnos z blagovno znamko je potrjen kot pomemben element predlaganega novega modela premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov. S predlaganim modelom vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na nov model premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov pokažem, da je vpliv novih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov drugačen od vpliva tradicionalnega trženjsko-komunikacijskega orodja, televizijskega oglaševanja. Rezultati raziskave potrdijo, da se odnos z blagovno znamko gradi z novim orodjem, aktivnostmi spletnega trženja od ust do ust. Na podlagi ugotovitev predlagam, da je treba razmisliti o vključitvi novega elementa, odnosa z blagovno znamko v model premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov.

Ključne ugotovitve doktorske disertacije temeljijo na spoznanju, da je treba na podlagi sprememb v okolju v merjenje premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov dodati novo mero, odnos z znamko. Naslednja pomembna ugotovitev disertacije je dokaz, da tradicionalna in nova orodja trženjskega komuniciranja različno vplivajo na elemente premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. Brez vključitve dodatnega elementa premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov, odnosa z blagovno znamko, ne moremo ugotoviti celotnega vpliva, ki ga imajo na premoženje blagovnih znamk aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust. Eden izmed pomembnih prispevkov disertacije je tudi ugotovitev, da sta zvestoba znamki in odnos z blagovno znamko dva ločena konstrukta, kar je bilo potrjeno na vseh treh vzorcih. Poleg tega v doktorski disertaciji predlagam novo definicijo blagovne znamke in nov proces managementa identitete znamke, skupaj z novim modelom identitete znamke, kar obsega tri pomembne prispevke disertacije.

Metodološki prispevek disertacije je prilagoditev merskih lestvic aktivnosti spletnega trženja od ust do ust blagovnim znamkam na internetu na splošno. Poleg tega prispevam k razvoju lestvic za novi model premoženja blagovne znamke ter model vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na tradicionalni in novi model premoženja znamke. Pomemben metodološki prispevek disertacije je tudi primerjava predlaganih konceptualnih modelov. V disertaciji primerjam tradicionalni in novi model premoženja znamke v očeh porabnikov. Prav tako primerjam modela vpliva izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na tradicionalni in novi model premoženja blagovnih znamk v očeh porabnikov. Modeliranje s strukturnimi enačbami je potrjeno kot ustrezno orodje za preverjanje vseh štirih predlaganih konceptualnih modelov na vseh treh izbranih vzorcih držav, kar štejem tudi k metodološkemu prispevku disertacije.

Tako teoretični kot empirični prispevki doktorske disertacije lahko pomagajo skrbnikom blagovnih znamk na štirih glavnih področjih. S predlaganim procesom managementa identitete znamke pomagam skrbnikom znamk pri opredelitvi korakov pri gradnji močnih blagovnih znamk v današnjem spreminjajočem se okolju. Skrbnikom blagovnih znamk predstavim tudi orodje za merjenje premoženja njihovih znamk v očeh porabnikov. Predlagam tudi, da se v merjenje premoženja blagovne znamke v očeh porabnikov vključi nov element, odnos z blagovno znamko. Skrbnikom blagovnih znamk predstavim orodje za merjenje zaznav izbranih trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij, tako televizijskega oglaševanja kot različnih orodij spletnega trženja od ust do ust. Ne nazadnje, na podlagi ugotovitev skrbnikom blagovnih znamk pokažem smernice, katera trženjsko-komunikacijska orodja so najbolj učinkovita za doseganje različnih komunikacijskih ciljev.

V povezavi z disertacijo obstajajo tudi omejitve, ki pa na drugi strani odpirajo nove možnosti za raziskave v prihodnosti. Omejitve, povezane s kvalitativno raziskavo, se nanašajo na vključitev skrbnikov znamk v globinske intervjuje. Nekateri avtorji zagovarjajo, da skrbnikom blagovnih znamk primanjkuje dolgoročne vizije, ki jo je mogoče pridobiti le s svetovalci s področja blagovnih znamk. Prav tako bi bilo treba povečati število globinskih intervjujev, kjer avtorji predlagajo vsaj 20 intervjujev. Poleg tega sta bili izvedeni samo dve fokusni skupini, medtem ko avtorji priporočajo izvedbo večjega števila fokusnih skupin. Omejitve se nanašajo tudi na izbor držav. V prihodnje predlagam vključitev tudi neevropskih držav v raziskavo, ker bi to prineslo nova dognanja o vplivu trženjsko-komunikacijskih orodij na premoženje blagovnih znamk in o vključitvi predlaganih elementov premoženja. Med omejitve štejem tudi čas izvedbe raziskave v letu 2012. Predlagam, da se izvede podobno raziskavo ter primerja rezultate s predstavljenimi ugotovitvami raziskave. Predlagam tudi nadaljnji razvoj merskih lestvic za element podobe blagovne znamke, saj se podoba blagovne znamke ni pokazala kot samostojen konstrukt.