



Title : A comparative and exploratory study of motor oil branding in Nigeria and the UK

Name : Shehu Mohammed Jallo

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**A COMPARATIVE AND EXPLORATORY STUDY OF
MOTOR OIL BRANDING IN NIGERIA AND THE UK**

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PhD

**November 2015
University of Bedfordshire**

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MOTOR OIL BRANDING IN NIGERIA AND THE UK**

By

Shehu Mohammed Jallo

PhD

**A thesis submitted to the University of Bedfordshire, in partial
fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy**

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Abstract

The importance of branding in the consumer market has been emphasised in many studies. In contrast, branding in the industrial markets is under researched. Even so, few researches on motor oil have been conducted. Motor oil is a good example of an important industrial brand due to its use in the production of other goods. Thus, by studying branded motor oil products in two distinct economies, Nigeria and the UK, the thesis aims to understand the nature and extent of branding industrial products, based on comparing and contrasting aspects of motor oil branding in the two contrasting economies. The choice of comparing the two economies is significant bearing in mind that global brands operate globally, hence the need for a more appropriate global strategic orientation.

The dearth of studies in this area supports the rationale for the use of grounded theory as research strategy. To fill this gap, the study employed a multi methods research approach by employing the use of exploratory qualitative approach. The thesis utilised a longitudinal archival study to gain insight of motor oil branding. Participant observations in the supply chain of the two countries allowed gaining understanding of motor oil branding. Interviews and documents contributed to knowledge to allow triangulation of the findings. The findings suggest that a collection of branding strategies are done by focusing on inter firm relationships, purchase behaviour, effective distribution and various supporting services in the aftermarket. The thesis reveals motor oil functions between the consumer and the business markets with several branding strategies to attract awareness and differentiation.

Additionally, the thesis develops a model of the branding strategies of low involvement, branded motor oil products. The model shows various branding strategies through the middlemen to the two markets (i.e. garages (B2B) and retail (B2C)). This research contributes to the literature by identifying the branding behaviour of a hybrid brand from the supply chain perspectives, showing an inter link of branding in both markets. The research further extends understanding of market behaviour of low involvement, business brands. The study further contributes to literature by understanding the effect of foreign brands operating in

developing economies like Nigeria. In practice, the findings offer improvement of branding strategy especially with global brands that cross borders to operate in different economies.

Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment for the award of degree of Doctor of Philosophy, at the University of Bedfordshire. I also declare that the study has not been submitted for another degree or examination in any other University.

.....

Name of Student

.....

Date

.....

Signature

Dedication

In memory of my father

Malam Mohammed Jallo

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All thanks and praise is to God for allowing me to reach thus far in life and quest for knowledge.

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1. Exploring the Brand Value of Business Brands: Insights from the Motor Oil Supply Chain. - with Dr Rosemary Burnley and Dr Maria Rita Massaro

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2. Brand Positioning in Emerging Markets: A Perspective on Global Industrial Branding. - with Dr Rosemary Burnley and Dr Maria Rita Massaro

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1. Integrating Communication Channels to Create Brand Awareness: Empirical Evidence from Morris Lubricants. - with Dr Rosemary Burnley and Dr Maria Rita Massaro

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2. Typology of Motor Oil Brands and Brand Equity Effects in a Multi-Channel Market. - With Dr Rosemary Burnley and Dr Maria Rita Massaro

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3. The DIY Concept and the Motorists Choice: Insights from Emerging Markets. - With Dr Rosemary Burnley and Dr Maria Rita Massaro

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4. The Influence of Ingredient Branding on Brand Alliance in Emerging Markets. - With Dr Rosemary Burnley and Dr Maria Rita Massaro

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List of abbreviations

B2B	Business to Business
B2C	Business to Consumer
LIP	Low Involvement Products
%	Percentage
£	The UK pound
AMA	American Marketing Association
UK	United Kingdom
OEM	Original Equipment Manufacturer
DIY	Do It Yourself
DIFM	Do It for Me
BIY	Buy It Yourself
POS	Point of Sale
POP	Point of Purchase
EDLP	Everyday Low Price
HILO	Promotion Price Store
GDP	Gross Domestic Products
GT	Grounded Theory
VON	Volkswagen of Nigeria
AFL	Australian Football League
ONS	Office for National Statistics
PPP	Purchase Power parity
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
OPEC	Organisations of petroleum exporting countries
Bpd	Barrels per day
HAT	History of Advertising Trust
GM	General Motors
SKU	Stock keeping Units
UPP	Unplanned Purchase
RO	Research Objective

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

This thesis sought to understand the nature of industrial branding with a focus on motor oil, by looking at two distinct economies: Nigeria and the UK. Thus, this chapter introduces the research, highlights the study aim, problems that arose, research objectives, scope and assumptions. The chapter is thus structured as follows:

- Research background (1.1)
- The research aim and objectives (1.2)
- The rationale and significance of the research (1.3)
- The thesis structure (1.4)
- Conclusion (1.5)

1.1 Research Background

Branding efforts have been developed by manufacturers of consumer goods to satisfy consumers (Webster and Keller, 2004; Mukherjee and Shivani, 2011). Consequently, the role of branding in the business-to-business (B2B) market is similar to that of the consumer (B2C) market. Business brands are by no means playing a prominent role in customer satisfaction (Mukherjee and Shivani, 2011). Moreover, studies seem to suggest that the buying behaviour in the B2B market is more complex with informed consumers, emphasising on features like product quality, performance, service, delivery and price (Shipley and Howard, 1993). Furthermore, successful brands are built around distinctive added values to distinguish them from competing products (de Chernatony et al. 2011). Therefore, in contrast to the consumer market, in business markets a strong brand often represents the company name, while the market is distinguished by the buyers, not the products (Webster and Keller, 2004).

By recognising this phenomenon, brand owners attempt to standardise products from commodities while taking into cognisance technological changes that may likely play a part in influencing purchase behaviour. Furthermore, the importance

of this product category has led to intense competition resulting in an increase in marketing efforts towards brand improvements and development for customer satisfaction. Motor oil is a good example of an important industrial product due to its use in production of other goods (Mudambi, 1998). While there appears to be no studies of branding conducted in this sector, there is anecdotal evidence that suggests branding is extensively managed in developed markets with its long existence and competition with leading brands, including Castrol, Duckhams and Repsol, showing evidence of strong brand management.

While some appear to be hybrid brands, B2B and B2C perform different functions in different markets. Evidence also suggests they are examples of low involvement products (LIP), which, due to their unimportance to the consumer's lifestyle, are parity products with little purchase plan and effort (Ahmed et al. 2004). Items such as coffee, toilet paper, toothpaste, soaps and shoe polish in B2C, and precision bearings, wood products and software products (i.e. Oracle CRM, Microsoft dynamics) in the B2B brands, are good examples of low involvement products.

Extensive reviews of literature suggest that branding had been conducted in many areas of the B2C and B2B (Mudambi et al. 1997; Mudambi, 2002; Bendixen et al., 2004; Lynch and de Chernatony, 2004; Beverland et al. 2007). Similarly, several studies on low involvement products were conducted (Kassarjian, 1981; Ahmed et al. 2004; and Saffu and Scott, 2009). However, few studies on motor oil have been conducted. This is unexpected, considering the importance of the auto industry in the global economy coupled with large numbers of car ownership across the globe, along with huge interest in car sporting events and that motor oil branded artefacts are increasingly becoming collectors' pieces.

Similarly, despite the lack of reliable figures for annual consumption, there seems to be an increasing demand for quality and branded products, due to the growth of modern engines, allowing for the production of immense power resulting in specification for specialised lubricants by car manufacturers (Ehsani et al. 2010; The Economist, 2013). This need for specialised motor oil could mean higher

retail price; however, the ability for longer drain intervals and fuel economy offers a viable option.

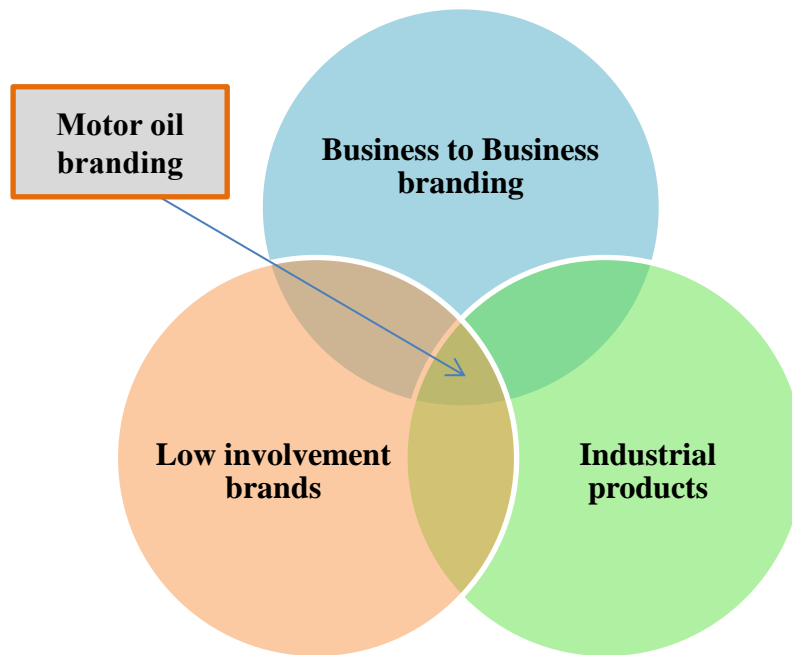


Figure 1.1 Research gap

Regardless of the global importance of the auto industry which is interconnected with motor oil and with little known about low involvement brands in the B2B and B2C sectors, knowledge of B2B branding that relates to branded low involvement motor oil products is limited. Hence, this study aimed to fill the research gap by focusing on branded motor oil products that offer market differentiation to allow understanding of the branding nature of motor oil in Nigeria and the UK using an exploratory study (see Figure 1.1). Against this background, the next section discusses connecting areas relevant to the study.

1.1.1 The Business Markets

The modern economy is surrounded by purchases made in the consumer markets. However, amidst these transactions lay the business transactions where a link between the manufacturer and the business channel takes place. Business-to-business markets are characterised by realising that the organisation is the customer rather than individuals (Brennan et al. 2014). Hence, B2B marketing

involves dealings with organisations to provide products and services which is, in turn, processed to final consumers (de Chernatony et al. 2011). However, the nature of the product does not serve as a distinguishing factor in the markets because some brands are purchased by both consumers and businesses. For example, products such as pencils, staplers and paints are bought for different purposes. Some purchases are for personal use and are in small quantities, while those in larger quantities are generally for business use.

A comprehensive literature review suggests apparent differences between the business and consumer markets which lie on the structure of the market and buying behaviour. According to Brennan et al. (2014), differentiating the markets can be built on situations, such as the frequent use of promotion tools like personal selling in the business market, while advertising in the consumer market may be misleading. The concentration of brand demand in the hands of few buyers in the market structure warrants adopting personal selling, whereas this will not be the right approach in the consumer market where individuals lack buying power. However, this does not mean that both promotional techniques cannot be used in ways that suit the market. For instance, to influence particular brand awareness or to generate demand in the market, adverts can be tailored towards business buyers. For example, the use of Intel microprocessors in computers is advertised to the public in order to generate awareness and create demand, yet consumer confidence of the brand is generated in both the consumer and the business market.

This then shows that manufacturers who have the notion that brands in B2B markets are more of a commodity with no clear distinction are ignoring a powerful promotion tool. Studies on the importance of branding in business markets note key areas, such as brand name, quality, image, differentiation and market leadership as important factors in brand building (Michell et al. 2001).

Table 1.1: Differences between consumer and business markets

Dimension	Business markets	Consumer markets
Nature of demand	Derived demand	Direct demand
Nature of customers	Greater heterogeneity	Greater homogeneity
Market size	Larger overall value	Small overall value
Number of buyers	Few	Many
Size of buyer/seller	Similar	Seller much larger
Buying influence	Several	Few
Buying process complexity	Complex	Simple
Buyer seller interdependence	High	Low
Importance of relationships	Important	Unimportant
Interactivity	High	Low
Selling process	System selling	Product selling
Personal selling	High	Limited
Promotion	Limited, customer specific	Mass market
Web integration	High	Limited
Branding	Limited	Extensive, sophisticated
Competitor awareness	Low	High

Source: Brennan et al. (2014)

Several attempts were offered to differentiate the business markets and consumer markets. For instance, Board (1954); Fern and Brown (1984); Gross et al. (1993); and Brennan et al. (2014) summarised the differences as product characteristics, nature of buyers and markets, operational or organisational set up, marketing management and environmental influences. Therefore, to demonstrate the differences between the business and consumer markets, this study will use the evaluation criteria created by Brennan et al. (2014). The dichotomy denotes differences in the market structure, buying behaviour and marketing practices. Furthermore, Brennan (2012) offered business marketing to be more of relationships, whereas consumer marketing is concerned with transactions. Accordingly, Table 1.1 offers a wide range - but not exhaustive list - of differences.

Moreover, situations where businesses buy goods to facilitate production of other goods and services it appears to be derived demand which is more inclined to the business market. In contrast, consumer markets characterised by purchase of goods or services, is regarded as direct demand. Based on this, buyers in the organisation purchase are more rational, with final decisions influenced by emotional considerations as opposed to those in the consumer purchase. Furthermore, in the business purchase process, many individuals are involved in drawing different department managers in the decision making process to determine the best choice. This contrasts with purchase decisions in the consumer markets where individuals make the purchase decision.

Similarly, buyer-seller interdependence is high in business markets where relationships are established between the supplier and buyer to determine the best choice for the organisation. However, the consumer market has low buyer-seller interdependence, due mainly to the diversity of the market. Similarly, business markets involve a higher use of personal selling than in the consumer markets where consumers can be reached over different platforms, such as promotions and advertisements. The above points suggest that certain differences do exist between business and consumer markets. Therefore, this study intended to understand the branding strategies of a low involvement, business brand within the context of motor oil.

Apart from studies on differences between the two markets, few studies have been carried out on similarities between the business and consumer markets. For instance, Sheth (1979); Zaltman and Wallendorf (1979); and Fern and Brown (1984) found similarities between industrial and consumer markets with the adoption of mass media by business firms, including the use of price promotions, television advertisements and direct mail. Both markets gather alternative information, learn about product availability and determine alternatives to match perceived needs. Mudambi (2002) also noted that both markets influence buyer behaviour through building brand image and reputation which will enhance differentiation. Mudambi also suggested that self-expressive benefits by association with top companies and the offer of intangible features is identified in

both markets. Moreover, Sheth (1974) identified similarities between the two markets in customers gathering information on products prior to purchase.

1.1.2 Industrial Products

Before delving into the literature on the various aspects of industrial branding, it is important to highlight key meanings to connecting terms. Manufacturers design their products in unique features to satisfy a target market where consumers can easily differentiate them among the various products displayed for purchase. Brands need to be differentiated from commodities by prospective consumers who seek to satisfy their need. Hence, products with cognitive, salient features that arouse passion and acceptance in the market not only in the short run but over the long term will influence brand performance.

According to Foxall et al. (1998) and Kotler and Armstrong (2010), a product is anything that attracts attention, use or acquisition leading to consumption in a market to satisfy a need or want. Similarly, Kotler and Keller (2006) defined a product as goods or services that can be offered to markets to satisfy a need or want. Blythe (2012), noted that a product is a collection of benefits. Furthermore, Kotler et al. (2008) stated that products are goods or services offered to a market that might satisfy a want or need. Consequently, although beyond the scope of this study, the same principles applicable to industrial products are applied to services.

Simply defining industrial brands based on the understanding of what really represents an industrial product can be problematic. The complex and dynamic nature of its characteristics makes it not as explicit as it seems. Thus, Kotler et al. (2008) and Blythe (2012), defined industrial products as goods purchased for further processing or for use in conducting another business. Likewise, Mudambi et al. (1997) defined industrial products as goods used in manufacturing that does not require marketing to the general public. Therefore, considering these definitions, the literature pointed out brands, such as light fittings, automotive repair services, Microsoft Windows software, Sellotape and staplers are regarded as industrial brands. However, with their multiple usages across both markets, they can be termed as consumer brands. Since they overlap, the strength of these

brands in the industrial market cannot be clearly understood without first considering their role in the consumer market.

Understanding the branding aspects of industrial products cannot be complete without understanding aspects of consumer products. The contention among marketers and brand owners is whether industrial brands have the capacity to change consumer perceptions and attitudes as in the consumer market. An industrial product is distinguished by its production process, costs, supplies, materials and services; they are usually marketed directly to industrial users. At this stage, service and price are the major determinants in sustaining customer loyalty and therefore the use of advertising and branding is of less importance (Kotler and Keller, 2006). Consequently, marketers have to be well trained in customer relations to assist, encourage and sustain customers.

Industrial products are grouped according to their cost or the role they play in the production process. The literature (Scheuing and Scheuing, 1989; Powers, 1991; Hutt and Speh, 2001; Brennan et al. 2014) suggests classifying them as product inputs, process inputs and foundation inputs. Table 1.2 shows the classification of industrial products.

Table 1.2: Industrial products classification

Differences	Classification		
Usage	Product inputs	Process inputs	Foundation inputs
Descriptors	Component parts, component materials, raw materials	Maintenance and repair, operating supplies	Factory and equipment, facilities
Cost	Direct material cost	Indirect material cost	Factory overheads/capital expenditure

Developed from Brennan et al. (2014)

Product inputs are goods used in the production of final products, such as component materials, component parts, raw materials, sub-assemblies, finished goods and semi-finished goods. These materials are not visible in the finished product but are always made known of their content for consumer knowledge. The users may be indifferent to the components or in other cases the user may be

particular on the input used to make the finished product as that will enhance its use.

Consequently, materials not included in the finished product are referred to as process inputs which stands for repair, operating supplies and maintenance; hence, they do not enter the finished products (Mudambi, 2002). Furthermore, Blythe (2012) termed them as commodity products due to their similarity with other commodities. Lubricants, office stationery and machine operation abrasives come into this category due to their usefulness in the production of other products. Foundation inputs are items of capital expenditure, such as factory equipment, facilities, installations and office accessories. Further examples of foundation inputs include office furniture, forklift trucks and central air conditioning systems. These relevant distinctions do not, however, reflect the everyday practice; the purchase intention of the buyer might also serve as an example of distinction. To a buyer, the same products regarded as process input can serve the role of product input.

In summary, motor oil is a commodity unless it is branded to offer values relative to making a competitive advantage. Although a B2B brand, they function within the B2C market by expressing attributes in several dimensions, such as advertising, sponsorship and sales promotion. Customers are constantly reminded of the brand qualities through promotional means, such as adverts used in print and electronic media, coupons, stickers and newsletters. Despite the vast study conducted on both consumer and industrial branding in various areas, motor oil branding has received limited attention in extant literature.

1.1.2 International Markets

Businesses seeking sales growth, market share or higher profit, perhaps due to saturation of domestic markets or competition extend their business into the international markets. According to Gross et al. (1993), foreign markets may appear to be less competitive, less saturated, with lower costs, more attractive and more likely of drawing local partners for promotion and distribution. Thus, company growth and survival can be encouraged by going into global business.

Furthermore, knowledge transfer to international markets can be an asset in building a competitive advantage to allow market expansion far beyond the domestic market, while having far greater customer reach. In addition, research has found international companies to pay higher wages and record lower insolvency than domestic ones (Lewis and Richardson, 2001). International companies in Nigeria, for example, pay higher wages and offer quality training than domestic companies, although criticism has been made for paying less, compared to standards of the developed economies (Pettinger, 2008).

The need to commute and travel on a daily basis by people across the world means the motor industry to be global. With production of over sixty million passenger cars, this by no means indicates its importance to the global economy. Considering also that motor oil has derived demand, is also global. Yet, despite the global reach of the motor industry, different countries are at different stages of development, which is reflected in the motoring sector. Also, a careful look at the brands listed in section 1.1 (P.2) suggests them to be global brands. This shows the importance of branding in international markets. Companies crossing borders therefore need to understand the domestic market in which it plans to function.

Often, businesses believe the markets to be the same. However, this often turns out to be a costly mistake, as this assumption almost always creates a negative perception of consumers' non acceptance and inefficiency, leading to brand failure. Hence, understanding the international marketing environment is essential to international marketers. Therefore, motor oil provides a good opportunity for understanding branding in the international market.

1.1.3 Low Involvement Brands

The consumer level of involvement is important in purchase decisions. Consumers differ in terms of their purchase decision, some can make quick decisions while others need to gather information about the brand and engage in the decision process. The importance a customer places on a brand and the information needed prior to purchase shows the level of involvement a customer attaches to a brand. Therefore, the literature offers different distinctions between

high and low involvement (Foxall et al. 1998). A high involvement situation entails active information seekers, who search for brands and also adopt complex decision approaches. According to Brisoux and Cheron (1990), high involvement consumers tend to have large brand awareness sets, constant trial, brand judgement and they also tend to be heavy users with high brand loyalty. Moreover, high involvement situations are concerned with the following attributes: self-expression, brand enthusiasts, luxury brands, hedonic and pleasure purchases and brands that are perceived to be important and a risky purchase.

In contrast, low involvement situations involve frequent purchases and consumers require little information prior to their purchase decision, as they do not influence the consumers' lifestyle, while purchase decision is regarded as insignificant. Accordingly, it has been demonstrated by Zaichkowsky (1987) that low involvement plays little part between brands that are constantly purchased while consumers seek little information on brand prior to purchase.

Subsequently, given the diversity of measurement techniques, the literature indicates inconsistency in involvement studies towards categorising high or low involvement. Where some researchers focused on product category involvement, others chose product purchasing involvement; hence, involvement can be regarded as a product or individual relationship. Therefore, brands such as Andrex, which fall within the toilet paper product category, may be regarded as a low involvement brand, often employing promotions like media adverts and sales promotions for brand awareness and acceptability. The brand may also be made available to consumers through a wide array of avenues for easy consumer reach.

Thus, according to Kumar (2011), motor oil can be commonly regarded as low involvement products, due to the little difference in the brand attributes, frequency of purchase, difficulty in promoting and the need for little consumer information in the purchase decision (Rosenbaum-Elliott et al. 2011). Hence, the importance of branding in this area cannot be ignored due to efforts at creating brand awareness to influence consumer choice. Since little is known of branding motor

oil, this study aimed to shed light on the different branding strategies used by brand owners across the supply chain.

Consequently, the use of terminology can offer conflicting meanings. The literature offers distinctions between ‘business-to-business’, ‘organisational’, and ‘industrial’, marketing (Powers, 1991 and Brennan et al. 2014) with varying points worthy of consideration. Brennan et al. (2014) offered a brief distinction between this terminology. Industrial marketing is more associated with primary and secondary industries, accounting for a small share in “modern economies”. Primary industries include the extractive industry and agriculture, while secondary industries involve manufacture of tangible products. Superseding industrial marketing is the term business-to-business (B2B) marketing, which is more synonymous with the marketing of goods and services to organisations. For the purpose of this research, the terms business-to-business, business markets and industrial marketing have been used interchangeably. Lastly, it is clear from the above presentation that few studies have been done on branding motor oil, hence this study aimed to bridge the gap by understanding low involvement branding in the area of motor oil.

1.2 Research Aim and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to understand the nature and extent of branding industrial products based on comparing and contrasting aspects of motor oil branding in two contrasting economies. The choice of motor oil is significant in that there is comparatively little known about branding of products where consumers have little emotional involvement in the purchase. Without prior studies on motor oil branding, and with very little known about low involvement products, this was an exploratory research.

To achieve this, the study focused on branded motor oil by looking at two distinct economies: the UK and Nigeria. This allowed the researcher to study the impact of mature global brands, such as Castrol, Mobil, Total and Petronas and compare these with the position of indigenous new brands in emerging economies. The choice of Nigeria and the UK again is significant, not just because of differences

in the status of their economic development, but because the first is a major exporter of oil, the second a consumer. Developed economies, such as in Western Europe and the UK in particular, have a growing car parc (number of vehicles in use) with increasing car ownership and rising B2B and B2C markets. Conversely, developing economies in the sub-Saharan Africa like Nigeria, which has a rich oil reserve and a growing population rate with disposable income, as well as having a substantial car parc, has the potential for growth of new vehicle ownership and a growing influx of modern cars. As a result, the following research question was put forward:

What is the branding strategy of low involvement motor oil brands in developed and developing economies?

In order to address the stated research question, the following research objectives were considered:

1. To further the understanding of branding low involvement motor oil products.
2. To identify the key parameters of motor oil branding.
3. To identify the difference in motor oil branding between Nigeria and the UK.
4. To develop a conceptual framework to explain and model branding of motor oil.
5. To set the agenda for future research.

1.3 Rationale and Significance of the Research

Considering the importance and functions of the automotive industry to every sector of the world from the developed to the developing economies, achieving the study's aim would be useful for academics and practitioners. Despite the huge studies on branding in both markets, studies on low involvement brands in the area of motor oil still lags behind, as stated in Section 1.1 above. Thus, the research problem for this study was addressed (see Section 1.2), contributing to understanding the branding nature of industrial brands by focusing on branded motor oil products. Early studies on importance of branding in industrial markets

suggested that branding plays an important role in differentiation in the business market specifically and the broader markets in general (Mudambi et al. 1997; Mudambi, 1998; Leek and Christodoulides, 2011). The literature review in chapter two suggests the growing importance of branding in industrial markets. However, this study is significant in that it offers understanding of an industrial brand with a hybrid nature functioning in the business and consumer markets.

Indeed, these research findings demonstrate the importance branding plays to business brands while setting the agenda for future research. Moreover, the study will allow future researchers to empirically test the generalisability of the branding model developed in other product categories. The research contributes towards knowledge in order to offer further understanding of industrial branding, especially in the area of motor oil brands that seem to function in the business and consumer markets. Finally, this study also contributes towards practice by improving effectiveness of branding practice. For the purpose of this study, the terms ‘branding process’ and ‘branding strategy’ is used interchangeably.

1.3 Contents and Structure of the Thesis

Understanding the nature of business-to-business branding can be quite difficult, especially as few studies had been conducted in the area. Furthermore, promoting motor oil that has similar brand features and has characteristics of a low involvement requires strategies to induce purchase. Consequently, the five objectives presented above formed the thesis structure. The current chapter offers an introduction of the study leading to the focus and justification of the research. Thus, **Chapter One** provides an overview of the study foundations and the research gap.

Chapter Two evaluates previous studies conducted in connection with business-to-business branding to explore and highlight findings relevant to branding in the business market. This will pave the way for better understanding of business-to-business branding. Additionally, a review of literature has been offered on the country of origin of brands as they cross borders. Different cultures respond differently to brands, suggesting that brand performance will not be similar in

different economies. Although previous studies conducted on B2B branding focused on the seller and buyer's point of view, to understand branding strategies in the business market requires understanding branding from the retailer and distribution supply chain and their relations with manufacturers of the brand.

Chapter Three provides an overview of the socio cultural background of the UK and Nigerian economies, highlighting the relevant areas needed for this study. The UK is a developed economy with a high level of car ownership, while Nigeria is a developing economy with a high population and low level of car ownership.

Chapter Four describes the choice of methodology used in the study. A case study approach of Castrol oil was adopted to gain historical insight into branding of developed brands. To gain insight into the UK market, participant observation was conducted in retail and distribution outfits. Thereafter, magazine adverts and online communities of different motor oil brands were used to allow corroboration of the findings. Similarly, participant observation was replicated in the Nigerian retail and distribution sector. This was followed up with semi-structured interviews with brand marketing managers.

Chapter Five discusses the findings of the different study results to bring out meanings leading to understanding the nature of branding motor oil in the two countries. The importance of branding to the various sectors is identified to allow highlighting and modelling the branding process. The country of origin effects of the brands will be presented in order to show the branding behaviour of global brands when crossing borders. Counter-intuitively, motor oil brands have used branding attributes to promote their brands to prospective customers through different innovative and focused strategies.

Finally, **Chapter Six** concludes the thesis with the discussion of key findings, comparing and contrasting the different branding strategies conducted in the two countries. The key parameters in branding a business-to-business brand were identified. Motor oil lies between two paradoxes: it functions as a business brand while also functioning as a consumer brand. Hence, a hybrid branding model is

presented. The chapter concludes with managerial implications and suggestions for future research.

Overall, insights from the points mentioned above emphasise the importance of business branding and the usefulness of products offered to businesses for differentiation within the business market and, in some cases, they spill over to the consumer market. Therefore, this introduction to the research background, coupled with the study, aims and objectives provides an opening to the first step in understanding motor oil branding. Moreover, Figure 1.2 provides the flow chart of the thesis structure for ease of understanding.

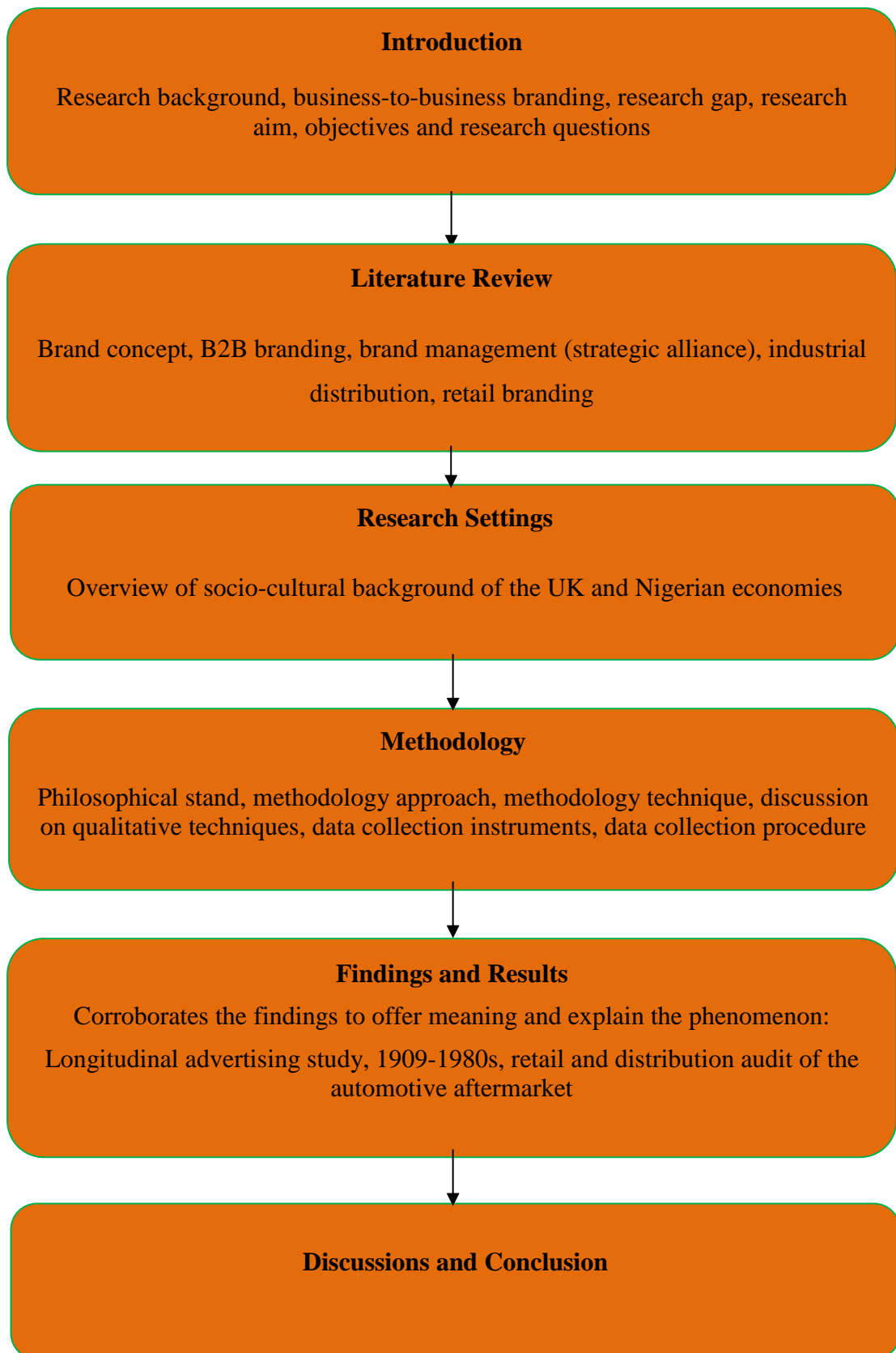


Figure 1.1: Structure of the thesis

1.4 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the study, the background and research problems were described, while highlighting the study objectives. The chapter further assisted the researcher in drawing conclusions to the justification of the study and its significance to academics and practitioners. Also, the chapter provided an overview of the different connecting areas relating to business-to-business branding while highlighting the research gap. The next chapter reviews the literature relating to key areas relevant to motor oil branding in the B2B market.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter one discusses the difference between the business and consumer markets, the chapter further offer the numerous classifications of the business to business market. The chapter then concludes with the lack of study in the area of motor oil branding and highlights the need for studies in this area to explore how manufacturers brand their products. Hence, branding allows differentiation of products distinguishing them from been regarded as commodities. Therefore, considering the hybrid nature of motor oil, this chapter provides a conceptual review of literature regarding the concepts of related factors in industrial branding and connecting area to shed light on studies conducted to allow understanding of the branding phenomena of motor oil brands of this research.

Given the relative obscure nature of B2B branding, this chapter will first offer the definition of a brand with considerations of the branding roles and benefits. Thereafter, a review of various branding strategies in the business market will be carried out. Further, approach to branding in different connecting areas like product branding, organisation buying behaviour and relationship building will be reviewed to explore links relevant to motor oil branding. Moreover, strategic alliances between brands, co-branding, ingredient branding, brand endorsement, sports sponsorship and brand development will follow, to explore their relevance to motor oil branding. Further, the distribution of brands within the supply chain will be investigated to offer insight into the nature of brand distribution of the research topic. Finally, the chapter will conclude by looking at different retail branding attributes, merchandising, assortments, store and promotion to investigate their relevance to branding of motor oil to induce end user purchase.

- Definition and scope of the study (2.1)
- Business to business branding (2.2)
- Distribution process (2.3)
- Retail branding (2.4)
- Country of origin effect of brands (2.5)
- Gaps in knowledge (2.6)

- Conclusion (2.7)

Bearing in mind the objectives of the research, the next section will offer review of studies conducted on business to business branding by describing and categorising concepts related to the study while examining the relationships among them. In order to offer a clearer picture of the branding process, other sections of the chapter will examine connected areas relevant to this study objective.

2.1 Definition and Scope of the Brand Concept

Brands have for a long time been used as a means of differentiation between goods and services for different companies. A review of literature provides a plethora of terms used to define a brand. The notion of a brand been a logo, symbol, or sign identifying and differentiating goods or services Joachimsthaler and Aaker (2000); Keller (2003) has been given different meaning (Webster and Keller 2004, Mukherjee and Shivani 2011). To this end, Pickton (2008) defined a brand as the total activities embarked upon by the brand owner or representative coupled with the users experiences. de Chernatony (2002) sees a brand as a collection of values, either emotional or functional, with assurance of satisfaction. Similarly, in the book “building Strong brands”, David Aaker advocates that the brand is a “metal box” (Aaker, 2012). While, Keller et al. (2011) views a brand as a product or service that creates awareness, prominence, and reputation in the market place.

The combination of tangible and intangible attributes combine to have cognitive position in the mind of the consumer. According to de Chernatony (1997) and Webster (2000), added values are augmented to the brand to differentiate it from competitors. Therefore, in instances where product groups become commodities, branding can still play a part in the product offering by adding value (Jacques, 2007).

In addition, de Chernatony and Mcdonald (1992) offered that a commodity which is characterised with no clear means of differentiation where purchase is made on

item availability and price, offers a different meaning to a brand. Hence de Chernatony and McDonald (1992) defines a brand as,

“An identifiable product, service, person or place, augmented in such a way that the buyer or user perceives relevant and unique added values which match their needs most closely. Furthermore, its success results from being able to sustain these added values in the face of competition”.

Here, added values are combined to the brand to distinguish it from products, hence commanding higher price. The added values attached to a product are what differentiate a brand from a commodity. By integrating the marketing mix of the brand, these added values seem to move towards the emotional aspects. The combination of added values will result in positioning the brand in the customers mind, leading to brand acceptability and loyalty.

Based on the above, it can be added that branding can be used in tangible products or services. This also suggests retailers who are at the end of the supply chain and offer services to customers can be regarded as brands. Hence, brand building at the end of the supply chain strives to enhance store image by not only offering tangible items, but to also offer value by the intangible offering to customers. Further, intangible offering of support services like automotive and electrical appliance can be regarded as a branding function.

Similarly, Aaker (1997) views brands develop relationships with customer by exhibiting human characteristics that will be associated with the brand referred to as brand personality. He further added that brand personality trait reflects the people who associate in it like the top management, employees and end users. Aaker (2012) pointed that brand personality is similar to humans, where he identified the different relationships:

- Sincerity: Building a relationship here is synonymous to the traditional, family oriented and down to earth person that is well liked and commands

respect. Brands in this category can be likened to well known, global brands like Coca-Cola, pampers, and Kodak.

- Excitement: Relationship here is outgoing, young spirited that enjoys the free life style. This is similar to individuals who enjoy a youthful active lifestyle. Pepsi can be that type of brand with its adverts expressing free and easy going lifestyle with friends.
- Competence: This relationship is more professional, proficient and influential akin to relationships with an individual that is respected due to his achievements and professionalism. Brands that fit this similarity are Rank Xerox, Wall Street Journal and IBM.
- Sophistication: Prestige, affluence and bragging is how this relationship is which is similar to how a rich neighbour or relative. Luxury brands like Mercedes, Rolls Royce and Lexus are in this category where they exhibit power, richness and comfort.
- Ruggedness: This relationship is the outdoor, athletic type that is always looking for adventure. A similar relationship among people who like going out of their comfort zone” to try out something different. Brands like Nike and Marlboro fit into this similarity.

To further elaborate these points, Aaker (1997) proposed excitement, competence and sincerity to fit the human characteristics while, ruggedness and sophistication are not human traits but part of human desire to achieve something. The next sections place industrial branding into broader perspective by first reviewing studies explicitly on industrial branding; subsequently other sections will discuss related areas to industrial branding.

2.2 Business to Business Branding

This section discusses the various branding process in the business market by focusing on branding attributes in the area of relationship building between brands and the buying behaviour. Hence, the section will highlight the relevance of each

of these approaches to motor oil branding in particular and the business market in particular.

2.2.1 Product Attributes

Branding within the business to business (B2B) and the consumer (B2C) markets have been going on for years differentiating products with an attempt to winning consumer confidence (Webster and Keller, 2004). However, the literature demonstrating branding in the business market is relatively new compared to consumer branding. As early as the 1920s and 1930s established brands like DuPont have adopted tools of differentiation in the business market (Webster and Keller, 2004). The 1960s witnessed efforts by B2B companies to improve image and reputation commonly referred to as gaining market share (Robinson et al. 1967). The success of distinguished, established companies in the 1990s saw the adoption of brand management by focusing on the brand name. The increasing brand similarity in the market with the increasing use of technological equipment's creates the lack of differentiation. This then asks why the focus on brands in the consumer market when the same phenomena exists in the business market (Mudambi, 2002; Martinez and de Chernatony, 2004; Webster and Keller, 2004).

Similarly, chapter one (page 5) identifies the distinctions between the business and consumer markets by offering differences in the area of the buying process, nature of customers, relationship importance, demand perspectives and the selling process among others. Branding therefore plays an important role by reducing risk and uncertainty while adding value to customers by pre-informing the brand offer (Mudambi et al. 1997). Similarly, relationships with established suppliers can reduce the need and technical uncertainty by seeking available information on the supplier reputation and image. However, there are similarities between the business and consumer branding in that they both stimulate trust and develop affective and cognitive ties with the interested parties (Leek and Christodoulides, 2011).

Early studies on business to business branding shows varied results. In their attempt to find out the importance of branding in business markets, Saunders and Watt (1979) studied efforts made by manufacturers of man-made fibres in the UK on branding their products to generate pull through the distribution chain. They found that the availability of large number of brands has no effect on brand differentiation and it is unlikely to have value in the market. Hence, customers are left confused on purchase decision within the different range of brands available. Similarly, Sinclair and Seward (1988) conducted a survey on the effectiveness of branding a commodity wood product in the area of lumber and plywood panel in North America. Their findings indicate that customer's insistence on availability and price at the channel end points to lack of branding efforts to attract the consumer to look at other intangible attributes. They suggested the lack of effective branding strategies leads to customers' high reliance on price. They also found the reason for business to business branding was to differentiate against competition, allow better identification, improve loyalty and emphasise the brand speciality. Sinclair and Seward also found the lack of synergy between the manufacturers and the intermediaries across the supply chain in that they fail to educate them on the brand attributes and emphasis on the branding importance.

However, recent studies indicate business to business branding has been more successful in differentiation in order to induce consumer choice. In their study on the importance of branding in industrial markets Mudambi et al. (1997) developed a conceptual model depicting the role industrial brand value has on customers. Highlighting the brand values as product performance, distribution, support services and company performance with their tangible and intangible elements, they sort the use of in-depth interviews to explore the importance of decision making process and influences of brand value within the manufacturers, distributors and purchasers of precision bearings in the UK.

Their findings indicate that customers rely on manufacturers or distributors that will offer technical support. Where senior managers emphasised industrial purchasing to be characterised by supplier selection, the junior managers emphasised product selection by focusing on consumer decisions. They also

found risk to be an influence in terms of safety and warranty issues regarding automotive and heavy machinery. They also found domestic appliance applications will result to brand recall, damaging word of mouth and permanent loss of customers. Delays or shortages in shipments are also found to be a factor to influence supply risk.

Similarly, price also served as an indicator of value by the buyers and sellers. They found buyers regard price to be less important at the beginning of trading but more important than other factors at the maturing of business, accounting for about seventy per cent of the decision making. Hence they summed up the importance of price to mean it is more important at the aftermarkets or replacements than in the original equipment manufacturers. Also, distribution and support services were regarded as important criteria for business branding success. The reliability of a brand to the customer lies on the delivery, availability and response to emergency by the manufacturer or agents. While technical support for brands in the aftermarket was regarded as an important factor. They offered several influencing factors ranging from availability of on-call services, hotlines, follow up visits and training of technical staff.

Exploring the concept and source of brand equity of purchasers in the medium voltage electrical equipment's in South African. Bendixen et al. (2004) found brand name plays a more prominent role in consumer brand choice, while, price and delivery were also found to be more important than brand equity in business-to-business branding. This is supported by Shipley and Howard (1993), who found that brand name plays an important role to manufacturers especially in the area of market positioning. Further, the larger companies benefit more from the brand name than smaller companies. Shipley and Howard further found the UK companies use brand names often. Following the work of Shipley and Howard (1993) where they conducted fieldwork in 1988 indicating the benefit brand names play in industrial markets, Michell et al. (2001) further enquired whether business-to-business companies in the 1990s are in line with brand value theory. They found that business to business companies have positive perception on brand names while being a valuable tool for marketing success. They also found

business companies to benefit tremendously on branding, offer competitive benefits and improve brand equity. They identified quality, performance and reliability to be major factors driving competitive differentiation.

Focusing on brand equity in business to business branding from the manufacturer to the distribution chain suggests several studies offer meaning to the price premium buyers are willing pay for a brand, recommend to others and consider it against other similar brands (Hutton, 1997). Similarly, Gordon et al. (1993) offered brand equity as channel members, customer's behaviour and associations, allows higher volume as it would have acquired without using the brand name. To this end, Gordon and his friends studied the effect of brand equity on electrical products where they found brand equity to be of high relevance in the B2B market. They further added that the use of brand name in B2B leads to increased loyalty, however, due to existence of brand and company loyalty; new product development may be difficult to achieve. They further added loyalty goes beyond the company to include the players in the distribution channel.

Similarly, Hutton (1997) conducted interviews with local purchasing experts and focus groups with members of the National Association for Purchasing Management to determine the influence of brand sensitivity on product attributes like price, service necessities, obsolesce likelihood and the buying situation. He found B2B branding to be a valuable tool in the business market in that they provoke brand equity behaviour. He further identified that a strong brand plays a key role in brand extensions and synergy across different product range. Hutton also found a high likelihood of an unknown brand having the same name with a known, successful brand may harm the successful brand when they are displayed differently. He also added that in branding decisions the fear of personal failure as against organisational failure is a higher factor.

In their study of the UK tractor market Walley et al. (2007) found brand name to be a more important factor in purchase decision. Hence, their findings suggest brand name is more important than price, dealer proximity and the quality of dealer service. They concluded by saying that branding plays an important role in

industrial purchase decisions. Similarly, Alexander et al. (2009) investigated the impact of the brand and product augmentation on buyers of industrial tyres, the result indicated that branding plays an important part due to its trustworthiness and safety. Hence, brand name, durability and price have more importance to the consumer. Recently, Attri et al. (2011) studied brand awareness of oil marketers in the petroleum public sector leading to loyalty and customer awareness. They found that use of integrated marketing communications increases brand awareness.

2.2.2 Organisational Buying Behaviour

While there appears to be substantial amount of literature on the consumer buying behaviour, the literature on organisation buying behaviour was slow to develop. To this effect, the early work of Robinson et al. (1967);Howard and Sheth (1969);Webster and Wind (1972) and Sheth (1973) attempt to explain the importance of this phenomenon. They outlined research on organisational buying to focus on three areas; the buying centre characteristics, buying process characteristics and purchase decision factors characteristics. Specifically, business purchases consist of organisational influences that take into consideration the cost, budget, and profit, involving different sets of individuals taking part in the decision process (Webster Jr and Wind, 1972). Hence, an important area of consideration within the process of business buying is the decision making unit or commonly referred to as buying centre. According to Webster and Wind (1972) the nature of brands and organisational characteristics determines the composition and size of the buying centre. Studies on business purchase have demonstrated the varying importance members of the decision making units (DMU) attach to brand attributes ranging from price, delivery, brand performance, quality, service and technical sophistication (Shipley and Howard, 1993;Mudambi et al. 1997). Shipley and Howard (1993) further posits that, the company's DMU consist of different individuals that influence decisions like, buyers, users, deciders, influencers and gatekeepers.

Previous work Mukherjee and Shivani (2011) has found branding can support and simplify decision making in organisational purchase by adopting not only the rational factors but are influenced by the micro factors like reduce risk, uncertainty, simplify decision making to maximise rewards offered. The model also looked at other influencing factors in the DMU like the specialised education, purchase satisfaction or dissatisfaction and search to perceptual distortions. Whereas, Wolter et al. (1989) in their study of business buyers and designers on numerous product configurations like, colour, size and texture which were cross measured within representatives of a buying centre unit found substantial differences on the evaluation of non-functional or emotive attributes of the brand. They further called for more acknowledgement of importance of emotional features of product evaluation.

In contrast, branding in the B2B market has also shown influence of branding by looking at the behavioral traits of consumers. Relying on the assumption that a B2B branding model offers benefits like self-expressive, functional and emotional, Mudambi (2002) studied branding attributes within the perspectives of organisation buying behaviour. She identified three clusters of business customers as, highly tangible, branding receptive and low interest with each cluster having difference in terms of the branding importance to the purchase decision. Mudambi further suggests the benefits of the branding for each cluster with regards to the actual product, brand naming, pricing, advertising, distribution, personal selling and promotion. The model reveals different attributes including, branding attributes (the supplier reputation and prominence), product attributes (price, physical product properties), and service attributes (ordering and delivery, technical support, working relationships). This is consistent with Kuhn et al. (2008) model where they adopted the consumer based brand equity model of Keller to reflect on the B2B market. They found importance was placed on the selling organisation like credibility, the staff and corporate brand against individual brands and its associates. They further suggest importance placed on physical products with focus on quantifiable, tangible benefits of the manufacturer and the product by the customer indicates a highly tangible cluster of customers.

Further, employing the use of in-depth interviews to examine decision making process in different UK businesses of the precision bearing market, Mudambi et al. (1997) found customers lacking technical expertise prefer manufacturers or distributors who offer technical advice. They further found the established customers place more emphasis on the technical aspect when deciding on the supplier choice. Supplier selection seems more inclined to business purchase is the likely choice for senior managers whereas, junior managers regard product selection which is more on the consumer decision process.

Other area of consideration within the decision making process is the process of straight rebuy, modified rebuy and new task. To this end, studies on selected companies of British business marketing managers to identify relationships between buying phases and buying class was conducted by (Doyle et al. 1979). They found price, product performance, guarantee and delivery are sought after in new task and modified rebuy. They further highlighted search for potential supplier is more common in straight rebuy and new task companies. They concluded by noting the need to purchase is initiated by individuals in customer companies in new task and modified rebuy situations. Likewise, it has been suggested by Mudambi (2002) that the more importance branding is placed, the more difficult the decision on purchase.

Similarly, attribute aspects play important roles in business purchase. Lehmann and O'shaughnessy (1974) conducted a survey on semantic differential scale to determine the importance of seventeen purchase attributes ranging from brand factors like, technical specifications to tangible factors like training to intangible factors like supplier reputation in supplier choice for selected industrial brands. By focusing on purchasing agents in the U.K. and U.S., they found delivery reliability, price, supplier flexibility, and product reliability and supplier reputation as more important attributes. They further found buyers choose suppliers with attributes like technical service, ease of operation and training than those with procedural problems. This then suggests company's place more emphasis on reputation in their branding strategy. Their study further found more

importance was placed to supplier reputation in the US purchasing agent than the UK.

According to Sheth (1996) and Brennan et al. (2003) studies on buying behaviour in the business market is shifting from transaction to a relational focus by looking more closely to the relationships that exists between them. The next section explores the literature on relationship building within the business market to shed light on the relevance of relationship building between businesses to improve brand performance of low involvement motor oil brands.

2.2.3 Inter-firm Relationship

As pointed out in the previous sections that branding enhances brand performance however, brand purchase does not guarantee continuous sale or brand loyalty in the business market. Hence, brand success does not only rely on product offering, but also on relationships with channel members. This further points to the importance branding plays in business decision making by focusing on the tangible, best price/best quality, and intangible attributes like service, quality and image (Mudambi et al. 1997). According to Mudambi and Mudambi (1995) and Mudambi et al. (1997), inter-firm relationships in the business market embraces a wide area, ranging from, transaction cost economics, networking, partnerships, relationship marketing and strategic alliances with no clear explanation of the relationship concept. The role a brand plays after establishing a relationship is very important to the brands long term existence. The tangible feature of the brand becomes less important as factors like trust, reliability and compatibility becomes more significant. This is further illustrated by Morgan and Hunt (1994) and Mudambi et al. (1997) where they posit that research on business relationships should be broadly looked at within the relationship marketing context. Therefore, this section will offer literature drawn from relationship marketing to determine the branding importance in the B2B market and facilitate relevant importance to motor oil.

In the review of theory transitions in the area of organizational buying behavior between 1972 to 1996, Wilson (1996) identified a vivid shift in research focus

from conducting separate studies of buyers and sellers to studying relationships existing between them. In their study on the impact of long term relationships between manufacturers and suppliers, Kalwani and Narayandas (1995) found that maintaining long term relationships does not improve sales growth. They however suggest a growing level of sales and reduced cost can be achieved through improved inventory utilization.

To ascertain the factors influencing development of cooperative relationship between buyers and sellers Langfield-Smith and Greenwood (1998) conducted a case study of an automotive manufacturer, Toyota in Australia and its suppliers. They found that trust must be a factor in establishing successful co-operative buyer-supplier relationships. Therefore, to achieve that amount of trust, the partner companies should communicate and share information between each other which lack of doing so will lead to communications failure. They further add the importance of similarities in technology and industry between the buyer and supplier, experiential learning importance to introduce the suppliers to new methods of production and prior experience exchange. This claim is supported by Han and Sung (2008), who studied brand value and buyer/supplier performance relationship in business markets. Using questionnaires to gather responses from organizational buyers of industrial goods like chemicals, equipment's and electronics. They maintained that there is a positive effect of brand value between buyers and suppliers in business relationships. Moreover, brand loyalty and trust play a dominant role in the supplier competence, buyer satisfaction and purchasing value as well as the performance of relationship.

However, it has been demonstrated by Narayandas and Rangan (2004) in the study between General Electric, Peak Electric and Alpha tires with their components partners in matured markets where they illustrated trust to be an interpersonal construct that is operational between two or more individuals within an organization while, commitment is more inter-organizational. Hence, business relationships operate differently than was previously assumed. They further demonstrate intentions and interactions between firms are the bedrock of relationships between individuals and companies. Moreover, they found that

overtime the interpersonal trust improves inter-organizational commitment, while high trust and commitment level offset the unevenness of power dependence at the beginning of contracts. Hence, this implies weaker companies will function competitively well with powerful partners. Overall, they point to commitment and trust coupled with satisfactory performance is important in a successful relationship.

Based on Brennan and Turnbull (1999) case study of telecommunications and automotive sector in the United Kingdom of thirteen managers in the buyers and sellers to examine the decision making process and motivations to determine the adaptive behavior in the long term relationships between buyers and sellers. Their study found trust and commitment between buyers and suppliers increases due to adaptations while lack of trust will have a negative effect on adaptive behavior. They further found relationships that last a long time will result to adaptations to be less noticeable. In seeking to further explain inter firm adaptations Hallen et al. (1991) studied the effect of mutual adaptations in trust building in business relationships and individual adaptation as a reaction to lopsided resource dependency. They highlighted that adaptations between companies involves building the relationship of trust and power. They further assert that adaptations between buyers and sellers are connected to each other indicating that adaptations consists of the social exchange process and the level of dependence of the other party hence, pointing to the role of power play in adaptations. This is supported by Brennan et al. (2003) where they studied dyadic adaptations in business markets by looking at how a company adapts to specific needs of another customer company to ensure competitive success. They found supplier firm adaptation to be frequent when compared to buyers adaptation. They further assert that supplier adaptation is influenced by buyer support, relative power and management choice.

Recent studies indicate the social media allows brand manufacturers to engage with customers through constant interaction. Brand communities have evolved to play the role of relationship building and enhancement within the B2B and B2C markets. It has been suggested by Brennan and Croft (2012) that the social media is used as a marketing tool in brand and relationship building rather than a selling

medium. According to Andersen (2005), this plays a more positive role in the B2B markets by building on the long term relationships with the users as they will influence the buying Centre which will influence purchase decision. Online brand communities are sure to enhance activities among other users along the business and professional users across the supply chain. Further, Brodie et al. (2013) identified different factors exhibited in the interactive experience by consumers in brand communities such as, satisfaction, connection, empowerment, loyalty, emotional bonding, commitment and trust.

Studies on relationship building through the brand communities have been conducted to offer clarity on this topic. Andersen (2005) used a qualitative case study approach to understand the relationship marketing strategy on the use of online brand community of Coloplast, a manufacture of different disposable polymer and plastic health care products by looking at nurses in the Denmark health sector. Their findings suggests online community has the potential to attract and recruit new members with a potential of turning into loyal customers, supports community involvement by allowing customers to engage in dialogue between themselves, easier to promote the brand message while prospective users have a chance to meet the loyal customers.

In conclusion, the results found that brand communities serve as a link to enhancement of brand performance. Further, Casaló et al. (2008) studied the effect of online community participation on consumer commitment through online survey of Spanish speaking members across different brand communities. Their study found trust to have significant effect on participation of members with enhancement of consciousness and cohesion from the company and consumers in the virtual community. The results further show satisfaction in interactions on brand trust by the online users. It creates ease of reaching out to new and existing customers as against the high cost of other traditional, alternative promotions. Hence, emotional attachment and commitment to the brand is developed by the consumers.

In contrast, McAleander et al. (2002) in their study of relationship situations between the customer, brand and companies found companies benefit from brand communities through diverse means like, members becoming brand missionaries by carrying the promotion messages into other communities, members are willing to overlook brand faults or failures, brand loyalty is enhanced, members offer feedback to the company and provide a large market for the brands in the long run.

Companies use customers to gain invaluable source of information. According to Von Hippel (2005) existing customers can offer the company a viable basis for innovative ideas, thereby leading to the manufacturer to develop new ideas on brand improvement or development. Laroche et al. (2012) studied value creation through brand loyalty and trust where they purported that in order to allow wider information and knowledge exchange, brand manufacturers like Cisco and Dell transformed their customers and suppliers into members of the brand communities. This is further supported by Schau et al. (2009) who asserts that the use of brand communities assist in creating value not just for the brand but to the customers. Similarly, studies have shown social and hedonic values are developed by the participants as a plus to their engagement efforts. According to Sherry Jr (1983) and Laroche et al. (2012) the social and hedonic values are regarded more as gifts by the customers who use the brand communities without the need for goods exchange which will in the long run increase their sense of indebtedness and loyalty.

A careful look at the literature on B2B branding indicates a gradual move away from the traditional views on branding to a more focused approach to appeal to the public to form competitive advantage. The traditional definition of branding offered by the literature in the business and consumer tends to limit its definition at attempts to create awareness of the brand or service. The aim was to expose the brand in the market to differentiate and make it recognisable among competitors. There is the danger of brands lack of focus on branding strategies within the supply chain will result to commoditisation of products where price takes the centre stage with little effort at differentiation. Therefore, to differentiate their

brands in the market, companies differentiate themselves through the product attributes, and the services through buying process and relationship building. The same might be the case of motor oil branding in which this study aims to explore.

Moreover, the literature reveal brands are graduating from focus on the brand alone to other influencing areas where they are connected. In order to influence and build a strong image in the mind of the end user, companies build alliances between each other for long term success. Brand building from the manufacturer to the end user allows the brand to function as a distinct and functional element at the point of purchase. From the above analysis, a conclusion can be drawn that branding is essential for company success. Hence, companies utilise a diversity of brand management techniques to achieve branding benefits and increase sale. The literature further suggests alliances between companies for brand success. The different approach to strategic alliances between companies is the focus of the next section which may assist shedding more light on motor oil branding.

Consequently, fierce competition among brand manufacturers has resulted in the use of alliances between other brands to compete for the market share. The following alliance strategies demonstrate the importance of relationship to brand performance in the business market.

2.2.3.1 Co-branding

Strategic alliances between brands in the business markets improve brand awareness and image in the eyes of the consumer. The business market is identified with several strategies where two manufactures link their brands to add value. Companies seek alliances with other companies to co-opt and prevent competitors from gaining advantage and increase in market share. Therefore, companies seeking greater opportunity in the global market may seek to go into alliance. According to Shocker et al. (1994) the auto industry is an example of this growing preference for alliances. As no single company can claim monopoly for resources, knowledge or skills, factors such as risks, cost and rewards are often shared in order to survive in the market. Further, the increases in competition enable companies to share capital, knowledge and distribution, adding to the ever

complex nature of brand management. Strategic alliances for many companies with distributors, suppliers and competitors alike serve as a key to competitive strength. Specifically, alliance between less known manufacturers with an established company will benefit the less known brand into market acceptance and increase consumer response.

Co-branding has been used to influence brand image, brand value and assure quality, it further impacts on higher brand evaluation and price premium in the consumer and business markets. According to Erevelles et al. (2008), co-branding is a strategy of presenting for promotion two or more independent brands together on the same product or service. Similarly, the literature identifies several terms to describe this awareness strategy including, brand alliances, symbiotic marketing, co-marketing, cause related marketing, co-operative advertising, ingredient branding, dual branding, affinity programs, joint sales promotion and joint branding (Rao and Ruekert, 1994;Cooke and Ryan, 2000;Swaminathan et al. 2000;Abratt and Motlana, 2002;Bengtsson and Servais, 2005). Several reasons give rise to adopting co-branding strategy first, gaining competitive advantage by combining the strength of brands in the market, usually by well-established brands, second, provide operational benefits and third, gain advantage of brand offering and influence to the end user.

Consequently, studies on co-branding relationships in the business market have been conducted by Erevelles et al. (2008) where they used an econometric modelling approach. They found benefits of co-branding supports relationship between the manufacturer and supplier of brands when entering a foreign market. They further assert that co-branding reduces the threat of competition and brand cost from the downstream manufacturer. They also highlighted that brands in co-branding relationship cost lower, while advertisement improves the effect of co-branding against those that do not advertise.

Recently, Gloria Wu and Chalip (2013) studied the effect of price and user image on branded and co-branded sports apparel. They used a survey based design by selecting four American fashion designers. They found that co-branding attracts a

higher premium than the equivalent brand that has no alliance. They further found aligning sportswear brands with designer fashion brands influences the sportswear brands only among the male participants without much influence to the fashion brand. Their study also found price has no effect on co-branding among the male participants, while fashion designer brands have negative effect among females when co-branding was used on sportswear brands with expected price having no significant effect by co-branding. They concluded that co-branding effect may depend on the type of brand initially preferred, rather than relying on the supporting value of another brand or a combination of brand equity of the two brands.

Similarly, the outcome of co-branding strategy is investigated by Bengtsson and Servais (2005), by administering a telephone interview structured questionnaire survey to independent wooden floors and electric heating mats distributors in Denmark. The results found credibility can be achieved through co-operation with a stronger brand. They further posit that the market position improves stronger brands due to co-branding. However, their study also found co-branding activities will unlikely ease access to shelf space or improve higher turnover while adopting co-branding strategy reduces uncertainty.

Further, Leeflang (2008) did a meta-analysis study of co-brands where he classified the different co-branding strategies in the literature resulting to the development of a theoretical co-branding model. According to his “theoretical model of co-branded products”, he found that co-branding strategy offers more brand benefit. He further pointed out that co-branding add more value to the co-brand as against a single brand acting on its own. In addition, pairing weaker brands with strong brands does not weaken the strong brand; rather it offers the likelihood of spill-over effects to the weaker, co-brand. Further, success of co-branding strategy is achieved when combining the two brands causes positive consumer response. That is, in choosing the co-branding partner of a less established brand, brand managers should choose strong, positively evaluated brands with high equity. They further add that less established brands play a positive role in co-branding partnership if they own a niche market and the

established brands are looking to enter the market. As there is dearth of co-branding studies on motor oil there is strong need for this study.

2.2.3.2 Ingredient Branding

Another form of brand alliance that gained importance is ingredient branding (Uggla, 2008). The huge success in promotion strategy used by Intel in the “Intel Inside” programme opened a whole new way to brand alliance. Ingredient branding is a brand alliance strategy which focuses on components identification in the final product. Kotler and Pfoertsch (2010) defined, ingredient branding as a branding strategy concerning branded components, parts or materials that represents a brand for a target group. Accordingly, Norris (1992) suggests the strategy is supplier initiated or manufacturer initiated. In the supplier initiated strategy the component supplier promotes the ingredient to the end users to create brand awareness, while the manufacturer initiated strategy involves the Original Equipment Manufacturer choosing an established brand to promote the ingredient brand to constitute the final product (Bloemer and De Ruyter, 1998).

Besides Intel, several brands have adopted the ingredient branding strategy to promote their brands across the market. The popular PowerBook was a result of combined efforts in design and manufacturing of Apple and Sony. Similarly, Sony and Nintendo combined their strategy to produce video games challenging the market leader Sega. While Nike arranged with Du Pont to design Air Jordan basketball shoes with air tubes in the soles or Diet Coke with NutraSweet.

Recently, it has been suggested by Rid and Pfoertsch (2013) where they adopted a case study approach by conducting interviews with decision makers in two automotive supplier companies of car safety seatbelts and airbags and the auto parts producer of automotive car components. They found that in order to have brand fit, the companies need to build equity which Bosch, a rival brand is already building and Autoliv does not focus on. Similarly, Bosch has a strong presence in the consumer market, therefore it exhibits a strong brand identity, whereas, Autoliv has a reputation of developing innovative technology and is a global player. Rid and Pfoertsch further outlined innovations in ingredient branding

favours the luxury car manufacturers against the lower car manufacturers due to their customer demand. Moreover, they added that only weak brands benefit from the alliance with strong brands which justifies the use of ingredient branding of automotive suppliers by using lower or medium cars in which both brands will benefit from margin, sales and attracting new customers.

In addition, car manufacturers' control their brand image therefore they do not seek brand alliance with suppliers. Therefore, automotive suppliers should create their own consumer demand by directly addressing the end user. They further suggested that for a successful ingredient branding strategy, companies need to consider the value chain as a whole. That is, the downstream market should be incorporated into the strategy from the manufacturer to the end user, thereby generating pull by directly targeting the end user. Likewise, this assertion is supported by Zhang et al. (2013), when they extended their supply chain model to show that the brand partner creates brand awareness by communicating directly with the end user through advertising. Moreover, the Original Equipment Manufacturer offers a cooperative advertising program allowing placing a brand logo to create impression that the ingredient is part of the finished brand.

In estimating brand equity, impact of ingredient branding on host brand Tiwari and Singh (2012) used a non-disguised, structured questionnaire administered to respondents in Indore, India. They found that branded ingredients increase the host brand quality through enhancing attitudinal perception, brand extension and convenience perception which supports brand equity. It also indicates brand esteem and increase reliability are important factors enjoyed by host brands. That is, by alliance between two established brands the less known brand will enjoy higher recognition and brand loyalty than it originally is. Therefore, host brands should always consider the brand ingredients that will increase its image and equity in the market.

2.3 Distribution Process

The previous sections discussed brand building through coordination by the manufacturer or with other business. The sections revealed that building a brand

in the business market is a diverse and sophisticated task. Hence, the essence of this study is not only to evaluate the branding process through relationships and alliances, but to consider the brand link within the supply chain. This section will review the partnership role distributors' play with manufacturers to help add brand value, especially with the emergence of the internet, giving rise to e-commerce, allowing companies to have direct link with customers, raising the question of the relevance of distributors in the business market (Gadde, 2014).

The literature suggests distribution of industrial brands is an important factor to organisational success. It entails the sale of products by producers and processors to other producers, commercial organisations or institutions who produce and market their products or services to other consumers (Frederick, 1939; Rosenbloom, 2004; Lin and Chen, 2008). According to Mudambi and Aggarwal (2003), industrial distributors are middlemen that serve as a link between the manufacturer and the end user. Similarly, Shipley and Jobber (1991) offered industrial distributors are middlemen who buy goods with the objective of making profits from producers, then resell along with services to other organisations for further industrial use. Frederick (1939) defined industrial distribution as the sale of products used by commercial organisations, producers and institutions for production and processing of their own products and services. Industrial distributors assume the role of manufacturers partner often characterised as independent firms sharing control of the manufacturer's products (Hlavacek and Mccuiston, 1983).

Industrial buyers are characterised by their purchasing behaviour. The function of a distributor differs within the perspective in which they relate with their business dealings. Manufacturers regard distributors as those who assist in providing market coverage, increase sales, product availability, contact with customers, sales and market feedback. While the customer views them as providing after sales service, product sorting and assorting, product availability, convenience, delivery, information provider, advice and services. Rackham and DeVincentis (1999) and Geiger and Finch (2011) report that some buyers show interest in convenience and price while having disregard for supplier or distributor relationship. Further,

marketers engage in transactional selling Blythe (2012); Geiger and Finch (2011), a practice where goods are provided at low prices as opposed to relationship selling, where relationship with buyers is strengthened and maintained (Crosby et al. 1990; Jolson, 1997; Weitz and Bradford, 1999). Geiger and Finch (2011) added mature industrial markets are recognised by domination of a small group of large buyers who are strategic and important to the company.

The evolution of e-commerce has changed the way industrial distribution is conducted globally. Distributors and retailers are faced with the threat of being irrelevant in the link between manufacturers and the consumers. Yet with that existing threat, industrial distributors have been thriving in the field of business and are still regarded important in the value chain. Innovative organisations have positioned themselves for the modern role of distributorship to satisfy the consumer. Information technology coupled with availability of products has created coalition between middlemen and source manufacturers, (Mudambi and Aggarwal, 2003).

The manufacturers or distributors ability to provide value through technical expertise attracts consumer's choice preference and competitive advantage. In their study of industrial distributors in the new economy Mudambi and Aggarwal (2003), suggest production and operations management, customer relationship management and knowledge management as basis for distributor value. However, Lin and Chen (2008) in their study of determinants of manufacturer's selection of distributors assert manufacturers favour distributors with more sales margin having wide market reach while paying attention to competition. Similarly, in the study of importance of industrial brands to industrial distributors Hinterhuber and Hinterhuber (2012) found product quality as the most important factor considered by industrial distributors, which far exceeds profitability.

Despite the huge success of distribution within the B2B sector, some brands seem to function in the B2C market with tremendous success. B2B marketers need to target their business towards consumers with the aim to induce sales with emotional attachment towards buying their brands. To position itself favourably in

the market, the organisation through sales representatives and distributors plan strategies for the product to compete on price, service and product performance.

Efforts to understand B2B branding in various areas centred on the product attributes, buying behaviour, inter-firm relationship and the supply chain activities. However, with the different classification of industrial brands into product inputs, process inputs and foundation inputs, mentioned in section 1.1, motor oil which happens to be the study focus appears to be a hybrid brand falling among the processing input category by functioning within the business and consumer markets, as the consumer market is largely about transaction (Brennan, 2012). Hence, the next section will look at branding within the retail sector of the aftermarket to shed light on retailer's role in the branding process for customer acceptance and reliability.

2.4 Retail Branding

The most striking attributes of 'processing inputs' is the ability to function in both the business and consumer markets, with tremendous success. To this effect, the literature also suggests hybrid brands seem to function within the business and consumer market; hence they play a part within the retail. Therefore, retailers use different techniques to draw customer attention to their store for more sales and profitability. The following section will evaluate the different branding techniques used by retailers in brand building towards customer attraction.

According to Davies and Ward (2005) branding has now become an important part of business concern in the different product and service sector. Further, Ailawadi and Keller (2004) offers, a retail brand recognises the retailers goods and services and differentiates them competitors. Retailers have continued to play an important part in branding, taking the role of point of contact between brands and consumers. The branding strategies used in retailing offers a different range of components and tools to draw customer attention in making purchase.

Manufacturers and consumers offer value to brands through partnership, where the brand plays an important role to the retailer and consumer. Perusing the

branding literature in the early days of industrialisation indicates the lack of focus on the reseller as part of the branding process. Hence, an incomplete picture of branding is presented within the academic and practical viewpoint. As brands reach the retail, the brand manager will not have control of the brand due to overwhelming influence of price incentives from competitors. Companies are now functioning as marketers to the consumer, end user and the business sector. In business marketing the reseller is regarded as customer to the manufacturer not the final consumer. Therefore the reseller is strategic to manufacturers brand success as the reseller will use all the tools available to ensure purchase, loyalty and profit.

Brand building is an important aspect to consider by both the manufacturer and retailer (Wileman and Jary, 1997). Like the manufacturer, developing a strong brand is the ultimate goal of a retailer. Branding at this level is expected to generate consumer loyalty and preference while differentiating itself among competitors in the retail chain. Conversely, the similarities between the manufacturer and retail branding techniques vary. Corstjens and Corstjens (1995) offered retail brands face a major challenge of creating a satisfactory balance between various segments. Hence, market segmentation is far easier in the manufacturer sector than the retailers. However, the retailer has advantages in terms of segmentation like, direct customer contact, point of purchase control, and access to information on shopping behaviour over the manufacturer (Wileman and Jary, 1997).

In addition, Wileman and Jary (1997) offered that within the retailer category, there is a market share competition across a wide price range in their area of coverage. Further, to gain competitive advantage in retail, price cannot be ignored. According to Corstjens and Corstjens (1995) price is the most important factor to consider in retail as ignoring the price difference can be detrimental to competition. Retailers are far more conscious than manufacturers in the way a positive customer's perception to price in the market.

Moreover, store location is an important factor to consider in the retail brand success (Berman et al. 1995; Corstjens and Corstjens, 1995; Ailawadi and Keller, 2004). Further, Corstjens and Corstjens (1995) asserts selecting retail location is based on distance and convenience the customer is willing to take. Thus, the retailer target is centred on the coverage area of the customers to allow switching from competing stores. This explains the motive behind acquiring other retailers by the big retailers due to the stores physical coverage and connection with customers. Manufacturers on the other hand attain other brands to capture the customer mind space.

Similarly, Ailawadi and Keller (2004) pointed out that unlike product brands, retailer brands are multi-sensory where rich consumer experience is often relied on to build equity. Ailawadi and Keller also point to various brand image developments that retailers attempt to build like, merchandising, product assortments, credit and pricing policy and emphasising quality of service through unique associations. Wileman and Jary (1997) added attributes of retail brand are prone to change as to manufacture brand. They further suggest the retail brand to have multiple attributes unlike the manufacturer brands that relates with products and services concurrently in the retail. The views expressed by Corstjens and Corstjens and Wileman and Jary suggests developing a strong and flexible branding strategy may pose a challenge to retailers who, considering the dynamic business nature are involved with the everyday business of dealing with goods and services.

An effective means of brand differentiation in retailing is to have the retailer own brands which will create differential advantage (Nandan and Dickinson, 1994; Corstjens and Corstjens, 1995; Ailawadi and Keller, 2004). This strategy allows the retailer to offer different merchandise exclusive to the store. Corstjens and Corstjens (1995) offered two different types of store labels, the first is type-I own label used to gain control of the supply chain by the retailer and retailers can influence negotiations when dealing with manufacturers. The generic brands which are more like commodity based labels aimed to satisfy basic needs of customers. They are usually made as 'look alike' to the manufacturer brands. The

second type of own label consist of brands that pull customers to the store by retailers. These brands which are made to compete with the manufacturer brands through building customer loyalty. This type of own label combines the merchandise offered with the store into the same unit. Example of such retailers is Next, Gap, Brooks, Talbots and Body shop (Ailawadi and Keller, 2004).

Branding efforts by retailers relies on different brand identity elements like, packaging, name, symbol and advertising. The literature has offered several attributes to influence retailer image in the area of merchandise (assortment, brand, quality, price), store (location, environment, name and atmosphere), service (personnel, quality and levels) and promotion (advertising, public relations, in-store) (Mazursky and Jacoby, 1986;Bloemer and De Ruyter, 1998;Ailawadi and Keller, 2004). To understand the role of retailers to the branding process with their links to manufacturers, this review will look at relevant literature to shed light on retail branding.

2.4.1 Merchandising Influence

In the study of store image attributes to examine consumer behaviour in retail, Thang and Tan (2003) conducted a survey study of six department stores in Singapore where they identified several attributes influencing consumer store choice. Merchandising appeared as the most influencing factor, since store visit involves purchase of different items, extensive display of merchandise offers a wider consumer choice while reducing switch to other stores. Similarly, they found accessibility to be the next important factor. They pointed out that due to the stores location to several facilities located within walking distance, customers find it easy to reach the stores. Likewise, they assert the next influencing factor to be reputation with preference for reputable stores in which consumers link their purchase value and quality to store reputation. They further highlighted in-store service stressing the point that stores that offer good service always encourage repeat purchase and leave a good perception.

This is supported by Bitner et al. (1994) and Reynolds and Beatty (2000) who show the influence of store services on consumer purchase behaviour. Store

atmosphere is found to offer a significant factor to influence consumer choice. Their results which supports that of Donovan and Rossiter (1982) and Sherman et al. (1997), suggest a pleasant atmosphere will encourage store visit which will lead to preference and encourage a relaxed shopping mood. Promotion is the last influencing factor. Their findings indicate that store promotions improve store awareness, build relationship with customers and increase visit. This helps in attracting customers with incentives to help build affiliation.

2.4.2 Store Promotions

Price signifies the consumer expenditure in monetary terms that leads to a purchase of goods and services. It has been suggested by Brown (1969) where he interviewed several respondents to investigate the quality levels and service offerings as indicators of price perception in supermarket in-store shelf pricing in five different cities. Their findings indicate non-price indicators such as quality levels and service offering do influence consumer price perceptions. As a result of this consumers may not have a true perception of the real price offered by the retailers. This finding is supported by Dickson and Sawyer (1990) who prove that consumers are diverse in their price and price promotions perceptions in stores. However, Monroe and Lee (1999) demonstrate that a brands' general price perception is developed by consumers the expensive nature of brands can also be determined as consumers locate brands in stores.

The price format in retail is also found to influence store choice and shopping behaviour. In their study to understand shopping behaviour relationship by drawing data from two large supermarkets, the everyday low price (EDLP) and promotion pricing store (HILO) in the U.S., Bell and Lattin (1998) found preference for EDLP from large basket shoppers while HILO stores are preferred more by the small basket shoppers. They further illustrate that large basket shoppers enjoy pricing across the board of several product categories; hence they do not enjoy price deals of individual products. Small basket shoppers lower the basket price by taking advantage of price variations in the store. The findings of Ho et al. (1998) supports this who show that HILO stores have average price with

lower purchase quantity and offers more strategies to encourage store visits. Whereas, in the EDLP store shopping frequency decreases while high revenue is generated per unit. They also found there is no dominant format for pricing among the two types of stores.

Retail price promotions have been shown to encourage customers to switch store. Kumar and Leone (1988) and Walters (1991) investigate the impact of retail price promotions on patterns of consumer purchase with their competing retailers. They found that price promotion has the highest influence on brand substitute; this is followed by displays and featuring. The results further show retail price promotions and brand promotions leads to brand switch by consumers within the store. High market share brands get higher sales against low share competitors in which they added can assist manufacturers and retailers in building an effective price promotion strategy especially at the point of purchase. They however posit that consumers will unlikely monitor weekly promotions in stores so as to gain good bargains.

Similarly, Bucklin and Lattin (1992) found retail promotions do not necessarily influence a customer in making store choice decisions, although they indirectly influence the purchase. Consumers being random shoppers buy from different stores. Their study shows that consumers may be influenced to make purchase in an unplanned store as against their regular store. Therefore, stores with pleasing atmosphere might have higher promotions effect due to longer stay, which will lead to promotions awareness and unplanned purchase.

2.5 Country of Origin Effect of Brands

The aim of the study is to learn about industrial branding through a comparative study, the literature suggests that country of origin effect might be a likely factor affecting branding in Nigeria in particular and other developing economies in general. Defining country of origin can be quite complicated especially in the context of modern marketing. According to White (2012), a brands country of origin is where it was manufactured or assembled. Thus, branding an image of a country and the successful transfer of this image to other nation state reflects what

the country actually produces and sells. This process is what marketers refer to as country-of-origin effect.

The growing literature focus and the global strategies of many business companies suggest an increasing importance of global brands in the business markets Kotabe and Helsen (1998) which contrast those adopted in the B2C companies. The consumer market consisting of increased competition, fragmented customers Agres and Dubitsky (1996), the increase influence of retailers Barron and Hollingshead (2004) and mobility of customers Alden et al. (1999) are contributing factors in global brand leadership. Global brands are perceived to be more reliable, have higher prestige, quality and innovativeness than local brands Steenkamp et al. (2003) and Holt et al. (2004), hence they offer more competitive advantage (Motameni and Shahrokhi, 1998; Dawar, 2012).

As discussed earlier, the literature suggests the business market offers a different scenario to the consumer market. With characteristics of few customers, complex network, few segments and derived demand (Webster and Keller, 2004), the business market goes beyond the product and service offering to include adapting to needs of customers, maintain effective systems, and where necessary offer customer advice (Ford et al. 2002; Beverland et al. 2007). Hence, adopting Joachimsthaler and Aaker (2000) brand leadership model framework, Beverland et al. (2007) examined the impact of global branding programs of industrial companies in New Zealand. Building their brand identities around adapting customer needs and total solutions provision where they found global brands position themselves and assure customers of high value brands.

Many studies referred to in Al-Sulaiti and Baker (1998) concluded that country of origin effects does have an impact on consumer choice. To this regard (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Cordell, 1992; D'astous and Ahmed, 1999) offered studies in this respect. However, where Han and Terpstra (1988) and D'astous and Ahmed (1999) used multiple cue method to arrive at their findings, the others chose single case method (CoO was the only information to which evaluation was made) to arrive at their findings.

Similarly, quality and price are very important factors to consider when brands move to other countries. Chao (1993) found that a brand's country of design (CoD) favours price in influencing consumer perception of quality. However, Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999), found Country of origin to have a bigger effect on perceived quality than on attitude towards the product or purchase intentions. They also concluded that there is no difference in perception of CoO between B2B and B2C purchases.

In addition, similar work was conducted in Nigeria, (Ogenyi 2004; Oyeniyi 2009; Okpara and Anyanwu 2011) on consumer perception of foreign against domestic products. These studies support the finding that consumers perceive foreign made products to have more quality, durable, stylish and have competitive price advantage. However, Oyeniyi (2009) concluded that the most common source of product information is word of mouth and advertising. While Ogenyi (2004) found consumers are willing to pay a higher price for Nigerian made products than foreign ones on the condition they are of superior quality. Specifically, these studies show consumer's preference of quality, whether of a foreign or domestic product.

It is interesting to note that the above studies have centred on building brand alliances through aspects of co-branding, ingredient branding, and endorsement, sponsorship and brand development in the industrial markets by looking at different brands within the business to business market. They all seem to indicate the growing success of building alliances between brands while a brand's country of origin may play a key part in consumer perception of quality with stiff competition on price. This might also be the case with motor oil brands which have increasing need for differentiation and with several studies conducted in several brands there is no study that focused on partner brands like motor oil. It may also be possible that motor oil brands moving to other countries will be influenced by price and quality.

2.6 Gaps in Knowledge

The literature review indicates that empirical studies on industrial markets places little emphasis on branding (Mudambi et al. 1997). Furthermore, there is even more literature dearth in brands on the processing inputs category. Analysis suggests that majority of the research on industrial branding focuses on the developed economies like the United Kingdom and United States. This then indicates the need for further studies in developing economies and indeed emerging economies due to the enormous importance of the business market to everyday business, specifically the relevance of the automotive sector as it relates to motor oil to the world economy.

Moreover, perusing the industrial branding literature suggests a progression from traditional branding strategies by attempting to create brand awareness, focusing on brand name to form a corporate identity, and then promote the name to target customers (Saunders and Watt, 1979; Shipley and Howard, 1993). The purpose of branding was to make the brand recognisable in the market without much care as to what happens at the point of contact with the consumer. However, contemporary view of branding seems to offer a different approach to how manufacturers want their brands to be seen in the market. Thus, Mcquiston (2004) offered that a new branding strategy needs to be established that will allow differentiation. Majority of the literature appears to focus on understanding industrial branding (Mudambi et al. 1997; Webster and Keller, 2004), Brand equity (van Riel et al. 2005) and to whom branding is important (Mudambi 2002). Also, rather than focusing on providing value through brand features and performance, the industrial branding literature appears to focus on building relationships with customers (Ward et al. 1999).

Additionally, models of industrial branding seem to focus on the industrial buying behaviour, linking aspects like, need recognition, buyer and purchase characteristics, and decision process and brand choice integrating branding attributes (Sheth, 1973; Mudambi, 2002). While others advance knowledge by demonstrating that brand performance and behaviour are important in creating a strong brand (Sarin, 2014). Unlike in the consumer branding, the business

branding literature offers little conceptual/theoretical studies. Rather, studies advancing knowledge appears to focus on empirical studies. Also, studies fail to offer understanding of industrial brands that functions in the B2B and B2C market. Therefore, this study intends to address the above gaps by understanding motor oil branding in the various segments of the supply chain.

2.7 Conclusion

The review of literature in this chapter highlights how considerable research was conducted in closely related areas of the industrial marketing segment. There are far more studies on industrial branding in the developed economies while, studies focusing on emerging economies are still lacking. Regardless of the number of studies on industrial branding, studies on branding hybrid, low involvement brands like motor oil is limited. Figure 1.1 presented in section 1.1 depicts the research gap in the literature. This apparent literature gap then strongly prompts the need for this study which will enable understanding of different branding techniques used by manufacturers with the supply chain partners to create brand awareness and differentiation. Lastly, Table 2.1 shows the key themes, author(s) and study focus identified in the literature.

Table 2.1: Summary of major themes of B2B branding in the literature

Themes	Authors	Study focus
Product Attributes	Saunders and Watt (1979)	Man-made fibres in the UK.
	Sinclair and Seward (1988)	Lumber and plywood panel in North America.
	Shipley and Howard (1993)	Benefit brand names by UK companies.
	Gordon et al. (1993)	Brand equity on electrical products.
	Mudambi et al. (1997)	Precision bearings in the UK.
	(Hutton, 1997)	Brand equity in business to business branding.
	Michell et al. (2001)	Companies have positive perception on brand names.
	Bendixen et al. (2004)	Medium voltage electrical equipment's in South African.
	Webster and Keller, (2004)	DuPont.
	Walley et al. (2007)	Tractor purchase.
	Alexander et al. (2009)	Buyers of industrial tyres.
	Attri, Urkude and Pahwa (2011)	Brand awareness of oil marketers in the petroleum public sector.
Buying Behaviour	Lehmann and O'shaughnessy, (1974)	Attribute aspects in business purchase.
	Doyle et al. (1979)	Relationships between buying phases and buying class.
	Wolter et al. (1989)	Business buyers and designers on numerous product configurations.
	Shipley and Howard (1993); and Mudambi et al. (1997)	Importance of decision making units (DMU) to brand attributes.
	Mudambi (2002)	Branding attributes and organisation buying behaviour.
	Kuhn et al. (2008)	Consumer based brand equity on B2B market.
	Mukherjee and Shivani (2011)	Branding support and simplify decision making.
Relationship management	Kalwani and Narayandas, (1995)	Relationships between manufacturers and suppliers.
	Langfield-Smith and Greenwood (1998)	Cooperative relationship between Buyers and sellers.
	Brennan and Turnbull (1999)	Telecommunications and automotive sector in the U.K.
	Narayandas and Rangan (2004)	General Electric, Peak Electric and Alpha tires with their components partners.
	Han and Sung (2008)	Brand value and buyer/supplier performance relationship.
	Brennan and Croft (2012)	The social media used as marketing tool in relationship building.
	Laroche et al. (2012)	Cisco and Dell transform customers and suppliers into brand communities.
Co-branding	Shocker et al. (1994)	Co-branding supports relationship between the manufacturer and supplier in Auto industry.
	Bengtsson and Servais	Independent wooden floors and electric heating mats distributors in Denmark.

	(2005)	
	Gloria Wu and Chalip (2013)	Effect of price and user image on branded and co-branded sports apparel.
Ingredient Branding	Ugla (2008)	Intel Inside
	Tiwari and Singh (2012)	Branded ingredients increase the host brand quality.
	Rid and Pfoertsch (2013)	Automotive supplier of car safety seatbelts and airbags, auto parts producer of automotive car components.
Brand Endorsement	Misra and Beatty (1990)	Endorsed brand with celebrity endorser enhances brand recall.
	Kamins and Gupta (1994); Liu and Brock (2011)	Combining endorser and endorsed brands on consumer attitude.
	Till and Busler (1998)	Physical attractiveness has on endorsed brands (men's cologne and a pen).
	Motion et al. (2003)	Celebrity endorsement.
Industrial Distribution	Rooney and Bougert (2000)	Effect of channel strategy.
	Keysuk and Changho (2002).	Knowledge of distribution channels in individual countries.
	Mudambi and Aggarwal (2003).	Industrial distributors in the new economy.
	Lin and Chen (2008).	Determinants of manufacturer's selection of distributors
	Holmquist and Linde (2011) Till and Busler (1998).	Areas of value between manufacturers and distributors.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH SETTINGS

Having presented the aim, objectives, and highlight the study gap in the previous chapters, this chapter will discuss the research settings in the two countries (UK and Nigeria). This chapter will discuss the cultural differences between the two countries by highlighting the socio-cultural, economic and supply chain activities in the two countries. As industrial branding is the focus of the research through motor oil branded products, the research sites will entail the downstream sector of the distribution chain such as, stores, motor factors, DIY stores, filling stations, independent garages, and dealers. In addition, a clear economic and geographic background of Nigeria and the U.K. will be presented to in order to have a clearer understanding of the two economies. Moreover, the researcher knowledge and familiarity with these two countries also played a role (i.e. language, culture, behavioural attitude, and networking). The chapter will also discuss the background of car ownership, and development of motor oil brands in both countries.

The choice of Nigeria for this comparative study is due to the following reasons: first, Africa has shifted from the period of deficit and unstable governments to that of opportunities, prospects, creativity and ventures. Nigeria has a fast growing youth population, growing middle class, brand aware consumers and becoming more sophisticated in their consumption, with a large focus on urbanisation (The Economist, 2014). Nigeria's large population and economy with renewed focus to improve the infrastructure; it remains an important avenue for investors. Further, the continental free trade agreement between African countries, positions Nigeria as a gateway to other African economies. This will allow global and local brand manufacturers to position themselves not just in the Nigerian market but in several African markets. Moreover, globalisation has almost saturated the different markets across different continents of the world. With the relatively untapped African markets this study will offer insight on how local and global brands operate and how the market responds to brands. Hence, including Nigeria in the study will provide insight into a vibrant new market for businesses.

Secondly, consistent with Ademigbuji (2013), the economy still lacks a reasonable volume of automotive investment which will influence motor oil promotion, compared to other developing economies like those in the Middle East or south East Asia. Thirdly, being the largest economy in Africa, the potential of the Nigerian market to attract automotive companies is huge. This may possibly lead to successful partnership to make Nigeria a major manufacturing hub in Africa, with market growth across the broader continent. Fourthly, the automotive policy initiated by the Nigerian government, strategically aimed at attracting global automotive manufacturers coupled with the large population of which over 54 percent are of the working group, will foster more demand for cars and subsequently, motor oil products. This may also relate to the technological drive of new modern electric cars that are going more popular in the developed economies. They may lead to automotive manufacturers of combustion engines to look at emerging economies for their future market target. Fifthly, with limited branding studies in Nigeria coupled with the market similarity in Africa, the findings will serve as a model for sub-Saharan African countries to allow ease of brand entry. Finally, despite the large size of the African markets with approximately 1.55 million new vehicles sold across Africa in 2015, Pillay and Davies (2016), the lack of adequate infrastructural development and purchasing power restricts the inflow of luxury cars. Hence, there is need for study on Nigeria due to the global nature of the world and brands need to leave their country of origin to other markets.

Therefore, understanding the differences and similarity between motor oil branding in the two countries will offer insights on Nigerian branding as well as on their UK counterparts. Therefore, in concurrence with the sequence of the fieldwork plan, the UK setting will first be presented followed by the Nigerian setting. This chapter is structured thus:

- Country information (3.1)
- Social trend (3.2)
- Retailing (3.3)
- Car ownership (3.4)

- Road networks (3.5)
- The petroleum industry (3.6)
- Conclusion (3.7)

3.1 Country Information

The United Kingdom (UK) comprising of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland with London as its capital is located in the northerner part Europe. It is among the Western European countries. According to the 2011 census, UK has a population of approximately 63.2 million (Office for National Statistics, 2011).

The UK is classified among the developed economies of the world with high access to market, occupying the fifth position (The World Bank, 2014). It is also grouped among the high income nations having a GDP of 2941.8 billion dollars (The World Bank, 2014). According to The Office for National Statistics (ONS), the services sector is the highest contributor to GDP with seventy-seven per cent, followed by the manufacturing sector (ten per cent), construction (seven per cent), other production (five per cent) and agriculture contributing (one per cent). The UK income structure is divided into upper class, middle class and lower class.

Nigeria is located in the western part of Africa, sharing borders with Cameroon in the west, Niger republic in the north, Benin republic on the east and the Atlantic Ocean from the south. According to the director general of the National Population Commission, Nigeria has a population of one hundred and sixty seven million with an annual growth rate of 2.3% (National Population Commission, 2006). The country's population is roughly one sixth of the population of Africa. However, for administrative convenience, the country is divided into six geographical areas; North Central, North East and North West, and South East, South-South and South West.

Among these regions are three hundred and eighty nine different ethnic groups having distinct languages separate from each other. Yet, the language adopted for official business is the English. Having played a big role and yielded huge influence in the country during the colonial days, adopting English as a language

settles the dispute between different tribal groups on which language to adopt in the country. The estimate of fifty per cent of Nigerian population are urban dwellers, the remaining per cent live in small rural areas and villages. Report from the United States census Bureau approximates by 2050 Nigerian population will reach over four hundred and two million, which will place it the fourth in the world most populous nation.

Table 3.1: Proportion of Nigerian population

Age group	Male	Female	Population	Percentage
0-14	30.462.148	28.274.149	58.736.297	41.83
15-64	38.348.799	38.809.933	77.158.732	54.94
65 and over	2.534.541	2.000.220	4.536.761	3.23

Source: National Population Commission

The country is further divided into thirty six states with Abuja as the capital. Kano is the most populous state with 9,401,288 million people, followed by Lagos, then Kaduna states respectively having 9,113,605 and 6,113,503 million people respectively (National Population Commission, 2006). Table 3.1 shows the proportion of Nigerian population based on age group and gender.

3.2 Social Trend

In order to have a clear picture and make sense of the area where data was collected, an understanding of past and current UK social setting will be necessary. Thus, this chapter discusses social trends pertaining to consumer behaviour and car ownership in Britain to shed light on their relevance to motor oil development. Accordingly, the Office for National Statistics (2013) prepared the Social Trends report where information on household structure and patterns of expenditure was offered in order to further understand the contemporary household.

Table 3.2: The UK social classification and employment patterns

Employment patterns	Occupation
Higher professional and managerial workers	Higher managerial, administrative or professional
Lower managerial and professional workers	Intermediate managerial, administrative or professional
Intermediate occupations	Supervisory or clerical and junior managerial, administrative or professional, Skilled manual workers
Small Employers and non-professional self-employed	Supervisory or clerical and junior managerial, administrative or professional, Skilled manual workers
Lower Supervisory and technical	Supervisory or clerical and junior managerial, administrative or professional, Skilled manual workers
Semi-Routine Occupations	Semi and unskilled manual workers
Routine Occupations	Semi and unskilled manual workers
Long-term unemployed	Casual or lowest grade workers, pensioners and others who depend on the state for their income

Source: Office for National Statistics

Traditionally the British society like other European and other societies in the world were operating the hereditary occupation, political influence and social status in all aspects of the social life. The industrial revolution brought changes to this system by creating equal rights for everyone. Social class in modern Britain is determined by education, wealth and occupation. Table 3.2 shows the UK social classification and employment patterns. The UK has an average household size of 2.4 people per household and a per head spending of £4,117, Office for National Statistics (2013) due to increasing trend for smaller household the number of household has increased to a considerable level resulting in single parent families and one person households. The report also indicated transport having the highest per head increase of £12 with ‘operation of personal transport equipment’ like, spare parts, fuels and maintenance making the highest contributions.

The age proportion of the UK population is divided into 0-14 years which are 31 per cent, while 15-64 years are 66 per cent and 65 years and over having 16 per cent. This population structure is also influenced by immigration influx with results showing one in fifteen persons living in the UK is an ethnic minority.

Similarly, results from the 2011 UK census shows a major part of the population has been urbanised with approximately ninety per cent of the population living in urban areas with Greater London having the largest concentration. Expenditure patterns will reflect on this urbanisation as structure of cities change. Evidence shows growth in the spending power of the UK older section due to baby-boomer generation who own a substantial part of the UK assets are ageing (Kingman, 2012). Having these assets especially housing at their disposal allows them leverage to purchase goods and to less likely feel the impact of the recession. Moreover, studies show from 2002 to 2010 spending on new vehicles has declined with the younger generation spending a lot less than the older generation (Kingman, 2012). Consequently, the changing trend of expenditure patterns in Britain has made retailers like, the department stores, supermarkets, high street stores and e-retailing to be a household destination for money spending, almost becoming a way to do everyday shopping.

The Nigerian past and current social background offer a clearer picture of the country research scenario for clearer understanding. Before the twentieth century, major parts of Nigeria are operating the traditional monarchy system where the kings control major parts of land; tax paid through him was used for the interest of the state. The Nigerian family structure is built on the extended family system however; smaller segments of family systems due exist. Marriage in the two dominant religions, Islam and Christianity, means more than one wife for Muslims and one wife for Christians. However, those who are traditional keep countless number of wife's, as was the custom before the advent of the two religions. Having high number of children is a common practice in the country with many seeing it as a status symbol. It is common for average households to have ten or more children. Similar to the UK social class the present day Nigeria is determined by wealth, occupation and education.

According to the National Bureau of Statistics (2013), the average household size in Nigeria is 5.7 individuals with the rural area being slightly higher and the north having higher household than the South. Nigerian households are mainly headed by men with households those headed by women are higher in urban areas. The South has the highest proportion of women heading a household twenty eight per cent than the north with seven per cent (National Bureau of Statistics, 2013). Table 3.3 shows the household size in urban and rural areas with the age distribution in Nigeria based on data from Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics. The Bureau's data shows that the urban area has witnessed a significant household change by having smaller household with single or shared household and single parent families. The report also shows spending per head of 1,600 pounds and a population of forty five per cent living less than 1.33 pounds per day.

Table 3.3: Percentage distribution of Nigerian household

Age	Household size	0-5		6-9		10-14		15-64		65+	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Urban	5.2	7.8	7.8	5.7	5.1	6.9	6.0	20.0	27.0	1.9	1.5
Rural	6.1	9.3	9.1	7.5	6.2	7.8	6.7	22.5	25.1	2.1	1.3

Source: National Bureau of Statistics (2013)

M (male), F (female)

As shown in table 3.7, the average proportion age of the Nigerian population 0-5 years in the two areas are 7.8 and 9.2 per cent, 15-64 years as 23.5 and 23.8 per cent and over 65 years having 1.7 and 1.7 per cent (National Bureau of Statistics 2013). The rise in the middle class over the past years means more spending power for a large part of the population, especially those living in urban areas. Also, the changes in the financial institutions allow banks to lend to the large number of the working class who constitute a substantial part of the middle class, will allow change in expenditure patterns, leading to higher level of car ownership. Moreover, several car manufacturers are beginning to show interest in the Nigerian market, with this development car dealers in collaboration with banks will offer credit to the middle class and indeed the wider population hence a huge increase in number of car ownership.

The economy of Nigeria has seen rapid growth since the discovery of oil in the late 1960s. Earlier to this period the economy was more agriculturally dependent, with massive exports of agricultural produce. Increase in oil price in the 1970s meant massive investment in infrastructure with construction of new roads linking different parts of the country, a housing scheme with an attempt to urbanise towns. This led to migration of people from the rural area to the urban towns. Presently, agriculture is practiced more as subsistence farming with people engaging in it for their personal needs only. As the economy became largely dependent on revenue from petroleum, agriculture was neglected up to the extent that export of cash crops which the economy depended on in the past are completely non-existent. The continued dependence on oil and the seemingly large poverty level of the population led to government attempt to deviate from the ‘resource curse’ of oil to other sectors of the economy.

Nigeria is regarded as an emerging economy moreover, the July 2014 rebasing exercise of the national account to revision and estimates the country's real GDP from 2010 to 2014 made the country to become the largest economy in Africa in terms of GDP and twenty fourth in the world in terms of PPP. Moreover, it is the largest in the West African Sub-region with a GDP of 568.5 billion dollars (The World Bank, 2013). According to projections, the country is to become the 20th largest economy in the world by the year 2020. Additionally, the National Bureau of Statistics reported Nigeria's GDP in 2015 comprise several sectors including, manufacturing, oil, agriculture, and trade. Table 3.4 shows percentage contribution to the economy for each sector in 2015.

Table 3. 4: Sectors boosting Nigerian GDP

Sector	Manufacturing	Oil	Agriculture	Trade	Information and communication
Percentage	9.29	9.80	21.12	17.22	12.25

Source: National Bureau of Statistics

Already, the West African region is highly dependent on Nigerian manufactured goods. Therefore, with more integration into this region and indeed the whole sub-Saharan Africa, export will improve greatly, enabling increase in business and

creation of more jobs and improve purchasing power. It is important to stress that these policies can only yield positive results and reduce cost of conducting business when there is reliable power supply, good road network, and effective communication service. According to the World Bank, transportation cost can be as high as seventy five per cent of total export value.

3.3 Retailing

The industrial age brought many changes to social life in Britain. Production, increase demand for manufactured goods and urbanisation made retailing necessary in the early part of the 20th century. Manufacturers are faced with the decision of getting their goods to the nearest location to the customer. Demarcation of class from upper, middle to lower meant customers no longer wish to have direct contact with manufacturers. Life style and social habits gradually changed to suit the evolving modern trends.

By the 1960's the UK market has matured and customers have adapted to the convenience of retailing usually as small corner shops or located in town centres. Retailers in collaboration with manufacturers then took on a different dimension by offering different range of goods in a store; engage in price competition and research to know the taste, wants and need of customers. This section highlights the background of the UK retail industry by looking at the retail market structure.

According to UK Trade and Investment (2014), the UK retail is the second largest destination for global brands, driving related industries like manufacturing, logistics and media. Similarly, reports from the UK Trade and Investment indicates that retail plays an important role to the UK economy, contribution five per cent to the GDP while attracting foreign investment and improving home investment. Similarly, UK Trade and Investment (2013) offered retailers constitute an estimate of nine per cent of the UK VAT registered businesses, while the total sector sales is approximated to be higher than three hundred billion pounds by the year 2011.

Additionally, retailing makes a considerable contribution to the British labour force, particularly the female sector and the youth who constitute a large portion of the population. Moreover, apart from the large retail chains, small independent stores exist, providing self-employment and offer alternative choice of purchase. These characteristics are evident in both markets, but the B2C market seems to have larger stores like Harrods, Tesco and Selfridges that employing thousands of people and corner shops that are smaller.

DIY culture: The term DIY (Do it yourself) refers to doing home maintenance or modification chores without the paid services of a professional (Watson and Shove, 2008). Similarly, Mintel (2005) states DIY as “repairs or additions to the home or garden, including installing a new bathroom or kitchen, central heating, putting up shelves, fixing a fence, building a barbecue, etc.” Recently, the DIY is referred to as a concept where individuals provide self-service to themselves which are otherwise expected to be done by a professional (Watson and Shove, 2008).

The DIY retail sector in the UK has had a declining impact as a result of global economic downturn. According to Key Note (1999) the failure of many UK banks, rising food and fuel prices, the housing market collapse, coupled with consumer confidence fall and credit restrictions to consumers, impacted on the DIY market.

The retail sector has witnessed growth in the DIY by encouragement through the manufacturers, retailers, family, friends and media, on customer adoption in all sectors (Watson and Shove, 2008). Major players in the UK DIY retailers like, B&Q, Homebase, Halfords, and Wickes expanded to accommodate the rising increase in consumer interest. Other sectors of the market are increasingly claiming a share. Supermarkets are gaining more interest in the DIY sector with increase expansion of shelf space to accommodate the diverse market. Research has shown stores like ASDA and Tesco have expanded to compete with the traditional DIY stores to offer low cost goods and shopping ease.

According to (Mintel, 2003; 2005) approximately, sixty two per cent of the adult population in the UK partake in DIY, with a current market worth of around £12 billion per annum and growing rate of seven to eight per cent every year. Motivating factors driving this trend vary from perception of creativity and self-expression, some by notion of economic considerations, others driven by control, care and quality. Financial reasons is no longer viewed as a reason for engaging in DIY or a reason for resorting to external tasks in the 'do it for me' (DIFM). Their participation is now seen as a lifestyle choice (Mintel, 2001). Since the DIY culture is an accepted phenomenon in the UK and indeed other developed economies, it plays a large part in the automobile sector of the UK economy with manufacturers designing cars to attract that particular section of the market. Hence, targeting the DIYers may play an important part in the branding of motor oil in the supply chain by partnering with car manufacturers to target the DIY enthusiasts.

UK distribution network: Distribution in the UK was a system that had been going on before the era of industrialisation. Goods manufactured by blacksmith, carvers etc., trade that was done at that period was transported from place to place by the producer usually to markets. Distribution in the post industrialisation witnessed mass production of goods that needed to reach a wide population over a short period of time. Manufacturers sold their finished goods directly to consumers without using middlemen. These consumers are of close proximity to the manufacturers and the consumers will have to bear the extra cost of the home delivery. As demand grew, this method gradually changed to emergence of independent middlemen who dispatch these goods on behalf of the manufacturer.

Although most distributions at the early stage are to the consumer markets, agreement between the manufacturer and the distributor has an element of B2B. The distributor, in most case, a single business owner will enter into trade agreement to distribute goods on behalf of the manufacturer. As more businesses developed there is need to distribute the finished goods for use in other businesses. The 1940s saw the UK economy becoming more developed and the

market structure (Pricing, supply, barriers to entry, efficiency and competition) changed with several companies' satisfying consumers in the same market.

Retail has an important role in distribution and sale of goods in Nigeria. Nigeria has traditionally practiced trading in open markets where goods are displayed for consumers' choice. Open markets in Nigeria constitute a large portion of retail, while convenient stores are growing with sign of acceptance in populated urban areas (Euromonitor International, 2015). This traditional market practice of buying and selling can still be found in all towns across the country. A large number of the population prefer the open market for their daily purchases. Despite this stagnant situation of the traditional open market there are a growing number of small stores displaying various goods in major cities. The formal retail is still relatively young in Nigeria with small presence of shopping centres and malls which are mostly located in major cities like Abuja, Lagos, Kano, Kaduna and Port Harcourt. Records also show a growing number of internet users with forty eight per cent of the middle class having access.

Moreover, increase in shopping centres and malls will greatly enhance retail business in the country. Already several malls are beginning to rise in some states of the country like Lagos City Mall housing shops, Silver Bird Galleria and a cinema complex, the Palms having wide variety of shopping choices. Mangal plaza in Kaduna having 520 shops, Country Mall, Jifatu Mall, Sahad Stores in Kano, hosting 230 outlets. The Federal Capital, Abuja has substantial number like, Ceddi Plaza, Sahad Stores and the Tinapa Project in Cross Rivers, which hopes to attract thousands of retail investment across the world.

The actions of State governments from 2004 to ban street trading, upgrade City Centres and modernise standards of trading will make the Nigerian retail sector to improve and be organised in the future. Already, the presence of international retailers like Mr Price, Hawes & Curtis and Woolworths among others in Lagos and Abuja indicates a positive sign for the future of retailing in the country as long as right policies are maintained.

It is however unlikely that there will be complete removal of the informal markets in Nigeria. According to Euromonitor International, the Nigerian retail scene will most likely consist of three platforms, “the traditional open markets or street traders, semi-formal modernised markets and Western-style shopping centres or formal retail outlets”.

3.4 Car Ownership

Car ownership during the early evolution of combustion engines was very low, ownership then symbolises wealth and status. According to Rac Foundation (2008) car ownership has steadily increased from the 1990’s to the present day due to several factors like, rise in population, which lead to increase in households and economic prosperity. The report further projected thirty per cent increase in people with driving licence by 2020.

Records show by 1900 motor cars in the U.K numbered two thousand, by 1904 it reached over eight thousand (Castrol, 1974). This trend drastically increased to 4, 8 and 19 million in 1950, 1960 and 1980 respectively (see table 3.5), when cheaper, more economical cars were produced (Department for Transport, 2012). Car ownership showed a remarkable increase to thirty one million in 2007 however, perhaps due to the world recession, car ownership reduced to 29.1 million, Rac Foundation (2008) with a projection of over 44 million cars by 2020. These records include licence cars and those that are termed as temporary off the road (Rac Foundation, 2008).

Table 3. 5: U.K car ownership

Period (years)	1900	1904	1920	1950	1960	1980	2007	2013
Number of cars	2 thousand	8 thousand	1 million	4 million	8 million	19 million	31 million	29.1 million

The size of households has a huge impact on level of car ownership in the UK with about 77% of household owning cars while percentage of single car per household has remained 44% since the 1960’s RAC foundation (2008). Although the number of car ownership consisted of a large number of those who own more

than one car (Exploring 20th Century London). However, households that do not own cars are occupied by a single person, sometimes those households will split to own separate houses thereby necessitating the need for more cars. The economic prosperity encouraged more people in the UK to own driving licence which also led to increase in desire for car ownership. Reports show approximately 34 million people living in the UK own a driving licence (RAC foundation 2008).

Apart from the choice of buying a new car, a large number of the UK population chose to buy used cars. According to RAC foundation (2008), sales of used cars are three times higher than that of new cars. The UK consumer in contrast to other European economies has more preference for used car which in many instances are traded due to mileage and age. Accordingly, studies show an annual sale of more than seven million used cars which is three times higher than that of new one RAC foundation (2008).

Apart from private cars, the UK car ownership has a substantial number of company cars. As the economy matured and more businesses were established, cars were bought to serve the business purposes which ultimately increased the level of car ownership. Companies that do business require cars to conduct their day to day business for efficiency and convenience. A high number of new cars (approximately half) of the UK market are done by companies who need cars for their businesses. This high ownership of cars by companies and their short period of ownership of around two to three years might perhaps be the reason for high number of used cars in the market.

In order to encourage purchase of fuel efficient, new cars, the UK government in 1992 introduced incentives to bring this plan to reality. Environmental issues were raised to reduce or remove older cars that emit smog and pollute the environment from roads. Scrap cars for cash or replacement for car were put in place to encourage this plan. This reduced the number of old cars by a considerable number giving way for new improved engines. Older cars that have been used for

years and its owner feels he/she do not regard them as scrap are regarded as vintage cars which are used on rare occasions with higher tax placed on them.

Moreover, the UK car owners have a varied taste of the type of cars they would like to own. According to Gasnier (2016); Saarinen, (2016) Ford Focus is the favourite car model, followed by Vauxhall Corsa, Ford Fiesta, Volkswagen Golf and Nissan Qashqai respectively. Similarly, ten cars have over one million new registrations for the year 2015. Ford Fiesta, Vauxhall Corsa, Ford Focus, Volkswagen Golf, and Nissan Qashqai have the highest number of car usage in the UK with the first five accounting for about forty six per cent. Table 3.6 shows the favourite cars according to their ranking.

Table 3.6: The UK's most favourite cars

Order of priority	Car models	Registrations
1.	Ford Fiesta	133,434
2.	Vauxhall Corsa	92,077
3.	Ford Focus	83,816
4.	Volkswagen Golf	73,409
5.	Nissan Qashqai	60,814
6.	Volkswagen Polo	54,900
7.	Vauxhall Astra	52,703
8.	Audi A3	47,653
9.	Mini	47,076
10.	Vauxhall Mokka	45,399

The automotive industry in Nigerian commenced with cars first brought into the country around the 1940s which were mostly used by the British, the wealthy Nigerians who did business with the British, and the traditional title holders living in the major towns. Mostly cars were used around the Lagos area then with improvement of the road network to towns across the country it was gradually been accepted as a means of transport and an alternative to the railway that had

existed decades earlier. By the 1940s car ownership comprised only fifteen individuals which mostly included the British.

Nigeria is a country that is highly dependent on cars as a means of transport. This is further supported by the dwindling railway system and the struggling domestic airline sector has made road transport the best alternative for private and business use. This reflects on the level of demand for car ownership in the country which is very high coupled with the poor state of public transportation. To many Nigerian household Car ownership is not about prestige but about necessity, a large number of household buy a car for nothing else but for their everyday needs. Records from National Bureau of Statistics shows an average of 0.8 per household in the middle class and an estimate of forty five per cent households in the middle class are not car owners.

The Nigerian automobile industry has been in business since the 1960s. Currently there are two car assembly plants in Nigeria, Peugeot Automobile Nigeria and Volkswagen of Nigeria (VON) located in Kaduna State and Lagos respectively, which assemble almost one hundred thousand cars per annum (National Automotive Council, 2014). In addition to this there are four truck plants in various locations across the country which is operating at low capacity and various automobile body parts manufacturers. According to the Director General of National Automotive Council, the automobile market in Nigeria has an approximate size of £1.8 billion (Nnabugwu, 2013). Presently there is an annual import of approximately 50,000 new and 150,000 used cars into the country, with passenger cars worth close to £1.2 billion (Ademigbuji, 2013).

This large proportion of used cars imported into the country mostly by the middle class approximately thirty eight million, Mamudu (2013) is an indication that with positioning and persuasion they will in turn buy cars assembled in Nigeria. An improvement of the car industry will channel these demand to new, more reliable cars. Despite the long period of being in the country the automotive industry faced many challenges resulting in its setback. Oigiagbe et al. (2012) offered several factors that contributed to this; lack of consistent policies by the government, the

Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) policy introduced in the 1980s leading to gradual eradication of the middle class and increase reliance on imported cars. In order to revive the automobile sector to be more attractive and profitable the Nigerian Government in 2013 introduced a National Automobile policy. This policy will encourage influx of numerous car manufacturers into the country, boost manufacture of local vehicle while eventually stopping import of used cars.

Car registration first started in 1945 with introduction of requirement for all vehicles to be registered if they are to be used in Nigerian roads. Over time cars gradually increased in number from the first registration of 2,700 in 1945 to 2.8 million cars in 1999, this number gradually increased to over twelve million by the year 2011. Table 3.7 shows number of cars registered in Nigeria from 1945 to 2011. Due to strict laws, encouraging car registration there was a sharp rise. However, there are still a substantial number of cars in Nigeria especially in rural areas that are not registered.

Table 3.7: Registered cars in Nigeria

Year	1945	1999	2004	2007	2011
Number of vehicles	2,700	2.8 million	5.8 million	7.0 million	12.6 million

3.5 Road Networks

Although engineered roads existed from the Iron Age to the Roman period they were always narrow, muddy in winter making it sometimes impossible to use and hard in summer, History learning site, by this time horse men and horse drawn carriages were the means of transportation for all of the UK. The 1600's witnessed road improvements with introduction of turnpike roads resulting in fees being charged for use of those improved roads. UK road network witnessed significant changes over the past one hundred years of development with modern, more comfortable roads made from tar.

The story of road development is as old as that of car development where horses had to give way for automobiles that are driven by engines. The manufacturing

class benefitted most from the new improved roads as they needed their finished goods to move much quicker. According to Department for Transport, by 1914 UK road network was twenty-eight per cent shorter than what we have today, it was after the First World War that major developments began to occur resulting in creation of a special department for roads hence began the expansion and linkage of roads from London to several cities.

Acceptance of cars by the public was gradual and the public had to be made to see their importance. By 1923, a kilometre of road had an average of five cars (Olympic Britain, 2012). The 1950s saw a surge in the public's acceptance of cars and the mass motoring, hence creating the need to build more roads so as to reduce the ever increase in congestion. Road network has improved tremendously from the early days and number of cars on the road has greatly increased that by 2012 every kilometre has an estimate of five hundred cars Olympic Britain (2012). Today, the road is U.K's most popular means of transportation resulting in usage of over four-fifths passenger travel and two-thirds of domestic freights Department for Transport (2012).

Table 3. 8: The UK Road network

Road types	Strategic road network	Primary road network	Second tier	Third class/ classified unnumbered	Unclassified
Road classification	M	A	B	No number (C)	No number (D)

Source: Developed from Department for transport

The 1936 Trunk Roads Act witnessed the expansion of principal roads in the UK with the M1 opening as a full-length motorway signalling the faster and easier road transportation. Motorways are termed as roads that serve inter urban routes that bear long distance traffic, they are usually designated with the letter M. Motorways are wider than other roads, although they were initially designed as a two way lane they are now constructed as a four lane road reducing traffic congestion and accidents. Linking other towns to motorways are the primary routes which according to Department for Transport (2012) are classified into A roads providing transport links in large scale between or within areas, B roads

links with different areas and connects with A roads, classified unnumbered roads unofficially designated as C road or minor road connects with the A and B roads, it also links with a village or housing estate and finally unclassified or D roads which constitute sixty per cent of the UK roads are designed for local traffic.

Lack of adequate roads to allow easy movement of cars to various locations has been a major challenge to developing countries and Nigeria is no exception. This hinders development and economic growth. With lack of alternative means of transportation the road is Nigeria's most common means of transportation either for personal or business (National Bureau of Statistics, 2015).

The first road was built in the Lagos area around 1914 to serve as feeder link to the expanding railroads. Road network gradually expand to other parts of the country with establishment of two roads in the 1920s linking Lagos in the West to Port Harcourt in the Eastern and to Kano in the North. By the 1960s Nigeria's road network has reached most towns that had large population in the country. The first expressway was established in 1978 linking Lagos to Ibadan and later to Benin City. According to Nigerian Ministry of Works by 1990 there were approximately 108,000 kilometres of roads in the country consisting of 30,000 kilometres paved and 25,000 kilometres gravel while the rest are earthed roads which are not tarred. Nigerian roads are further divided between the three structures of government; Federal, States and Local Governments where statistics show seventeen per cent controlled by the Federal Government, sixteen per cent States and sixty seven per cent Local governments.

Despite various efforts by previous administrations to further the building of new roads and rehabilitate the existing ones there is still a lot more efforts to be done. Records from Federal Ministry of Works show, there are only eight double lane roads linking various states in the country from Abuja-Kaduna-Kano, Kano-Maiduguri, and Abuja-Koton karfe-Lokoja. Other locations are Ajaokuta-Benue-Kogi states, dual roads in Port Harcourt-Aba-Umuahia-Enugu, the Lagos to Ibadan expressway, and Benin to Sagamu and Ibadan to Ijesa. These expressways are connected to single lane roads; they further connect to shorter roads leading to

towns and cities which, depending on the state the roads can be in good shape or needs rehabilitating. This makes the roads in Nigeria to be over used with complete dependence on all means of transportation. The lack of reviving the railway has not helped matters as moving goods from one place to another takes a long time not to talk of the danger involved.

The Northern part of the country has a more flat land with little hills in few areas and a shorter rainy season enables easy road construction and maintenance than the Southern part of the country. However, the large land mass size and wide population distribution makes road construction and maintenance difficult. Whereas, roads in the southern part are more difficult to construct with the rain forest and mangrove swamps occupying major areas. These complex problems between the divides in the country should be supplemented with an efficient rail system that will move both human and materials from one place to another and improve the distribution process. As it is now, ease of distribution is rather daunting with the lack of 'motor ways' road network across the country to ease speedy movement of cars from one location of the country to another.

3.6 The Petroleum Industry

Being a major industrial nation with high consumer power and good road network enabling high car ownership, the economy needs a high amount of oil for its domestic use. The UK occupies the 19th highest oil and gas producer in the world with an estimate of 1.5 million barrels per day and exports 775,000 million barrels per day (The Richest, 2011). Despite the large quantity of oil produced in the UK, its oil needs far surpasses production output. With a daily oil consumption of 1.699 million barrels the country is regarded as a major importer of petroleum (Department of Energy and Climate Change, 2014).

Being a major player in the oil exploration for over several decades, several UK companies are participating actively around the world making huge impact in the oil and gas industry. Table 3.9 show the position of the world's largest oil companies with their country of origin. With a long history of exploration and

investment in the oil sector, it is not surprising that UK companies are among the top ten positions.

Table 3.9: World's largest oil companies

S/N	Oil companies	Quantity	Country
1.	Saudi Aramco	12 million bpd	Saudi Arabia
2	Gazprom	8.3 million bpd	Russia
3	National Iranian Oil Co.	6 million bpd	Iran
4	Exxon Mobil	4.7 million bpd	USA
5	Rosneft	4.7 million bpd	Russia
6	PetroChina	4 million bpd	China
7	BP	3.7 million bpd	UK
8	Royal Dutch Shell	3.7 million bpd	UK/Netherlands
9	Petroleos Mexicanos	3.6 million bpd	Mexico
10.	Kuwait Petroleum Corp.	3.4 million bpd	Kuwait

Source: Helman (2015)

Motor oil has been a part of business in the UK since the nineteenth century, the evolution of locomotives meant oil was needed to keep the engine parts moving. Introduction of cars further pushed motor oil demand higher by making it available to consumers. Apart from oil exploration, manufacturing industries were built to support the increasing number of cars been produced for the mass market. Today, UK companies are spread across the globe making huge impact on development of safer, efficient motor oil and the automobile industry.

Nigerian oil exploration began as early as 1908, but production and export did not commence until 1958 (Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation, 2015). From a relatively insignificant sector in the 1960s to a vibrant sector in the 1970s becoming a major contributor to the nation's economy. Petroleum accounts for ninety eight per cent of the country's total export while it contributes about twenty five per cent to thirty per cent of the nation's GDP. Being a member of the OPEC

states, Nigeria is ranked the world sixth largest producer of oil and the first in Africa. The country produces an estimate of 2.5 million barrels per day and exports 2.1 million barrels of crude oil daily with reserve estimate at thirty four billion barrels (Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation, 2015).

Although oil exploration commenced in the early part of the twentieth century the Nigerian society was already using petroleum products. In 1907 Mobil began importing kerosene Udoh (2013), the first petroleum product into Nigeria for commercial use. Motor oil has played an important part of the transportation sector ever since the introduction of the railway in Nigeria. To ensure smooth operation of engines, motor oil is imported from the UK. Growing number of car ownership brought the need for motor oil in commercial quantity, hence the first commercial brand to be sold in Nigeria was a Shell brand, in 1927 (Lubricant Technologies, 2012). Discovery of oil saw emergence of global players in the oil industry in the exploration and the downstream sector of the Nigerian market.

Prior to deregulation in the 1980s where the government introduced policies in order to allow local companies to participate in the petroleum sector, only the major oil companies could operate a blending plant and sell motor oil in the Nigerian retail and business market. With deregulation came different brands from various sections of the world claiming a share in the ever competitive market. The major marketers, a category referred to those oil companies that have a substantive impact on the economy and are quoted in the Nigerian stock exchange take the dominant share of the petroleum and it's by products market. Most of these companies are multinationals with branches in several parts of the globe supplying branded motor oil to various outlets of the Nigerian market. According to Department of Petroleum Resources, six companies are categorised as major marketers, Total, Mobil, Conoil, Forte oil, Oando and Texaco controlling seventy per cent of the production and distribution of the petroleum and its products in Nigeria. Apart from MRS which does not have business interest in the motor oil sector.

Budget brand marketers who are mostly indigenous companies play a competitive part in the market with their number growing each year and many are involved in the manufacture of different motor oil grades. Retailing of motor oil brands in Nigeria commonly use petrol stations which are owned by the manufacturers, stores in auto workshops and retail stores that are located near car related workshops.

3.7 Conclusion

Overall, this chapter intends to improve the familiarity of the reader in the two countries for better understanding of the country situations. Second, it discusses the similarities and contrasts between the two economies by looking at the socio-cultural background, the economic significance, infrastructure and car ownership which improves the suitability for selecting criteria of doing a study in different cultures. The Nigerian retailing sector is maturing and gradually moving away from the traditional system of doing business to a more organised, systematic programme with foreign companies dominating the scene. In conclusion, by looking at the diverse socio-cultural and socio-economic background of the two countries will offer better understanding of how business is conducted and the success of brands within a country and how they operate when they move from their country of origin. This will help to shed more light to the present study in understanding branding of motor oil between two contrasting economies. The next chapter will present the research methodology to allow answering the research objectives and aim of the research.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses different areas of the research paradigm, from the assumption that realities are constructed through social actors, where the researcher interacts with the research scene and can affect the scene to uncover meanings through close interaction between the social actors to present a holistic approach to the research process. This chapter highlights the methods used for this study, including participant observations, content analysis of documents and interviews. The chapter discusses the rationale for choosing each research method to understand the branding nature of low involvement brands in the area of motor oil. The chapter is structured as follows:

- Philosophy and paradigm (4.1)
- Research design for this study (4.2)
- Data source of this study (4.3)
- Data collection procedure and analysis (4.5)
- The data analysis process (4.6)

4.1 Philosophical Assumptions and Paradigms

Research philosophy refers to knowledge development and knowing the nature of that knowledge in a particular field (Johnson and Duberley, 2000; Saunders et al. 2011). It is concerned with the way a researcher views the world. Hence, in conducting a research to achieve the set objectives, different approaches can be followed. Thus, research philosophy is based on different principles that combine beliefs about axiology, ontology, epistemology and methodology (Lincoln et al. 2011). Axiology is concerned with the ethics and how the research is judged; ontology is concerned with what we know about the world and how things exist in the world (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). Similarly, epistemology looks at how we get to know that the nature we know really exists the way we perceive it; or, rather, it is concerned with the outcome of how to know that knowledge (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998; Lincoln et al. 2011). Methodology, however, focuses on the most ideal means of gaining knowledge about the world and shapes our perceptions of the world on how that ‘valid’ knowledge is acquired (Creswell, 2013).

These sets of beliefs that guide action to define the world view of the researcher commonly referred to as paradigms are further structured into positivism, postpositivism, critical theory, constructivism and participatory (Lincoln et al. 2011). Table 4.1 shows the different paradigms and their assumptions. These paradigms work within different ontologies, epistemologies and methodologies. The positivist work within the realist and critical realist ontology while adopting objective epistemologies which assumes a coherent and consistent external reality which knowledge about them is gained exactly as it is (Morgan and Smircich, 1980; Lincoln et al. 2011). The reality is external and researcher is aware of the reality under study. A positivist and postpositivist will typically be interested in measurements, statistics and numbers, even when dealing with words, they attempt to analyse those words quantitatively by counting the frequency of the words occurrence. They typically rely on experiments, quasi-experimental and surveys.

Table 4.1: The different research paradigms

Paradigm	Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology
Positivism	Realist; critical realist	Objective; finding true	Rely on experiments; quasi-experiment; survey; hypothesis verification; primarily quantitative methods
Postpositivism	Critical realist; critical realist	Modified objective; findings probably true	Modified on experiments; quasi-experiment; survey; may use qualitative methods
Critical theory (and others)	Historical realism shaped by social, political, economic, cultural, gender and ethnic values; Crystallized over time	Subjective; value mediated findings	Dialectical/dialogic
Constructivism	Relativist through co-constructed realities	Subjective; co-created findings	Hermeneutical through naturalistic nature of the world
Participatory	Participative reality (subjective-objective reality)	Critical subjectivity in participatory; co-created findings	Political participation through collaborative action inquiry; use language grounded in shared experiential context; practicality primacy

Source: Modified from Lincoln et al. (2011)

On the other hand, constructivists do not believe on the independence of the external world outside our nature as humans and those who interpret the world (Morgan and Smircich, 1980; Lincoln et al. 2011; Creswell, 2013). Unlike the positivist who assumes that truth interpreted is imperfect, the constructivist believes in the value of that interpretation. The issue of something beyond that interpretation is unimportant, the importance is how we interpret the world to enable how we act (Morgan and Smircich, 1980; Creswell, 2013). According to Lincoln et al. (2011), constructivists argue that there is no single reality but multiple realities, assuming a relativist's ontology and the external world is valuable depending on how it is perceived. They also assume a subjectivist epistemology through interaction between the researcher and participant. Thus, a constructivist will be interested in finding out the views of external reality and is dependent on the interpretation. The methodological procedures are adopted due to the naturalistic nature of the world.

The positivist and constructivist interpretivists are the two different research philosophies commonly used in research. However, problems do not come divided into these dimensions. Thus, according to Levin and Greenwood (2011), a researcher can chose to adopt to use both qualitative and quantitative methods to arrive at the findings, commonly referred to as the pragmatist research philosophy. The mixed methods approach allows the researcher to discard how the world is perceived or if there is an external objectivity or not. But the researcher is focused on achieving the research aim using different research tools.

Consequently, due to the ontological outlook of this research, which is to understand the branding nature of low involvement business brands, the researcher adopted the constructivist paradigm to underpin the qualitative, multi methods design where it sought to understand and interpret the world according to the actions of its actors (Lincoln et al. 2011; Silverman, 2013). Thus, a constructivist research enables gaining access to viewpoints and experiences of the target participants across the automotive supply chain.

4.1.1 Research Approach

Depending on the order of paradigm choice, either positivism, postpositivism, critical theories, constructivism or participatory, lie the inductive and deductive approaches. An inductive research focuses on building theory, whereas a deductive research focuses on testing theory (Gill and Johnson, 2010; Saunders et al. 2011). Taking the standpoint of a pure realist to a relativist view is a span of research strategies including; case study,

phenomenology, experiments, historical, action and applied research, surveys, ethnography, grounded theory and clinical research (Lincoln et al. 2011). Within these strategies lie three main choices (mono methods, mixed methods and multi methods), where a researcher combines or mixes different techniques, methods, concepts, approaches within a single study (Yin, 2013). A wide range of procedures and techniques for data collection and analysis are available, such as interviews, observations, questionnaires, focus groups, artefacts, documents, records, visual methods, autoethnography, applied ethnography and thematic and content analysis (Lincoln et al. 2011; Creswell, 2013).

In this thesis, the researcher adopted an inductive approach. As little is known on motor oil branding, the approach allowed the researcher to understand the meaning of the branding phenomenon through the perspective of others. The inductive approach, grounded in observation and experiences of the past and present, offer understanding through associating patterns, identified in the study, to form categories, which will help model motor oil branding phenomena in the aftermarket.

4.1.2 Technique for this Study

According to Saunders et al. (2011), qualitative and quantitative designs can be interpreted through their philosophical assumptions and research approach and can be further associated with the choice of strategy employed (Davies and Ward, 2005). Several authors (Husse and Hussey, 1997; Kent, 1999; Burns and Bush, 2013; and Creswell, 2013), are of the opinion that the two approaches are complementary to each other. Saunders et al. (2011), defines qualitative research as a technique that generates or uses non numeric data, whereas quantitative study is a technique that entails the use of numerical data. However, these narrow definitions have been subjects of criticism (Neuman, 2006; Bryman and Bell, 2011; Creswell, 2013; and Yin, 2013).

Problems will arise in decisions to combine elements of both methods so as to arrive at a finding. A further elaboration of the definition was offered; hence, Creswell (2013) defined qualitative research as activities aimed at addressing meanings of human or social phenomena in a natural setting through an inductive or deductive analysis to establish themes and patterns. Impliedly, it involves data collection, analysis and interpretation to enable understanding of the social world through people's sayings and actions. Denzin and Lincoln (1998), noted that qualitative research is typically multi-methods in focus, involving an

interpretive approach to its subject matter. Qualitative researchers study phenomena in their natural settings, making sense of or interpret phenomena related to meanings people bring to them. They further highlighted the fact that qualitative research is not employed in a single discipline, but can be used in several research areas.

Accordingly, Bryman and Bell (2011) highlighted the importance of qualitative research in generating theory, especially with grounded theory practitioners. They further deduced that qualitative data may result in generation of theory where it warrants going back to the field to collect further data to test the theory that emerged. Hence, research authors Denzin and Lincoln (1998); Neuman (2006); and Creswell (2013), argued qualitative research could also be used in testing theories indicating the importance and maturing of the strategy in testing theories. In contrast, Denzin and Lincoln (1998) defined quantitative research as, analysis and measurement of causal relationships between variables, rather than processes with a value-free framework of inquiry. Hence, the research approach aimed to quantify data and seek the application of statistical analysis.

Critics of qualitative research claim the strategy is unscientific, exploratory, based on bias and the difficulty of the rich data to offer analytic paths (Miles, 1979). However, Denzin and Lincoln (1998) argued that qualitative study is also an area of research in its own right. They pointed out that, qualitative research seeks to understand socially constructed nature of reality, relationships between what is studied and the researcher, and constraints that shape inquiry. They further added that research of this nature seeks answers to questions that stress how social experience is created and given meaning. Furthermore, Lincoln and Guba (1985), asserted that concepts and theories developed in qualitative research merely form representations where the same phenomena may offer different presentation. On the other hand, quantitative research is often criticised as unsophisticated and sloppy, its emphasis is usually on analysis and measurement of causal relationships between variables, while a value free framework is expected to form the basis of inquiry (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). It is usually deductive in approach by using data to test theories. In some instances, quantitative research may integrate inductive approach by using data to develop theory (Saunders et al. 2011).

Each of the approaches uses different forms of representation, textual evaluation and interpretation. Qualitative research is associated with ethnographic prose, first person accounts, historical narratives, life histories, fictional facts, biographic and autobiographical

materials, still photographs and fictionalised facts (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Denzin and Lincoln, 1998), whereas quantitative research employs mathematical models, graphs, statistical tables with their research presented in a third-person style (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998).

In the same vein, Lincoln et al. (2011) cautiously suggested the possibility of blending elements of different paradigms to represent the best view of both. To offer deeper understanding of a phenomena, studies adopt triangulation, meaning, the use of multiple methods within qualitative, quantitative or both approaches. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1998), qualitative research fits this scenario due to its ability to adopt multiple methods approach to enable deep probing of issues and offer triangulation. They then questioned the ability of quantitative research to offer a deep understanding of phenomena as with qualitative research. Moreover, Rice and Ezzy (1999), challenged the rationale for adopting statistical techniques in quantitative research against the interpretive process as it will not allow examining meanings in a study.

Table 4.2: Qualitative and quantitative research methods

Qualitative method	Quantitative method
Construct social reality, cultural meaning	Measure objective facts
Focus on interactive processes, events	Focus on variables
Authenticity is the key	Reliability is key
Values are present and explicit	Value free
Situational constrained	Independence of context
Few cases, subjects	Many cases, subjects
Thematic analysis	Statistical analysis
Researcher is involved	Researcher is detached

Source: Developed from Guba and Lincoln (1994); Creswell (2013)

The importance of qualitative research to marketing is highlighted by Gordon (1999), where he opined that qualitative methods offer the best means of understanding the symbolic values of brands. Additionally, Hanby (1999) suggested that the notion of brands occupying physical space is shifting to seeing them as living objects; hence, a research shift with more focus on

qualitative approach is needed. Therefore, in light of the above discussions and based on the exploratory nature of this research and to meet the set objectives, the most suitable approach to answer the research questions for this study was the qualitative approach using the multi-methods process. Silent and abstract meanings ascribed to the branding phenomena were explored through this process from the view point of the participants, across the automotive supply chain in Nigeria and the UK. Accordingly, the next section discusses the research design by highlighting the rationale for selecting grounded theory as the most suitable strategy and the data sources to address the research objectives.

4.2 Research design for this Study

As little is known on industrial branding in general and motor oil branding in particular, this study employed the exploratory approach. Furthermore, the study was qualitative in nature. This approach was selected for many reasons. Firstly, as research in the area of motor oil branding is limited and inconclusive regarding the strategies followed to offer value, it was considered appropriate to use qualitative research to analyse the strategies used by motor oil brands across the automotive supply chain, and determine the branding strategies followed in generating point of differentiation and competitive advantage. Secondly, qualitative studies offer an appropriate means of knowledge generation where the subject area concerned is broad and complex (Zaltman et al. 1982) as in the one investigated here. Thirdly, in the field of industrial branding, few theories/models grounded on empirical studies were offered. A large number of the “theories” are postulated quantitative models. Thus, a method that allows developing deep insights rooted in data to uncover tacit knowledge of the participants was required.

Selecting an appropriate strategy and methods to answer research questions can be a complex process. According to Saunders et al. (2011), making methodological choice can be a dilemma for researchers, pointing out that there is no appropriate way of solving a problem, only a sequence of compromises. Although each research strategy has its own primary focus, they seem to connect with each other in various ways. Survey research is primarily concerned with generality, where action is concerned with issues of utilization, experimental with precision and ethnographic research is concerned with the primary context (Gill, 2002).

To say there is an independent way to evaluate research strategies would be untrue, bearing in mind the several advantages each strategy offers. Largely, the multi-method strategy may be

a more favourable option where the incorporation of different strategies will strengthen the findings as against using a single method (Gill, 2002). According to Patton (1990) and Creswell (2013), several methods of inquiry exist in qualitative research like Ethnography, Heuristic Inquiry, Phenomenology, Chaos Theory, Hermeneutics, Symbolic Interactionism, System Theory, Ecological Psychology and Heuristic Inquiry. However, they identify five qualitative research techniques: the case study, grounded theory, phenomenology, ethnography and narrative study (Patton, 1990; Creswell, 2013). The importance of each approach to inquiry in order to understand the empirical world differs. Creswell's choice for selecting these qualitative approaches among other approaches mentioned by other researchers rests upon their preference for approaches that have a systematic procedure of inquiry.

The choice of which strategy to use rests on the appropriate information that will answer the research questions (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). The last three strategies were dismissed due to the nature and circumstance of the study. First of all, with phenomenological study, the researcher focused on the experience of all participants under the phenomena studied, thereby giving the study a general meaning. According to Patton (1990) and Creswell (2013), phenomenological research refers to the meaning of lived experiences of several individuals relating of concepts or phenomena under study. Clearly, this did not seem to be the case in this study. Secondly, culture is the focus of ethnographic study rather than selecting from few individuals or subjects, ranging from a large group like a nation to a small group of participants (Patton, 1990). As the researcher was a sporadic observer, it was apparent that this was not applicable to this study. Thirdly, narrative studies focus on gaining knowledge of one or two individuals and data gathering involves their collection of stories, gaining insight from their individual experiences and making sense of those experiences (Creswell, 2013). Hence, this also was not suitable for this research. The remaining research strategies, grounded theory and case study appeared to be suitable in understanding the phenomenon.

4.2.1 Argument for the Choice of Grounded Theory

The methods chosen for a particular study are influenced by prior ontological, epistemological and human nature assumptions (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011; Creswell, 2013). As earlier explained, the subjective nature of this study suggested the qualitative approach was more suitable for achieving the aim of this study. According to Denzin and Lincoln, (2011) research methodology refers to the thoughts about the reality of a phenomena and how

to study that reality. Hence, the choice of grounded theory as a research methodology is done for these specific reasons. The lack of prior research and the nature of research questions, which starts with how and what (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). As stated earlier, with so few studies on industrial branding and the lack of prior studies on motor oil branding supports the choice of grounded theory for this study. Additionally, this study relied on the perceptions of participants to allow the emergence of clear understanding of the branding phenomena through the automotive aftermarket. As argued by Glaser (1992) commencing studies with pre-defined variables exclude the likelihood of identifying new categories or variables of data or a more substantial analysis of the relationship between categories, which is important when considering to conduct studies involving complex phenomena in organisations or professional settings. However, this does not mean that other models already developed in the field are irrelevant or not valid. The choice of grounded theory to empirically develop a model to explain a phenomenon inductively, would provide a different perspective rather than through deductive or predetermined reasoning. The paramount choice for the selection of grounded theory was to cover the literature gap in exploring the participants' view by grounding the results from data through the supply chain.

Moreover, grounded theory focuses on emerging theory from gathered data through a systematic analytic procedure, which contrasts verifying prior theories. This presents a more accurate picture of the phenomena and allows the data to tell the story (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Additionally, grounded theory emphasises on research and discovery through an emergent process (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Therefore, this allows for theory generation associated to the substantive area the study intended to investigate.

4.2.2 Grounded Theory Research

Grounded theory was developed in the health and nursing sector by two Americans, Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss in the 1960s. Their first book titled *The discovery of grounded theory* was published in 1967 and focused on studies of patients dying in hospitals. The study was viewed as an alternative response to the paradigms of then predominantly quantitative research. Rather than having a methodology that will test existing theory, grounded theory strives on creating new theory by linking interrelated concepts to offer meaning. Grounded theory offers the opportunity for theory generation from data collected in an inductive study to enable explanation of a phenomenon (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

Hence, Strauss and Corbin (1998) defined grounded theory as, “a theory that was derived from data, systematically gathered and analysed through the research process. In this method, data collection, analysis, and eventual theory stand in close relationship to one another”. It promotes presenting ideas from data rather than forcing them on data (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Consequently, Strauss and Corbin (1998) and Bryman and Bell (2011) suggested that the grounded theory approach should allow theory to emerge from the data rather than starting a study with a preconceived theory, unless the researcher plans to adjust an existing theory.

A researcher using the grounded theory enters the field open minded, without preconceived ideas of what might be found. Although the proposition of ‘theoretical avoidance’ have been criticised (Goulding, 2002; Lee et al. 2005). The researcher should balance the judgement of prior knowledge and keep an open mind to what will be found in the field. The grounded theory study focuses on concepts to create new theory rather than theory testing. Hence, the goal is to predict or explain a phenomenon based on empirical data, instead of attempting to achieve statistical generality through representativeness.

Furthermore, according to Glaser and Strauss (1967), Strauss (1987), Lee et al. (2005) and Punch (2013), the precepts of grounded theory allow the strategy to be applied in several disciplines. Hence, it offers a different and effective opportunity to furnish new insights for conducting business research (Gummesson, 2000; Pettigrew, 2000; Locke, 2001; Lee et al. 2005). Its many advantages to business research are capturing the complexity of situations as they unfold, links with practice in organisations, facilitates establishing theoretical work in areas that are under researched and with its open ended approach and rigour, it can provide a different view of established fields (Lee et al. 2005; Bryman and Bell, 2011) to allow the validity of a theory building process (Lee et al. 2005).

Since the development of the grounded theory by Glaser and Strauss, different approaches have evolved by several authors to offer different methods of the analytic process: the classic ‘Glaserian’ approach, Strauss and Corbin and the Charmaz approach. Although they all point to theory building, each method offers a different approach to achieving the desired results. Comparing the original 1967 views of Glaser and Strauss with those of Strauss and Corbin (1990) procedures and techniques and Glaser’s counter reaction indicates what Goulding (2009) calls, “a subtle but distinct differences of opinions between the two authors since its inception”. Hence, Glaser’s response was that the Strauss approach stressed the methods

suggested were highly complex, predetermined categories leading to theory development would be forced. However, Strauss and Corbin (1990) argued that the deep questioning helps to generate many codes that gave rise to data reductions; hence, the reason for additional levels of axial coding.

Furthermore, Glaser (1992) suggested that addressing the research questions at the beginning should be avoided to allow data gathering to assist in generating the research questions. Conversely, Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggested that research questions can be used at the beginning of a research, so as to allow developing the study stages. Moreover, Glaser (1992) stressed that researchers should focus on a generation of concepts from data, while Strauss and Corbin (1998) emphasised on describing the research area under study. In addition, Strauss and Corbin (1998) recommended a review of existing literature, so as to guide the data collection and analysis phase. However, Glaser (1992) frowned upon literature review before embarking on data collection.

Comparative analysis is often used in grounded theory research to generate theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Lee et al. 2005). This is achieved by generating conceptual categories or properties from the available evidence which is then used to show the concept. Furthermore, the analysis is used to generate two types of theory, substantive and formal. Where substantive theory implies developing a pragmatic area of inquiry and formal theory involves theory development for conceptual study. The two theories are grounded in data, then illustrated to depict the phenomena under study (Bryman, 2012).

The literature offers different models to explain business to business branding (i.e. Mudambi et al. 1997; Mudambi, 2002). However, these models were developed and tested using different samples and population or deduced from consumer branding models differ from this present study. Furthermore, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is lack of substantive theory to explain the phenomenon of the motor oil branding process. Hence, the application of grounded theory research in this study would enable the emergence of a model instead of a formal theory to describe the nature of branding motor oil in developed and developing economies. As it is suitable for exploration and human interaction research, the grounded theory allowed insights to emerge from the manufacturer to the various segments of the supply chain.

The choice of approach remains with the researcher to determine which approach fits the ontological and epistemological underpinnings. Consequently, the researcher believed that, to undergo the study, one needs a preliminary review of the literature to develop the topic awareness which will lead to understanding the under studied phenomenon. Hence, the researcher adopted the Strauss and Corbin (1998) approach as best suited for this study.

4.2.3 Case Study Research

In order to gain understanding of the nature of an unknown phenomenon within the B2B sector of motor oil branding, a pilot study was done by adopting a case study of a matured motor oil brand that had been in business for over one hundred years. Easterby-Smith et al. (2012), defined a case study as a research strategy involving investigation of a real life context of a particular phenomenon. Consequently, case studies typically focus on specific social entity like groups, organizations, events and communities. Case studies usually attempt to answer the questions of ‘what’, ‘why’ and ‘when’ (Saunders et al. 2011; Farquhar, 2012; Yin, 2013).

Table 4.3: Types of case study

Criteria	Units of analysis	Characteristics of case study
Single case study	Holistic	Single unit; examine global nature of organisation, when no logical subunits are identified, rare or unique circumstances, and representative, revelatory, longitudinal, sampling logic.
	Embedded	Examine sub-units of the organisation.
Multiple case study	Multiple case	More than a single case, evidence more compelling/robust, longer time/resources, replication logic.

Source: Developed from Yin (2013)

According to Yin (2013), case study research offers flexibility due to its ability to focus on a single or multiple case design. Single case studies are characterised by being holistic, where a single case is studied and embedded involving sub-units. According to Yin (2013), the holistic design has an advantage when sub-units cannot be identified. However, multiple case designs offer alternative options to a researcher. Accordingly, research design may determine the rationale for selecting a single case which is classified as: critical case where testing a well formulated theory is required, a unique case, representative case to capture conditions and circumstances of a situation, revelatory case in observing inaccessible phenomena and

longitudinal case. In contrast, Yin offered that the multiple-case design has several advantages to a study, such as a more robust evidence, but it takes longer and requires more resources and the design follows a replication logic rather than sample logic. Table 4.3 shows the types of case studies with their characteristics.

Table 4.4: Single case design

Rational	Circumstances
Critical case	Testing a well-formulated theory.
Unique case	Rare cases are being studied.
Representative case	Capture every day or common place situations.
Revelatory case	Previously inaccessible or scientific investigation exists.
Longitudinal case	Studying the same single case at two or more different point in time.

Source: Developed from Yin (2013)

Most books on research methodology (Stake, 1995; Saunders et al. 2011; and Yin, 2013) point to the longitudinal nature of case study research taking different periods, sometimes a week, a month, a year or even a decade or more, with follow-ups in periodic times employing the use of several techniques of data collection. Hence, Yin (2013) offered five rationales for selecting a single case study to address the research problem. First of all is testing a well-formulated theory by specifying clear sets of propositions. Secondly, instances when rare cases are being studied. Thirdly, capturing every day or common place situations, while the fourth is based on previously inaccessible or scientific investigation exists. Finally, is a longitudinal case, by studying the same single case at two or more different points in time. Table 4.4 shows the different rationales for case study design.

The initial intention was to consider multiple brands in both countries, such as Duckhams and Repsol in the UK and similar brands in Nigeria that would allow a multiple-case design. However, lack of sufficient data restricted the choice of a single case in the UK. Unfortunately, in Nigeria, there were no archival adverts regarding some brands and where data was available, it was not enough for meaningful analysis. Having reached saturation of data collection, Castrol offered sufficient records to allow meaningful study.

The rationale for choosing a single case study against a multiple case design centred on that the single case represented the longitudinal case, allowing the study of same single case at two or more different points in time. Hence, consistent with Stake (1995), the single case study takes a particular case and gets to know it well by understanding the overall nature of phenomenon rather than specific areas of the topic. The pilot study thus, explored how the branding nature of the particular case evolved over time. Nellson et al. (2011), used a similar design by focusing on a single automobile retailer to find out how customer confidence was developed from 1928-1939. Their study, although limited to a single case, suggested several approaches to reassure customers. The analysis also showed different data sources were used, ranging from mail order catalogues, annual, financial and auditors reports, newspaper clippings, in-house publications and artefacts to arrive at the findings. Furthermore, with so little known regarding motor oil branding, the case study serves as a pilot study in order to understand what was going on in the motor oil business by focusing on a matured brand (Yin, 2013).

Being a major player in the motor oil business over such a long period of time, Castrol is seen as one of the pioneer brands in the UK and has been in existence right from the early 19th century to the present day. Aside from its long presence in the industry, Castrol has engaged in multiple promotions over several different media to connect consumers with its brand. Its TV adverts in the 1980s were particularly memorable, distinguishing the brand and telling consumers how unique the brand was. The researcher also realised the brand's consistent presence in sporting events in which other motor oil brands were not visible. Castrol also appears as a global brand with strong presence in many parts of Europe, America, Asia and Africa. Hence, it offered the researcher a very good choice for case study of a mature brand in a matured economy which would allow generalising the results to the wider motor oil brands (Silverman, 2013).

Based on this, in order to address the research problem and fit the research design, an initial longitudinal archival single case study approach was adopted for the study. This allowed the researcher to understand what was going on in the motor oil business and, with no prior empirical study in the sector and the archival study would increase knowledge of the branding phenomenon. This approach was suitable in tracking changes over the course of time, by looking at archival records of a matured motor oil brand in the UK to aid in gaining insight of branding. The question at this stage was to understand 'how', hence, a case study

approach was more appropriate. Therefore, with these points in mind, a case study in order to understand how and what is going on in the B2B branding of motor oil was deemed highly appropriate.

4.4 Data Sources for this Study

Given the exploratory nature of the study and the need for an inductive approach to allow developing a model which will offer understanding of the B2B nature of motor oil from the manufacturer to the distribution chain and a need for a method that would answer those unexplained questions, observation appeared to be the most relevant instrument for collecting data. This method allowed deeper probing to understand motor oil branding. Hence, this research method formed the primary means of research in the two economies. Moreover, interviews and documents were used to gain further insight. Additionally, social media sites such as Facebook, twitter and LinkedIn, were randomly searched to supplement in corroborating the findings in general. Table 4.5 demonstrates the different data sources and their focus in the study.

Table 4.5: Data sources for this study

Data source	Units of analysis
Magazine adverts	Archival, current records
Participant observations	Retail and distribution chain, car speed racing
Semi structure interviews	Marketing managers

4.4.1 Participant Observation

Participant observation is a branch of observation research that focuses on interpreting meanings to people’s actions. According to Saunders et al. (2011) and Punch (2013), observation research is viewed as qualitative or quantitative technique with participant observation as qualitative, while structured observation as quantitative. Thus, the goal is not to capture the situation or behaviour, rather it emphasises on understanding the meanings the behaviour and/or situation has on the subject under study. Hence, participant observation can be defined as a data collection technique that allows immersing into the research setting to become a part or member of the setting to gain understanding of its meanings (Saunders et

al., 2011). Participant observation is especially relevant in a study of phenomenon where little is known and interpretation aims to generate theory (Jorgensen, 1989).

Business research books offer two types of observation research: participant observation and systematic observation (Saunders et al. 2012). Participant observation is further divided into complete participant, complete observer, observer as participant and participant as observer (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Saunders et al. 2012). Hence, participant observation requires full involvement of the researcher with the participants or phenomena being observed (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). It seeks to gain understanding of phenomena in its natural setting (Dewalt and Dewalt, 2010).

According to Jorgensen (1989), participant observation helps in the description of what is going on within a particular situation, the place it happens, those involved, why and how they occur. Therefore, the role of the researcher as the main research instrument is an important aspect in participant observation. It has the advantage of maintaining the natural setting of what is observed. Additionally, it has an advantage of offering the opportunity to attain rich insight, while offering a holistic explanation by integrating various relationships between factors. In addition, data is context sensitive, while point of view is understood from the occurrences that emerged (Jorgensen, 1989). Non participant observation involves the researcher being detached from the activities going on and participants are not aware they are being observed (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Saunders et al. 2012). Hence, participant observation in this study sought to reveal and uncover meanings to the interplay from the manufactures to segments of the supply chain towards promoting their brands.

Several options are offered for adoption of field role by the researcher while conducting observation research. According to Gill and Johnson (2010) and Lewis et al. (2007), the complete participant and complete observer involves the covert approach where the researcher conceals their identity. In contrast, the observer as participant and participant as observer involves the overt approach where the researchers' identity is revealed to the participants (Lewis et al. 2007). The complete participant entails the researcher to become a part of the group in which the research is intended. The researcher's identity, as well as the research purpose, is hidden from the group. Similar to the above, the identity of complete observer and research purpose is concealed to the intended group. However, the researcher plays no part in the activities. The researcher plays the role of a spectator while observing the natural occurrence of the phenomena. The third role the researcher could adopt is the

observer as participant. Here, the identity of the researcher and purpose of research is revealed to the informants and if necessary interactions may occur instead of just being a spectator. The concluding role to adopt is a participant as observer, where the identity of the researcher is revealed while being involved in the activities.

Therefore, for this study, the researcher adopted the participant as observer role. This enabled the researcher to be a sporadic observer, moving in and out of organisations (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012) make observations, take notes and pictures while conducting informal interviews to clarify areas not well understood.

4.4.2 Semi Structured Interviews

Interviews serve as an integral part of generating data. They offer a way for the research subjects' point of view (Silverman, 2013). Interviews help researchers to probe data that offers little room for observation, such as thoughts, feelings, intentions and behaviours of the interview by the interviewer. Similarly, Kavle (1996), offered several positive aspects to interviews in that it allows probing to elicit more responses, provides interviewer and interviewee flexibility and it offers a higher response rate due to peoples preference for verbal retort rather than writing.

According to Arksey and Knight (1999) and Creswell (2013), there are three different types of interviews: structured, unstructured and semi-structured. Conducting the interview may be through a focus group, face to face or telephone. The technique adopted for this study was the semi-structured interview, due to its flexibility to allow informal responses while selecting relevant topic areas to pursue, probe responses, seek clarification or elaboration and follow up ideas (Arksey and Knight, 1999). Similarly, semi-structured interviews allow for asking the same questions from those involved, focusing on the topic and exploring important sub-areas. In addition, an approximate equal time for each case is allowed (Gilham, 2005).

Table 4.6: Nigerian motor oil companies and their location

Company	Location
Total Nigeria PLC	Abuja
Conoil	Lagos
Oando	Kaduna
Mubeco Petroleum Company Ltd	Kaduna
AZ Petroleum Products	Kano
Lubcon	Abuja
Castrol	Lagos

Considering the nature of the informants, there is the tendency of withholding vital information during the interview process. Thus, the-semi structured interviews allowed probing questions to enable them express their views. Similarly, it allowed the interviewer to cover all areas of concern. The structured focus of semi-structured interviews allows commonalities of analysis while facilitating a robust element of discovery (Gillham, 2005). A limitation to this study, however, was the lack of interviews with brand managers in the UK. Several attempts to seek permission for the interviews were made by the researcher, but were declined or there was no response. Hence, the interviews provided insight primarily from the Nigerian motor oil brands.

4.4.3 Documents

The most popular qualitative research methods are the observations, interviews and documents. According to Creswell (2013), documents are used to supplement observation and interviews. Documents offer an invaluable source of data in that they are in most cases free, easily accessible and contain information that otherwise would have taken a considerable amount of time and effort to gather. Unlike observations and interviews where the researcher presence may alter the study, documents offer the advantage of data stability. Consistent with Witkowski et al. (2006), advertising - a frequently consulted source in marketing research - was used as an exploratory study to understand the historical background of branding a matured motor oil brand in the UK. Thereafter, data for the main study was collected from magazine adverts for a two-month period, between September to

October 2013, looking at different advertising appeals, including text and visuals used by UK motor oil brands.

Moreover, to gain more insight, several website pages of different motor oil brands, online articles and brand republics were studied. The purpose was to study evident content in these documents that offer more insight of how motor oil companies go about building their brands across different platforms to appeal to customers. This multiple use of documents allowed the researcher to corroborate, hence triangulate the findings so as to achieve the research objectives.

The previous sections discussed the philosophical stand adopted for this research and highlight the methodological issues in broader context. The next section discusses the procedure for data collection and analysis process to help identify categories that describes the branding process.

4.5 Data Collection Procedure and Analysis

This section represents the data collection and analysis procedure used in this study. In addition, similar to most qualitative studies, the process for collecting and analysing data will be outlined concurrently (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Creswell, 2013). To further achieve the set objectives and introduce rigour to the study, cross referencing different data sources through triangulation were provided. The use of documents, such as magazine adverts of motor oil brands in the UK, websites and newspaper reports were used. Moreover, interviews with marketing managers in Nigeria were corroborated into the study. Furthermore, issues of research ethics were discussed.

4.5.1 The Sampling Process

Due to the exploratory and subjective nature of this study, a variety of sampling techniques were used at different stages of the study to help address the research objectives. In accordance with the study design, the sampling technique of the archival study of a matured motor oil brand in the UK was presented first followed by the retail and distribution audit in both countries.

4.5.1.1 Phase 1 Archival Study

Sampling method. The advertising copies used in this study were information rich and were purposively sampled to enable understanding of what is happening within the case selected. The advertisement copies were collected from various sources including, history of advertising trust (HAT), advertising archives, Google images and eBay. In order to gather as many records as possible no specific date was fixed for the data collection. Consequently, with the nature of motor oil products in targeting the B2B and B2C, and to achieve the set objectives, the magazines varied from those targeting the consumer, while others target all the players in the automotive business (i.e. consumers, retailers, distributors and members of the DMU).

Sample size. A total of 210 copies were collected from the various sources over a six-month period. Copies collected were compared to identify duplicates. Table 4.7 shows the different magazines and newspapers identified for the data collection. Most of the adverts were in black and white, especially between 1909 and the 1960s. However, ad copies from the 1980s were all colour prints (see Appendix 2). Hence, the use of colour for the analysis was excluded. Also, the magazine clippings were full size, excluding half a page copies. The final sampling provided eighty two copies of magazine clippings from the 1920s to the 1980s.

The period 1920s-1980s was chosen for several reasons. In the automotive industry, the early twentieth century period in the UK marked the increase in the number of paved roads which gave rise to car production and the development of motor oil. Also during that period, several brands sprang up necessitating companies to differentiate and promote their brands. Furthermore, different social and economic situations occurred during that period, such as the Second World War and the Great Depression. The post-war period saw economic prosperity with innovative new products. Moreover, research limitation was the choice for ending the sampling in the 1980s and not 1990s or later, as that advertising copies collected were too few in the 1990s to allow for meaningful analysis.

Table 4.7: List and profile of magazines

Magazine name	Type of publication	Place of publication	Target
Punch or the London Charivari.	Magazine advert	UK	Consumer/buyers
The field, the country newspaper	Newspaper Advert	UK	Sportsmen, landowners and farmers
The Meccano Magazine	Magazine advert	UK	Consumer/ buyers
The time of India	Newspaper advert	UK	Consumer/ buyers
Motor sport	Magazine advert	UK	Consumer/ buyers
The Autocar	Magazine advert	UK	Buyers, distributors, consumers
The Mechanic	Magazine advert	UK	B2B Markets, Mechanics, DIY car enthusiasts
Practical motorist and motorcyclist	Magazine advert	UK	Motor trade professional, consumer, DIY car enthusiasts
Car mechanics	Magazine advert	UK	Motor trade professional, DIY car enthusiasts
The Motorcycle	Magazine advert	UK	Motor trade professional, DIY car enthusiasts
Popular motoring	Magazine advert	UK	Motor trade professional, mechanics
Advertiser's proof	Magazine advert	UK	Consumer/ buyers
What car	Magazine advert	UK	Consumer, motor trade professional
Good motor	Magazine advert	UK	Consumer, motor trade professional
Daily mail	Newspaper advert	UK	Consumer/ buyers

4.5.1.2 Phase 2 Retail and Distribution Audit

Theoretical sampling. The participant observation was conducted in the downstream section of the automotive aftermarket. The retail stores, DIY stores, super stores, distributors, car dealers, independent garages, motor factors and shops in petrol stations in the Bedfordshire area, in England, UK, provided the population interest, each representing a high management

position at each site. The area, being a fairly industrial/auto-related area, provided a good location for data collection for representativeness of concepts for this study. In order to identify and locate the relevant sites to choose for the participant observation, theoretical sampling was employed.

As mentioned in section 4.2.1, this study was designed in accordance with the grounded theory approach, which seemed to be particularly suitable to capture complex and problematic nature of motor oil branding. The data collection was conducted through the participant observations on a sample of marketing managers purposely selected according to the theoretical sampling criteria (Glaser, 1978; Strauss and Corbin, 2008). In accordance with the grounded theory criteria, theoretical sampling implies selecting participants on the basis of the developing analysis and the developed theory emerging from the data is successively modified from data attained from the next participant. In this study, rather than establish samples prior to data collection, the theoretical samples were responsive to the concepts derived from data allowing flexible and open sampling (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 2008).

Sample size. In total, and with the concept driven nature of theoretical sampling, 57 companies in the UK (eight motor factors, twelve service stations, twelve independent garages, thirteen dealers, four DIY, three super stores, five middlemen) and 61 companies in Nigeria (eleven independent garages, thirteen service station, seven independent retail, twenty one dealers, nine middlemen) provided the sample size for this study. Consequently, this number of sites in the two countries allowed reaching data saturation (Strauss and Corbin, 2008).

Table 4.8: Table of different locations for the participant observations

Locations	UK	Nigeria
Service stations	12	13
Dealers	13	21
Independent garages	12	11
Middlemen	5	9
Motor factors	8	-
Super stores	3	-
DIY stores	4	-
Independent retailers	-	7
Total sample	57	61

The choice to sample the different players in the automotive supply chain (manufacturers, suppliers, retailers and garages) was due to the fact that the members of the supply chain encompasses the companies involved with manufacturing, assembling and selling from the manufacture to the customer. The role of brand managers and developers are complementary in defining brand performance across the supply chain. Thus, their views, experiences and expectations related to motor oil were explored in order to develop a comprehensive understanding of motor oil branding phenomena. The variety of sites (see Table 4.8) allowed sampling a multiplicity of experiences that were significant and prototypical of the industries, to develop a deeper understanding of the branding phenomenon. Consistent with the UK study, theoretical sampling provided a guide to the Nigerian data collection. Furthermore, a checklist was designed by the researcher serving as units of analysis to serve as a preliminary guide.

In order to gain further insight the study used semi-structured interviews with seven Nigerian motor oil brand managers. This sample of brand manager's accounted for 35% of the total population interest of the Nigerian brands. These respondents were 'information rich', in that they provided valuable information about branding in their companies. Table 4.9 shows the different interview sites. Additionally, as mentioned in Section 4.4.2, with a lack of interviewing brand managers in the UK, advertising copies allowed for gaining further insight. Table 4.10 shows the number of advertising copies obtained from Autocar, a weekly magazine that targets both the consumer (especially car enthusiasts) and the industry.

Table 4.9: Different interview sites

Company	Location	Number
Total Nigeria PLC	Abuja	1
Conoil	Lagos	1
Oando	Kaduna	1
Mubeco Petroleum Company Ltd	Kaduna	1
AZ Petroleum Products	Kano	1
Lubcon	Abuja	1
Castrol	Lagos	1

Table 4.10: Number of advertising copies

Magazine	Brands	Number of copies
Autocar	Castrol (EDGE, Magnate, GTX), Mobil 1, Petronas	52

Rather than conventional qualitative sampling where the entire data is collected prior to analysis, theoretical sampling provides opportunities to sample concepts, which leads to more data collection, analysis, concept development and more questions until saturation is reached. Researchers purposefully look for indicators of the concepts to allow examining the data to discover how the concepts vary in different settings (Strauss and Corbin, 2008). Figure 4.1 shows an example of the circular process of multiple comparisons of the theoretical sampling. Among its advantages, it enables the discovery of concepts relevant to the set problems, therefore allowing exploring the concepts in depth. As it allows for discovery, it is important in studying new or unexplored areas to help strengthen the rigor of the study. Also, as new concepts emerge from the data, sampling becomes more specific allowing the use of unexpected events that may arise (Strauss and Corbin, 2008). Furthermore, theoretical sampling provides structure to collection and analysis of data.

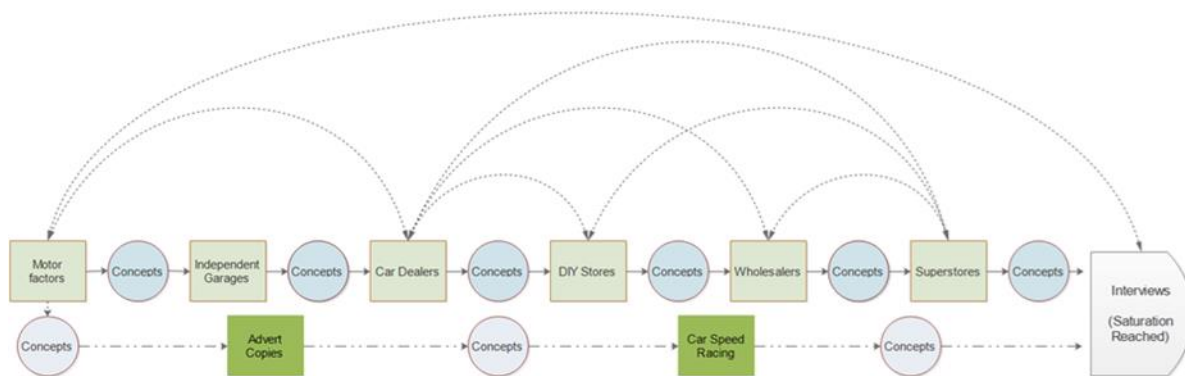


Figure 4.1: Theoretical sampling process

Despite these various advantages, theoretical sampling indeed has some limitations. Due to its highly systematic process, the application of theoretical sampling requires more time and money compared to other qualitative sampling techniques. Also, its systematic process makes it more difficult to understand than the other sampling. More often, early researchers may mistake theoretical sampling to purposive sampling. However, unlike purposive sampling, it attempts to discover categories and their elements so that interrelationships between them can be detected and explained. Due to its focus on specificity, theoretical sampling does not allow a general understanding of the phenomena, but rather specific areas of the research interest. Furthermore, as making theoretical sensitive judgement on saturation is not defined, knowing when to stop collecting data becomes difficult for early researchers (Seale, 2004).

4.5.2 Archival Study

Having carefully identified the possible places needed to locate the source of data, a letter seeking consent and membership was sent. History of Advertising Trust replied stating that, to enjoy the services of their products, registering as a member was required. Advertising Archives also replied urging online membership registration. Having completed the registration, the researcher phoned the respective organisations to enquire about the modalities for the data search. They replied stating that they offer its members the opportunity to research its archives during a visit, where all the necessary assistance would be made available or a request could be made for the data to be collected for a fee. Due to the nature of the data and the need to ensure the data available fit the study requirement, the researcher chose the first option which was to visit the organisation.

The visit allowed the researcher to spend two days identifying and copying the data from their available records. Thereafter, an arrangement was made between the researcher and the manager for them to identify and collect the adverts for a fee. Appendix 1 provides copyright declaration from History of Advertising Trust for the data collected. Consequently, having paid fees for membership in the advertising archives, the researcher visited the organisation to access the records. Table 4.11 shows the source of data for the archival advertising records and the number of copies collected from each source.

Table 4.11: Data source for archival advertising records

Data source	History of Advertising Trust	Advertising Archives	Google Docs	eBay
Number of copies	90	15	10	5

The table shows that most of the data was obtained from History of Advertising Trust. Of the one hundred and twenty copies obtained, Advertising Archives offered fifteen copies, while ten copies were obtained from Google images and five from eBay. Having collected all the advertisements, arranging them according to year of publication commenced with the type of publication and to exclude those that have duplicates to avoid multiple copies (copies of the same advert from a different source). The archival study was conducted to seek out branding themes from advertising copies of Castrol, a matured motor oil brand in the UK. A single case study approach was adopted by using content analysis (Krippendorff, 2012) in order to offer qualitative meaning to the contents identified. As mentioned in Section 4.4.2, the historical study is used as an introductory strategy for establishing a context or background where such a substantive contemporary study may be set. It is usually employed to explain and understand current phenomena (Trampusch, 2010).

The content analysis followed Krippendorff's (2012) six steps in designing and application of the coding scheme. The first step began with sorting and looking deeper at the advertisement copies to understand what could be observed. Secondly, it involved sorting units of analysis to draw meanings of one advert to another. The third stage, sampling, involved drawing representative samples from the eighty two copies of magazine clippings from the 1920s to the 1980s, which was predominantly full size pages, combining text and graphics. Duplicates were excluded to avoid multiple copies (copies of the same advert from a different source).

Fourth, coding steps were followed in designing and application of the coding scheme. This was done manually by the researcher (see Appendix 3.1 and Appendix 3.2). The first stage began by studying the adverts carefully, reading the text and understanding the messages. Then, the researcher highlighted the text and meanings to the pictures that seem to describe the phenomenon and write keywords or phrases to capture the idea. The researcher then identified categories and selected units of analysis to enable identification of patterns and themes in the advertisements based on the general knowledge of branding and distribution patterns and research objectives (see Appendix 4). The fifth stage involved drawing inferences, by relating the coded data to offer meaning to the branding phenomena. Finally, the sixth stage - validation - the coding schemes were discussed, scrutinized then modified with a fellow researcher, who was more familiar with phrases relating to the context of British socio-culture.

Table 4.12: Grouping codes and categories

Themes	Categories
Brand name Date Place	Corporate image
Achievement USP Slogan Type of logo writing Packaging	Awareness
Words Image size Publication	Message intention
Call to action	Consumer pull
Co- branding Celebrity Endorsement	Alliances
Intended audience Oil change (garage or DIY)	Intended audience

Once all the advertisement copies had been coded, a total of sixteen codes emerged. Some codes were combined based on how they were related to form categories. Finally, six categories emerged from the codes to describe the historical branding process of Castrol over the long period. Table 4.12 shows the grouping of the codes to form categories. In the findings, the brandings process of Castrol was described using the codes and categories identified.

4.5.3 Retail and Distribution Audit

4.5.3.1 The UK Audit

To obtain the names and details of the research location, the researcher used Yell, the online directory. It offered a list of the various organisations, address, telephone numbers and types of business. After selecting the businesses for conducting the participant observation, the researcher made a list according to their distance. Thereafter, a day or two prior to the researchers' visit to the site choice, a phone call was made in order to introduce the researcher and inform the potential participants of the research intentions and to seek their consent to visit the store to conduct observations.

Almost all the sites contacted agreed to allow the research to be conducted with a few exceptions, who requested the researcher should talk to their manager. However, Halfords store insisted that permission should be obtained from their division office (the Car Maintenance Department) before they would allow any data collection or answer any questions. Permission was finally granted after sets of telephone and email requests were made stating the purpose and confidentiality of the research (see Appendix 5 for a sample of letter). This removed the fear of losing commercially sensitive information to competitors and anonymity of informants in the study. The gatekeepers were assured of confidentiality of the data collected that it will be used for research purposes only. Apart from the student ID that the researcher showed to every gatekeeper, some requested that further identification was required. The introductory letter given by the university showing my research interest was always shown (see Appendix 6).

Consent of the gatekeepers was sought whenever the researcher intended to take pictures of any part within the observation area. The researcher also sought consent to voice record discussions with respondents during or after the observation process. The data was collected for a period of six months from 19th June 2013 to 7th December 2013. Table 4.13 shows the research sites, their location and dates of data collection (see Appendix 7 for full list). A checklist designed by the researcher serving as units of analysis was used as a preliminary guide to what should be observed.

Table 4.13: Lists of data collection sites in the UK

Research site	Location	Data collection date	Sector
Luton Autofactors and accessories	Dunstable road, Luton	19/6/2013	Motor factors
No.1 Car parts Ltd	Dunstable road, Luton	19/6/2013	Motor factors
GSF car parts	Thistle road, Luton	21/6/2013	Motor factors
R&R Autos	Hastings street, Luton	21/6/2013	Motor factors
Partco Autoparts Ltd	Cosgrove Way, Luton	23/6/2013	Motor factors
Euro car parts	Cosgrove Way, Luton	25/6/2013	Motor factors
Parts line UK Ltd	Leagrave road, Luton	25/6/2013	Motor factors

Gaining access to the research site always required further introduction upon arrival. As earlier stated, almost all the sites responded favourably to the request, which may have been a result of a direct or indirect link the gatekeepers have with the university. Some gatekeepers talked about how they were once students at the university, while others would mention their children or relatives were studying there. Hence, the gatekeepers always seemed keen to convince the manager to spare time for questions that may be asked. Moreover, some informants in the motor factor stores related their business relations with the university.

Similarly, the time spent at the sites lasted for at least forty-five minutes to an hour for each visit. The researcher was allowed to observe and record data in the natural settings while directly observing the normal business this will allow collecting data in the natural setting. At every site an informant who, mostly was the manager, was available to offer assistance. After walking around each site and recording, the researcher found a suitable location and stood to record what was being observed. This allowed the researcher time to reflect on the aspects being observed and ask informal questions during the conversation with the informant. Sometimes informal questions were asked during the observation, while in most instances, the researcher asked the questions after the observation.

Furthermore, prior to commencing the participant observation, a checklist was drawn up to serve as a guide to the recording procedure for the observation and informal questions. Table 4.14 shows a sample of the checklist used in the participant observation (see Appendix 8 for the full list). Although this served as a guide, different questions were asked in different locations, depending on the relevance of the questions to the study site. This allowed the

researcher to record as much data as possible while also recording other observable phenomena as they emerge in the field.

Table 4.14: Checklist sample

Checklist
Point of sale
Range of motor oil on display
Location of brands in stores
Shelving
Size of shelving
Size of shop
Entrance
Convenient locating brands
Packaging
Pricing
Who supplies the oil
How do you determine the brands to stock?
Evidence of display of adverts

In order to blend in and be more accepted, the researcher's dress code was different on each site data was to be collected. Going to car dealers, for instance, required a more formal way of dressing, where the researcher met organised formal informants dressed for office work, while going to garages led to dressing casually in jeans where mechanics would be in overalls. Dressing differently at every site made the researcher feel more comfortable on site and not feel like the 'odd one out'. The data has been recorded in field notes (see Appendix 9); thereafter, coming back to carefully reflect on what was observed, combined the notes with the voice recordings to bring up a detailed descriptive narration of the scenario (see Appendix 10).

Moreover, to gain more insight and improve understanding of the branding nature of motor oil within related areas, the researcher spend a day at the 2014 Formula 1 British Grand Prix, at Silverstone.

4.5.3.2 The Nigerian Audit

Prior to embarking on participant observation in Nigeria, the researcher conducted exploratory phone calls and emails with contacts that had a background of the motor oil business to inquire about certain issues that were not clear with the data collection upon arrival (see Appendix 11). Similar to the UK study (see section 4.6.2.1) and consistent with the grounded theory, theoretical sampling was employed. Due to lack of online or hard copy data on possible locations of business in Nigeria, the research commenced with the sites most convenient. This allowed data gathering from locations that were closer to the researcher and where the researcher could be referred to a site by informants and friends when needed. Furthermore, consistent with Maylor and Blackmon (2005) and Farquhar (2012), for ease of access, the researcher used existing contacts to link up with several research sites, especially the mechanics and managers at filling stations.

Similar to the UK study, the introduction letter given by the university (see Appendix 6) and student card assisted in gaining access. The researcher noticed that, where there was hesitation of allowing access, the gate keepers usually relaxed once the letter and student card had been presented. Perhaps they seemed to feel a sense of assurance that the research was coming from a foreign country; thus, it had to be important. This was observed in one particular mechanic workshop where a mechanic was hesitant in allowing the researcher access. Therefore, a fellow mechanic whispered, “this research is from England, your workshop is going to be in their books”. Thereafter, the manager allowed access and even offered to buy the researcher a bottle of cold fizzy drink.

Additionally, due to Nigeria’s hot and humid atmosphere coupled with a lack of constant electricity supply, the informants were always outside their stores and garages. However, informants at car dealerships were more organised with offices that used air conditioning, hence they were always inside their offices.

Table 4.15: Lists of Nigerian data collection sites

Research site	Location	Dates	Sector
Premium motors	Nnamdi Azikiwe W/bye pass, Kaduna	18/04/2014	Service centre
Amasco filling station	Nnamdi Azikiwe W/bye pass, Kaduna	19/04/2014	Filling station
Kurmin Mashi Mechanic Garage	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	19/04/2014	Mechanic Garage
Mustafa Motor workshop	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	20/04/2014	Mechanic Garage
De Young shall grow	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	20/04/2014	Independent retail
Emmoco & Sons Enterprise	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	21/04/2014	Independent retail
GB Motors	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	21/04/2014	Mechanic Garage
Jerry Motors	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	21/04/2014	Mechanic Garage
Pascal Motor Mechanic	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	22/04/2014	Mechanic Garage
Alhaji Nura Ford	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	22/04/2014	Mechanic Garage
Fort Oil Plc.	U/Sarki, Kaduna	23/04/2014	Filling station
Mobil	Abakwa, Kaduna	23/04/2014	Filling station

The Nigerian market outlets comprise private retail stores, oil marketers own retail stores, whole sellers and distributors, transporters (used for commercial purpose), garages and workshops. Motor oil is supplied to big industrial consumers, such as Nigeria Railway Corporation, Cadbury, construction companies and cement companies. Likewise, the Nigerian market has several purchase outlets of motor oil, such as retail in petrol stations where they are mainly of store brands. This is similar to what BP and other stations do in the UK. Table 4.15 shows lists of Nigeria data collection sites (see Appendix 12 for the full list). There are also those of private retail operating near mechanic garages (see Appendix 13). Although not a part of this study, the researcher observed there was also unbranded motor oil sold at the road side, although they were of low quality and cheap. They were usually sold to customers like motor cyclists, generator users and old taxi cars (see Appendix 14). There were a large number of filling stations of independent dealers in Nigeria that have empty retail stores. It seemed as though their interest was in sale of petroleum, instead of focusing on retail and other functions that filling stations offer.

Mechanics were concentrated in one area provided by the government. However, there were selected numbers of them spread across different locations in each state. Moreover, it was observed that they did not use modern equipment in the workshop with reliance on manual work. Similarly, infrastructure differed as the researcher moved upwards from the Southern to the Northern part of the country. Also, the use of terms to refer to four-litre cans differed where some informants used the term ‘gallons’ which seems to be the more common term used in the country, others used the term ‘keg’, while the twenty five litre version was referred to as ‘jerry cans’.

4.5.3.3 Semi-Structure Interviews

The interview questions were designed to address the research objectives in order to gain insight and allow in-depth probing of the phenomena under study (Kavle, 1996) (see Appendix 15). Thereafter, an introduction letter was drafted to seek informed consent from the informants defining the objectives of the study and ensuring confidentiality and interviewee consequences (see Appendix 16).

According to Kavle (1996), research interviews have no common procedure. Hence, this study adapted the interview guidelines suggested by Kavle with motor oil marketing managers in Nigeria. Consistent with Brennan and Turnbull (1999), prior to the face-to-face interviews, the researcher made several follow up phone calls in order to expand or clarify issues that are not clear. Similarly, the researcher had previous contact through phone calls with some marketing managers of the motor oil companies while doing the research study, to enable developing rapport (Bryman, 2012). On arriving in Nigeria, the letters were distributed to the selected companies seeking their permission. Permission took several follow up calls to remind them of the request. Once contact at the organisations was established, through telephone conversations, participants were more willing to allow the interview, whereas those contacted upon the researcher reaching Nigeria were more difficult to convince. Finally, permission was granted to interview the marketing managers. The researcher also realised that the local brands marketers were more willing to allow the interview as opposed to the challenger brand and budget brand manufactures.

With the informant’s permission a tape recorder was used to record the interview. The researcher realised that there was a degree of apprehension from some informants when the recorder was shown. Thereafter, they were assured of the confidentiality of the research,

which seemed to assure them. Similarly, the place of the interview with all the marketing managers took place in the office premises which were free from distractions.

The interview commenced with a brief introduction of the researcher with the purpose of conducting the interview. The interviews consisted of seventeen questions divided into five sections in order to allow the exploration of different parts of the branding process from the manufacturing to the end market (see Appendix 15). However, consistent with Mudambi (2002) and Kohli and Jaworski (1990), the word 'branding' was not used in the interview. This was to allow the interviewee to explain the different branding strategies they used. The researcher always guided the questions towards their branding strategy with the help of the interview guide. The length of the interviews varied from forty-five minutes to one hour and twenty minutes. Each interview was completed by thanking the interviewee for their time and insightful discussion.

The interview was transcribed by using the recording and notes. The transcription commenced upon return to the university in the researcher study room (see Appendix 17). Given the validity and concern for interviews and its importance as a method of data collection, the transcribed data was sent to the respective interviewees. Here, the informants had the opportunity to study the interview transcripts (Kavle, 1996). By doing this, the interview accuracy was enhanced due to the informant's reflection of the data (Oliver et al., 2005). Interestingly, all the respondents were satisfied with the results of the interpretation. In conclusion, the results were interpreted to offer meaning to the interviewee's expression of branding motor oil products to differentiate among competitors in the Nigerian market.

4.6 The Data Analysis Process

Since there is little known on motor oil branding, Strauss and Corbin (1998) advised the researcher go into the arena with an open mind, not knowing just what will be uncovered from the data. The categories identified pertaining to different stages were explored in terms of the concepts and their properties and dimensions in an attempt to make clear each category development and outline the meanings that it holds in the branding process from the downstream retail sector of the motor oil supply chain. Concurrently, categories were connected in the axial coding while the grouped concepts related to each category leading to a central phenomenon.

The data for the grounded theory involved array of different sources, such as participant observations, interviews, websites, social media, sporting events, advert copies and books to help shed light on the study context (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). The three stages of analysis techniques suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998) were adopted to allow generating theoretical ideas from the data; open coding, axial coding and selective coding. The process involved generating, grouping and summarising data from different sources, this then led to a reflective reading of text and the application of codes. The analysis also involved a simultaneous process of data collection alongside the analysis phases (Scott, 2004; Scott and Howell, 2008).

4.5.3.1 Open Coding Process

“Open coding: the analytic process through which concepts are identified and their properties and dimensions are discovered in data

Concept: the building blocks of theory

Categories: concepts which stand for phenomena

Properties: characteristics of a category, the delineation of which defines and gives it meaning

Dimensions: the range along which general properties of a category vary, giving specification to a category and variation to the theory” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998:124).

The research question for this study relates to understanding the phenomenon of the branding process of low involvement brands in developed and developing economies by focusing on branded motor oil products by looking at two distinct economies: the UK and Nigeria. The study provided further insight into industrial branding from a hybrid brand perspective functioning in the business and consumer markets. Data collected from the field notes and voice recordings were transcribed into text. The researcher then began reading the text to become familiar and to find out about the information available. Thereafter, codes were applied to the text through a line-by-line coding process (see Appendix 18), while avoiding direct terminology of the data. The codes generated were then transferred to excel sheet to form the spread sheet (see Appendix 19). Table 4.13 shows the codes that emerged, to suggest seventy three codes were generated in the open coding of the UK study and sixty three from the Nigerian study. These concepts provided the building block that express relational statements leading to the development of theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). It is noted, however, that Table 4.16 offers examples of the codes that emerged to form the open

categories of the UK data for this study. The complete codes developed for the UK study are presented in Appendix 20. As patterns emerged, memos helped to capture the conceptual development of what was coded.

Table 4.16: Sample of developed open categories

Open codes
Point of sale Merchandise Display of adverts Evidence of promotion Use of catalogue Warranty Motor Sport events
Shelving Range of motor oil on display Location of brands in store Size of shelf Shelf information Price of brands on shelf Store size DIY focus
Packaging plastic cans metal cans drums 1L Plastic can 4L Plastic can User friendly Colour Logo Attractive Unattractive It's more than just oil. It's liquid engineering. Engineered with fluid strength technology. Too low could be too late. Top up regularly with Castrol oil.

4.5.3.2 Axial Coding Process

“Axial coding: the process of reassembling data that were fractured during open coding. Categories are related to their subcategories to form more precise and complete explanations about the phenomena” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998:124).

The second stage of trying to find what was in the data was axial coding. Strauss and Corbin (1998: 124) defined axial coding as, “the process of reassembling data that were fractured during open coding. Categories are related to their subcategories to form more precise and complete explanations about the phenomena”. In view of this, constant comparison was done where the researcher began selectively relating categories identified in other categories to form a much more analytical inclusive codes (see Appendix 21). Reflecting on these ideas also allowed the use of memo writing (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). This enabled the researcher to go back to the data to look at the various ways of identifying the core categories and understand relationships in the data (Scott and Howell, 2008). At this stage, incidents were compared to establish uniformity. This allowed theoretical sampling where the researcher returned to the field to collect more data relevant to an emerging code. For instance, the category, *Oil manufacture for cars*, identified in the UK study prompted the researcher to seek further insight from dealerships on the phenomenon. The emerging categories were further substantiated by defining properties and dimensions (see Appendix 22).

The emerging concepts were further compared to the incidents in order to generate more hypotheses. With no variations coming up from the data, the researcher concluded that theoretical saturation was reached; hence, completing the axial coding process (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). The axial categories developed discuss the different ways of differentiation in the various segments of the market. In this axial category, the ‘what’, ‘how’ and ‘why’ was the focus of the analysis to uncover the different branding strategies in the market.

The memo writing: Running parallel to the process of coding and analysis is what is referred to as the process of memo writing. Hence, memo writing is a continuous process that helps to conceptualise the data in the development of categories. Skipping this stage to go direct to sorting and write up would indicate a lack of conducting the grounded theory. Furthermore, memos guide the researcher in gathering more data, coding and analysis. They also help in presenting hypotheses that connects properties with categories which further connects with other categories to allow theory generation.

For this study, the researcher wrote three hundred and fifty memos for the UK data and two hundred and sixty for the Nigerian data, capturing the theoretical developments through conceptual rendering. Initially, the memos were brief then got deeper into the analysis process of generating more ideas to increase the conceptualisation level (see Appendix 23 for sample of memos). Consistent with Punch (2013), the researcher realised that memo sorting and writing slows down the analytic process. However, it helped in ensuring fit, workability and relevance of the data in the analytical process leading to theory development (Punch, 2013). The memos ranged from a few lines to a whole page, describing the researcher's thoughts as the coding and analysis progresses. The following offers sample of memos written during the Nigerian data analysis;

Memo 1 Nature of shelving

Packaging. Do the brands in Nigeria have different styles of packaging and why do they need protective packaging?

Memo 3 Trade agreement

Do not do trade agreement? Are companies/manufacturers deliberately neglecting the retailers, without really going into agreement with them? This is contrary to the UK data, where retailers play an important part in the relationship building. This should be explored more in detail and in noted in the interviews.

4.5.3.3 Selective Coding Process

“Selective coding: the procedure for building a story that connects the categories producing a discursive set of theoretical proposition” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998:124).

Thirdly, the particular categories identified were grouped to form a core category that helped elucidate the different aspects of the phenomena to help build a storyline and model development (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Selective coding process for this study connected similar sub-categories to form the core categories. For example, the sub-category, nature of business, contract agreement, contract assurance and brand choice were merged to form the core category purchase behaviour. This interplay between the various categories helped to identify and describe the branding phenomena in the two distinct economies.

The selective coding process supported development of four main categories for this study, which responded together to describe the UK study. The four categories that emerged in the UK study (purchase behaviour, inter-firm relationship, brand identity, and distribution channel) represented the branding strategies of UK motor oil brands coming from across multi-channels to form the central phenomenon of this study. The grounded theory suggested different branding processes taking place across the supply chain. Both the suppliers and their intended partners used strategies to differentiate their brands in the market. Table 4.17 presents the four main categories with corresponding sub-categories that emerged from the analytical stages to form the conceptual framework. This indicates a part of thinking process behind identification and grouping of codes in this study. This by no means captures all the interplay and cross-analysis taking place simultaneously; rather, it offers the reader a transparent insight into the emergence of categories.

Table 4.17: Developed selective categories and main categories

Open categories	Selective categories	Main categories
Key account management Adaptation Dyadic adaptation Agreements Ingredient branding Associations	Relationship building Strategic alliances	Inter-firm relationship
Nature of business	The nature of business	Purchase behaviour
Contract agreement Contract assurance	Trade pact	
Brand choice	Selection of brand	
Physical promotion Visual promotion Shelf arrangement Shelf allocation Brand personality Brand recognition Brand image USP Slogan	Communication process The nature of shelving Merchandising The brand identity	Brand identity
One level channel Two level channel	Supply chain	Distribution channel

In grounded theory studies, categories developed are grouped around a core category or a set of categories to represent the study’s central phenomenon and explain what the story is all about. The main categories suggest the diverse efforts to generate awareness and brand performance within the supply chain. To this end, ‘brand value’ emerged as the core category to describe the central phenomena. Table 4.18 shows how the main categories are linked to the core category.

Table 4.18: The core category and main categories

Main categories	Core category
Inter-firm relationship	Brand value
Nature of purchase	
Brand identity	
Distribution channel	

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter has offered discussion on the research methodology. The study employed an inductive, qualitative multi-methods research approach, so as to address the research questions and achieve the research aim, which was to understand the nature and extent of branding industrial products, based on comparing and contrasting aspects of motor oil branding in two contrasting economies. The approach was structured within the subjective, interpretive paradigm. The chapter highlighted Strauss and Corbin’s approach of grounded theory appeared as the overarching strategy for the study. In this study, the researcher combined a longitudinal case study to gain historical understanding to understand the phenomena of motor oil branding through the supply chain. The assumption of this approach was to understand what was going on in the motor oil business with the view to understand the present branding phenomenon. The data sources involved participant observation, interviews and documents to offer meaning to the study context.

The chapter discussed techniques and methods used in the data collection and analysis under the content analysis and grounded theory guidance. Finally, it addressed the procedure of developing themes from the data to demonstrate how the codes merged to form sub-categories and eventual main categories to help represent the central phenomena of the study. The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents an array of data from different sources that emerged from the empirical study. Hence, the findings of this study are presented in two parts. Firstly, a longitudinal study of advertising records has been presented where Castrol magazine adverts were analysed from 1909 to the 1980s. The longitudinal archival study allowed establishing a context or background to enable understanding of the current phenomena. Secondly, the distribution supply chain in the retail and industrial outlets presented results from the grounded theory study in the two economies. The categories developed in the grounded theory study in both countries are presented as descriptive categories that are related together by the substantive codes. The concepts with a high level of clarity to depict the B2B branding are included in the findings to help address the study objectives. However, despite attempts to present the findings through the core categories, they are not entirely mutually exclusive. They served as conceptual markers to help map out important dimensions to motor oil branding. Thus, by focusing on the main categories that emerged, a compendious and subjective presentation of the study is offered.

The expectation in this chapter is to present the overall findings from across the studies. Due to the choice of using multiple data sources and the comparative nature of the study allowed data collection in two different countries, the chapter presents the findings related to literature, rather than presenting just the overall findings. This helped to integrate the different data sets with a connection to the literature. Therefore, where possible, in order to support the findings, the descriptions were supported with references from existing body of knowledge. To address the study objectives the findings were structured in two different parts. As different types of data emerged from each study, the archival study helped gain a historical perspective of the branding phenomena through a case study of Castrol, a matured UK brand. The grounded theory study from data collected in the supply chain integrated the categories that emerged to offer insight into the current branding phenomena. Furthermore, discussions of the study findings will be presented in Chapter Six. This chapter is structured as follows:

- Branding of low involvement motor oil products (5.1)
- The difference in motor oil branding between Nigeria and the UK (5.2)
- Towards a conceptual framework to model branding of motor oil (5.3)

- Conclusion (5.4)

5.1 The Branding of Low Involvement Motor Oil Products

This section explores and analyses the findings to address the first and second research objectives of this study:

“To further the understanding of branding low involvement motor oil products.”

“To identify the key parameters of motor oil branding.”

Industrial brands utilise different means to generate awareness and differentiation to influence purchase in the market. The exploratory nature of this study and with little known about motor oil products in the extant literature necessitated generating insight from different sources. This section identifies, analyses and interprets the branding strategies used by branded motor oil products in the two countries. Understanding is developed by exploring and explaining the branding strategies of motor oil products. An archival study of a matured motor oil brand allows understanding branding of this product category to help understand the present situation. Further understanding was drawn by identifying branding strategies in the automotive supply chain. This section has been divided into two sections: the longitudinal archival study and the retail and distribution audit.

5.1.1 Longitudinal Advertising Study, 1909-1980s

As highlighted in section 4.6, a pilot study was conducted where historical analysis was employed, using content analysis to offer qualitative meanings to contents identified. This allowed understanding past phenomena in order to understand the present branding strategies. Samples of eighty-two magazine copies of Castrol adverts from the 1920s to 1980s were analysed.

Results from the 1920s to 1950s reveal the brand was developed to create what Rosenbaum-Elliott et al. (2011) called ‘top of mind awareness’, by being visible, influencing brand image in the consumer's mind, thus creating awareness while developing associations. The brand strategy adopted at this stage was not focused on the brand itself, but on the brand attributes building emotional attachments with consumers. Consistently, advert copies used phrases, such as: *“Universally recognised as the standard by which others are judged”*, *“It’s cheaper to buy W. Castrol than to pay for repairs”* and *“Peerless lubricants”*, to connect with

customers. This is consistent with Kim and Hyun (2011), who found that brand awareness with associations affects the overall value of a brand. Castrol foregrounded innovation, sponsorship of competitive events followed by vigorous advertising of sporting victories, product development coupled with alliances with leading marques, such as Rolls Royce and Daimler (Jallo and Croft, 2014).

Consistent with Dean's (1999) proposition that endorsement has a positive effect on quality and uniqueness while improving brand image, the findings indicated from its early days that the brand was endorsed by celebrities and royalties. As the advert copies emphatically stated: "*His Majesty the King/over 250 leading motor manufacturer*", "*His majesty the King of England and HRH the Prince of Wales*", and "*Napier-Railton land speed racer recommends W.C*". The results further support the findings of Silvera and Austad (2004), Yeungjo and Junehee (2007), Lee and Thorson (2008), Koernig and Boyd (2009) and Dix and Chowdry (2010), who posited customer attitude towards the endorser has a positive effect on the brand advertised. Linking the brand with celebrities, royalties and racing events enhances recognition, performance and provide brand identity with a consistently strong brand image while building associations. This helped to position the brand in the mind of the target consumer, stimulating positive perception.

However, studies from the 1950s post-war period suggest a shift in strategy with endorsement by car manufacturers rather than celebrities and royalty. Hence, brand recognition and association with leading car manufacturers are built. Advert copies consistently highlighted this with statements, such as: "*Porsche recommends Castrol M. Oil*", "*BMC recommend Castrol for Morris and Austin mini*", and "*Trojan ltd recommend Castrol*". At this stage, the brand has matured to a favourable position in the market by urging B2C consumers to buy the brand and service their engines in garages, thereby building a strong brand relationship (Kalafatis et al., 2012).

The study tracked changing trends in consumer buying behaviour where originally consumers employed mechanics and garages to change their oil, with phrases such as, "*Get them at your local garage*", "*Castrol is obtainable in all garages*", "*Castrol Lubrequipment service station*" and "*Obtain your lube in garages, stores*". To the situation from the 1960s when the DIY market started to evolve, incorporating phrases such as, "*motorcycle dealer or motor accessory dealer, Oil change (garage or DIY)*", and "*Available from garages, accessory shops and all branches of Halfords*". Unappealing Packaging was used between the 1920s

and the 1960s, where metal tins were used to package the brand. The results revealed plastic packaging replaced metal cans in the 1980s, signifying Castrol's innovation in the point-of-sale arena (Jallo and Croft, 2014). This is consistent with Persson (2010), who found packaging was used as a sales tool to create value to the end-customer.

The findings suggest customer target by using functional, emotional and self-expressive benefits, indicating emotional branding. The study identified different branding strategies used by Castrol to build the motor oil image around innovation, performance, efficiency and reliability (Jallo and Croft, 2014). The advert copies consistently highlighted this with statements, such as, "*Peerless lubricants*", "*The product of an all British firm*", "*If there were a better oil than W.C. I should use it*" and "*Reduces cylinder wear, reduces oil consumption*". The message strategy aimed to create customer perception of superior value by integrating features of the brand that would have been of interest to motorists (although it has to be noted that, until the post-war years, these drivers would not have bought motor oil themselves, but instead were being encouraged to specify Castrol to their mechanics). This is consistent with previous research (e.g. Jensen and Klastrup, 2008; Lynch and de Chernatony, 2007), who support that emotions play a role in conveying brand value in a business-to-business context. It also supports Abratt (1986), Aaker (1991) and Bendixen et al. (2004) whose findings advocated that functional benefits influence brand performance. Moreover, Leek and Christodoulides (2012), who found that both the functional and emotional qualities associated with a brand, provide a differential advantage and influence the delivery of brand value.

Analysis from the 1960s to the 1980s shows the use of emotion by expressing the brand's functional attributes having been tested over the years, as the following comments from the advert copies emphatically stated: "*Improved Castrol. Perfected in the lab, proved on road and track*", "*The more ordinary your motoring, the more you need it*", "*Can you afford anything less?*", "*You can tell a man who cares for his car, he chooses Castrol*", "*Full synthetic engineering*" and "*Liquid engineering*". Branding at this stage was built by differentiation, appearing as the leading brand, stressing the brand's unique characteristics (Jallo and Croft, 2014). This view is consistent with Leek and Christodoulides (2012) who advocated that functional benefits (i.e. technology, innovation quality and capacity) improve the value of the brand. Others Mudambi (2002) and Lynch and de Chernatony (2007) predicted that as a result of emotional values B2B brands influence a positive brand image.

This is also consistent with Wilson, (2000) who posited that image and emotional benefits influence purchase decisions in B2C markets. Similarly, this supports Backhaus' (2011) findings that brands that offer innovative features are more likely to create a distinct brand image to influence product specific brand equity.

5.1.1.1 Castrol Distribution Structure

The results clearly suggest the distribution structure had a positive impact on the brand performance with a call to purchase the brand in local garages from the 1920s to the 1940s. The advert copies highlighted this with phrases, such as, "*On sale in sealed tins or branded cabinets at garages*". This is consistent with Mudambi (2002) and van Riel et al. (2005), who found that distribution influences brand performance in the B2B market. As the brands mature, results show that Castrol uses the two level channel of distribution by using wholesalers for its brand distribution to stores (Jallo and Croft, 2014). Consumers were assured of its availability across the country by going into alliance with shops and retail stores such as Halfords, with phrase stating, "*Available from garages, accessory shops and all branches of Halfords*". Results from the 1980s suggest that the oil is supplied to some car dealers directly from the manufacturer without the use of middlemen. This may perhaps indicate the strong position the brand occupies by having a trade agreement with OEM. Castrol's investment in high-end technological branding, therefore, supports its commercial relationships with distributors of luxury motoring brands, in a symbiotic relationship where Castrol itself supports the carefully-nurtured branding of service departments in these outlets (Jallo and Croft, 2014).

5.1.1.2 Emerging Themes

The results from the Castrol study further reveal emerging themes. Corporate branding by highlighting and linking the brand name with the company, and an advertising copy from the early stages signified, "*Wakefield Castrol motor oil*". Similar to prior studies (e.g. Keller, 2000 and Juntunen, 2011), this helped to create brand awareness, build a strong brand and favourable associations. The findings indicated the brand gradually changed from having an image as a corporate brand into a product brand in the mid-twentieth century, with copies having the words, "*Castrol motor oil*" and "*Castrol (GTX)*". This suggests brand association through a focus on product performance features to generate awareness, value and personality. Alliances between established car manufacturers show the use of co-branding.

Similarly, endorsement and linking the brand with famous personalities indicates personal branding. The relationship between the brand and the target customer using functional, emotional and self-expressive benefits indicates emotional branding and brand identity. A unique selling proposition indicates brand positioning by expressing brand values and benefits to the consumer.

Table 5.1: Emerging themes

Traits	Emerging themes
Co-branding	Brand value, alliance, brand associations, brand equity, brand identity, brand attributes
Achievement	Brand attributes, brand equity
Intended audience	B2C (National branding)
Packaging	Brand recognition
USP	Brand positioning, brand value, brand equity
Slogan	Brand attributes, brand equity, national branding, brand differentiation, brand value
Call to action	Brand alliance
Celebrity endorsement	Personal branding
Logo	Corporate branding
All British brand	National branding

Targeting the home market by stressing the phrase “*all British brand*” and royal endorsement indicates the country of origin, an attempt at national branding and brand association. The brand's value proposition, equity and benefits were constantly expressed in the analysis, indicating brand differentiation and claim of market leadership. Table 5.1 shows the themes that emerged from the study of Castrol adverts. Contrary to the researcher’s expectations, the emerged themes indicate the diverse marketing efforts of Castrol to differentiate and generate awareness.

The findings further suggest Castrol historically was a brand innovator, employing techniques like celebrity endorsement and co-branding, tools which tend to be associated with late twentieth-century branding. The longitudinal advertising study, therefore, presents a picture of a brand which in its early days was entirely business-to-business in terms of distribution, but where demand-pull was created by developing the brand personality, using business-to-

consumer advertising and PR appeals, combined with point-of-sale materials. Castrol appeared to evolve in the 1960s into a consumer brand, complete with TV and press advertising, distinctive packaging and a continuing sponsorship programme, all supported with effective retail distribution (Jallo and Croft, 2014). This also suggests the importance branding plays in commodity motor oil products, especially from the 1960s as the market became more competitive. The findings further indicate the hybrid nature of motor oil to target B2B and B2C segments of the market.

5.1.2 The Retail and Distribution Audit

Despite attempts to introduce academic rigour to the study, and eliminate subjectivity and bias, the preliminary study may have created the wrong impression. Embarking on the next phase of the study, the researcher's expectation was to find leading brands like Castrol and Mobil dominating the shelf space of the downstream retail sector. Surprisingly, however, these brands rarely featured in UK stores and motor factors and where the brands were present it seem to compete with generic brands due to its higher price. Counterintuitively, the researcher also uncovered unexpected results in Nigeria. For instance, the expectation of the researcher was to find Castrol and perhaps other British brands dominating the Nigerian automotive aftermarket. Surprisingly, however, the results reveal brands from other matured economies dominated the supply chain (i.e. Total and Mobil). This dominance was so glaring that a respondent in a leading motor oil brand in Nigeria claimed market leadership by stating: *"Our position in the country is market leadership, you can go and check we have forty per cent share of the Nigerian market"*. This indicates the comfortable position the leading brand is in the market.

5.1.2.1 Inter-firm Relationship

Relationship building between motor oil companies and the different sectors of the automotive aftermarket is key to brand success. Consistently, respondents in the dealership and independent garages have informed that brand promotion through posters or other tangible attributes to promote and generate brand awareness are not used. Response from the garages point to oil choice is entirely dependent on the arrangement between the OEM and the motor oil company. One respondent at a garage stated: *"The garage has a trade agreement with Partsline to supply oil and other auto parts"*. Here, brand choice is based on the strategic agreement between the two businesses. This result reflects the findings of Han

and Sung (2008), who reported that transactions between businesses are influenced by brand trust and loyalty through perceptions of commitment and quality of the relationship.

Thus, to maintain this relationship, account managers ensure the smooth running of important accounts. The researcher uncovered a reoccurring theme across the dealership and retail where managers stressed the importance of brand representatives in maintaining a smooth flow of business. A respondent at Vauxhall motor bodies said: *“Due to a special arrangement between the engine manufacturer and Vauxhall, there is no need to promote the brand”*. This is due to the technological changes of the engines which require leading-edge technological solutions purchases which are done by building and maintaining accounts for customer satisfaction. This is consistent with Homburg et al. (2002), who suggested that Key Account Management (KAM) is important in establishing and maintaining a good business relationship.

Moreover, due to the technical nature of motor oil brands, the researcher uncovered the fact that a relationship was established between the motor oil companies and car manufacturers to develop oil specifically for the engine. A respondent from a car dealership stated: *“GM and Vauxhall are one and the same company, GM is manufactured by Castrol”*. Similarly, some stores that enter into trade agreement with car manufacturers, also stock oil designed specifically for those engines. Data from retail served as exemplary, *Motrio oil which is made specifically for Renault cars*. Here, the findings revealed an adaptation relationship between the two companies, allowing brand performance without the use of promotion tools. This business relationship of adapting to specific needs of customers is consistent with the findings of Brennan et al. (2003), where they posited a positive adaptive association between a supplier and customer and they further suggested that adaptations fit the strategic management plan in promoting buyer-supplier relationships.

The researcher uncovered the strategy of adapting to the specific needs of another business is identified within the more established, global brands that have a wider reach to international markets. One such example was the announcement by Shell of becoming the BMW supplier of engine oil against the current supplier Castrol. A posting from its website stated: *“BMW apparently dropped long-time partner Castrol in favour of Shell and its new cutting edge technology”*, Shell. This adaptation between two brands by adapting to specific needs of customers helps to effectively develop and maintain valued business relationships across the supply chain. This is consistent with Shocker et al. (1994), Varadarajan and Cunningham

(1995) and Elmuti and Kathawala (2001), who found that in both countries global brands seek competitive advantage by entering into strategic alliances with established brands of the OEMs to produce innovative brands and improve awareness. This is further supported by Samu et al. (1999) and Camuffoo and Volpato (2002).

The study found to promote the perception of high quality, global brands in both countries partner with automotive engine manufacturers. An example of this is where a retailer shows the researcher a BMW engine with the statement boldly written on the engine, “*BMW recommends Castrol*” (see Appendix 27.1). This collaboration with technology-driven OEM to include an established logo of a motor oil brand on its engine parts; thus, using an established brand as a co-branded ingredient to capture a segment of the particular market suggests ingredient branding. This concurs with previous studies by Abbo (2006) and Grebosz (2012), where they found an ingredient brand with high perceived quality, impacts positively on the host brand, reinforces brand equity and refreshes brand image. This strategy of featuring logos on engines give the feeling of value to the end user, it also ensures that the global brands in both countries dominate supply at the top of the market sector.

This strategy which is apparently B2B branding parallels other areas like, gateaux fabrics in many clothing and shoe brands or Teflon in the manufacture of other brands. This is similar to what Intel adopts by using co-branding attributes with computer manufacturers to create a brand identity (Norris, 1993; Ugglá, 2008). Moreover, the Nigerian study uncovered a similar trend of ingredient branding, where car engines specified the oil (global brands), (see Appendix 27.2). This was exemplified by a manager in garages, who said:

“Most of the cars come with a recommendation to use Total engine oil” and “We use oil according to the manufacturer recommendation/guidelines. KIA motors have collaborated with Total oil across the world, so you usually find Total oil recommended for KIA engines”.

Here, the intention was to form an alliance between the two established brands so as to gain acceptance in foreign markets. The success of this strategy is so comforting to motor oil brands in Nigerian that it forms a key strategy to brand awareness. Surprisingly, the study uncovered that BMW engines recommend Mobil in Nigeria, whereas BMW engines in the UK, recommend Castrol. This paradox might be influenced by the country where the cars are imported as some car dealers in Nigeria point to buying cars from America rather than

Europe. Furthermore, this supports the views of Kogut (1991) and Kalafatis et al. (2012) where they posited that companies use alliances to expand brand presence into new markets viewed of high uncertainty.

The researcher uncovered similar results in garages; the results consistently show oil recommendation from brands of the same home country. This synergy of brands from the same country of origin ensures that the brands dominate the supply of the market sector. A respondent from a major filling station pointed this out, by saying:

“Peugeot car owners come to the station to buy the motor oil, due to the recommendation by the car manufacturer to use Total oil in the engine. You know Total oil is recommended for Peugeot so they come here to buy oil”.

Here, the demand pull of the brand was due to the alliance between the car and the motor oil manufacturer. This finding concurs with Mowery et al. (1996) where they posited companies from the same home country, in which he termed “domestic alliances”, produce more technological inter-firm exchange than firms of different countries.

The researcher also uncovered the fact that to improve brand awareness and equity, motor oil brands enter into an alliance with other high equity car brands. The findings suggest co-branding; results from advert copies indicate endorsement similar to what was uncovered in the historical study of Castrol (see Section 5.1). The findings consistently show brand endorsement such as, *“Recommended by leading car manufacturers”*, *“AUDI recommends Castrol EDGE. Our strongest oil”* and *“VW motor sports recommends Castrol EDGE”*. Here, brand endorsement by established brands helps to build strong associations in the eye of the customer while helping to build a strong brand image by equating the brand quality of the established brand (Dean, 1999; Khatri, 2006).

Similarly, the findings further uncovered co-branding through recommendations by leading car manufacturers to suggest endorsement of brand quality. Consistently, statements like *“AUDI recommends Castrol EDGE. Our strongest oil”* were used, indicating brand reliability. Hence, the brand character indicates reliability, dependability, universality and quality. Likewise, the Nigerian data suggested a minor brand used a car speed driver *Lewis Hamilton* as their brand ambassador. This shift in strategy suggests that global brands are gradually adopting the multiple promotion strategies to reach target markets in Nigeria.

Similarly, findings from Nigeria indicate imported brands go into a strategic alliance by co-opting distributors when entering a foreign market to gain competitive strength and easy of market access. Response from managers in one dealership emphasised this by saying: “*The marketers specify the oil to use, I think CFAO are the determinants for Chevrolet to use Total*”. “*The distributors recommend the oil we use in the cars especially the Toyota dealers*”. This phenomenon of co-opting agents that are familiar with the local market identified in Nigeria influences brand performance through existing strong links was not found in the UK.

Furthermore, results from recent twenty-first-century magazine adverts suggest the major brands were involved in sporting events, where the brand particularly announced sponsorship of a sporting event. Such slogans like “*Castrol sponsored the event*” were used to publicise involvement in the *Wilton Classic Supercar* event. The data further suggests that motor oil brands seem to be associated with Formula 1 auto racing where the slogan stated “*Sponsored by Castrol*”. A website of a global brand stated:

“This collaboration in F1 began in 1977 and has always been noted for innovation and ongoing dialogue allied to rapid reaction with a single aim in mind – excellence at the pinnacle of motorsport. Together we have scored 21 world championship titles and 158 victories”.

Sporting events appeal to brand owners due to the ability to reinforce brand imagery and spawn brand visibility. Consistent with Neilson et al. (2011), F1 sponsorship also offers popularity (international recognition), innovation (technological expertise), power, self-confidence, independence and masculinity. Similarly, consumers regard Formula 1 to be prestigious, dynamic and sophisticated (Bartunek, 2007).

5.1.2.2 Nature of Purchase

Branding plays an important role in influencing purchase in the business and consumer markets. Studies on organisational purchase (Robinson et al., 1967; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Webster Jr and Wind, 1972; Sheth, 1973; Mudambi, 2002) suggest business purchase behaviour follow certain steps, the purchase need recognition, buyer characteristics, purchase characteristics, attribute importance and decision on the final choice. The research findings

for this study indicated similar purchase behaviour in the UK and Nigerian supply chain by building purchase decision based on customer need for brands.

The data suggests purchase between businesses by going into an agreement to supply motor oil. Retailers go into agreement with other businesses to supply oil on a daily basis or on demand. Similarly, independent garages go into agreement with retail stores to supply the oil. This is a common activity in stores and motor factors as explained by a respondent in motor factors: *“We do trade by selling and distributing to garages and other business on demand”*. This example is consistent in most stores observed. The data revealed similar purchase patterns of motor oil between businesses in Nigeria. Findings from filling stations indicate motor oil is sold to other business in the Nigerian market. Businesses that buy the oil in large quantities make special arrangements with the filling stations to supply the oil to them, based on the agreement. Another response from a manager at a Forte station, stated: *“Businesses like construction companies and others that we go into agreement with them”*. Similarly, car dealers go into agreement with dealers and filling stations to supply their brands to them. The following response echoes this sentiment: *“It’s called Golf oil, Sterling Motors has the sole proprietorship of the oil and they started producing their own oil so we started using it”*. Here, the manager implied that the oil they use is based on an agreement between them and the dealership of the oil. The manager of a car dealership, Lead Automobile said: *“We have a large consumption, therefore we apply to the regional office, and they call it LIV customer”*. Similarly, Peugeot car dealers that have specified to use Total oil in the engine have trade agreements with dealers and filling stations as exemplified in the manager’s response, where he said:

“We sometimes do orders by going into an agreement with filling stations, but the business failed because they wanted payment of cash only and not credit. So we went into an agreement with Total”.

The above indicates that retailers go into a trade agreement with various businesses apart from their normal retailing. Motor oil business takes a dual approach to reaching the end user by realising the different customers in the market. Also, the results from dealership suggested that the choice of oil is determined not only on engine recommendations but on the budget of customers. When asked on the purchase decision, a manager at a Nigerian dealership stated: *“It’s a decision made by the workshop manager and the management kind of an arrangement*

from our company and the brand distributors, the company head office recommends to us the oil we should use”.

The result demonstrates that stores do a large amount of retail of motor oil brands to customers who come in requesting for or select oil of their choice. Oil in five, two and one-litre cans are frequently bought by customers, especially those who choose to do DIY. Range of stores from the traditional to motor factors and bigger one's like Halfords all conduct retail of the brands. Records from one store exemplified this: *“The store does retail where customers come in to request for oil”*. The above case typifies the activities retail stores engage in with motor oil manufacturers in an effort to reach the final consumer who, in most cases, is the motorist or, as explained by a store owner, who said: *“...some mechanics come into the store to make a quick purchase when they are out of stock”*. Similarly, the retail of motor oil is also observed in petrol station stores where customers go into the store chose the oil they need and then pay at the till. As observed in conventional stores, stores in petrol stations also stock 5 and 1-litre cans where motorists come into the station either to buy fuel then purchase the oil or they just make an oil purchase.

Car owners who want to change oil choose different options to get the right oil for their engine. The fastest way to get the oil is the nearest retailer to the motorist. The data indicated the purchase of motor oil by retail stores in Nigeria tended to be in retail only. Consistently, the informants answered that they do only retail in the store and that they don't have any agreement with another company to supply the oil in bulk. One response from a store manager in Kaduna said *“I do retail only”*, while another manager answered *“I sell on retail”*. The store's inability to stock a large amount of oil, coupled with the lack of business expansion, may not be appropriate for another type of purchase as their main business target is the retail. Results from the filling stations also indicate motor oil being sold at retail. The responses from filling stations indicate the importance of retail in that section. The manager at Mobil station answered: *“The oil we stock is for customers to buy in retail”*, before adding *“We do only retail”*. Motorists, mechanics or retailers in small stores come to filling stations where they sell the manufacturer brands to buy the oil. Due to reliability on genuine oil, retail in this sector is attractive in the Nigerian market.

The above shows the dynamic nature of the retail trends by integration of B2B and B2C in the supply chain adopted by stores in the process of reaching out to a different segment of customers. Stores serve different types of customers from the consumer who come to the pay

point to make purchases for those who order for goods to be supplied. This synergy between store owners, garages and other business can be very profitable for those stores that are ready to adopt such a strategy. A manufacturer's role in promoting the brand is of little relevance here as the relationship between the store and other businesses take a more prominent role, as brands need to be made available to customers at a quick and convenient time, which is backed by the brand's unique value.

The data shows that stores that do take part in trade purchases have many dispatch vehicles on standby to make a quick and prompt delivery. Although the brand choice is important, service is also an important factor in the motor oil business. To explain this further, stores are always making efforts to satisfy customers by receiving customer demand and ensuring fast delivery. This shows that customer satisfaction is highly considered in this sector because the garage determines which oil to purchase/stock; hence, which oil the motorist will use when visiting the garage.

Furthermore, Mudambi (2002) identified three types of buyers: the highly tangible, brand receptive and low interests with different interest towards brands. There are those who emphasise on physical specifications and price, the highly knowledgeable and scrutinise purchase process and the uninterested groups. This research finding indicates that car dealers in the UK are brand receptive by focusing on branding attributes like brand name, manufacturer reputation, distribution, aftersale services, advertising and promotion, and relationships to influence purchase decisions. These results reflect the studies of Cretu and Brodie (2007), who found brand image reflects more on quality perception, while company reputation creates the perception of value. Although their findings focus on two attributes reported by Mudambi (2002), it lays credence to the B2B purchase behaviour.

The data further uncovers retailers in the category of motor factors, superstores and DIY stores to be brand receptive, who's purchase is influenced by brand name, brand image, manufacturer reputation, distribution and ordering and delivery services, while traditional stores are highly tangible by relying on price and physical features. However, contrary to the views of Mudambi (2002), the brand receptive retailers used catalogues and websites to improve buyer interest and purchase decision. They also employed the use of information resources, such as fax, telephone and online ordering devices to improve ease of ordering. Independent garages seem to place low importance to branding in the purchase decisions; the study suggests purchase decision driven by brand price.

Results in the Nigerian supply chain show a different picture of a business purchase. Car dealers are influenced by brand image, name and reputation, manufacturer reputation, ordering and delivery, after-sales services and relationship established with automotive agents. The results also show low interest business purchases are done through wholesalers and distributors who buy to resale to retailers. Furthermore, commitment and trust are important factors in this purchase decision, which is consistent with that of Morgan and Hunt (1994) and Mudambi (2002). Classification of the branding influence on purchase behaviour is provided in table 5.2 showing the different sections of the motor oil supply chain.

Table 5.2: Classification of business buying behaviour

Purchase behaviour	Highly tangible	Brand receptive	Low interest
Car dealers		Brand name, brand image, manufacturer reputation, distribution, aftersales services, advertising and promotions, and relationships	
Independent garages			Price driven
Motor factors, Superstores, DIY stores		Brand name, brand image, manufacturer reputation, distribution, ordering and delivery services as brand receptive	
Traditional stores	Price, physical features		

Although studies (Sheth, 1974; 1979; Fern and Brown, 1984) point to more similarities than differences between purchases in the business and consumer markets, the prevailing views of the literature suggest a purchase difference in the business and consumer market (Jackson and Cooper, 1988; Coviello and Brodie, 2001). Interestingly, considering the hybrid nature of motor oil, the data of this research suggests retailing to be the focal point of consumer purchase; hence, it serves as a focal point of branding influence to consumer purchase in the consumer market. Although this goes beyond the scope of this present study, this emerging theme on purchase differences between the business and consumer markets merits further study. Interestingly, the nature of consumer purchase in the UK and Nigeria shows remarkable differences. The UK consumers assume all five roles identified in Bucklin (1963), whereas the consumer purchase in Nigeria is mainly based on store trust and brand image perception.

5.1.2.3 Brand Identity

Motor oil brands create distinction by developing visual identity to influence brand choice. The data across the supply chain indicates efforts by manufacturers to create unique characteristics of their brands to be distinguished in the market. The data of this study uncovers the use of different techniques to generate brand identity across the retail and garages. The findings from the supply chain suggest that the dual market target of motor oil brand features are very important areas of consideration for differentiation to induce a favourable response from consumers. Motor oil brands develop identity through strategies like packaging design, colour, easy pouring and secure lids which are further promoted through different media to add value and provide a sense of trustworthiness to influence purchase decision.

5.1.2.3.1 The Retail Environment

The data in the supply chain suggests motor oil brands generate brand identity through direct link with customers in the retail. In the following sections, the factors relating to brand identity and how brands are to be seen in the retail towards attracting customers' attention and profitability comprising the communication process and nature of shelving will be uncovered. The findings provide meanings to retail promotions of motor oil in the UK and Nigeria towards attracting customer attention. For the purpose of this study, the retail included traditional stores, motor factors stores, DIY stores, supermarkets and stores found in filling stations. Tables 5.3 and 5.4 show the classification of the UK and Nigerian automotive end channel structure.

Table 5.3: Classification of UK channel structure

Retail					Garage	
Department store	Motor factors	Traditional retail	DIY store	Filling stations	Car dealers	Independent garages

Table 5.4: Classification of Nigerian channel structure

Retail		Garage		
Filling stations	Traditional retail	Car dealers	Independent garages	Service centre

The findings of this study suggest store image and the influence it has on the consumer's mind play a leading role in improving brand perception and favourable image. However, with changes in consumer tastes and market structure between different countries, the findings will offer meanings to retail branding culture in the UK and Nigeria to gain insight into motor oil retail branding culture. Figure 5.1 models the different retail branding attributes in order to draw consumer attention.

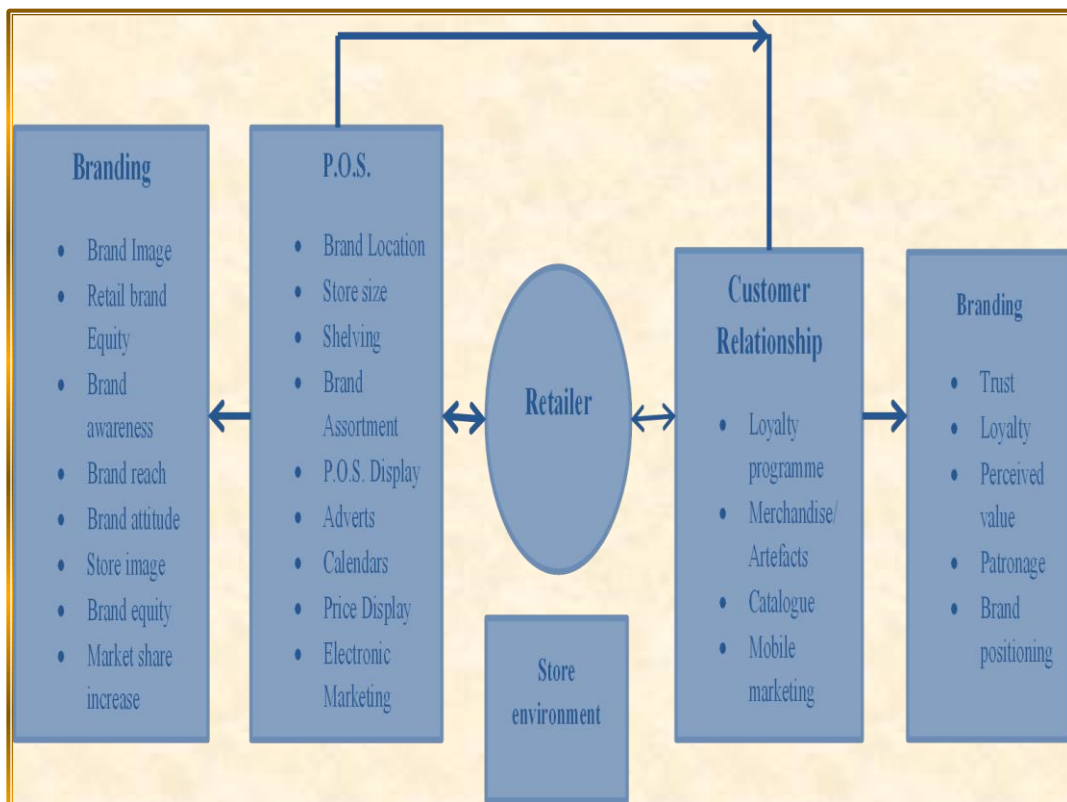


Figure 5.1: Retail model

As mentioned in Section 5.1.2, retail served as the point of contact between the brand and the consumer. The researcher uncovered the use of middlemen as intermediaries between the manufacturer and the retailer among the major brands; hence, motor oil is pushed from the wholesaler to the retailer. Perhaps this trend may be as a result of the wider market reach of global brands. However, the results further revealed brand push of the lower brands directly to the retailer without using middlemen. At this point, the interplay of brand push and pull between the retail and the motorist takes place with both sectors using different strategies to encourage patronage.

The use of attractive shelves in retail is an important attribute in building store image. The results from traditional retail stores in the UK and Nigeria suggest a lack of effort to make the shelves attractive. Respondents in the UK seem to point to the inherited nature of the business, while the lack of finance is most influencing with Nigerian retailers as reasons for the lack of store improvement. However, retailers seem to have more emphasis on shelves in motor factors, DIY, superstores and filling station stores having price and brand information for customer convenience. Similarly, these retailers consistently use POS promotional material with target poster display to attract the DIY motorist by the global brands. Counterintuitively, despite their high promotion and adverts in different channels, global brands are rarely found in shelves of stores and motor factors. However, lower and generic brands seem to dominate the retail market, perhaps because of the price difference between the brands influencing brand choice, with the global brands priced higher than the lower brands.

This is surprising, considering the equity these global brands have and the image enhancement they will have when displayed in retail. However, results from the more established retailers in both countries suggest stocking global brands to enhance store image. This is consistent with the views of Ailawadi and Keller (2004), where they posit retailers improve store and brand image by stocking major brands that have established a brand image and equity, operating as “ingredient brands”, where they boost consumer interest, loyalty and patronage to the store image. This then suggests that the equity of the store and the other brands rely on the equity of the higher brands. Furthermore, the result indicates shelf space competition between the major brands and generic brands, due to the higher price of major brands compared to the lower priced generic one’s offered by the retailers. Additionally, a recurrent theme among the UK retailers is the presence of store brands stacked alongside manufacturer brands. Counter-intuitively, results from Nigerian retail show no presence of store brands. This then suggests the sophistication and power of UK retailers in developing brands, whereas Nigerian retailers rely solely on manufacturer brands.

Similarly, the researcher uncovers retail brand assortment is used to influence brand image so as to generate consumer pull and build equity by displaying different brands to improve market share in the channel profit. Given the diversity of consumer tastes and the consumer tendency to seek variety, the literature suggests retailers that increase brand variety or assortment have an increase in the market share (Kahn, 1998; Bayus and Putsis Jr, 1999;

Hoch et al. 1999). This is consistent with the research findings in the UK and Nigeria where respondents indicated the importance of stocking different brands to influence sale and consumer choice. In contrast, Dhar (1997), Iyengar and Lepper (2000), Boatwright and Nunes (2001), Chernev (2003) and Gourville and Soman (2005) questioned the assertion of assortment creating a positive impact on purchase behaviour. Hence, they argued that an increase in assortments does not improve consumer choice.

Additionally, a cognitive influence to draw the customer awareness towards brand purchase was uncovered in Nigerian filling stations. They do this by displaying brands in shelves near fuel dispenser pumps. A response from an informant at a Total station echoed this: “*They are there to remind motorists to buy the oil*”. Here, the strategy seems to serve two purposes, improve brand awareness and induce purchase; however, this strategy is not found in the UK retail. Consequently, branding at the retail stage involves different strategies such as brand image, retail brand equity, product assortment, merchandising, pricing, brand awareness and brand reach to attract the customer.

Similarly, the location of brands in store, store size and store atmosphere are important attributes in improving retail image and influence perception. Although previous studies (Richardson et al. 1996; Schlosser 1998; and Baker et al. 2002) centred on stores’ environmental factors to influence the merchandise quality, price, employee service quality and socially communicative product perceptions, this study counterintuitively identified shelving, the location of the brands and store size to have an improved store image and provide a pleasing atmosphere to reflect on the perceptions of brand quality. However, with a store the size of *6x5 feet* or *7x6 feet* in traditional stores and motor factors in the UK, these research findings show a large number of stores offer limited space for a favourable atmosphere. These contrast findings in Nigeria where the data indicates stores in all categories are *6x5 feet* in stores and *17x16 feet* in filling stations. This shows that UK stores are more appealing with consumer purchase convenience, whereas Nigerian stores are poorly arranged with no effort to provide purchase convenience.

Also, consistent with Ailawadi and Keller (2004), the findings suggest an appealing store atmosphere provides a hedonic utility to consumers, encourage a regular visit, repeat purchase and a longer stay. Hence, an appealing store suggests a higher potential for differentiation and carving a unique image. This is identified in department stores, DIY stores and motor factor stores with a large network of branches where store atmosphere is always

appealing. This is not found in Nigeria where counterintuitively results suggest brands are placed in front of stores facing the road (see Appendix 28). Filling station stores are often hot with no electricity to allow for air conditioning.

5.1.2.3.2 Merchandising

Retail merchandise displays used to systematically influence customer purchase and improve the retail image are an integral part of modern retail. This is mostly found in the UK retail and filling station stores of global brands in Nigeria. This finding is consistent with the submission of Smith and Burns (1996) in that a retailer's price offering is influenced by the number of stock keeping units (SKUs) on shelves in food supermarkets. Additionally, the study is consistent with Kent's (2003) evaluation of retailer's use of display and space to define customers brand experience. Shelving and location of brands capture the retailer attributes to influence the retailer's brand image (Davies and Brooks, 1989; Davies, 1992; Ailawadi and Keller, 2004; Dabija and Abrudan, 2008). The findings further reveal retail shelves in the UK are modern and attractive, but this was not the case in Nigerian retail, except at the filling stations.

Furthermore, to influence loyalty and induce purchase, the results suggest prize draw promo through POS offers by urging customers to contact retailers for a winning price. This was evident in the results from a motor factors store which showed:

“...a picture of Ford Motor Sport World Rally Championship, Moto GP, UEFA EURO 2012, featuring Cristiano Ronaldo, Sashin Tendulkar for World Cricket Twenty 20, British superbikes and Lizzie Armistead for Olympics 2012”.

This finding supports that of Kumar and Leone (1988), where they found display activities, price promotion and featured improved brand sale. Counterintuitively, the paradox of using sporting events that are not motor related as uncovered in this finding is consistent with the results of Lear et al. (2009) who posited that sports celebrity endorsement in retail adverts utilises football and baseball players more frequently than other professional athletes.

The results suggest that manufacturers use differentiation as a value creation tool to distinguish brands and build competitive advantage. The researcher uncovered tangible features like the packaging (design, size and colour) are used to distinguish brands. This was

explained by a respondent in one of the stores: “*Well, if you want to beat price premium of the brand you have to consider your packaging*”. The data also shows the importance of colours to differentiate Castrol having its distinct colours, “*the green, white and golden colour stands out*” in every store visited. “*Mobil has maintained the silver colour which does not seem to be attractive*”. The results thus show an effort to differentiate between other brands in the market. A similar trend was observed with other local brands where “*silver colour is used*” to package the brand. However, “*generic*” brands “*use bright attractive colours*” to differentiate their brands from others. Halfords, for example, uses six different colours in its package design, which serves as a way of competing with those global brands on the shelf.

The data further suggests intangible features, including brand quality, image, security and use of technology, safety, durability, reliability, pre-sale, after-sales service and distribution patterns were used to differentiate and build awareness. This is consistent with Bendixen et al. (2004) where they found price, technology, perceived quality, reliability, performance and delivery have an important role in B2B branding. Consistently, ad copies indicate expressing the brand's functional benefits by using slogans like, “*It's more than just oil. It's liquid engineering*”. Here the brand's unique quality is expressed drawing the customer's attention to the brand importance of performance and excellence while expressing differentiation. Furthermore, the brand aimed to build trust by assuring motorists of the brand function while building a strong brand image. Brands advertised here are made to appear as leading brands, stressing unique characteristics and expressing market leadership.

5.1.2.3.3 The Point of Purchase

A key factor in merchandising to improve the retail image and encourage customer pull is the point of purchase. It is often supported with visual appeals designed to induce customer impulse or unplanned purchase (UPP). In contrast to the traditional media channels that attract consumers prior to purchase, results for this study show POS promotions were found in the store, the store entrance and at the pay point. The results further suggest other tangible and intangible services offered at the point of purchase to promote and induce the consumer were offered by retailers. The different aspects of POP are shown in figure 5.2, including the promotional material, shelf information and electronic systems to enhance customer experience.

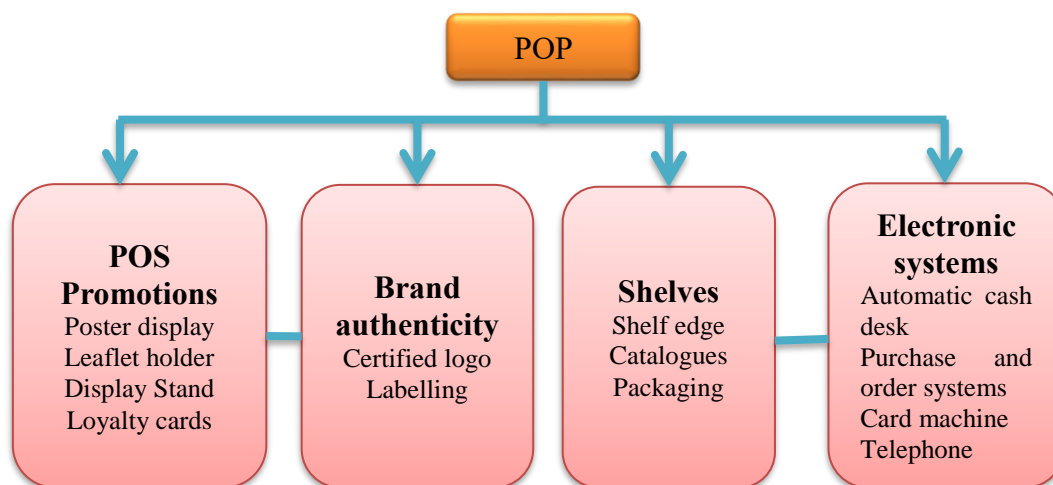


Figure 5.2: POP promotion activities

As shown in Figure 5.2 above, the results reveal the point of sale promotions in motor factors use promotion appeals like poster displays and leaflet holders next or near the checkout counter to improve brand awareness and attract customers. However, this was not the case in Nigeria. Similarly, to promote and enhance brand awareness, global brands use display stands in major stores to differentiate from other brands on display. The results further reveal that UK retailers use display stands in stores, which the respondents confirmed are supplied, restocked and maintained by the brand manufacturers (see Appendix 29). In contrast, only filling stations in Nigerian retail used the display stands which were placed outside the store (see Appendix 29). Perhaps this may be due to the contrasting weather conditions in the two countries, the lack of regular electricity in Nigeria or to induce purchase, as explained by a filling station manager, “*We display them to remind motorist to buy the oil*”.

Perhaps the area where POP has much importance in UK retail is on the shelves. The study suggested an organised and standardised shelving strategy by using different items for purchase convenience like shelf edge, with information on brand name, price, barcode and oil type (see Appendix 30). Data from retail echoed this: “*Display all the information needed by a customer to make a purchase decision (name, price, type of oil, date of production of each brand of oil was provided)*”. This systematic display of information to influence purchase convenience is found in the UK, while the Nigerian retailers are yet to adopt the strategy. Consequently, where prices were not found on the shelves, a print was placed on top of the shelf indicating brand prices and other information.

Similarly, catalogues help to improve consumer purchase decision in the retail. Motorists that are unsure on the right grade of oil seek to use of catalogues, often provided by the motor oil companies (see Appendix 31). This is further explained by one store manager who added: “*A lubricant guide is provided called Mobil lubricant selector*”. This trend was found in the UK, which may indicate the growing awareness of motorists to engine choice, contrasting the Nigerian market, where catalogues are not displayed, suggesting a lack of grade awareness by motorists. This phenomenon supports the literature that points to shelf information to influence brand equity through enhancing the retailer’s image in the consumer’s mind (Ailawadi and Keller, 2004). Conversely, these POP retail branding attributes were not found in Nigeria. Purchases are still done through verbal engagement between the customer and the retailer. Counterintuitively, the findings suggest the use of modern shelving in the Nigerian filling stations, contrast the other retail sections in Nigeria, that have smaller, unattractive shelf space (see Appendix 32).

Similarly, the study showed that retailers use electronic systems at the pay point to aid purchase convenience, speed transaction and enhance order and reorder. As one store manager explained: “*...Castrol has a text service giving information on the specific vehicle which consumers find very useful*”. This is practised in the UK, but not in Nigeria. Similarly, the data indicated that garages use online information on the right oil to choose where motorists find difficulty finding the right oil. A manager of a garage stated: “*...to get the right information on the right grade of oil we search online in Autodata*”. These modern means of transaction, are fully adopted in UK retail, including automatic cash desk, purchase and order systems, card machine and landline telephone systems improves store image, while building loyalty (see Appendix 33). Previous work such as Helena Chiu et al. (2010) and Oh et al. (2012), have found a push of electronic resources by retailers to improve customer visit, sustain and increase profitability. This is consistent with the results of this study which indicate the availability of electronic systems to support and enhance the shopping experience.

The data indicates that the use of electronic systems is a universal practice found in the UK retail. An informant in a motor factor store said: “*...when customers come and they don’t know the right oil to use, I assist by checking online*”. Here, the retailer will help the motorist to check the right oil to use in the engine by going online to check. However, this was not found in the Nigerian retail. It may further suggest that the early stage of retailers moving

towards adopting these electronic transactions. This finding supports that of Helena Chiu et al. (2010) and Oh et al. (2012), where they found the use of electronic systems improved customer loyalty and increased profitability. In contrast, Pantano and Viassone (2014) found the adoption of electronic systems at the point of sale helps to improve personnel and supply chain communications without improving customer pull.

Additionally, the study uncovered that point of purchase allows retail sales support, while influencing customer loyalty through loyalty points to customers by using loyalty cards. This is consistent with the views of Wright and Sparks (1999); Mauri (2003); Zilliani and Bellini (2004); Allaway et al. (2006); and Vesel and Zabkar (2009). This was the case in the UK, but not in Nigeria. Again, this may be due to lack of sufficient electricity supply in Nigeria. Moreover, results from both countries showed retailers place brands near the entrance. This enables first contact by customers and therefore induces brand recognition and improves sales (Keller, 2010). This suggests the importance retailers place on the sale of motor oil against other products displayed.

Additionally, consistently encouraging the purchase of manufacturer brands from authentic retailers, while placing stickers of authentication to assure customers the brand is certified against fraud suggests brand mistrust in the Nigerian retail (Jallo and Croft, 2015) (see Appendix 34). As data from a Nigerian retail stated; “...*there is also a sticker on the cans stating ‘certified okay by TBP’. This is assurance of quality from the manufacturer.*” These results support the findings of Gentry et al. (2001) and Gentry et al. (2006), especially in the area of counterfeit prevalence in informal retail settings and poor packaging and labelling. However, there is no evidence to support Gentry and his colleagues view that low price, after negotiation and help to identify counterfeits, as this study found the above points to cut across all brands within the Nigerian market.

Likewise, the lack of trust and strict brand control against fraud and tampering in the Nigerian market from distribution, packaging and retail display suggest the complex nature of brand protection in Nigeria (Jallo and Croft, 2015). These actions prompted government and private agencies to devise protective measures across the supply chain, even at the point of purchase (see Appendix 35). A manager at a Forte filling station said; “*The cap is made with a tamper-resistant and tamper-evident features*”. Also, a manager at Mobil filling station commented: “*The caps are made to be convenient to pour, with barrier protection to allow more security for the brand against tampering and tamper evidence. The brand goes an extra*

mile to protect its contents against tampering and alteration by competitors and fraudsters". The above cases could imply that brand protection is an integral aspect of packaging in Nigeria. However, these protective measures do not seem to be fully effective. A manager at a Total filling station stated: *"The government does not help in regulating the business of motor oil, there are so many people copying our products and claiming they are us"*. This was further claimed by a marketing manager at one of the Nigerian companies that counterfeit reduces brand equity and undermines profit. Across the supply chain managers, wholesalers and retailers echo the same problem. In stark contrast, the UK market appears to have moved beyond this "paranoia" and each segment of the market is conscious of the brand offering and brand safety is ensured from the point of manufacture to the end market.

A recurring theme among retailers was the importance of packaging. It was universally believed that fakes were "obvious" where the retail packaging was sub-standard (Jallo and Croft, 2015). Some retailers use packaging as a means of evaluating brands, communicate with customers while influencing perception of quality (see Appendix 36). This was explained by a respondent in one of the stores: *"Well, if you want to beat price premium of the brand you have to consider your packaging"*. The results suggest that global brands are packaged in more appealing, stronger packaging than others. This also supports Rigaux-Bricmont's (1982) view that packaging acts as a means of differentiation in the market. Similarly, the result revealed that packaging in the UK is more user-friendly than the Nigerian brands.

Packaging is also used to boost consumer confidence by ensuring contents are not tampered with. Across the supply chain, tamper-proof and security tags are used in the packaging to ensure brand authenticity. The point was further emphasised from recordings at a filling station: *"...the cap is round with carrier protection for security and tamper resistant and tamper evident on the cans"*. A marketing manager also stated: *"To control unwanted tampering of the brand and ensure the end user has the brand as supplied by the manufacturer"*. This was a reoccurring trend in the Nigeria market, whereas UK brands were more particular on leak-proof packaging to add brand value. Similarly, the results revealed national branding with the use of logos, indicating a mark of quality of brands that are manufactured in Nigeria (see Appendix 37). Data from one particular observation in Nigerian retail stated: *"...a certified logo of the government body Standard Organisation of Nigeria (SON) indicates that they have been certified for quality and a logo symbolising the Nigerian*

flag with a statement Proudly Nigerian". This is similar to what UK brands used to do in the twentieth century with claim of being a British brand. With so many fake and counterfeit brands on the market and the consistent complaint by the respondents of the lack of control of the Nigerian market, the results suggest retailers and manufacturers alike assure customers that the brand they purchase is genuine through these counterfeit measures.

This problem of counterfeiting seems to extend into comparatively mundane areas, such as vehicle safety and healthcare seems to have prompted the Nigerian government action to identify and combat fraud. The study also found that official consumer protection measures were in place: in some cases these consisted of accredited authenticity labelling schemes and in others, the provision of consumer helplines on packaging (Jallo and Croft, 2015).

5.1.2.3.4 The DIY Segment

DIY represents efforts of individuals to undertake improvement of their personal task at home without the help of professionals. Consistent with Dahl's (2004) view, culture involves an intertwine of shared elements within an identified group to interpret behaviour. Thus, studies in modern retailing suggest a cultural turn where the retail environment, functioning not only as a place for commodity exchange, but as symbolic areas that constitute identities and meanings Williams (2004). This then highlights the retailer's focus on brand and customer pull for profit optimisation.

Counterintuitively, the research findings uncovered a deliberate brand push to DIY customer across the UK supply chain from the manufacturer to the retailer. Motorists wishing to express their technical know-how, self-identity seekers or due to economic constraints may be influenced to adopt the DIY culture. This result reflected the study of Williams (2004) and Watson and Shove (2008) who posited, a growing influence of the DIY in British culture. The results further revealed retailers systematically position the motor oil shelves near those of related component parts. Interestingly, as the findings uncovered, the DIY market plays a major part in the UK retail market by constantly channelling messages towards them.

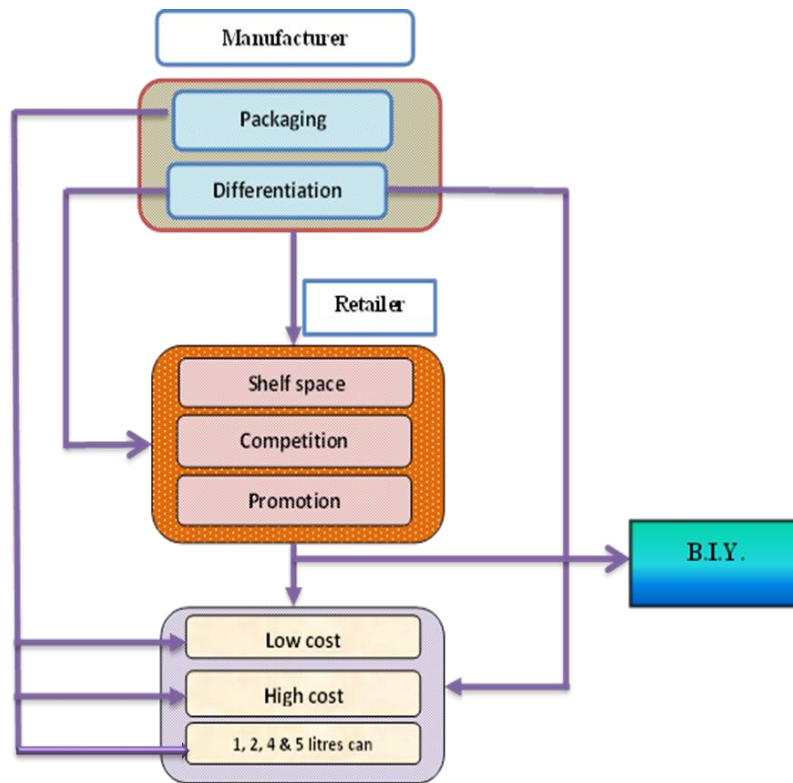


Figure 5.3: The DIY Model

Additionally, the results suggest packaging design with the use of convenient pouring cans and size range from 5, 4 and 1 litre. Thus, customers have choice of can size at the POP. Similarly, retailers directly target DIYers by putting up posters in stores (see Appendix 38). Such deliberate targeting of DIY customers is exemplified here; *“Topping up your Tan? Make sure you top your car up too!”* Here, retailers encourage participation by urging motorists who may prefer changing oil themselves to top up (see Appendix 39). However, this interesting phenomenon of targeting DIYers was not identified in Nigeria. Likewise, the results across the UK retail indicated a strategic attempt at brand awareness and induce sale by display of one litre cans to target the DIYers. Figure 5.3 models the DIY and the emerging BIY culture uncovered in Nigeria, commencing from packaging design to different retailing aspects leading to brand display for customer choice.

Also, consistent with Watson and Shove's (2005) view, this study suggests a growing DIY culture in the UK and an attendant market growth that serves it. In contrast, the DIY culture was not found in Nigeria. This was echoed by the manager of a major brand who indicated this lack of DIY encouragement by manufacturers: *“The one litre came to mind when government started thinking of banning bulk packaging”*. Here, the DIY customer is not the

target; hence, they focus on larger packaging. However, the study points to a gradual growth of the DIY with consumers buying component parts from retailers to pay mechanics for the service.

Overall, the results suggest a do-it-yourself (DIY) culture in the UK, whereas results from the Nigerian market, seem to be prevalingly 'do-it-for-me' (DIFM), with a maturing DIY culture where motorists who are unsure of brand authenticity purchase the brands themselves, then take them to mechanics. This behaviour was identified from several respondents who claimed that consumers believe that tradesman will invariably use sub-standard components, but will charge the customer for the branded items. The researcher termed this behaviour as 'buy-it-yourself' (BIY) (Jallo and Croft, 2015). This then suggests BIY to be a growing phenomenon in Nigeria, with lack of trust across the supply chain. Consumers fear the use of sub-standard oil by mechanics.

Surprisingly, the literature on the DIY phenomena is yet to attract extensive academic attention. In contrast to this study finding which was a focus on factors that influence consumer purchase by the DIYers, the literature seems to focus on the DIY culture in developed economies (Miller, 1995; Van Kenhove et al., 1999; Nelson, 2004; Williams, 2004; 2012; Pagano, 2014).

5.1.2.3.5 Brand Loyalty

The findings tracked down a well-planned, nurtured and vigilantly guarded strategy to influence brand preference through warranty. Warranties offered by manufacturers and retailers serves as a guarantee for the brand quality and offer an alternative solution in the event of damage or failure. The result shows car owners insisting on a particular brand in order to satisfy warranty issued by the car dealers. An example of the use of warranty was expressed by a respondent in a store who said: "*Warranty and price are factors considered by retail customers when making purchase decision*". Here, retail customers, who are probably DIYers, will ensure they abide by the warranty agreement during purchases. Stores that act as middlemen between car manufacturers and car owners, indicate on the receipt that the customer has satisfied the warranty by using specific oil, although this may not always be the case, as explained by another store respondent who said: "*Consumers make a purchase choice due to warranties attached to their vehicle, such as Mercedes and Porsche. Motor oil that requires warranties is coloured green to distinguish them from regular oils*".

To meet manufacturer standards, some seem to garages insist on using specific oil to satisfy warranty. This was particularly evident in garages that have trade agreements with oil manufacturers, as explained by a respondent at Harpenden auto services: “...because of warranty we have to use the right oil in order to meet standards”. A similar trend was revealed at dealerships where they were more particular on warranty than all the other sectors. As they dealt with a specific car manufacturer they usually engaged with those car owners that use those particular cars, hence the insistence of a specific type of oil for the engine. A respondent at a Toyota car dealership stated: “Car owners who use this dealer ensure they satisfy the warranty”. Warranty within this area of business involved global brands that are highly linked with car manufacturers as expressed by a respondent at another car dealership: “We expect car owners to use Castrol to top up or change the oil in order to satisfy warranty condition as requested in the engine’s specification”.

The study also uncovered the fact that the communication process takes different dimensions either using modern technology of the audiovisual or the traditional use of pictures and words to influence customer purchase or switch store. The results consistently suggest retailers across the UK display a “lubricant guide” on their shelves to help customers choose the type of oil. This support service reinforces brand positioning and differentiation at the same time influence store image through customer perception (Barnes, 2001). In contrast, the display of a lubricant guide was not found in Nigerian retail. Perhaps due to the dependence to imported cars by private individuals against the franchise dealership, the market has not matured to educate car owners with the right oil for their engines. Informants consistently pointed to motorists relying on a mechanic’s recommendation for oil choice, “Mechanics will tell you if the oil is good or not”. Here, the burden of trust seems to lie with the mechanic who decides on the right oil motorists put in their engine. The study further uncovered that Nigerian car owners rely on word of mouth recommendation from mechanics for oil choice than any other medium.

Similarly, the study found brand adverts and artefacts are displayed in UK retail, drawing customer attention to brands functional benefit and car care by choosing the right oil, whereas retailers in Nigeria tended to display calendars of different brand assortments produced. Additionally, the results suggest global brands in the UK connect with customers through loyalty programmes by offering loyalty points which are redeemed in superstores to encouraging repeat purchase. A brand manager in a dealership emphasised this: “Vauxhall

has a loyalty reward card where customers can redeem the points in high street stores". This research finding reflected those of Wright and Sparks (1999) and Meyer-Waarden and Benavent (2006), who reported that loyalty programmes mainly influence repeat purchase of existing customers but have little effect on new customers. However, perhaps due to the slow adoption of digital technology, the use of loyalty programmes was not found in Nigerian retail.

The study further uncovered the use of electronic marketing allowing electronic information transfer for a quick response of retail services. Consistently, retailers across the UK supply chain resort to electronic information at the cash point allowing quick response to assist customers in deciding the right oil. This is exemplified by a respondent in a motor factors store who said: *"When customers come and they don't know the right oil to use, I assist by checking online"*. In contrast, electronic marketing was not found in Nigerian retail, as the results suggest a lack of modern checkout counter (see Appendix 31 for a picture of checkout counters in both countries). Similarly, the data further suggested customer assistance through mobile messaging to make oil choice by encouraging retail customers to; *"Find the right oil for your car. Text OIL & your vehicle registration to 60777"*. A similar trend was also uncovered in the dealerships where customers were assisted by constantly reminding them when it was due to change the oil. A further response from a brand manager echoed this: *"When service is due they use a computer system called Polk to inform car owners"*. These services offered by major brands influence brand attitude and increase loyalty while generating direct response.

To this effect studies on the commercial importance of the Internet to business have been offered, such as Hoffman et al. (1995); Jarvenpaa and Todd (1996); and Hsu and Tsou (2011), who posited that manufacturers develop a relationship to generate brand loyalty with the purpose of ensuring repeat purchase through the Internet. The researcher found engagement through company websites by developing online communities around their brands. The researcher uncovered participants are encouraged to communicate with the company through online statements like: *"Your feedback is important to us. If you have a question, comment or complaint, please email info@castrol.com"*.

The researcher also uncovered further effort to increase brand loyalty in the UK retail, whereby Castrol urged customers to check the grade of oil for their engine through, a *'lubricant oracle'*, designed to make product selection easy. Also, the data suggested that,

customers are urged to search, view and download product information. These findings are consistent with those of Sultan and Rohm (2004) and Kim et al. (2008), who proposed that online community participants build stronger brand commitment than non-community members, build brand image and awareness, reduce cost, enhance channel and customer relationship while increasing the commitment of supplier. Although these findings may reflect a generalised view of Internet marketing, the researcher found Nigerian brands, despite developing websites, are yet to evolve into adopting this strategy of online consumer engagement.

According to Blackshaw and Nazzaro (2006); Mangold and Faulds (2009), the social media offers a new platform for customer involvement to share brand experiences. The research also found the social media platform LinkedIn to be more of a B2B platform by communicating with customers in the decision-making unit. The findings further uncovered the social media platform LinkedIn has low brand engagement, while other social media sites like Facebook, twitter and YouTube have active brand engagement. In addition, the researcher found that brands connected with customers through promos, offering chances of winning prizes. This was exemplified in a Facebook posting by Mobil 1: *“Our normal is anything but when it comes to performance. Share our Mobil 1 performance story now for a chance to win”*. Here, the customers’ attention is drawn to the brand by emotionally urging them to share their Mobil 1 story. Surprisingly, at the time of writing this thesis the posting had over two thousand views online. Similarly, the researcher found further brand promo through online raffle draws to improve brand image and reward loyal customers. One such example was a Castrol post stating: *“You could WIN a personalised bottle of Castrol Oil. Click here and enter your details - you could be one of our lucky winners!”* This is consistent with the results of Casaló et al. (2010); and Laroche et al. (2013), who found a positive effect of online communities on brand/customer relations, brand trust and brand loyalty.

The study further suggested that brands were taking a life of their own, where loyal customers posted memorable pictures of adverts, events and experiences on a YouTube video sharing site. This was, however, found in brands that have a long existence and had developed an emotional attachment with customers. This was found in the UK brands showing customer attachment and relationship. However, such online attachment was not identified in Nigeria. The study in Nigeria further showed brand promotion through YouTube by manufacturers posting adverts of their brands.

5.1.2.4 Distribution Channel

An important factor in the supply chain is the ability to provide distribution functions of physical delivery, ordering and reordering of motor oil. Consistent with Mahin (1991); Weitz and Jap (1995); and Brennan et al. (2014), the literature suggests the use of different channels to reach the end market. The data uncovered that these channel members (i.e. agents, brokers, wholesalers and retailers) are relied upon to ensure motor oil brands reach the final customer. With this number of distribution choice, brand owners have the leverage to decide on the convenient and effective distribution pattern to influence brand performance. The study identified different distribution patterns used by manufacturers' in the distribution process.

The study identified manufacturers use the direct channel to distribute brands in the supply chain. This trend suggests brand manufacturers ensure coordination and control within the supply chain by eliminating independent middlemen in the distribution process. A respondent in one of the stores explained this: *"The motor oil is supplied to the store direct from the manufacturer, we do not use middlemen"*. Here, the need for middlemen was not required as both the manufacturer and the store seemed happy with the arrangement. In order to ensure coordination and control within the supply chain, manufacturers of budget and generic brands in the UK and brands of budget brand marketers in Nigeria seem to prefer to exclude independent middlemen in the distribution process. This also reduced the cost of performing channel activities. In addition, foreign brands that entered the Nigerian market through car dealership that were not found in the retail also appeared to use the direct distribution approach. One manager at a dealership emphasised this, by stating: *"Sterling motors have the sole proprietorship of the oil, it's manufactured specifically for our cars; we get the oil direct from the manufacturer. They opened a branch from Dubai to Lagos then distribute to various offices"*. This is similar to what is practised in the UK dealership where brands are distributed directly from the manufacturer. These brands, as the results suggest, appear to be adopting a niche market and gain a competitive advantage which reflects Anderson and Weitz's (1989) view that foreign brands bridge the lack of understanding of the cultural and geographic barriers by focusing on a particular market and pushing the brand through an agent.

Similarly, the results suggest manufacturers use their own distribution centre and warehouses to channel their brands to the market. A marketing manager of a global brand echoed this;

“Distribution is through the customer service centre”. Also, the results from Unipart further indicated this where the manager stated: *“The brands are supplied to the Unipart head office, referred to as a national distribution centre, where they distribute to all the 203 stores on a daily basis”*. This indicates a strict control of the distribution channel; hence, it explains the captive channel in the one level channel of distribution. This is mostly embarked upon by the global brands in the UK and the major brands in Nigeria, where distribution within the channel is done without middlemen. These findings support the studies of Anderson and Coughlan (1987) who reported that manufacturers of global brands prefer an internal distribution process which offers more control. Furthermore, Anderson and Coughlan (1987) suggested that after-sales support appears to play a leading role in ensuring effective brand control. This supports the findings in the UK aftermarket where agents undergo extensive training to realise the company goals and ensure customer satisfaction. This contrasts the findings in Nigeria, where after-sales service was virtually non-existent.

Research by Anderson and Narus (1990); Anderson and Weitz (1992); Heide and John (1992); Morgan and Hunt (1994); and Doney and Cannon (1997) focused on developed economies which has helped in the understanding of brand trust within the supply chain. Collectively, the findings of this study suggest “trust” to be a problem in the Nigerian distribution channel. Consistently, respondents complain of the fraud and adulteration going on between the supply chains, with no support for control from regulatory authorities (Jallo and Croft, 2015). This was echoed by a marketing manager of a global brand: *“We advise customers to buy from the accredited sources. It’s a guarantee that you buy the genuine oil and there is no support from government to stop those who are adulterating the brands”*. Hence, the results suggest trust to be an important factor in ensuring brand authenticity as they move from the manufacturer to the end user. This also suggests brand value and loyalty is maintained by ensuring the use of genuine brands.

Maintaining relationship, trust and commitment between the channels of distribution as observed in the UK aftermarket ensures brand protection from the customer point of view. These findings mirrored the horse meat scandal of adulterated burgers and beef products in the food chain in Britain and Ireland involving Tesco and other stores (Lawrence, 2013). Interview results from brand managers consistently point towards building trust in the supply chain by brand distribution through the company customer service centre. Similarly, the findings suggest car dealers in Nigeria build supply chain trust by trading with accredited

importers (Jallo and Croft, 2015). Here, the dealership recognises the strict control of the supply chain is the key to business success.

Conversely, the results also show manufacturers using the two level channel where brands are pushed to the market through middlemen on behalf of the company or independently. A manager in a retail outlet stated; *“the store buys the motor oil from wholesalers where they buy from suppliers, the suppliers buy from manufacturers”*. The results further suggest global brands in the UK use the combination channel by using the company sales force, distribution centre and intermediaries to cover a wide area within a target market. This distribution pattern was also found in Nigeria, where the global brands and some challenger brands used the same pattern to push the brands to their target market.

The result further suggests the use of indirect channel where independent middlemen are used by manufacturers in both countries to push their brands to the end market. One mechanic at a UK garage stated: *“When a car is brought to the garage they ring up motor factor, Euro parts or Luton motor factors who supplies the oil”*. This dyadic perspective is consistent with prior research in the area of channel partnerships (John and Reve, 1982; Eliashberg and Michie, 1984; Anderson and Narus, 1990). The relationship between the manufacturer and independent channel members is an interesting one as Etgar (1978), Thorelli (1986) and Anderson and Weitz (1989) suggested, collaboration may likely lead to manufacturer assistance in new product development, conduct on behalf of the manufacturer formal or informal market research, engage in sales support activities, be receptive to the manufacturer request and respond to unforeseen contingencies.

In both the combination and captive channel approach, the retail and independent garages appear to be the dominant players, where they use different channels to satisfy the aftermarket. Consequently, due to the diverse positions of the aftermarket and the need to ensure brand awareness to the wider geographic area, manufacturers use the multi-target approach to distributing their brands. In the same vein, Webb (2002) studied the effect of electronic commerce in a multichannel distribution system and found the use of the electronic market channel to assist the conventional distribution. This was emphasised by a manager in motor factors: *“.....distributing brands now is much quicker and easier with the use of the computer, ordering and reordering can be done in few seconds”*. This was consistent with research findings in the UK, where exchange for money, and information required the use of electronic means. However, this was not found in the Nigeria study. Consistently, the data

from Nigeria suggests a lack of electronic resources for recording transactions, perhaps this again maybe due to lack of constant electricity supply in the country.

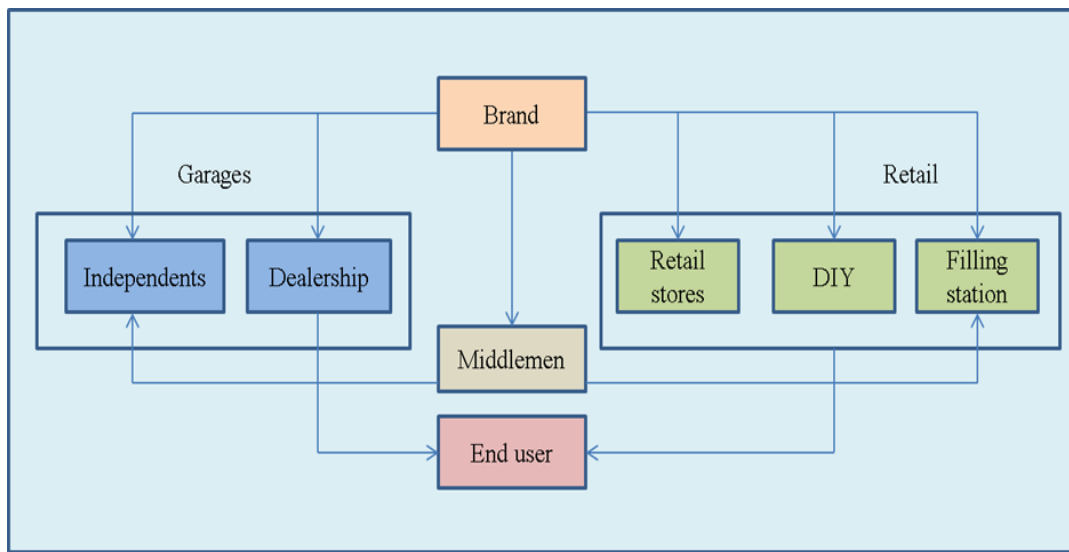


Figure 5.4: UK Supply Chain Model

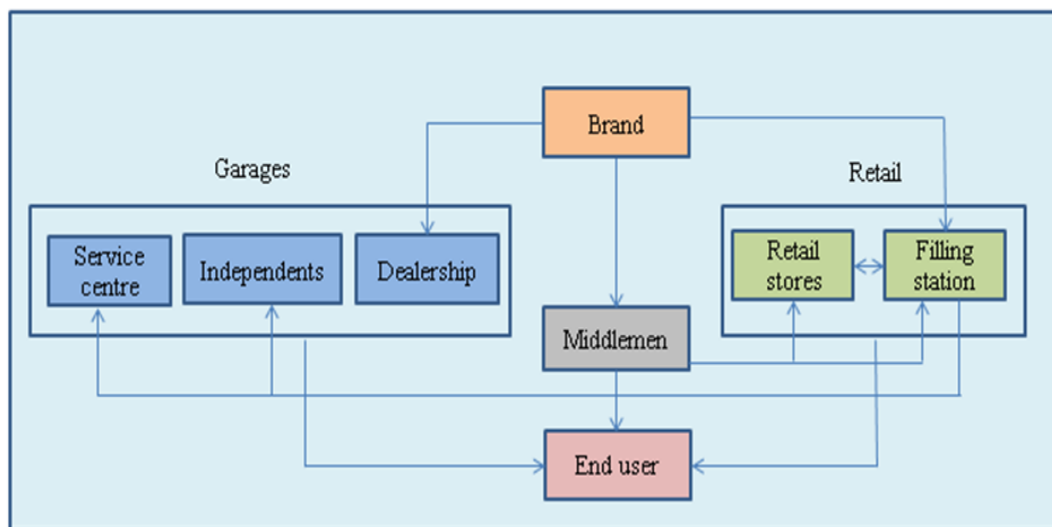


Figure 5.5: Nigeria supply chain model

Figures 5.4 and 5.5 show the contrast in distribution patterns of the aftercare market in both countries revealing a multi-dimensional distribution in the UK brands, suggesting different tangible and intangible benefits of the branding strategies in the business and consumer market. In contrast, the Nigerian distribution pattern is more centred towards the retail market suggesting a stricter brand control. The data suggests the major bottlenecks in the Nigeria distribution as with other developing economies is the poor infrastructure, such as telecommunications and transportation which impede smooth brand availability across the

supply chain (Frazier et al. 1989). Moreover, the slow adoption and access to technology and capital from financial agencies allowing businesses to operate normally restricts distribution flow.

5.1.2.5 The Country of Origin Effect and Standardisation Influence

The nationality bias of brands operating in a different country from its original country plays a key part in the brand success in its market performance. A brand's country of origin is viewed differently in various countries. Across the Nigerian supply chain, respondents viewed global brands differently to local brands. A response from a retailer exemplified this: *“Mobil and Total are foreign; they are usually of higher quality, so it depends on the type of car you are using, that determines the type of oil you will use”*. This indicates that the country of origin of the brands is not important as a determinant for purchase, but on the car type. This was further emphasised by a retailer in Lagos, who said: *“They don't buy oil based on which country it comes from or based on it being Nigerian”*. This point emphasises the retailers' point, that a brand's country of origin is not considered during purchase decisions. Similarly, another retailer in Kaduna said: *“I don't think it's because they are foreign brands, sometimes they are cheaper than the local oil we have in the country. Mobil and Total are local brands”*. Here, the retailer again confirms country of origin has no influence on the motor oil choice in the market. Moreover, it suggests another point, that customers localise a brand when it has a long presence in a country. The brand starts to appear as the country's own brand.

The data across the supply chain suggests a growing preference for local brands due to other factors like price and quality. A mechanic in Kaduna responded; *“I don't use Amasco because its Nigerian, it's because of the low price”*. Here, the mechanic indicates that price influences choice of oil, not its country of origin. Another respondent in Kano added: *“The feeling that the local brands being indigenous brands are not the issue, some of the local brands are of the same quality”*. Here, local brands are seen to have similar quality to the global brands. With price as a purchase determinant down the supply chain, the lower car owners regard the local brands to serve as substitute to the imported brands. However, with the increased call to patronise local goods in Nigeria, the results show a strategic partnership by the local brands with agencies of state and national governments. This strategic partnership will ensure survival of brands as long as relationship with government business is concerned; however, there is lack of confidence of accepting local brands in other businesses.

Overall, country of origin has an impact on brand perception in Nigeria primarily due to the perception of higher value and status symbol. Owners of luxury cars will feel inferior using local brands while global brands are available. Similarly, the use of a global brand's logo on engines gives an image of higher quality with motorists having a hard time accepting local brands as a substitute.

The data further suggests that the COO and brand quality are determinant to purchase decision of motor oil. This was emphasised by a response from a mechanic who said: *"...we use Total because of its quality, not because it's a foreign brand. We don't consider the local or foreign brand, we consider the quality of the brand and the engine first"*. This suggests that resellers consider consumer preference of quality during purchase decision as against the brand's country of origin. This point was emphasised by the manager in a service centre: *"There was a time we used the local brands, but we also realise oil like Amasco burns quickly, so we stopped using it"*. Brands originating from the same country or perceived to be from the same country will create connections between them. This is more pronounced when the brands use their country of origin as a means of differentiation in the market. This is indicative of the use of the word *bonjour* at the entrance of all retail stores in Total filling stations. A respondent at a car dealership responded: *"It's probable that Total is from France and Peugeot is from France"*. Here, the brand's country of origin was considered a reason for the synergy between the car manufacturer and motor oil. Furthermore, this was echoed by a respondent who stated, *"You know Peugeot is a French car"*. This indicates the country of origin directly relates to the reason for the brand recommendation by the car manufacturer. This recommendation is seen to be influenced by the country of origin of a car engine. When asked if the country of a particular car (Peugeot) determines the oil used, an informant answered, *"Yes, it does, because they are recommended in the vehicle"*. This indicates brand recommendations are seen to be used by the car manufacturer to pull customers into using a particular motor oil brand.

The data further shows an attempt to standardise brand name and products by the motor oil brands in the Nigerian market. Rather than use different names, the data indicates brand names to be the same in the two countries. The results further indicate efforts to standardise the product through a careful brand control. A marketing manager emphatically stated: *"...sometimes, due to specification and specialised demand, the plants here cannot produce them. And due to quality control, some lubricants are special and it's only one plant that*

produces them in the whole world like I earlier said it's in Paris". This suggests that the effort to standardise global brands to suit market needs. Furthermore, rather than focusing on brand standardisation across all the product line, the data further indicates a focus on market needs of a specific country. This focus on market needs was echoed by a marketing manager who said; *"...so they design the product and based on the countries particular needs"*. This then suggests the focus on individual markets in designing brands of some product categories which might be of lower price than the standardised ones.

5.2 The Difference in Motor Oil Branding Between Nigeria and the UK

The difference in the levels of development, coupled with varying structure of the markets in the two countries, indicated that branding practices cannot be the same. These factors influence how manufacturers want their brands to be seen in the market which may differ from one market to another. In highlighting the branding strategies of motor oil products, this section addresses the third research objective of this study: *"To identify the difference in motor oil branding between Nigeria and the UK"*. The different branding strategies identified in this study are important in understanding the factors that influence brand performance.

5.2.1 The Branding Differences

Building partnerships through adaptations is highly dependent on the presence of OEMs in a market. The data suggests adaptation partnership between motor oil brands and engine manufacturers to produce oil that meets engine specifications. A website of one motor oil brand stated; *"The collaboration means that Shell will produce and supply BMW's branded engine oils. These products will meet the latest BMW engine specifications"*. Similar results were uncovered in the OEM where a respondent informed that, *"...Vauxhall oil is purchased from Morris"*. This collaborative strategy, practised in the UK, contributes to the global supply of oil to ensure brand dominance. However, this synergy of adaptation between businesses is not practised in Nigeria.

This partnership is further enhanced through placing brand logos on component engine parts recommending the use of a particular motor oil brand. A respondent in the UK retail emphatically stated: *"...some oil is for specialised vehicle;, therefore, motor oil keeps changing and improving to suit the engine specification"*. Similar results were uncovered in the Nigerian study with respondents continuously pointing to oil specifications as a respond to oil choice. A manager at a Nigerian filling station pointed this out by saying: *"...Peugeot*

car owners come to the station to buy the motor oil due to the recommendation by the car manufacturer to use Total oil in their engine". Another respondent said: "Most of the modern vehicles come with a tag on the engine or under the bonnet stating use Mobil oil". This strategy ensures brand dominance and supply throughout the supply chain. As emphasised by a manager in a dealership who said; "...the recommendation from engine manufacturers is enough promotion for the oil". Although decisions to go into this strategy may have been done in other countries (i.e. country of origin) the strategy indicates this is practised in both countries.

These strategic brand alliances are further enhanced through follow up by account managers to enhance brand relationship across the supply chain. Relationship marketing between companies is an important factor of differentiation of motor oil brands. A respondent in the retail echoed this; "...the brands are maintained by account managers of the different brands". This suggests the importance of KAM brand performance across the supply chain. This is practice was, however, found in the UK while it was not done in Nigeria. Perhaps due to less presence of OEMs in Nigeria, brands seem to focus on business to government. A brand manager echoed this: "...to sell for example to Nigerian railways, ok, they are not manufacturers, but they are an industrial because they will buy in bulk". Furthermore, the data indicated more use of co-branding in the UK than in Nigeria. Perhaps due to more OEM presence, the UK brands are more involved in this partnership. A brand manager in a dealership reinforced the importance of this strategy: "...they are more particular about Comma brands as they have an alliance with them". Similarly, advert copies constantly emphasised these strategic alliances with automotive brands recommending motor oil. Data from advert copies exemplify this; "Jaguar, MICHELIN, Goodwood festival of speed... So close you can almost touch them" and "It's written on the can 'for AUDI, BMW, Mercedes-Benz, Porsche, SKODA & Seat cars'". In contrast, Nigerian brands seem to be more focused on consumer awareness than building relationships with business. The data suggests local agents that represent the company decide the different business focus. Response from a brand manager emphasised this: "...the distributors recommend the oil we use in the cars, especially the Toyota dealers".

Table 5.5: Branding differences between Nigeria and the UK

UK economy	Nigerian economy
Focus on relationship marketing	Less focus on relationship marketing
Adaptations	No adaptations
Ingredient branding	Ingredient branding
Co-branding	Lack of co-branding
Brand endorsement	Low use of brand endorsement
Association through sponsorship of sporting event	No sponsorship
Less reliance on word of mouth promotion	More reliance on word of mouth promotion
Exhibitions and trade show	Roadshows
Reliance on different promotion strategies	Reliance on mechanic recommendation
Supply chain partnership	No supply chain partnership with more reliance on own store
Point of sale promotion	No point of sale promotion
Support services	No support services
Generic brands compete with manufacturer brands	Manufacturer brands only
Authentic brands	Counterfeit brands
Electronic resources transaction in ordering and reordering	Manual transaction
Distribution trust	Fraud in distribution
No counterfeit measures	Measures to control counterfeit

Endorsement: the data indicates that brand endorsement by leading automotive manufacturers and sports personalities are constantly practised in the UK. The data from advert copies indicate this strong branding strategy; *“Recommended by leading car manufacturers”*, *“LAMBORGHINI chooses Castrol EDGE. Our strongest oil”* and *“BMW chooses Castrol EDGE. Our strongest oil”*. These brands and personalities command a high degree of awareness, trust or recognition help to influence buyer preference. However, Nigerian brands are yet to recognise the importance of this strategy in their brand promotion. The data further indicates building brand association through sponsorship of sporting events. The sporting

event has been a keen area of through which motor oil brands seek to generate awareness. The data from the archival studies suggest speed racing of different sorts, as the brands and the markets evolved the data suggests sponsorship of different sporting event was used. *“Wilton classic supercar - Castrol sponsored the event”, “logo on the racing car and VW motorsports recommend Castrol EDGE”*. The attributes of these events help to build an association with the consumers by calling to mind the attributes of motor oil brands. Sponsorship through sporting events is a strategy practice in the UK, but is not done in Nigeria.

Brand promotion through word of mouth helps to influence brand awareness with less financial commitment. The data from Nigeria indicates word of mouth is used in filling stations where motorists are encouraged to buy motor oil by offering professional advice. This was echoed by a respondent at a filling station: *“We do promote the brands by going out into the filling station for customers that come to buy oil will make purchases”*. He further added: *“Our goal is to encourage motorists that come to the station to buy oil”*. Using word of mouth can be a useful tool for brand promotion, especially when motorists are at the station to buy fuel. Similarly, the data suggests that brand promotion through word of mouth by manufacturers pushing the brands to mechanics by visiting them in their workshop to encourage them to use or switch to their brands. This was explained by a response from a mechanic who said: *“Amasco and Lubcon used to promote their brands to us where they will bring the oil and we pay for them”*. This promotion strategy from person to person through positive message seems more prevalent in Nigeria, whereas brands in the UK rely less on word of mouth for promotion.

The data suggests reliance on different promotion strategies in the UK market with the use of press adverts (i.e. TV, radio and magazines), modern media (i.e. Internet), posters, sporting events and artefacts to promote their brands. This different means of generating brand awareness is not found in Nigeria. The data suggests that the most prevailing means of promotion is through TV, radio and calendars. Brand promotion appears to be more inclined towards recommendation from mechanics. Where motorists do not know the right or brand to use, they rely on mechanics recommend. This point was stressed by a response from a retailer, who said: *“Some modern engines come with specific oil to use in their car. But most car owners don’t know the actual oil recommended by the manufacturer to use in the engine, but the mechanics know”*. To further support this point, a mechanic added; *“Mechanics will*

tell you if the oil is good or not". Perhaps the lack of DIY culture in Nigeria allows mechanics to play a key role in the choice of oil motorist's use in their cars. Counter-intuitively, due to the importance of mechanics against the promotion of motor oil brands, there does not seem to be any attempt to promote the brands to mechanics.

The data shows a different means generating brand awareness among the business customers through exhibitions and trade shows. Consistently, respondents across the supply chain said that they use trade shows as a means of engaging with customers. A manager at one dealership stated: "*...sometimes our brand representatives meet their technical consultants in trade shows*". Similar data was uncovered in advert copies where the data indicates; "*event where experts educate the crowd on the importance of using right lubricant*". This suggests exhibitions and trade shows, although only found in the UK market are used as a promotion tool to generate awareness among the business buyers. This is consistent with Bendixen et al. (2004), who, although limited to buyers, posited that trade shows and exhibitions are an important source of information to generate brand awareness in the industrial market.

In contrast, the data from Nigeria indicated a different strategy to generate awareness. Rather than focusing on the business buyers' brands conduct road shows connecting directly with the end user. A filling station manager of a leading brand stated: "*Sometimes road shows are organised and promos with an offer of buy 2 get 1 free*". Perhaps with a lack of OEM presence, the best strategy was to engage directly with the end user. The data also showed that such brand awareness strategies are mostly done by the lower brands. This was emphasised by a mechanic, who stated: "*Some companies come to us, but their enquiry is too much. They give us calendar through their distributors, e.g. Amasco oil. But only Nigerian companies do that*". This suggests that the global brands do not engage in such promotion strategies. Perhaps the other high-tech promotion strategies used by global brands makes them more comfortable in the market without using these aggressive promotions.

Consequently, the data from the UK suggests a deliberate effort to connect with channel member across the supply chain with brand representatives relating to businesses. This ensures brand performance while improving loyalty with key partners. However, this partnership with other businesses was not found in the Nigerian market. The unstructured nature of Nigerian market, coupled with its fraudulent nature, leads the brands to be more reliant on their own store. Further, data from the UK study suggests the use of POS displays to generate awareness and generate impulse purchase. The data from retail serves as an

exemplary; “Close to the entrance is the point of sale displaying Castrol 1 litre brands of EDGE, Magnatec and GTX”. Having these POS displays makes the stores more attractive while improving the brand image. Counter-intuitively, the use of POS displays was not found in Nigeria. Similarly, the sophistication of the UK retail leading to the development of store brands, the results suggested generic brands compete with manufacturer brands on the shelves. This interesting phenomenon was, however, not found in the Nigerian market. Table 5.5 shows the branding differences between Nigeria and the UK.

The lack of constant and stable electricity in Nigeria made the adoption of electronic resources difficult. The data across the supply chain suggests a lack of use of these electronic resources in the Nigerian market. However, results from the UK indicate a contrasting practice of utilising electronic resources to conduct daily transactions in areas such as connecting with the end customer through modern technology, ordering and reordering. The data in motor factor stores point to this: “There is a cash machine on the counter where payment is made. Similarly, recording data with the use of the computer by retailers improves and speeds transaction”. This innovative way of business transactions seems to help to build purchase confidence and customer loyalty.

The Nigerian market was characterised by a huge problem of counterfeit goods with the lack of government support to prevent and enforce fraud within the supply chain. On the other hand, brand authenticity was not an issue in the UK market, perhaps due to strict control measures by the government and the companies. Additionally, the rise in counterfeiting in the Nigerian market with insufficient government support to stop it necessitated the brand manufacturers to devise measures to ensure brand authenticity. Hence, brand vigilance by customers seems to be urged, especially at the point of purchase. Similarly, with the lack of visibility of pricing and brand information at the point of purchase, customers were left with the assumption of packaging as the proxy of quality. In contrast, POS in the UK market offers customers brand information to assist with purchase decisions.

Likewise, the Nigerian market suffers from a lack of motor factors that operate on behalf of manufacturers and their agents to coordinate and distribute the vehicle replacement parts from the component producer to installers with an apparent lack of delivery system. By contrast, the UK market is characterised by motor factors whose operation is heavily aided by information technology to support ordering and goods delivery. The researcher found contrasting customer target differences with regards to DIY in the two countries. With an

apparent lack of DIY in the Nigerian socio-culture, motorists consistently rely on mechanics for brand recommendation. This then suggests a dominance in the ‘do-it-for-me’ (DFM) sector, where motorists hire tradesmen to change their oil. However, the results suggest a rise in brand vigilance by paying attention to the quality of components. Again, this indicates the beginning of the DIY by motorists buying components in filling stations against reliance on mechanic choice. In contrast, the results indicate a dominance of DIY culture in the UK market with a gradual emergence of the DFM culture within the lower segments of the market.

The above section discusses the branding differences in the two countries, Nigeria and the UK. The results, although counterintuitive, show the use of contrasting branding practices in the two markets. With multiple brands in both markets and each occupying different position the next section discusses the classification of these different motor oil brands for a clearer understanding of their position in the market.

5.2.2 Classification of Motor Oil Brands

Despite the lack of available market reports, the table groups the brands into global, challenger, budget, generic and imported brands. The classification emerged due to price, market coverage, global presence and promotion activities (media and store promotions) as identified in the UK and Nigeria automotive aftermarket. Tables 5.6 and 5.7 shows the different classification of brands identified in the course of conducting the study.

Table 5.6: Summary of classification of UK motor oil brands

Global brands	Challenger brands	Budget brands	Generic brands
Castrol	Revolution oil	Granville	**Vauxhall oil
Mobil	Quantum oil	Falcon oil	*GM motor oil
Total	Comma oil	Triple QX	Bennett
Shell	Fuchs	Vetech oil	Plannet
	Carlube	Deffender	Halfords
	Valvoline	Autotech	Toyota
	Morris Lubricants	Genuine	Unipart
	Petronas		Wilko
			Motrio
			Applegreen

*Manufactured by Castrol

**Manufactured by Morris lubricants

Table 5.7: Summary of classification of Nigerian motor oil brands

Global brands	Challenger brands	Budget brands	Generic brands
Total	Conoil	Amasco	Toyota
Mobil	Oando	A-Z	Lexus
Castrol	Eterna oil	Lubcon	Nissan gold
	Forte oil	Whiz	Phoeniz
	MRS oil	Abro	Ecomax
	Millers oils	Expresso	Adrenalin
		EXEL	Sea Horse
		Golf oil	Honey bee
		Iran Alpha	
		Golden super	
		Silverwell	

The data uncovered different branding methods used by the global brands to build a brand image around innovation, performance, efficiency and reliability. The message strategy aims to create customer perception of superior value by integrating the features of the brand that will interest the motorists. Similarly, the global brands are characterised by higher price, quality and improved packaging. They also engage in innovative promotions like television and magazine adverts, sponsorship of sporting events and celebrity endorsement by expressing the brand's functional attributes to memorably reinforce their market position.

Furthermore, global brands engage in other branding strategies like co-branding through association with other major brands in the auto sports industry and alliances with OEMs. Similarly, the literature suggests brands employ tangible elements like advertising slogans, symbols (Aaker, 1992), name, logo, brand mark (Grossman, 1994); Kapferer, 1997), functional capabilities (de Chernatony, 1993) and intangible elements, like corporate branding, brand identity, integrated communication, positioning, service and customer relationships to draw brand awareness and customer attention which is consistent with this research findings. Results in both countries suggest that the price of global brands is higher than other brands. The findings further suggest that due to lower price and relative quality reassurance the challenger brands appear as substitutes to global brands in the car dealers.

This was emphasised by a manager at a dealership: *“They use the brand as a substitute to the recommended brand; it has relative quality and lower price”*.

Similarly, the data indicates that the quality of the packaging is used to reinforce functional requirements of easy to carry, enabling easy oil discharge among all the categories. However, the results propose that packaging of generic brands is of lower quality, yet, to induce sale and recognition, the packaging is created with brighter colours. The data from a UK retailer echoed this: *“Packaging is in attractive 5 & 1-litre plastic cans. Halfords brands are packaged in different bright colours.* The results also suggest challengers and budget brands also engage in sporadic adverts and sponsorship of speed racing events, although sponsorship is found within brands in the UK. This is also found among challenger and budget brands in Nigeria with the focus mainly on mainstream media to generate brand awareness. The findings further suggest UK brands have strong retailer links where agreements are reached to stock the brands. This indicates brand control from the point of manufacture to the point of purchase. This was not found in Nigeria where there appears to be a lack of buyer-supplier agreement and brand control appears to be at own stores.

Additionally, the results indicate generic brands offer a lower price than manufacturer brands. Moreover, to communicate their quality level, enhance brand image, as well as brand personalities, retailers seem to engage in promotional activities within the store to draw customer attention and generate sales. This was found in the UK, but not in Nigeria. Similarly, the UK study indicated retailers support the store image by designing the generic brands to represent the store name. Likewise, generic brands are stocked and positioned to stress its lower price premium while competing for quality with other brands on display.

5.2.3 Typology of Motor Oil Brands

The multiple numbers of brands in the market offer different uses and value to users. The proposed matrix in Table 5.8 shows different aspects of motor oil brands within the aftermarket in the two economies. The brands are classified into four typologies to allow grouping and clarity of the characteristics of each category. The results suggest retailing as the most connecting factor linking the categories in the supply chain typology.

Table 5.8: Typology of motor oil brands in Nigeria and the UK

Global brands Typologies	Challenger brands Typologies	Budget brands Typologies	Generic brands Typologies
Retailing (DIY stores, motor factors, filling stations), dealers	Retailing (DIY stores, motor factors, filling stations), independent garages	Retailing (motor factors), independent garages	Retailing (DIY stores, motor factors)
Direct channel and multi-channel distribution	Direct channel distribution	Direct channel distribution	Direct channel distribution
High price	Moderate price	Low price	Moderate price
Packaging quality	Moderate packaging quality	Low packaging	Moderate packaging quality
Retail promotion, mass media promotion, loyalty rewards	Retail promotion		Retail promotion
Quality claims, functional benefits	Quality claim		Reliability
Co- branding, ingredient branding, strategic alliances, sponsorship	Retail alliances		Store brand presence
Differentiation, brand innovation, sub-brands	Brand innovation		Brand innovation, sub-brands
Trade agreement, dyadic adaptation, KAM	Trade agreement		

The typology suggests that the brands target a dual market, the business and consumer market. Global brands lay more emphasis on alliances with original equipment manufacturers, motor factors and DIY stores. Similarly, challenger brands are more drawn to trade agreements with store owners, while the budget brands seem to target the independent garages. The result further suggests that global brands use several mediums to promote their brands and generate pull; this may suggest the price premium, market positioning and target within the market. The findings also indicate low packaging quality and lack of mass media promotion of generic brands resulting in low price, compared to global or challenger brands. Moreover, the results indicate generic brands bear the store name. The findings reveal that all categories of the typology are relevant, although some may seem more important to some brands than others. This implies that in the event a brand manufacturer fails in one of the branding functions, they can switch to a more suitable strategy. The study further indicates

each typology have promotion strategy, market objectives and mode of differentiation to survive in the ever complex and competitive environment.

Furthermore, brands in all categories seem to function as a B2B brand adopting several functions to target the business market. However, consumer branding aspects are employed across the supply chain to generate awareness. The findings further indicate global brands are more inclined to the B2B and the DIY market, while the generic brands are basically retail and DIY focus and the lower brands are focused on the retail and independent garages that deal with price-conscious motorists. Consistent with Glynn (2010), the findings suggest lower brands are niche brands, which, due to derived demand, generate higher customer loyalty from the price conscious customers.

Finally, at the global branding level, the literature suggests the influence of a brand's country of origin was found to relate to brands within the business and consumer markets. Brands crossing into local markets are viewed differently in the markets they operate. The findings of this study suggest global brands in Nigeria are perceived to be of higher quality, more reliable against the brand's country of origin. This is consistent with D'astous and Ahmed (1993), Agbonifoh and Elimimian (1999), Agrawal and Kamakura (1999), Batra et al. (2000) and Strizhakova et al. (2011), who also found no localness of brands contributes to enhancement of social status. Similarly, the research findings indicate brands imported from other developing economies are seen to be of less quality than global brands, yet are viewed to be superior to the local brands. Furthermore, the result supports that of Laforet and Chen (2012), where they found that local brands are preferred by the lower income and price-conscious customers in Nigeria. This suggests niche marketing by brand managers of local brands by focusing on these specific customers.

The long presence of global brands in Nigeria and the constant awareness strategies through different promotion channels, coupled with visibility in the aftermarket makes the brand be regarded as a local brand. Similarly, country links between two brands may be an influence on brand performance. Surprisingly, the findings indicate that quality is not a factor affecting the purchase of local brands, but the price has a considerable impact on the UK and Nigerian consumer purchase choice.

5.2.4 Grid of Places in the Aftermarket

This section demonstrates the role of the places visited in the automotive aftermarket. Discussions will focus on the importance of the places to influence branding and purchase behaviour of motor oil brands in both countries, the UK and Nigeria. Having identified the various branding aspects in the previous sections of this chapter, it is safe to state that the automotive aftermarket serves as an important avenue for brand interaction in the buyer and supplier process. Table 5.8 shows a grid of places visited during the course of the study and their importance to branding in the UK and Nigeria aftermarket. The table classifies the places so as to show their importance and unimportance to the branding process of motor oil.

As the findings reveal, the retail plays an important role in influencing the brand image. The results indicate several branding attributes used by retailers to influence motor oil purchase. Retail offers the direct link between the brand and the customer. Hence, an effective brand image strategy is aimed at the companies to differentiate and encourage purchase. Retailers in the motor factors, as well as DIY and department stores enter into an agreement with brand manufacturers in order to stock their brands which are then maintained by account managers who oversee the relationship across the supply chain. Hence, relationship marketing is important in ensuring brand success between the two businesses. Similarly, the results indicate agreement between motor factors and other businesses to deliver brands.

Table 5.9: Grid of places

Places	Factors	Attribute	
		Very important	Unimportant
Motor factors	Packaging	Packaging is very important	They do not seem to place importance on packaging due to the high cost of production. The use of packaging is done so as to sell the brands on display just to differentiate
	Promotion	Promotion is not important because the brands are produced to maximise profit. Major brands put more importance to promoting their brands	Brands in this category are lowly promoted. Brands are maintained by the relationship between the two organisations
	Distribution	Distribution is very important. Goods are supplied directly from the manufacturer to the store or in the case of major brands; wholesalers are used to serving as middlemen	
	Shelf space	Shelf space is very competitive between generic brands which take up more shelf space with major brands which have a low	

		presence.	
	Pricing	Low prices on lower brands and generic brands while major brands have a higher price	The high price will not attract the market. Therefore, the stores keep the price at a minimal level
	POS	POS is very important so as to communicate the brand attributes and messages to consumers	
DIY stores, department stores	Packaging	Stores are particular about packaging. Major brands displayed are always packaged well; generic brands compete on the use of good, quality packaging	
	Promotion	Brand promotion is very important. Posters are displayed promoting brand attributes	
	Distribution	Rely on efficient distribution network for the success of the brand performance. They stock specific brands that will not fail	
	Shelf space	Shelf space is very important, reserving considerable space for brands	
	Pricing	Due to a mixture of established and generic brands, pricing varies. It is important the prices of generic brands are lower	
	POS	POS is important	
Car dealers	Packaging		Packaging is less important, brands are not displayed, and they rely on relationships and brand functional attributes
	Promotion		Do not consider promotion to be important
	Distribution	Distribution is highly regarded so as to ensure availability	
	Relationship	Important between the supplier and buyer. Engine requirements lead to the technical arrangement in oil specification	
	Pricing		Pricing is given less importance. Motorists pull by warranty
Independent garage/ service centre	Packaging		Packaging is less important due to bulk purchase in metal drums
	Promotion		Garages give little importance to promotion
	Distribution	Garages regard distribution to be of high importance. Availability of brands either from the manufacturer, distributor or stores is vital for business success	
	Shelf space		Garages are not particular about shelf space since the oil is stored in big

			drums
	Relationship	Important between motor factors, BIY and lower brands	Major brands are less considered in the UK
	Pricing		They do not regard pricing to be important as most brands used are the lower brands

Likewise, the results indicate retailers place a higher emphasis on tangible attributes like packaging, banners, posters and catalogues to draw attention to brand offers while improving the consumer experience and increase market share. Furthermore, consistent with Pantano and Viassone (2014), technological advances by using telemarketing enhance shopping activity and retail image. POS appeals are important in retail with brand owners designing and maintaining them in order to support customers shopping experience. Observations in stores suggest promotions are aimed at DIY and retail customers. Furthermore, the results suggest generic brands are competing in shelf space and customer attention with established brands. Placing generic brands at a higher level of the shelf shows their importance to the retailer. These were aspects identified only in the UK, where there seems to be more effort towards branding than in Nigerian retail (see Appendix 40). Additionally, the front view and entrance of stores in the UK are designed with clear glass, allowing the visual image of brands on display to be seen easily, whereas Nigerian stores are unplanned and there seems to be a lack of effort to improve store image (see Appendix 41).

In the same vein, results in garages reveal less focus on packaging, perhaps due to high motor oil usage enabling supply in large quantity. The findings reveal the use of a single colour with the brand name in the drums. This practice is identified in both countries. The lack of promotional material in garages was equally observed, with no evidence of posters or pictures of the brands at any location. This may perhaps be as a result of adverts in different mediums to pull customers and the adoption of a strategic alliance through ingredient branding to offer direct customer pull. This assumption was echoed in garages of both countries where the respondents expressed assurance of market through such strategies. In addition, relationship building plays a key role in brand performance with mechanics making purchase decision due to reliance on expert opinion. Similarly, the Nigerian garages consider all brands depending on brand recommendation (ingredient branding) or mechanic recommendation. Moreover, with the use of established brands at a car dealership, brand pricing is higher than independent garages where there seems to be more focus on low price. The buyer-supplier relationship is further established with motor factors where oil is supplied on demand. This

business agreement, which appears to be on derived demand, allows the smooth supply of brands from the retailer to the garages has been identified in the UK market. However, with no presence of motor factors and a lack of a robust supply chain, it was not practised in Nigeria.

In this section, counterintuitive results were uncovered pointing to what the researcher initially thought a simple process to reveal a systematic and coordinated branding process of a low involvement brand that is not interesting. Findings from different sections of the aftermarket uncovered that branding in the business market can be quite tricky, considering the nature of the brand and the market it operates, plus the decision to consider taking the manufacturers perspective or aspects across the supply chain. Still, others like Bendixen et al. (2004), viewed branding to be impractical due to the different brand ranges available. Thus, from a manufacturer's perspective, they would want to create trust and ensure brand awareness reaches as many customers as possible. In contrast, retailers and dealers across the supply chain maximise profit and sales, while at the same time promote their own brands.

5.2.5 Glossary of Terms

As brands develop in different economies, their meanings and the use of nomenclature differ to suit the environment it operates. Interestingly, despite the glaring branding differences between the two economies, the data also uncovers the use of different terms to represent meanings related to motor oil in the supply chain. Across the markets, the data suggests the use of the term motor oil in the UK, whereas in Nigeria the term engine oil is more commonly used. The evolution of packaging from metal to plastic saw the global adoption of this packaging design. Where the UK market often uses the term plastic to describe the packaging design, the data from Nigeria indicates more use of the term rubber. Similarly, when referring to the different packaging of motor oil in 4 or 5 litres, the term "can" is often used in the UK. However, the data indicates a more different use of the packaging terms in Nigeria with respondents using "kegs" or "gallons" interchangeably to describe the packaging. Likewise, the UK market uses the term "25 litres" to describe the bigger packaging, whereas "Jerry cans" is commonly used in the market.

Table 5.10: Glossary of terms used in the two countries

Terms used in the UK	Terms used in Nigeria
Motor oil	Engine oil
Plastic	Rubber
Can	Kegs, gallons
25 litres	Jerry cans
Store	Shop
Independent garages	Service centres
International brands	Imported brands
	Major marketers
	Independent marketers
Service station	Filling station

Terms used to refer to retailers also differ in the two economies. The data suggests the use of “stores” to refer to retailers, whereas the term “shop” was more commonly used in Nigeria. Brands found in different markets are commonly referred to as global brands while those in Nigeria are denoted as imported brands. Interestingly, though this trend was not found in the UK, the data from this study suggests brands quoted in the Nigerian capital market are referred to as major marketers, whereas those brands not quoted but are manufactured in Nigeria are referred to as independent marketers. These different classifications found in Nigeria further indicate the power of brands and their identity in the market. Similarly, a rather surprising phenomenon was uncovered in the garages. The data across garages in the UK indicates the use of modern equipment. However, with a more focus on mechanics, a larger number of garages in Nigeria use a manual technique to fix cars. This trend is gradually changing with mechanics gradually using modern equipment. The term “service centre” is used to distinguish these garages from the traditional ones. Also, among the two markets, there is the use of a different term to refer to businesses that operate along a road, selling petrol and other petroleum related products, with the UK market using the term “service station”, whereas the Nigerian market uses “filling station”.

5.3 Towards a Conceptual Framework to Model Branding of Motor Oil

In this section, the analysis and findings address the fourth research objective of this study:

“To develop a conceptual framework to explain and model branding of motor oil”.

The model developed for this study emerged from the perspective of the manufacturer and segments of the aftermarket, like retail (retail stores, DIY stores, motor factors, independent filling stations) and garages (car dealers and mechanics). Hence, the model presented in Figure 5.6 was developed by integrating the branding attributes identified in the different array of data from the pilot study and the study on the automotive aftermarket between two contrasting economies, the UK and Nigeria. Thus, the model describes the interplay between the various components of the supply chain and several other brand awareness techniques identified in both countries.

The model developed for this study presents findings from different strategies used to draw customer attention bearing in mind the assumption that branding offers emotional, functional, and self-expressive benefits to users by placing these attributes into a coordinated effort of using key players associated with the brands across the supply chain. Efforts by manufacturers to differentiate brands lie on the combination of attributes associated with the brands and the packaging. Hence, a brand with unique functional benefits and a distinct packaging seems to have a distinct brand identity. Motor oil brands are distinguished according to their distinct packaging, which reflects the brand price. Moreover, the technical nature of brands leading to engine protection may influence differentiation. It goes to suggest that strong brands in the market serve as important differentiation points for companies, assisting customer brand choice and evaluation.

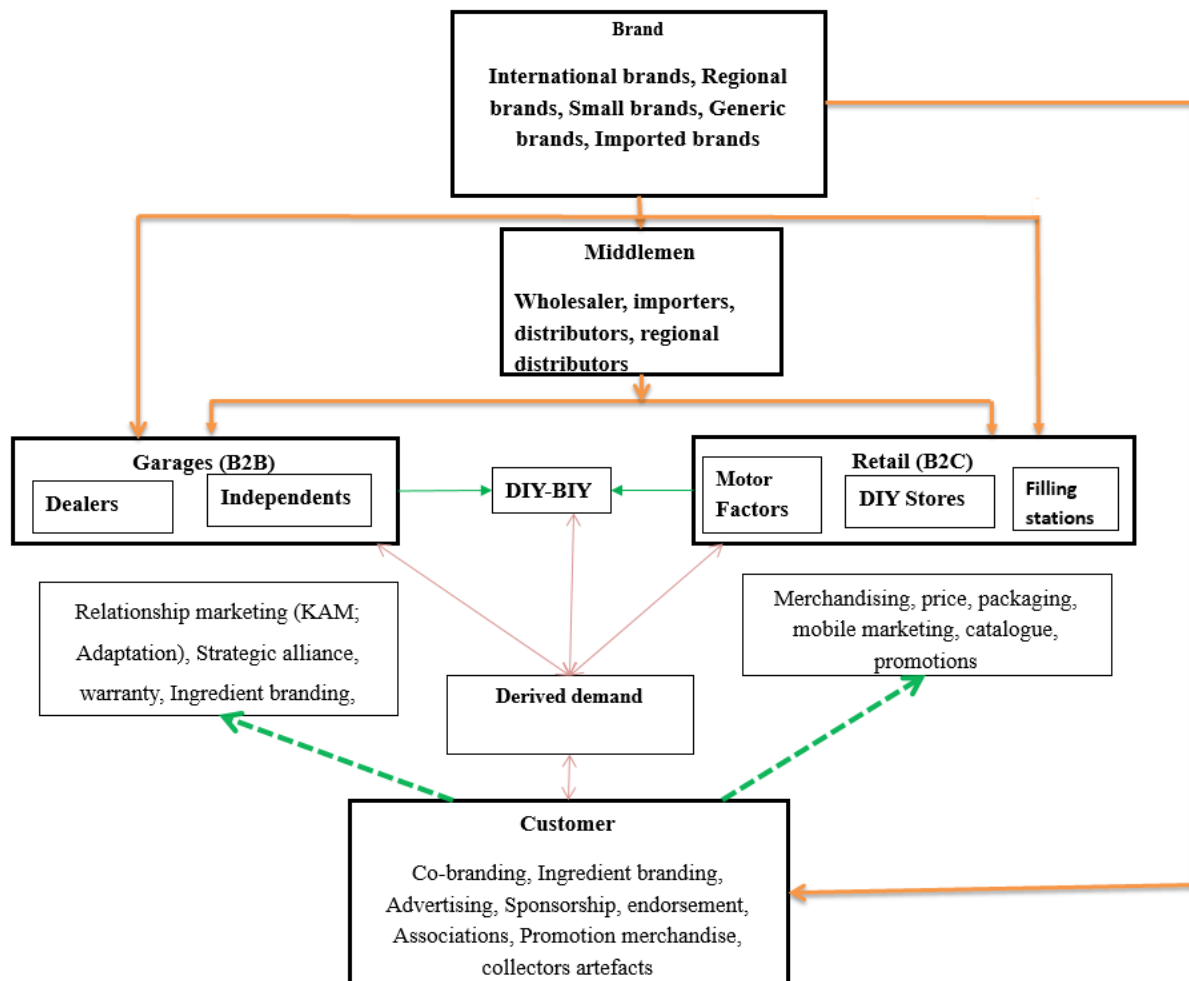


Figure 5.6: The push and pull model of motor oil branding

B2B (Business to business), B2C (Business to consumer), DIY (do it yourself), BIY (buy it yourself), KAM (key account management), - - - - - push, - - - - - pull, - - - - - Push and pull.

The emerged model shows brand push from the manufacturer (brand) to the garages (B2B) and retail (B2C) through the use of different branding strategies. Furthermore, rather than distribute the brands directly to the various markets, the model shows brand push through the middlemen. These middlemen, often acting as agents, push the brands to the different markets. The model shows the business market (B2B) is identified with relationship building between suppliers and buyers in the supply chain. Brand manufacturers ensure long-term relationships with buyers through establishing and maintaining relationships. The model also demonstrates the importance of brand alliance through ingredient branding, the strategy used to endorse brands, enter new markets, generate new revenue, share risk and break competitor entry barrier. Consequently, relationship plays a key role in managing accounts of businesses. Accordingly, where companies in the UK target dealership to build a strong relationship,

companies in Nigeria target mechanics in garages bearing in mind that final brand decision is made by them. Further, relationship building is further maintained in the business market where several means of brand connection with the customer is identified. This is confirmed by the study of Bendixen et al. (2004), who posited that B2B brands specifically target technical specialist due to their tendency to influence and make a final brand choice decision.

In retail (B2C), sales promotion designed to generate an instant market response comprising a variety of interim and tactical promotion tools influence demand for a displayed brand. They include buy-one-get-one-free, tickets to sporting events and merchandise items. These promos expose the brands to customers and encourage purchase. In-store promotional activities by manufacturers benefit the retailer from sales increase and create trade deals to retain margin for the manufacturer brand. Similarly, brand display creates demand by using appealing features like brands shelf location within the store and in a display, the display of brand facing area and other tangible elements of the brands including colour, size and the packaging. Furthermore, the POS display creates demand through different colourful attractive features attached to the brand. In other words, brand demand is influenced by various display orientations made available by retailers that will be pleasing to the customer. Thus, retail promotion benefits both the manufacturer and retailer to meet their target objectives to influence awareness, brand switch and demand leading to higher sales. Retailers install electronic data machines to provide daily information on brand sales which results in a power shift from the manufacturer to retailers. This information is vital to manufacturers in brand planning which modern retailing is ready to provide. This gives retailers tremendous power over manufacturers in the supply chain.

In contrast to existing B2B branding models, this study captured retailers' attempts to attract the DIY customer through several direct promotions and brand design in the UK market. This allows targeting a particular market with enthusiasm for that particular social activity. The model shows the evolution of DIY allowed motorists to change their own oil, which leads to less reliance on garages. By identifying the potential of such markets, manufacturers design and promote brands to the DIY customer through retailers. In contrast, a growing trend is identified in the Nigerian market, which the researcher termed "buy-it-yourself (BIY)". This suggests how car owners in Nigeria service their own cars (Jallo and Croft, 2015). Customers buy motor oil of their choice in retail then take them to mechanics. It is worth adding that this

BIY trend, as well as several other emerging themes in this chapter, merit further research as they are outside the scope of this present study.

The model further shows consumer pull from the B2B, B2C and directly from the manufacturer by directly targeting the customer through the use of other consumer branding strategies. Brand attributes are constantly expressed in adverts through the use of the traditional and modern media. The motor oil brands are connected with other well-known brands and famous sporting personalities through co-branding. Sponsorship of sporting events to directly pull customers helps to build associations while promoting the brand image. Brand association is further developed through the offer of promotion merchandise and collectors artefacts to customers which influences brand loyalty.

Accordingly, by operating in the business and consumer markets, the model indicates the evolution of motor oil from an industrial brand to a hybrid brand. It proposes that the demand generated through those B2C aspects to generate awareness and encourage car owners to make purchase preference. The strong brands connect with end users through value and convenience offering by adopting mobile technology and online channels. This strategy of using modern means to identify oil grade helps to build trust between the end user and the brand while boosting purchase confidence. The derived demand nature of motor oil to cars helps to generate higher customer loyalty across the two markets. Through the B2B aspects, the brands use relationships with other businesses to generate sales and ensure market leadership. By going into alliance with established brands in different areas, motor oil brands ensure association to improve perceive value. The push and pull model of motor oil brands presented in Figure 5.2 highlight the different areas used by the motor oil brands to reach the diverse market channels.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the branding strategies of an industrial brand (i.e. motor oil) in two contrasting economies: Nigeria and the UK. First of all, the findings from the longitudinal case study of Castrol were discussed. This study uncovered that motor oil brands, in matured markets at least, use different branding techniques to promote their brands in the market. Secondly, the findings from the retail and industrial outlets, including an array of sources, were discussed. The results reveal that extensive branding is done across the supply chain to draw awareness and differentiation in the different segments of the market. It can be

concluded that from the retail and promotion perspective, motor oil appears to be a B2C brand, but the larger reality and in volume terms, motor oil is B2B brand, using those promotional aspects to generate demand in the downstream market of the two economies. The next chapter concludes the study.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The study rationale rested on the assumption that business brands neither take into cognisance nor place importance to the branding of their products. Hence, B2B brands are regarded as commodities with no attempt at differentiation. Various studies of business brands conducted in the past, most notably those of Leek and Christodoulides (2011) and Seyedghorban et al. (2016), which suggested an increased attempt to fill the literature gap on this topic. Despite the initial assumption that motor oil products are industrial brands, counterintuitively motor oil appears to be a hybrid brand functioning within the business and consumer market. Essentially, this chapter concludes the research journey. Therefore, this chapter has been organised as follows:

- Revisiting the research objectives (6.1)
- Summary of research findings (6.2)
- Evaluating the study (6.3)
- Ethical consideration (6.4)
- Managerial/pragmatic implications (6.5)
- Study limitations (6.6)
- Lessons learnt during the Ph.D. journey (6.7)
- Conclusions (6.8)

6.1 Revisiting the Research Objectives

The results of this thesis emerged from data in the automotive aftermarket by corroborating different data sources. The intention of the study was to understand the nature of branding motor oil products from the manufacturers and their links with connecting areas in the supply chain, in order to influence brand preference and differentiation to the customer. To achieve this, an inductive approach was followed. This allowed exploring meanings and constructs to the phenomenon rather than verifying existing theories. The grounded theory strategy allowed the use of different instruments to assist in making sense of this study, such as participant observations, interviews and documents.

In an effort to venture into what seems to be an understudied phenomenon in the area of motor oil branding, the study took into cognisance the importance of adopting different tools

and techniques in the research design to offer in-depth understanding of the study. Therefore, the following research question was proposed: What is the branding strategy of low involvement products in developed and developing economies? Chapter Six reports how and to what scope the research objectives have been addressed. The chapter also highlights the main findings with their contributions to the theory. To achieve the study aim, the following five research objectives were identified:

RO1. To further the understanding of branding low involvement motor oil products

RO2. To identify the key parameters of motor oil branding

RO3. To identify the difference in motor oil branding between Nigeria and the UK

RO4. To develop a conceptual framework to explain and model branding of motor oil

RO5. To set the agenda for future research

The research objectives are further explained below.

RO1: To further the understanding of branding low involvement motor oil products

Given the dearth of study on industrial branding with almost nothing on branding motor oil products, this study offers further understanding of branding industrial products with a focus on motor oil. The RO1 is broad and overarches all the objectives the study hoped to achieve. The results addressing it are discussed in Section 6.2.1.

RO2: To identify the key parameters of motor oil branding

The data from the automotive supply chain identified key parameters of motor oil branding by highlighting the various areas that are important and may likely influence the branding of this product category. With so little known about motor oil branding and the exploratory nature of this study, identifying parameters for the brand offering and its image is relevant.

RO3: To identify differences in motor oil branding between Nigeria and the UK

The exploratory nature of this study, coupled with literature dearth on motor oil branding, offers a viable option to uncover and compare branding strategies of motor oil in two contrasting economies: Nigeria and the UK. The results that emerged from this study, from the manufacturer to key players of the supply chain, in Nigeria and the UK, allowed the researcher to identify different branding strategies used by motor oil brand manufacturers. In addition, by comparing and contrasting different branding strategies in Section 5.2.5, where

several results emerged, the study has efficiently addressed the research objective. The main finding addressing it will be presented in Section 6.2.3.

RO4: To develop a conceptual framework to explain and model branding of motor oil

As few empirical studies exist on branding industrial products in the area of motor oil brands, this study sought to understand the branding nature of this product category by developing a conceptual model of the motor oil branding phenomena. The qualitative nature of this study allowed gaining insight from different sources through the use of grounded theory methodology. Previous studies suggest the importance of branding in industrial markets, yet few models of business-to-business branding exist in order to explain empirical findings. These gaps were addressed by this study and discussed in Section 6.2.4.

RO5: To set the agenda for future research

The academic literature has offered comparatively limited attention to branding in the B2B markets. This is largely due to the myopic view that branding is unimportant to business markets and that industrial buyers are rational with the lack of emotional values to influence brand choice. With the apparent growing interest on branding in the industrial market, the literature indicates the lack of knowledge on low involvement motor oil products. This study attempted to further the understanding of motor oil branding, by gaining knowledge through the automotive supply chain. In doing so, several branding strategies were uncovered to help shed light on B2B branding to fill the apparent literature gap and propose an agenda to push industrial research forward. Consequently, rather than understand branding through the perspective of the buyer, the study focused on the automotive supply chain from the manufacturer to network of players connected to the end user.

6.2 Summary of Research Findings

The previous section focused on how the research objectives were addressed. The next section summarises the study findings and reports the contribution of each objective of this study to previous studies. Section 6.2.1 discussed findings related to understanding branding of low involvement motor oil products. Similarly, Section 6.2.2 discusses the interplay between different brands in the supply chain helps to address the second study objective. Section 6.2.3 discusses the studies in the two countries (Nigeria and the UK) and answers the third objective of the study. The results from both countries helped to develop a conceptual framework to model the branding of motor oil in Section 6.2.4. Finally, Section 6.2.5

discusses such little known on the branding of this product category, and, therefore, research objective five sets the agenda for future research.

6.2.1 The Branding of Low Involvement Motor Oil Products

As highlighted in Section 1.1.2, industrial products are goods purchased for further processing or for use in conducting other business (Blythe, 2012), whereas low involvement products require low purchase commitment with no significant effect on the lifestyle of the buyer. Therefore, knowing the level of involvement a brand has on consumer purchase decision making is important to brand development and acquisition. Previous studies on industrial branding suggest the use of different branding strategies like corporate branding, brand equity, relationship marketing and purchase behaviour to influence branding (Sheth, 1974; Mudambi, 1997; Brennan et al. 2002). However, there is a lack of study that focuses on hybrid branding in the B2B markets. The results of this study clearly addressed the research objective by offering different branding strategies used by low involvement motor oil brands. Several strategies to influence the brand awareness and add value to brands were identified in this study:

- ***Inter-firm relationships (i.e. ingredient branding, adaptation, dyadic adaptation and relationship marketing)***. Relationships between companies to influence branding of motor oil were identified. The partnership between different brands, such as Castrol and Mobil aim at developing long-term relationships helps to build brand image and dominate the end channel of the market. These relationships take the form of transactional which are short term, such as the use of account managers and long term that last several years.
- ***Purchase behaviour***. Purchase needs differ between companies. The data for this study indicates different purchase situations of motor oil. Some purchases are done by businesses while others are done by the consumer. This market behaviour leading to different purchase influences the branding strategy of motor oil brands to focus on both the B2B and B2C market.
- ***Support services***. Services that support the brand at various stages in the market help in differentiation and offer benefits to customers. Brand manufacturers offer support services to end users through online information on oil grade or the right oil to use in the engines. Manufacturers, distributors and retail combine to offer support services to customers to increase brand value. The data from the observation suggests not all

motor oil brands offer this support services. Those that do, however, are seen to have a higher value.

- **Distribution.** This includes characteristics such as ordering and reordering, availability and delivery. In this study, brand distribution was seen as key to the brand success of motor oil products. The literature cites efforts like the ease of ordering, brand reliability and quick response as aspects that add value to brands (Mudambi et al., 1997) The findings of this study confirm this to be same with motor oil products. In order to have successful brands, distribution performance is evaluated by the buyers prior to the brand choice decision.

Furthermore, the hybrid nature of motor oil allows employing consumer branding strategies in order to generate awareness and influence brand choice among the decision-making unit with factors like:

- **Co-branding.** Motor oil brands go into partnership with luxury cars to generate awareness and build association. This strategy associates the motor oil brands with leading automotive cars, sportsmen and women and sporting events. Co-branding is a form of passive advertising where the brands are not directly pushed to the consumer but improves brand image, loyalty and recognition. The co-branding strategy encompasses several different types of branding partnerships, like endorsement and sponsorships.
- **Endorsement.** This is a form of promotion that use celebrities or famous personalities with a high degree of recognition, awareness, trust or respect among the target audience. The data from an archival study of Castrol, the present advert copies and observations indicate manufacturers of motor oil promote their brands through endorsement by famous athletes, car racing drivers and car manufacturers. These brand ambassadors promote motor oil brands through their names or images with the hope that such endorsement will influence brand image, loyalty and buyer behaviour. An intriguing part of brand endorsement of this product category is the use of different sports personalities in the promotion. For example, data from the advert copies indicate the use of football, cricket and tennis personalities like Cristiano Ronaldo, Lizzie Armitstead and Sashin Tendulkar respectively. These sports personalities have no connection with the automotive or motor oil industry, but are used by Castrol to promote its brand in different sporting events. To explain this

paradox, the hybrid nature of motor oil helps the brand relevance to a different range of consumers from those in the DMU to the end user.

- ***Sponsorships.*** The data from advert copies, observation and speed racing indicates the importance brand owners place on building the association through sponsorship. As a low involvement product, this partnership serves to generate awareness and publicity to motor oil brands. For example, data from the archival study of Castrol, the present advert copies and speed racing indicate car speed racing and sportsmen bear the name of motor oil brands to develop recognition and influence purchase decision making. This strategy builds positive of the brand to the fans of the sports personality or event.
- ***Packaging.*** Motor oil brands use packaging to encourage purchase through several appealing communication and graphic designs. Packaging design is used to reflect brand identity and message to assist the customer in oil choice. Data from the observation indicates a systematic attempt to target the consumer by designs that suit the retail environment especially at the point of sale, the filling process (i.e. easy to pour cans) and how they are easily distributed in the supply chain. To influence customer purchase, motor oil is packaged to fit engine size while appealing to the end user through aspects like can design, opening and reclosing, brighter colours, labels, tamper evidence and counterfeit measures (i.e. authentication seals, security printing).
- ***Functional attributes.*** Functional attributes of a brand are important in conveying value to customers. Brand preference is emphasised through the functional attributes of the brand as a way of signifying the quality of the brand to the consumer. Adverts pointing to brand durability and strength are impliedly assuring the customer of the brand quality. Consistent with studies on B2B branding, motor oil brands use functional qualities to enhance the value of the brand and influence purchase in the business and consumer markets.
- ***Brand awareness.*** Creating brand awareness is important to B2B brands in order to drive value. The ability to generate recognition through the top of mind awareness and brand recall is key to branding strategy of motor oil. The data from the adverts, observation and interviews confirm the hybrid nature of motor oil influences the different awareness strategies into the B2B and B2C markets.
- ***Merchandising.*** The hybrid nature of motor oil influences manufacturer to target the end customer through retail. The data from observation indicates the use of different

techniques in the retail such as display techniques, on-the-spot demonstration, shelf talkers, special offers, pricing and other POS strategies. Different promotion techniques designed to influence customer choice is used in the merchandise display. These branding techniques which are aimed at the end customer show a different promotion approach to the business customer.

- **Brand personality.** Apart from the functional benefits of motor oil brands, they also exhibit characteristics to differentiate and influence purchase. The data from the observation and advert copy confirms that the use of POS materials, adverts and PR appeals to pull customers towards the brand and draw the air of excitement, ruggedness, sophistication and competence to add value to the brand.
- **Mobile marketing.** An innovative strategy of adding value to brands in the end market is the use of digital technology to assist customers in making oil choice. Mobile marketing allows familiarisation between brands and customers through communication interactions to evoke a favourable response. Mobile marketing improves the brand satisfaction of the customer experience which helps to improve the relationship. The data from the observation confirms that not all categories of motor oil brands use this strategy, global brands that can commit financially to innovation are more inclined to use mobile marketing. Those who use this strategy add value to their brands by improving customer relationship, loyalty and drive sale in the ever competitive market.
- **Catalogue.** Motor oil brands build sustainable point of differentiation at retail level which helps in adding brand value and build strong brands. The data from the observation confirms brand managers place catalogues at the point of purchase to assist customers to choose the type of oil to use in their engines. This effort of sustaining relationship with customers helps to add value to brands while enhancing loyalty.
- **Collectors' artefacts.** At the heart of motor oil, branding artefacts are used to embody the brand values and connect with loyal customers. The low involvement nature of motor oil and an effort to make it more interesting to customers, artefacts are used to influence customer perception and develop brand loyalty. The data from the advert copies and observation confirms artefacts are key to branding strategy where artefacts of different types are given to customers. Similarly, data from advert copies confirm

that some brands are so important to loyal customers that they develop emotional attachment through a collection of brand artefacts.

With more brands seeking new markets and the growing demand for manufactured goods to fill that gap in the international markets, the findings indicate motor oil brands appear to be aware of such demands by employing strategies to suit the market in which it operates.

- **Standardisation.** A global branding strategy is used by global motor oil brands in the product and packaging to meet the needs of consumers. Rather than customising brands, global brands engage in standardisation by offering more advanced, reliable and functional motor oil. This is key to ensuring customer quality perception of the brand which differentiates them from local brands. For brands to be perceived as superior in its product attributes they are presented to the market as the same with those available worldwide. The data from observation and interviews confirmed this, where informants in marketing management insisted that brands have to conform to the global standard and they have to be seen to be the same across the world.
- **Country of origin influence.** Global brands often carry the country image in which it originated. A country's image and how it is perceived globally influences how a brand from that country performs in a chosen international market. This helps to influence the value perception of buyers in the business and consumer markets. The value of a brand is highly determined by its country of origin as it's perceived to have higher quality and technological advancement to improve the lifespan of the engine. Markets in emerging economies like Nigeria with a low level of technological development perceive global brands to be of higher quality than local brands. This places the global brands ahead of local brands in terms of market share and consumer confidence.
- **Derived demand.** Demand for motor oil is highly dependent on the demand for automotive vehicles. As these products go hand in hand, considerable effort is geared towards establishing a relationship between them.
- **Price.** With price as a determinant of quality in both B2B and B2C markets, motor oil operates in a fiercely competitive market where customers make purchase preference due to price. Market segmentation determines brand positioning so that price fits different types of customers. Hence, branding programmes are developed to appeal to different types of buyers across these different buyers. This is confirmed by data from observation and interviews where respondents point to different customers purchase motor oil brands according to price.

- **Warranty.** Due to the derived demand nature of motor oil and automotive cars, the warranty is a prominent aspect of modern automotive promotion. This strategy aims to serve as incentives to induce motorists to use the oil based on the agreement. This helps to ensure brand dominance across the supply chain while ensuring customer loyalty. Motor oil brands that offer a warranty to car owners serve as quality indication while differentiating from those that do not offer a warranty.

The above branding strategies that emerged from this study suggest a clear distinction from strategies identified in previous studies. While some strategies identified in this study were used in prior studies, few studies incorporated these strategies to explain branding in the B2B market. The next section discusses how these strategies differ from other B2B branding research. It also highlights the value of these strategies that emerged from this study to B2B branding.

6.2.1.1 Contribution to Previous Theory

As stated in Chapter Two, a large number of studies on industrial branding suggest theory development through what already exists. This means developing theoretical understanding by using existing models. Therefore, consistent with Whetten (1989), this context is difficult to offer a broader picture to explain the phenomena of motor oil branding. The exploratory nature of this study and with little known on motor oil branding, coupled with the fact that industrial branding is still in its infancy, raises the question of adopting a narrow view to branding by prior research, rather than a multi-facet view. This questions the theoretical contribution of adding or subtracting factors from existing models used in past studies to fully explain or understand phenomena. This research places industrial branding into a broader perspective by looking at the branding of an industrial brand from a wider empirical view, rather than testing predetermined B2C concepts.

6.2.1.1.1 Brand Name in Industrial Products

This study uncovered different branding strategies used by brand manufacturers to develop a distinct brand identity, generate awareness and differentiation allowing larger market share. The data observations and interviews found a subtle use of the brand name as an important cue in differentiation, often symbolising the company name. This is in keeping with a number of studies by Saunders and Watt (1979), Egan et al. (1992), Shipley and Howard (1993), who found that a brand name is important and effective to industrial products in brand positioning,

while offering smaller companies a higher advantage and market share. However, this study found that the more established motor oil brands benefit more from brand names than the smaller brands. Similarly, in keeping with Mitchell et al. (2001), the data confirms brand names are important to industrial brands that offer value and competitive advantages like quality, reliability and performance. Conversely, in contrast to Bendixen et al. (2004) the observations data confirms price and delivery to be more important than a brand name in building brand equity of motor oil brands.

6.2.1.1.2 Brand Equity and Perceived Quality

Brand equity plays a key role in the brand choice, recommendation, build associations and establish a relationship with channel members and customers. Brand equity refers to added value of a brand creating a positive image in the minds of consumers (Keller, 1993). Equally, brand equity is generated through customers brand awareness, perceived quality or superiority compared to alternative products while associating unique and strong attributes to the brand image (Aaker, 1991). These attributes of brand equity have been of interest to consumer branding and international marketing for a long time. To this end, authors like van Riel et al. (2005) view brand awareness, loyalty and perceived quality to be directly transferable to industrial branding. However, brand associations do not appear to be relevant in industrial markets. The data from observations, interviews and documents refute this assertion, where the findings suggest product related associations are used to develop associations. Furthermore, Chen and Lin (2011) posited that industrial purchase is rational and calculated; therefore, brand associations cannot influence brand equity. Their findings failed to realise that building associations help to influence purchase decisions among members of the decision-making unit.

Similarly, studies have recognised the importance of perceived quality as a source of brand equity in B2B branding (Bendixen et al., 2004 and McQuiston, 2004). They highlighted tangible attributes such as product quality and intangible attributes like service quality as critical in branding and purchase decisions. The data from observations and advert copies confirm this with motor oil brands across different categories generating brand equity through product quality by offering functional attributes and support services throughout the supply chain.

6.2.1.1.3 Sources of Brand Equity in Industrial Branding

Van Riel et al. (2005) developed a conceptual model to test the significance of brand equity in industrial branding. They found that investments in the 5Ps (product, price, promotion, place and distribution) help to generate brand awareness and build a positive brand image, creating brand equity and loyalty. By highlighting two interrelated components of brand equity, product brand equity and corporate brand equity, they found that product brand equity is influenced by physical attributes and distribution, whereas corporate brand equity is determined by service attributes and employees. Similarly, the observations, advert copies and interviews confirmed this, where findings indicate product attributes (packaging, innovation, quality, performance), distribution (ordering and re-ordering) and supporting services (strategic advice, follow-up, brochures and online information) influence brand equity at the product and corporate level, which will ultimately help to enhance brand choice and loyalty.

6.2.1.1.4 The Role of Product Attributes, Delivery and Support Services to Motor Oil

Rather than offer product attributes to influence brand development this study found the emphasis of multidimensional promise of brand value. Mudambi et al. (1997) explored branding importance in industrial markets by developing a conceptual model of industrial brand value. The conceptual model proposed four components, including product performance, distribution performance (consisting of ordering and delivery), support services and the company performance, highlighting the integration of tangible and intangible elements. The data from observations, interviews and documents confirm that distribution with emphasis on prompt delivery and supporting services performance are important components in enhancing industrial brand value. Similarly, the data from observations indicate that support services are key to building successful brands. Across the supply chain, brand manufacturers offer value by response to specific needs of customers through timely, reliable and efficient means, in order to enhance value in the mind of customers.

Subsequently, the data from observations, interviews and advert copies confirms an influencing factor to customer loyalty through relationship marketing by providing support services in the area of technical information and services like identifying the right oil grade for the engine through electronic means, catalogues and technical advice to assist customers. Similarly, company performance seems to play an important role in global motor oil brands where inter-firm relationships are established due to the performance of the company.

Relatedly, McQuiston (2004) developed brand identity of steel products around four components, including products (technical), logistics, customer support and company image, resulting in a successful market position. These findings concur with that of this study; however, they fail to identify the relationship aspects of maintaining customers and the different brand communication strategies used to generate awareness. To establish a strong brand identity, Beverland et al. (2007) offered an alternative to Kapferer's (2004) identity prism by identifying five components, including product, service, adaptation, logistics and advice. In so doing, they proposed that the framework was centred on industrial suppliers and their buyers.

Furthermore, Michell et al. (2001) found that branding offers competitive benefits and improves brand equity by offering benefits such as quality, performance and reliability which serve as major factors driving competitive differentiation. The data from observations and documents confirm this, where brand choice is made based on perceived quality, performance (especially due to associations like endorsement and recommendations) and reliability from its functional attributes.

6.2.1.1.5 Price and Purchase Decisions

Besides the different points of differentiation offered in branding motor oil products, price also plays a key role in brand choice. Consistent with Sinclair and Seward (1988), the data from observations and interviews confirm that brand price and availability are important factors in purchase decisions across the different segments of the market. In the same vein, the importance of branding in B2B purchase has been established Mudambi et al. (2002). To this end, the data from observations and advert copies concur with previous studies establishing that brand, durability and price are important in influencing brand purchase (Alexander et al. 2009). In contrast, Bendixen et al. (2004) found that the brand is not the most important factor, except amongst technical individuals who attribute its importance alongside price. Thus, the multiple data for this study further identify risk reduction to be an important factor in brand purchase, especially in Nigeria where the market is characterised by fraud.

Similarly, the observations and interviews data partially complements Sheth (1973), who emphasised that purchase choice is determined by the systematic decision making within the organisation. He further asserted that similar to consumer buying, industrial purchases decide on factors other than realistic or rational criteria. Furthermore, data from observations and

advert copies confirms that of Walley et al. (2007), where they found that brand name is important to suppliers' choice. However, this study found that importance of brand name does not reflect all brands; it is more inclined to the global and challenger brands that can invest in brand awareness and value strategies. These strategies of building brand loyalty and long presence are largely influenced by the long use of the brand through habits and family attachments.

In the same vein, previous studies found technical performance to be important in purchase decision making (Michelle et al. 2001; Walley et al. 2007). The data from observations confirm this where global and challenger brands use functional attributes as cue to quality and durability to influence a brand purchase. The data further says that price influence brand purchase among the lower brands where they focus on a niche market which is consistent with Michelle et al. (2001) and Walley et al. (2007). Similarly, the data from observations and advert copies confirm findings of prior studies that found brand purchase is influenced by the risk reduction offering (Walley et al. 2007; Anderson and Narus, 1999; Foxall, 1979; Shipley and Howard, 1993). Therefore, motor oil brands that offer higher engine compatibility, reassure customers while ensuring repeat purchase have more likelihood of purchase than those that will not support the engine performance.

Relatedly, consistent with Foxall (1979), the observations data recognise the more risk factors that are eliminated in the purchase process the more likely a buyer will make purchase preference. The data from observations and documents recognise innovation of partner brands influences purchase behaviour while ensuring dominance across the supply chain. This is particularly significant among the global brands that have enough power to venture into such a partnership. Brand importance is further influenced by word of mouth. This was confirmed from observations data in the Nigerian market where brand importance was influenced through professionals in the field.

6.2.1.1.6 Brand Dominance through Service Adaptation on Customers' Needs

In order to give a wider outlook to the understanding of industrial branding in this product category, the findings look beyond industrial branding to other closely connected areas. The findings of this study indicate tangible attributes are not the only means of branding in the market, intangible attributes also influence differentiation in the market (Mudambi et al. 1997). This marketing shift from multitudes of anonymous customers to developing relationships with an identified or less known customer was uncovered in this study. The data

from observations and documents confirms building relationships through adaptation where motor oil brands go into partnership to produce specific oil according to specific demands of automotive engine manufacturers, based on trust to produce functional, quality oil to fit engine specifications. This is consistent with Johanson and Seyed-Mohamed (1991) and Brennan et al. (2003), where they found that positive association between supplier and customer adaptations is important in relationship building.

There is evidence in this study to confirm Johanson and Seyed-Mohamed's (1991) findings of buyer concentration and market share influences adaptation behaviour, coupled with the nature and complexity of the product exchange. However, where Brennan et al. (2003) found adaptation to influence buyer-supplier power, the data from observations and documents confirms that adaptation is more with 'powerful' customers rather than the whole customers in the product category. Similarly, the data from observations confirms Brennan and Turnbull's (1999) findings where they found a high level of trust and commitment levels leads to higher adaptation while, low trust and commitment lead to failure of potential adaptations in buyer-supplier relationships. Furthermore, adaptation was uncovered down the supply chain with retailers building a relationship with other businesses for just-in-time delivery of motor oil brands.

6.2.1.1.7 Assuring Customer and Retailers Satisfaction: Relationship Marketing

Carefully nurturing and maintaining relationships between businesses is important to brand performance. The data from observations confirms winning new and maintaining existing customers is enhanced through key account managers across the supply chain. Maintaining a close link with customers to ensure customer satisfaction and brand preference helps to enhance strong business relationships. This is consistent with the findings of Al-Husan and Brennan (2009), where they found KAM activity is enhanced through involvement, regular visit and customer account reviews. The observation data further supports Al-Husan and Brennan's findings by confirming that top management, personal relationships and trust influence KAM. The observations data further indicates that to eliminate national and cultural boundaries, global brands engage in account management by using local agents serving as account managers in Nigeria who will have access to members of the DMU. This finding is consistent with Anderson and Coughlan (1987) in that global companies operating in foreign countries use local sales agents rather than use their own sales team. In addition, consistent with Millman and Wilson (1995), the data from Nigeria reveal that although a more

favourable relationship exists between brands and buyers, account management to the broader market of the supply chain appears to be lacking. This lack of relationship is a result of the commitment from the parent company and the agents to commit financially to build the relationship. Furthermore, across the retail, findings suggest trust enhancement and maintenance through a direct link with end customers through the promise of brand quality leading to enhance engine performance and functional benefits.

6.2.1.1.8 Ingredient Branding

This study further indicates strategic alliance between established brands through ingredient branding. Consistent with Rid and Pfoertsch (2013), the data from observations and interviews confirms the use of ingredient branding to guide the purchase preference of a specific brand by car users. However, where McCarthy and Norris (1999) and Rid and Pfoertsch (2013) found using ingredient brands between strong and weak brand leverage reputation, revenue and improve competitive advantage, the data indicates alliance between stronger brands as against the weaker brands. This may perhaps indicate that the use of strong ingredient brands assists in building brand equity of the host brand (Desai and Keller, 2002). In contrast, rather than label the ingredient brand as part of the final product as found by Zhang et al. (2013), these findings confirm the use of a logo reinforces brand leverage and assures the final customer of engine safety.

Consistent with findings of Uggla and Filipsson (2008), the data from observations further say that ingredient branding can be used as an important leverage point, to gain access to new customers and markets, while serving as an avenue for customer lock-in, especially in the international markets. Overall, this study confirms that ingredient branding provides a cue to product quality, leading to consumer purchase confidence and brand acceptance. Thus, consistent with Erevelles et al. (2008), the data indicates that this deliberate strategic alliance increases product marketability and differentiation to benefit the manufacturer, supplier and downstream buyer.

6.2.1.1.10 Co-branding

To enhance brand value perception, several brand association attributes driven by brand identity were uncovered. The data from advert copies confirm the use of co-branding in which attributes of established automotive brands are incorporated with motor oil brands to generate brand awareness. Consistent with Kalafatis et al. (2012) this strategy aimed to produce spillover effect between the two brands to enhance equity of both brands. Similarly,

co-opting partner brands for endorsement may suggest brand assurance, signifying the brand's functional attributes to improve perceived product performance. Specifically, the findings suggest these alliances benefit both co-branding partners rather than a single partner or host brand.

Furthermore, sponsorship involving strategic B2B relationships between brands (sponsor and sporting entity) is used for promotion purposes, revenue generation for the benefit of both parties. Similarly, the data from observations and advert copies confirms a different form of co-branding through sponsorship of sporting events and brand endorsement by sportsmen and women. This strategy evokes association leading to a spillover effect of these events and personalities to the brand. This is consistent with Westberg et al. (2011) and Farrelly and Quester (2005), who suggested that companies enter into sponsorship partnership for brand promotion and incorporate activities to achieve those objectives. Furthermore, consistent with Farrelly and Quester (2005), this partnership involves trust and commitment to building and maintaining the alliance.

In addition, the data from advert copies and racing event point to sponsorship in car racing events are used as an indicator of brand quality, highlighting the brand's functional quality. Consistent with Farrelly and Quester (2005) and Cobbs et al. (2011), few studies recognise the B2B relationship aspects of sponsorship; hence, neglecting to realise the huge importance of sponsorship relationships from the business perspective, rather than looking at sponsorship benefits to enhance brand image and generate awareness to the end customer and influence brand choice. Therefore, the data from observations and advert copies confirms sponsorship to offer a dual benefit for brands by going into relationship partnering between businesses and the end customer.

Studies on sponsorship have focussed on consumer objectives to enhance brand image and generate awareness (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998); and Walliser, 2003). The data from advert copies and racing event confirms that leading motor oil brands are involved in different sporting events to help build the association. Branding aspects like the logo, brand name and slogans are used to build the brand image in sponsorship of sporting events. The international recognition and prestige offered in sporting events assist the brands in reinforcing brand image while improving identity.

6.2.1.1.11 The Standardisation and Country of Origin Effect in Brand Strategies

The data from observations and interviews confirms that global brands adopt standardisation of their brands to assure consumer confidence. According to the data, global brands are perceived as luxury brands, due to their quality and higher price perception. An additional branding strategy identified in this study is to associate a brand with its country of origin to add its credibility. Associating the brand with its country of origin may suggest that the brand offers higher quality and distinctiveness against other competing brands. This is consistent with previous studies that concluded that associating a brand with its COO leading to the perception of superior quality against brands from less advanced countries influence its perception (Saghafi and Puig, 1997). Furthermore, consistent with Saghafi et al. (1991) and Kaynak and Kuckkemioglu (1992), the data from observations and interviews confirms the importance of country of origin on buyers' quality, price and brand attribute evaluation. This will ultimately reflect on the consumers' perceptions of the brand's quality and image. The data further suggests partnership of brands from the same country may indicate brand trust and quality control leading to consumer confidence.

6.2.1.1.12 The Role of Distribution in Motor Oil Branding

In addition to branding through product attribute influencing transactions in the markets, the data from observations confirm brand influence through prompt delivery and connection with intermediaries. This synergy between manufacturers and intermediaries is crucial to brand performance allowing differentiation and creation of unique identity to different segments of customers. Mudambi et al. (1997) and Van Riel et al. (2005) offered distribution activities in industrial markets play an important role in brand preference, customer satisfaction and strong image. The data from the different sources confirms that distribution activities entailing aspects of brand availability, ordering, reordering and delivery are an important factor in enhancing brand performance. This brand preference among buyers and end users of motor oil is determined by effective distribution performance. In addition, to ensure brand availability, build consumer confidence and trust, the data from observations and interviews confirms brands in Nigeria operate as captive agents (company distributors and agents) rather than independent middlemen.

Finally, the data from observations and interviews confirm that the major focus of the companies is towards the B2B market, due to their bulk purchase and large customer focus. However, as motor oil seems to evolve from a business brand to a hybrid brand, the apparent

focus of media promotion falls towards the consumer market. This then raises the question of the huge financial and material resources on consumer branding. To explain this paradox, it seems this huge expense on consumer branding aspect is to draw the customer awareness of the brand towards influencing purchase in the B2B and B2C market through a variety of composite promotion tools. Consistent with Rid and Pfoertsch (2013), the data from observations, motor racing event and advert copies of this study confirms that to generate awareness and consumer demand, motor oil brands adopt the pull strategy by directly addressing the final customer. Furthermore, the aim of the B2C promotions is to give the brand larger leverage in other metrics like brand affinity on social media, TV, radio, store walk-ins, and web blogs etc. This is consistent with Lynch and de Chernatony's (2007) view where they posited that brands that use different brand platforms are companies that operate in the B2B and B2C markets.

The data from advert copies and motor racing events further confirm the different promotion strategies are deliberately planned to target the decision makers in the buying centre to influence buying decision through adopting emotional, rational appeals used in the consumer market. Similarly, in line with Lynch and de Chernatony (2004), B2B purchases involve the combination of decisions of individuals; hence, the different promotion strategies are done to influence the affective and cognitive factors within the business setting.

The data from the observations suggest branded motor oil products can provide cash flow for companies and increase network power, while improving corporate reputation. Although brands are positioned differently in the market, an overarching pattern seems to indicate branding strategies in both countries help companies to establish points of differentiation by offering attributes like quality, reliability and performance. Strategies also offer salient intangible associations like trustworthiness and expertise. Global brands also try to establish a global presence and technical leadership in both countries. The data from observations and interviews show strategies to build brand image to help improve the perception of quality and value to the business customers, thereby increasing loyalty. Thus, similar to the consumer market, the data from all the sources of this study supports previous findings that suggest brands play an important role in differentiation in the business market (Michell et al. 2001; Bendixen et al. 2004; and Bloemer and De Ruyter, 1998), against the notion that business brands are commodities with no differentiation.

In realising the importance of industrial branding strategies which attempt to differentiate and induce brand choice, the data from observations, interviews and advert copies refutes, in this

product category at least, the view of Mudambi et al. (2007) that branding strategies are not directly transferred to industrial markets. This study clearly suggests that the hybrid nature of business brands in this category, consumer branding strategies are used in industrial markets to generate awareness. These strategies assist in reaching consensus in the decision-making units and reducing buyer uncertainty through building association in sporting events, the use of different media platforms and direct contact with resellers by providing point of sale promotions.

6.2.1.1.13 From a B2B Brand to a Hybrid Brand

In addition, the literature search on industrial branding indicates that branding insights are, in part, gained from the B2C context. Thus, consistent with Seyedghorbana et al. (2016), studies on industrial B2B branding reveals more focus on industrial brand equity. Previous studies indicate branding knowledge transfer from B2C to B2B by studying Aaker (1991) and Keller's (1993) proposed brand equity models and Kapferer's (1997) brand identity prism model in different B2B context. This has a limited the number of advanced theories and models for brand equity and B2B branding (Seyedghorbana et al., 2016). In addition, the different data sets for this study confirms other B2B branding aspects like inter-firm relationships, distribution, and support services are important areas in B2B branding rather than limiting knowledge on advancing brand equity. A B2B area that has been given little attention in the extant literature is the hybrid nature of brands. Consequently, the data from different sources of this exploratory study confirms motor oil brands (certainly not all of them) have evolved from a B2B brand to hybrid brand using consumer branding tools to connect with end users to offer value and convenience. As no prior theory has been offered on B2B branding and more specifically hybrid branding this study also contributes to understanding the branding nature of B2B hybrid brands.

6.2.2 Key parameters of motor oil branding

As highlighted in Chapter Two, the literature indicates that branding is important in industrial markets (Mudambi, 2002). The image of a brand can be a determining factor regarding how it performs in the market. For this study, parameters of motor oil branding relate to the important factors that characterise motor oil branding that may differ from other business brands. The observations data from the automotive supply chain identify key parameters of motor oil branding by highlighting various important areas that are likely to influence

branding of this product category. With so little known about motor oil branding and the exploratory nature of this study the brand offering and its image influence its performance.

The following results address the research objective, to identify the key parameters of motor oil branding:

- ***Distinctiveness.*** This refers to the different strategies used in B2B branding to develop distinct features from other brands in the market. Analogous to business brands, motor oil is characterised with having similar features, making them difficult to be distinguished in the market. Functional attributes, like performance and excitement are used to demonstrate the brand's distinctiveness from others. This is particularly apparent with global brands that focus on luxury automotive brands that develop engines with cutting edge technology. Distinctiveness also applies to supporting services offered by brands in retail to assist customers to make a brand choice. This strategy builds emotional attachment to the brand, making them stand out from other brands.
- ***Congruency (partnership).*** Building business relationships requires synergy between companies with one company recommending a particular brand to the customers to generate awareness and induce purchase. The partnership between established brands such as ingredient branding and co-branding are an effective strategy for achieving market success in B2B branding. Similarly, brands that need the support of another brand in an agreed relationship to manufacture and supply a specific brand is key to building a successful brand. This partnership between different categories of brands helps to generate brand pull within the market by focusing on the specific market area (i.e. dealers, garages, retailers), rather than using the conventional means of promotion. The partnerships are further maintained by a carefully nurtured relationship between the two or more brands across the supply chain.
- ***Recognisability.*** Rather than regard business branding to use inconspicuous strategies to generate awareness and induce purchase (Leek and Christodoulides, 2011), the study uncovered attempts by brands to be recognised in the market. Consistently, the brands used different promotion strategies like exhibitions and trade shows to link with related product category customers and professionals that will influence brand awareness. Similarly, several brand awareness attributes were employed like sponsorship, advertisements and road shows to generate awareness and brand

preference. Hence, due to consumer involvement in the market, motor oil appears to be low involvement in that it is seen as consumable items having the insignificant effect to the buyer's lifestyle, need little purchase effort and consideration. It is clear that business brands like consumer brands are competing to be recognised for advert space in several media.

- **Trust.** Trust is key to brand success in a business relationship; hence, motor oil branding requires building that trust within the supply chain to allow building a successful brand. From the manufacturer to the distribution channel, trust plays an important role in instilling consumer confidence towards the brand.
- **Derived demand.** Stocking the brands at the end channel is entirely dependent on the consumer demand for the brand. Hence, branding in the aftermarket attempts to generate demand for the brand through several means by encouraging motorists to purchase the brands. Branding in the business market can be enhanced when marketers realise that a careful link with components of the supply chain is maintained. As new products are developed, motor oil brands are ready to fill that need by developing the needed oil to suit the engines. Business brands should care about what the final consumer is thinking, this then suggest that by linking with different market channels, branding in the business market enhances derived demand by not only understanding business customers but customers of business (i.e. customers in retail and garages).
- **Distribution.** Developing an effective distribution strategy is vital to brand success in the business market. Thus, brands that offer prompt delivery will perform better in the aftermarket than those that do not have a robust distribution strategy.

6.2.2.1 Contribution to Previous Theory

The data from the multiple sources confirms the use of different strategies by motor oil manufacturers to help in branding. The data from observations and advert copies confirms that motor oil brand manufacturers attempt to distinguish brands from others in the market by emphasising the brand's functional attributes and supporting services to assure customers of the brands reliability. The literature indicates previous studies have identified parameters of branding in the industrial market. Bendixen et al. (2004) found quality as the most important parameter, followed by performance, reliability, ease of operation, after sales services, ease of maintenance, relationship with the supplier, price and reputation of the supplier. Similarly,

Michell et al. (2001) identified perceived quality, market leadership, recognisable image and differentiated position as important parameters in building strong industrial brands. This is consistent with previous studies by Abratt (1986), Aaker (1991) and Mudambi et al. (1997), who found brand reliability or, rather, quality as a significant brand parameter. In a related view, Mudambi et al. (1997) highlighted support services in the form of customer staff training, service provider and customer rapport and financial support are important parameters of B2B branding. Although studies highlight different brand related parameters to B2B branding in which quality, price and performance appear to be most important. The data from the various sources of this study highlights distinctiveness by encompassing several attributes from the functional and emotional attributes to supporting services, to allow differentiation in the market.

To influence purchase decision even in systematic and rational situations several parameters were identified. Consistent with the findings of this study, previous studies suggest industrial buyers turn to leading brands as purchase priority to provide value during decision making (Alexander et al. 2009). The results from observation data highlights this where leading brands (global and challenger) are first to be considered when deciding on a brand choice. Considering the brand relevance to purchase decisions in business markets, Backhaus et al. (2011) identified ability to reduce perceived risk and information search cost significantly influence brand relevance. This is supported by the study of Mudambi (2002), who found that nature of purchase and purchase risk are important factors in purchase decisions of precision bearings.

Furthermore, Alexander et al. (2009) investigated the influence of brand and product on industrial buyers of tyres. They identified the brand, followed by durability, price, trust and brand safety as the most important factors in consumer brand choice. Malaval and Bénaroya, (2001) identified parameters, such as buying behaviour, purchase situation, buying centre and purchase influence to understand industrial branding through purchase behaviour between actors in the market. These parameters identified, by Alexander et al. (2009) and Malaval and Bénaroya (2001), partly support the parameters identified in this study. The data from observations indicate support for this where respondents in the aftermarket consistently point to brand trust leading to reduction of risk as important in brand choice decisions.

In the same vein, Kuhn, et al. (2008) identified cost/price, reliability and dependability, credibility, compatibility, flexibility, after sales and support service emerged as important

parameters of branding in a B2B context. Similarly, in their study to measure the importance of branding to organisations, Roper and Davies (2010) identified parameters of brand personality, agreeableness (warmth, integrity, empathy) and competence (conscientiousness, technology, drive) to be of higher importance. In addition, Leek and Christodoulides (2012) examined manufacturers and service companies where they identified functional factors (i.e. quality, after-sales service, reliability, infrastructure, innovation technology, capacity and capabilities) and emotional factors (i.e. risk, trust and reassurance) as important parameters for value development in industrial branding. Further to this, Beverland, et al. (2007) examined global brands and identified adaptability and standardisation as key factors aimed at global brand marketers. Similarly, perceived product quality, service quality, brand loyalty, awareness and country of origin were identified as important factors of branding in international B2B markets (Chen, 2011).

Davis et al. (2008) examined the role of branding from the perceptions of logistics service brands, they found brand image and brand awareness to be more significant in driving brand equity among service providers and customers. Also, Roberts and Merrilees (2007) studied the role of branding in a B2B service context of tenants within a mall. They identified brand trust, service quality and empowerment as key influences on the contract renewal.

The demand for automotive cars leads to motor oil demand; hence, derived demand serves as an important parameter in motor oil consumption, stocking and purchase. The demand for the brand and the buyer preference was highly influenced by the distribution performance of the brand. This is consistent with previous studies that highlighted distribution performance is an important parameter in industrial branding (Mudambi et al. 1997). The data from observations and interviews further suggest the ability to respond promptly to demand by customers is crucial to brand choice and long term business relationship. Hence, the data from the multiple sources confirms distribution services are important in making a brand choice.

In general, previous studies have offered tangible (i.e. product and service attributes) and intangible (i.e. trust and credibility) parameters are important to industrial branding. The results from the different data confirm that tangible and intangible factors are used to influence motor oil branding. While previous studies identified perceived quality as the dominant parameter in B2B branding (Abratt, 1986; and Mudambi et al. 1997), the data from observations, interviews and advert copies, however, indicate congruency through building

relationships with businesses as the most significant parameter. This is counterintuitive as the assumption was that quality will be stressed as a factor influencing brand judgement. Hence, this study identified several factors that influence parameters of this product category (such as distinctiveness, congruency, recognisability, trust, derived demand and distribution).

6.2.3 Difference in Motor Oil Branding Between Nigeria and the UK

Exploring the branding phenomena through data from different sources of the interviews, observations and documents aided understanding of what is going on in the market. Due to differences in economic and infrastructural development, the level of car ownership and the presence of OEM the data shows more marketing effort to branding motor oil products in the UK than Nigeria. Moreover, results of this study suggest that Nigeria is a cash-based economy, whereas the UK has evolved into an electronic-based cash economy. This apparently indicates the different outlook to business interactions where the UK is more inclined to electronic commerce while the Nigerian market is paper based. The data from the different sources uncovered, differs in tactical and strategic branding adopted by motor oil manufacturers in both the UK and Nigeria. To this end, the following results addressed the research objective:

- ***Relationship marketing.*** Relationship marketing is practised in the UK while there is less focus on relationship marketing in Nigeria.
- ***Adaptation.*** The UK brands go into adaptations, a relationship strategy of manufacturing motor oil for a specific engine while this branding strategy does not exist in Nigeria.
- ***Ingredient branding.*** Ingredient branding is used in both countries. However, initiation and strategic agreement between brands are done in the brand's country of manufacture. Ingredient branding then presents an effective strategy for local and global brands to break border barriers in terms of brands awareness and dominance across the supply chain.
- ***Word-of-mouth promotion.*** Word of mouth is not used to promote brands in the UK, while there seems to be reliance of brand recommendation through word of mouth (particularly as there is over reliance on mechanic recommendation) in Nigeria.
- ***Co-branding through brand endorsement and sponsorship.*** Endorsement of brands is widely practised by UK brands, while brand endorsement is not practised in Nigeria. Similarly, sponsorship of sporting and speed racing events to generate

awareness is widely practised by UK brands, while there is no use of sponsorship by Nigerian brands.

- ***Exhibitions and trade shows.*** The results suggest brands engage in exhibitions and trade shows while there is more use of road shows in Nigeria.
- ***Reliance on different promotion strategies.*** The UK brands engage in different promotion strategies to generate awareness, whereas Nigerian brands engage in price promos, buy-one-get-one-free etc.
- ***Supply chain partnership.*** There are more links between segments of the supply chain by the UK market; hence, there is more effort to build the brand, whereas Nigerian brands have to link with segments in the aftermarket.
- ***The point-of-sale promotion.*** There is more effort to satisfy and influence the purchase of the end user through the point of purchase in the UK, while this is not the case in Nigeria.
- ***Support services.*** The UK brands offer support services at the end of the supply chain, whereas this is not practised in Nigeria.
- ***Generic brands compete with manufacturer brands.*** As retailers develop their own brands, they seem to compete with manufacturer brands. Thus, the observation data from the UK indicates a more matured retail. This development in the UK retail leads to the retailers developing their own brands. The observation data in the UK further shows retailers developing their own brands that compete with manufacturer brands.
- ***Distribution trust.*** The results suggest distribution trust in the UK market where there is no trust in distribution in Nigeria.
- ***Authentic brands.*** Counterfeiting was not identified in the UK market, whereas Nigerian brands are highly protected from counterfeiting.
- ***Counterfeit measures.*** As a result of trust in distribution, the UK market has no counterfeit measures, while measures to control brands and ensure consumer confidence were uncovered in Nigeria.

Table 6.1: Branding differences between the UK and Nigeria

UK economy	Nigerian economy
Focus on relationship marketing	Less focus on relationship marketing
Adaptations	No adaptations
Ingredient branding	Ingredient branding
Co-branding: Brand endorsement Association through sponsorship of sporting event	Lack of co-branding: No brand endorsement No sponsorship
Less reliance on word-of-mouth promotion	More reliance on word-of-mouth promotion
Exhibitions and trade show	Roadshows
Reliance on different promotion strategies	Reliance on mechanic recommendation
Supply chain partnership	No supply chain partnership with more reliance on their own retail
Point-of-sale promotion	No point-of-sale promotion
Support services	No support services
Generic brands compete with manufacturer brands	Manufacturer brands only
Electronic resources transaction in ordering and reordering	Manual transaction
Distribution trust	Fraud in distribution
Authentic brands	Counterfeit brands
No counterfeit measures	Measures to control counterfeits

6.2.3.1 Reflection on Motivations for Branding Differences

The different data sources from this study confirm more differences than similarities between the two economies. Apart from the obvious economic dissimilarities with the UK, a matured economy and Nigeria, an emerging economy, there appears to be significant differences that indicate contrasting branding process. Table 6.1 shows the differences between the two economies.

These apparent branding differences between the two countries have come more as a surprise to the researcher than a confirmation. With the long presence of global motor oil brands in Nigeria, the thought was that branding similarities would be higher than the differences, at

least to the global brands. Contrary to the researcher's expectations, the findings across the supply chain suggest that, even among the global brands, there are remarkable branding differences between the two countries. The global brands in Nigeria use less relationship marketing and adaptation strategies, which contrast to how they operate in the UK. In addition, the UK, having a long history of motor vehicle manufacturing and technological innovation, seems to place more emphasis on the type of oil used in engines, with more effort to inform car users of the benefits of using quality oil. However, as consistently pointed out by respondents in various parts of the Nigerian supply chain, there is more reliance on imported vehicles with no room for franchise dealership. These differences in automotive development may lead to less effort to highlight the benefits.

The findings further indicate that with more presence of automotive manufacturers' in the UK, engaging in inter-firm relationships with different automotive brands is more likely. The findings from the supply chain uncover strategies like adaptation, ingredient branding, endorsement and sponsorship are used more in the UK than Nigeria. In contrast, the findings in Nigeria suggest the lack of OEMs make establishing inter-firm relationships difficult. In a growing market like Nigeria, modern methods should be applied to keep pace with time. This will improve the marketing process to parallel that of the UK.

Similarly, the data from the retail also confirms the lack of relationship between motor oil manufacturers and stores in Nigeria. Respondents in Nigeria pointed out that they had no partnership with the manufacturer or their representative. In contrast, brand representatives in the UK are constantly engaged their brands even at the point of sale. Respondents in the retail and brand managers emphatically emphasised that brand representatives are in charge of brands even at the point of sale. This lack of link between manufacturers and resellers to play an important link to the Nigerian end market; hence, reduces the branding influence. Additionally, in contrast to results in Nigeria, the findings in the UK indicate retailers are well-established brands in their own right with their brands competing for shelf space with manufacturer brands. This is evident in stores like Halfords, Wilko and B&Q developing their own brands. Furthermore, this advancement in economic stages also indicates the use of different instruments to achieve branding goals in the two countries. The researcher found the UK branding strategy use more instruments like, point-of-sale, advertising through traditional media (i.e. TV, radio, magazines) and modern media (i.e. Internet, social media) and sports

sponsorship to generate brand awareness, while the Nigerian market, without this retail link, lacks a point-of-sale focus, instead targeting customers through TV, radio and billboards.

The findings across the supply chain suggest the level of infrastructural development is likely to influence branding differences between Nigeria and the UK. Respondents in Nigeria consistently point to the lack of good roads across Nigeria with non-functioning railways which hinder easy brand distribution. This contrasts what was found in the UK, where a more developed infrastructure was in place. These key infrastructural developments help to influence brand performance and automotive presence in a country. Furthermore, the data from observations uncovered the lack of constant electricity supply in Nigeria may significantly influence the differences. The UK market has sufficient electricity, whereas the Nigerian market still grapples with an epileptic electricity supply which reduces any branding effort in all segments of the market.

This lack of basic infrastructure in Nigeria may have influenced the difference in the distribution pattern of the supply chain between the two countries. The observation data in the two countries indicate the UK automotive aftermarket offers a much faster service to customers, with ease of ordering and reordering, than the Nigerian aftermarket offers. Brand owners in the UK automotive aftermarket provide faster service to the OEM customers through a symbiotic dealership agreement. Conversely, this strategy does not exist in Nigeria where the findings show the lack of fully utilising the branding potential of the aftermarket.

Respondents from the observation in Nigeria consistently indicate that consumers are unaware of the importance of the type of oil placed in the engine. This contrast what the findings uncovered in the UK where the data from observation shows customers are conscious of the choice of his brand and the compatibility of the brand with the engine. This may be due to lack of collective effort from all the connecting parties (i.e. government who provide the enabling environment through good policies and motor oil manufacturers) to educate the consumer on the importance of oil choice to the life of their engines. Consistently, marketing managers in Nigeria pointed to the lack of government support to push their policies to the market. Furthermore, respondents across Nigeria suggested a lack of interest by the motor oil manufacturers in the downstream sector of the economy. Perhaps this may be as a result of a lack of government commitment to encourage more presences of automotive manufacturers in the country while improving motor oil manufacturer. Brand managers across Nigeria consistently complained of the lack of focus on the downstream

market. This lack of interest in the downstream sector of the Nigerian market may suggest the overreliance on mechanics for brand recommendation, whereas the UK brands use several brand promotion instruments that influence branding of motor oil. Overall, due to these differences, the comparative study may appear to present a more coverage of the UK than Nigeria. The findings suggest more branding activities in the UK with technological advancement of the market than Nigeria which appears to be similar to the UK of the 1980s.

6.2.3.2 Contribution to Previous Theory

The RO3 has been addressed by comparing and contrasting branding strategies practised in the Nigeria and UK economies. Similarly, prior studies suggest successful industrial brands use branding strategies effectively in developed economies (i.e. Mudambi, 2002; Brennan et al., 2003; van Riel et al., 2005; Rid and Pfoertsch, 2013; and Sinčić Ćorić and Jelić, 2015). Evidence also suggests research exists on industrial branding in emerging markets (i.e. Beverland et al., 2007; Gupta et al., 2008; Alexander et al., 2009; Sheth and Sinha, 2015). Furthermore, prior literature has discussed brand internationalisation from a foreign market into an emerging market (Elg et al., 2008, Meyer and Estrin, 2001 and Wong and Wickham, 2015). However, comparative studies to understand branding differences between developed and emerging economies, especially in sub-Sahara Africa, are largely lacking.

As highlighted in Chapter 5.2.5, the results of this study show more branding differences than similarities. The results of the present study suggest the emergence of several branding concepts to describe the branding strategies used in the two countries. The data from multiple data highlights the use of strategic alliances, through relationship marketing, ingredient branding, endorsement and sponsorship in the UK, which is a developed economy, whereas the use of strategic alliances was not discovered in Nigeria, an emerging economy. Flambard-Ruaud (2005) found, with the rise in technological development, western companies build a competitive edge through relationship marketing through instruments like key account management, direct mail, database, efficient customer response and customer relationship management. It was also found, however, that it was much harder to develop relationships in an emerging economy like China.

The data from observations and interviews partly supports their findings in the developed economies where there was more use of technological developments in the use of data for communication and customer interaction, as well as collection and processing to build

competitive advantage. In contrast, these relationship instruments were not identified in Nigeria where the market still relies on transactional oriented approach.

Kilic et al. (2011) compared American and Japanese brand icons. They found that companies in both countries employ sophisticated marketing techniques in their logo design. The Japanese companies have a higher influence on global markets, while the American brands are more complex. They found that icons in both countries differ in their pictorial elements, letter mark icons with similarity in the use of the brand name. They concluded that brand design in the two countries is culture specific. The data from advert copies in the UK and observations in Nigeria and the UK confirm less use of the logo as a means of brand differentiation in the two countries, this is due to more focus on the brands functional attributes that will generate more interest to the customer rather than the brand images.

Laukkanen et al. (2013) studied the role of strategic orientations to business growth of SME in business-to-business markets between two contrasting economies, namely Hungary and Finland. Their results suggest that brand orientation among B2B firms in emerging Hungarian markets does not contribute to business growth. However, it influences growth in B2B firms that operate in Finland, a developed market. While their findings suggest entrepreneurial and brand building activities to influence business growth in both markets, they suggested that emerging markets should focus on entrepreneurial activities rather than branding.

Similarly, the literature reveals that consumers assess brands from foreign countries differently (Srinivasan et al. 2004). Hence, restricting a brand to only its country of origin reflects unfavourably on the brand image. The results of this study suggest that brands from developed markets are evaluated higher and are perceived to have higher quality, performance and durability than local brands. Hence, they are a much better option for resellers and end consumers of motor oil brands in the Nigerian supply chain. Consistent with Chen et al. (2011), this implies that local brands find it much more difficult to compete with global brands. However, data from observations and interviews confirm local brands compete with brands from other emerging economies as they have less favourable COO effect perceptions in developed economies.

Prior studies focus on non-product attributes (Flambard-Ruaud, 2005; Kilic et al. 2011; Laukkanen et al. 2013) to compare branding between two contrasting economies. In contrast,

data from the different sources of this study confirms a focus rational and emotional branding of an industrial product to explore the different strategies used to generate awareness and differentiation in two contrasting economies. The extant literature (Han and Terpstra, 1988; D’astous and Ahmed, 1999; White, 2012) show studies comparing branding across different economies lean more towards the cultural perspective. To the best of the researcher’s knowledge, this study is the first to look at the branding of B2B brands across contrasting economies (developed and emerging), through the product perspective. Even more so, this study has set the pace in industrial branding studies on low involvement motor oil brands.

Table 6.2: Comparative industrial branding studies

Study	Product	Study focus	Country focus
Srinivasan, N., Jain, S.C. and Sikand, K. (2004)	Stereos and economy cars	Seller strategically focuses on the intrinsic quality of branding process in a developed country	2 developed countries (US and Japan) and 2 developing countries (Malaysia and Mexico)
Laukkanen et al. (2013)	SME	Learning, market, entrepreneurial and brand orientation affect business performance measurement, coupled with market, brand performance and business growth in different SME settings and across countries	Hungary, Finland
Flambard-Ruud (2005)	Relationship marketing	Examined relationship marketing in Western economies. Compared literature on the relationship in Western and Eastern to identify culturally-based relationships	Western economies and China
Kilic et al. (2011)	Brand mark	Examined brand icons and studies their similarity and differences	Japanese and American companies

6.2.4 A Conceptual Framework for Branding of Motor Oil

The extant literature suggests a larger part of studies apply a B2C branding lens to conceptualise and explain B2B branding. Rather than understand motor oil branding through extending or testing existing models like the previous industrial branding models in previous studies (i.e. Kuhn et al., 2008), this study developed a conceptual model to explain motor oil branding. The disadvantage of using this B2C branding perspective is that the specific aspects of the B2B market that influence branding is sometimes overlooked. Furthermore, rather than focus on a specific branding aspect like product features (i.e. functional attributes, quality and

packaging) and relationship marketing, the study attempted with an ‘open mind’ to systematically interpret concepts to understanding the phenomena.

6.2.4.1 The Development of the Framework

The study shows that across the supply chain motor oil products are differentiated in terms of the value they provide. The findings of this study reveal several dimensions to help in conceptualising the brand value model (see Figure 6.1). Unlike previous industrial branding models that emerged from a consumer perspective, the model for this study shows that brand value is influenced from the B2B and B2C markets in an effort to influence purchase behaviour in both markets. Thus, the conceptual model indicates a deliberate consumer target where the brands directly address the end user by evoking associations. Thus, the model presented herein shows that, rather than address customers in the business market (B2B), the branding strategy also targets the consumer market (B2C) through retail and a strategically generated demand pull through the media. The model distinguishes brand differentiation and promotion strategies to influence brand value through the B2B and B2C.

The model for this study shows that the B2B highlighted in Section 5.3, comprises dealers and independent garages which are key area of B2B branding in the aftermarket. The branding strategies in the garages, inter-firm relationships, effective distribution and brand loyalty are key to generating brand value with relational factors emerging as the most important branding attribute. The emerged model shows a carefully nurtured partnership between motor oil companies and other related partners to develop long relationships. The aim of these relationships (via key account management) is to influence brand preference to the DMU in the hope of building lasting relationships with other businesses. The relationships are further enhanced through adaptations, where the motor oil brand adapts to the needs of an engine manufacturer to produce a specific type of oil. To ensure brand dominance in the supply chain, this relationship is further strengthened through ingredient branding. This synergy between the automotive and motor oil brands helps to determine brand choice in each part of the market.

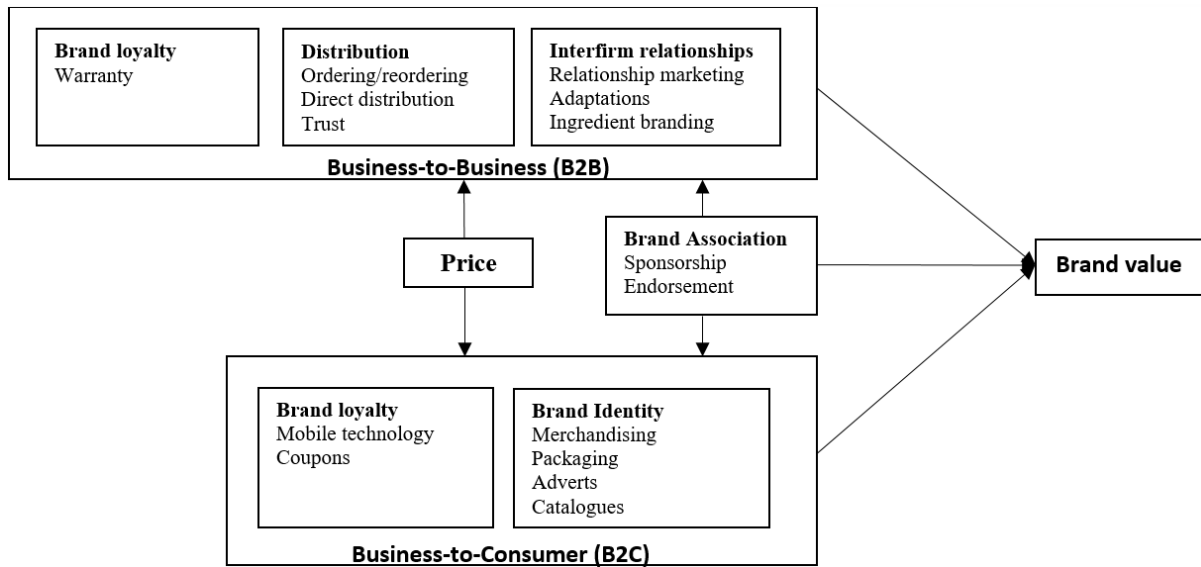


Figure 6.1: The hybrid brand value model

Brand availability appears to be key to brand performance in the business market, while ease of ordering, reordering with delivery convenience and reliability appear to be important in making brand choice and influence the purchase decision within the DMU. Direct distribution ensures brand availability by eliminating middlemen while ensuring brand trust. Brand loyalty appears to play a role in generating brand value by providing a guarantee or promise to replace engine parts or the whole automobile when a specific type of oil is used. Building brand loyalty through the B2B helps to influence brand performance and quality perception. Assuring car owners of replacing engines or the whole car drives the OEM to make a brand choice and pull customers. Figure 6.1 outlines the key factors that describe the brand values of motor oil brands.

Thus, motor oil brands target the end consumer to draw a point of differentiation and influence purchase. Branding strategies are used in the retail to influence purchase decision at the point of purchase. Brand identity and brand loyalty appear to drive brand value in the consumer market. Brand identity is enhanced through the use of visual strategies to create distinction through merchandising activities and packaging with the use of different colours and user-friendly designs. To draw customer attention, promotions are used through several efforts to influence brand image. Demand pull is generated by using B2C adverts and PR appeals combined with POS materials and artefacts. In addition, customer loyalty is enhanced through the use of mobile technology by allowing customers to use mobile technology to help identify the type of oil. Mobile marketing offers customers an intangible service through the

use of personal mobile devices connecting the brand with the manufacturer for oil information. These modern ways to identify the grade of oil builds trust between the end user and the brands, as well as create points of differentiation while building purchase confidence. To further build customer loyalty incentives such as coupons are offered to loyal customers, while driving customers to the stores. These support services connect with end users to offer convenience and value to customers through the online channel, mobile technology to influence brand value.

Interestingly, contrary to van Riel et al. (2005), the emerged model sheds light on a deliberate targeting the customer by building brand association. The hybrid nature of motor oil allows generating demand pull by urging car owners to make brand choice. Motor oil brands appear to build association through sponsorship of various sporting events to create top of mind awareness. Similarly, co-branding strategies through endorsement by famous sporting personalities and luxury brands were used to evoke brand association. This effort to generate brand value through association appears to be relevant in both markets. Although awareness is generated through sponsorship, this study uncovers the importance of partnership between the company and the brand ambassador. Previous research has failed to highlight this importance of the carefully nurtured B2B relationship aspects of sponsorship. Moreover, the model highlights the importance of price to brand choice across the two markets. Overall, the model reveals that, rather than appearing as a corporate brand, motor oil is presented as a product brand by highlighting the product attributes to influence buyer perception.

Each of these branding strategies provides value for potential B2B and B2C market in a variety of different ways. For low involvement motor oil brands, inter-firm relationships appear to gain more prominence. However, a considerable effort is given to consumer branding attributes to generate awareness and interest of what would have been an uninteresting product with no purchase influence.

6.2.4.2 Contribution to Previous Theory

Review of industrial branding literature reveals models on B2B branding mostly focus on understanding or building brand equity by transferring branding knowledge in B2C of Aaker (1991) and Keller's (1993) brand equity to B2B branding context. Consistent with Seyedghorbana et al. (2016), this has limited model advancement in industrial branding. To date, few models are available to assist academics and marketers identify and explain the industrial branding. Rather, most studies develop conceptual models which are validated

through quantitative and qualitative approaches (Mudambi et al. 1997; van Riel et al. 2005). The concept of brand equity rests on awareness of the brand with the unique and strong association in the memory of the customer (Keller, 1993). Instead of advancing previous models, this study advances industrial branding by gaining empirical insights in new settings and different conditions to generate a new model (Whetten, 1989).

Rather than focus on individuals' perceptions to build brand equity as suggested in Aaker (1991) and Keller's (1993) model, in which their models focus on consumer buyer perceptions to measuring brand equity. This contrasts with the current study where the model explains branding of a business brand from the supply chain perspective. Thus, this study found brand building through a dual approach. The first and most important are through initiating awareness and associations through account managers and effective brand distribution. Secondly, by focusing on the brands product attributes, targeting the end user.

To this end, van Riel et al. (2005) proposed a model to measure brand equity of industrial products. The model differentiates between product and corporate brands on marketing mix dimensions to re-purchase and loyalty intentions. The model places performance components introduced by Mudambi et al. (1997) by focusing on branding from the supply chain perspective, addressing both the industrial buyer and the end customer. As a result, the model they developed is buyer based; hence, it excludes aspects where the branding decisions are from the brand representatives. In their model, brand loyalty is an outcome, rather than a dimension of brand equity. However, to contrast their view that industrial brands are rarely used to evoke associations the model for this study suggests brand associations are used to evoke brand attributes and influence brand perception in the business and consumer market.

Furthermore, rather than distinguish the product and corporate brand through buyers perception of performance used by van Riel and his friends, the findings of this study, through the supply chain, identified no brand distinction between a product or corporate brand. Consequently, their model indicates service to be important to industrial buyers. This confirms the findings of this study; however, due to the hybrid nature of motor oil brands, services coupled with brand information extend to the end user at the point of purchase, offering value to both the business buyer and the end customer. In contrast to their model, the model of the present study made no reference to personnel input as a proxy for branding.

Likewise, Kim and Hyun (2011) adopted Aaker (1996) and Yoo and Donthu's (2001) brand equity dimensions to model IT software. Their model considers three dimensions of business markets (i.e. after sales service, personal selling and corporate image) through three brand equity dimensions (brand loyalty, perceived quality and brand awareness through associations). The model proposes that marketing-mix efforts influence the value of brand equity. They find that corporate image impacts perceived quality directly, contributing to channel performance, promotion, channel performance and after-sales services. They further found after-sales service has a stronger impact on perceived quality while having less significance to brand awareness and brand loyalty. Brand awareness with associations significantly influences brand equity contributing to overall brand equity than perceived quality and brand loyalty. In contrast, the model for this study looked at branding from the supply chain perspective, rather than testing aspects of brand equity through marketing mix and market performance. Furthermore, the model for this study suggested associations are built through brand image rather than the corporate image while after sales services is aimed at influencing brand loyalty.

Baldauf et al. (2003) examined the relationship between brand equity dimensions with their significances in a tile reseller market. Their model shows five dimensions of brand equity (i.e. brand awareness, brand loyalty, perceived quality, and purchase intention and brand value perceptions of the end users) as indicators of brand performance. While acknowledging branding strategies other than brand equity influences brand performance, highlighting-pricing, expenses and competition. They do not highlight other key factors driving brand performance like ordering and reordering, strategic alliances and association. Cretu and Brodie (2007) studied the relationship between of brand equity dimensions and their antecedents. They proposed a model of different dimensions of brand equity including, brand image, product and service quality, customer loyalty and customer value. They posited that brand image has more influence on customer's perceived quality, whereas, the corporate image has more influence on customer's value and loyalty perceptions.

The model further shows that corporate image is an important precursor of brand equity dimension, while to influence customer loyalty, product and service quality coupled with price and cost, serve as precursors through customer value. Jensen and Klastrup (2008) studied the relationship of a customer brand as a dimension of brand equity and its antecedents. Their results showed that product quality, price, service quality, credibility, trust,

promise and differentiation influence customer-brand relationship. The model indicates brand promise and service quality have little significance. Further, the model points to the significance of emotional appeals in B2B branding which concurs with findings of the present study that non-rational appeals are used in B2B branding. Their study examined relationships between customer brand; however, the model for the current study explores the wider branding perspective of an industrial brand in the B2B market.

By using different sub-dimensions with their importance at different stages, Kuhn et al. (2008) developed a revised B2B brand equity model from Keller's CBBE model. The dimensions that emerged were similar to Keller's framework; however, they play different importance at different stages of the brand equity process. This study found several similar concepts to Kuhn et al. (2008) whose model in the area of salience of manufacturer brand used to create brand identity, to the pyramid pinnacle representing partnership solutions. Although these concepts are identified in the current study, they seem to overlap each other. Rather, the partnership is an integral part of the brand building with some partnerships in industrial market commencing prior to brand awareness. Although Kuhn and his friends' model suggest that product slogans lack relevance to B2B buyers, this study finds slogans are used to enhance brand identity and emphasise functional attributes. In contrast, this study also finds emotions are built around the brand, perhaps due to its low involvement nature. This then influences customer behaviour and influence decision makers at the buying centre. Also, consistent with the model of this study, company representatives were found to be important in building strong brands. However, this study finds these company representatives (i.e. key account managers being part of relationship marketing) represented the brand at every level, even at the point of purchase.

Similarly, Sinčić Ćorić and Jelić (2015) applied Keller's brand equity model in the B2B chemical market. Consistent with Kuhn et al.'s (2008) revised model, they sought to rearrange the dimensions to fit the B2B market. Their findings indicated slogans are irrelevant to business customers. However, the findings of this study suggest that slogans are an important attribute in pulling the end customer and influence confidence at the decision-making unit. The model for this study also agrees with their findings that long-term relationships between manufacturers and buyers are the most important branding strategy. Kuhn's model, however, failed to identify that not only sales persons influence the relationship, but in some relationships, top marketing/brand managers play a key role in

establishing the relationship which is then maintained/enhanced through account managers. Also, Kuhn's model points to product quality and non-personal marketing tools are less important to the salesperson. The model for this study partly agrees with their findings. However, rather than the sales person been the most important, inter-firm relationships in which several actors in the marketing department partake is more important.

Moreover, Martensen and Gronholdt (2004) proposed a model on customer-based brand equity. The model developed six concepts connected to rational and emotional aspects in relation to customer brand relationship used as a proxy for brand equity. The model shows that rational evaluations are determined by product, service quality and price, while emotional evaluations are determined by differentiation, promise and trust/credibility. The intention was that the proposed model will be applicable to all types of brands and industries. The model for this study proposes that both rational and emotional appeals rather than evaluations are used around the branding strategy. Tangible and intangible brand attributes are used to generate awareness and target both the business customer and the final consumer.

In the same vein, Jensen and Klastrup (2008) tested the applicability of the customer-based brand equity model developed by Martensen and Gronholdt (2004) in an industrial setting. Although the intention of the model was to be applicable to all brands and industries, however, Jensen and Klastrup (2008) found it was not possible to validate it in B2B settings. Jensen and Klastrup (2008) modified this model with data collected from customers of an OEM and consulting engineers where product quality, differentiation and trust/credibility influences rational evaluation. In contrast to their findings, this study found the price as an indicator of value and determinant of segmentation. Jensen and Klastrup's model also found that service quality and promise have no impact on B2B brands. However, the model for this study suggests support services influence brand preference across the supply chain. This study also contrasts their findings in the brand promise of quality and satisfaction plays an important role in brand performance. Consequently, rather than develop branding understanding from the consumer point of view, the model for this study is emerged through the supply chain, by considering strategies adopted by manufacturers and their representatives (i.e. partners) use to generate awareness, differentiation and consumer loyalty.

Previous models on industrial branding seem to follow the cognitive psychology view by extending industrial branding to drive attribute perception through brand equity from the consumer viewpoint. Other models follow the information economics view that assume a

strong brand serves as a credible signal for quality to buyers while generating price premiums. The literature on industrial branding reveals most studies focus on industrial brand equity by transferring branding knowledge in the B2C to B2B, examining the applicability of models proposed by Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) in different B2B contexts. Consistent with Baldauf et al. (2003), the findings of this study suggest that brand equity, as important as it is, is not the sole factor influencing B2B branding. As identified by other researchers, Leek and Christodoulides (2011) and Seyedghorbana et al. (2016) this limits the advancement of theory and models for industrial branding. Consistent with Jensen and Klastrup (2008), this study advances understanding of industrial branding by conceptualising a branding model of an industrial brand (i.e. branded motor oil products) that functions in the B2B and B2C markets.

Table 6.3: Modelling studies in industrial branding

Study	Product	Study focus	Model
van Riel et al. (2005)	Specialty chemicals	Proposes and empirically validates brand equity for industrial products through a theoretical approach	The model differentiates between product and corporate brand equity. Employ buyer perceived performance on marketing mix dimensions as antecedents of brand equity. Relates them to loyalty and repurchase intentions
Kim and Hyun (2010)	IT software sector	Adapt Aaker (1996) and Yoo and Donthu (2001) model to examine relationships between 3 brand equity dimensions, market performance, corporate image and marketing mix efforts	The overall value of brand equity positively (a proxy of market performance) influence marketing-mix efforts
Kuhn et al. (2008)	Electronic tracking systems	Extend Keller's CBBE model on B2B brand equity model	Dimensions emerged were similar to Keller's model. They, however, play different importance at the stages of the brand equity
Jensen and Klastrup (2008)	OEM customers and consulting engineers	Tested the applicability of CBBE model advanced by Martensen and Gronholdt (2004).	Rational evaluation is influenced by product quality, trust/credibility and differentiation
Sinčić Ćorića and Jelić (2015)	Chemical products	Look at the applicability of Keller's brand equity model in a specific market and industry	To meet the B2B marketing philosophy, a model was rearranged
Baldauf et al. (2003)	Resellers of tiles	Investigates the relationship between dimensions of brand equity in tile reseller market	Market predictors and profitability performance are significant to the five dimensions of brand equity (perceived quality, brand loyalty, end user brand value perception, brand awareness and purchase intention)
Cretu and Brodie (2007)	Hair salon shampoo	Examine differences in buying decision that influence company reputation and brand image on customers' perceptions of customer loyalty and value, product and service quality in a business market	Brand image influences customers' product and service quality perceptions. Company's reputation greatly influences customer loyalty and value loyalty perception

Jensen and Klastrup (2008)	Pump manufacturer	Conceptualise and validates B2B CBBE model. Examine antecedents of customer brand relationship between brand equity dimensions	The model based on rational and emotional brand evaluations
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Few studies on industrial branding focus on brand building through the supply chain. The present study conceptualises and develops a model to explain the branding strategies and relationships in the context of low involvement motor oil brands from a supply chain perspective. The model proposed three dimensions in which the brand has been promoted. First, it is promoted as a business brand in the business market (i.e. B2B). Second, it is promoted as a consumer brand in the retail (i.e. B2C), linking it to the end consumer. Third, it is promoted directly to the end user and members of the DMU through various means of communication. Overall, the model explains the branding strategy of an industrial brand that plays different roles in the market. The model further explains how the brand is promoted to the end customer from the various parts of the retail. To this end, the model further shows branding efforts to directly pull the end customer through several promotion strategies.

Branding efforts in this study have moved towards developing models to explaining how much leverage brands have with customers. The previous models drew customers' awareness of the brand features and associations, as well as indicate a cue for quality. Table 6.3 shows the previous studies of models on industrial branding. However, the model developed for this study explains the different branding strategies used by brand owners and their representatives to build brands using functional and emotional benefits to the consumer. Moreover, previous models present brands that function in a single market. However, the model for this present study highlights the hybrid nature of motor oil to function in the B2B and B2C markets. The model, therefore, shows efforts to create brand awareness by not only adopting B2B branding but the manufacturer's attempt to communicate directly with the end user in an effort to persuade the end user of the brand's positive attributes.

Finally, this study contributes to the industrial branding literature by providing a qualitative research which is different from the dominant quantitative approach. A large number of empirical studies on industrial branding conclude by explaining their findings from a deduced theory, often from the B2C perspective, in order to give their study a more generalised meaning to interpret findings. Qualitative studies offer the researcher an opportunity to analyse live data by looking for meaning to words and statements which represent feelings and arguments rather than going through figures and statistics. It also contrasts research that

allows what Glaser and Strauss' (1967) term 'logico-deductive theorising', meaning to fit, predict and explain the findings.

Although the grounded theory is widely used to understand industrial marketing (Gummesson, 2003) few studies have adopted this in B2B branding. Prior industrial branding studies had used the grounded theory to generate the idea of study findings (i.e. Keränen and Jalkala, 2013; Keränen and Jalkala, 2014). While these studies adopted the GT approach to generate theory, a large number of previous B2B branding studies rarely described the grounded theory technique, while some used the GT methods for analytical process rather than an approach. This study, therefore, contributes to the methodology by systematic generating theory on B2B branding through the qualitative data by using the grounded theory approach to serve as a guide to B2B branding. This is achieved by investigating the supply chain perspective to understand the different branding strategies. Rather than carry out a study and verify the facts, the grounded theory approach for this study generated an explanation of findings derived from the data.

6.2.5 The Agenda for Future Research

Through exploring motor oil branding strategies in two economies - Nigeria and the UK - and the gaps in the literature, it became apparent that more study was needed to allow further understanding of the various phenomena that emerged. With no prior studies on this product category, and with so many themes emerging from the data in different areas, this research, as is typical of exploratory studies, raised many questions. Given the dearth of studies on industrial branding and so little known on branding low involvement motor oil products the agenda for future research is put forward.

This study focused on gaining understanding of branding from the supply chain perspective seeking insight from brand managers. There is a need for future studies to focus more on consumer opinion towards different motor oil brands. The literature indicates the importance of the buyer-supplier relationship to brand success in the B2B market. An area worth investigating is the area of relationship building by interviewing brand managers to understand more on the different aspects adopted in the partnerships. Moreover, future research interest could focus on how sponsorship impacts brand performance and what role sponsorship play in influencing B2B relationships between sponsor brands and the sponsor

partners. It is also worthy to investigate the sponsorship importance in B2B branding relationships.

An area worth further investigating is the different branding strategies used by motor oil brands going into Nigeria. This is necessary as the government introduced an automotive policy which is yielding positive results by attracting top automotive brands into the country, rather than the few existing ones identified during the course of this study. Understanding the branding strategies employed with a possible country of origin effect will be an important contribution to industrial branding in emerging markets. Furthermore, technology offers brand managers leverage to distribute brands at a much faster rate than was previously done. Future studies should focus on technological contribution to reducing distance and distribution difficulties between developed and emerging economies.

Branding strategies seem to differ in different economies, perhaps due to the level of development, government and company involvement in brand building. Studying branding similarities and differences in such countries will allow better understanding of branding strategies from a cultural perspective. This study suggests that cultural factors play a key role in determining branding strategies. Therefore, consistent with Flambard-Ruaud (2005), cultural studies relating to this product category need to be carried out to understand the kinds of cultural elements that impact branding applications of this product category.

The data from this study indicate a focused branding approach to target the DIY customer in the retail segment of the UK market. Although the DIY practice does not seem to exist in the Nigerian culture, future studies may look cultural aspects through a cross-cultural study to understand the different cultural influences driving DIY customers in both developed and emerging economies. The results of this study indicate a growing trend of the DIY branding phenomena in the UK with a growing BIY in Nigeria. Further studies are suggested towards understanding this growing BIY phenomenon in Nigeria from the supply chain and end customer viewpoint.

Brand packaging is an area worth exploring, perhaps the choice to package brands in certain colours (especially grey and white) and the choice of using different size of packaging cans is an area worth exploring. Packaging is vital in attracting customer attention and influence purchase, especially at the point of purchase. The brand display helps to build brand equity to strengthen brand performance. Studies have shown the importance of packaging to brands in

the developed economies and other parts of the emerging economies. However, the study of the retail audit in Nigeria suggests a lack of focus by all the players of the supply chain towards this important branding attribute. Therefore, it is important for West African brands to look at packaging as they are displayed for customer attention.

Industrial branding and its importance are relatively well understood in the developed economies. Extracting the important parameters which affect industrial branding in developed and emerging economies will help local and global brand manufacturers and marketers identify the area of branding importance.

Further studies are needed to identify the values of the B2B buyer to allow meaningful communication of brand values and build a competitive edge. Understanding the structure of the decision-making unit with the criteria for evaluation in purchase decisions will help brand marketers to understand the decision-making process of business buyers in emerging economies. Understanding purchase situations will enable international and local marketers have a deeper knowledge of purchase characteristics and determine successful implementation of branding in emerging economies.

Considering the points mentioned above, the previous model on industrial branding tried to extend brand equity models proposed in the consumer market. Although the current findings and the model developed suggest some similarities with previous models, there is the need to understand how branding is done in different product categories rather than focus on narrow myopic views by adopting predetermined models.

The exploratory nature of this study raised many points that need further understanding. The model of low involvement motor oil branding highlights the importance of branding this product category from the supply chain perspective. Across the supply chain, attempt to differentiate and influence purchase decision with efforts to ensure brand superiority through product innovation was identified. Thus, consistent with Mudambi (2002), leading brands are not the only choice for buyers. Lower brands are using different strategies to gain market share. Future study should, therefore, focus on the branding strategies to create brand equity of different categories of motor oil brands.

This study captures detailed insights from the field regarding how industrial products in the area of branded motor oil products are conceptualised to offer branding insights by investigating real brands through the supply chain. The model developed in this study

explains the branding process of motor oil that can be used in the B2B and B2C markets. The model for this study shows how motor oil brands are developed, communicated and distributed across the supply chain. The proposed model, therefore, needs further validation in similar or multiple markets before judging if the model will be applicable to other product categories.

In line with the call for more research on industrial branding, this study aims to offer an understanding of motor oil branding from the supply chain perspective. The study suggests that branding is an important tool in differentiation, creating awareness and influencing purchase. The model allows brand managers to distinguish the various strategies to adopt in order to enhance brand image and performance and, more importantly, how the brand functions in both markets.

6.3 Evaluating the Study

The aim of this study was to understand motor oil branding from the supply chain perspective. Having completed the study, it is important to evaluate the quality of the research so that the results are more reliable and objective. The need to evaluate a research, especially qualitative research, was further supported by Corbin and Strauss (2008). They offered a list of criteria to evaluate the research quality for those who use the grounded theory methodology. However, they stressed that the criteria were not to be generalised, neither can they be valid for all studies that adopt their approach. This section, therefore, discusses the criteria for the quality measures as provided by Corbin and Strauss (2008), to evaluate the findings of this study. These evaluation criteria are shown as follows;

Fit. *“Do the findings fit the experience of both the professionals and the participants who took part in the study?” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008:305).*

This, according to Corbin and Strauss (2008), refers to asking whether the findings resonate with the experience of the professionals and participants of the study. For this present study, the answer is yes. In this study, the credibility of the research was assured by member checking, where the researcher solicited participants’ views of the findings and interpretations. The results were also sent to professionals in the field to offer feedback on the findings. Their feedback largely agreed with the study findings with specific suggestions on improving the theory development. For privacy and confidentiality, professional informants

specifically requested not to use their names in the draft, their feedback offered insight into better understanding and more focus to improve the study findings.

Another determinant of credibility to the study was allowing external auditors or rather, peers, to examine study (Creswell, 2012). Thus, part of the study findings were developed into two separate papers where each was presented differently at the 9th and 10th annual global brand conferences. As such, the reviewers and participants' comments were useful in giving the research more insight and further interpretation of data. Furthermore, the researcher carried out the following to enhance theoretical sensitivity; first, the literature: the readings on past research and supporting evidence in the literature; second, informants: a descriptive overview of the emergent phenomena was written and sent to the informants for verification Scott (2004); and third, professional experience: as mentioned earlier, the researcher used the background knowledge of practitioners in the field to establish more support for the findings (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

For instance, an online search to identify the relevant research centres that would enable contact with professionals was conducted. Three centres were selected from the online search: Centre for automotive management, Loughborough University, UK; Centre for Automotive Research (CAR), UK, Automotive Research Centre, University of Bradford, UK; and Brand Quality Manager at Chevrolet Europe GmbH, Luton, UK. A letter of request was sent to an individual at each centre; thereafter, a follow-up telephone call was made days after to serve as a reminder. Similarly, the findings were sent to selected respondents and other professionals and academics in the field (see Appendix 24). The few comments received from the feedback served as contributing insight into shaping the findings (see Appendix 25 for feedback sample). However, there was a lack of similar centres in Nigeria which allowed the contacts to be identified from the informants of the study. The researcher adopted the same procedure in Nigeria where findings were sent to selected individuals for self-correction and feedback.

Applicability. *“Do the findings offer new explanation or insights?” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008:305).*

The findings of this study contribute to the industrial branding literature by providing a number of findings that will be applied in developed and emerging economies. For example, understanding the branding strategies in the developed economies can be helpful to

improving or adopting certain branding aspects in emerging economies. Enhancing more emphasis on relationship marketing across the supply chain with direct contact with retailers can be enhanced in other less developed markets. Additionally, after collecting the Nigerian data the researcher was contacted by several motor oil brand managers to provide insight of the brand promotion nature in the UK market. Furthermore, as few empirical studies were conducted on motor oil branding, the findings offer new insight to branding in this product category. Additionally, the model developed is beneficial to academics and professionals in the field to help to explain how motor oil brands are promoted to offer value.

Concepts. *“Necessary for developing common understandings and for professionals to talk among themselves, findings would be organised around concepts/themes” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008:305).*

The branding strategies and the conceptual model emerged from field data which was further grouped and analysed into meaningful categories to represent the research phenomena. The findings offer an understanding of motor oil branding in the UK and Nigeria. This also led to the development of a model in order to explain the brand value of motor oil. It further explains the interplay between the key players in the automotive aftermarket.

The model that emerged shows the branding strategies of a hybrid motor oil brand that functions both in the business and consumer markets. The retail and distribution audit shows the inter-firm relationship (section 5.1.2.2), the nature of purchase (section 5.1.2.2), brand identity (section 5.1.2.3), distribution channels (section 5.1.2.4) and country of origin influence of brands (section 5.1.2.5). Furthermore, section 5.2 provides the differences in motor oil branding between Nigeria and the UK. Section 5.3 provides a conceptual framework to allow modelling motor oil branding. Chapter 6 provides the branding model which interprets these categories with the core category, brand value. Thus, the findings and the emerged conceptual model provide interpreted substance that is important for different industrial marketers rather than present unclear sets of data. This will be useful to academics in developing common understanding while improving branding practice.

Contextualisation of concepts. *“Without context, the reader of research cannot fully understand why events occurred, why certain meanings and not others are ascribed to events, or why experiences were one way and not another” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008: 306).*

Although this study looked at contemporary branding phenomena through data collected from the supply chain, it signified the principal context of this study. As explained in Section 4.2.3 and in order to provide context to the study, findings from the archival study were also conducted. This assisted in providing clearer understanding through a historical perspective to allow understanding the current branding phenomena. Chapter Three of this study highlights the differences in the market structure of the two countries. Hence, the findings from this comparative study highlighting branding in Nigeria and the UK which further show the difference in the market structure.

Logic. *“Is there a logical flow of ideas? Do the findings make sense? Or are there gaps or missing links in the logic that leave the reader confused and with a sense that something is not quite right” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008:306).*

The data from different sections of the automotive aftermarket enabled exploring the branding strategies to influence awareness and purchase of motor oil. To make sense of the findings, data from one source was used to explain unexplained happenings identified in another source. Hence, the ideas presented in the findings of this study represent a coherent idea. The industrial branding literature indicates a dearth of studies in the area of motor oil branding (as stated in Chapter One). This apparent literature gap influenced the study of how motor oil is branded. With the rise of global brands and globalisation, a comparative study is required to compare and contrast branding strategies in a developed and emerging economy. The analysis discusses the strategies that emerged from the different data sources in the two countries in accordance with the main categories of the grounded theory (as discussed in Chapter Five). Finally, the discussion of these findings to the main themes relating to the core category of motor oil brand value offered a clear picture of the different branding (as discussed in Chapter Six). This is how the logical flow of ideas was used in this study.

It is agreeable that qualitative researchers can use more than one research procedure to determine validity (Creswell, 2012). One popular method is triangulation where multiple data sources are corroborated to provide evidence to the study. Similarly, to determine transferability, the researcher corroborated different data sources ranging from participant observations, interviews and documents to shed light on the phenomenon.

Consistent with Creswell (2012), dependability for this study was ensured through checking transcripts with the field notes for the incident omission. Similarly, memo writing allowed

consistency in the coding process. One method to address dependability was the intercoder agreement, where another individual recorded data in the field and then was compared with main data (Lewis et al., 2007). As unilateral coding process was conducted, the researcher partially used another person who had a background in marketing to cross-check the codes by going to the different sites to collect data in order to achieve intercoder agreement. Coding was done by the researcher and the intercoder and made comparisons with themes identified from the main study. The majority of the themes came out to be in agreement with the main findings; it also offered more insight into areas to focus on. Similarly, as a result of feedback from a respondent in a car dealership (see Appendix 25), the researcher collected data from different brands, that did not appear during the main data collection. This further provided insight on the branding nature of motor oil (see Appendix 26).

Depth. *“It is the descriptive details that add the richness and variation and lift the findings out of the realm of the ordinary. It is the depth of substance that makes the difference between thin, uninteresting findings and findings that have the potential to make a difference in policy and practice” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008:306).*

Furthermore, rich, thick descriptions of the research settings allow the reader to transfer the information to other settings and determine transferability add to the population validity of the study. The findings of this study were significant in that they show the hybrid nature of motor oil brands rather than an industrial brand. This provided an in-depth understanding of the branding phenomena that emerged from the grounded theory study.

Creativity. *“Are the findings presented in a creative and innovative manner? Does the research say something new or put old ideas together in new ways” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008:306).*

As with all empirical studies, creativity in presenting the findings is used to further enhance the quality of this study. The findings contribute to the industrial branding literature by providing new insights into the branding phenomena of motor oil. As most models in industrial branding are extensions of consumer branding models, the model that emerged in this study (see Section 6.2.4), through corroborating different data sources to creatively arrive at the findings, contributes specifically to motor oil branding and industrial branding literature in general.

Sensitivity. *“Did the researcher demonstrate sensitivity to the participants and to the data? Were the questions driving the data collection arrived at through analysis or were concepts and questions generated before the data were collected” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008:306).*

As with all qualitative studies, the issue of sensitivity to avoid bias is the main criterion for ensuring research quality. Throughout the data collection and analysis process, the researcher attempted to avoid human bias as much as possible. For example, rather than have a set of questions to drive data collection, the questions used were derived as the data collection proceeded. Thus, to limit theoretical sensitivity theoretical sampling was used which allowed the analysis to drive the research. Furthermore, consistent with the views of Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Creswell (2012), the quality of data and sensitivity was enhanced through the use low inference descriptors like field notes in recording data, employing tape recording and transcribing the data in the participant observations and interviews in both countries. These recordings were manually transcribed and compared with the field notes to offer a thick description of the scene. Furthermore, the observation checklist and interview guide aided in ensuring consistency.

6.4 Ethical Considerations

Important ethical consideration in research consists of addressing unethical research practices that will avoid invasion of privacy and harming participants or use of deception. In line with the UK institutions of higher learning codes of conduct guidelines on ethical issues for researchers, an introductory letter was collected from the University of Bedfordshire, Research Graduate School, which introduced the researcher and the purpose of the study (see Appendix 6). This introductory letter was used in both the UK and the Nigerian field study. Informed consent was sought from informants prior to data collection and recording of the data. The informants were made to be aware of their rights and the choice to withdraw from the study whenever they need to.

Further to the introductory letter, the informants were informed of the study purpose and use of data in the follow-up telephone calls. There was no attempt to patronise, coerce or bribe the informants during the course of collecting data. Rather, the researcher convinced them that their response was important to the study findings and especially as it relates to the informants daily business they were more than willing to offer information. Due to financial constraints, it was not possible to send a summary report to all the informants; thus, the

informants were selected to answer and offer their views on the results. The informants were assured of privacy and confidentiality during the course of the study. Lastly, all documents used in the course of data collection and used in this study are solely in the custody of the researcher only.

In order to elicit meaning from a broad scope of data in the automotive aftermarket using the grounded theory view point, the next section discusses the different sources of data for this study.

6.5 Managerial/Pragmatic Implications

Industrial branding involves a different process of strategic brand development and implementation to add value and benefits of the brand to the customer. Consistent with previous studies Michell et al. (2001); Cretu and Brodie (2007); Leek and Christodoulides (2011), industrial branding is seen to convey benefits to various customers. This section focuses on the managerial and practical implications for motor oil branding.

Important attributes are used to improve brand value of motor oil in all segments of the supply chain. Technological developments of engines make branding ever more dynamic which necessitates effectiveness of branding practice of motor oil in multi-channel markets. This is particularly important for brand managers to realise the growing trend of engine development towards improving business alliances across the market.

Consistent with Ballantyne and Aitken (2007), the findings show brand manufacturers and marketing managers' use branding opportunities like explanatory brochures, media messages and distinct packaging to interaction forums in the form of trade shows to improve brand awareness and attain competitive advantage. Brand managers, especially in emerging economies, can use these marketing tools to build association and improve brand image.

This study uncovered the fact that there is growing significance and reliance on brand distribution in both markets. The increasing maturing of the market indicates more innovative distribution strategies for brand performance. To improve branding effectiveness, brand manufacturers adopt electronic resources to connect with key players in the supply chain. These innovative distribution strategies identified in the UK should also be seen as important in emerging economies like Nigeria. Similarly, as new communication technologies develop, brand managers implement new methods of communicating with existing and potential new

customers across the supply chain and connect directly with the end user, rather than relying on middlemen. This research highlighted areas to improve participation among key players of the motor oil business to aid relationship and brand performance. Realising the importance of these technologies across the supply chain helps in improving brand performance and image.

Brands channelled into the international markets without a clear understanding of the market behaviour, leaving local agents to decide the branding strategies. Marketers of global brands can gain insight of branding strategies and market behaviour of emerging economies while planning to cross borders to foreign countries. Understanding this behaviour is key to brand success in global markets. Similarly, the study offers stakeholders in emerging economies' local markets to adopt the branding strategies used in the major economies to generate awareness and boost sales.

As the government in Nigeria is reluctant to effectively engage with motor oil brands to improve its performance and with respondents complaining of such neglect from the government, this research assists governments to plan and formulate policies, especially in emerging economies in order to gain insight into motor oil branding strategies.

Manufacturers need to develop better information about brand choice leading to brand purchase. This will help in the better use of account management in the more matured markets and especially emerging markets, where little effort is put on the use of account managers in emphasising brand value.

Although different models exist to describe industrial branding, the lack of a model that describes branding an industrial brand that functions in the B2B and B2C branding does not exist. This gap in the literature enables the relevance and fit of this study to industrial branding. This study proposes that motor oil branding helps managers to improve their branding strategies and improve brand performance. Although the study focused on low involvement motor oil brands, the model may be applicable to other categories of industrial brands. Hence, the model will allow brand managers to direct their strategies more effectively towards brand differentiation to influence brand preference and generate sales. With the dearth of empirical models to explain and model motor oil branding, the model of this study explained and highlighted the different motor oil branding.

6.6 Study Limitations

Being a qualitative research, the study approach generally had its limitations. The small number of cases adopted, the single case and the inductive nature of the study raises concerns about the research reliability. Hence, it is highly anticipated to empirically test the proposed model. Furthermore, as inductive data analysis was chosen for this study, by using multi-methods, with grounded theory as the main approach, it is essential to recognise that the viewpoint of the researcher is reflected in the interpretations. Furthermore, this study focused on the branding differences in Nigeria and the UK. However, understanding the cultural perspective of the study needs to be given more attention. Studies on the cultural differences will influence how global brand marketers develop and promote brands in emerging economies.

Additionally, as the study focus is based on branded motor oil products by looking at the manufacturer and the automotive aftermarket in different market channels, it may not necessarily reflect meanings regarding other B2B brands that fall within the processing inputs, low involvement category like Sellotape. Moreover, the viewpoints of brand managers in the UK need to be further explored in order to uncover a deeper meaning to their branding approach. As there are more franchise dealers and assembly plants coming into Nigeria, exploring their point of view might offer further insight as to their choice of motor oil brands. Therefore, perhaps a qualitative and quantitative inquiry to offer a different viewpoint of the finding and test the proposed model by focusing on other low involvement brands would be welcomed. The intention of the study was for the advertising records to indicate the development of motor oil in both countries. However, the lack of sufficient records in Nigeria served as a limitation to gaining historical branding perspective. Consistent with the view of Brennan et al. (2014), and with motor oil been a hybrid brand, the study further raises the question of whether a single classification of products that function in both markets is possible, rather than the classification of industrial or consumer products.

6.7 Lessons Learnt During the Ph.D. Journey

The past three years has seen the researcher immersed in the Ph.D. study in the branding of motor oil across two contrasting economies. The notes below are some of the experiences the researcher learnt during the study journey.

At the early stage, during all the training and workshops organised by the research graduate school the researcher learnt to be more organised. This implies that the software the researcher may have used to help in collating, organising and annotating information to use during the research period. The first training was the use of RefWorks and Endnote to help in the organisation of references. Also, having identified the places to gather the initial data, the researcher contacted them to know if they have the advertising records and the procedures for collecting the data. Several telephone calls were made between the History of Advertising trust and the researcher. The visit to Advertising Archives was not so long, two days as it became clear that they had few adverts of Castrol. The other adverts were obtained through an online search in Google documents.

The researcher started the retail and distribution audit with the UK organisations by telephoning them first, in order to get permission to visit. On planning the visit, the initial thought was that getting respondents to accept the observation request was going to be difficult. Surprisingly, most of them were keen to allow the observation. It seems that the people around Bedfordshire had a connection with the university, in one way or the other and there was an obvious interest in discussing anything about motors. The most interest came from the independent retailers and mechanics that spent a lot of time discussing cars and their various aspects which were highly enlightening for the researcher. These conversations with respondents made the researcher gradually realise that an interest in cars, which was never there before, was developing.

The researcher had difficulty gaining access to Halfords, Luton, although initially the manager allowed permission to do the study, but having spent time in other research sites and on returning to the store, the manager was replaced. Upon another request for permission to collect data, the new manager said that permission had to be approved by their head office. Thereafter, several weeks were spent communicating with them until finally a letter was returned giving permission to do the study.

Data collection in Nigeria was not as straightforward as the researcher thought. This was mainly due to lack of records of business, either online or as a hard copy. Also, being part of the culture, the researcher had the advantage of having forehand knowledge of the culture yet looking at it from outside, still brought several surprises to the phenomena. For example, the strict distribution process of brands and the corruption that was involved in the process was a huge surprise. Similarly, the informants were not as keen to allow data gathering as those in

the UK. A lot of persuasion had to be carried out at some businesses before data gathering would be allowed. Also, even where a previous rapport had been established, respondents were not always willing to talk freely. There seemed to be uneasiness from the respondents to give information that may get into the hands of their competitors. Also prior to the Nigerian visit, it never occurred to the researcher the amount of competition involved in promoting the motor oil brand and the different consumer channels each brand strategically targets.

Hence, the Nigerian data collection was both challenging, as well as insightful, as it offered the researcher the chance to meet different brand managers and managers across the supply chain who offered useful insights into the way they promoted their brand. This immersion into the various sectors of the supply chain was hugely profound. The researcher admits that the study findings did not appear as a result of the analytical findings, but they co-emerged from the researcher's learning process through the course of the data collection.

The use of different analytic tools in the study enabled gaining wider insight on the various qualitative techniques. Historical analysis of advertising records allowed gaining analytic insight by taking a critical look at pictures of the adverts to understand meanings they portray to recording blurred points and finally coding the meanings to the message in the ad copies. The grounded theory offered the immersion into large data with a complex analytical approach. The process of analysis and pasting codes on the wall in the study room, fellow research students labelled the post as the 'wall climbing theory'. The different arguments and wide discussions on approach to the grounded theory from the Glaserian to Strauss and Charmaz, the constructivist approach offered a useful and interesting reading.

Having studied the broader part of branding in order to gain wide understanding without a focus on specific aspects, the findings allowed the researcher to delve further into the literature review with more focus on business branding. The number of research literature on the various aspects of the B2B market was overwhelming. However, studying the literature enabled more understanding and clearness on some aspects the researcher observed during the field study that seemed unnecessary where, in fact, they were strategically done to improve brand awareness. Instances such as why there were fewer adverts in the garage sector against the different promotions in the retail and why the focus on different areas to promote the brand (like sporting events) occurred.

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, the research objectives evolved at different stages. The initial research objectives allowed gaining further insight into doing a pilot study of Castrol, a matured UK brand, allowing a longitudinal archival study. Results from the pilot study revealed a gradual shift of promotion strategy from the business to the consumer market. Findings from the pilot study clearly show motor oil branding had been going on with huge success, in developed economies, at least. At this stage, due to the scope of the study, consumer behaviour appeared to be irrelevant. The study focus was aimed at understanding branding strategies of branded motor oil products through the supply chain, rather than consumer attitude towards the brand. In addition, the results showed that distribution plays an important role in brand success in the market. As previously highlighted in Chapter Five, during the retail and distribution audit, the researcher expected to find elements of consumer branding (i.e. promotions, co-branding, endorsement, call to action, brand equity, packaging and use of logo) dominated the supply chain. However, the results show a different branding strategy with inter-firm relationships and distribution playing a more prominent role across the supply chain than the consumer branding strategies.

On realising the study's dearth on low involvement motor oil products and with so little known about that product category, the research objectives were further evolved from three to five, to include distribution channels and model development. As the results of the pilot study suggest, distribution is an important factor of brand success; hence, it warrants the inclusion of understanding the key distribution channels. However, further reading, especially in the B2C literature, indicates that distribution does not fit into the overall picture of specific objectives to relate with the general objective. Having completed the data analysis and looked at the results more closely, the researcher related the results with the objectives and refined the objectives, removing the distribution channels and consumer behaviour where three objectives emerged rather than five.

Table 6.4: Modification of research objectives

Stages	Research objectives modification
First	To further our understanding of the process of the branding of low involvement products To gain new insights into consumer behaviour in emerging economies To identify the key parameters in the branding of business to business products and set the agenda for future research
Second	To identify aspects of B2B branding with an emphasis on motor oil To further our understanding of the key distribution channels To gain new insights into consumer behaviour in emerging economies To identify the key parameters in the branding of business to business products and set the agenda for future research To develop a model of branding in B2B within the context of motor oil
Third	To further understand the process of the branding of low involvement products in developed and developing economies To identify the key parameters of business to business branding and to set further agenda for future research To develop a model of branding in B2B within the context of motor oil
Fourth	To further the understanding of branding low involvement motor oil products To identify the key parameters of motor oil branding To identify the difference in motor oil branding between Nigeria and the UK To develop a conceptual framework to explain and model branding of motor oil To set the agenda for future research

With further literature review and comparing results of the study for fit, it became clear that more understanding of branding strategies in the two economies needs to be offered. This is further included in the study objectives. In addition, the objectives seem to have a general focus on low involvement products, rather than specific focus on motor oil brands. This is further refined to include low involvement motor oil products in general where branding differences in the two economies are specified. Table 6 shows the modification stages of the research objectives. This alternating process of looking for suitable objectives to fit objectives of this study offered to think of different areas within the topic to allow refinement and logic conclusion of the study objectives. The final objectives that emerged through the thesis journey represent the objectives of the study.

Academic conference. The two conferences that the researcher attended, offered a different perspective to the academic arena. The first conference, 9th Global Branding Conference, was an eye opener, giving the researcher the opportunity to interact and network with different

researchers in the field of branding. The excitement was high because perusing through the list of presenters, several well-known names that the researcher referenced came up. Presenting the paper thus became a nervous process, especially due to the thought of facing these experienced academics. On the contrary, what the researcher thought was going to be a 'grilling process' turned out to be a friendly engagement with useful advice. To the researcher's surprise, the conference was a great place to network with fellow presenters and get wonderful feedback in diverse areas of branding. A group was formed in WhatsApp mobile network called, 'Selfie Lovers' where pictures of members are posted during and after the conference.

After the first conference, the researcher started to look forward to the 10th Global Branding Conference, in Turku, Finland, which turned out to be as good as the previous one. The previous conference was a joint presentation by the researcher and the supervisor. However, this time around the researcher presented the paper alone, which was quite a challenge, especially with the thought of going to speak in front of a large crowd. It was, however, a good experience and useful feedback were given regarding counterfeiting in other emerging economies. Similar to the previous year's conference the WhatsApp mobile network was formed which was termed 'Turku Lovers'. Essentially, the conferences, with delegates from all over the world and topics on a wide range in the field of branding, gave the researcher the opportunity to get valuable feedback in the research area.

Overall, when things got too complicated and it became difficult to figure out how to go about solving problems, the researcher always took a break. The researcher found that, whenever a topic became too tough, leaving it for another topic or taking a break from studying that day was the best solution. This refreshed the researcher's thinking, while, at the same time, allowed space to think of other possible ways of approaching the area. Finally, although the study had many challenges, they only served to encourage the researcher to persevere to complete the thesis. Hence, persistence and perseverance are key to doing this long, challenging yet fulfilling study.

6.8 Conclusion

To further understand industrial branding process of low involvement motor oil brands, the study addressed several areas of the downstream market. The study contributes to knowledge in this field. Consequently, the cross-cultural nature of the study will enable researchers and

practitioners in Nigeria and other emerging economies to incorporate and build on these findings for better understanding and improve brand performance. Outwardly, motor oil appears a B2C brand. However, the study outcome indicates that it is indeed a hybrid brand employing several carefully nurtured, coordinated branding practices to generate demand in both the business and consumer markets. The model developed in this study presents the interplay between different brands in the downstream market of the two economies to suggest the evolution of motor oil from a B2B brand to a hybrid brand, hence categorising the brand behaviour into the B2B and B2C with different strategies to generate awareness and demand.

The significance of this study is that not only does it increase academic knowledge specifically to business branding and the broader branding field, but also makes a significant contribution to understanding brand behaviour across different cultural perspectives through studying low involvement brands. Despite the limitations of this study, such as the use of a single case to gain historical understanding, the lack of views of UK brand managers, the research contributes to the broader understanding of industrial branding in various contexts. This research sets the stage for future empirical studies towards understanding branding of low involvement brands.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: HAT Copyright declaration

The History of Advertising Trust

Preserving the past. Documenting the present. Inspiring the future.

COPYRIGHT DECLARATION FOR A COPY OF WHOLE OR PART OF AN UNPUBLISHED OR PUBLISHED WORK

DECLARATION

I declare that I have received copies of the items on the attached list required by me for the purposes of research and private study: **80 photocopies of Castrol and Duckham's press advertising, 1900-1980s**

I declare that

1. I have not previously been provided with a copy of the same material by any other library, museum, archive or private collection;
2. I will not use the copy except for non-commercial purposes or private study/research and will not supply a copy of it to any other person or organisation.
3. To the best of my knowledge no other person with whom I work or study has made or intends to make, at about the same time as this request, a request for substantially the same material for substantially the same purpose.
4. If any of the copied items are required for future publication and/or for commercial purposes a separate request will be made in writing to The History of Advertising Trust itemising the material involved. If such an application is made
 - a) I understand that before permission can be granted by HAT for the publication or commercial use of the material that I have copied, the copyright situation has to be clarified.
 - b) I also understand that where ownership of deposited material is not held by HAT, permission for usage may need to be sought from the owner. I understand that in cases where the copyright owner is an existing HAT client, HAT will initially liaise with the owner directly concerning the application. Following this, the applicant will be advised of the correct course of action to pursue.
 - c) In all cases I will be responsible for obtaining copyright and reproduction permission myself.
5. I understand that if this declaration is false in a material particular, the copy/copies I have received and signed for will be infringing copy/copies and I shall be liable for infringement of copyright.

Name ...**Jallo Shehu**.....

Address.....**No 1, Brooke Court, Brook Street**.....

.....**Luton**.....**Post Code.LU3 1DT**.....

Signature..........Date.....**08/07/12**.....

The signature must be the personal signature of the person making the request. A stamped or typewritten signature of an agent is not acceptable.

Note: While all reasonable care shall be taken by HAT to ensure that copyright or moral rights in the materials are not infringed, HAT shall not be held responsible for any infringement of copyright or moral rights.

The History of Advertising Trust,
12 Raveningham Centre Raveningham, NORWICH, NR14 6NU
Tel: 01508 548623 Fax: 01508 548478 e-mail: enquiries@hatads.org web site: www.hatads.org.uk

Appendix 2: Sample of advert copies

THE FIRST MOTOR RACE MEETING EVER HELD IN AUSTRALIA
 results in yet another striking demonstration of the remarkable efficiency of
WAKEFIELD
'Castrol' Regd.
MOTOR OIL,
USERS OF WHICH GAINED
13 OUT OF 14
 PLACES IN THE EPOCH-MAKING EVENT, affording excellent proof that 'Castrol' IS THE OIL FOR ALL TEMPERATURES.

C. C. WAKEFIELD & CO.,
 Wakefield House, Cheapside,
 LONDON, E.C.

Aero and Marine Exhibition, OLYMPIA.

Stand No. **99**

THE AUTOMOBILE, OCTOBER 30, 1933

More World records broken on
CASTROL

HERO TARAUM driving his TARAUM "Ewin boom" car has broken 6 International 500 c.c. class records at Montlhéry (13-16. 10. 53).

Castrol
 THE MASTERPIECE IN OILS

847
 PRACTICAL MOTORIST AND MOTOR CYCLIST
 March, 1959

Don't take chances
 when you buy oil

CASTROL
 always ask for
 by name!

Have you ever seen a car that's
 green with oil? You want
 that is why you should
 ask for Castrol by name,
 ask on the forecourt
 and in the service bay.

Source: History of Advertising Trust

Appendix 3.1: Advert copy recording instrument

1. Company name advertising product
(Fill in).....
2. Date (month, day, and year)
3. Place of the advertisement
 - U.K
 - Other
4. Type of Publication
(Fill in).....
5. Number of times in overall sample
6. Type of writing
(Fill in).....
7. Size of the advertisement
 - full page
 - half page
 - quarter page
 - other
8. Call to action
(Fill in).....
9. Co-branding
(Fill in).....
10. Words used
(Fill in).....
11. Intended audience
 - B2B
 - B2C
 - Other
12. Celebrity endorsement
(Fill in).....
13. Mission statement
(Fill in).....
14. Slogan
(Fill in).....
15. Packaging
(Fill in).....

Appendix 3.2: Analysis of Castrol Adverts

1. Author/Brand name: Wakefield Castrol XXL
2. Date: June 11,1930
3. Place: U.K
4. Type of publication: Punch Newspaper Advert.
5. Type of writing: Record breaking event.
6. Achievement: Miss Amy Johnson's amazing solo flight from England to Australia in 20 days.
7. Co- branding: Wakefield Castrol and D.H. Gipsy Moth.
8. Words: 76.
9. Intended Audience: Aircraft manufacturers, engineers.
10. Image size: Full page/ single dominant image with little text.
11. Purpose: Cultivating brand identity.

A punch or London Charivari Magazine advertisement dated June 11, 1930. It's a statement announcing a record breaking event, a solo flight by Amy Johnson's from England to Australia in 20 days using a Gipsy Moth with Wakefield Castrol as the Lubricant. The advert reached out to air manufacturers, engineers and buyers. The adverts signified the strength and reliability of Castrol lubricant, creating assurance in the minds of the target customers.

1. Author/ Brand name: Wakefield Castrol motor oil.
2. Date: June 6, 1932.
3. Place: U.K
4. Type of publication: Magazine advert (Punch or the London Charivari).
5. Type of writing: Calligraphy.
6. Type of image: Words only (Unique selling proposition) symbolising quality of the brand.
7. Call to action: Castrol oil is obtainable at all garages.
8. Mission Statement: Quality is the best policy.
9. Celebrity endorsement: His Majesty the King of England and HRH the Prince of Wales.
10. Image size: Full page, no image, a lot of text.
11. Slogan: Cheap oil is false economy.
12. Words: 99

A punch or London Charivari humour magazine advert published on July 6, 1932. The brand name Castrol was written in calligraphy while the Wakefield and motor oil were written in italic form. No brand picture just the brand name emphasising it is better to buy Castrol than to buy cheaper brands that will damage the engine. The advert made emphasis on brand quality and royal endorsement by the King and Prince of Wales. It stresses national pride by emphasising on buying all British firm. Customers were urged to buy the brand in garages.

Appendix 4: The Spread sheet

S/N	Brand name	Date	Place	Publication	Logo	Achievement	Co-branding	Words	Intended audience	Image size	Oil change (garage or DIY)	Packaging	USP	Slogan	Call to action	Celebrity Endorsement	Remarks
1.	Wakefield Castrol M. Oil	1928	India	Daily newspaper (The time of India)	Calligraphy	Land speed record breaking event	Wakefield Castrol and Rolls Royce.	65	B2C	Full page		Metal tin				His Majesty the King/over 250 leading motor manufac.	
2.	Wakefield Castrol M. Oil	Aug. 18, 1926	U.K	Magazine advert (Punch, or The London Charivari)	Italic			85 no picture	B2C	Quarter page	On sale in sealed tins or branded cabinets at garages.		Universally recognised as the standard by which others are judged			Rolls-Royce and over 200 leading manufacturers	Call for motorist to go to garages
3.	Wakefield Castrol gear oil	1920	U.K		Calligraphy					Full page		Metal tin					Metal tins were used to package the brand
4.	Wakefield Castrol XXL	June, 11, 1930	U.K	Punch or the London Charivari. (magazine advert)		Miss Johnson amazing solo flight from England to Australia in 20 days	Castrol and DH Gipsy Moth	76	B2B.	Full page image of celebrity.							A British weekly magazine of humour. Using cartoon to illustrate the story.
5.	Wakefield Castrol motor oil.	June 6, 1932	U.K	Punch or the London Charivari. (magazine advert)	Calligraphy.			99	B2C	Full page text, no image			It's cheaper to buy W. Castrol than to pay for repairs	Cheap oil is cheap economy	Castrol is obtainable in all garages.	His majesty the King of England and HRH the Prince of Wales	A British weekly magazine of humour. Using cartoon to illustrate the story.

Appendix 5: Halfords letter for acceptance to collect data

Shehu Jallo <shehumjallo@gmail.com>

10/2/13 ☆



to louise.robinson ▾

Dear Louise,

2nd October, 2013

I am a student in the University of Bedfordshire doing a Phd research on branding of motor oil. Part of the study entails looking at retail stores where i will be observing the shelving, brands on display and distribution structure.

As the University campus is based in Luton i visited the nearest Halfords store which is based in Gypsy road, Luton, but unfortunately they said i should refer to the main office for permission.

Based on the above i write to seek your kind permission to allow me conduct observation which is strictly on the above mentioned areas. You have my assurance that the data collected will be strictly for research purpose only.

Thank you in anticipation of you kind and favourable response.

Kind regards.

S. Jallo.
University of Bedfordshire,
Luton.

Louise.Robinson@halfords.co.uk

10/8/13 ☆



to me ▾

Hi Shehu,

This E mails confirms that you have permission from the Halford's Support Centre to carry out your study in the Luton store.

Many thanks

Lou

Louise Robinson
Product Manager - Car Maintenance
Holiday Notice - 21st - 30th September
Tel 01527 513404
Fax 01527 513789

Appendix 6: Letter of Introduction



Research Graduate School
University Square Luton
Bedfordshire LU1 3JU
United Kingdom
research@beds.ac.uk
www.beds.ac.uk

18th June 2013

Name: Mr Shehu Mohammed Jallo

Nationality: Nigerian

To Whom It May Concern

Dear Sir or Madam,

Mr Shehu Mohammed Jallo

Nationality:	Nigerian	Date of Birth:	[REDACTED]
Qualification Aim:	PhD	Student Ref:	1034759
Course type:	Postgraduate research	JACS Code:	N500
Route of Study:	Adult Student	Passport number:	A01400013
Start Date:	30 th January 2012	End Date:	29 th July 2015
Mode of study:	Full time	Campus:	Luton
Director of Studies:	Mr Robin Croft		

Mr Shehu Mohammed Jallo is currently a student enrolled on an MPhil/PhD degree in the Business and Management Institute here at the University of Bedfordshire.

The subject of his research is *(A cross cultural comparison of the branding of motor oil, Nigeria and the UK downstream oil products).*

Mr Shehu Mohammed Jallo is seeking to leave the UK in the autumn of 2013 to go to Nigeria for data collection. During this time he will visit several government agencies/companies in order to gather the require information, references and conduct interviews that will support his study.

Yours Faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Rayan".

Rayan White
Assistant Research Administrator
University of Bedfordshire
rgsoffice@beds.ac.uk

University of
Bedfordshire
Research
Graduate
School



Registered Office
University Square Luton
Bedfordshire LU1 3JU
England

Vice Chancellor
Bill Rammell

Appendix 7: Lists of data collection sites in the UK

Research site	Location	Data collection date	Sector
Luton Autofactors and accessories	Dunstable road, Luton	19/6/2013	Motor factors
No.1 Car parts Ltd	Dunstable road, Luton	19/6/2013	Motor factors
GSF car parts	Thistle road, Luton	21/6/2013	Motor factors
R&R Autos	Hastings street, Luton	21/6/2013	Motor factors
Partco Auto parts Ltd	Cosgrove Way, Luton	23/6/2013	Motor factors
Euro car parts	Cosgrove Way, Luton	25/6/2013	Motor factors
Parts line UK Ltd	Leagrave road, Luton	25/6/2013	Motor factors
Bennetts car parts	Hill rise, Leagrave, Luton	27/6/2013	Motor factors
Esso petrol station	Dunstable road, Luton	2/7/2013	Service station
Murco Petrol station	Dunstable road, Luton	02/7/2013	Service station
BP Kingsway service station	Kingsway road, Luton	5/7/2013	Service station
Gulf	Leagrave road, Luton	11/7/2013	Service station
Leagrave Service Station	Leagrave Rd, Luton	11/7/2013	Service station
Shell	Stopsley	17/7/2013	Service station
Night & Day	Hitchin Rd, Luton	19/7/2013	Service Station
Sainsbury's Filling Stations	Quantock Rise, Luton	21/7/2013	Service Station
Mount Pleasant Service Station	Mount Pleasant Rd, Luton	22/7/2013	Service Station
Texaco Service Station	Sundon Park Road, Luton	22/7/2013	Service Station
Flamstead Filling Station	London Rd, St. Albans	26/7/2013	Service Station
Total Service Station	7 The Green, Dunstable	28/7/2013	Service Station
GLF Motor service	Strathmore Avenue, Luton	8/8/2013	Independent Garages
Manor Part Motors	Park Street road, Luton	8/8/2013	Independent Garages
Luton MOT & Service Centre	35 Hitching road, Luton	10/8/2013	Independent Garages
Bosch car service	Union street, Luton	12/8/2013	Independent Garages
Gav's Autos	Latimer road, Luton	12/8/2013	Independent Garages
DANI Motors	Chase Street, Luton	15/8/2013	Independent Garages

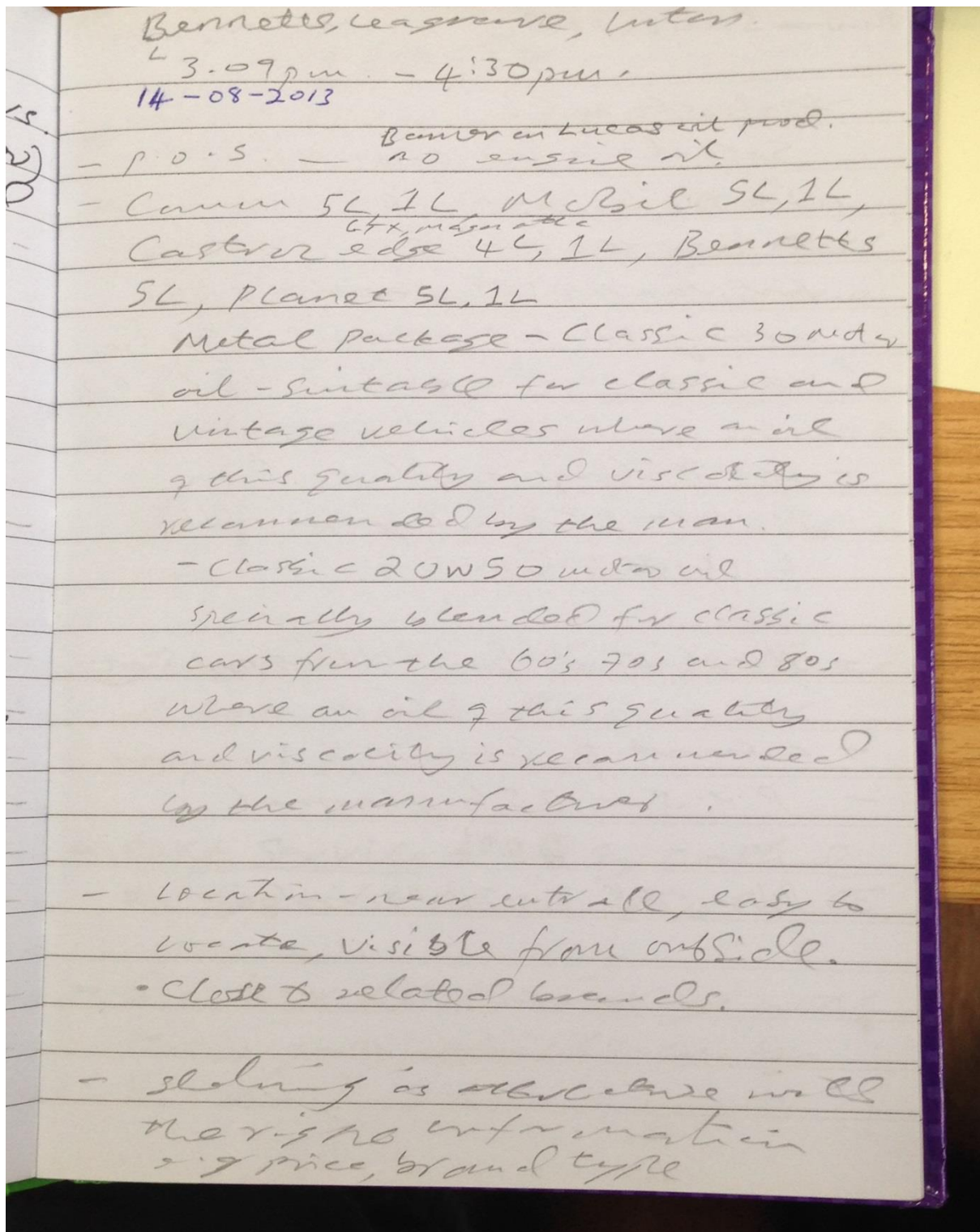
Has limited, Harpenden Auto services	Holy Street, Luton	17/8/2013	Independent Garages
A&K Tyre service and mechanic work	Newtown Road, Luton	18/8/2013	Independent Garages
H&H Motor repairs	Newtown Road, Luton	20/8/2013	Independent Garages
Eaton Green Motors	Newtown Road, Luton	20/8/2013	Independent Garages
SMC fast-fit centre Ltd	Leagrave road, Luton	23/8/2013	Independent Garages
Parkway garage Ltd	Parkway, Luton	25/8/2013	Independent Garage
Audi Hitchin	Nightingale road, Hitchin	3/9/2013	Car Dealers
Luton Citroen centre	Grove road/Markyate road	5/9/2013	Car Dealers
Vauxhall Motorbodies	Kimpton road, Luton	9/9/2013	Car Dealers
Steven Eagell Toyot ltd	Latimer road, Luton	09/9/2013	Car Dealers
Chevrolet UK Ltd	Osborn road, Luton	10/9/2013	Car Dealers
Stratstone Jaguar	Castle street, Luton	10/9/2013	Car Dealers
Specialist cars Ltd	Leagrave road	11/9/2013	Car Dealers
Grovebury Cars	Dunstable	13/9/2013	Car Dealers
Hartwell Dunstable Ford	London Rd, Dunstable	13/9/2013	Car Dealers
Hartwell Dunstable Peugeot	London Rd, Dunstable	13/9/2013	Car Dealers
Perrys Luton Hyundai	Cradock Rd, Luton	14/9/2013	Car Dealers
Dann Motors	Townsend Farm Rd, Houghton Regis, Bedford	17/9/2013	Car Dealers
Bellevue Garage LTD	Luton Rd, Dunstable	19/9/2013	Car Dealers
B&Q	Dallow road, Luton	21/9/2013	DIY store
Halfords	Gypsey lane, Luton	15/8/2013, 17/9/2013,	DIY store
Wickes	Dunstable	25/9/2013	DIY store
Homebase	Bramingham Business Park, Enterprise Way, Luton	26/9/2013	DIY store
Asda	Dunstable	3/10/2013	Super store
Wilko	The Mall Shopping Centre, Luton	5/10/2013	Super store
Tesco	Skimpot Rd, Dunstable, Luton	9/10/2013	Super store

Appendix 8: Observation Checklist

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>N/A</u>
1. Point of sale:			
i. On checkout counter			
ii. Near checkout counter			
iii. Next to checkout counter			
iv. Displays are supplied by manufacturer			
v. Displays are maintained, re-stocked by salespersons			
2. Range of motor oil on display			
3. Location of brands in stores			
i. Easy to Locate			
ii. Entrance of shop			
iii. Back of shop			
iv. Close to related brands			
4. Shelving			
i. Attractive			
ii. Displays right information			
iii. Consumers find it easy to read message			
5. Size of shelving			
i. Contains different range of brands			
ii. Brands placed on shelf			
6. Size of shop			
i. Big			
ii. Moderate			
iii. Small			
7. Entrance			
i. Position of doors (wide open/ half open)			
8. Convenience to locate the brands			
i. Close to entrance			
ii. At side of store			
iii. Back of store			
9. Packaging			
i. Metal			
ii. Plastic			
iii. Attractive			
iv. Unattractive			
v. Colour used			
vi. Innovation/ convenience of use			
10. Pricing			
i. Purchase price			
10. Evidence of display of adverts			
i. At entrance			
ii. Inside the store			
iii. On exterior of store			
11. Distribution structure			

Appendix 9: Field notes

Appendix 9.1: UK field note



Appendix 9.2: Nigerian field note

De Yang shall grow
Kumina Masli Garage.

12:45 pm. - 2:05 pm.

21st April, 2014.

08151909583

Lucky

Mobil, Total, Oando, AZ, Amasco,
Wison, Iron Alpha, Same in 4 litres
and same in 5 litres.

All the oil are from major distribu-
tors, what do you mean by major
distributors, All that long lived
from companies and then they
market it to retailers.

- Some companies come to ~~lose~~ but
their enquiries is too much.
Some say 1/4 they supply to
11 11 must have 10 canteens or
above. So we told them we can't
do it because business is not moving
like before.

If you buy them in 10 canteens
you will stock them for a long time,
Some oil are not moving. There
is no way you will buy 10
canteens that will last long time
and cost huge amount of money. So
distributors will buy many
canteens to distribute to shops.

Appendix 10: Detailed description of field Notes

Appendix 10.1 Motor Factors

Name: Bennetts, car parts, tools and garage equipment

Date and Time: Wednesday, 14/08/2013 @03:09pm to 04:30pm

Observer: Shehu Jallo

Site/location: 17/18 The Parade, Hill Rise, LU3 3BH, Leagrave, Luton

Observations of events:

I introduced myself to the manager explaining what I was there for and he obliged my request. He said that he has a business deal with the University of Bedfordshire that he will be happy to help.

There are many *different brands displayed in the point of sale*, among them is 20L gallons of *Plannett* brand placed at bottom of the checkout counter. There is also a banner of *Lucas oil* displayed by the checkout counter. When I enquired that I didn't see the *lucas* brand on the shelves, the respondent answered that it's a new brand that is been introduced into the market. The respondent added that the oil is supplied by the company.

The motor oil on the shelf include Comma (5L, 1L), Mobil (5L, 1L), Castrol (different range 4L, 1L), Bennett (5L, 1L), Plannet (5L, 1L). The brands are easy to locate placed near the entrance making it easy for consumers to choose the different brands as they walk in. The brands can be seen from outside the store as the outer wall of the store is a see through glass. The motor oil brands are placed close to related brands such as rear oil, hydraulic etc. It also has 200L which is not on display but in the store based on demand by consumers. This is usually requested by garages on specific demand that make high usage of oil. But these high users are small in number, hence he stocks just a few in case the garages request for it.

The shelving is very attractive with all the details displayed such as price, brand name, and brand type and engine oil number for consumers to make a choice without asking the person on the counter. There is also a sign placed stating:

"Which oil? Selecting the correct oil for your engine is essential to keep the emissions correct for your MOT. Getting it wrong could potentially be very expensive! Let us help".

There is also a workshop application guide and catalogue for Comma oil showing the type of oil to be used in engines. When asked why they placed Comma catalogue and no other brands he answered that they had for other brands but they are more particular about comma brands as they have alliance with them.

Packaging was mainly done in attractive plastic containers especially Castrol, Mobil and Comma. I noticed *Plannet* and *Bennett* oil were packaged less attractively; the lid was not as user friendly as the other brands thus pouring the oil into engines will be difficult. Apart from Castrol which has green, white and golden where all the other brands are of grey colour. When i asked as to the difference in packaging between the different brands, the respondent answered that *Plannet* and *Bennett* is their generic brand therefore to cut price premium it will be cheaper and will be packaged cheaper. Price is of high importance in considering what brand of motor oil to buy especially to those who do not care what type of oil they put in their engines, sometimes they just go for the cheapest one.

I also noticed packaging in metal 4L tins stating; *Classic 30 motor oil, suitable for classic and vintage vehicles where an oil of this quality and viscosity is recommended by the manufacturer. Classic 20W 50 motor oil, specially blended for classic cars from the 60s, 70s and 80s where an oil of this quality and viscosity is recommended by the manufacturer.* I asked if such oil is purchased by the consumers, the respondent answered that there are many owners of cars and vans in the 60s to 80s around the area who still use the oil.

When asked what determines the kind of oil they put in the shelf he responded that apart from the comma brands which they have trade agreement with, demand of other brands is based on popular demand from consumers. Comma oil is the parent brand which they also produce *Plannett* oil, *Bennett* oil is produced by Comma on behalf of the company. Price is determined by the manufacturer but consumers always go for the lower price.

Comma supplies the brands to the main branch who then distribute to various *Bannett* stores across the nation based on stock order, sometimes *Bannett* pull the motor oil from other branches within the network which are 20 in number nationwide. The other brands are also supplied to the main branch who in turn supplies to other networks due to demand. They also added that sometimes due to demand for specific kind of oil they order direct from the manufacturer. The wholesaler supplies the oil to the various stores across the country or when

there is request for specific oil supply is done by courier. Castrol has a *text service* giving information on specific vehicle which consumers find very useful.

The store does trade by supplying to garages based on demand; it's sometimes a request for one gallon, where the store will use its vans to supply to the garages. It also operates retail where they sell to consumers from the counter.

The store is about 6 x 8 feet; i also noticed poster of *Comma oil* near the cash machine showing different brands. This clearly shows the strong trade agreement between *Comma* and *Bannett*.

Appendix 10.2 Retail Store

Name: Halfords

Date and Time: Thursday, 15/08/2013-@ 11:30am to 12:00 -Tuesday, 17/09/2013 @01:05pm to 01:35pm

Observer: Shehu Jallo

Site/location: Gypsy Lane, Luton

Observations of events:

As I have already made contact with the store manager and have established my gatekeeper few months back. As I begin to collect data my intention was to observe the natural setting of the store without informing or contacting a gatekeeper or a respondent. This will enable me observe the natural setting of the daily activities in the store without any guidance or interruption from any staff. After gathering data on this i will request the gatekeeper to guide me as my respondent or link me with another to provide guidance around the store and offer any questions I may ask.

The store is about 100 x 120 feet comprising of different range of goods as they clearly stated in their website “The business has three strategic pillars, Supporting Drivers of Every Car, Inspiring Cyclists of Every Age, and Equipping Families for their Leisure Time, which span Retail and Autocentre operations. Halfords Retail manages its business in the United Kingdom (UK) and the Republic of Ireland (ROI) and its product ranges are marketed through a national network of stores and through an innovative multi-channel offer which combines website promotion with direct delivery or collection from store, backed up by in-store services”.

Among the products on display are bicycles consumables such as bulbs, blades and batteries, car stereos, car oil and fluids and motor oil in different brands. The different oil brands on display include Castrol, Mobil 1, Mobil and Halfords brands in 1, 2 litre cans.

The brands are displayed according to their uses in different sections and different shelves. Each product within the store is identified for customers to locate them conveniently without been confused on where to locate and make purchases. The motor oil section has 4 shelves which are 7 metres long where different brands are displayed. This shelf goes round to another corner where other motor oil brands in 1 and 2 litres are displayed. The shelving is

attractive, modern with display of price, brand of oil, range of oil and bar code. The message written on the shelves can be read easily without difficulty by prospective customers.

Oil on display are packaged in attractive plastic cans, each brand is distinguished by different colours. Castrol brands have the normal colours of white, green and golden while Mobil 1 has grey with green cap, the brand name is written in blue with “zero” written in red on white background, the 1 is written in white on black background. Mobil is packaged in grey coloured cans while packaging of the Halfords brand is not as attractive, it is packaged in different colours golden, purple, dark and light green, different colours of grey colour. Caps of the major brands are attractive it seems the oil can be poured with ease without spill they are however not telescopic tubes while the handle is user friendly and convenient. The shelves are in 3 levels, the top level has Halfords brands, and the second has Mobil while Castrol brands are in the lower shelf.

There is no display of advert outside or inside the store, however on the shelf is poster display of Mobil 1 stating ‘save fuel with Mobil 1: Enhance fuel economy every time you drive’. The poster seems to encourage motorists to use Mobil oil to protect and prolong engine. It also encourages motorists to take the Mobil fuel economy questionnaire to enable them win free fuel for a year. There is no point of sale display near the cash point or anywhere within the store.

On the shelf is written “half price Halfords 2 litre ready mixed screen wash when you buy any 2 litre of Halfords oil”. On another shelf it says “Low oil or wrong oil, warning = £1,400 damage, 1 in 3 cans are low in oil, by the time your oil warning light comes on, the damage has been done.

Make sure you get the right oil. Catalytic converters (Cat) and diesel particulate filters (DPF) needs specific oil, using the wrong one may cause damage, affect emissions and cause MOT failure”.

“Checking the customer reference guide located on this display. Asking a member of the store team. Just give them your registration number”.

On the other section where the 1&2 litre cans are displayed is written at the top of the shelf TOP UP CENTRE half price Halfords 2 litre ready mixed screen wash when you buy any 2 litre Halfords.

There is also another statement “Complete oil change checklist, make sure you have everything you need to get the whole job done”, it also encourages customers with “half price Halfords 2 litre ready mixed screen wash when you buy any 2 litre Halfords”.

Also a message saying “FREE Halfords ready mixed screen wash 5 litre normally £4.49 when you buy any Halfords 5 litre oil” was displayed.

Appendix 10.3 Independent Garages

Name: has Limited, Harpenden Auto Services limited

Date and Time: Wednesday, 21/08/2013 @04:25pm to 04:55pm

Observer: Shehu Jallo

Site/location: Unit F, Holly Street, LU1 3XG, Luton

Observations of events:

I approached the manager and told him what I was there to do and it's only for research purposes he agreed and took me round the garage and introduced me to other staff which are 3 in number.

This garage deals with only German manufactured cars such as Mercedes, BMW, Audi and Gulf. Motor oil is supplied to the garage in drums from the approved suppliers. They use only branded oil products, which are 2, Mobil and Fuchs. He said are the oil approved by the engine manufacturers. He also added that because of warranty they have to use the right oil in order to meet the right standard but it's not always easy to do so. As I have observed another drum of revolution oil, when I asked if he uses that oil, he replied that he used to use the oil but because of its low quality he stopped using it. The respondent said that this is an independent garage network authorised as a Mobil service centre to sell only Mobil lubricants. He further said that as part of their strength, Mobil sponsors the British Formula 3 and GT Championships which they use to boost motorist trust and confidence in attracting them to Mobil Service Centres.

As part of their service and to get the right information on the right grade of oil to use they search online in Autodata. When I asked why he chose to stick to branded oil instead of the cheaper one's, he replied that as people move up and down the ladder choice of oil changes from cheaper, less quality to a more qualitative oil which will ultimately cost more.

The drums are in different colour with no effort to brand the drum with the brand name written on it. Fuchs drum is in blue and white with the name of the brand boldly written, there is an effort to brand the drum making it attractive and differentiating it from others. Mobil is the same dark brown colour with the name written at the top of the drum. Revolution oil is in dark blue with no name written on it while the smaller drum is in red colour with the brand name written in the middle.

The store is about 30 x 32 feet in size.

Appendix 10.4 Car Dealer

Name: Chevrolet UK ltd

Date and Time: Tuesday, 10/09/2013 @02:40 pm to 01:05 pm

Observer: Shehu Jallo

Site/location: Griffin house, Osborn road, LU1 3YT, Luton

Observations of events:

This is a follow up to my visit to Vauxhall motor bodies because they are been managed by the same company. As usual I called the office to introduce myself and ask permission to collect data in the organisation.

Having arrived at the office I explained to the security personnel at the entrance the purpose of my visit. He phoned the quality manager who received me at the reception. There is display Chevrolet and Vauxhall cars in large posters across the shop showing different range of cars but there is no display of motor oil. He explained that this is a corporate office, which they do not deal with cars or the oil they use.

He further explained that all their cars are GM and they use Dexos specification 1 & 2. He added that all new vehicles are factory filled in Europe with Dexos 2 which is the highest quality. The result is engine oil designed specifically for your GM engine, with added performance in areas important to its operation. Dexos represents a high quality, robust oil formulated to some of the most rigorous specifications in the industry. And just like GM, dexos is global. GM wants to make sure that every GM car anywhere in the world has access to the highest quality oil formulated exclusively for GM engines.

He further said that GM is made by Castrol which is supplied by local suppliers which must have Dexos 2 oil. They are delivered in tanks by the manufacturer where the local suppliers deliver them to the shop in drums. On the issue of warranty he said that those car owners who want to change oil do not have to come to their shop but must use equivalent specification while keeping record of the type of oil they use.

He added that dexos is an exclusive trademark of General Motors. Only those oils displaying the green or blue dexos trademark and icon on the front label have been certified and licensed by GM as meeting the demanding performance requirements and stringent quality standards of the dexos specification.

Appendix 10.5 Service station

Name: Esso petrol station

Date and Time: Monday, 02/09/2013 @01:25pm to 02:01 pm

Observer: Shehu Jallo

Site/location: Dunstable road, Luton

Observations of events:

I made a phone call to the station the day I intended to visit. I explained the purpose of my research and assured her that the data collected will be used strictly for research purpose. The manager responded that she can allow me to observe the store, but if I need to ask questions on the distribution side of the retail that I should contact their head office, that she is not allowed to offer any information.

The entrance to the store has double, automatic sliding doors leading to a well arranged store displaying different range of goods. With an approximate size of 20x15 feet the store is well arranged to allow customers to move freely while deciding on choice of purchase.

The shelf where the motor oil is located is near the entrance comprising a mixture of different range of motor oil parts. The shelf consists of only Mobil 1 brands which are placed at the top part of the shelf while the other brands are from different companies. Price, grade and range of oil were displayed on the shelf giving customers all the information needed to make purchase. On the shelf are pamphlets of Mobil 1 stating 'save fuel with Mobil 1: Enhance fuel economy every time you drive'. This pamphlet encourages motorists to use Mobil oil in their engine to protect and prolong engine. It also encouraged motorists to take the Mobil fuel economy questionnaire to enable them win free fuel for a year.

There are no pictures of the brand on display outside the store. Mobil went into *trade agreement* with *Tesco* by using a '*clubcard*' where customers who buy the oil collect points whenever they make purchase. *Tesco* buys oil Mobil to stock in their store.

In an effort to guide motorists on the right oil to use in their engine, a lubricant guide is provided called Mobil lubricant selector. It says in the guide that it helps customers 'choose the right level of care for your car'. The guide also enables customers choose the type of oil to use depending on the year of the engine.

Appendix 11: Follow ups in Nigeria

3/29/14

I wanted to ask if you have contact of marketing managers of the oil companies. I hope to come for data collection in April and would like to interview them.

4/25/14

So I can't see Castrol in the Kaduna market. Where exactly will I see the brand? Could they be found in abj or Lagos?

4/25/14

In selected places, Eterna Oil Petrol Stations and Advance Link Stations

5/14/14

Just spoke with the Lubes sales Engineer. Unfortunately he's in abuja for a Job. He's willing to help. Call him 08033863565. Tell him from Abubakar Advance Link as discussed. If he's not comin back to Kaduna, U can do an excel format Questionnaire and send to his mail so he can respond. Capische!

Appendix 12: Lists of Nigeria data collection sites

Research site	Location	Data collection date	Sector
Premium motors	Nnamdi Azikiwe W/bye pass, Kaduna	18/5/2014	Service centre (I.G.)
Amasco filling station	Nnamdi Azikiwe W/bye pass, Kaduna	19/5/2014	Service station (I.G.)
Tobytex Investment	Jos Road/Calabar street, Kaduna	21/5/2015	Independent retail
De Young shall grow	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	21/5/2014	Independent retail
Emmoco and Sons Enterprise	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	23/5/2014	Independent retail
GB Motors	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	23/5/2014	Independent garage
Jerry Motors	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	24/5/2014	Independent garage
Pascal Motor Mechanic	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	24/5/2014	Independent garage
Alhaji Nura Ford	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	27/5/2014	Independent garage
Kurmin Mashi Mechanic Garage	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	27/5/2014	Independent garage
Mustafa Motor workshop	Kurmin Mashi, Kaduna	31/5/2014	Independent garage
Fort Oil Plc	U/Sarki, Kaduna	7/6/2014	Service station
Mobil	Abakwa, Kaduna	8/6/2014	Service station
Total	Abakwa, Kaduna	9/6/2014	Service station
Advance link	Barnawa, Kaduna	11/6/2014	Service station
Oando	Constitution Road, Kaduna	15/6/2014	Service station
Con Oil	Ali Akilu way, Kaduna	16/6/2014	Service station
Edi Gen Filling Station	Ali Akilu way, Kaduna	17/6/2014	Service station
Mandilas Motors	Ahmadu Bello way, Kaduna	27/6/2014	Car dealer
Barbados Motors	Ali Akilu way, Kaduna	28/6/2014	Car dealer
AAS Marmaro Motors	Kashim Ibrahim way, Kaduna	29/6/2014	Car dealer
Changan Motors	Independence Way, Kaduna	30/6/2014	Car dealer

Mitsubishi Motors	Independence Way, Kaduna	3/7/2014	Car dealer
KIA Motors	Ali Akilu way, Kaduna	5/7/2014	Car dealer
AlMusafir Motor Nigeria Ltd	Ahmadu Bello way, Kaduna	13/7/2014	Car dealer
ASD Motors Ltd	Constitution Road, Kaduna	15/7/2014	Car dealer
Alsafa Motors	Constitution Road, Kaduna	17/7/2014	Car dealer
Car Craft Workshop	Kaduna-Zaria Expressway	17/7/2014	Service centre (I.G.)
Honda Place	Club Road, Kano	2/8/2014	Car dealer
Lead Automobile Nig. Ltd	Maiduguri Road, Kano	5/8/2014	Car dealer
Coscharis Motors	Guda Abdullahi Road, Kano	7/8/2014	Car dealer
Total	Club Road, Kano	7/8/2014	Service station
Miki O. Bizz Asso	Jos Road, Kano	13/8/2014	independent retail
Emma Fancy Worldwide Ltd	Jos Road/Calabar street, Kano	15/8/2014	independent retail
Onyems Motor Investment co. Ltd	Jos Road/Calabar street, Kano	21/8/2014	independent retail
K.C. International	Zaria, Kaduna State	11/9/2014	independent garage
Total	Hospital Road, Zaria	11/9/2014	Service station
Ban Zazzu Mechanic	Ban Zazzu, Zaria	12/9/2014	independent garage
Coscharis Motors	Abuja	30/9/2014	Car dealer
Elizade Nigeria Ltd	Abuja	3/10/2014	Car dealer
Eterna	Abuja	5/10/2014	Service station
Advance link	Garki, Abuja	7/10/2014	Service station
Oando	Garki, Abuja	10/10/2014	Service station
Con oil	Olusegun Obasanjo Way, Abuja	12/10/2014	Service station
DANA Motors	Abuja	15/10/2014	Car dealer
Globe Motors	Tafawa Balewa way, Abuja	16/10/2014	Car dealer

Forland Car Dealers	A.J. Iboye Road, Lagos	2/11/2014	Car dealer
Big Joe Car Dealers	Toyin Street,Ikeja, Lagos	3/11/2014	Car dealer
Car Dealer	Omo Obanta street, Lagos	7/11/2014	Car dealer
Pman House	Adegbola Street, Lagos	9/11/2014	Car dealer
Don Car Dealer	Amore Street, Lagos	11/11/2014	Car dealer

Appendix 13: Nigerian retail store near garages



Appendix 14: Motor oil sold at road side



Appendix 15: Interview questions

Interview Schedule

Open questions:

1. Can you tell me when your company started operation and in which state was the office located?
2. Can you briefly tell me the different products you started producing at the starting stage of your business?
3. What do you think are the challenges of the business at the beginning?

Questions on the manufacturers marketing strategy:

4. Can you describe how you want the consumer to regard you in the market?
5. What do you regard are your key marketing strategy that you use to reach the market?
6. Tell me what and how is your target market?
7. Can you tell me how you package your brands and in what quantity?
8. How do you encourage sale of your brands within the store like POS and through the media?

Questions on distribution patterns:

9. What are your distribution patterns and the how effective are they in reaching the supply chain?
10. Can you tell if the brands are distributed by the organisation or you use middlemen?
11. What are your end channels between you and the end user?

Questions on retailing:

12. Can you tell me whether your company does direct business with independent retailers?
13. Do you know any independent retailers that your company do business with?

Questions on C.O.O.E:

14. Can you tell me where your company originates from, meaning is it a subsidiary of a multinational company or an indigenous company?
15. Can you describe in your own opinion how your brand is perceived in the country?
16. Tell me what differentiates your brand from other indigenous brands in the country?
17. Do you think a brand with international link will be accepted more in the market than indigenous brands that don't have such links?

Before we conclude, may I ask you to provide your contact details if you wish for a copy of the interview to be sent to you and request your consent to contact you if and when additional questions are needed.

Thank you very much for your time.

Appendix 16: Interview introduction letter

University of Bedfordshire,
Business and Management Research Institute,
Luton, Bedfordshire,
LU1 3JU.
United Kingdom.
12th March, 2014.

As part of my PhD research design is to conduct interviews in various sectors of the motor oil industry. I would like to seek your kind permission and attention to allow me conduct face to face interview with you. This interview aims to focus on the marketing section of the industry looking at the downstream sector of the supply chain by making comparison between two contrasting economies, the UK and Nigeria. The Petroleum Technology Development Fund (PTDF), Nigeria is financing this programme which is been conducted in the University of Bedfordshire, UK.

The research objectives are set as follows:

- To further understanding of the process of branding of low involvement products in developing and developed economies.
- To gain new insights into consumer behaviour in emerging economies.
- To identify the key parameters in branding of business to business products and set the agenda for future research.

Findings from this research will be developed to form part of the doctoral thesis, conferences or published in journal articles.

The primary interview objective is to solicit insights on the marketing aspects of your motor oil products within the Nigerian economy taking cognisance of competition and how you want it to be perceived by your target market. Also, the interview will consider how your brand is perceived after crossing its country of origin. Considering how valuable your time is the interview will not exceed 45 minutes.

May I also add that your personal details and information offered during the course of the interview will be treated with the highest sense of confidentiality. However, if you feel you

do not want to answer any question you are free to do decline. With your approval I may use a recording device during the course of the interview.

Finally, complaints on this process can be channelled through the University ethics committee also, in the event of queries contact should be made either to the researcher or director of studies. In addition, I will appreciate any question you may wish to ask before the interview commences.

Thank you in anticipation of your consideration and kind response.

Kind regards.

Shehu M. Jallo

Contacts:

Shehu Jallo (Research student) - Shehu.jallo@beds.ac.uk Tel:+447774435372

Robin Croft (Director of Studies) - robin.croft@beds.ac.uk

Appendix 17: Nigerian interview transcription

Mubeco Petroleum Company Ltd (MP)

Time of Interview: 11:33am/12:30pm

Date: 07/05/2015

Interviewer:

Interviewee:

Position: General Manager, Marketing

Interviewer: Let me start by confirming this question, that this is Mubeco petroleum am I right?

MP: Yes, Mubeco Petroleum Company limited.

Interviewer: OK. So basically, this company is more of a Nigerian company am I right?

MP: Yes it is. It is a Nigerian company. It is not more of a Nigerian company, it is a Nigerian company.

Interviewer: Can you say if it's a subsidiary of a foreign company?

MP: It is a Nigerian company. It is not a subsidiary of any company.

Interviewer: How about the brand that you sell, like Excell?

MP: The brands are Nigerian brands. Excell in Nigerian brand.

Interviewer: So Excell is an indigenous brand?

MP: Yes.

Interviewer: Is it a trademark of Mubeco?

MP: Yes, trade mark of Mubeco Petroleum Company Limited.

Interviewer: I was thinking it was more of a foreign [...] no, I see some of it in the market, like in mechanic workshops. Can you tell me who your market targets are, like who do you sell to?

MP: We sell to the industries, and we sell across the board.

Interviewer: Who are your end users, is it just industries or you target motorists who just would like to use like I see in your gallons?

MP: Yes, if you go out there you see drums; if you go the little market you will not see drums. But if you go to the industry you will see drum. You will not see the retail packs, so it depends on mmm what you are seeing at times. But if you have comprehensive information you would be able to appreciate that we are marketing across the board. Yes, that's the idea of But our major target is the industry and the reason why we target the industry is because of the credit control issue.

Interviewer: What is credit control issue?

MP: It is difficult. Credit control is ..., most of the [emm] sales are on credit. You have an industry coming to buy from you for let's say N10million. At the end of the month it is giving you a cheque for N10million. If it doesn't give you a cheque for N10 million you know where to go. But you have 100 people owing you N10million. How do you pursue successfully 100 people to collect your N10 million without incurring undue cost? Mmm so, that is why our major target market is the industries.

Interviewer: So when you say industries, what do you mean?

MP: What I mean are manufactures and people that buy and use in bulk.

Interviewer: Who are those that buy in bulk apart from manufacturers?

MP: Like if you have a car emm servicing station emmm, what do they call them? Car servicing outfits. They would not come and buy one drum from you, they will come and buy 50 drums. That is a bulk purchase.

Interviewer: The motorists you mentioned, who are those motorists who deal with cars?

MP: I am just saying that as an example. That is just one example. You ask me who use it in bulk.

Interviewer: So is there another one?

MP: If I am going to sell for example to Nigerian railways, ok, they are not manufacturers, but they are an industrial because they will buy in bulk.

Interviewer: Does the railway still buy engine oil?

MP: Of course, any outfit that has engine anything that moves use lubricants. A year before last, a friend of mine that was handling matters that has to do with power generation asked me to come and sort out a transformer and the transformer was required to fill 480 drums of engine oil. That is an industrial usage. But they do not manufacture like we call it manufacturing. Yes that's industrial and it's a huge market. It's better than retail. If a marine person wants to service their engine, they don't use less than 50 drums at once. That's a huge purchase, do you understand, that's huge, really big. So, when we say in ...across the board, it is nowsaying ok, manufacturing of this, manufacturing of that, they are all manufacturers. They are all and they are users, various users that mm that you can call an industry. I will give you an example, you have a workshop. I mean you have a company that has 240 trucks moving around the country. They won't come and buy one drum from you. You won't call them mm motorists, they are definitely an industry.

Interviewer: How is your distribution pattern like?

MP: What do you mean by that?

Interviewer: Like do you supply to the industries or do they come and buy from or the retails, do you supply to the retails or do they come and buy?

MP: We take the oil to them.

Interviewer: Do you have middlemen in between?

MP: Yes, we have middlemen in between but not across the board.

Interviewer: Which area do you have middlemen?

MP: In the retail section.

Interviewer: Not in the industrial section?

MP: No, not in the industrial sector.

Interviewer: Can you tell me what kind of middlemen you have, are they dealers, distributors or what? Because what I noticed with other lubricants, the distributors are mainly staff of the company. So yours are not owned by your company or the distributors are not paid by the company?

MP: No, it's like this, the distributors are traders that buy and sell because they buy in large quantity, they enjoy discount. And they too supply in sufficiently large quantity with reduced discount to those that they distribute to. The distributor is not a description, it is a [emm emm] it's a marketing term.

Interviewer: So this distribution pattern you have with the retail. In your opinion, how effective is it in reaching the target market?

MP: It's effective. This is because, you see the lubricant market in this country is like this umm it is very complex, generally the marketing system in this country is that if you have a fast moving product, people will hijack the market and sell rubbish. So you can send product like from here to an industrial customer, in between they will offload it and mix it with something else, reduce the quantity and take it away. So, for you to be sure that what you are delivering is actually what you produce; you make sure you deliver it to the end user or to the purchaser. So from that perspective that your product is getting to the purchaser or the end user in its correct quantity and quality. I think the distribution pattern we are using is effective.

Interviewer: This brings me back to my question about the use of distributors. Because this is exactly what other companies are saying. In order to control these factors you are talking about. They employ staff. Their staffs engage in the distribution pattern. They don't allow independent distributors to do that.

MP: No, mm there are two things here, from the marketing perspective there are distributors these distributors are traders. From the operational perspective, there is distribution operation. They are not the same thing.

Interviewer: What is the difference?

MP: The distribution operation is the process of taking your product and getting it to the purchaser or the end user. That is distribution, but distributor is a trader that buys your product and sells. They are two different things.

Interviewer: Can you tell me if in your organisation you have distribution operation and distributors?

MP: Yes.

Interviewer: These distribution operators are employees of this company which is more effective?

MP: Yes which is more effective? That's what I was looking for because it would have been you know somehow to have the manufacturer is producing. Especially this country. What is going on is really bad. The manufacturer and along the way something happen to it.

Interviewer: How do you target your retail since there is a large retail in the country? So what's your focus on the retail market in Nigeria?

MP: I don't understand?

Interviewer: Do you have any plan or any strategy on the retail market in Nigeria not just the business market or the industrial market?

MP: Yes

Interviewer: Like do you have any advert? Do you have any alliances with any company?

MP: Yes, you see what we are doing in the retail market is to be able to do better in the industrial market. The retail market is a competitive market, no it's an advert market for us to create the awareness and the affinity for our product because some of the people that you are dealing with in the industry will go to the shop floor and buy your oil for their own personal use. So, when you go to meet them in the industry they are already aware of it. So for that reason, all the factors should be interplaying in terms of quality of the product. The product quality itself. The product outlook in terms of packaging, the advert, the distribution network, which is very important and the em the promotions. So all these are all interplay.

Interviewer: Do you do adverts?

MP: We used to do before, but since we came back into operation all the adverts have been programmed. Discussions are going on. Promotion items have been procured and they are already in distribution as in, as you can see I have a cup there and I don't know where this cup is all over the world right now, but I have one.

Interviewer: How do you plan to distribute it?

MP: Already they are all over

Interviewer: Filling stations?

MP: No, not filling stations

Interviewer: Car dealers?

MP: Everywhere, business contacts. Whether in the industry or the retailers or the distributors they are everywhere. T-shirts, caps, so you've already started producing them. They are already in use.

Interviewer: I would like to have a copy, some samples of them please.

MP: The man to give you all that is out, you can wait for him or you can come back some other time.

Interviewer: How about the packaging, how do you design the package? Like the one litre, four litre, five litre you know by choice every company has its own design.

MP: Yes like this, you can see we started by making the mould, ok we domiciled the mould with the manufacturer. The manufacturer makes it so that anywhere you see this can, it is not any other product but Excel.

Interviewer: Do you differentiate yourself in the market?

MP: Yes, by your can. So it's different. This is em five litre. There is no company else in Nigeria that has this can in 5 litre or 4 litres. This is 4 litres, this is 5 litres, this is Excell. If you look under it you will see Excell lubricant

Interviewer: For identification.

MP: Yes, there are a lot of imitations, the same thing with the cap, that's very important.

Interviewer: How do you design your caps?

MP: In like manner, we have a mould for our cap. There is seal. Because there is an effort to make customers aware that what you are buying is a genuine product of our company. So, sometimes there is a seal or something on the cap to prevent like what you said. Yes, but it doesn't come with the cap. You see the cap and the sealing process are two different things. Yea, that's it. This is a cap, this is a seal. So you get the cap when you are filled and then you use induction sealer and you open it, the seal is sitting firm and this. Okay, you cannot even if you turn it upside down. It will not spill. So this by the time it is sealed on the line, as you

open, this ring will break. So once the customer opens the cap and it doesn't break, he knows it has been tempered with.

Interviewer: Is that assurance of your quality?

MP: Yes, no that's not assurance of quality from our own perspective, but from the customers perspective. It is assurance that our quality is intact as against assurance of quality. Assurance of quality is done in house, in the blending. We have in this place, we have the best oil lab in Nigeria.

Interviewer: Really?

MP: It is not us saying it, it is DPR. Have you been to DPR?

Interviewer: No.

MP: You need to go to DPR if you are doing this study. It is DPR saying it and it is SON saying it not us saying it because we don't know what other people have. But we believe in quality and our system is automated. And the precision, the production precision is 0.00, + or - 0.005%, meanwhile the tolerable precision by DPR standard is 5.0%, but ours is 0.005%. So with those tolerances, there is no way we can come up with substandard products except if we deliberately go out of our way to produce substandard products.

Interviewer: How will you convince the customer, your customer that these brands are the best quality in the market? Because right now you are producing the brands the customer doesn't know. How do you convince your customer that you have the best brands in the market?

MP: Well, the thing is this. The lubricant product is not a commodity. It is a technical product. And a technical product must meet technical specifications and these specifications are international. So if you take a can, here it gives you this is a brand name. I don't mean anything. What is your name? We can write Shehu here, it doesn't mean anything, but if you turn to the back, it then tells you the technical specification which are internationally recognised. And this the product inside is tested to meet those international new quoted references. So the first thing we try to do is to make sure we meet those things international standard. That's one. The second thing is to make sure that our products are registered by SON. The third thing we are trying to do is to have ISO management certification which gives us credence with multinationals and international companies. You understand. So if you

look at our product digest all the technical requirement and what each of the products can do is defined. And it's not different from what is, what you have here. You understand. So, we go a long way or out of our way.

Interviewer: Extra mile.

MP: Extra mile, yes. That companies like Sokoto cement are using our product. As at this moment, even though we have not yet started supplying we are accredited by Dangote and Dangote is one of the most reputable companies in Nigeria today. So we are already accredited.

Interviewer: These companies you are talking about, there is not much marketing done to these companies.

MP: There is ok for us to be, to start supplying to Sokoto cement, we had to send our technical spect not this, the technical spect of each of our product to them. We had to go to them and do lubrication survey on their plant and came up with a document as big as this your book for their use. It becomes a bible. I am using a bible because I am a Christian. It becomes like a bible which they use. If they want to do maintenance they bring it am say okay, plant shehu section A we want to change this bearing. What oil do we put they will see it you know point to point. We spent a whole week four of us. From this company we went to them spent a week their brought back a lot of data and compiled that document for them. So that effort is a selling process. It is an effort, you understand. It is not as though we just sit down and you just came and want to buy. No it is more of a business effort.

Interviewer: Business to business effort,

MP: Yes.

Interviewer: And like you said motor oil has several dimensions.

MP: Yes, you're using the word motor oil, engine oil, but we are talking about lubricant, because there are some oils that are not motor oil and they still lubricate.

Interviewer: No, I'm more interested in motor oil.

MP: You are talking Motor oil, ok now I understand. If you are talking motor oil then even the industries use motor oil.

Interviewer: The industries like Dangote and Soot cement they still use motor oil.

MP: Of course, ok, they have trucks right. The same kind of engine you have in trucks are virtually what generators use, are virtually what ships use and what you put in them are virtually motor oil.

Interviewer: That's the industrial side of it. How about the retail side?

MP: But we have discussed that.

Interviewer: No

MP: What do you want to know about the retail side?

Interviewer: How you market to the retail.

MP: You know there are several, you asked me questions, you ask me distribution, you asked me and I told you we capture all the interplay parameters of product quality, advert, promotion distribution and you wrote it down.

Interviewer: I did, I'm trying to understand how you operate within the market in those areas.

MP: We operate, it depends on which section you are dealing with. We have interactions with the motor mechanics association, we have interaction with the truck users, and we have interaction with the oil retailers union.

Interviewer: You have retailers union?

MP: Yea, localised. They are not global in terms of country wide but if you go to Ariakpata you will see them. They have chairman, secretary, you know.

Interviewer: In those various channels, do you only interact with them verbally or you give them your posters, calendars and all these things.

MP: We give them promotion items right, but that is the least of what you can do. That does not do the selling for you. You have to come to an arrangement with them in terms of price, price is very important in terms of incentives. Incentives either to the end users or the middleman. So, it's not a sellers' market, nor is it a buyers' market. It is an interplay of the two depending on where you are. Because that is the confusing part, if you go to the rural

areas, it is a sellers' market. Whatever they sell you are constrained to buy. If you come to the city is not a sellers' market. So you have to be mindful of where you are.

So you the manufacturer that you are aware of all this, are you have dimensions, like how you reach those two markets differently.

MP: Every salesman knows where he is going and knows how to prepare for where he is going. You understand. You cannot go and use the same strategy you are using in the industry with a rural market or with an urban market. The strategy that we have used for example Sokoto cement, now we cannot use the same strategy with a trucking company, so you have to be mindful of which company you are dealing with. So, I think I have answered your questions.

Interviewer: The different sectors of the market, the different sector industrial, I'm trying to get to understand more on the retail side.

MP: Industrial, commercial, retail and marine. We have discussed all of these areas.

Interviewer: Most motor oil manufacturers focus more on the filling stations. The engine oil manufacturers, they always say we deal directly with filling stations. That our oil is sold in let's say Mobil.

MP: You see, the first thing you have to understand is in Nigeria, em there are two types of manufacturers. We call them major marketers. The major marketers are the multinationals that transferred to Nigeria like Total, Mobil, Conoil or Oando. But, we are indigenous, we are called independent marketers. We don't have filling stations. The major marketers have petrol stations. They distribute, they probably distribute their products through their petrol stations. But they are now learning to go beyond their petrol stations because with the aggressiveness of the independent marketers, penetrating right to the end users and the spare part sellers and all and the mechanics, nobody finds time to say let me go to that station. It is behind you. They pick the next oil and that oil may happen to be Excell not Total. You understand.

Interviewer: So, you don't have plans of using filling stations as retail?

MP: No, we don't have filling station and we don't have plans to use filling stations of our own. As I am talking to you today, we have been contracted by NNPC retail to produce product for all their stations all over the country.

Interviewer: They told me they are about to start selling engine oil.

MP: We are going to be the manufacturers. The initial idea came from us here.

Interviewer: That's a very good plan. This is really interesting.

MP: This Motor oil business you think it's just simple business but it's not. It's a technical product, it is not like fish and chips. It's a technical product. And most of the people take it to be a commodity.

Interviewer: What do you mean by a technical product?

MP: First and foremost, it conforms to an international standard. If you buy acara in Nigeria now and you go to London and buy acara, it will not taste the same. It may not look the same. All we say is that ah, our acara in Nigeria is different you understand, but it is still acara. Let me eat this kind of acara in London or in India right. But if you buy an oil and somebody tells you it is an SDCC oil, you buy that oil in Nigeria it should work in London or Iceland. It will not be different, if it is different, they have done the right thing. That's what makes it a technical product. It is defined, it is specified that it meets international standard.

Interviewer: How are these foreign companies different from indigenous companies in Nigeria?

MP: Before they make their product it is sold,

Interviewer: Really?

MP: Yes, I will give you an example. If you buy a car, they will say you will see in the pamphlet product is sold you use Total xyz. That they already have the market. It is sold. But the indigenous market, you have to get your product accredited for usage. So they are really comfortable with the market. They don't need any aggression. What is bringing the aggression now is because the new arrangement that the independent marketers are making is pushing them to the background. So they are also trying to do some of the things that we are doing.

Interviewer: How are international brands perceived in the country now?

MP: They are perceived better than the local indigenous brands. I can give you an example, we have a properly signed contract with Sokoto cement. At the point we were going to

execute the contract, we, they still had another company's product in their stock and they said ok. For the first three months, they run that product side by side, building ours up. So if they issue that product, they will issue some of ours for 3 months, they will then revert fully to our product. So in the first month, we sent product there, they issued the other product and issued ours. The next month when the users came to make request, they issued the other product and said they don't want and yet it is major marketers, they prefer ours. But the reason why the market prefer the major marketers is because they have made the name over a long period of time, but we are just coming in.

But technically, this one knows this is what they want. The users in the company realised we have a better product. But with time, people get to know that we have very, equally if not better, equally good product and that is where we out compete them. I'm sorry I have to go.

Interviewer: Thank you for your time, can I have your card and your email, when I complete transcribing the interview I will send you a copy.

Appendix 18: Line by line coding sample

8

Field Note

Motor Factors

Name: Bennetts, car parts, tools and garage equipment

Date and Time: Wednesday, 14/08/2013 @03:09pm to 04:30pm

Observer: Shehu Jallo

Site/location: 17/18 The Parade, Hill Rise, LU3 3BH, Leagrave, Luton

Observations of events:

I introduced myself to the manager explaining what i was there for and he obliged my request. He said that he has a business deal with the University of Bedfordshire that he will be happy to help.

There are many different brands displayed in the point of sale, among them is 20L gallons of Plannett brand placed at bottom of the checkout counter. There is also a banner of Lucas oil displayed by the checkout counter. When i enquired that i didn't see the lucas brand on the shelves, the respondent answered that it's a new brand that is been introduced into the market. The respondent added that the oil is supplied by the company.

The motor oil on the shelf include Comma (5L, 1L), Mobil (5L, 1L), Castrol (different range 4L, 1L), Bennett (5L, 1L), Plannet (5L, 1L). The brands are easy to locate placed near the entrance making it easy for consumers to choose the different brands as they walk in. The brands can be seen from outside the store as the outer wall of the store is a see through glass. The motor oil brands are placed close to related brands such as gear oil, hydraulic etc. It also has 200L which is not on display but in the store based on demand by consumers. This is usually requested by garages on specific demand that make high usage of oil. But these high users are small in number, hence he stocks just a few in case the garages request for it.

The shelving is very attractive with all the details displayed such as price, brand name, and brand type and engine oil number for consumers to make a choice without asking the person on the counter. There is also a sign placed stating:

*Which oil?
Selecting the correct oil for your engine is essential to keep the emissions correct for your MOT. Getting it wrong could potentially be very expensive! Let us help.*

There is also a workshop application guide and catalogue for Comma oil showing the type of oil to be used in engines. When asked why they placed Comma catalogue and not other brands he answered that they had for other brands but they are more particular about comma brands as they have alliance with them.

Packaging was mainly done in attractive plastic containers especially Castrol, Mobil and Comma. I noticed Plannett and Bennett oil were packaged less attractively; the lid was not as user friendly as the other brands thus pouring the oil into engines will be difficult. Apart from

Pos.
Range 9 M.O. in display
Shop Size
Shelving
Size 7 shop 7 x 8 feet
Size 9 shelf
Display 7 above in store
Catalogue
Packaging
Easy to locate

Appendix 20: Open codes

Open coding
Point of sale Merchandise Display of adverts Evidence of promotion Use of catalogue Warranty Motor Sports event
Shelving Range of motor oil on display Location of brands in store Size of shelf Shelf information Price of brands on shelf Store size DIY focus
Packaging In plastic cans In metal cans In drums 1L Plastic can 4L Plastic can User friendly Colour Logo Attractive Unattractive It's more than just oil. It's liquid engineering. Engineered with fluid strength technology. Too low could be too late. Top up regularly with Castrol oil.
Generic brand National brand Logo on engine Co-branding Endorsement
Manufacturer Wholesaler Distributor Garages Retailers Consumer Supplied in gallons or drums
Retail Trade Use catalogue manual
Trade agreement Franchise Stores choice of oil

Choice of oil to purchase

Specific on oil type

Oil used

Price

Location

Collaboration with OEM

Account managers

Oil manufacture for cars

Relationship with major business

Relationship with retailers

Relationship with brands at POS

Appendix 21: Grouping concepts

7) Promotion

- 1) Market entry through promotion.
- 2) Improve packaging.
- 3) ~~Yes we do~~ promotion materials.
- 4) Give goods on credit.
- 5) Recharge card promo.
- 6) Promotional techniques
- 7) Once in a while we do promo.
- 8) Mechanics as deciding factor.
- 9) word of mouth promo.
- 10) Adverts improve awareness.
- 11) Encourage trial.
- 12) Promote brand through word of mouth.
- 13) Packaging improves quality.
- 14) Brand promotion through union.
- 15) Encourage purchase through website.
- 16) Long stay encourage brand awareness.

Price Factor

- 1) Price factor.
- 17) Promo through display stand.

Customer Consider

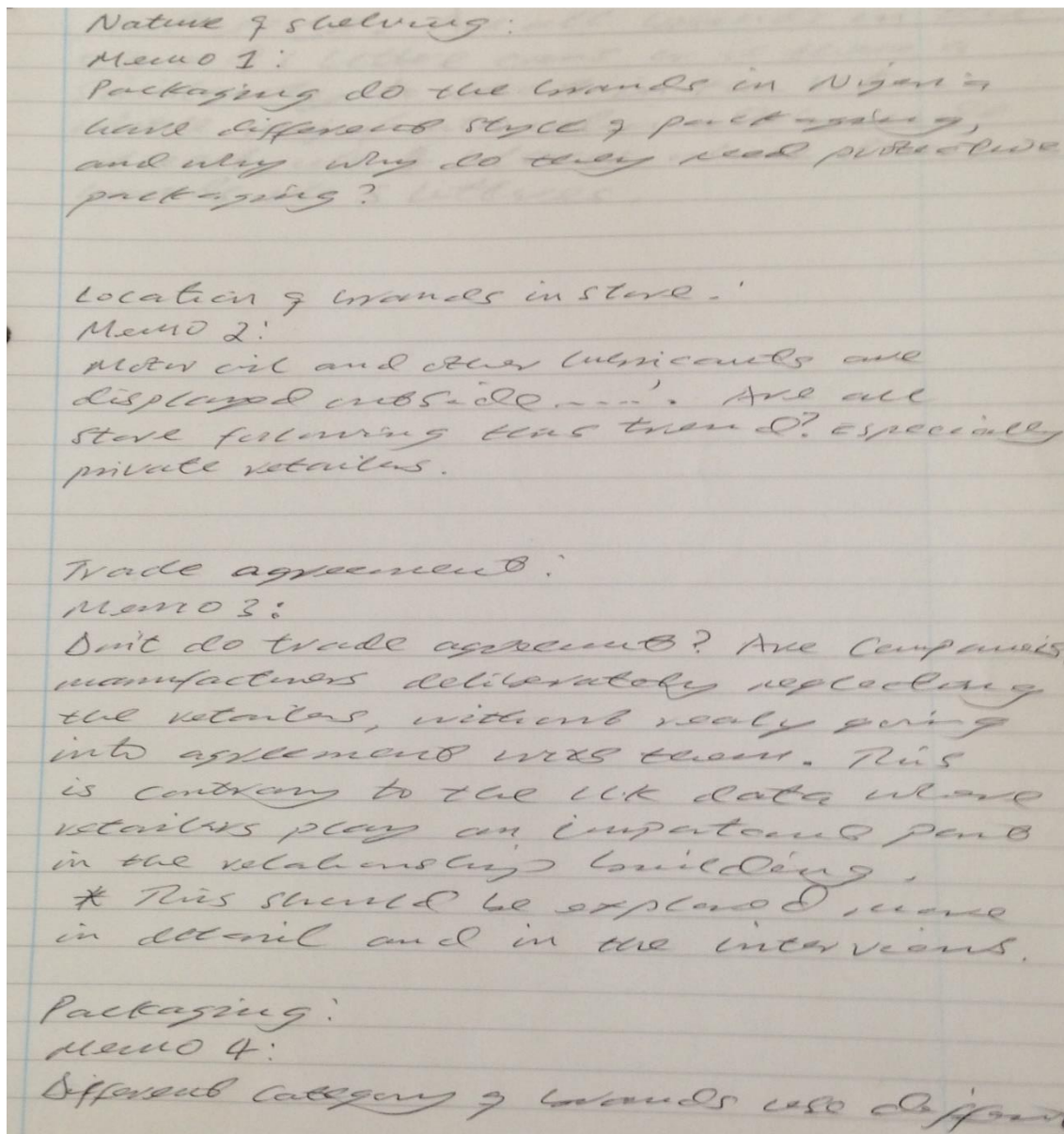
- 1) Factors customer consider.

Appendix 22: Relating codes of the UK data

Axial codes	Properties	dimensions
Point of sale Merchandise Display of adverts Evidence of promotion Use of catalogue Warranty Motor Sports event Type of Publication Date of publication	Poster, artefacts, attractive, merchandise Assortment, appealing, shelving, information Poster, calendar, brand image Adverts, banners, video On shelf, on desk, online Guarantee, assurance, promise, commitment, Poster, brand image, advert, representative Magazine, Newspaper, auto related Monthly, weekly	Point of service Commercial goods Brand promotion Image enhancing Merchandise selling Promise Sporting event Publication choice Publication period
Shelving Range of motor oil on display Location of brands in store Size of shelf Shelf information Price of brands on shelf Store size DIY focus	Attractive, height, length, information Assortment, store brands, major brands Near entrance, related brands, visible outside Long, short, layering Brand content, price, promo, customer advise Low, high, competitive, Small, medium, large Poster display, advise, customer target	Brand display Range of brands Positioning of brands Assortment convenience Information awareness Price convenience Store convenience Self-improvement promotion
Packaging In plastic cans In metal cans In drums 1L Plastic can 4L Plastic can User friendly Colour Logo Attractive Unattractive It's more than just oil. It's liquid engineering. Engineered with fluid strength technology. Too low could be too late. Top up regularly with Castrol oil. Type of oil brand	Colour, size, design, name, appealing, counterfeiting, Shop-ability Appealing, range of consumer focus Appealing, attractive, shelf fit DIY focus, Stop-ability, bright, low Font type, readable, company, product Expertise, unique, superiority, quality Durable, strength, reliability Emotional, fear, stimulating Assortments, brand focus, customer interest	Plastic, metal Convenience Identification Brand message Functional qualities Technology focus Purchase inducement Brand preference
Generic brand National brand Logo on engine Co-branding Endorsement Event	Attractive, shelf level, price, quality Shelf position, leadership Agreement, brand focus, Partnership, alliance, Association, backing, recommendation, Acceptance, association, awareness	Store brand Established brands Strategic partnership Co-branding Influence purchase Image enhancement
Manufacturer Wholesaler Distributor Garages Retailers Consumer Supplied in gallons or drums	Retail focus, business focus, distribution Direct distribution, retail focus Retail, type of brand Brand focus, service type, adverts, promos Brand types, customer focus Car users, business Customer focus, preference, retail focus	Business purpose Middlemen focus Channel types B2B B2C Consumer types Packaging choice
Retail Trade Use catalogue manual	Adverts, pricing, appealing, attractive Agreements, customer focus, awareness Customer assistance, engagement	B2C focus B2B focus Consumer assistance

Trade agreement Franchise Stores choice of oil	Business, long term, guarantees Operator, dealership Preference, customer choice	Contract agreement Dealership relationship Merchandise display
Choice of oil to purchase Specific on oil type Oil used Price Location	Choice, preference, quality, awareness Preference, brand awareness, engine type Brand choice, availability, Low, high, competitive Reach, access, convenience	Brand choice Brand reference Brand loyalty Budget convenience Accessibility
Collaboration with OEM Account managers Oil manufacture for cars Relationship with major business Relationship with retailers Relationship with brands at POS	Agreement, alliances, business focus management of sales, key relationships Agreements, alliances, collaboration Particular focus, business related Brand protection, representation, Awareness, differentiation, appeal	Strategic alliances Key accounts Brand alliance Relationship marketing Brand representation POS Awareness

Appendix 23: Sample of memos written on Nigerian data



Appendix 24: Findings sent to respondents and other professionals

Section one:

The following individuals were contacted in respect of this study.

Section two:

An attempt to give a description of motor oil branding will be provided while presenting a model to depict the branding nature in the UK, so that the results reflect the actual occurrence in the field. The study is conducted with the research aim in mind: “To gain insight into the nature and extent of branding industrial products with emphasis on motor oil”.

In addition, 33 brands were analysed from data obtained through participant observation across a fairly industrial area, Bedfordshire, in the UK. Similarly, the results suggest within the supply chain, retailing is the most connecting factor linking the different categories. Subsequently, the brands are grouped as; International brands, middle brands, low brands and generic brands who put more emphasis on the DIY.

The findings will be presented and discussed in light of the relevant distribution chains of the automotive aftermarket, and a longitudinal case study of Castrol, a major motor oil brand in the UK. Moreover, the study identifies the major players in the motor oil branding process including; manufacturer, wholesaler, retailer comprising (traditional stores, motor factors, DIY, superstores), filling stations, car dealers and mechanics.

Business to business (B2B)

Manufacturer (The brand)

The findings suggest international brands are characterised by high prices, perceived quality and better packaging. They also engage in promotions like advertisements through the television, radio, magazines and endorsement. Furthermore, they build alliances with original

equipment manufacturers through Co-branding and ingredient branding. Moreover, the international brands seem to be involved in the social media where the brand connects with the consumer through constant update of its motoring activities, hence, a suggestion of consumer culture.

Middle brands are characterised by lower prices than the international brands, the findings further suggest periodic promotion like advertising and sponsorship of speed racing events. Subsequently, low brands are characterised by low price with no brand promotion. While, the generic brands have price similarity to the middle brands with no brand promotion and low packaging. However the result indicates brand promotion within the stores in which they are sold. Similarly, the study indicates the generic brands of motor oil are named after the stores in which the oil is sold. The study further suggests brand push to the market based on derived demand. This then suggests the branding activities conducted at this point as; Co-branding, ingredient branding, brand positioning, strategic alliance and brand awareness.

Table 1: Categories of motor oil brands

International brands	Medium brands	Generic brands	Low brands
Castrol	Revolution oil	Vauxhall oil (Castrol)	Granville
Mobil	Quantum oil	GM motor oil (Castrol)	Falcon oil
Total	Comma oil	Bennett	Triple QX
Shell	Fuchs	Plannet	Vetech oil
Petronas	Carlube	Halfords	Deffender
		Toyota	Autotech
	Valvoline	Unipart	Genuine
		Wilko	Motrio

Middlemen

Motor oil manufacturers use different channels to distribute their brands in the final market. The findings indicate manufacturers use different channels of distribution to engage with the wholesaler. The results suggest a direct channel of brand push to the wholesaler by the manufacturer. These characteristics point to international brands where the result indicates they always have a middleman in their distribution channel. The study further suggests,

within this channel the middleman undertakes the role of the manufacturer, engaging in the brand promotion with stores and other businesses.

Car dealers

The result reveals a direct channel distribution from the manufacturer to the car dealers. The relationship with the OEM to produce technologically improved oil may suggest the need to set aside middlemen in the distribution process and relate with the franchise dealers. Further, the analysis shows a lack of promotion in this category. This then indicates employment of key account management by account managers to build and maintain relationships with the motor oil brands and car owners. The analysis further shows the use of warranty to pull customers.

Independent garages

The findings indicate garages are an important avenue for motorists to engage with a professional in the field who will change the oil. The analysis reveals no use of posters or any other visual promotion of brands in the garages. However, a large presence of medium, lower and generic brands was identified where respondents consistently indicate price as a factor in choice of oil. The study also reveals a push of the brand from retail stores where most garages have trade agreements with stores like the motor factors. There is a demand pull of the brand from motorists who buy from the various retail stores to use in garages.

Business to consumer (B2C)

Retail

The retail serves as the point of contact between the brand and the consumer. The study indicates a brand push from the wholesaler to the retailer among the major brands. This suggests the use of middlemen as intermediaries between the manufacturer and retailers. While the medium and small brands are pushed directly to the retail.

In this category various aspects of branding takes place e.g. merchandising, brand image, retail brand equity, product assortment, pricing, brand awareness. The results show the use of unattractive shelving within the traditional stores, while the organised retail, motor factors, DIY stores, superstores and stores in filling stations are modern. Similarly, retail promotion

through the point of sale and the use of posters to attract the DIY customer was revealed. Surprisingly, the major brands do not dominate the shelves the lower brands and generic brands dominate this category where low price plays a key factor.

Furthermore, the presence of the 1 litre cans and posters stating “top up with 1 litre” suggests an attempt to attract the DIY consumer. Similarly, technological change in engines allows display of lubricant guide to assist customers to make the right choice of oil for their engine. Major brands have gone a step further by engaging in telemarketing by enabling customers to send SMS messages to get answers on the right oil to use. Similarly, a larger number of stores have indicated that they are in a trade agreement with the manufacturers of motor oil brands to stock and sell their products.

Finally, the model presented below show the branding process revealed from the study of the automotive aftermarket in the UK by identifying the several components of the supply chain.

Appendix 25: Professional experience response

[Redacted]

9/25/14 ☆



to me ▾

Hello Jallo

Hope all is well with you.

I had a look through the information. All looks good.

I checked with our resident oil expert and he said Vauxhall oil is purchased from Morris.

<http://www.morrislubricants.co.uk/lubricants/company.asp?wp=59>

Regards

[Redacted]

Appendix 26: Themes emerging from Morris Lubricants

Brand building

Adopting social media to communicate and engage with the target customers is gradually increasing. In particular, the social media site Facebook has been used by companies to interact with customers and offer a focal point for social engagement. With the high usage rate of the social networking sites they represent a unique and engaging tool for communication that companies use to target and promote their brands to the mass audience and target specific markets.

The findings suggest Morris brand engages in several promotion activities to enhance the brand image in the eye of the consumer. Brand building requires several techniques which the company deems more appropriate to use. The results show a recurring theme of an attempt to create brand awareness. A deliberate attempt to target Facebook followers was adopted. This deliberate and targeted attempt at brand awareness to increase online engagement and generate customer interest was further stressed by the respondent who said that the start of *'the Facebook campaign last year there was about 1,200 likes but now there are 18,000 like and hopefully by next year our page will reach fifty thousand likes hopefully'*. This indicates the effort of the company to make the brand more visible in the market by engaging with customers in the social media platform and other activities like sporting events and promos. Those experiences are then shared with their online customers. This also prompted the brand to launch its own Website where information on the company and the brands are provided.

The success of the online campaign was evident from the comments of the respondent that said *'currently the page has over 80,000 views which is remarkable showing the number of people looking at our brand'*. At the time of writing this, the page has generated 8,256 Likes while 464 are talking about the page.

Table 2: The different daily promo

Weekly competition	Offers/Winnings
Merch Monday	Morris Lubricants merchandise!
Ticket Tuesday	Free tickets to exciting motor sport events around the country.
WHATOIL Wednesday	A free 1 litre bottle of oil
Throwback Thursday	Five litres of engine oil.
Free oil Friday	5 litres of high quality Morris Lubricant engine oil.

To attract customer attention the company planned promos for the five working days of the week, starting from Monday to Friday. Please see table 2 for list of promos. Online customers are offered the opportunity to be involved in raffle draws to reward their loyal supporters the chance to get their hands on winning prizes.

Further, the data indicate expressing brand benefits to consumers through its long years in business indicating reliability and quality. The evolution of modern engines that are highly technical requires constantly advising consumers on those aspects that may confuse them. Hence the data shows constant use of expert advice to enlighten the B2C consumer at various events and participating in events where other professionals (B2B) will present their own brands to other professionals.

Similarly, the brand uses several strategies to encourage brand loyalty. The results suggests sponsorship of racing events, from the amateur to semi-professional to the professional across the UK and internationally. Racers are urged to contact Morris lubricants for support of using and promoting the drivers in the racing event. Further, drawing customers to the sporting events exposes the brand to public awareness while building brand loyalty. The results show the company uses consumer sales promotion activities to pull new and hold present customers to stimulate demand and counter competition. The study consistently indicates the use of coupons, contests, product samples and merchandise offers directed at online customers to enhance brand value. Hence loyal customers are rewarded through various brand offers. Similarly, a key theme in the findings of the promotional strategy is the use of brand ambassador to influence brand awareness, induce wide purchase while strengthening relationships, enhance brand quality and improve loyalty.

Similarly in an effort to push itself into the market and create an identity the findings suggests product development by moving away from the old brands that had been operating in the market. This also enhances creating a new brand image by doing packaging in cans rather than the bulk packages in 120 and 500 litres drums. The data also shows the use of functional benefits to assure consumers of brand quality. Informing customers of the brands long period in business will assure the customer, *with over 145 years of experience within every bottle*, here, the brands long experience is used as an advantage to assure customers of brand reliability. Similarly, the technical nature of modern engines allows the company to focus on professional advice to assist customers on the use and importance of the brand to their engines.

Brand attributes

The data suggests establishing buyer/supplier relationship for effective market competition and brand success. Over the brands' long years of existence, the company's sale relies on relationship with other business. This relationship is further emphasised by the company where online pages state; *'we have manufactured engine oils for many of the most prestigious marques on the road'*. Here, the company uses adaptation in relationship marketing with OEM is to build and sustain business. Similarly, the data suggests Key Account Management (KAM) where account managers are assigned to each customer for quality, efficient service and satisfaction.

The results also suggests the brand going into partnership with related automotive areas like car speed drivers of different types, a major sponsor of racing event 'Houseman Racing' and motor mechanic magazines. Informing customers of partnership on the brand Facebook page it states thus; *'Morris Lubricants has teamed up with Professional Motor Mechanic magazine to provide you with the answers'*, this partnership suggests the desire for the brand to improve awareness, image and consumer confidence. Similarly, tournaments that cars use the brands are announced to the Facebook users; *'we are excited to announce that all cars within the tournament will be using the latest Morris Lubricants automotive oils'*. Here, the intangible brand message is the perception of quality and durability.

Market focus is key to a company's marketing strategy. The results show a focus on the B2B market with little intention to target the end channel of the supply chain. This is confirmed by the informant who said; *'we don't do retail we sell to companies that buy in bulk'*. This implies that the company focuses on bulk purchase (B2B) with a slothful attempt to reach out to the consumer market. The retail audit shows no brand presence among the several brands displayed for customer choice. Further, by urging online users to *'SHARE TO WIN A 1 LITRE TOP UP!'*, the strategy seems to target the DIYers who forms a substantial part of the UK population.

Distribution Channel

To offer customers prompt delivery, ensure brand authenticity and brand control within the supply chain the results suggests the company embarks on direct distribution. This implies that the company takes full ownership of the delivery staff and vehicles while constantly monitored through the computer technology GPS system.



Appendix 27: Ingredient Branding

Appendix 27.1 UK



Appendix 27.2: Nigeria



Appendix 28: Retail display

Nigerian retail



UK retail



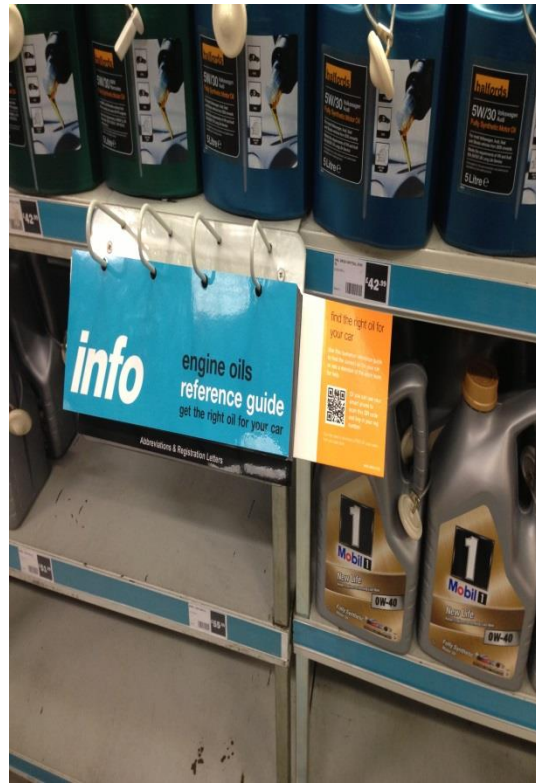
Appendix 29: Display stand in the UK and Nigeria



Appendix 30: UK store shelves



Appendix 31: Use of catalogues



Appendix 32: Nigerian filling station



Appendix 33: Checkout counter



Appendix 34: Brand authenticity in Nigeria



Appendix 35: Logo as sign of quality in Nigeria



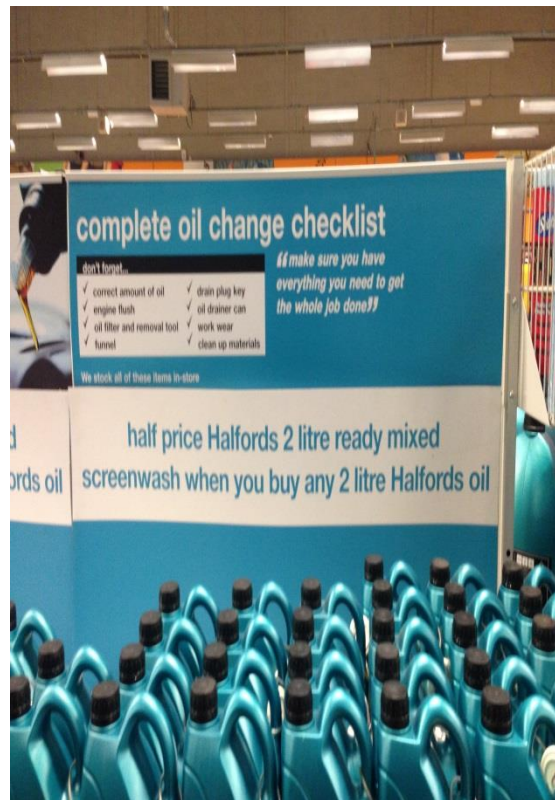
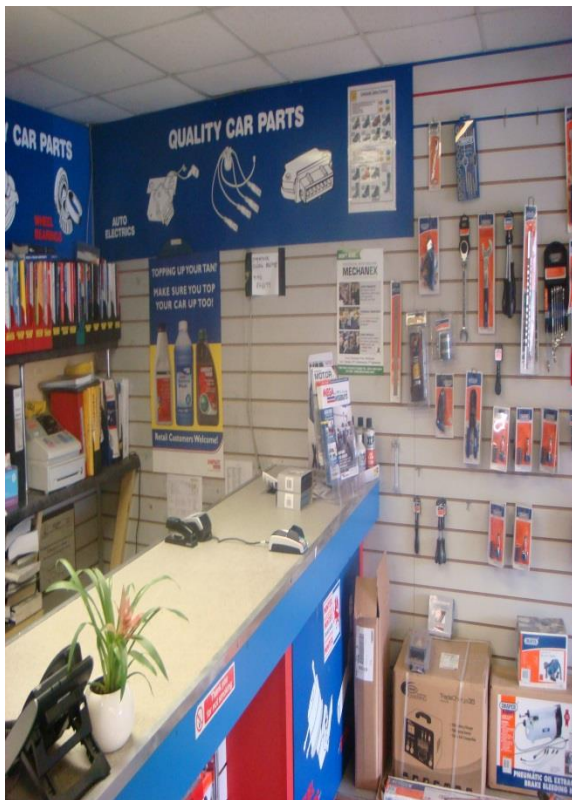
Appendix 36: Packaging of Nigerian brands



Appendix 37: Logo as mark of quality



Appendix 38: DIY focus in the UK



Appendix 39: Urging 'top up' in the UK retail



Appendix 40: Position of generic brands



Appendix 41: Store entrance in the UK and Nigeria

