

The effects of joint brand advertising on tourists' behavioural response

by

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the
degree of Doctor of Philosophy of the University of Portsmouth

August 2020

Declaration

Whilst registered as a candidate for the above degree, I have not been registered for any other research award. The results and conclusions embodied in this thesis are the work of the named candidate and have not been submitted for any other academic award.

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*To the memories of my father Ahmet Ziya Can, who taught me to be a good person
and my uncle Osman Can who inspired me to pursue a doctorate.*

Acknowledgments

This journey would not have been possible without the support and guidance of many people. First and foremost, I would like to thank my family members, my mum Suzan, my sisters Sema and Semra and my brother Serdar. Words cannot express how grateful I am for their ongoing support and for being so patient with me during this journey, which none of my girlfriends chose to do.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisors, Prof. Yuksel Ekinci and Prof. Giampaolo Viglia, for their valuable comments, constructive and insightful feedback as well as all the time they have dedicated to helping me throughout the process of completing my thesis. They were the lighthouse to help me for determining where I am and how I could safely reach where I wanted to get to.

I would like to thank my colleagues Shynar, Pavla, Devran, Hesham, Annan, Ahmad, Mahmout, Giandomenico, Roberta, Farok and Sarfraz for making the PhD room warmer to study in as well as Gulsum and Ramazan for making me feel at home.

I would like to extend my special thanks to my colleague Dr. Setenay Dilek-Fidler for being a loyal supporter of all my decisions during my studies. Honestly, I would not have survived on this journey without having constant emotional support from her.

I must thank too, Ali Keskin, owner of the Gulet Holidays, for his cooperation in conducting the field experiment in this study. I would also like to thank Umit Bozdog from the Turkish Tourism Board in London for providing a photo and official logo of Turkey to be used in advertisements.

I must also express my heartfelt gratitude to my cousin Prof. Dr. Erdogan Ilkay, not only for being a role model in my life, but also, for his lifetime of encouragement as well as unconsciously shaping my future plans.

Last but not the least, I owe a debt of thanks to Max Harris for proofreading the entire thesis and detecting a considerable amount of error. I myself am responsible for the remaining ones.

Thank you all for helping make my aspirational goal into reality!

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Acronyms

DMOs	: Destination Marketing Organisations,
NTOs	: National Tourism Organisations,
UNWTO	: United Nations World Tourism Organisation,
ASEAN	: The Association of Southeast Asian Nations,
CVBs	: Convention and Visitors Bureaus,
AIDA	: Attention, interest, desire, action,
DAGMAR	: Defining Advertising Goals for Measuring Results,
ELM	: The Elaboration Likelihood Model,
MMS	: Multimedia Message Service,
PFC	: Principal Factor Analysis,
GDN	: Google Display Network,
CTR	: Click Through Rate,
SB	: Single Brand Condition,
LR	: Lesser-Reputed Condition,
HR	: Highly-Reputed Condition,
CAA	: UK Civil Aviation Authority.

Abstract

In recent years business collaborations between business entities are becoming more common in various forms, such as joint brand advertising. In the tourism industry, despite joint brand advertising being one of the most applied marketing tools for both travel intermediaries and Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs), to date; however, little research has involved investigating the effects of joint brand advertising. Furthermore, none of the prior research was aimed at uncovering the mechanism underlying the relation between joint brand advertising and tourists' behavioural response. This research is aimed at addressing these gaps by focusing on collaborative marketing activities, specifically, joint brand advertising, within the tourism context. Also, it involves investigating the mediator role of product interest on the relationship between joint brand advertising and tourists' behavioural intention as well as probing whether brand reputation is considered as a boundary condition or not.

For the current research, two experimental studies were conducted using between-subject designs and adverts as stimuli. The first study was a field experiment conducted through display banner adverts in the Google Display Network. The findings support tourists' behavioural response (i.e. click through behaviour) towards joint brand advertising.. The second study was a lab experiment performed with 180 people under three different conditions. The results suggest that joint brand advertising significantly increases potential tourists' interest in the product, which in turn, leads to favourable behavioural intention towards visiting a particular destination. However, this is supported for joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand and not for with a lesser-reputed one.

This thesis contributes to the literature the revelation that, DMOs should partner with travel intermediaries in advertising to trigger potential tourists' exploration behaviours, to strategically develop their brand and to overcome free-rider problems. In this regard, they should promote their well-known products through partnerships with highly-reputed travel intermediary brands and their niche or new products by partnering with lesser-reputed ones.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background of the Research

As non-profit entities, Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) are responsible for the development and management of tourism destinations (Pike, 2018). They aim to promote these destinations and enhance their long-term competitiveness (Garrod & Fyall, 2017). Furthermore, their goals include creating positive destination images, 'orchestrating' decision making on design and managing relationships in the destination network on which the economic performance of both the DMO and its stakeholders depend. Moreover, DMOs act as organisers and facilitators of tourism marketing and the selling of places aimed at generating tourist visitation to the destinations they are responsible for (Pike & Ives, 2018). This is a field of study that has only relatively recently attracted significant research attention in destination marketing as a sub-area of marketing (Prem & Mohan, 2019).

Whilst DMOs are involved in the production and operation of products to some extent, especially for developing countries, they are generally not responsible for selling tourism products directly to visitors. Rather, they are mostly responsible for marketing countries as travel destinations by influencing how

the products and services are promoted and facilitating a holistic approach to destination management (Hristov & Petrova, 2018). DMOs have a wide range of tools to use for doing so, including joint brand advertising, public relations, press tours, road shows, familiarisation trips (Indrianto, Din, & Rashid, 2017), promotional brochures as well as travel and tourism fairs. Most of these marketing activities can be undertaken in collaboration with organisations or private firms in the travel and tourism industry. For example, joint marketing activities can happen between a DMO and a travel intermediary, such as a tour operator or travel agency, to influence tourist behaviour towards a particular destination.

DMOs mainly spend their budget on promotional efforts in international markets often through their representative offices. The expenditure of DMOs on international marketing in developed countries is rarely more than 10% of the total marketing expenses for international tourism products. This is due to a large number of firms generating and marketing a very wide range of international tourism products without a formal relationship with DMOs. Hence, the influence of the expenses of DMOs, especially in countries where tour operators dominate the marketing process, such as the United Kingdom, is unlikely to be strong. Paradoxically, in developing countries, DMOs have a huge potential influence over the nation's tourism with their marketing efforts extending beyond a small percentage of international tourism marketing expenditures. In fact, most DMOs can reach no more than 10% of visitors through promotional activities (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009).

Recently, joint brand advertising has become one of the most popular collaborative marketing tools. Joint brand advertising refers to where two brands deliberately feature together in an advertisement (Samu, Krishnan, and Smith 1999; Lee and Shen 2009). This phenomenon is becoming more popular

particularly for multi-actor service ecosystems such as tourism. For example, according to a recent report by Borrell Associates and Netsertive (2015), joint brand advertising is worth \$36 billion in North America, representing 12% of all spending on advertising. In this regard, Brand USA (thebrandusa.com) works in close partnership with its partner organizations, such as TripAdvisor or Expedia, to promote the United States as a premier travel destination (Zavattaro & Fay, 2019).

One of the most cost-effective marketing tools for DMOs in globalised market conditions is to follow collaborative marketing strategies between destinations and private sector partners. As a consequence of globalisation, the way that firms network and operate has been changed (Patino, Medina, & Arilla, 2016). The global marketplace is also gradually becoming more competitive (Buhalis, 2000a; Milicevic, Mihalic, & Sever, 2017) and complex as a result of increased leisure time, rising levels of disposable income, more efficient transportation networks, substitutable destinations (Booyens, Motala, & Ngandu, 2020) and developed superstructure (e.g. accommodation and dining facilities) (Kozak & Buhalis, 2019). In this competitive environment, due to new emerging tourism destinations, DMOs are continuously investigating new comparative opportunities to remain competitive and to improve their market position (Kresic & Prebezac, 2011). Furthermore, DMOs have to seek to influence the tourist decision-making process. This situation makes effective destination positioning strategy necessary, whereby tourism marketers differentiate their products from those of their competitors, with the aim positively positioning them the minds of the target consumers (Pike & Mason, 2011).

Nowadays, high product substitutability and the competitive environment are making destination branding a popular and compelling marketing tool (Usakli & Baloglu, 2011) for destination marketers to achieve competitive advantage

(Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo, 2007) and to enhance differentiation (Kim & Lee, 2018). Market uniqueness and visibility can also be considered as pivotal sources of competitive advantage (Milicevic et al., 2017). Marketers are also continuously looking for new effective ways of communication with their target market and of understanding its behaviour (Ghirvu, 2013). In particular, DMOs are concentrating on destination branding and collaborative marketing to motivate and attract tourists to visit a specific destination (Kumar, 2016) or building and strengthening the destination brand. The process of building branding starts with the development of a product or service and ends with it residing in the minds of consumers with perceptual associations (Chen & Mathews, 2017). Through successful destination branding process management as a powerful strategic instrument, DMOs can create strong and positive emotional attachment between the destination and potential travellers (Milicevic et al., 2017). Hence, potential tourists, in this case, choose destinations not just for their functional properties, but also, for their symbolic qualities (Moon & Han, 2019). Brand building is also considered a crucial element of overall tourism destination development success, since tourism products cannot be pre-tested or experienced before actual consumption (Chan & Law, 2020).

Collaborative marketing can be used by DMOs as part of their brand development strategy. In this regard, advertising as a major collaborative marketing tool can be effective. Advertising is aimed at achieving several objectives: to remind consumers of a favourite brand, to change consumers' perception towards a brand, to introduce a new product feature, and so on. But, mostly, advertisers ultimately want to trigger positive behavioural response regarding an advertised product (Tobi, Ayodele, & Akindele, 2020). Travel intermediaries are not simply distributors of tourism products, but also, branding mechanisms for an amalgam of tourism products (Buhalis, 2004).

Since distribution channel players have different tasks to perform, co-operation can help DMOs to achieve individual and mutual goals. Channels facilitate promotion through establishing marketing communication in target markets (Buhalis, 2000b). In this regard, collaborating with travel intermediaries in adverts can help DMOs to influence consumers' behavioural response.

Marketing a tourism product is a particularly challenging form of marketing art (Iastremska, 2019). This is due to the complexity of tourism products and the involvement of several stakeholders in destination marketing (Roxas, Rivera & Gutierrez, 2020). Elbe, Hallen, and Axelsson (2009) also mentioned that many destinations contain stakeholders of different kinds, such as private firms, public agencies and non-profit organisations. Since these actors may have an interest that partly overlaps, some of them may contribute more than they receive back, whilst others behave as free-riders. To avoid this, DMOs should coordinate destination marketing activities in collaboration with the actors concerned. Haugland, Ness, Gronseth and Aarstad (2011) stated that destination development needs to encompass strategies across multiple actor boundaries and integrated multilevel strategies. Furthermore, they pointed out that since the products and services of destinations are delivered to more than one actor, some degree of coordination between them is required. Because of this lack of control over tourism products, many DMOs choose to focus primarily on the promotional aspect of the marketing mix to keep consumers informed about their needs and expectations based on stakeholder theory.

In this regard, stakeholders of a tourism product, like DMOs and travel intermediaries, such as tour operators and travel agencies, enter into collaborations so as to reach more tourists and this also enables them to convey their messages with lower advertising budgets to a wider audience due to the combining effect. For example, assume that the Turkish Tourism Board in

London has a budget of £500,000 for ITV television advertising in the UK to promote that destination with an aim to reach an impact value of 30 million. TUI UK has also allocated the same budget for its tours to Turkey, with a forecast of having a 50 million impact total due to the bargaining power of media buying. Since both of these aims to promote Turkey as a travel destination, if there is no joint brand advertising, they can still transmit their messages with an impact value of 50 or 80 million, but with a joint brand advertising campaign the advertisements they could reach 130 million. The fundamental reason behind this is that, big tour operators, in particular, have more power in media buying due to their bulk advertising in comparison to tourism boards. With the condition that there is a consensus on the promotional film, both sides can reach the proposed target number of viewers with a smaller allocated budget or a larger audience with the same budget. Whilst this example can be considered a win-win situation for both sides, this may not be necessarily the same with every condition. Clearly, if one particular destination depends heavily on a specific tour operator or vice versa, then if either attracts negative perception about their offer, collaboration between them will lead to poor outcomes for both entities.

In addition to economical advantage, DMOs may also want to carry out marketing activities, especially in collaboration with highly-reputed travel intermediaries, such as tour operators and travel agencies, in order to transfer positive associations from them to the destination-oriented product. Brands require a positive reputation, which is articulated with the aggregate perception of outsiders on the salient characteristics of companies and associations. Brand reputation refers to how a particular brand is viewed and valued by others (Butkhuzi & Ghaleb, 2019; Tweephoncharoen & Vongurai, 2019). It is something that organisations earn over time and refers to how various audiences evaluate the brand (Veloutsou and Moutinho 2009). For

example, Cox & Kings, which is one of the longest established travel firms dating back to 1758 (coxandkings.co.uk) is perceived as a highly-reputed tour operator brand especially for its popular cultural tours. In this regard, joint brand advertising activity with it may enable DMOs to lure in an affluent segment to cultural tourism products at the particular destination.

The reputation of a partnering brand signals the quality of products to consumers. Also, particularly for travel intermediaries, one of the main aims of the joint brand advertising is to increase potential tourists' interest in the product advertised. Product interest refers to "how interested the consumer is in the product featured in the marketing communications" (Scheinbaum, Hampel, & Kang, 2017, p. 633). Coming together with a reputed travel intermediary brand in an advert may enhance tourists' interest in the tourism product and higher interest towards a product is more likely to lead favourable responses.

Most destinations, ultimately, aim to attract visitors from a target market by influencing their decision-making process and travel behaviours. As a private company, a tour operator also wants to increase its customer base, with the aim of selling tourism products and increasing profit. Tourists can either individually organise their trip to a particular destination or buy a package via tour operators (Alaeddinoglu & Can, 2010; Liao & Chuang, 2020). In both cases, they have to contact business entities, such as travel agencies, airline companies, hotels, and so on.

Consequently, collaborative marketing is crucial to the success of a destination in terms of influencing tourist behaviour, converting demand into an action of buying, obtaining market information, supporting tour operators and strengthening or changing the image of a destination. As a result of this, nowadays, DMOs give increasingly higher importance to collaborative

marketing, not just for economic and brand popularity reasons, but also for other reasons that are explained in Chapter 2. Most of the collaborative marketing studies in the tourism context have been focused on strategic alliances or inter-governmental collaboration, whilst joint brand advertising has received scant attention. Hence, investigating the process and outcomes of such advertising in the destination marketing context is the focus of this research. The next section sets out clearly the importance of the chosen subject for this thesis.

1.2 The Importance of the Research

Not only is empirical research in the field of collaborative marketing limited, for so too is enquiry dealing with its effect on visiting preferences in the tourism context (McKinney, Hazeldine, & Chawla, 2009). Furthermore, none of the existing research has involved investigating collaborative marketing in the context of joint brand advertising between a destination and a travel intermediary. In fact, this kind of collaboration is more common than those occurring between DMOs and other actors, such as airlines, hotels, restaurants as well as those between the two lattermost. A better understanding of joint brand advertising ultimately aimed at influencing tourist behavioural intention will lead to some actionable implications for DMOs. This is because understanding the behavioural intention of potential tourists is paramount for any kind of marketing activity (Dean & Suhartanto, 2019; Lam & Hsu, 2006) including joint brand advertising. It is anticipated that, the outcomes will help destination marketers to understand better the antecedents and influential factors of tourists' behavioural intentions through joint brand advertising. Moreover, the outcomes of this study also have practical implications for

DMOs and travel intermediaries to be considered in their marketing activities towards a particular destination.

Despite the popularity of marketing collaboration in tourism, assessing the effect of joint brand advertising on tourists' behavioural responses is limited (Zapata and Hall 2012; Newmeyer et al. 2018). Assessing the impact of joint brand advertising on tourists' behavioural responses is critical in that presenting an additional brand in an advertisement may well stimulate tourist interest in tourism products and behavioural intention (Benur and Bramwell 2015). Also, for DMOs, whether or not the reputation of a brand partner has an influence on the tourists' behavioural responses is a previously unaddressed research question.

Romaniuk (2013) posited that the presence of a second brand in an advert creates more competition for consumer attention, which runs the risk of stealing the brand's spotlight. Nguyen, Romaniuk, Faulkner, and Cohen (2018) searched the appearance of a second brand in adverts regarding advertisement and brand memorability for consumer-packaged brands. They found that featuring of two brands negatively affects brand memorability, whilst it has a neutral effect on advertisement memorability. More recently, Nguyen, Romaniuk, Cohen, and Faulkner (2020) provided evidence that advertising featuring two brands has different effects on different buyer groups' memorability in the retailing context due to cognitive processing. That is, an additional second brand could potentially inhibit consumers' ability to remember the adverts from memory. The effects of presenting a second brand in an advert on tourist behavioural response remains unexplored.

The study also involves testing whether joint brand advertising yields different results depending on it being undertaken with a highly-reputed or lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand. These new insightful findings will assist

brands in determining the role of joint brand advertising in their brand development strategies. Additionally, possible strategies for joint brand advertising will be identified for brands in terms of essential determining factors in choosing partners, increasing the effectiveness of advertising as well as potential advantages and inhibitors.

Despite brands having a significant information dissemination role for consumers (Vaidyanathan & Aggarwal, 2000), researchers have not focused on how they should be strategically managed in a joint relationship to enhance their brand image and to boost sales. The main goal for travel intermediaries is to increase the selling of their tours, whilst for DMOs, it is generally to grow the number of international visitors and hence, exploring the collaborative relationship between these two main actors of the tourism industry is essential. In the present research, whether potential tourists develop a favourable response towards a particular destination-oriented product partially as a result of collaborative marketing is explored, thereby leading to some important implications for practitioners.

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Research

The aim of this research is to compare the differential effects of single brand advertising and joint brand advertising on tourist behaviour as well as investigating the mediating role of product interest on these effects. More specifically, this research involves examining (1) the direct effect of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural response and tourists' intention to visit behaviour and (2) the indirect effect in this context through product interest.

The objectives of the thesis are as follows:

- to review critically the literature on tourists' destination visiting behaviour and collaborative marketing, with a special focus on joint brand advertising;
- to advance the theory of joint brand advertising modelling in the destination marketing context;
- to investigate the underlying psychological process for the joint brand advertising effect;
- to identify the boundary conditions for the effect of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural response.

1.4 Contributions of the Research

Whilst collaborative marketing has received considerable interest in recent years, especially in manufacturing (Chaab & Rasti-Barzoki, 2016; Martin-Herran & Sique, 2017; Yan, Cao, & Pei, 2016) and operational research (Aust & Buscher, 2014), the validity of public-private collaboration in marketing, including tourism promotion, has received much less attention (Hall, 1999). In this regard, Helmig, Huber and Leeflang (2008) considered the effects of promotional advertising on consumers' evaluations of co-branded products as a potential area for further research on advertising strategies. Pisierra, McKinney and Chawla (1999) suggested that future research should focus on an individual's likelihood to visit a particular area featured in collaborative marketing programmes in the travel and tourism industry. Additionally, regarding this industry, McKinney et al. (2009) recommended that the impact of collaborative marketing on international visitors' visiting preferences should be examined in future research. Hence, this study addresses this, by examining how collaboration in advertising affects tourist behaviour towards a particular

destination, thereby contributing to the enrichment of the literature on joint brand advertising.

Furthermore, in relation to research on joint brand advertising in the tourism context (e.g. McKinney et al., 2009; Park & Nicolau, 2015; Pisierra et al., 1999), the underlying psychological mechanism behind the joint brand advertising effect has remained relatively unexplored. That is, although there are numerous numbers of models available in the advertising (e.g. Grigaliunaite & Pileliene, 2016; Lavidge & Steiner, 1961; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Smith & Swinyard, 1982, 1983) and specifically in tourism advertising (e.g. Kim, Hwang, & Fesenmaier, 2005; Seigel & Zilf-Levine, 1990), to the best of my knowledge, none of the research has involved applying any of these to the concept of joint brand advertising. Whilst marketers have much knowledge pertaining to the effect of advertisements on products that are advertised, their understanding regarding the effect of advertisements on the various levels of purchase decision of consumers, as found in the multiple stages of the AIDA model, is limited (Ullal & Hawaldar, 2018). In fact, the AIDA advertising model has been applied to the tourism context in only a small number of research endeavours (Woodside & Carr, 1988; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Johnson & Messmer, 1991) and not in the joint brand advertising context. For this study, the impact of joint brand advertising on the two stages of interest and action in the hierarchy of effects model on tourist behaviour is investigated. Specifically, this research is aimed at addressing the aforementioned gaps in the tourism destination marketing literature by modelling collaborative marketing focussed on joint brand advertising, with the inclusion of product interest, to explain the behaviours of potential tourists.

Also, it was deemed that it would be beneficial, if the current research involved testing the effectiveness of collaborative marketing for different conditions,

such as partnering with lesser- or highly-reputed travel intermediary brands in the tourism context to investigate boundary conditions. Hence, the work will contribute to the destination branding literature by providing insights into whether or not a partnering brand's reputation in an advert has a positive effect on tourist behavioural response. By critically reviewing literature, this research will also contribute to existing knowledge by providing an update of the practices regarding joint brand advertising.

Finally, future directions for research proposed at the end of the concluding chapter will enable academics to identify the gaps that need to be addressed in forthcoming studies.

The contributions of this research are summarised in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Contributions of the research

<i>Current studies</i>	<i>Contributions of this research</i>
Lack of a conceptual model on joint brand advertising	Developing and testing a theoretical model on joint brand advertising with the incorporation of product interest.
Inadequacy of the research on joint brand advertising in the tourism industry.	Advancing the theory of joint brand advertising in the tourism context.
Limited understanding about how joint adverts contribute to branding destinations.	Making recommendations on how joint adverts can be helpful for DMOs in improving their brand strategies.
Shortage of experimental studies on the effects of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural intentions.	Creating experiments in order to investigate the effects of joint brand advertising on tourists' behavioural responses.
Availability of various terms referring to the partnership of a DMO and a tour operator for paid advertising.	Making a distinction in the terms to be used in describing a partnership in advertising between a DMO and a tour operator.
Necessity of determining criteria in a partnership.	Providing essential criteria for selecting best partner.

1.5 Structure of the Thesis

The rest of this thesis is organised as follows.

Chapter 2 reviews the concept and theories of collaboration, with a particular focus on joint brand advertising. Firstly, the general process of collaborative marketing and destination marketing collaboration is described. Then, the main differences among terms, such as collaboration, co-operation as well as co-operative advertising, co-branded advertising, and joint brand advertising, that are used in the marketing literature, are clarified. This is followed by the provision of a distinct definition of joint brand advertising that is accepted for the current thesis. Finally, there is an overview of joint brand advertising research within the tourism context, with consideration of the possible advantages and disadvantages.

Chapter 3 reviews the models that explain effects of advertising on consumer behaviour, with particular interest placed on the advertising models that have been developed to predict tourist behaviour. As one of the most commonly applied models in advertising, the AIDA hierarchy of effects model is explained in detail with its four stages of: attention, interest, desire and action.

Chapter 4 provides the conceptual proposed theoretical frameworks for the thesis. The current research includes two research models. Whilst first proposes a positive relation between joint brand advertising and actual tourist behaviour, the second incorporates product interest as a mediator into the conceptual framework. This chapter also provides development of hypotheses to be tested through experimental research.

Chapter 5 focusses on the methodological approach and research design. For this thesis, experimental research was applied, as the aim was to test the causal relationship between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural response. Regarding the two consecutive experiments that were used to test the hypotheses, the stimuli, scenarios, process of recruitment, reliability and

validity issues as well as data analysis methods for each experiment are explained.

Chapter 6 presents the findings from the thesis analysis. It provides the results of the experiments pertaining to binary logistic analysis for the field experiment in Study 1 and mediation analysis through PROCESS macro for SPSS in Study 2. Results are discussed separately in terms of different comparisons for the single brand advert, the joint advert with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand and the joint advert with a highly-reputed one.

Chapter 7 closes the thesis, with a review of the work undertaken and conclusions being drawn about key elements of the research that was undertaken. Finally, the limitations of the thesis are discussed and proposals for potential future fruitful research avenues are made.

Chapter 2

A Critical Review of Collaborative Marketing and Joint Brand Advertising

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to explore the concept of collaborative marketing. Specifically, joint brand advertising as a form of collaborative marketing is discussed in detail by addressing definitional issues. Also, joint brand advertising research in the extant literature scrutinised, with a focus on tourism.

2.2 Definition of Collaborative Marketing

The term collaboration originates from the Latin word collaborare “to work with”, from com - “with” (if it precedes begins with ‘l,’ ‘com’ it becomes ‘col’) + laborare

“to work”. The converse is working alone. Gray (1989, p. 5) defines collaboration as “a process through which parties who see different aspects of a problem can constructively explore their differences and search for solutions that go beyond their own limited vision of what is possible”. A key element of collaboration in this definition is the necessity of working together with partners towards a mutually desirable end to solve a particular problem domain (Palazzo, Vollero, Siano, & Foroudi, 2020). Since acting individually may make it difficult for firms to address problems due to growing complexity, fragmentation, and turbulence in environments, they regularly choose some form of collaborative relationship (Sharpley, 2014). The concept of collaboration can take various forms, such as strategic alliances, joint brand advertising etc.

Gray and Wood (1991) identify six main theoretical perspectives to explain collaboration, these being: resource dependence theory, corporate social performance theory, strategic management theory, microeconomics theory, institutional theory, and political theory. On the other hand, Palmer and Bejou (1995) introduce three major theoretical frameworks: resource dependency theory, transaction cost theory, and relational exchange theory.

Proponents of resource dependence theory propose that organisations that lack fundamental resources or only partially access resources seek to gain essential ones from others (York & Miree, 2020). Collaboration is one of the possible ways of doing this. In essence, the focus of resource dependence theory is acquiring essential resources, while preserving autonomy in the collaborative process (Jakobsen, 2020).

The key driving forces in relational exchange theory are trust and commitment (Guo, Yang, Li, & Lyu, 2020) rather than power and control, as in the case of

resource dependence theory (Sherer, Suddaby, & de Coquet, 2019). Relationships between firms discourage them from behaving opportunistically (Tse, Wang, & Zhang, 2019). Moreover, working together through collaboration help firms to solve the heavily populated interdependence problem domains and thus, reduce uncertainties.

A central premise of transaction cost theory is that firms habitually have opportunistic behaviour in many forms of transactions, such as purchasing inputs, selling products, and so forth (Rindfleisch, 2020). Since these transactions imply costs like information, negotiation, and monitoring costs, firms can try to minimise transaction costs through the market mechanism or appropriate governance structures, such as collaboration. In this regard, collaboration as a transactional structure is more efficient way to reduce transaction costs (Haaskjold et al., 2020; Um & Kim, 2019).

Under corporate social responsibility theory, it is postulated that firms not only act to maximise profit, for sometimes they also act in a socially responsible way (Chen & Wan, 2020; Newman, Rand, Tarp, & Trifkovic, 2020). Collaboration between firms or organisations is one of the logical ways to address social and environmental concerns with regards to achieving a shared outcome (Adomako & Nguyen, 2020).

Organisation is not just at the centre of theoretical attention in strategic management theory, for it also acts as a primary actor. However, this theory does not cover taking action for collective goals or allowing for power sharing in collaborations. Consequently, research has shifted from strategic management to social ecology in recent years. The relevance of this theory in collaborations has

thus increasingly pertained to regulating self-serving behaviours of collaborative partners to achieve collective gains (Hill, Jones, & Schilling, 2015).

Microeconomics theory implies that firms aim to achieve efficiency in their transactions. With collaborative partnerships, firms can prevent free rider effects and preserve shared resources with the ultimate aim of being more efficient in their transactions (Fyall, Oakley, & Weiss, 2000).

The institutional theory is conventionally concerned with how organisations achieve legitimacy and secure their positions by conforming to the rules and norms of the institutional environment (Lammers & Garcia, 2017). Through collaboration, firms seek to legitimise their existence in the market and activities (Bruton, Ahlstrom, & Li, 2010). As a faintly different interpretation of institutional theory, proponents of negotiated order theory are particularly interested in symbolic and perceptual aspects of the relationship between collaborative partners (Fyall et al., 2000).

Finally, the main driving forces for the political theory are private interest and conflict (Shapcott, 2020). Since this theory raises the question of access and distribution of power and resources, it is directly relevant to collaboration, particularly regarding the understanding of the almost inevitable conflict between collaborative parties from the public and private sectors (Fyall et al., 2000; Gray & Wood, 1991).

None of these theories is able to provide comprehensive grounds for building a general theory of collaboration, but each does partially explain the phenomenon from a theoretical perspective.

2.2.1 Preconditions, Processes and Outcomes of Collaborative Marketing

Wang and Fesenmaier (2007) identify four significant preconditions that may facilitate the formation of destination marketing collaboration: (1) crisis; (2) competition; (3) organisation support; and (4) technology support. As stated by Thao, von Arx, and Frolicher (2020), the process of marketing collaboration starts with the identification of potential partners for any possible alliances. Then, the partners direct all the relevant resources towards effective collaborative activities and all the plans and goals are put into action. Moreover, organisations assess whether predefined objectives have been accomplished. Once an effective marketing project has been accomplished, the parties in the alliances make a decision about the future direction of their partnership.

Venkatesh, Mahajan and Muller (2000) posit that a shift in the clout of a partner can happen rather quickly in the collaboration context. For instance, the weaker partner can change its position from the baseline towards a quite different equilibrium after releasing a new product. From the standpoint of the coordinator of collaborative partners, in terms of overall strength, the collaboration is most profitable or attractive, if the strengths are, by and large, balanced. Strength refers to the coefficients of change in consumers' shifting favour from one partner to another and the power of word of mouth effect that partnering brands can produce. If one partner is perceived as being weaker than the other, the promoter in a collaboration should strive to bolster the weaker of the two.

Samu, Krishnan and Smith (1999) propose a theoretical framework for identifying how joint brand advertising is processed by consumers. They integrate the associative network memory model, categorisation theory, and attribution memory model in their research. The authors' conceptualisation captures the effects of type of ad processing manner (top-down or bottom-up), the degree of complementarity between two featured products, and type of differentiation advertising strategy (common versus unique attributes) on brand awareness, brand accessibility, brand beliefs, and brand attitudes. However, their research findings have weaknesses in terms of providing limited data regarding the impact of joint brand advertising on established brands given that the main focus was on new product introduction. Furthermore, Samu et al.'s (1999) research covers only industry products. However, tourism products are different from industry ones in that the former have the distinct characteristics of intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity and perishability (Bakri, Krisjanous, & Richard, 2020; Majeed, Zhou, Lu, & Ramkissoon, 2020).

Firms and organisations in many sectors of business enter into collaboration with the purpose of accomplishing a number of jointly predefined well-specified goals (Maciel & Fischer, 2020), thereby enhancing resource bundling and leveraging (Wang, Li, & Jiang, 2019). Particularly businesses in tourism collaborates in order to overcome generic, managerial, and marketing challenges (Perkins & Khoo-Lattimore, 2020), , enhance the consistency and effectiveness of messages in destination marketing communications (Palazzo et al., 2020), achieve innovation (Li & Nguyen, 2019) , and succeed positive destination branding (Perkins, Khoo-Lattimore, & Arcodia, 2020)

In this regard, collaborative marketing predictably leads to three broad categories of outcomes: (1) strategy realisation, aimed at enhancing competitive advantage (Kirillova et al., 2020); (2) organisational learning which is mostly related to knowledge transfer (Toylan, Semercioz, & Ul Hassan, 2020; McLeod, 2020), organisation change as well as innovation (Gezhi, Jingyan, & Xiang, 2020; de Carvalho et al., 2020); and (3) tourism network building, which refers to the available resources regarding personal and business networks (Stoddart et al., 2020).

2.2.2 Destination Marketing Collaboration

Destination marketing is seen as a significant communication resource for both destination marketers (DMOs or tour operators and travel agencies) and tourists (Byun & Jang, 2015). Collaborative destination marketing activities can include joint promotion campaigns, organising familiarity tours to tourism destinations, supporting destination events (Wang, 2008a), partnering in consumer tourism or trade shows (Wang, Hutchinson, Okumus, & Naipaul, 2013) as well as roadshows or workshops aimed at bringing together, consumer, tourism suppliers and tour operators.

As the nature of the tourism industry has become gradually more fragmented and volatile there is an increasing need to forge partnerships (Wang et al., 2013) and collaboration among the variety of stakeholders in destination marketing (McComb, Boyd, & Boluk, 2017; Saito & Ruhanen, 2020). Additionally, rapid changes in customers' needs, expectations, and preferences has been forcing firms to find innovative ways to develop brands so as to deliver high quality (Aujla &

Kaur, 2017). Also, the supply and demand side of tourism industry push destinations to seek ways of collaboration to deliver better tourism products and experiences (Kozak & Buhalis, 2019).

The role of national and regional tourist organisations has dramatically shifted from a public administration model to a corporatist one. With this new process of governing, public organisations should decrease their role in planning, increase promotional activities, and engage in collaborative partnerships with stakeholders (Lin & Simmons, 2017). The purposes of collaboration in the tourism industry differ according to whether it is at the local, regional or national level when developing and marketing tourism products jointly (Lemmetyinen, 2009). The dynamic and strategic collaborative tourism growth processes are of vital importance to local communities especially to manage turbulent planning at the local level and to increase destinations' competitiveness in the globalised business and travel market conditions (Garrod & Fyall, 2017). For example, collaborative tourism arrangements at the local level may offer consensus-building and collective learning for stakeholders and destinations (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999), whilst at the regional level these may help destinations to respond adverse environmental and economic conditions (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007). Throughout all these processes, recognition of individual and mutual benefits should be included, which will encourage effective tourism development in the collaboration between public sector and private firms (Candrea, Constantin, & Ispas, 2017).

Owing to the complexity of a tourism destination product, interdependence of multiple stakeholders, and the fragmented control of tourism resources (Minnaert, 2020), many organisations are involved in its marketing. Jointly defined tourism objectives and policies as well as the establishment of a vision statement for the

development of tourism are prerequisites for an effective strategic collaboration process regarding a destination (Perkins et al., 2020). According to Roberts and Simpson (1999), the overall success of partnership depends more on the immeasurable and intangible elements of collaboration, such as motivation, personalities, and stakeholders' role in the partnership than measurable targets. In this regard, Rao and Ruekert (1994) confirm that the additional attributes of a brand can enhance attractiveness of a jointly branded product. Also, additional attributes of a brand that enhance attractiveness of a jointly branded product in consumers' minds should be considered as a means to improving the collaboration.

Collaborative marketing initiatives are voluntary arrangements between tourism organisations involved in marketing and promoting destinations (Keyim, 2018; Wang, 2008b). This is one of the quickest ways to develop the image of a brand and increase brand awareness (Maehle & Supphellen, 2015). In this regard, a DMO can develop collaborative marketing opportunities by mobilising and combining the resources of its stakeholders (Czernek, Czakon, & Marszalek, 2017) to take advantage of with power of persuasion in different ways, such as advertising, to influence people in the destination branding process (Marzano & Scott, 2009). Furthermore, recognition of the interdependencies among stakeholders can increase the effectiveness of the marketing planning process (Canacott, Ellis, & Tadjewski, 2017). In particular if an individual brand is unknown, collaborative marketing activities can help signal the quality of the brand (Mohan, Brown, Sichtmann, & Schoefer, 2018). Moreover, collaborative marketing activities are significantly more effective than single-brand advertising in terms of strengthening positive brand personality traits (Maehle & Supphellen, 2015).

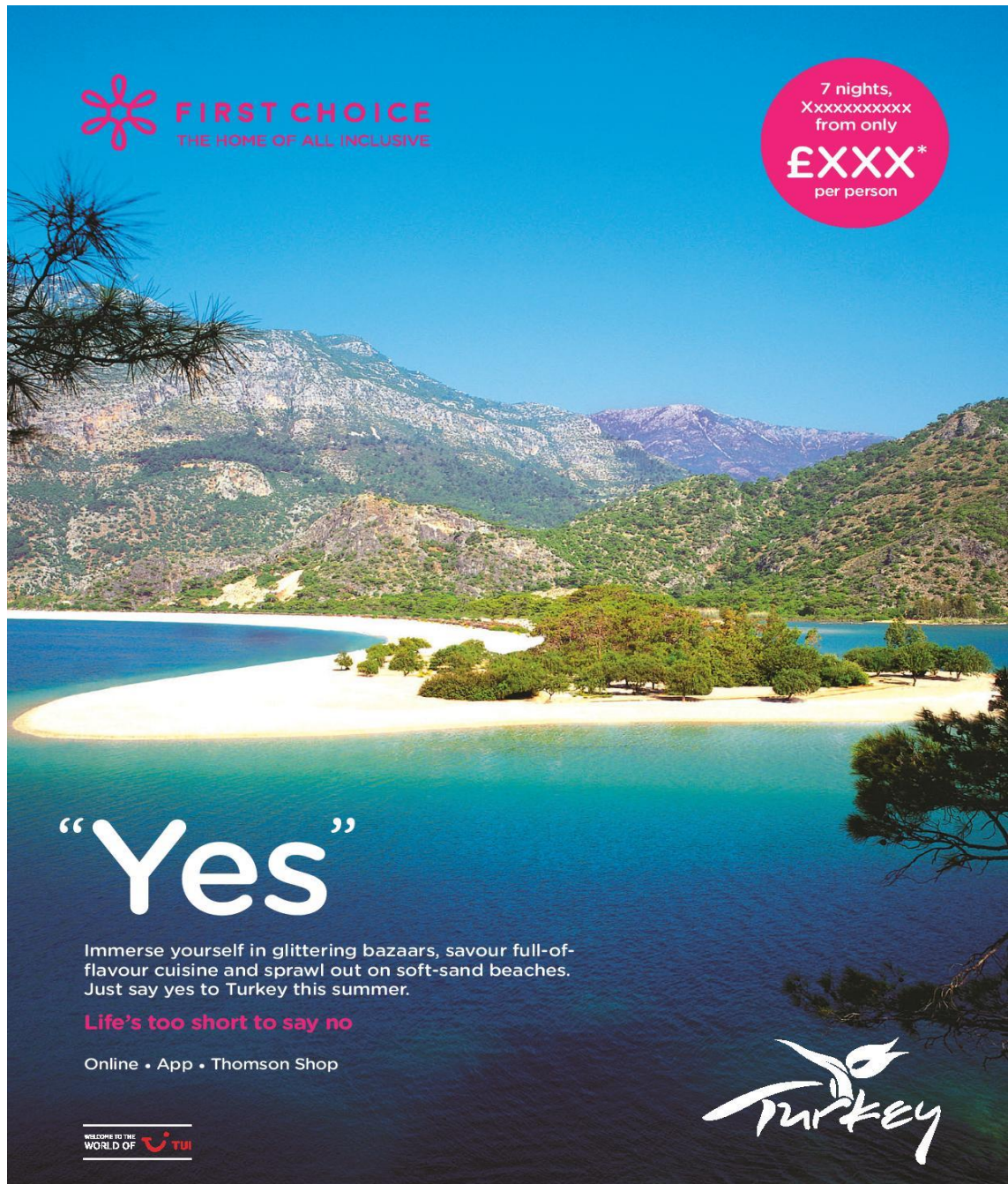
In this section, the concept and theories of collaborative marketing as well as collaborative marketing in tourism have been explored. The next sub-section considers joint brand advertising as one of the collaborative marketing practices in terms of clarifying definitional issues as well as explaining the benefits and disadvantages of joint brand advertising in the tourism industry.

2.3 Joint Brand Advertising as a Form of Collaborative Marketing

Joint brand advertising is a strategic marketing and advertising partnership “in which firms invest in on advertising with two brands and where the two brands share the advertising space and the advertising effect” (Yu, He, Zhang, & Xu, 2019, p.1). A joint advertisement visual may include logos, hotel or flight information, textual message (slogan), and/or brand-level information. As mentioned by Karray & Sique (2017), joint brand advertising campaigns can involve various media channels, including TV, print media, social media etc, depending on the allocated budget.

A sample mock-up of a joint advertisement between First Choice and Turkey can be seen in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: A sample mock-up of joint brand advertising



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Source: Provided by the Turkish Tourism Board in London

There are typically two different types of co-operative or joint brand advertising: horizontal and vertical. The former occurs between firms, organisations, or firms at the same channel level (e.g. two retailers who sell the same product of a manufacturer or franchisees of a franchisor), whilst the latter happens between supply chain players at different levels of the channel (Amrouche & Yan, 2017; Jorgensen & Zaccour, 2014) (e.g. franchisor and franchisee, a retailer and a manufacturer or a manufacturer and a wholesaler). In tourism industry, horizontal joint brand advertising may happen between a hotel and a restaurant, whilst the vertical form can take place between a city or a destination and a travel agency (Park & Nicolau, 2015).

In joint schemes of tourism marketing, DMOs are willing to support an advertising campaign on a joint basis, of say, USD 100 for every USD 200 invested by a partner (s) (Middleton et al., 2009). Most of the DMOs (e.g. India, Turkey) contribute up to 50% of total advertising costs. Generally, this process requires an application based on joint brand advertising criteria defined by the relevant DMOs (see joint brand advertising criteria in Appendix I for Turkey).

For example, according joint brand advertising criteria defined by the Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism, joint brand advertising activities can be performed between Turkish Tourism Offices and business entities, such as the tour operator, travel agencies, airline companies, tourism unions etc, the head offices of which are based in foreign countries and which have scheduled and/or charter flights to Turkey as well as organised tourism excursions. Joint brand advertising activity can be performed on various media channels, such as printed media, outdoor platforms, TV, radio, the Internet, mobile applications and similar types of media as well as internal media channels of travel intermediaries, such as

window displays. Joint advertisements have to be only Turkey-themed, with there being no association of logos, slogan or visuals with other countries. Moreover, an approval process is required through an agreed media plan. In terms of payment, a Turkish Tourism Office covers up to fifty (50%) of the net media buying cost of advertisement activities, excluding production, design, VAT, and other taxes. This payment can be made only after submission and evaluation of advertisement proofs and invoices to the relevant Turkish Tourism Offices. Under these criteria, there is no defined budget limit for joint brand advertising and the capacity limit for travel intermediaries is also not mentioned. Hence, it is assumed that these issues should be determined through consensus with the appropriate Turkish Tourism Offices.

With the destination marketing concept, some aspects of the other brand can be transferred to the destination feature through the jointly advertised and promoted activities, whereby there is a change of perception and attitudes of consumers towards both brands' images (Jayswal, 2008). More specifically, joint brand advertising campaigns can lead to synergistic effects due to the effective use of intangible assets, such as brand reputation (Balabanits & Gaponiuk, 2019). This obvious synergy of joint brand advertising can help to formulate a more coherent positioning or bundling strategy for neighbouring tourism regions (March & Wilkinson, 2009).

Not just the external factors, such as competitors' marketing strategy, for also internal factors, such as changes in the marketing mix can lead to changes improvements in brand image and given these dynamic features, efforts aimed at image enhancement should be ongoing (Maehle & Supphellen, 2015). In this dynamic market, co-branding through joint brand advertising can be seen as an

important tool for branding partners to adapt to the environmental conditions by promoting image improvement of their brands (Aujla & Kaur, 2017). That is, joint brand advertisements allow for the creation of a dynamic tourism product that can be easily adapted to meet the needs and expectations of the tourists (Indrianto et al., 2017).

The basic elements of tourism distribution encompass the tourist(s), the supplier(s) and intermediary (ies) (Jorgensen, 2017). Distribution channels in tourism refer to '...the link between the producers of tourism and their customers' (Gartner & Bachri, 1994, p.164). Tourism distribution channels primarily provide information to prospective tourists and combine tourism products together. Since a tourism distribution channel also involves undertaking marketing research activities, Katsoni (2016) argues that distribution channels are 'the paths by which tourism organizations execute the communication and sale of their products and services' (p.20). In the promotional element of the channel, destinations co-operate with travel intermediaries. In this regard, since tour operators and travel agencies have the power to influence and direct tourism demand, they have to be utilised by tourism suppliers (Buhalis, 2004). They also act as an interface between the tourism industry and potential tourists.

By entering into a jointly advertised campaigns, partners are able to build brand awareness and knowledge in the minds of potential tourists as well as to stimulate tourist purchasing of excursions.

Whilst full management control is possible for nationally or globally established brands and products in the travel and tourism sector, such as TUI, Marriott, and Accor, most well-known brands, such as London, New York etc depend on co-operation and persuasion as they are not under full management control. In this

regard, weaker destination brands, like small, islands can be overridden by powerful ones like Club Mediterranee, as the former have much less budget for communicating the brand at the international level (Middleton et al., 2009).

2.3.1 Joint Brand Advertising and Similar Concepts

In addition to joint brand advertising, as a form of advertising relationship between firms and /or organisations, there are some other different terms that appear in the marketing literature, such as collaborative advertising, co-operative advertising, and co-branded advertising. However, there have been only sketchy definitions of the terms and the general tendency of using them interchangeably, has increased confusion. Hence, the key distinguishing features of the terms used in the literature are illustrated below and this is followed by a definition of joint brand advertising.

2.3.1.1 Difference between collaboration and co-operation

The definitions of collaboration and co-operation are not very explicit in the majority of reported studies. Most researchers have treated these two concepts as the same due to similarities between them in terms of both having collective behaviour among actors, interaction among firms in the public, private sector or other type of agents as well as not necessarily being geared towards the improvement of firm competitiveness (Polenske, 2004). This general tendency of using the terms collaborative and co-operative interchangeably can also be seen in tourism literature (Indrianto et al., 2017; Kozak & Buhalis, 2019), in majority of the

manufacturing research (Farshbaj-Geranmayeh, Rabbani, & Taleizadeh, 2017), and even in consumer scholarship (Simonin & Ruth, 1998).

Polenske (2004) tries to make a distinction between the two. She posits that whilst collaborative relationships encompass direct participation of two or more actors in the marketing process of a product in the concept of an internal arrangement by working together, co-operative relationships include providing information related to a particular market, supporting technical training and supplying capital in the concept of a formal or informal external agreement of two or more actors. Furthermore, building a partnership among firms takes a longer time in a collaboration (Khalilzadeh & Wang, 2018) in that it involves much higher levels of trust and commitment than cooperative acts that merely require voluntary mutual assistance activities. Also, a collaboration usually takes place vertically, whilst co-operation relationships generally are horizontal. Finally, collaboration differs from cooperation as it includes collective types of behaviour.

Another distinction is made by Himmelman (1996), who places these terms on a continuum of increased action. Co-operation includes sharing resources and exchanging information to reach a shared goal, whilst for collaboration the author adds enhancing another's capacity to this definition. Hence, collaboration, positioned at the far end of the continuum, is a broader concept. Furthermore, Keast, Brown, and Mandell (2007) also support the idea that collaboration requires a higher level of relationship, connections, commitment, and contribution than does cooperation.

Jamal and Getz (1995) mention that almost no effort has been made to separate collaboration from cooperation in tourism studies. Whilst co-operation refers to 'working together towards some end', this definition does not capture the major

dimensions and complex problem domains that are crucial for collaboration. Hence, these authors also see co-operation as a subset of collaboration. Watkins and Bell (2002) suggest that a co-operative relationship involves a short- or medium- term involvement, such as in joint promotion, whereas a collaborative relationship requires a longer time to develop. Consequently, they concluded that basically there are different ways of contributing to partnerships.

2.3.1.2 Difference between collaborative, co-branded and joint brand advertising

Collaboration can take various forms, such as brand alliance or co-branding. Chang (2009) categorises co-branding for companies as coalition, coordination, collaboration, and cooperation, according to the level. This means that he classifies collaboration and co-operation strategies under co-branding. Co-branding is “the pairing of two or more brands” (Seno & Lukas, 2007, p. 123) in any collaborative marketing efforts (Nguyen, Romaniuk, Faulkner, & Cohen, 2018) to “build trust and loyalty by projecting a continued and consistent set of values” (Chang, 2009, p. 79). In relation to tourism, it could be aimed at building consistent perceptions of the attributes of both brands a region and its individual communities. It can also strengthen the linkages of the images of a region to the brand identity and the level favourability towards this region (Cai, 2002) and guides consumers for shaping expectations and formation of brand image (Chang, 2009). Co-branding can help to create brand associations and reinforce the image of partnering brands. Through this process, some associations can be transferred from partnering brands to an unknown co-brand. Kottemann and Decker (2017) states that the image of a co-branded product depends on the allying partners. Further, they suggest that

positive spillover effects can be observed for some important associations, whereas some can potentially be lost through the co-brand alliance.

Within the tourism context, Liang (2017) posits that the co-branding effect can be increased when island destinations are positioned in alignment with tourism activities. One of the most important characteristics of co-branding is that there is “a public relationship between independent brands” (Seno & Lukas, 2007, p. 123). Organisational dissimilarity between co-branding partners influences brand-fit perception and consumer attitude (Decker & Baade, 2016). Blackett and Boad (1999) explain how sponsorship basically operates as the exchange of money for an image transfer or reputation enhancement, whereas the relationship between the involved parties in co-branding goes beyond a simple transaction (Seno & Lukas, 2007).

Kim, Lee and Lee (2007) posit that co-branded promotional activities can take place in various forms, such as joint brand advertising or event programmes. That is, they categorise joint brand advertising under the umbrella of co-branding. However, Jagpal's (1981) understanding of joint brand advertising does not align with this classification. This author evaluates the case of advertising of two different products of a commercial bank, saving accounts and checking accounts, in two different media as joint brand advertising due to the inherent jointness of these products. In this case, it can be taken that there is no co-branding or co-operative advertising activity either, because there is only one brand of the bank's two products in the advertising and not two, with there is also being no cooperation. Hence, it should be noted that in this case as there is only one brand it can only be considered as being single brand advertising. In the general

categorisation of collaboration or cooperation, there should be always at least two business entities not just departments.

Furthermore, as co-branding is “a marketing arrangement to utilize multiple brand names on a single product or service” (Chang, 2009, p. 77), the constituent brands create strategic alliances to achieve their objectives. In other words, multiple brands come together in the form of co-branding to accomplish an effective synergy with the unique strengths of existing brands (Chang, 2009) and to achieve certain goal such as effective advertising (Nasution, Arnita, & Purnama, 2020). Whilst alliances among airlines are considered as collaboration, hotels’ joint partnerships in consortia are described as co-operation with one another (Fyall & Garrod, 2005). Saulness and Lynch (1993) refer to just co-operative advertising to explain the creation of advertising based on a split cost between companies in travel businesses, whereas Fyall et al. (2000) use collaborative, co-branding, and joint marketing for the same concept in travel and tourism.

2.3.1.3 Difference between co-operative advertising and joint brand advertising

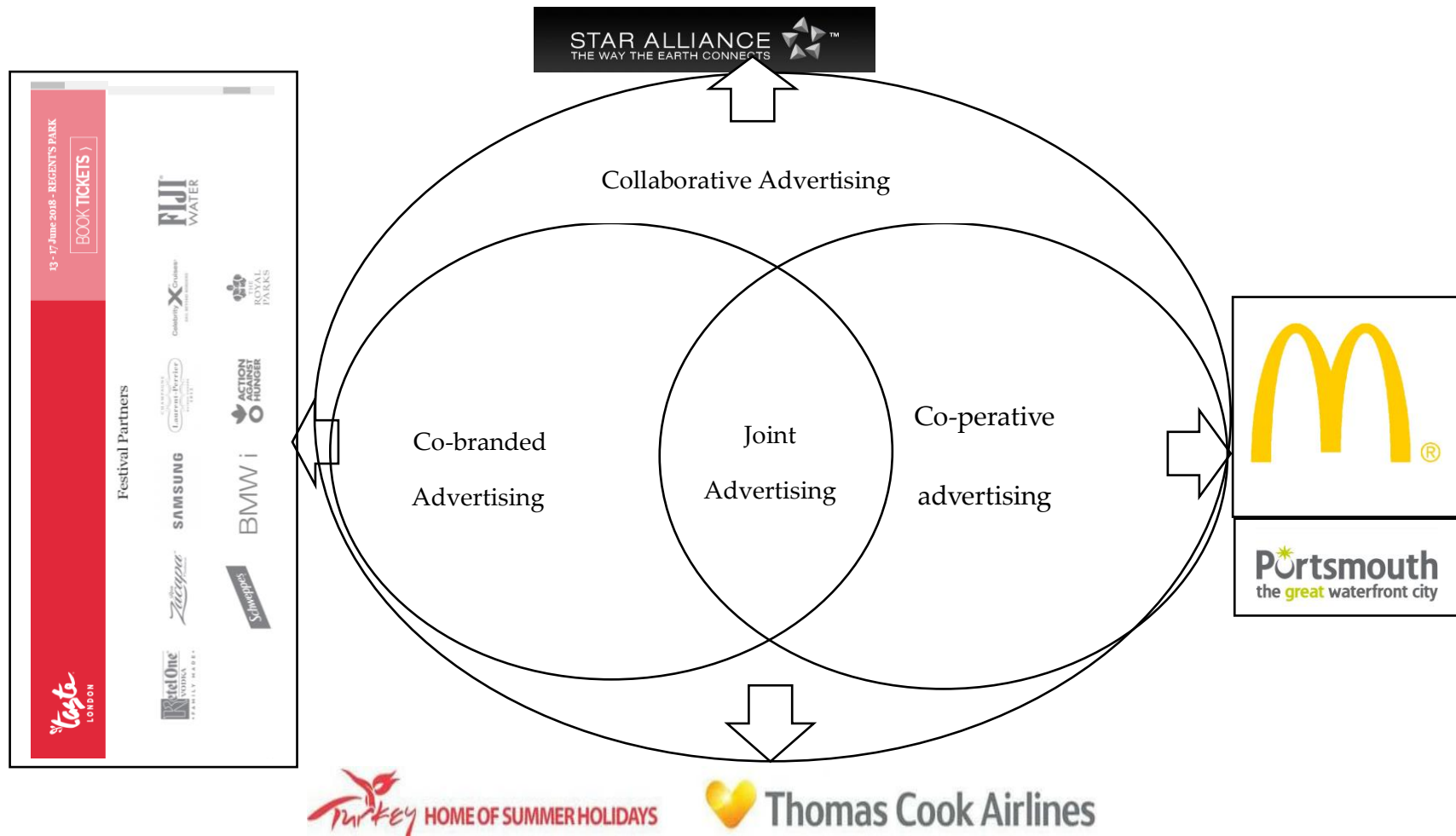
The usage of the co-operative advertising term is preferred in certain industries, such as consumer goods (Jorgensen & Zaccour, 2014), manufacturing (Amrouche & Yan, 2017) and tourism (McKinney et al., 2009). In manufacturing industry, co-operative advertising refers to a joint promotional arrangement in which a manufacturer reimburses a part or all of a retailer’s advertising expenditure for that manufacturer’s product (Aust & Buscher, 2012; Bergen, & John, 1997; Chaab & Rasti-Barzoki, 2016; Farshbaf-Geranmayeh, Rabbani, & Taleizadeh., 2017; Johari & Hosseini-Motlagh, 2018; Martin-Herran & Sigure, 2017; Jorgensen & Zaccour,

2014; Setak, Ahar, & Alaei, 2017; Yan et al., 2016; Zhang, Li, Lu, & Dai, 2017). In fact, there is limited research using the term joint-advertising instead of co-operative advertising in this industry (Hong, Xu, Du, & Wang, 2015; Jena, Sarmah, & Sarin; 2017; Lee & Shen, 2009). Moreover, only one brand appears in co-operative advertising in manufacturing industry, whilst there is usually more than one brand, such as destination and tour operator or hotels, regarding co-operative advertising activities in tourism destination marketing. However, the main philosophy underpinning both sectors' activities is the same, i.e. supporting an advertising activity for a shared goal.

Co-operative advertising and joint brand advertising have same meaning in most of the research in the tourism literature (Park & Nicolau, 2015). In this literature, co-operative advertising refers to advertising communication between cities / towns or business entities that share sponsorship and cost (McKinney et al., 2009). In other words, it pertains to the involvement of two different entities to convince a selected market to buy their product(s) through shared promotional activity (Pisierra et al., 1999).

Based on the above discussion, different terms regarding collaborative advertising types are provided in Figure 2.2. In this figure, the advertising of Star Alliance, offers smooth connections to its 28-member airlines in terms of the co-locations at airports, connection centres, infrastructure, and communication initiatives as a global airline alliance, which represents a collaborative partnership. Advertising of McDonalds, as a franchisee in the city of Portsmouth, is a cooperative partnership. Advertising of Turkey as a travel city with Thomas Cook airlines represents a sample for joint brand advertising. Finally, advertising of Taste (of London) with several sponsors pertains to co-branded advertising.

Figure 2.2: Collaborative advertising types



Source: Produced by the author

In this thesis, joint brand advertising refers to *the collaborative business-to-business relationship of two or more brands that work jointly for common benefits to be derived from co-branding to promote a product or a destination in the context of a co-operative arrangement through an advertisement mostly based on a shared cost, whilst maintaining independence as a business throughout the process*. In other words, it refers to the featuring of at least two brands together in an advertisement mostly based on a shared cost by partners and is narrowly limited with a focus on promotional activity, between DMOs and travel intermediaries, such as tour operators and/or travel agencies. Hereafter, joint brand advertising will be the preferred label and other terms will be used only where necessary.

2.3.2 Joint Brand Advertising Research in Tourism

Whilst Hill and Shaw (1995) point out that collaborative advertising is a new field in the marketing literature, there have already been several studies conducted in the tourism context. The research conducted on collaborative marketing activities has been about neighbouring destinations' collaboration (Naipaul, Wang, & Okumus, 2009), antecedents of effectiveness among co-operative tourism marketing associations (Palmer, 2002), collaborative destination marketing at a regional level (Wang, 2008a; Wang et al., 2013; Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007), tourism destination marketing alliances (Hill & Shaw 1995), governance style and internal compatibility of marketing groups for local destination/tourism associations (Palmer, 1998), a theoretical framework of collaborative destination marketing (Wang & Xiang, 2007), effectiveness of advertising alliances (Samu et al., 1999; Maehle & Supphellen, 2015), organisational relationships in tourism settings

(Watkins & Bell, 2002), measuring joint brand advertising effectiveness in a multiband/multiproduct firm (Jagpal, 1981), intergovernmental collaboration in tourism among the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) (Wong, Mistilis, & Dwyer, 2011), cross-border collaboration (Kozak & Buhalis, 2019), the attractiveness of co-marketing alliance formation (Venkatesh et al., 2000) or brand alliances (Rao & Ruekert, 1994).

Whilst co-operative advertising has been applied as a marketing tool since the early 1900s (Pisierra et al., 1999), this has become increasingly popular since the mid-1990s, as evidenced by both practitioner-oriented and academic studies (Helmig et al., 2008) conducted in different industries (Chang, 2009) (e.g. manufacturing and retail industry) (Karray & Amin, 2015; Karray & Sigue, 2017; Jena et al., 2017), and in the operational research literature (Aust & Buscher, 2014). With regards to joint brand advertising, there are only a limited number of studies on tourism (McKinney et al., 2009; Park & Nicolau, 2015; Pisierra et al., 1999), as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Research on joint brand advertising in the tourism literature

<i>Research on tourism</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Ads Type</i>	<i>Partners</i>	<i>Material</i>	<i>Terms preferred</i>	<i>Methodology</i>	<i>Independent variables</i>	<i>Dependent variables</i>
McKinney et al., 2009	Effect of co-operative advertising on an individual's propensity to visit an area	Vertical	Cities/towns and business entities	Brochure	Co-operative	Laboratory Experimental	Co-op or non-Co-op advertising; Business/leisure traveller	Likelihood of visiting a certain city/town; degree of involvement; advertising effectiveness; believability
Pisierra et al., 1999	Use of co-op advertising in small outlying city/towns	Vertical	Towns and business entities	Mail survey	Co-operative; collaborative	Mixed methods (statistical analysis system)	Co-operative advertising budget; distance from the airport/interstate	Perceived effects of co-operative advertising; co-op programme details; change in economic factors
Park & Nicolau, 2015	Differentiated effect of individual advertising	Horizontal	A hotel and a restaurant	Online survey	Joint & Co-operative	Random Coefficient Multinomial Logit Model	Perception of advertising influence; distance	Purchasing behaviour

Pisierra et al. (1999) explore the use of co-operative advertising in the travel and tourism industry in the case of small outlying towns/cities in USA. The results of their research indicate that applying co-operative advertising programmes is essential for small cities and towns, despite their size and location, so as to attract visitors and remain competitive. That is, these programmes lead to positive benefits. McKinney et al. (2009) investigate the effect of co-operative advertising on individuals' likelihood to visit an area. The outcomes of this study also support Pisierra et al.'s (1999) findings in that it emerges that co-operative advertising has an effect on individuals' propensity to visit cities that focus on historical, cultural and recreational attributes.

Park and Nicolau (2015) assess the differentiated effect of individual advertising (i.e. hotel, restaurant) and joint brand/co-operative advertising of a hotel and a restaurant. They find that, whilst advertising has a positive influence on tourists' visiting and purchasing decisions regarding a particular destination, this influence is higher in joint brand advertising (appearance of the hotel and restaurant together in the same advertisement). Furthermore, the results indicate that travellers who have a relatively higher income, travel for a business trip, and are likely to use the Internet tend to prefer the joint offering of the hotel and restaurant rather, than separate options, after being exposed to advertising. They conclude that advertising has comparatively much greater effect in the joint form than when it is separate. The research findings of Park and Nicolau (2015) also show that in the horizontal advertising strategy between a hotel and a restaurant that are on the same level of the distribution system, the effect of co-operative advertising on tourists' decision to visit and purchase is much greater than a separate advertising arrangement.

2.3.3 Benefits of Joint Brand Advertising in Tourism

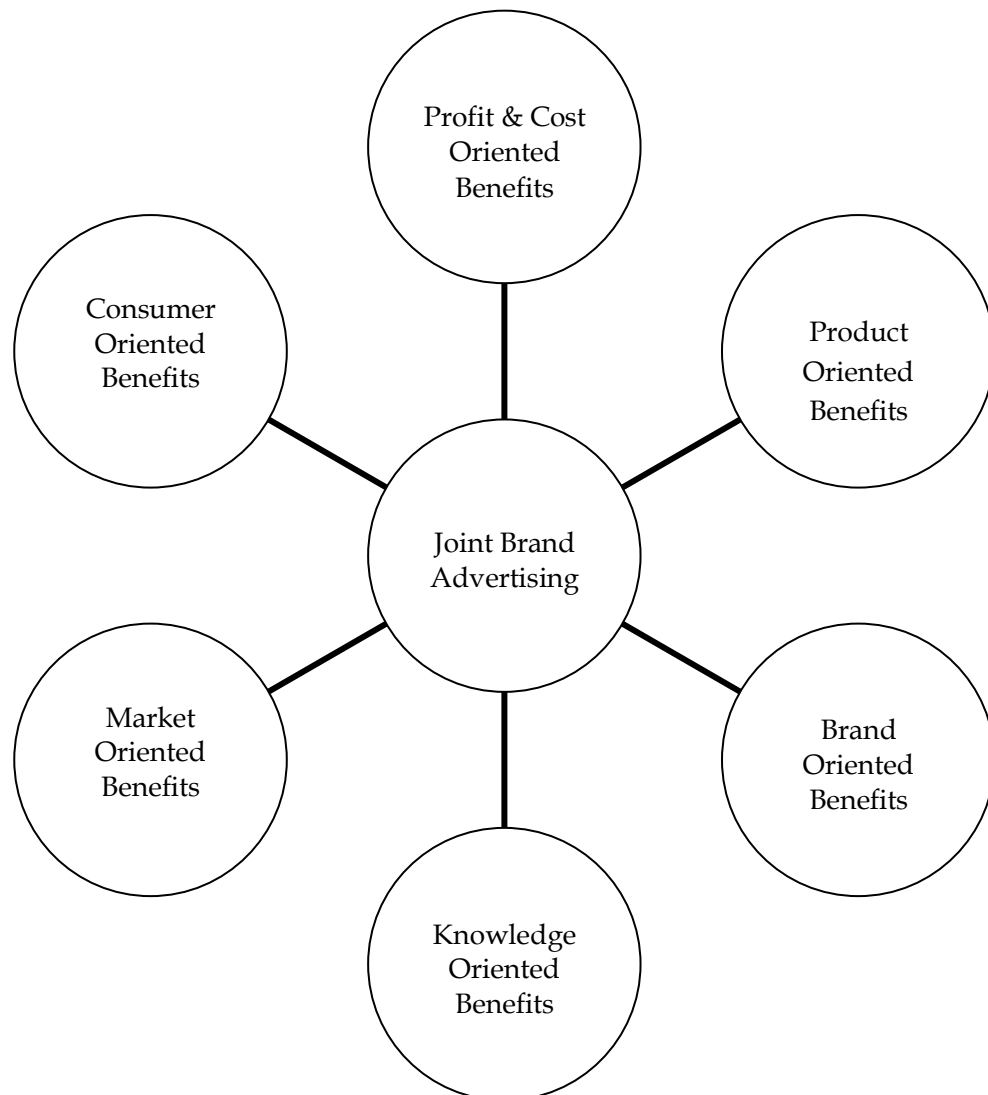
Since consumers tend to buy products with a higher goodwill, members in the supply chain allocate a considerable budget to advertising aimed at increasing the goodwill of their product (Zu and Chen, 2017). In the case of joint brand advertising, this can represent a significant fraction of the manufacturers' promotional budget (Bergen & John, 1997). Moreover, in the context of franchising, it is considered that 25–40% of the cost of local advertisements should be covered by franchisor when engaging in joint brand advertising (Dant & Berger, 1996).

Wang and Fesenmaier (2007) classify the motivations of tourism businesses for collaborative relationship into five broad categories: strategy-oriented, learning-oriented, transaction cost-oriented, cluster competitiveness and community responsibility. From the strategic perspective, increasing the portfolio of attractions as well as economic gains, and expanding markets are significant motivations for organisations. Transaction cost-oriented motivations include sharing costs, doing more things collaboratively and getting bigger impact from ads. From the organisational learning-oriented perspective, organisations can be motivated to expand knowledge so as to understand the marketplace better. In this regard, the more organisations work together and understand local businesses, the more opportunities will be available for partnerships. Further, organisations are motivated by the desire to respond to a specific public concern for community development as part of social responsibility. Finally, Wang et al. (2013) find that Convention and Visitor Bureaus (CVBs) enter into collaborative relationships with the motives of wanting to reduce cost, expanding and

diversifying their tourism product portfolio along with the sharing of knowledge and expertise.

This thesis will expand these categorisations to appreciate the potential benefits of joint brand advertising. The new classification, as developed by the researcher, is based on the literature and is illustrated in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: Potential benefits of joint brand advertising



Source: Adapted from the literature (i.e. Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007)

Profit & Cost Oriented Benefits: Joint brand advertising mainly enables a reduced cost advantage to branding partners. In particular, financial benefit can be obtained by a less well-known brand from co-brand success (Baumgarth, 2004). For example, manufacturers can increase the effectiveness of advertising by taking advantage of higher rate of discount from advertising jointly and see immediate returns from their advertising as a result of cooperating with retailers at the local level (Bergen & John, 1997; Herrington & Dempsey, 2005; Jorgensen & Zaccour, 2014; Jorgensen, Sique, & Zaccour, 2000). Rao and Ruekert (1994) posit that brands may aim to create a synergy as a result of combining one brand with another, which will help them to increase their revenue (Chang, 2009). Ultimately, cooperation between brands can also produce profit-oriented benefits, such as increased sales (Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou, & Dounis, 2008).

Regarding tourism, the cost of joint brand advertising is cheaper than a DMOs' sole advertising known as "prestige ads" or "single brand advertising". The possible reason behind this is that tour operators have comparatively bigger purchasing power in advertising campaigns than DMOs as they can take advantage of scale economies by putting more advertising on various channels, such as newspapers or magazines. Pisierra et al. (1999) have found that the use of joint brand advertising is beneficial for small outlying city/towns in USA since it offers an economical alternative to allocating promotional budgets to traditional advertising strategies.

Market Oriented Benefits: Joint brand advertising is preferable for retailers, especially under favourable market conditions in which advertising competition is low and price competition high (Karray & Amin, 2015). In an integrated system of manufacturing, while national advertising is aimed at introducing the product

to a wider market, regional advertising is focused on a more targeted with the purpose of boosting retail sales (Farshbaf-Geranmayeh et al., 2017). Moreover, regional (individual) advertisement of a product gives firms an advantage of controlling their marketing activities (Karray & Sigue, 2017) and enables them to reach a more selected market. Firms can also increase market share and gain competitive advantage through joint brand advertising (Chang, 2009), thereby enhancing their market position.

Through joint brand advertising activities in the tourism sector, local authorities can engage in effective overseas promotional activities that reach the international marketplace, which otherwise would not be possible just with their own resources (Fyall et al., 2000). Also, joint brand advertising is beneficial and vital for small towns and cities despite their size and location in order to remain competitive and to develop new markets (Hill & Shaw, 1995) in order to attract visitors from targeted markets. For example, if one destination has neither an office nor a marketing agency in the target market, a DMO can enter this market through joint brand advertising activity with a tour operator located there.

Product Oriented Benefits: Complementary products like cameras and films, can be considered to be a fertile ground for joint brand advertising (Helmig et al., 2008). Since consumers link two brands in their minds, they tend to evaluate complementary products positively in a joint brand advertisement (Samu et al., 1999). Karray and Sigue (2017) also confirm the effects of joint brand advertising campaigns for complementary products. This notion can be expanded to complementary products in the tourism sector, such as services provided by a tourism board (Koutoulas, 2004) and tours organised by a tour operator.

Joint brand advertising is an effective way of introducing new products into a target market and it is most beneficial when a destination tourism product is underdeveloped stage in the product life cycle (Hill & Shaw, 1995). In this regard, one of the easiest ways to promote a new tourism product, like golf or health tourism, is to cooperate with a well-established niche tour operator. By so doing, niche tour operators are able to diversify; offering a new tourism product to their customers. If tour operators are well-known, then destinations can take advantage of this awareness to promote new products.

Brand Oriented Benefits: Joint brand advertising partnership between brands can also produce brand-oriented benefits, such as raising brand awareness, enhancing brand image and/or promoting employee relations for companies. In other words, companies can see cooperation as a brand building tool for creating and sharpening brand image (Papadimitriou et al., 2008). The contribution of the brand partners in this partnership does not essentially have to be equal. However, when two highly familiar brand partners cooperate, then each partner equally contributes to the joint brand advertising partnership (Simonin & Ruth, 1998). Moreover, a positive attitude towards joint brand advertisement or a slogan has positive influence on both brands (Baumgarth, 2004).

Vaidyanathan and Aggarwal (2000) also confirm that joint brand advertising between a national and a private brand can bring considerable benefit for both parties in the form of image enhancement and wider promotion of their activities. Furthermore, joint brand advertising between partners for a product provides brand differentiation in competitive environments. Finally, joint brand advertising can be considered successful as long as it triggers positive associations related to brand in consumers' minds (Helmig et al., 2008).

Knowledge Oriented Benefits: By cooperating with retailers at the local level, manufacturers can acquire a better understanding of the local market, thereby increasing the effectiveness of joint brand advertising (Bergen & John, 1997; Herrington, & Dempsey, 2005; Jorgensen & Zaccour, 2014; Jorgensen et al., 2000). For tourism products, research knowledge about a specific product, market, and segments can be developed through joint schemes by DMOs (Middleton et al., 2009). In the literature, it has been argued that international tourism offices of DMOs are not able to promote the tourism products of private firms as these offices are ineffective in operation and lack marketing skills (Karamustafa & Kusluvan, 1999; Ozturk, 1996). Hence, these authors conclude that professional marketing agencies or tour operators can promote tourism products better through accumulative knowledge and expertise. In contrast, Coban (2012) suggests as tourism offices have been performing their current duties successfully, their activities should be increased.

Consumer Oriented Benefits: Since the expectations of consumers determine the choice of brand, stimuli like a joint brand advertisement, helps them to activate potential alternatives from their long-term memory (evoked set) to satisfy these needs (Maehle & Supphellen, 2015). In an integrated system of manufacturing, co-operative advertising aims to provide additional incentives to stimulate consumer demand (Farshbaf-Geranmayeh et al., 2017) to develop positive attitudes towards the product (Bergen & John, 1997). The main idea behind joint brand advertising is to gain competitive advantage and to increase revenues through consumer awareness (Chang, 2009). To take advantage of consumer related benefits, the joint brand advertising relationship among brands should necessarily be publicly visible to the potential marketplace (Rao, 1997).

2.3.4 Disadvantages of Joint Brand Advertising in Tourism

There are potential inhibitors to engaging in a joint process. If organisations are not familiar with joint brand advertising partnerships, they could perceive free loading by participants as being a risk or fear losing control over decision making, thus not being willing to participate (Jamal & Getz, 1995). In an empirical study by Wang et al. (2013), competition among the CVBs, the political and funding structure, lack of resources in terms of financial, human, and time, power imbalances as well as the heterogeneous aspects of the market and products are found be some obstacles to collaborative initiatives among CVBs in Central Florida.

Joint brand advertising may also have negative repercussions due to its complexity and difficulty of understanding consumers' perception of appearing on the same advertisement. Hence, multiple factors should be considered, if it is to be successful. A literature review of 25 articles published over the last two decades reveals that brand fit, individual brand position, consumer perception and information are crucial factors that need to be considered (Aujla & Kaur, 2017). Moreover, the interests of partnering brands are not always be supported by joint partnerships. In fact, partner brands may be negatively affected through partnership, as can be seen from the example of BenQ and Siemens (Chang, 2009).

Even though each firm is independent when making decisions, which it does according to its own interest (Jorgensen & Zaccour, 2014), the local advertising strategy should be consistent with the overall national promotional strategy

(Herrington & Dempsey, 2005). For example, if firms are more concentrated on their short-term profits to maximise their benefits as stated in the agency theory and destinations are mostly interested in long term brand development, then this will bring conflict in the goals of branding partners.

DMOs are increasingly use digital marketing as vital element of their marketing strategies. However, there is difficulty in assessing the effectiveness of online joint brand advertising (Dezeljin, Bienenfeld, & Turkalj, 2017). Whilst destinations' own advertising (single brand advertising) can generally create an overall image for the long-term, joint brand advertising is mostly focused on promotions and prices for the short-term or can be part of a long-term branding strategy to promote one product branded and identified simultaneously by two brands (Helmig et al., 2008). Moreover, joint brand advertising is more likely to be used create a demand towards a particular destination than single brand advertising. In addition, joint brand advertising may also unintentionally promote a competitor, this being known as a spillover effect, where consumers mentally make an association beyond the advertised product (Sahni, 2016). The idea of advertising spillovers in the context of manufacturing assumes that a retailer is imperfect even though specific market segments were aimed at being reached through advertisements. Hence, competing retailers may attract customers as a result of another's advertising activity (Bergen & John, 1997).

A co-branding strategy may lead to worse negative spillover effects compared to other brand alliance strategies (Cornelis, 2010; Helmig et al., 2008), if there is negative information about the co-branded product (Aujla & Kaur, 2017). The negative spillover effect will be especially damaging for the brand cooperation, if runs for a long time (Helmig et al., 2008). From another perspective, Karray and

Sigue (2017, p. 1) posit that traditional advertising campaigns can also have a spillover effect in terms of creating a 'public good' externality. That is, single brand advertising may create additional demand to a particular destination that can be met by business entities. In contrast, joint brand advertising may help partners to alleviate the free riding phenomenon. Moreover, joint brand advertising leads to a positive spillover effect, if the superior quality of a co-branded product is highlighted and then, it can be offered at a premium price (Helmig et al., 2008).

In this section, joint brand advertising in the tourism industry has been described in detail. In addition, the potential advantages and disadvantages of joint brand advertising have been provided. In the next section, models that seek to understand how advertising affects consumer behaviour in tourism are introduced.

2.4 Summary

The marketing literature is somewhat problematic when it comes providing a clear definition of collaborative marketing activities. That is, even though there is a consensus in this literature that collaborative marketing refers to 'working together for a mutual goal', there is no common agreement in regards to the definition and classification of collaborative marketing activity types encompassing collaborative co-operative, co-branded, and joint brand advertising. In reality, these terms are mostly used interchangeably and their definitions are not very explicit. Thus, unlike previous studies, a clear distinction has been made here between these terms. Collaborative advertising has been classified as a

broader umbrella, whilst joint brand advertising has been positioned at the intersection of co-branded and co-operative advertising in this chapter. In this regard, the key distinguishing features of joint brand advertising have been described being founded on collaborative partnership, co-branding of at least two brands, promoting of a common product, concurring co-operative arrangement, and the maintaining of brand independence.

A review of the collaborative advertising literature has shown that despite co-operative advertising being well documented in manufacturing and operation studies, there are several advertising models that indicate the need further investigation in the conceptualisation of joint brand advertising in the tourism context. Hence, the aim of the next chapter will be to address these gaps by reviewing advertising models and introducing product interest as a possible mediator. In the following chapter, these concepts will be integrated into the proposed model to explore the impacts of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural response.

Chapter 3

Models of Advertising

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the advertising models including the hierarchy effect models, with a special focus on the AIDA. Investigation of these concepts is crucial for this thesis in terms of developing an understanding of how joint brand advertising enhances potential tourist behaviour towards a particular destination. Accordingly, this chapter starts by probing models of advertising. Advertising models explain how advertisements influence consumer behaviour (i.e. buying intention and/or purchasing). The theory underpinning the hierarchy of effects model elucidates the hierarchical processes of consumers from seeing an advertisement related to a brand (or a product or service) to resultant buying. Then, the rationale for choosing the AIDA model in this thesis is provided. Despite this model having been used for than a century and undergone many refinements, it is still the most commonly applied hierarchy of effects model in advertising research. The

AIDA model proposes that advertising grabs consumers' attention, builds interest, creates desire and ultimately initiates action in terms of purchasing of the product or service advertised. All of these stages are described, but more emphasis is given to the interest and action stages of this model, because these are the main focus of the current research. Whilst interest can be considered as a psychological state that is based on an individual's engagement with particular content, product interest is related to the principal attributes of a product. The action is considered as potential tourists' response to adverts in the form of clicking and behavioural intention in the current thesis.

3.2 Models of Advertising

The first formal advertising model regarding the cognition-affect-conation sequence is generally attributed to Lewis's AIDA (Attention → Interest → Desire → Action) model (McWilliams & Crompton, 1997; Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). This model will be explained in more detail in the following section. Figure 3.1 depicts a graphical representation of the AIDA model.

Figure 3.1: The AIDA Model

Source: Strong (1925)

According to this model, four phases are described before consumers make a decision about purchasing. Advertising is aimed at gaining the attention of consumers (cognition), establishing an interest towards the product and creating a desire (affect), whilst eventually prompting an action (conation). In terms of assessment of the effects of advertising, the advantage of this model is that it enables marketers to control psychological transformation steps (Hassan, Nadzim, & Shiratuddin, 2015), whilst the main disadvantage is the assumption that is a set of sequential stages that consumers are expected to move through in their purchasing decision process.

Hence, as mentioned by Barry and Howard (1990), this has led to the development of a range of alternative models over the last century, including: AICA (C=Conviction), AIDAS (S=Satisfaction), AICCA (C=Confidence, C=Conviction), AIDCA (C=Cautious), AIDCA (C=Conviction), AIJA (J=Judgement), AIDCA (C=Conviction) and AIDMA (M=Memory). Detailed development, history and debates on the hierarchy of effects model in

advertising have been provided by some researchers (Barry, 1987, 2012; Bary & Howard, 1990; Rehman et al., 2014a; Sinh, 2013; Weilbacher, 2001; Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999).

One of the more popular models in advertising is DAGMAR (Defining Advertising Goals for Measuring Results), which was devised by Colley (1961). To understand consumers' response to advertising, awareness, comprehension, conviction, and action are incorporated into this model. Awareness of the brand amongst the target audience can be generated at the first stage, all information about product features are provided during the conviction stage, then, consumers are persuaded through messages delivered by advertising and they are motivated to buy the product in the final stage of action. Another widely known advertising model in marketing studies was proposed by Lavidge and Steiner (1961), which involves a hierarchical sequence of six steps: awareness → knowledge → liking → preference → conviction → purchase. In this model, advertising has cognitive (intellectual, mental or rational states), affective (emotional or feeling states), and conative or motivational (striving or behavioural states) functions. The first two steps of awareness and knowledge relate to providing information and thoughts. The second two steps of liking and preference pertain to changing attitudes and feelings towards a product. The last two steps of conviction and purchase relate to stimulating desires and motives for the purchase action. The influence of behaviour on cognitive and affective processes is also recognised in the model. The authors held that these steps are not essentially equidistant from each other and consumers could move up several of them concurrently.

Barry and Howard (1990) questioned the literature regarding the notion of a sequential hierarchy. They further criticised the argument that generally product purchasing as a type of behaviour has been discussed for the sake of simplicity in the hierarchy literature and that there may be some other type of

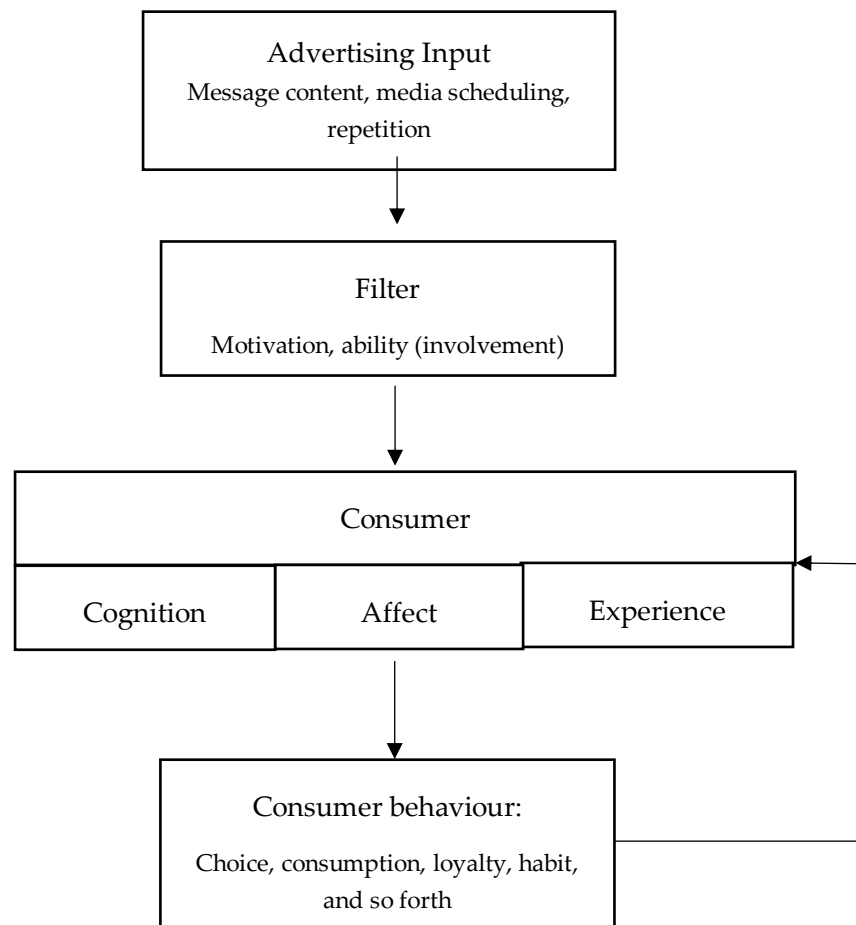
behaviours (i.e. recommending product). Weilbacher (2001) also contended that the hierarchy of advertising effects models do not provide an accurate conceptualisation of how advertising works and thus, it should not be used as a framework in the measurement of the true effects of advertising. He mentioned some weaknesses of the hierarchy models of advertising effects. First, with advertising, it may not be only a marketing related factor that contributes to the ultimate goal of purchase action, as other factors, such as package design, superior product, publicity and sponsorship programmes with celebrities could also have an effect. Barry (2002) responded this argument by saying that there has been no literature supporting this view, because the model only posits that advertising contributes to the entire consumer process (cognition, affect, and conation), where the ultimate outcome is intended behaviour. Second, these models do not describe how advertisements work with different consumers who are exposed to them prior to final stage of sale. Further, Weilbacher (2001) argues that there is no guarantee that every hierarchy effect of an advertisement yields a sale or that, all work in precisely the same way when reaching consumers. Barry (2002) answered this criticism, by contending that, hierarchy models do not suggest that all adverts have the same effect on the individual consumer that they access. In fact, all of these individuals are different in terms of processing information, forming or changing attitudes as well as behaving or not behaving. Finally, Weilbacher (2001) criticises these models as they ignore the information and experience that consumers have pertaining a brand (or a product/service) prior to selecting it or purchasing a product or a service. Barry (2002) responded to this by saying that experience is implicit in the model, since it is fallacious to assume that consumers have not had some level of information before entering the consumption process.

In general, Weilbacher (2001) recommends moving beyond dependence on the hierarchy of models to integrated marketing communications, which pertains to content-controlled advertising and noncontent-controlled brand name appearances. In contrast, Barry (2002) defended the hierarchy of the effects model, arguing that it constituted robust guidelines for advertising practice and research. That is, he suggested that the marketing community should continue to embrace the hierarchy of the effects model as a basis for measuring advertising effectiveness until a better alternative is devised.

A theoretical class of models for measuring the effectiveness of advertising on potential customers is called the hierarchy of effects models. Such a model describes the multiple hierarchic stages regarding how consumers potentially develop loyalty to a brand through the process of becoming aware, creating particular preferences, and final purchasing, from a situation of total unawareness of a brand (Ghirvu, 2013). The traditional hierarchy framework asserts that consumers respond to messages in advertisements in a very ordered way (Sinh, 2013; Yoo, Kim, & Stout, 2004), such as a cognitive (thinking), affective (feeling), and conative (doing) sequence (Bary & Howard, 1990).

Regarding the behavioural effects of advertising, Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) classified six taxonomy models based on a formulated basic framework (see Figure 3.2), which comprises: market response, cognitive information, pure affect, persuasive hierarchy, low-involvement hierarchy, integrative, and hierarchy free.

Figure 3.2: A framework how advertising works



Source: Vakratsas and Ambler (1999, p. 26)

In this framework, as an input for the consumer, advertising has the constituents of content, scheduling of media and repetition to affect a person's response to advertising. Motivation, ability to process information and attitude towards the advertisement can be considered as filters, with a person's response to it being mediated by these factors. Advertising affects the cognitive (thinking) and affective (feeling) dimensions of a consumer's response and consequently, behaviour, according to the model. Since a consumer may already have a memory of usage or purchasing of some products, this behaviour feeds back to experience. These are known as mediated factors.

In the market response model, without considering any intermediate effects, advertising, price, and promotional measures, are related directly to purchasing behaviour measures (sales or brand choice) in econometric studies through a regression or logit model framework (e.g. Leone, 1995; Lodish et al., 1995). In the cognitive information models, advertising facilitates consumer research by providing information or utility, but does not change consumers' preferences, as they make rational decisions based on cognitive processing (Olson & Thjomoe, 2003).

According to the pure affect models, consumers' preferences are formed by the affective processes of feelings, liking and emotions evoked by the advertisement rather than product/brand attribute information (Janiszewski & Warlop, 1993; Stuart, Shimp, & Engle, 1987). Thus, different types of psychological appeals are used in advertisements to persuade consumers to buy (Keshari & Jain, 2014). The literature reveals two types of advertising appeals for services and goods in international markets: rational and emotional appeals (Albers-Miller & Stafford, 1999).

In persuasive hierarchy models, the sequence is always in the form cognitive stage → affective stage → behaviour, which means that advertising has not only an informational function, but also, a persuasive one on the consumer and the effect of advertising on consumer behaviour (preferences) is mediated by involvement (Ambler, 2000; Busen, Mustaffa & Bahtiar, 2016). The most recognised persuasive hierarchy models are AIDA, the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), and DAGMAR. Regarding the ELM model, personal relevance is considered to be the only determinant of the route to persuasion.

Media advertisements affect consumers' evaluation of issues and products, thus making attitude the central focus of consumer behaviour research. Attitude change, according to different theories of persuasion, can be explained

either through the central or peripheral route. With the above model, the best method of inducing persuasion is considered to depend on whether the elaboration likelihood of the communication situation (i.e. probability of message or relevant thought occurring) is high or low (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). Personal relevance is seen as the single determinant of the route to persuasion. The high elaboration likelihood or personal relevance indicates the effectiveness of the central route to persuasion, whereas a low one points to the efficacy of the peripheral route. According to the central route perspective, attitude changes result from individuals' consideration of the information that they feel is central to the true merits of a particular attitudinal position. In contrast, attitude changes happening on the peripheral route, pertain to individuals associating the issue or object with positive and/or negative cues in the persuasion context. In sum, high personal relevance or involvement motivates people to devote the cognitive effort in the evaluation of the true merits of an issue or product in this model. This increased involvement leads to people thinking (Petty & Cacioppo, 1984).

With low-involvement hierarchy models, cognition passes on awareness to consumers, who are in low involvement categories, whereas brand preferences are formed after an initial trial and experience. Advertising reinforces this experience by referring to habits and recollections. Hence, the sequence here is cognition → experience → affect → behaviour (Wright & Lynch, 1995).

On the other hand, there is no fixed sequence in integrative models and different hierarchies of cognition, affect, and experience are assumed. The consumer's choice is determined by the context in which the advertising operates, product categories and/or involvement, but not by the brand. For example, Smith and Swinyard's (1982, 1983) Integrated Information Model compares and predicts consumers' cognitive, affective and conative reactions to advertising and product trials as information sources.

According to this model, low involvement products are normally inexpensive and thus, a product trial is made possible. With these products advertising generates minimal message acceptance since it is perceived as a vested interest information source. Hence, it will be subject to relatively high cognitive resistance in the form of source derogation, counterarguing and discounting. As a result, due to low order of acceptance, consumers' perceived possibility of association between the product and its advertised attributes is reduced. Thus, low-order beliefs create a weak affect for brand preferences or purchase intentions. Such beliefs may induce direct experience or a product trial and hence, purchase intention will be based upon the informational value of a low-cost product trial, rather than expected value from the product. Since purchase intention occurs before liking the product, this represents the cognition→conation→affect sequence. In contrast, high order beliefs, when thoroughly evaluated, produce higher-order affect and afterwards, purchase intention is based on the expected value from the product. This response sequence suggests cognition→affect→conation (Smith & Swinyard, 1982, 1983, 1988).

Under the last category, hierarchy-free models, no particular sequence is assumed. The persuasive function of advertising is from the person-centred view and relying on a rational decision-making approach is considered as being what actually takes place.

The majority of advertising models which are explained above do not respond to the modern social relations and globalisation process. Hence, modern advertising models including nonlinear advertising models which are the without interrupting audience's viewing experience will be explained. Regarding which, in a more recent advertising model proposed by Huang, Su, Zhou, and Liu (2013), the medium of communication in advertising is individuals, that is, it is held that advertising in the context of viral video

stimulates people to engage through sharing and brand information processing. Affects transfer occurs from liking the video to favouring the brand. Hence, this model suggests that managers should care not only take purchase intention of consumers into consideration but also their sharing intentions.

To respond to the changes in advertising strategy and media technology, Wijaya (2012) also developed a new model adopted from AIDA called AISDALSLove (S=Search, L=Like/dislike, S=Share, L:Love/hate). According to this model, advertising effects can be grouped as short-term and long-term effect, particularly in a brand advertising context. Whilst Attention, Interest, Search, Desire, and Action are in the first group, Like/Dislike, Share and Love/Hate fall into the second. The Like/Dislike element pertains to consumers' experience after purchasing and using the product as a result of advertising. Consumer audience can like or dislike towards that product.

Modern advertising is considered as a strategic communication to garner certain consumer responses, such as understanding information or persuading someone to do something. In today's world, as consumers are more critical, they search for further information, including internal (i.e. past experience, brand recall) and external (i.e. internet) sources, before making a buying decision. Also, social media such as Facebook and Twitter, facilitates sharing consumer experiences. In this model, advertising is expected to lead love or hate of the advertised brand or product in the long term.

In response to the latest developments in information technology in terms of the radically changing the way how people communicate and socialise, more recently, Fortenberry and McGoldrick (2019) have suggested extension of the AIDA hierarchy to AIDAR (R=retention), to reflect the post-action and reinforcement role of advertising. Advertisements on billboards can have

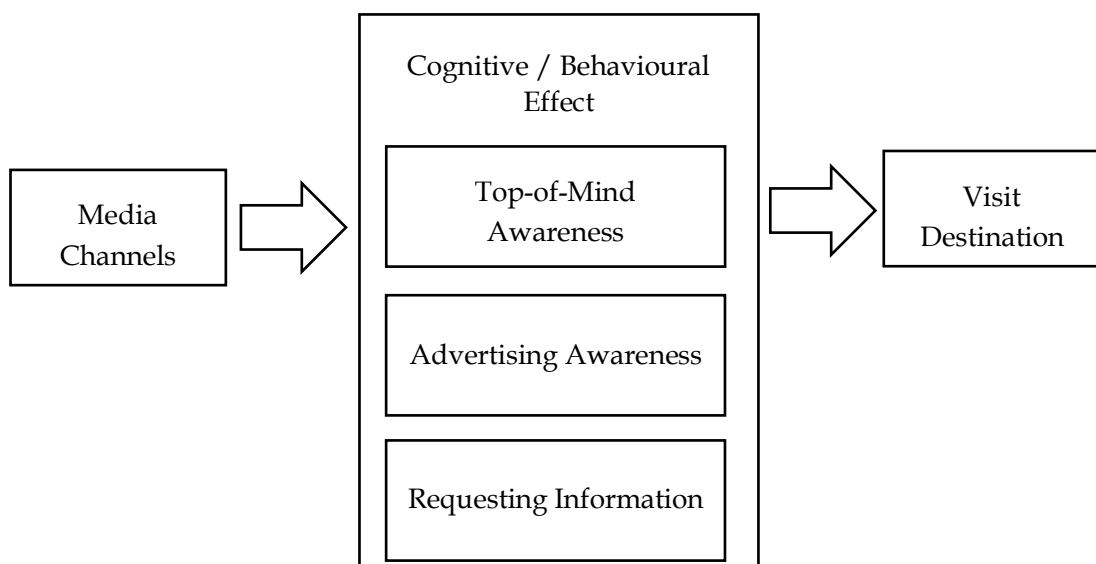
potential role in post purchase reinforcement and retention of positive marketing contexts. Also, this model recognises the consumers' interest in the journey to purchase.

3.2.1 Advertising Models in Tourism

The assessment of advertising in tourism has been investigated by applying a number of approaches, including econometric models, conversion analysis, experimental design, and advertising tracking models (Choe, Stienmetz, & Fesenmaier, 2017; Park, Nicolau, & Fesenmaier, 2012; Stepchenkova, Su & Shickova, 2018; Steinmetz, Park, & Fesenmaier, 2016).

Kim et al. (2005) proposed a model for conceptualising the effects of tourism advertising (see Figure 3.3).

Figure 3.3: A Conceptual Framework of Tourism Advertising Effects



Source: Kim et al. (2005, p. 45)

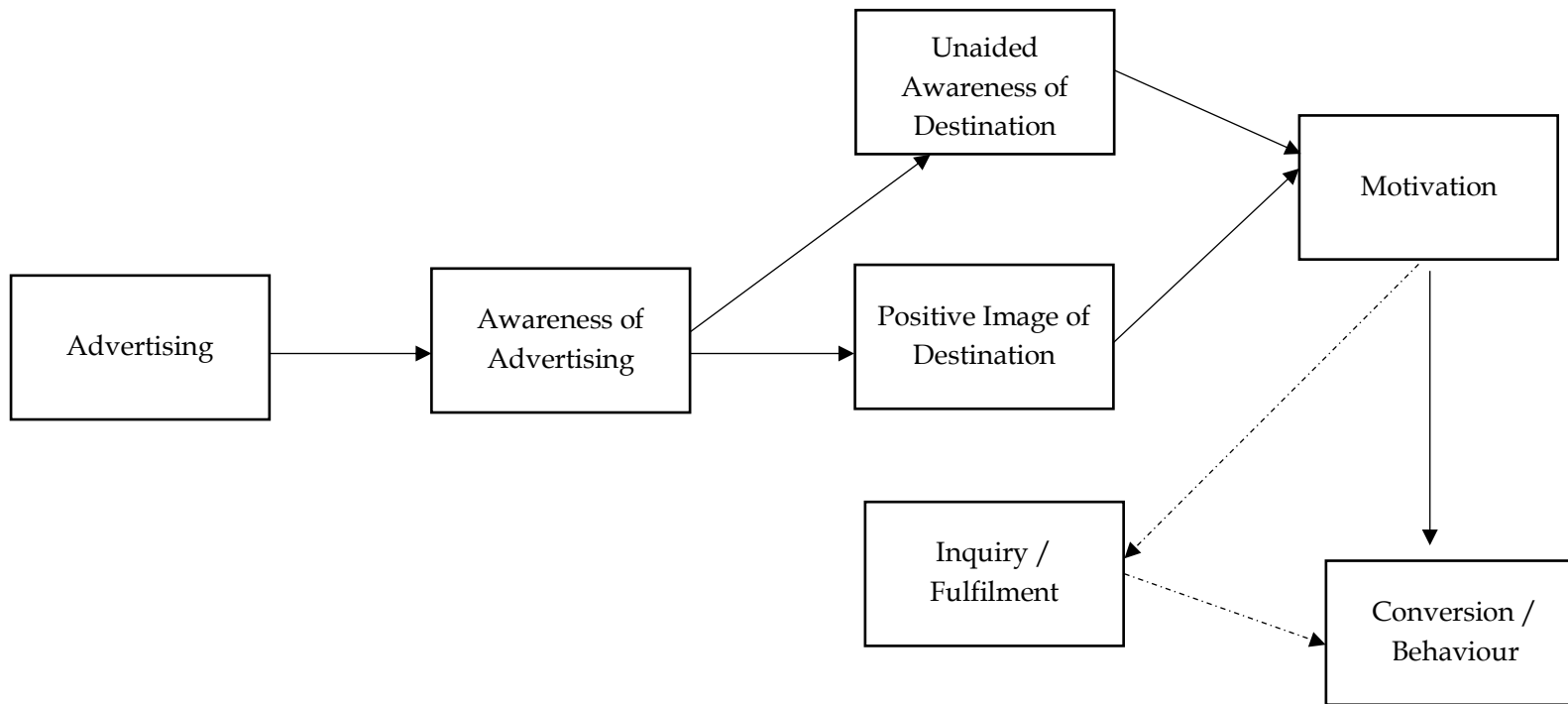
In this model, it is assumed that various media channels, such as TV, radio and print media, communicate different affective and cognitive processes. These

impact on different psychological dimensions and behavioural responses, such as top-of-mind awareness, awareness, and intention to purchase. With this approach, these dimensions are considered to be directly related to the likelihood of visiting a particular destination. This model indicates that advertising not only encourages potential tourists to visit the destination, for it also makes it visible, which in turn, affects destination choice.

This model is useful, especially for understanding the effects of advertising on tourist destination visiting behaviours. However, it does not consider sub-decisions (i.e. facets), such as accommodation, attractions, and activities, but rather, is focused on a single type of tourist decision, like destination selection (Park et al., 2012). Moreover, this approach has another weakness, as under it, it proposes that top-of-mind awareness and advertising awareness lead to travel information being requested from the tourism office. However, potential travellers can access travel information from various sources other than tourist offices.

To overcome this weakness, information request is treated as optional, rather than a necessary condition, for conversion behaviour in advertising tracking studies (McWilliams & Crompton, 1997). A typical advertising tracking model for measuring the effectiveness of destination advertising is that of Seigel and Ziff-Levine (1990) (see Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4: Advertising Tracking Model



Source: Seigel & Zilf-Levine (1990)

According to this model, advertising is aimed at creating awareness among a target audience. After being exposed to it, potential tourists become aware of the advertised destination as one of the possible places to visit amongst alternatives. Advertising enhances a positive image of the destination in the minds of the target audience. The generated awareness and creation of an image of the destination motivate potential tourists to visit the destination in the near future. Finally, the influence of advertising on the travel behaviour of potential tourists leads to the ultimate purchase decision to visit the destination. In this model, inquiry plays a non-essential role for converting travel motivation into behaviour, unlike in the previous model. That is, the inquiry process may facilitate the purchase decision, but it is not a pivotal condition for advertising driven behaviour.

With this model, it is assumed that tourism advertising builds awareness and enhances image. Its main strength is that, it allows for examination of the shifts in cognitive knowledge, image perception and travel intention (McWilliams & Crompton, 1997). It also provides a more realistic and comprehensive explanation for destination marketing. The reason behind this, is that, as abovementioned, inquiry is not a necessary step, which is borne out by the small percentage tourists who report such behaviour. This means that the influence of advertising on the whole target market is considered, not just the inquirers. However, this model is still limited to consumers who recall seeing tourism advertising (McWilliams & Crompton, 1997). Also, possible mediating factors (e.g. product interest) or moderating factors (e.g. brand reputation) are ignored in the assessment of the impact of advertising on travel intention in the model.

3.3 AIDA Model

The roots of the AIDA model lie in the theory of communication introduced by Elias St. Elmo Lewis in 1898. His idea was that consumers are driven through a series of acquisition processes, namely attention, interest, conviction, and action was published in 1910 in *The Printer's Ink*. Later being called the AIDA model (Ghirwu, 2013). The very first model, known as the hierarchy of effects model, which included the three stages of gaining attention, producing interest, and creating desire was proposed in the late 1800s, whilst subsequently being developed by Strong (1925) in the early 1900s with the addition of a stage of action. The notion for this model is that consumers' responses to exposure to an advertisement are based on sequential stages (Sinh, 2013; Wijaya, 2012).

The acronym of the AIDA refers to attention, interest, desire, and action; describing the process when consumers engage with an advert. Once the advert captures the viewer's attention, then it crafts interest in the product by using emotions to give a feeling that the purchase is a good bargain or right decision etc. It then informs consumers what will happen, if the product or service advertised is not bought. Consumer interest is later converted to a desire towards the product offerings, which leads to the final action of buying (Lin, Yeo, & Chen, 2013; Schaefer, Parker, & Haytko, 2011). In other words, the AIDA model describes a series of consecutive reactions of consumers when they are exposed to advert messages or the cognitive journey of a consumer from total unawareness to final purchase (Ghirwu, 2013). In sum, the model categorises the behavioural psychological steps of consumers from coming into contact with advertisements up until the action of purchasing the product concerned (Kojima, Kimura, Yamaji, & Amasaka, 2010).

This model is commonly applied in marketing research for various sectors, including tourism (Giraldi & Cesareo, 2016; Hudson, Wang, & Gil, 2011; Lin & Huang, 2006), services (Lagrosen, 2005), banking (Li & Yu, 2013; Sanayei, Shahin & Amirosadt, 2013) and food industries (Arzanagh, Danaei, 2014; Budiawan, Satria, & Simanjuntak, 2017). Also research has been conducted in various media channels, such as mobile advertisements (Lin, Yeo, & Chen, 2013; Su, Huang, Chen, & Li, 2016), TV commercials / advertisements (Aryal, 2005; Farooq, Shafique, Khurshid, & Ahmad et al., 2015), social media (Hassan et al., 2015) like Twitter (Wood & Burkhalter, 2014) and Facebook (Lukka & James, 2014) as well as augmented and virtual reality context (Seiler & Klaas, 2017).

Despite common application of this model, some limitations have been mentioned in the literature. This model assumes certain steps of individuals' psychological transformation, from seeing the advertisement to purchasing the intended product (Kojima et al., 2010). Fortenberry and McGoldrick (2019) add the limitation of the AIDA in not pointing to post-action stages. Hence, application of this model in the online context still needs extensive research (Hassan et al., 2015).

Hadiyati (2016) researched the influences of marketing mix on purchase intention through AIDA model as intervening variable. He provided evidence for the intervening role of the AIDA model in the relation between marketing mix and purchase decision, whereby the former indirectly (through the AIDA model) influences to the purchasing of the online product. Arzanagh and Danaei (2014) confirmed the positive effects of the four components of the AIDA in the food industry. Rehman, Nawaz, Ilyas, and Hyder (2014) applied the AIDA model to mobile and email marketing, finding that the former is more effective than the latter in influencing customer attitude.

Wood and Burkhalter (2014) report that the AIDA model can be applied to Twitter, with attention grabbing capabilities and the ability to provide information about products as well as motivating consumers to seek additional information. Yoo et al. (2004) examined the applicability of the traditional hierarchical model to the banner advertising. Even though their results provided support for attention-grabbing capabilities, generating higher recall and leading higher click-through intention of banner adverts in comparison to static advert, they did not provide solid evidence on the feasibility of the hierarchy of effects model. Using the AIDA framework, Schaefer et al. (2011) found influence by a celebrity athlete endorser on Chinese and US consumers; to a greater extent on the former. Farooq et al. (2015) also found support for the AIDA model by uncovering a positive effect of comic factors in TV advertisements on consumer buying behaviour among university students in Pakistan.

Lin et al. (2013) compared mobile advertisements in the form of a multimedia message service (MMS), with location based and timely services with MMS with location-based, but no timely services. They found that the former had a greater impact on consumers' attention, interest, desire, their attitude towards the brand as well as their purchase intention. Su et al. (2016) also applied the AIDA model to mobile advertisements and their results showed that rich media advertising is more effective than dynamic banner advertising in terms of creating interest and desire, prompting consumers' willingness to buy. Hassan et al. (2015) extended the applicability of the AIDA model to digital marketing through their research on the strategic use of social media as a marketing tool for small businesses. They found that in particular, the IDA components of the AIDA model are applicable to a social media marketing strategy for small businesses.

The effects of advertising on the various stages of the AIDA model may be different. Regarding which, Ullal and Hawaldar (2018) found that advertisements have a bigger impact on the desire and action stages than the attention and interest ones. The research of Aryal (2005), which involved analysing TV commercials through the AIDA model, in both urban and suburban areas of Nepal, found a descending order of the influence of the stages, as awareness, interest, desire, and action. Lagrosen (2005) discovered that capturing the attention aspect of Internet communication is somewhat weak in online marketing. That is, online advertising does not lead potential consumers intentionally to browse the Internet and visit the company website. They suggested that a banner advertisement or information and links from the portals can help overcome this problem. Seiler and Klaas (2016) posits that augmented reality applications in the field of marketing potentially supports the first two phases of the AIDA model, but not last two phases.

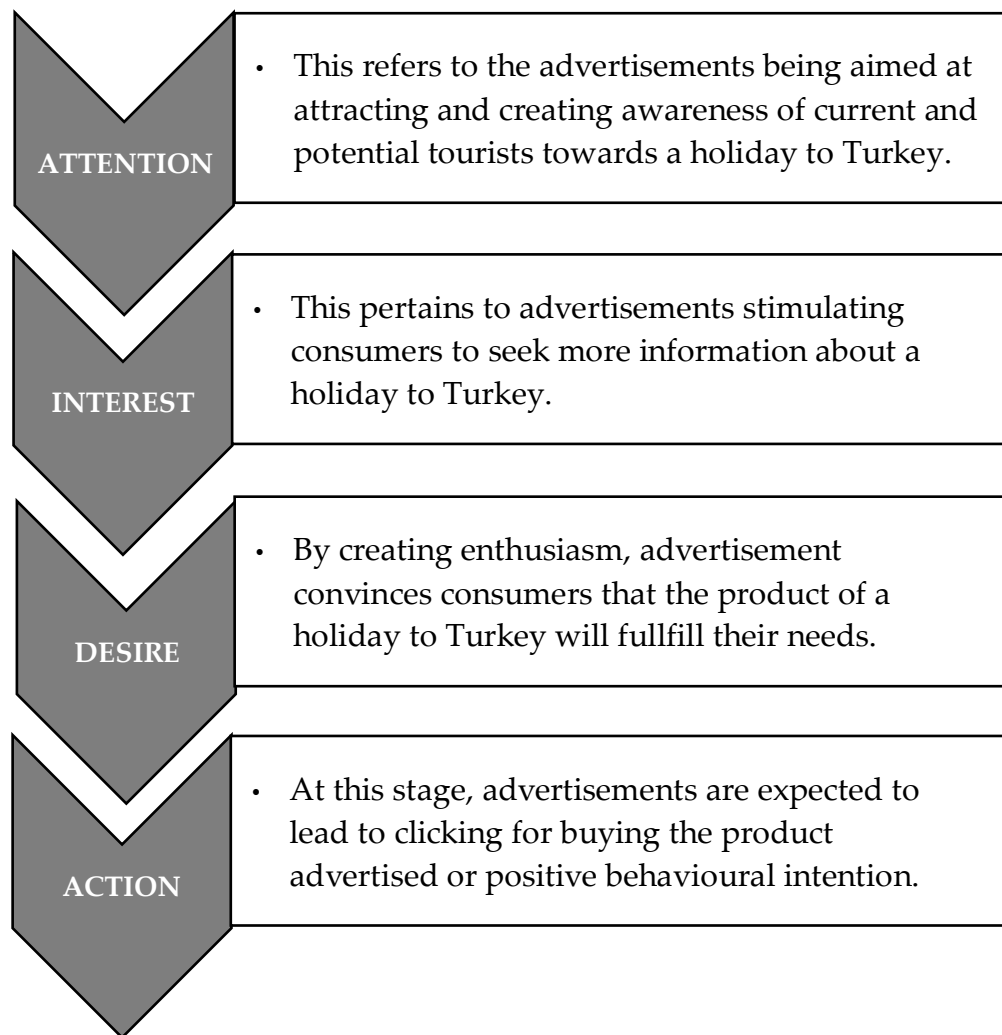
With regards to research on tourism, relevance pertaining to the hierarchy of effects of advertising for the tourists' choice of holiday destination has been shown previously by Woodside and Lysonski (1989) and Woodside and Carr (1988). Johnson and Messmer (1991) also applied the hierarchy of effects to the inquiry generation and actual visitation stages in the selection of a holiday destination. Hudson et al. (2011) examined the impact of a film about South America on the perceptions of people from different nationalities through the AIDA model. Their results revealed statistically significant influence of the *Motorcycle Diaries* movie on the four aspects of the hierarchy of effects model on the Canadian and Floridian participants, but not on the Spanish ones. Giraldi and Cesareo (2016) showed a promotional trailer and an eight minute extract from the film *The Great Beauty* to measure the perception of viewers about Rome and their findings also confirmed the applicability of the AIDA model to the tourism destination concept.

A review of the literature on tourism reveals awareness as being the key component when consumers respond to advertising stimuli. The first aim of the advertising is to influence potential tourists' awareness towards a particular destination. That is, advertising ultimately influence travellers' destination choice. Thus, it can be said that the effect of advertising on awareness is well established in the literature. Also, as stated by Johnson and Messmer (1991), the hierarchy of effect for holiday destination choice, is often accompanied by two stages of action: a further information request, which is frequently followed by an actual visit to the destination.

According to the World Tourism Organisation Tourism Highlights 2019 (UNWTO, 2019), international tourist arrivals reached 1.4 billion in 2018, due to a relatively strong global economy, a growing middle class especially in emerging economies, technological advances, new business models, affordable travel costs and visa facilitation. This high volume of travel along with the influence of media on consumers and easy access to information naturally brings with it higher awareness of destinations for potential travellers. Accordingly, the role of advertising in providing destination level information through getting people's attention towards a particular destination is likely to decrease, but when this provides product level information interest in it is likely to increase. Thus, this research is concentrated on interest towards a product rather than aimed at understanding the impact of advertising on tourist destination visiting behaviour.

In the current research, the AIDA model is utilised for measuring the effectiveness of joint brand advertising (see Figure 3.5).

Figure 3.5: The AIDA model in this thesis



Source: Realized by the author according to the stages of the original AIDA Model

This model includes the four stages, as set out below, but only the interest and action stages are examined in this thesis. Concentrating on these two stages allows the researcher to capture both the direct impact of advertising on behavioural intention and the indirect one through interest in the product.

3.3.1 Attention

From the perspective of human psychology, attention refers to “the set of perceptual and cognitive processes that allows us to prioritise certain events

for further analysis or action” (Pelley et al., 2016, p. 1111). Some attention types identified in the literature are focused, sustained, selective, alternating and divided attention. Focused attention refers to the ability actively to focus on one stimuli, while ignoring irrelevant others (Jiwal, Jain, & Jain, 2019). Sustained attention pertains to the ability to maintain perceptual awareness of external stimuli and to remain alert to stimuli over prolonged periods of time (Kamza, Molinska, Skrzpska, & Dlugiewicz, 2019). Selective attention is the process of centring focus on certain stimuli (Ballesteros & Mayas, 2015). Alternating attention refers to the ability successively to switch focus among stimuli (Sohlberg & Mateer, 2001; De Sousa & Rueda, 2017), whilst divided attention pertains to the ability to share the focus among multiple stimuli simultaneously (Rodda et al., 2011).

Within the advertising context, attention refers to “a processing stage of short-term, immediate responses” (Munoz-Leiva, Hernandez-Mendez, & Gomez-Carmona, 2019, p. 84). One of the main goals of advertising is to attract the attention of a target market. This process of drawing consumer attention starts with an active processing of specific information present in stimuli (i.e. advertising message) or the environment. Nystrom and Mickelsson (2019) have confirmed the persuasive and information processing role of digital advertising for consumers. Wu and Huberman (2007) contended that attention facilitates the spreading of information or content in social networks through viral marketing. Rosbergen, Pieters and Wedel (1997) identified three segments of consumer, who exhibit distinct patterns of visual attention to advertising, which can be described as scanning, initial attention, and sustained attention. In sum, whilst there are various types of attention described in the literature, the general agreement is that the first function of advertising is to create awareness and draw the attention of the intended target market (Chang & Wang, 2019), which leads to an interest in the product.

3.3.2 Interest

Interest has been considered as an energiser and regulator of human behaviour throughout a person's entire lifespan (Chen, Darst, & Pangrazi, 2001). Wigfield and Cambria (2010) defined interest as the engagement of individuals in different activities or events that include affective and cognitive processes. According to Chen et al. (2001, p. 383), interest refers to "a positive psychological state that is based on or emerges from person-activity interaction". Hidi (2006) also considered interest as the unique motivational and psychological state of an individual that occurs between individuals and particular content, such as objects, events, and ideas.

Two aspects of interest appear in the literature: individual interest and situational interest. Individual (personal) interest refers to an individual's relatively enduring predisposition to engage with specific content over time (Hidi & Renninger, 2006; Krapp, 2007) and is evoked by already existing dispositional (or "habitual") interest or by special conditions (Krapp & Prenzel, 2011). It develops slowly over time by constantly and consistently interacting with one activity (Chen et al., 2011) and has long lasting effects on an individual's knowledge repertoire and value systems (Hidi, 2006). Situational interest is awakened or triggered by certain characteristics of external stimuli and it develops as an immediate feeling evoked by the situation (Ainley, 2006), having a short term motivational effect (Hidi, 1990). As this is aimed at measuring tourists' response to specific advertisements as stimuli, the major focus is the situational aspect of interest.

Regarding the conceptualisation of interest, Hidi and Renninger (2006) argued that while the early stages of interest development consist of attention and positive feelings, the later ones additionally include stored value and knowledge regarding particular content. Despite interest generally being

associated with a positive feeling, there can still be a negative one during interested engagement, especially in later phases of interest development (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Sansone & Thomas, 2005). Interest is conceptualised based on knowledge, value, and affective reaction. (Renninger & Hidi, 2011). Interest is considered as having both cognitive and affective components (Hidi, 2006) that tend to act independently. The cognitive characteristics relate to the process of change. When a person develops an interest towards a certain subject, the structural component of interest changes and/or his/her current level of knowledge in that domain changes. Thus, he/she shows high readiness for acquiring new information and for assuming new knowledge towards a certain subject (Krapp, 2007). The affective or emotional aspect of interest is typically characterised with feelings of enjoyment, involvement, and being in a state of arousal or excitement (Hunter & Csikszentmihalyi, 2003; Schiefele, 1991).

According to Renninger and Hidi (2011), there are five typical characteristics of interest appearing in the literature. First, interest is related to particular content or a specific object. It is focused attention (Deutsch & Deutsch, 1963; Hidi & Ainley, 2009) on and/or an individual's engagement with specific content or an object (Hidi & Renninger, 2006). Second, interest emerges from an individual's interaction with the environment and is maintained through interaction (Krapp, 2007). Third, interest has cognitive and affective components (Sansone & Thomas, 2005). Fourth, a person may not wholly be metacognitively aware that his or her attention is being triggered through an affective response during the engagement (Hidi & Renninger, 2002). Fifth, interest as a unique motivational variable has a neuroscientific basis, that is, neurons in the brain react specifically to the interesting content, particularly to the anticipation of a reward (Hidi, 2006).

In consumer psychology, researchers generally accept interest as a positive emotion (Campos, Shiota, Keltner, & Gonzaga, 2013; Yihpsychologyih, Kirby, & Smith 2019), which is typically associated with positive feeling states (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988). However, it can also be associated with negative feelings, such as frustration (Sansone, Smith, Thoman, & MacNamara, 2012). Emotions are the primary motivational systems in human behaviour and discrete emotions influence cognition and action (Izard, 2007) as well as appraisals (Keltner, Ellsworth, & Edwards, 1993). From the appraisal theories (emotion) perspective, emotions comes from the appraisal of an event's meaning. Interest, as a facet of human motivation and emotion, stems from novelty, complexity and comprehensibility pertaining to an event's evaluation. That is, new, different, unusual and also comprehensible things are interesting for people (Silvia, 2005). Interest motivates people to enhance learning, thereby giving them the knowledge needed and to explore new things places, and experiences (Silvia, 2008). Campos et al. (2013) have empirically shown that interest promotes exploration of novel stimuli. Sung, Vanman, Hartley, and Phau (2016) also adopted an appraisal theory perspective and they contended that interest and liking are distinct affective and positive emotions, such that, liking drives the consumers' preference for familiarity, whilst interest drives their preference for novelty, when they focus on growth rather than security.

Interest creates expectancies that set a boundary for the evaluation of outcome in an advertisement that aims to change beliefs, attitudes and eventually behaviour pertaining to a specific brand (Alwitt, 2000). Exposure to an advertisement elicits emotional arousal, which then increases the level of information processing (Bakalash & Riemer, 2013). Interest as a basic emotion focusses attention, which facilitates exploration and learning behaviours (Langsdorf, Izard, Rayias, & Hembree, 1983) that occur in response to novelty and the opportunity to obtain new knowledge (Izard, 2007). Also interest, as

one of the emotions, arouses curiosity-related exploratory behaviours (Sung, Hartley, Vanman, & Phau, 2016), such as information seeking (cognitive curiosity) (Litman, 2007), physical thrill seeking and social thrill seeking (Reio, Petrosko, Wiswell, & Thongsukmag, 2006). Silvia and Kashdan (2009) also confirmed the major role of interest in cultivating knowledge. Accordingly, Sung, Vanman, and Hartley (2019) posited that the motivational function of interest for people is to approach and favour a novel product. In sum, based on this perspective, momentary feelings of interest come from the appraisal of an event. Interests occur when people appraise an event as new, complex, and/or unfamiliar. New and unfamiliar things increase the feelings of interest, thus motivating the exploratory behaviours of learn, understand, and explore.

Ansari and Joloudar (2011) examined the effects of TV advertisement on consumers' purchasing and satisfaction through the stages of the AIDAS model. Their results confirmed this type of advert's role in generating interest for purchasing. By using Lavidge and Steiner's (1961) model, Sama (2019) more recently also identified the impacts of advertisements on various media platforms, including TV, newspapers, the Internet, and magazines in relation to interest. However, the author also elicited that radio adverts do not have any impact on any of the stages of consumer behaviour, including interest. Tang and Chan (2017), in their research, which adhered to the Hierarchy of Effective Model, determined the positive impact of online advertisements on the purchasing behaviour of Generation Y in Malaysia, which is increasingly familiar with the Internet and information technology. These authors concluded that they are more likely to click on online advertisements that are in line with their interest than with their need towards a product. Sachdeva (2015) also contended that, personal relevance is one of the important drivers of interest for advertisements.

Rehman et al. (2014b) showed the comparative effect of mobile marketing on the awareness, interest, and action stages of the AIDA model in comparison to email marketing. Pashootanzadeh and Khalilian (2018) confirmed the attention stage of the AIDA for television programmes in terms of persuading teenagers to use public libraries in the city of Isfahan, Iran; however, contradicting the prevailing notions, the remaining stages failed to be supported. In the commercial advertisement context, desired interest can be created with emotional appeals in a storytelling style given by a superstar (Rawal, 2013). In fact, the general finding in celebrity endorsement research is that the main AIDA influence is to gain attention and generate interest for the advertised product through the AIDA framework (Premeaux, 2009; Schaefer et al., 2011).

If the brand positioning in the consumers' mind is not strong, much effort is needed to demonstrate the product usage benefits to its target market (Rawal, 2013). Then, their attention can be attracted by using strong imagery of a product or a brand. Machleit, Allen, and Madden (1993) proposed that it is more difficult to influence brand attitude rather than brand interest, through affective advertising for a strong brand. Strong brand integration helps marketers to disseminate the specific messages in relation to a brand and to facilitate understanding of the special features of the product or service (Ghirwu, 2013). That is, brand names can help consumers to decode the messages in such a way that their understanding matches what the designers originally conceived. In this regard, interest as the pulling power of an advertisement keeps consumers tuned into the message (Sachdeva, 2015).

The interest of consumers can be raised by focusing on the advantages and benefits through the media of the information conveyed, rather than on features, which is the case with traditional advertising (Li & Hu, 2013). Consumers collect pieces of information about a product to ascertain whether

to buy it or not, which is determined by the most crucial attributes that can provide specific benefits that consumers seek. Whilst an attribute refers to “the characteristics or features that an object may or may not have”, benefits refer to “the outcomes that product or service attributes may provide” (Mowen, 1993, p. 771).

According to exchange theory, advertising is a communication exchange between the sender (advertisers) and receiver (consumers) (Ducoffe, 1995) in given and received values for the enhancement of one’s own assortment (Houston & Gassenheimer, 1987). Exchange refers to “a transfer of something tangible or intangible, actual or symbolic, between two or more social actors” (Bagozzi, 1979, p. 434). For example, a communication exchange occurs when consumers perceive baseline advertising value as high, whereby they put cognitive efforts into further processing (Ducoffe & Curlo, 2000) and expect to receive something entertaining, informative or meaningful about the brand or product in return. Conversely, communication exchange is insufficient or fails when the baseline advertising value is perceived as being relatively low, consumers thus tend to dismiss or ignore advertisements. not spending time or effort on them (Ducoffe, 1996).

The message format is crucial in designing effective advertisements. With his research examining the major format components on the effectiveness of print adverts on tourism destinations, Decrop (2007) suggested that despite the logo being considered as one of major format elements of an advert triggering a response from the target market, it is not influential in terms of the informational value, attraction level and behavioural intention.

Consumers may associate brands with certain attributes when they see a logo of the brand in the adverts, believing that all the benefits associated with attributes are deliverable. Brand associations include three major categories:

attributes, benefits, and attitudes (Keller, 1993). Consumers use brand name to anchor brand associations in their memory, such that they recognise and favourably respond to marketing activities for the brand. Brand name also facilitates marketing communications designed to link particular associations to the brand, which enable consumers to infer certain attributes and benefits (Keller, 1993). That is, evaluation of brands based on their relevant attributes plays a vital role in purchasing a certain product (Hadiyati, 2016). Products attributes also help brands to develop a positioning strategy. Through visual representations (i.e. presenting brand name, logo), businesses may also generate purchase related behaviour (product interest and purchase intention) (Lin, Lu, & Wu, 2012).

3.3.2.1 Product Interest

In the majority of research on advertising, interest towards an advertisement does not differentiate from that towards a product. Most of the studies have involved applying the concept of interest towards an advertisement (Mittal & Lee, 1989; Sung et al., 2016a) being generally measured through viewing duration. For the measurement of product interest, Kulkarni, Kannan and Moe (2012) proposed search activity through search engines, including Google, Yahoo! and MSN, in the context of the motion picture industry. Product interest refers to “interest in specific attributes of the product” (Kulkarni et al., 2002, p. 605). Consumers are primarily interested in the principal attributes as characteristics inherent to the product. In the case of a package tour, Liao and Chuang (2020) found attraction, accommodation, length of stay, price, cuisine, transport, and season as the main attributes.

Product interest is considered as a component of product involvement in some studies (i.e. Hochgrafe, Faulk, & Vieregge, 2012; Kapferer & Laurent, 1993). Such interest arises from the consumers’ perception that the product category

meets values and satisfies certain goals (Mittal & Lee, 1989). Hochgraeffe et al. (2012) posited that interest in a product or service category can arise for three possible reasons. Firstly, interest is pleasurable (Loewenstein, 1994), that is, consumers believe that satisfaction of it in the products brings them pleasure. Secondly, interest also reduces the possibility of making poor product choice and its subsequent negative consequences. Finally, interest can be considered as an outlet for self-expression, since consumers may favour brands or products as a means of self-expression to convey their identity and desired lifestyle (Catalin & Andreea, 2014).

Existence of a brand specific uncertainty about the true values of the discriminatory attributes encourages consumers to learn about the true attribute value of a brand/product by searching on the Internet (Moorthy, Ratchford, & Talukdar, 1997). That is, consumers use it to get product specific information on goods and services (Ratchford, Lee, & Talukdar, 2003), such as tourism. In this regard, in the current thesis, clicking on advert implies a propensity to obtain further information about the product advertised.

If consumers have information on product offerings, then they may seek knowledge to compare the product with others when making a choice. According to Moorthy et al. (1997), product knowledge refers to the consumer's perception of how much she or he knows about the values of various choice alternatives available to her or him in terms of attributes. Hu and Cole (2019) demonstrated that destination interest and destination knowledge influence tourists' learning new travel destination marketing information. That is, when the destination interest is low, consumers with high destination knowledge can pay less attention to recognising destination attributes in marketing communications. Also, the higher destination knowledge might not motivate potential tourists to perform further information search on the destination.

High product interest possibly motivates consumers actively and continuously to search for information pertaining to the product (Bloch, 1986; Bloch & Richins, 1983). Joint brand advertising may have an impact on consumers' propensity to search for more information about a given product. Product interest could drive consumers to search for a tourism tour to find information about tour price, itinerary, flight details, etc. This interest might translate into purchase of the product or behavioural intention to visit that destination.

3.3.3 Desire

Most studies conceptualise desire as a psychological state (Ostojic, Shaw, Cheke, & Clayton, 2013; Papies & Barsalou, 2015; Regan & Berscheid, 1996). In consumer psychology, it refers to "a state of mind whereby an agent has a personal motivation to perform an action or to achieve a goal" (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004, p. 71). Such motivation requires a decision to act and subsequent intention to do so. It pertains to an individual's interest in engaging in a certain behaviour in response to stimuli. Desire plays a key role in influencing motivation (Williams & Williams, 2011) and consumer loyalty (Bakirtas & Divanoglu, 2013; Han, Meng, & Kim, 2017; Wu, Ai, & Cheng, 2019). The literature shows that desire strongly influences behavioural intentions (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998; Hwang, Kim, & Kim, 2019; Leone, Perugini, & Ercolani, 1999). Also, it has a vital role in the formation of consumers' decision / behaviour (Bagozzi, Dholakia, & Basuroy, 2003; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004). Within the tourism context, arousing tourists' desire frequently results in strong intention for its associated activities (Han & Yoon, 2015; Han & Hyun, 2019). Lee et al. (2012) also determined that when consumers' desire to visit a particular destination is strong, they are willing to show positive behavioural intentions.

For advertising to be effective, it must create a desire in the minds of the viewers, listeners and readers (Jan et al., 2019) and then, provide information on the characteristics and quality of the product (or service) (Anand & Shachar, 2011; Terui, Ban, & Allenby, 2011) that can help them fulfil that desire. In many brand-based advertisements, brand-sign connotations are used to arouse desire for the product advertised for rational persuasion in the purchasing decision (Caccamo, 2010). In sum, advertisements have the strong potential to build a desire and calls to action among target markets (Fortenberry & McGoldrick, 2019).

3.3.4 Action

Whilst behaviour is an action of the individual, a behavioural intention is an individual's own subjective probability of performing a given behaviour or not (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). That is, behavioural intention is the immediate precursor of actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). According to the theory of reasoned action, a person's intention to perform (or not to perform) a behaviour determines the action (Ajzen, 1985), which refers to "a person's motivation in the sense of her or his conscious plan or decision to exert effort to enact the behaviour" (Conner & Armitage, 1988, p. 1430). Given that an action refers to the behaviour, for the current thesis, behavioural measures or the construct of tourist behaviour was measured as behavioural response in Study 1 and as behavioural intention for Study 2. The behavioural response refers to the propensity to visit the destination as a result of advertisements as stimuli. With regards to measurement of this behavioural measure, if an advertisement aims to get a direct response, like bringing potential viewers to the Web site directed by clicking, the click through rate can be used as a metric in the measurement of the efficiency of banner adverts (Lothia, Donthu, &

Yaveroglu, 2007). That is, the click through rate is an approximation of information seeking behaviours (Chandon et al., 2003). Behavioural response (click-through) implies an immediate interest in the advertised product or brand (Briggs & Hollis, 1997). Banner advertisements lead potential responders to find out with an action of clicking (Raman & Leckenby, 1998), by transforming them from the current focused Web page to the advertiser's Web site (Briggs & Hollis, 1997). In the present thesis, respondents were directed to a specific web page as a result of clicking a particular advertisement that they saw.

One of the strong aspects of digital marketing is creating interest in the product or service offered. In particular, when prospective consumers browse the website of the brand (or a company), various information can be passed on to them and explanation about the product can be provided with an interactive method which is more engaging for the consumer (Hassan et al., 2015). Furthermore, partnering brands can enhance the possibility of reaching potential tourists through the directed website (Lagrosen, 2005). Hence, getting more information may encourage them to take an action in terms of choosing the destination.

Travel intention has been a significant focus of tourism research for decades (Lam & Hsu, 2006). Tourism marketing campaigns aim to influence the behavioural intentions of a relevant target market and to increase the possibility that travellers will visit a particular destination (Hennessey, Yun, MacDonald, & MacEachern, 2010). Understanding the possible reasons for potential tourists travelling and the factors that influence their behavioural intention to visit by the choosing the holiday destination, informs destination and travel intermediaries. Accordingly, travel intention is another behavioural measure in this thesis. Intention to visit refers to the travellers' perceived probability of visiting a particular destination within a precise time period and

recommending it to friends or family (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). It can also refer to the subjective probability as to whether a potential tourist takes an action pertaining to an individual travel product or service (Hennessey et al., 2010). Similarly, according to Lam and Hsu (2006, p.591), behavioural intention refers to “a potential [...] traveller’s anticipation of a future trip [...] for leisure or vacation purpose”. Basically, it indicates the probability of purchasing a tourism product and readiness to buy the concept (Moutinho, 1987).

3.4 Summary

This chapter has described the models that explain how advertising influences consumer behaviour. The hierarchy of effects models asserts that advertisements move consumers through a set of phases before the purchasing of a product or service actually occurs. As one of the best-known hierarchy of effects models, the AIDA model that has been around in the marketing literature for more than a century, assumes that consumers go through the sequential process of attention, interest, desire and action in response to advertising. As a result of being exposed to a successful advertisement, consumers can change their mind about the product that is being advertised in terms of their attitudes towards it, and then they act. That is, the process begins with cognition that leads to affect and this is followed by behaviour. The rationale for applying this model to joint brand advertising in the tourism context is that collaborating with a travel intermediary brand evokes existing or potential tourists to seek information about the tourism tour advertised regarding a particular destination. This, in turn, will lead to a positive behavioural response. Thus, this thesis is aimed at examining the effect of joint advertisements on two stages of the AIDA model: second stage of interest and

the last level, that is, the action. Interest refers to a person's interaction with content. For the current work, the interest lies in the situational aspect of interest that is aroused spontaneously due to environmental factors, such as advertisements or brand related factors. Also, product interest is probed, which is about understanding a brand or product's characteristics. Taking action as a behavioural response, this was measured through the click-through behaviour in the first experiment and through behavioural intention in the second. What is of interest for the current research, is whether tourist behaviour can be built through joint brand advertising activities. In order to probe this matter, integration of product interest to explain the relationship between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural response within a conceptual model is deployed and this is covered in detail in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4

The Research Model

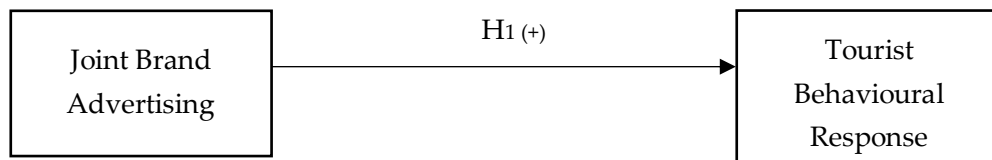
4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the research model and research hypotheses. The conceptualisation of the current thesis encompasses two complementary research models. The first model proposes that joint brand advertising (versus single brand advertising) positively influences tourists' actual behaviour. That is, consumers more positively respond to a joint advert including logos /brand names of a particular tourism destination and a travel intermediary, than for a single brand advert, including logo / brand name of a tourism destination. The second model proposes product interest as an underlying psychological mechanism in the relation between joint brand advertising and behavioural intention. That is, in comparison to single brand advertising, joint brand advertising leads to a greater positive interest in the product, which in turn, leads to higher behavioural intention. Thus, it is hypothesised that product interest mediates the relation of joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural intention. For this research the AIDA advertising model is applied with a focus on the (product) interest and action (behavioural intention) stages for the conceptualisation of the second model.

4.2 The Research Models

Figure 4.1 presents the conceptual framework for joint brand advertising in Study 1.

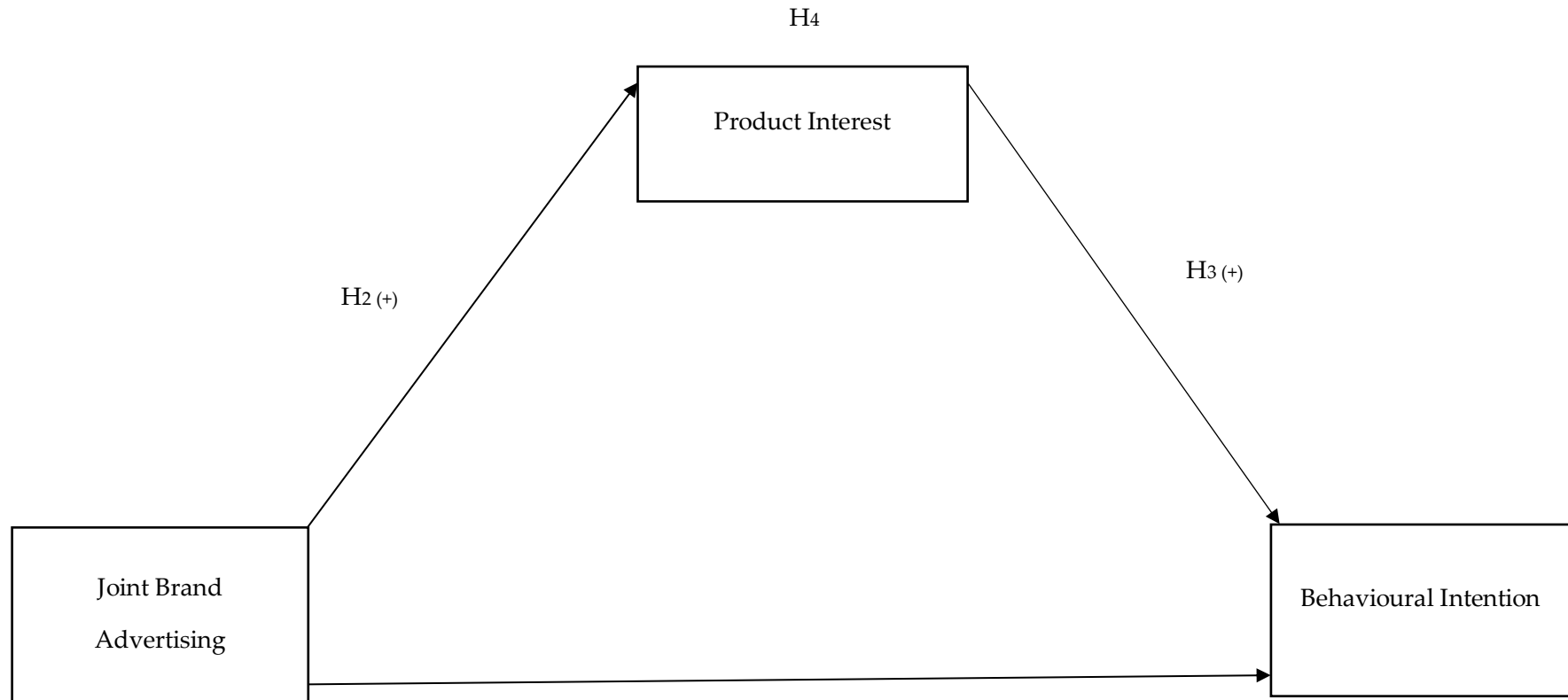
Figure 4.1: The research model (Study 1)



In this model, joint brand advertising is defined as a collaboration of a travel intermediary and a particular destination on an advert based on shared cost to achieve a common goal, such as selling a tourism tour towards that destination. Tourists' behavioural response refers to clicking on the adverts that they have been exposed to. The click through behaviour has been described as "how users interact until they get to their desired objective" (Westlund, Gomez-Barroso, Compano, & Feijoo, 2011, p. 695). For display banner advertising in the current study, it is about how potential tourists interact with the adverts displayed or how they respond and click on an advert, where a link on a website made to search for more information about the product (or brand) advertised and / or to purchase the product. Through the research model in Study 1, it is hypothesised that joint brand advertising in the form of displaying an advertising banner predicts the potential tourists' actual visiting behaviour towards a particular destination.

Model 2 proposes interest in the product as an underlying psychological process underpinning the relation between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural intention. Figure 4.2 illustrates the conceptual framework for the joint brand advertising effect on behavioural intention along with incorporation of product interest into research model 1 as a mediator.

Figure 4.2: The research model (Study 2)



In study 2, joint brand advertising refers to the appearing of brand logos / names of both a travel intermediary and a tourism destination on the same advert to promote a particular product. Product interest has been described as “the degree of curiosity and attention for the product being advertised” (Zhu & Chang, 2015, p. 27). In other words, it pertains to consumers’ interest in the product featured in the marketing communications (Scheinbaum et al., 2017). Behavioural intention represents the possibility that the tourist will purchase a given tourism tour or visit the destination in the future and/or the propensity that he or she will recommend the destination to his or her friends as a good place to travel as a result of the advert shown.

As can be seen from Figure 4.2 above, joint brand advertising is proposed as having both a positive direct effect on behavioural intention and an indirect effect through product interest. The indirect effect indicates that joint brand advertising stimulates a positive interest towards the product advertised and subsequently, leads to a greater positive effect on tourist behavioural intention. Hence, the conceptual framework suggests that the effect of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural intention is mediated by product interest.

4.3 Hypothesis Development

4.3.1 The Effect of Joint Brand Advertising on Tourist Behavioural Response

Tourists seek out information about their possible destination place, because:
(1) obtaining information reduces their risk perception to a more tolerable

level; (2) they greatly rely on information sources for destinations since tourism products cannot be directly observed or be tried out, because of their intangibility; (3) if they are unfamiliar with a new destination or they do not want an alternative one, then they spend much more time searching for information about this particular destination (Dey & Sarma, 2010; Hyde, 2009). Two types of search have been categorised in consumer behaviour research: internal and external information sources (Money & Crofts, 2003). Tourists' perception of a destination can be formed with the usage of these information sources. The internal information search is chiefly about retrieving decision-relevant information stored in the tourist's memory, which may contain previous experience or past information searches (Swart, George, Cassar, & Sneyd, 2018). On the other hand, external information searches could be (Almeida-Santana, David-Negre, & Moreno-Gil, 2020; Sun, Law, & Luk, 2020): (1) Media (e.g. television, radio, newspaper and magazine ads); (2) Experiential sources – direct contact with the retailer; (3) Interpersonal (e.g. word-of-mouth advice from friends, relatives, and neighbours); and (4) Neutral sources (e.g. third-party sources, such as travel agents and travel guides). The Internet has been added as fifth information source in recent years (Buhalis & Law, 2008).

Baloglu and McCleary (1999) suggested that both internal and external information sources, such as word of mouth and advertisement, play a major role in forming the perceptual/ cognitive evaluation of tourists. McCartney, Butler and Bennett (2008) have contended that information sources can have varying influence on travel behaviour and destination choice. Exposure to an advert enhances the likelihood of inclusion of a product in a memory-based consideration set (Shapiro, Macinnis, & Heckler, 1997). Moreover, a well-designed advertisement (e.g., featuring an additional brand) influences consumers' cognitive responses (Shaouf 2018), including their information processing behaviour (Gurrea, Orus, & Flavian 2013; Gursoy & McCleary

2004). The appearance of additional travel intermediary signals information about the tourism product and offers an official seal of approval for the destination quality. Including the travel intermediary in an advertisement can also provide additional cues and stimulate information search behaviour for tourism destinations. Thus, displaying both the DMO and intermediary brands in an advert may stimulate the behavioural responses of potential tourists (i.e., clicking on the online advert to get more information about the advertised product). It is expected that both partnering brands in an advertisement presents a much higher favourable association with a destination than presenting a single one. The appearance of a travel intermediary brand in a joint brand advertisement is expected to trigger tourists' behavioural response for the destination. When tourists aspire to take a holiday towards a particular destination, they can attain this goal through clicking on the advert and, as a result, they learn more about the advertised product or the offer. Hence, the first hypothesis is:

H1. Joint brand advertising has a positive effect on tourist behavioural response.

4.3.2 The Mediating Role of Product Interest

Product interest refers to “consumers’ interest in specific attributes of the product” (Kulkarni et al., 2002, p. 605). Effective marketing communications enhance consumers’ interest in the product (Scheinbaum, Hampel, & Kang 2017). Joint brand advertising can stimulate consumers’ interest in the advertised products for a variety of reasons, including i) curiosity about the

two independent brands appearing in the same advertisement (Litman, 2007) and ii) signalling quality for the alliance product (Kraus & Gierl 2017).

Brand associations are the meaningful brand attributes that come to the mind (Jeon & Baeck, 2016; del Rio, Vazquez, & Iglesias, 2001). They assist consumers in processing and retrieving brand related information as well as building a positive response towards a brand, thereby influencing purchasing behaviour (Vriens, Chen, & Schomaker 2019). Consumers may associate brands with specific brand features, past experiences, or a logo (John et al., 2006).

The strength of the brand association depends on the consumer's processing of the quality and quantity of the brand information. That is, the stronger the brand association, the deeper consumers process the brand information and the higher the interest in the advertised product. Also, consumers' information processing differs in relation to such adverts due to brand reputation. Since customers and the public create the reputation for brands (Foroudi, 2019), companies put their effort into encouraging positive customer behaviour to differentiate their product from those of others. Brand reputation has critical role in triggering brand trust, attitude and behavioural intentions (Han, Yu, Lee, & Baek, 2020). Hence, consumers often assess the reputation of a brand in their evaluation of products or services and decision-making process for purchasing (Jenefa, 2019).

Exposure to an advertisement elicits emotional arousal (Bakalash & Riemer, 2013), which activates curiosity-related exploratory behaviours (Sung et al., 2016a), such as information seeking (cognitive curiosity) (Litman, 2007). Hence, a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand logo may stimulate high interest in the advertised product and motivate consumers to search for more information pertaining to the product (Bloch, 1986). A favourable brand association can result in the success of a marketing program (Vriens et al. 2019). Specifically,

the stronger (weaker) the association consumers have with a brand as a result of joint brand advertising, the higher (lower) the interest toward the product advertised.

Compared to single brand advertising, featuring of an additional travel intermediary brand should attract product interest. This could be due to increased synergy or the combined effect of joint branding (Chen, Dong, Li, & Zhao, 2020). It is proposed here that the appearance of a travel intermediary brand in the same advertisement helps to increase the tourist's interest in the destination. The higher the interest in the product, the better the advertising performance (Hoch & Deighton 1989). Furthermore, it is posit that increased consumer interest in the destination depends on the travel intermediary brand's reputation. Joint brand advertising is expected to have a stronger interest in the tourism destination-oriented product, when the partnership is formed with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand. According to Rogers (2003), interest towards a product is a key determinant of behavioural responses to that product. Within the tourism context, we expect that product interest predicts tourists' intentions to visit behaviour.

Accordingly, the following hypotheses are derived:

H2. Joint brand advertising has a positive effect on product interest.

H3. Product interest has a positive effect on tourist behavioural intention.

H4. Product interest mediates the relationship between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural intention.

4.4 Summary

To summarise the thesis, Chapter 1 provided background information and justification for the current research and also defined the aim and objectives of the thesis. Then, Chapter 2 scrutinised the theory of collaborative marketing and positioned the research subject of joint brand advertising under it. Following this, Chapter 3 delineated the advertising models and presented the relevant theory of the hierarchy of effects model, namely the AIDA model. Then, based on the previous chapter, research hypotheses and the research model were developed.

In this regard, this chapter was dedicated to describing the conceptual underpinnings for the joint brand advertising effect on tourist behavioural response. From which, the theoretical frameworks used in this thesis were constructed. That is, two consecutive research models were created and a total of four hypotheses were developed. The first research model is aimed at determining the relationship between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural response. It was hypothesised that, when compared to single brand advertising, consumers respond more positively to joint brand advertising through their behavioural response in the form of clicking on an advert. Then, one potential mediator of product interest was integrated into the second research model as an underlying psychological mechanism underpinning this relation. Regarding which, it was hypothesised that product interest mediates the relation between joint brand advertising and behavioural intention. That is, joint brand advertising has a more positive impact on interest in the product than single brand advertising. In turn, the higher interest towards a product leads to more favourable behavioural intention.

In conclusion, the AIDA advertising model was applied to conceptualise the research model, with the focus being on the interest and action stages. That is, whilst this model includes four sequential stages to explain the advertising effect on consumer behaviour, for this thesis, the interest lies in just these two stages. The next chapter will discuss in detail the research methods and the methodology that were chosen and implemented for this thesis.

Chapter 5

Methodology

5.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the philosophical underpinning of the thesis, the methodology and the research design in detail. It starts with justification for the methodological stance taken, namely, positivism, which focusses on discovering observable and measurable data on the creation of law-like generalisations by looking for causal relationships in order to explain and predict behaviour (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2019). This approach mostly involves adopting a clear quantitative method (Frank, 2003).

Then, experiments are discussed in order to justify why it is a suitable methodology for examining the effects of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural response. The field and lab experiments are applied respectively to Study 1 and Study 2 in this research. Stimulus design, the ethics approval process, scenario developments, the participant recruitment process and data collection methods are explained. Lastly, reliability and validity issues as well as the data analysis method are discussed in this chapter.

5.2 Research Philosophy and Approach

The research philosophy basically refers to “a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 130). It is considered as a vital component of any research since as identified by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe (1997), it may help the researcher(s), firstly, to clarify the research method and strategy to be used in a study, secondly to assess different methodologies and to avoid unsuitable work by indicating the limitations of a specific approach at an earlier stage and finally, it facilitates being more creative and innovative in utilising the method that may have been previously outside the researcher’s experience.

Research methodology and methods differ from one discipline to another. The debate is often with regards to the positivist versus non-positivist paradigm in social sciences. The positivist assumption is grounded on the idea that “truth and reality is free and independent of the viewer and observer” (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim, & Martin, 2014, p. 81). Thus, under this paradigm, a positivist researcher gives importance to investigating an external, independent and singular universal truth (ontology), based on observable and measurable facts with causal explanations (epistemology), by maintaining objectivity (axiology) on a typically quantitative method with the use of a large data set (Saunders et al., 2019).

Under a positivism paradigm, a quantitative approach is generally adopted to probe a phenomenon, whereas regarding a non-positivist one the aim is usually to examine this phenomenon through qualitative methods (Frank, 2003). Despite scholars, such as Allwood (2012), arguing that the distinction between qualitative and quantitative approaches is abstract, poor, unclear and problematic, some distinct characterisations appear in the literature. In particular, the results from quantitative approach are characterised as being

generalisable to the population, where qualitative research outputs lack generalisability (Long, White, Friedman, & Brazeal, 2000). A quantitative researcher examines the nature of a phenomenon whilst a qualitative one probes its breadth and depth (Myers, 2013).

For the current thesis, a quantitative approach was employed. In the following, I explain and justify my choice of employing such approach rather than a qualitative one. Researchers utilise the qualitative approach, if they aim to develop interpretive meaning to explain a phenomenon (Crick, 2020). They employ a quantitative approach to obtain descriptive meanings behind a psychological phenomenon with its theoretical contribution through examining the relationship between two or more variables (Gneezy, 2017). Hence, quantitative research is better-suited to testing a theory when researchers aim to develop and test set of hypotheses (Hulland, Baumgartner, & Smith, 2018). Qualitative enquiry is applied to the subjects that are under-researched within the existing body of knowledge. Hence, this research is more convenient to theory building rather than theory testing (Ji, Plakoyiannaki, Dimitratos, & Chen, 2019). Whilst under the qualitative approach multiple realities or subjective interpretations of a single event are proposed, with a quantitative approach a more realistic and a positivist point of view is adopted to establish objective truth (Barnham, 2015). For the current thesis, I decided to use a quantitative approach since this can be considered consistent with the central foci of my research. That is, the aim was to investigate how consumers respond to joint brand advertising and to explore whether product interest is the underlying mechanism behind their response. Also, a series of hypotheses are aimed at testing to achieve objective truth through a quantitative approach.

Additionally, the positivist approach is rooted in the philosophical understanding of causality, which is intrinsic to quantitative or experimental

methods even though as argued by Maxwell (2004), qualitative methods can also be legitimately applied to identify causal processes by addressing validity threats. Thus, the philosophical positioning of this thesis is positivism since it is concerned with the causal explanation of the relationship between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural response through experimental research.

With regards to the approaches to theory development, hypotheses are constructed based on the theoretical frameworks and then, these propositions could be tested through empirical observation or experimentation for association or causality in a deductive approach. However, the theory is built from the observation of empirical reality through an inductive approach, that is, generalisations are constructed from these observations. Whilst the deductive approach involves moving from the general to particular, the inductive approach pertains to shifting from the particular to the general (Gray, 2017). For the purpose of this thesis, the deductive approach is preferred, as it is based on the theory of collaboration, deduced hypotheses, which are subject to empirical testing through experimental research.

5.3 Experimental Research

Experiments allow researchers to test cause and effect hypotheses unlike correlational studies (Mitchel & Jolley, 2007; Viglia & Dolnicar, 2020). Correlation studies examine whether the correlation among variables exist or indicate whether two or more variables are related. That is, correlation does not necessarily entail causation between two variables. On the other hand, experimentation allows researchers to see the effects of varying independent variables on a dependent variable by holding everything else constant. By so

doing, researchers can maximise their certainty that changes in the dependent variable is due to this experimental treatment (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

Experimentation can also help researchers to move research beyond description to theory testing (Muis & Pan, 2019). Regarding this thesis, since an advertisement as a stimulus is used to persuade consumers to engage with an entity, like a brand or a product, its efficacy can be contingent on the relationship of the entity and behaviour of consumers (Bakshy, Eckles, Yan, & Rosenn, 2012). Hence, the causal relationship in this thesis is that the known feature of an advertisement (like featuring additional travel intermediary brand) affects tourist behaviour and hypotheses generated from the theory of collaboration are tested to examine this relationship through experiments.

There are two central characteristics of any true experiment. The first is that some independent variable is manipulated by the experimenter to ascertain the effect it has on the dependent variable. The second characteristic is random assignment, that is, participants are randomly assigned to either the control group, which does not receive the treatment, or to the experimental group which does, i.e. the manipulation of the independent variable (Saunders et al., 2019). Consequently, researchers can be assured that differences in observed changes occurring in the dependent variable are not due to pre-existing or systemic differences between the participants (Maylor & Blackmon, 2005).

Experimental design has been applied by several researchers in advertising (Feng, Xie, & Lou, 2019; Kim, Choi, & Wakslak, 2019; Kitirattarkarn, Araujo, & Neijens, 2019; Theodorakis & Painesis, 2018; Yucel-Aybat & Kramer, 2018) and more specifically, in destination advertising (Byun & Jang, 2015; Decrop, 2007) as well as in tourism researches (Grazzini, Rodrigo, Aiello, & Viglia, 2018; Tassiello, Viglia, & Mattila, 2018). Vaidyanathan and Aggarwal (2000) undertook experimental research with a total sample of 253 students from two mid-westerns universities in USA on brand alliances between a private brand

and national brand products. Experimental booklets of a cold breakfast cereal package were provided for each of the participants as a visual stimulus. Levin, Davis and Levin (1996) proposed an experimental design to discover each brand's contribution to the co-branding context in a new marketing strategy and to assess the potential impact of such a co-branding strategy on brand image. For viewing of an advertisement and questionnaire, whilst at the same time recording an instant response, a mock up print advertisement was presented individually to a total of 185 undergraduate marketing students in Dean's (1999) experimental research. Byun and Jang (2015) employed an experimental design to identify the effect of advertising language on travellers' attitudes and behavioural intentions regarding attraction-level and city level destinations.

Three basic different types of experiments exist: laboratory (lab) experiment, field experiment, and quasi experiment. Whilst causal effects are tested in an artificial setting (the laboratory) for the first type and in the natural environment for the second type, they are not truly measured in the third type as this type is lack of randomly assignment of participants into the groups or proper controls (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Charness, Gneezy, and Kuhn (2013) have stressed that whilst there are advantages and disadvantages for each category of experiment, there is no agreed set order regarding the carrying out of the different experiment types and that one category of experiment may be more appropriate to a particular scenario than others. Since a sole experiment is not definitive, a second experiment manipulating the same aspect is usually required. The follow-up experiment can be helpful in estimating the impact more accurately as well as allowing for continual redesign and development or new variations based on the results of the first experiment (Bakshy, Eckles, & Bernstein, 2014). For the current thesis, a field experiment is employed in online setting. This is followed by a lab experiment.

After defining the research problem, identification of a suitable research design and the development of a data collection instrument, the next stage is the selection of those elements from which information is gathered (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2002). Information can be collected from all possible cases or elements; however, this is not possible in most, because of its large scale, geographical distribution or impracticality (Ekinci, 2015) or cost (Saunders et al., 2019). Alternatively, information can be collected from a portion of the population, known as sampling (Saunders et al., 2019), which is “the selection process of a sufficient number of subjects from the research population to address the research problem” (Ekinci, 2015, p. 28), such that inferences can be made about a population. Sampling procedures can be divided into two types: probability and non-probability. In probability samples, the chance or probability of being selected from the target population is equal for each unit. In non-probability ones, in contrast, the probability of being selected from the target population is not known, that is, making a valid inference about the population is impossible (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2002; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

Examples of probability sampling are as follows. In a simple random sampling design, all units in the population have a known and equal chance of being included (Saunders et al., 2019). For example, selecting the number at random in the sampling frame through a computer. Systematic sampling design involves drawing the n th unit in the population after a random start (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2002). In stratified random sampling, the target population is divided into discrete strata and a sample is independently selected from subjects from each stratum (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). In cluster sampling, the population is divided into clusters, with a sample from each being selected (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2002; Saunders et al., 2019; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

On the other hand, examples of non-probability sampling are as follows. In convenience sampling, the information is obtained from those who are easily

accessible and reachable. In purposive sampling, the data are collected from those who can best provide the desired information (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016) with there being two major types: judgement and quota sampling. Whilst the former is used when there is limited number of people who can provide the information sought, the latter is deployed when certain groups are sufficiently represented in the study based on a quota (Saunders et al., 2019).

5.3.1 Study 1: Field Experiment

The goal of the online field experiment is to test hypotheses by capturing both environmental context and social interactions rather than to generalise the results of a lab experiment (Parigi, Santana, & Cook, 2017). An online field experiment is also commonly applied throughout the strategic decision-making process by comparing certain design alternatives (Bakshy et al., 2014). Online field experiments are now commonly applied since interaction occurring in the world in which we live is ever more digitally mediated by technology (Parigi et al., 2017). Such experiments are conducted in online settings (Muisse & Pan, 2019) such as Facebook (Bakshy et al., 2012; Bakshy et al., 2014) and Twitter (Kobayashi & Ichifuji, 2015; Wood & Burkhalter, 2014). During such field experiments, respondents do not know that they are part of a research study and they are unaware that an experiment is occurring (Charness et al., 2013; List, 2004) or that their behavioural response is being measured (Morales, Amir, & Lee, 2017).

An online field experiment necessitates three crucial components: arrangement of a collaboration with an online community, invitation of participants to engage with the experiment and their retention (Parigi et al., 2017). In some cases, researchers randomly select a sample from an online community (i.e. Google Display Network, Facebook), divide it into two groups, but whether

they will be exposed to a treatment or not is not assigned by the experimenter since they are self-selected into treatment or nontreatment conditions automatically by this online platform (Parigi et al., 2017). Randomisation allows researchers to distribute unobservable factors that have an effect on outcomes in a similar way throughout the control and treatment groups. At the same time, researchers can accurately measure the impact of a given treatment on an outcome variable of interest regardless of the other factors by preventing selection bias. Treatment refers to manipulation of at least one independent variable such that individuals who receive this treatment are assigned to the treatment group, whilst the remaining individuals are allocated to a non-treated control group (Muisse & Pan, 2019).

The goal of the experimental design in Study 1, is to examine the natural behaviour of consumers in an actual environment. The experiment was associated / executed with “layers” at Google through display advertisement banners. Actual behaviours (e.g. purchase) can be measured by utilising realistic manipulations through a field experiment. That is, deploying actual-behaviour measures in the experiments provides insights into actual consumer behaviour. In doing so, veracity and believability of the research can be increased. Moreover, experimental realism is maximised and the naturalism of the responses is enhanced, if the experiment is conducted in the same settings as the actual consumption experience that people encounter in real life (Morales et al., 2017). Furthermore, conducting a field survey increases the internal validity of the results (Han et al., 2018). Also, internal validity of a randomised trial is combined with external validity yielded by realistic treatments, modest outcome measures, and unpaid subjects in an ideal field experiment (Green, Calfano, & Aronow, 2014).

However, field experiments have some major practical drawbacks, such as relatively weak control over the experiment or stimuli, infeasibility of true

randomisation (Charness et al., 2013; Muise & Pan, 2019), difficulty of replication, satisfactory variation, ensuring the invisibility of the experiment (Charness et al., 2013), and difficulty of achieving construct validity (Muise & Pan, 2019). Another challenge is that conducting media experiments in real life situations invariably necessitates cooperation with a partner organisation. Hence, design alterations may also be required in order to satisfy practical challenges in the field experiment so as to meet the demands made by this collaborative partner (Green et al., 2014).

Nevertheless, adopting a field experiment in marketing is essential if a behavioural phenomenon is to be investigated (Gneezy, 2017). The reason behind this is that the realism dimension of an experiment can be increased, if the intended measurement of variables closely accords with real-world settings. Given the psychology underlying a phenomenon is unavailable with data collected through a field experiment (Morales et al., 2017; Viglia & Dolnicar, 2020), a further lab experiment has been carried out to uncover the various psychological factors involved.

5.3.1.1 Stimulus Design and Mock-up Development

Two advertisements were chosen as stimuli since the intended research goal for the first experiment was to prove the greater effectiveness of joint brand advertising when compared to the single brand form. Accordingly, a small niche travel intermediary called Gulet Holidays with the www.gulettours.eu travel website was chosen to collaborate with since collaborating with smaller organisations such as this, may provide faster understanding (Gneezy, 2017) than collaborating with bigger travel intermediaries, such as Thomas Cook. That is, with a large company interaction with consumers involves many more factors than with a small one. One holiday image obtained from the Turkish Tourism Board in London capturing a few gulets (traditional wooden Turkish

sailing boats) the turquoise water of a cove surrounded by pine trees on the shore was chosen for each type of advertisement. Whilst to increase resemblance to the real advertisement, only the destination logo (Turkey) was put on the single brand advertisement (see Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1: Advertisements mock-ups for Study 1

 <p> </p>	 <p></p>
<p>Treatment Condition</p>	<p>Control Condition</p>

The additional logo of the travel intermediary (Gulet Holidays) was added to the joint advertisement (see Figure 5.1). The logo of Turkey as a destination was provided by the Turkish Tourism Board in London, whilst the logo of Gulet Holidays was obtained from its website. A letter confirming permission to use the logo was received from the owner of www.guletholidays.eu (see Appendix II). Also, permission to use the image in adverts was granted by the Turkish Tourism Board (see Appendix III).

To simplify the advertisements and to measure the effects of advertising clearly, no further information, such as tour prices, slogans, messages etc. was included in mock-ups. Both advertisements were designed to be the same size of 300x250 pixels. These advertisement mock-ups were sent to a total of 12 people who were residents of the United Kingdom through an e-mail to see whether the only difference between them was the additional logo of Gulet Holidays. This was confirmed by all of the respondents.

5.3.1.2 Scenario Development

Regarding the scenario, two types of banner advertisements were set up through the researcher's Google Ads Account (Google Ad Account No: 500-278-0845) through Google Display Network (GDN). These advertisements were shown at a set of websites in the United Kingdom, including Google websites, websites that are part of GDN as well as mobile sites and apps.

When viewers clicked on the advertisements, they were directed to the tour packages on the Gulet Holidays' website (see Appendix IV). Regarding those that saw the advertisement, the aim was measure their behavioural response in terms of whether or not they had followed through this action. That is, tourists' behavioural response refers here to the number of click showing how many of the people who saw the single brand advertisement and joint brand advertisement engaged in this operation. That is, their behavioural response

was measured according to whether seeing the advertisement led to them clicking on it or not.

5.3.1.3 Ethical Considerations

GDN advertisements can only be seen on websites that have an agreement with Google. Google gives the right to potential advertisers to show their advertisements. That is, every person or every organisation is authorised by Google to run an advertisement. It means that, people give consent or permission for advertisements to be shown by using Google. The advertisements used in this experiment are not 100% real since, as mentioned above, some of the elements, such as tour prices and promotional messages are not included, given aim of the experiment. That is, the objective was to ascertain the impact of the additional brand logo on tourist behavioural response and including such extra information would have sent noise into the findings. Apart from these omissions, the delivered adverts were almost the same as the originals. Hence, there was no deception for the people who saw the advertisements, for the tourism products were real and they were directed to the real website, where they could either get more information on and/or buy related tour packages.

Google shows advertisements on the websites based on cookies. If a person visits a website, it may automatically pop up a box asking whether he/she is prepared to accept cookies or not. Any person who declines does not see any of the advertisements on the internet or alternatively, simply a person can set up an advert blocker program. Hence, for a field study conducted on the GDN platform, it is not necessary to request a written consent form from the participants.

In sum, gaining consent in this experiment meant getting permission from the people to show the advertisement. Detailed information about how cookies

work can be found at policies.google.com/technologies/cookies. By simply using Google, every person who is a Google advertisement account holder automatically receives a consent request to run an advertisement or experiment. However, there is no facility for informing potential participants beforehand as to whether a displayed advert is part of an experiment or not. It should be reiterated that the manipulation was only with regards to the content of the advertisements (presenting one brand or two). This means that once consumers clicked on the advertisements, they would be directed to a real travel intermediary website where they could search for tour packages for their holiday.

GDN allows account holders to conduct this kind of experiment. Specifically, under the title of “About campaign drafts and experiments” on the link of support.google.com/google-ads/answer/6318732?hl=en-GB, it says that “Drafts and experiments let you propose and test changes to your Search and Display Network campaigns. You can use drafts to prepare multiple changes to a campaign. From there, you can either apply your draft changes back to the original campaign or use your draft to create an experiment. Experiments help you to measure your results to understand the impact of your changes before you apply them to a campaign.”

Also, at the link support.google.com/google-ads/answer/6261395?hl=en-GB&ref_topic=6319800, it says that:

“Set up a campaign experiment: After you’ve finished making edits to your draft, you can create an experiment from your draft and compare how your experiment performs against your original campaign over time. The experiment shares your original campaign traffic (and budget) and lets you test changes to your campaign so that you can make better informed decisions as to which tactics give you a better return on investment...” Hence, it basically

allows account holders to conduct an experiment with two adverts and compare the advertising images from the consumer's point of view.

Recall how it was not necessary for a consent form being given to the participants beforehand, as explained above. However, a debrief statement was inserted into the Gulet Holidays' website to which consumers were directed through clicking on the advertisement (see Appendix IV). When people did so, they were informed that they were part of an experimental study. The researchers e-mail address was also provided, which respondents could use if they had any kind of enquiry. However, no e-mail was received by the researcher from the people who saw the advertisements, clicked on it and visited the travel intermediary's website.

The data collected from the field experiment were anonymous, meaning that none of the participants could be identified by the researcher and also, the participants were not tracked with their IP addresses. Also, the data coming from the experiment have been stored in the researcher's Google Ads account, which only he has authorisation to access, thereby ensuring confidentiality.

This thesis was conducted in compliance with the UK Research Integrity Office Code of Practice for Research. That is, this research code has been approved by the University of Portsmouth Research Ethics Committee. The first submission for the ethical approval process was on 30th July 2018. After receiving feedback from the Ethics Committee, it was resubmitted on 22th August 2018 and the final resubmission was made on 28th September 2018. The endorsement was received from the Ethics Committee on 2nd October 2018 (see Appendix V).

5.3.1.4 Sample and Data Collection

The study 1 sample was chosen through the Google Display Network which reaches 92% of Internet users (www.google.co.uk/ads/displaynetwork/manage-your-ads/targeting-tools.html). Purposive sampling was employed to identify

participants and the rationale for using this method is that they were the only ones who had already expressed an interest towards a tour or holiday. In this regard, some content keywords or topics to both single brand advertisement and joint advertisement groups in the display network campaigns were chosen. The same set of keywords for both advertisement type were chosen as: Holiday, Turkey, Gullet, Blue Cruise, Gulet Holiday, Turkey Gulet, Turkish Gulet Charter, Gulet Cruise Turkey, Gulet Cruise, Gulet Charter, Gulet Boat Holidays, Luxury Gulet Holiday, Gulet Boat, Gulet Cruise Holidays and Gulet Holidays Turkey. Choosing keywords helps advertisers to show their advertisement on relevant websites to appropriate audiences who have an interest in the subject matter.

It means that people who live in the UK, use any Internet browser in their device (computer) can potentially see the adverts on their visit to any website having an agreement with Google. If they had previously searched for one of the keywords determined above in their Internet browsing through their device, then they would most probably to see the adverts.

To meet the assumptions of the experimental design, two different advertising campaigns were set up to show a single brand advertisement and joint advertisement separately. Participants were automatically assigned either to the control group or to the treatment group online. The people who saw the single brand advertisement belonged to the control group and those who viewed the joint advertisement were in the treatment one. The advertisement was manipulated for the people in the treatment group with the additional logo of a travel intermediary. In the creation of advertisement groups, to assign the participants randomly into just one group, only people using computers were selected, i.e. mobile phone, tablet and TV screen users were excluded, because those with more than one device could have ended up seeing the advertisement more than once, which would have undermined the integrity of

the experiment. Hence, advertisements in the campaigns were shown only one time to each unique user. Consequently, people were automatically assigned to one of the groups, not both, by Google. It means that Google showed one of the adverts randomly to the people. The people who saw the single advert were called the control group and those who saw the joint brand advertising, the treatment group. Also, the same amount of budget (i.e. £3 for every 1,000 impressions) was allocated for each group. Regarding the nature of the intention, “viewable impression” was taken into account when assessing the impact of the displayed adverts. According to this metric, if at least 50% of an advert’s area is visible on the screen for at least one second, then this is counted as viewable. The aim was to show the adverts to the same number of people in each group and to compare the number of clicks for a single brand advert and joint brand advert. For example, when a typical British person searched for or read some travel related news on the Internet and, then visited a website (i.e. theguardian.com), the person would most likely have seen one of the adverts shown. When that person saw the advert, then this was counted as a ‘viewable impression’ and if s/he clicked the adverts afterwards then this was counted as a ‘click’.

The longer the experiment runs and the larger sample size (or the additional participants are taken into the experiment), the narrower the confidence interval for both the mean of a metric and the effect. That is, the treatment effect can be measured better, which in turn increases the statistical power, if the experiment run is longer (Kohavi et al., 2012). Accordingly, the data collection, i.e. running the advertising campaigns, was run from 4th October 2018 until 19th February 2019.

5.3.1.5 Reliability and Validity Issues

The rigour of the research, which refers to work for enhancing the quality in quantitative study, can be achieved through the measurement validity and reliability. Validity refers to the extent which an instrument really measures the concept (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In an experiment, internal validity is established when a trustworthy causal relationship is demonstrated between a treatment and an outcome. To improve the internal validity of the first experiment, participants were randomly assigned, the independent variable of advertising was manipulated, and confounding effects were controlled by excluding typical components of display adverts, such as promotional messages, tour prices, slogan etc. On the other hand, external validity is concerned with the question of how research findings can be generalised to other settings (Saunders et al., 2019). Conducting the field experiment through all Google related websites in the UK as well as recruiting more than 120,000 people in total were for increasing the external validity.

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measurement or the extent to which a research instrument yields the same result, if it is replicated by other researchers under the same conditions (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Saunders et al., 2019). Whilst the most commonly used test is Cronbach's alpha (α), since there is no scale question in the field experiment, this is not applicable for to measuring the reliability of the first experiment.

5.3.1.6 Data Analysis Methods

Binary logistic regression analysis was performed for the first experiment as this analysis is used to predict the relationship between a continuous or categorical independent variable and the dichotomous dependent variable. Logistic regression is well suited to testing hypotheses about the relationship between a categorical outcome variable and one or more categorical or

continuous predictor variables (Field, 2005; Peng, Lee, & Ingersoll, 2002; Peng & So, 2002; Zeng & Zeng, 2019). The independent variable for Study 1 is advertising type. Single brand advertising was coded 0 as a reference category and joint brand advertising was coded as 1 as the target one. The dependent variable is actual behavioural advertising response referring to clicking or not clicking. It consists of binary coding data, that is, 0 refers to no click and 1 to click, where the “no clicking” group is the reference category and the “clicking” group is the target one. On the other hand, age, gender, parental status, and household income were treated as control variables as these were not hypothesised as being mediators or moderators in the thesis. The significance probability level (p value, α) refers to a statistical summary of the compatibility between a particular set of data and what a model has predicted, given the all assumptions are correct in this model (Greenland et al., 2016; Wasserstein & Lazar, 2016). In this case, 0.05 was accepted in since this is the common adopted among business researchers (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

5.3.2 Study 2: Lab Experiment

Having established the presence of a joint brand advertising effect in Study 1, this analysis will be extended to uncover the underlying mechanism under this effect, that is, the role of interest on this effect, through the lab experiment in Study 2. A lab experiment has advantages regarding data collection methods, including low cost, elimination of interviewer bias, and flexibility in questionnaire design (Cho, 2003). Also, online lab experiments allow researchers more control over stimuli in comparison to online field experiments (Muisse & Pan, 2019). Furthermore, independent variable(s) can be manipulated better in an artificial setting through a lab experiments than in a real-world setting through one in the field (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). However,

some limitations of lab experiments are also recognised in literature, such as their being conducted in an artificial experimental setting unlike field experiments, being unrepresentative (Maylor & Blackmon, 2005) and offering lower generalisability (Saunders et al., 2019).

In lab-experiments, participants know that they are part of a research study (Morales et al., 2017). If the experiment is conducted outside the typical on-campus lab, this is considered as extra-laboratory and human interaction is removed by online interfaces such experiments. Moreover, a broader range of age, culture and experience that is not available in student populations can be accessed by conducting outside the typical on-campus lab (Charness et al., 2013). To find the mediator effect of product interest on the relation between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural intention, a second experiment was conducted online.

5.3.2.1 Stimulus Design and Mock-up Development

For the purpose of the second experiment, three advertisements were designed as stimuli: one single brand advertisement and two joint ones. The same image was used for the adverts in both experiments. A joint brand advertising mock-up contains a destination and a travel intermediary brand, while the single brand advertising mock up has only one single destination. Thus, single brand advertisement in the second experiment is the same as that used in the first experiment. That is, a gullet image of Turkey including destination logo (Turkey) on the bottom of the mock-up (see Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2: Advertisements mock-ups for Study 2

 <p>The image shows a large, multi-masted sailing ship (gulet) on a turquoise bay with a forested hillside in the background. At the bottom, the 'Turkey HOME' logo is on the left and the 'Right Holidays' logo is on the right.</p>	 <p>The image shows the same sailing ship and background. At the bottom, the 'Turkey HOME' logo is on the left and the 'Thomas Cook' logo is on the right.</p>	 <p>The image shows the same sailing ship and background. At the bottom, only the 'Turkey HOME' logo is present.</p>
<p>Highly-Reputed Brand Condition</p>	<p>Lesser-Reputed Brand Condition</p>	<p>Single Brand Condition</p>

Two joint advertisement mock-ups were developed for the second experiment. That is, instead of presenting Gulet Holidays, as shown for the first experiment, another travel intermediary brand was added to the single brand advertisement in addition to the destination (Turkey). For the first joint advert, Right Holidays (rightholidays.com) was chosen as a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand since it is a London based niche travel intermediary specialising in selling package tours to Turkey as a place for travel. For the second one, Thomas Cook (thomascook.com) was chosen as a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand, since according to YouGov BrandIndex rankings, in 2018, it had the highest average index score among UK based travel companies, as which is measured by the average scores of impressions, quality, satisfaction, recommendation and reputation in the period 1 July 2017 and 30 June 2018 (brandindex.com/ranking/uk/2018-index/category/travel-companies). One of the joint advertisements includes the Turkey as a destination and the Right Holiday (see Figure 5.2), whereas the Thomas Cook was included instead of Right Holiday's in the second one (see Figure 5.2). The dimension of the advertisements was 694 pixels (Width) x 696 pixels (Height). These three advertisements were presented to respondents in the form of an online banner advertisement.

5.3.2.2 Scenario Development

A multi-level experimental design was employed to assess the impact of advertising with respect to a single brand and a joint arrangement on tourist behavioural intention involving both lesser- and highly-reputed travel intermediary brands. The between-subjects design was applied for three conditions. The difference between subject design and within design is that each participant was tested in only one of the conditions in the first, whereas they were subject to all of them in the second. Conditions refer to the levels of

the independent variable, such that if the single brand advertisement was shown to participants then this was the control condition. If a joint advertisement with Right Holiday was shown to participants, this was termed the lesser-reputed condition, and if a joint advertisement with Thomas Cook was displayed, then, this hereafter is called the highly-reputed condition. Thus, each participant was randomly allocated to one of these three conditions, i.e. they were exposed once to one of the three advertisements.

To understand this scenario clearly, it is considered helpful to reintroduce the conceptual framework of this thesis. Regarding which, it is proposed that joint brand advertising is more impactful than single brand advertising in relation to influencing tourist behavioural intention. Also, it is held that product interest mediates the relation between joint brand advertising and behavioural intention, such that, the former stimulates product interest, which in turn, leads to positive behavioural intention. Furthermore, brand reputation is considered as a boundary condition in the model. That is, whilst joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand indirectly affects behavioural intention through product interest, joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputable brand does not have an indirect impact on behavioural intention. In this thesis, whilst joint brand advertising with Thomas Cook is expected to stimulate higher product interest, which in turn, will deliver greater behavioural intention, joint brand advertising with Right Holidays is not expected to indirectly affects behavioural intention.

5.3.2.3 Instrument

The experiment instrument consisted of three sections (see Appendix VI, VII, VIII). The first section starts with a question about residency to ascertain the eligibility of the participants, since only UK residents were to be included. If participants were chosen who were not UK residents, then they were directed

to the end of experiment. The second question was aimed finding out whether participants had bought a package holiday to Turkey before or not. The third question asked whether or not participants had visited Turkey before. If they answered 'No', then they were directed to the relevant advertisements and following questions. If they had visited Turkey, then they were requested to answer three more questions, these being frequency in the last 10 years, time of the last visit and its purpose. After answering these questions, respondents saw the relevant advertisements and following questions.

For the second part of the instrument, participants were exposed to one of the three advertisements. Then, product interest, tourist behavioural intention and brand reputation were measured based on the particular advert that they saw. Product interest was measured with 6 statements using a 5-point Likert scale, with 1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3 undecided, 4= agree, and 5= strongly agree. The first statement of "Having seen this advertisement, I would be interested in going on holiday to Turkey" was derived from the literature (Cheah, Ting, Cham, & Memon, 2019; Fortenberry & McGoldrick, 2019; Lin et al., 2013; Michaelson & Stacks, 2011; Sama, 2019; Schaefer et al., 2011). The second, "This advertisement gives me a good impression about a holiday to Turkey", was modified from Cheah et al. (2019), whilst third statement, "Having seen this advertisement, I like the idea of taking a holiday to Turkey", was adapted from Cheah et al. (2019) and Budiawan et al. (2017). The fourth statement, "Having seen this advertisement, I would like to gain more knowledge about a holiday to Turkey", was derived from Giraldi and Cesareo (2016). The fifth, "Having seen this advertisement, I want to know more about Turkey as a holiday destination", was adapted from Lin et al. (2013) and Schaefer et al. (2011). The last statement, "Having seen this advertisement, I am willing to search for more information about a holiday to Turkey", was derived from Giraldi and Cesareo (2016) and Soh (2016).

With regards to tourist behavioural intention, a total of four questions measured with a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 meaning extremely unlikely and 7, extremely likely, were adapted from the literature. The first, “How likely is it that you will take a holiday in Turkey in the near future?” was derived from Byung and Jang (2015), Lam and Hsu (2006), and Sparks (2007). The second, “How likely is it that you would recommend taking a holiday to Turkey to someone who seeks your advice for his or her holiday?”, was from (Kim & Ritchie, & Tung, 2010, Prayag, Sameer, Birgit, & Del Chiappa, 2017; Sharma & Nayak, 2019). The third one of, “How likely is it that you would encourage friends and/or relatives to take a holiday in Turkey?” was taken from (Quintal, Thomas, & Phau, 2015; Prayag et al., 2017 Sharma & Nayak, 2019). The final one, “How likely is that you would say positive things about taking a holiday in Turkey?” was from (Quintal et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2010; Prayag et al., 2017).

Brand reputation scale was measured with five statements on a 5-point Likert scale anchor ranging from 1=Strongly Disagree to 5=Strongly Agree. These statements were “X is a credible holiday destination / company.”, “X has a good reputation (as a holiday destination)”, “X is a well-known holiday destination / brand.”, “X is a popular holiday destination / brand.”, and “X is a highly esteemed holiday destination / company”. All were modified from Chaudhuri (2002), which is a commonly applied measurement in the literature (i.e. Ahn & Back, 2018; Dahlen, Granlund, & Grenros, 2009; Sengupta, Balaji, & Krisnan, 2015), except for the first one. The original statement was “X brand has a status”, but since the word “status” may not be clearly understandable, the expression of “credibility” was preferred.

The last section of the instrument was used to collect respondents’ demographic information, including gender, age, parental status, and income level. Then, the experiment instrument was finalised with the option of an e-

mail box to be filled in, if they wanted to receive a resulting report, which was requested by 29 people and a thank you message was provided at the end.

5.3.2.4 Ethical Considerations

With regards to the process of gaining consent from the participants, the study information was shown online to them before starting the experiments and an online confirmation button was used to gain consent to use their data. That is, if people did not give their consent, then they would not take part in the experiment. The information about the research and seeking consent was also explained at the beginning of the experiment. The invitation letter can be seen in Appendix IX, consent form in Appendix X, and participant information sheet in Appendix XI.

Regarding confidentiality, none of the participants in the experiments was able to be identified by the researcher since Prolific provides only participants' unique Prolific IDs to the researcher and these identities were not known to him. As aforementioned, the data that came from the lab experiment included answers to the questions on the experiments as well as some demographic information, such as gender, income level and age. All responses were kept anonymous and the information was stored in the researcher's account to ensure confidentiality. Hence, whilst the data are accessible at any time via the researcher's account, only he has access. The researcher has stored this on the Google drive, the university's N drive and an encrypted hard drive.

Only completed experiments were considered valid for analysis of the data. Participants were allowed to leave the experiments at any time without giving any explanation, as explained before joining in. Even after completing the questionnaire, the respondent could withdraw his or her data from the study, if they provided their unique ID to the researcher through e-mail before 30 September 2019, when the data analysis was completed. All the gathered data

were included in the analysis since no e-mail was received to withdraw by this date. Also, no duplicate prolific ID was found that confirmed that any participant was exposed to just one advert during the second experiment.

Favourable ethics opinion was received on 30 July 2019 (see Appendix XII), after minor corrections requested by the Ethics Committee subsequent to the first submission on 8th April, and resubmitted applications on 8th May, 20th May, and 30th July 2019. After the requested changes were made on the consent form, the go ahead for the second experiment was confirmed on 8th August 2019.

5.3.2.5 Study Sample and Data Collection

The second experimental study was created through www.qualtrics.com and the participants were recruited from www.prolific.co. The research population included individuals who were at least 18 years old, residing in the United Kingdom. The total sample referring to the number of UK population who are over 18 years old was 51,312,680 in 2017 (Office for National Statistics, 2018), whilst the number people registered to prolific.co was 30,592.

The participants were randomly assigned to either one control group or one of the two experimental groups online. After reading an invitation letter as well as a participant information sheet and confirming a consent form to use their information in the analysis, one advertisement was shown for each group. That is, they were automatically assigned into the control group or one of the experimental groups. In the control group, only single brand advertisement, including only the Turkey logo as a tourism destination was shown. On the other hand, people saw just one of the joint advertisements in the experimental groups. The tourism destination (Turkey) and the travel intermediaries (Thomas Cook and Right Holidays) were presented on the experimental group advertisements.

Also, the same number of participants for the experiments was targeted to equalise the total sample size for each group. To satisfy the minimum sample size of 20 per cell, as recommended by Simmons, Nelson and Simonsohn (2011), at least 40 participants were required to be reached per group in the experiments. Accordingly, the total number of participants for the experiment was 180 for this study, with 60 being allocated for each condition. To increase the participation in the experiment, a £0.63 reward per participant was used as an incentive. Data were collected from 8th to 17th August 2019.

5.3.2.6 Reliability and Validity Issues

Cronbach's Alpha is the most commonly used measure to test the reliability of a research instrument (Hoekstra, Vugteveen, Warrens, & Kruyen, 2019). Accordingly, the internal consistency reliability for the items in the scale consisting of three independent constructs was estimated by calculating Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient using the SPSS 25 version. The Cronbach's alphas for the five product interest, four tourist behavioural intention, and five brand reputation items were 0.88, 0.91, and 0.86, respectively. After one item with a poor factor loading was dropped, Cronbach's alpha for the behavioural intention measurement improved to 0.89, as explained in the paragraph below. Hence, the measurement instrument was found to be very reliable (14 items: $\alpha=.898$), being significantly higher than the satisfactory level of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978).

In addition, principal factor analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotations was applied for the validity check in order to understand the extent to which an instrument accurately measured what it purported to measure. That is, construct validity for each scale was investigated using PCA. The results of PCA along with descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) and Cronbach's alpha can be seen in Table 5.1. A minimum factor loading of 0.50 is

required for acceptable construct validity (Hair et al., 2010; Hair, Matthews, Matthews, & Sarstedt, 2017; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013), which was met for 14 out of the 15 items in the three constructs. Since one item in product interest scale had a factor loading of 0.34, it was omitted from the study and thus, dropped from the subsequent analysis.

Table 5.1: Instrument reliabilities and validities

<i>Likert-scaled construct</i>	<i>Number of items</i>	<i>Mean*</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Cronbach alpha</i>	<i>Standardised factor loadings</i>
<i>Tourist Behavioural Intention</i>	4			0.91	
How likely is that you would take a holiday to Turkey in the near future?		3.58	1.48		0.62
How likely is that you would recommend taking a holiday to Turkey to someone who seeks your advice?		3.88	1.45		0.89
How likely is that you would encourage friend and/or relatives to take a holiday to Turkey?		3.84	1.49		0.86
How likely is that you would say positive things about a taking a holiday to Turkey?		4.41	1.46		0.80
<i>Product Interest</i>	6 (5)*			0.88 (0.89)*	
Having seen this advertisement, I would be interested in going on holiday to Turkey.		3.53	0.84		0.66 (0.65)*
This advertisement gives me a good impression about a holiday to Turkey.		3.62	0.84		0.34 ^a
Having seen this advertisement, I like the idea of taking a holiday to Turkey.		3.54	0.83		0.72 (0.68)*
Having seen this advertisement, I would like to gain more knowledge about a holiday to Turkey.		3.58	0.88		0.69 (0.73)*
Having seen this advertisement, I want to know more about Turkey as a holiday destination.		3.58	0.90		0.73 (0.78)*

Table 5.1: Instrument reliabilities and validities

<i>Likert-scaled construct</i>	<i>Number of items</i>	<i>Mean*</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Cronbach alpha</i>	<i>Standardised factor loadings</i>
<i>Product Interest</i>	6 (5)*			0.88 (0.89)*	
Having seen this advertisement, I am willing to search for more information about a holiday to Turkey.		3.47	0.90		0.65 (0.69)*
<i>Brand Reputation</i>	5			0.86	
X is a credible company / holiday destination.		3.56	0.86		0.63
X has a good reputation.		3.39	0.87		0.69
X is a well-known company / holiday destination.		3.67	1.22		0.67
X is a popular company / holiday destination.		3.56	1.05		0.73
X is a highly esteemed company /holiday destination.		3.13	0.86		0.56

*Parentheses indicate parameters after scale revision.

*This item was dropped from the final scale.

5.3.2.7 Data Analysis Method

The findings of Study 2 were analysed using the PROCESS macro (Version 3.4; www.processmacro.org) in SPSS through descriptive statistics (i.e. means, standard deviations and frequencies) and regression analysis. The reason behind using this handy tool is that the regression coefficients can be estimated in a simple mediation model, which is the case in this study even involving a multicategorical independent variable. Further, it provides an estimate of the indirect effect through various inferential testing (i.e. omnibus test and bootstrap confidence interval) of hypotheses. Model 4 of the PROCESS macro (Version 3.4) was selected for the mediation analysis (Hayes, 2018).

For the second study, the dependent variable was tourist behavioural intention, whilst the independent variable was joint brand advertising and the mediator was the product interest and this called a simple mediation model. Since the independent variable is multicategorical, single brand advertising was coded 0, joint brand advertising with Right Holidays was coded as 1, and joint brand advertising with Thomas Cook was coded 2.

The effect of a causal antecedent of joint brand advertising on behavioural intention through mediator product interest was proposed in the simple mediation model. Only two relative effects were achievable through the statistical mediation analysis. However, in this study there are three multicategories of advertising (single brand advert, joint brand advert with lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand, joint brand advert with highly-reputed travel intermediary brand) as the independent variable X. Hence, the analyses were carried out both through dummy or indicator coding and through Helmert coding, separately. In the first coding, the single brand advert group was selected as a reference group and accordingly, comparison was made between participants who were exposed to a single brand advert and

those to a joint brand advert with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand as well as between participants who were exposed to a single brand advert and those to a joint advert with a highly-reputed one. Selecting the joint brand advert with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand as a reference group through Helmert coding, a comparison was made between those who saw single brand advert and those who saw joint adverts regardless of its type as well as between those who saw the joint brand advert with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand and those who were shown that with a highly-reputed one.

5.4 Summary

This chapter has explained the research method applied for this thesis. It began with justification for the overall methodology, which involved adopting a quantitative approach from a positivist perspective within the deductive paradigm. Since the positivist perspective is concerned with exploring cause and effect and a deductive approach pertains to developing hypotheses from theories for testing, these were preferred as the research philosophy and approach for this thesis. Also, these stances prompt the use of experiments involving the manipulation of variables to establish cause and effect relationships. The thesis was conducted as two consecutive investigations. In study 1, the natural behaviour of consumers was examined in a real-life setting in the Google Display Network through a field experiment. Having established a cause and effect relationship, the underlying causing mechanism of this relation was examined through a lab experiment in Study 2.

Advertisements were used as stimulus, with an identical image of Turkey in both types of experiments. Participants were exposed to one single brand

advertisement of Turkey and a joint advertisement with presence of an additional small niche travel intermediary brand in the field experiment. While keeping the same single brand advertisement, two joint advertisements, one with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand and another with a highly-reputed one, were shown to participants in the lab experiment. A total of 121,304 people were recruited for the field experiment and 180 for the lab experiment. The collected data were analysed through binary logistic regression analysis in the first study since the dependent variable was dichotomous, whilst mediation analysis was performed through the PROCESS macro for SPSS in the second study. The details of the procedures on stimuli design, scenario development, study sample, data collection, ethical procedures, reliability and validity as well as data analysis methods for both studies have also been provided. The findings will be presented and discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 6

Findings and Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the demographic profile of the participants, findings of the experiments, and the discussions for two consecutive studies. It starts with the field experiment, which is aimed at assessing the efficacy of joint brand advertising (versus single brand advertising) on tourist behavioural response through the display banner adverts on the Google Display Network. The data gathered from this experiment were analysed by using binary logistic regression analysis. Having established a positive relation between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural response in Study 1, a second study in the form of an lab experiment involves investigating the boundary conditions for the positive effect of joint brand advertising, in terms of whether this relation will hold for both highly and lesser-reputed travel intermediary brands. Furthermore, whether product interest is the underlying psychological mechanism for the proposed relation is also examined. The data gathered from the second experiment was analysed by using PROCESS macro (Version 3.4) for SPSS. Following the analysis, discussion of the findings is provided for each study.

6.2 Study 1: Field Experiment

6.2.1 Demographic Profile of the Participants

In terms of the demographic profile of the participants, age, gender, parental status, and household income are provided by Google, amongst other parameters.

Table 6.1 below shows the demographic profile of the participants for the field experiment.

Table 6.1: Demographic profile of participants (Study 1)

	<i>Control</i>	<i>CN*</i>	<i>Treatment</i>	<i>CN*</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>CN*</i>
	<i>Group</i>		<i>Group</i>			
<i>Gender</i>						
Male	31,420	28	29,944	44	59,175	72
Female	29,231	26	30,709	36	62,129	62
<i>Age</i>						
18-24	8,268	2	7,334	8	15,602	10
25-34	11,305	8	10,759	11	22,064	19
35-44	11,026	7	10,605	10	21,631	17
45-54	10,721	6	10,650	12	21,371	18
55-64	9,831	14	10,210	16	20,041	30
65 and more	9,500	17	11,095	23	20,595	40
<i>Parental Status</i>						
Not a Parent	45,800	42	49,514	69	95,314	111
Parent	14,851	12	11,139	11	25,990	23

Table 6.1: Demographic profile of participants (Study 1)

	<i>Control Group</i>	<i>CN*</i>	<i>Treatment Group</i>	<i>CN*</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>CN*</i>
<i>Household income</i>						
Lower 50%	11,266	13	11,371	13	22,637	26
41-50%	7,255	2	7,119	7	14,374	9
31-40%	10,269	12	9,003	17	19,272	29
21-30%	9,969	7	9,646	13	19,615	20
11-20%	9,722	9	10,285	12	20,007	21
Top10%	12,170	11	13,229	18	25,399	29
<i>Total</i>	<i>60,651</i>	<i>54</i>	<i>60,653</i>	<i>80</i>	<i>121,304</i>	<i>134</i>

*CN: Click Number

As can be seen from Table 6.1, the number of participants recruited in the control group, who only saw a single brand advertisement and the treatment group, who only viewed the joint advertisement, was almost equal at 60,651 and 60,653, respectively. Also, the number of people who saw the advertisement and clicked on it was 54 for the control group and 80 for the experimental one.

The total number of participants who were in the age group 18-24 is 15,602; 8,268 of them from the control group and 7,334 of them from the experimental one. Also, the total number of clicks is 10 for this age group, including two for the first group and eight for the latter. Information for the other age groups is provided in Table 6.1. According to the latest population data released by the Office for National Statistics (ons.gov.uk), excluding the 0-18 age group, the 18-24 age group represented 12.5%, the 25-34 age group, 17.5%, the 35-44 age group, 16.5%, the 45-54 age group, 17.5%, the 55-64 age group, 14.5%, and those

65 or over registered 21.5% of the UK population in 2015. Hence, it can be said that the general recruitment of people in the field experiment based on their age group more or less represents that of the UK population.

In terms of gender, out of a total of 121,304 participants, 62,129 of them (51.2%) were female. Whilst the number of female respondents is 29,231, with a percentage of 48.2 for the control group, this is 30,709, with a percentage of 50.6 for the treatment group. Among the total participants, whilst the number of clicks for females was 62, this was 72 for males. Twenty-six females and 28 males clicked on the advertisement in the control group, these figures being 36 and 44, respectively, for the experimental group. According to the latest population data released by the Office for National Statistics (ons.gov.uk), 49% of the UK population of 18 years or older were male in 2015. Hence, the gender split of the participants in the experiment truly represents the UK population.

The parental status of the participants can be seen in Table 6.1. In addition to the demographic profile of the participants, their household income levels are also provided by Google, which can also be seen in Table 6.1. In this table, lower 50% refers to people whose house income level is 50% lower than the average household income in the UK. Similarly, top 10% refers to the people who are in the top 10% of UK household incomes. Whilst the total number of people on a household income level of lower 50% is 22,637, with a percentage of 18.7 in total, this number is 11,266, with a percentage of 18.6 for the control group and 11,371, with a percentage of 18.7 for the experimental group. Also, the total number of clicks is 26 for this age group, including 13 for each group.

6.2.2 Findings

The first experiment is aimed at finding out whether or not there is a relation between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural response. There is one dependent variable and one independent variable in the model. Specifically, whilst the independent variable is joint brand advertising, which is the predictor, behavioural response is the dependent variable, which is being predicted. Tourist behavioural response refers to clicking or not clicking on the advertisements shown. Both the independent variable of advertising type (joint or single brand ad) and dependent variable of click are categorical (dichotomous) in this experiment. Since the dependent variable is binary, which has the two categories of 0=no click, 1=click, a simple (bivariate) logistic regression analysis was carried out to investigate the extent of association between the propensity to click with respect to advertising type.

There are some differences between a logistic regression model and a linear regression. Firstly, while the outcome variable is binary or dichotomous (i.e. measured at two levels) in the former, it is continuous in the latter. Secondly, a linear relationship is not required between the dependent and independent variables in the former, but it is in the latter (Peng et al., 2002; Peng & So, 2002). Thirdly, homoscedasticity is not needed for logistic regression, whilst it is central to linear regression (Osborne, 2015). Finally, whilst the former assumes normality for the residual, this is not the case in a logistic regression model (Pohar, Blas, & Turk, 2014).

Binary logistic regression was applied using SPSS 25 to predict the tourist behavioural response, referring to clicking on advertising types under experimental conditions in the present research.

The logistic regression model is:

Logit (P) = $\text{Log} [P / (1-P)]$ or $\text{In}(\text{ODDS})=(\hat{Y}/1-\hat{Y})= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$, where \hat{Y} refers to predicted probability of clicking on the advertising which is coded with 1, whilst (1-P) refers to not clicking advertising, which is coded with 0. X represents the independent variable, whilst β_0 and β_1 are coefficients.

The model can be written in terms of probability of outcome as:

$$\hat{Y} = e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)} / [1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)}] \quad (6.1)$$

where, e is the base of the natural algorithm (e=2.71828).

The outputs of logistic regression analysis are shown in Table 6.2 – 6.6.

Table 6.2: Omnibus tests of model coefficients

		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	5.082	1	0.024
	Block	5.082	1	0.024
	Model	5.082	1	0.024

This is aimed at testing the hypothesis that there is at least some predictive capacity in the regression equation. The *p* value (0.024) shows the existence of a relationship between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural response, that is, the model is statistically significant from the empty model (only with a constant, i.e. a model with no predictors).

Table 6.3: Model summary

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	2087.372 ^a	0.000	.002

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 10, because parameter estimates were changed by less than 0.001.

Table 6.3 shows that joint brand advertising improves the prediction of the tourist behavioural response better than chance. -2 Log likelihood is very similar to the Chi-square value. In linear regression, R square values represent the percentage of variance in the dependent variable that can be accounted for

by the independent variable(s) that are used to create a regression equation. However, for the logic model, there is no equivalent of this concept. Thus, this should be interpreted with some caution, being treated as evaluative indices, such as goodness-of-fit or overall evaluation of the model (Peng et al., 2002). The Cox & Snell R Square and Nagelkerke R Square are similar, but Nagelkerke R Square is scaled from 1 to 0, whereas Cox & Snell R Square has a maximum of 0.75 and hence, the former one will always be larger.

Table 6.4: Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	2.073	5	0.839

As the inferential goodness-of-fit test, Hosmer and Lemeshow is the next output table (Table 6.4). Non-significance indicates the appropriateness of the model or that it adequately fits to the data. In this model, the p value (0.839) which is larger than the cut-off (0.05), indicates a good fit. In other words, the predictive and observed probabilities accurately match and the difference between an observed value and the value predicted by the model is not significantly different.

Table 6.5: Contingency table

		Click = No		Click = Yes		Total
		Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Step 1	1	60597	60597.000	54	54.000	60651
	2	60573	60573.000	80	80.000	60653

Table 6.5 shows the observed and expected values for the clicking and not clicking categories. It segregates the predictive probabilities in the two categories, and then, it compares them against expected versus observed values. For example, in the Yes category, i.e. clicking, 54.000 for the control group and 80.000 for the treatment group are expected, with the actual observed numbers being 54 and 80, respectively. Since the observed and

expected values for clicking (Yes) and not clicking (No) for each group accurately match, it can be concluded that the predictive capacity in the model is strong.

Table 6.6 provides the results of the binary logistic regression prediction model. In this table, 121,170 people are predicted as No and the same number of people actually are predicted No, thereby 100% of the classification is correct, whereas 134 people are not predicted as Yes by the model and hence, 0% of the classification is correct. The predictive capacity of the model is 99.9%, that is, the model correctly predicts that 99 percent of the people would click or not click after being exposure to the adverts.

Table 6.6: Classification table^a

		Predicted		
		Click		Percentage Correct
Step 1 ^a	Observed	No	Yes	
		Click	121,170	0
		Yes	134	0.0
Overall Percentage				99.9

a. The cut value is 0.500

The regression model is (Table 6.7):

$$\ln(\text{ODDS}) = \ln(\hat{Y}/1-\hat{Y}) = 0.393$$

$$\hat{Y}/1-\hat{Y} = \text{Exp}(0.393) = (2.71828)^{(0.393)} = 1.482 = 80/54 = \text{odds of clicking}$$

This output shows that the regression equation is: $Y = -7.023 + 0.393X_i$.

Table 6.7: Variables in the equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Step 1 ^a	Joint brand advertising	.393	.176	4.985	1	.026	1.482	1.049	2.093
	Constant	-7.023	.136	2661.058	1	.000	.001		

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: Joint or single brand advertisement

Abbreviations: B: regression coefficient, S.E.: standard error, df: degree of freedom, OR: odds ratio, CI: confidence interval, * $p < 0.05$ is considered statistically significant

The first column in Table 6.7 shows the logistic coefficient (B) of joint brand advertising as the predictor variable. A higher value of B is associated with a higher probability of clicking. The Wald statistic is very similar to the t statistic and provides Wald chi-square values in determining the statistical significance of the joint brand advertising, that is, it is used to predict whether a certain predictor variable is significant or not. Degrees of freedom pertain to the number of items involved in calculations that are free to vary without violating any constraints (Eisenhauer, 2008) and this is generally equal to the total number of observations minus the number of parameters. The Exp(B) is the odds ratio associated with the predictor. The $\text{Exp}(B)=1.482$ indicates that joint brand advertising is 1.482 times more likely to turn out to be clicked than single brand. In other words, the model predicts that the odds of clicking the advertising is 1.482 times higher for joint brand advertising than for a single brand. The confidence interval for Exp(B) indicates that joint brand advertising is between 1.049 and 2.093 times as likely to turn out clicked.

Since $p=0.026 < 0.05$, there is a statistically significant relationship between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural response. In other words, the results of the logistic regression analysis offer support for the notion that joint brand advertising prompts better effects than does single brand advertising on tourist behavioural response.

In sum, gender, age, household income and parental status have been treated as control variables, whereby these have not been hypothesised to affect the relation between joint brand advertising and behavioural intention. The relation between joint brand advertising and behavioural response was examined through binary logistic regression. The output of analysis shows that there is a statistically significant relationship between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural response.

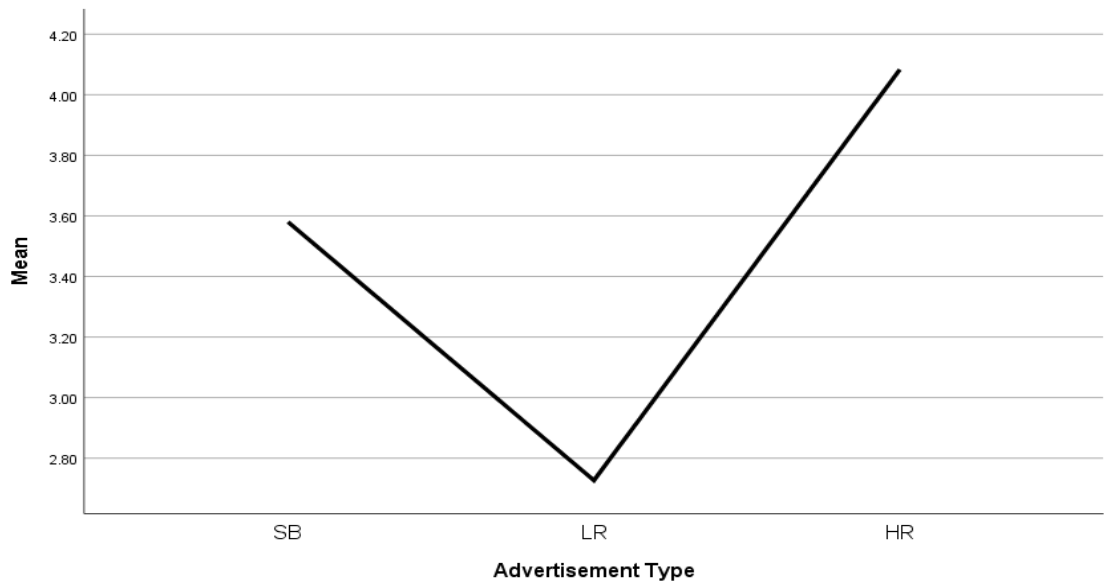
6.3 Study 2: Lab Experiment

Study 1 has demonstrated a positive relation between the joint brand advertising and single brand advertising in the real-world environment setting of Google through display banner adverts. That is, consumers tend to respond more positively to an advertisement through clicking when they see an additional travel intermediary brand along with a single brand advertisement of a particular destination brand. However, the field experiment results only show the relation between joint advert and tourist behavioural response but does not indicate the underlying psychological mechanism under this relation. Therefore, performing a second complementary Study 2 is essential to uncover the possible reasons why consumers more positively response to joint advert than single brand advert? Study 2 will include the product interest as a possible mediator into the conceptual model with a lesser- and highly-reputed travel intermediary brand conditions to explain the relation between joint advert and tourist behavioural intention. Accordingly, manipulation check is provided first followed by the demographic profile of the participants and analysis for the lab experiment.

6.3.1 Manipulation Check

Brand reputation was used for a manipulation check. Line graph for mean degrees of brand reputation scores can be seen from Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Mean degrees of brand reputation according to advertisement type



Note: SB: Single Brand Advertisement, LR: Joint Advertisement with a Lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand, HR: Joint Advertisement with a Highly-reputed travel intermediary brand; Brand Reputation was measured on a 5-point Likert type scale: from strongly disagree (1) through to strongly agree (5).

A one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out to understand whether there were significant differences in the mean scores on brand reputation across the three advert groups (single brand advert, joint advert with Right Holiday and joint advert with Thomas Cook) (see Table 6.8).

Table 6.8: ANOVA test for advert groups comparison of brand reputation

<i>Brand Reputation^a</i>	<i>Single Brand Condition (M)</i>	<i>Lesser- reputed Condition (M)</i>	<i>Highly- reputed Condition (M)</i>	<i>Total (M)</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>p-value</i>
X is a credible company / holiday destination.	3.63	3.03	4.02	3.56	25.365	<0.001
X has a good reputation.	3.35	2.90	3.93	3.39	27.206	<0.001
X is a well-known company / holiday destination.	4.12	2.30	4.58	3.67	165.531	<0.001
X is a popular company / holiday destination.	3.83	2.53	4.32	3.56	91.948	<0.001
X is a highly esteemed company /holiday destination.	2.97	2.87	3,57	3.13	13.168	<0.001
Brand Reputation in Total	3.58	2.72	4.08		87.576	<0.001

^a=Measured on a 5-point Likert type scale: from strongly disagree (1) through to strongly agree (5)

Normality checks and Levene's test were performed. The independent variable consisted of three groups, the dependent variable was continuous and there was independence of observations, meaning no participant was allocated to more than one group, with the histograms showing no significant outliers and a normal distribution of brand reputation scores for each advert group (See Appendix XIII, Appendix XIV, Appendix XV). Also, Levene's test indicates that equal variances for brand reputation can be assumed, $F(2,177)=2,130$, $p=0.122$ and hence, the assumptions of a one-way ANOVA were met.

Thus, it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference at the $p<0.05$ level in brand reputation scores for the three advert groups, as determined by one-way ANOVA ($F(2, 177)=87.576$, $p<0.001$), which can be seen in Table 6.8. That is, the data provides statistically significant evidence that mean brand reputation scores are not the same for all adverts. All brand reputation statements are statistically significant among advert groups, except for the "X is a highly esteemed holiday destination / company" statement for the single brand condition and the lesser-reputed one ($p=0.777$). The detailed outputs of the one-way ANOVA can be seen in Appendix XVI.

A post-hoc test was also run to understand where the differences occur among the groups. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test revealed that the mean score for the control group ($M=3.58$, $SD=0.64$) was significantly different from joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand ($M=2.72$, $SD=0.48$) and joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand ($M=4.08$, $SD=0.56$). Also, there is a statistical difference between a joint advert with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand and a joint advert with a highly-reputed one ($p=<0.001$).

6.3.2 Demographic Profile of the Participants

Demographic profile of participants for Study 2 can be seen in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Demographic profile of participants (Study 2)

	<i>Control Group</i>	<i>Treatment Group (1)</i>	<i>Treatment Group (2)</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Gender</i>				
Male	30	26	30	86
Female	30	34	30	94
Non-binary	-	-	-	-
<i>Age</i>				
18-24	9	15	10	34
25-34	12	9	8	29
35-44	12	6	12	30
45-54	15	14	8	37
55-64	7	10	14	31
65 and more	7	6	8	19
<i>Parental Status</i>				
Not a Parent	29	29	27	85
Parent	31	31	33	95
	<i>Control Group</i>	<i>Treatment Group (1)</i>	<i>Treatment Group (2)</i>	<i>Total</i>
<i>Annual Net Income</i>				
Unemployed	5	6	1	12
£ 1-14,999	5	9	9	23
£ 15,000-29,999	9	12	15	36
£ 30,000-39,999	12	12	8	32
£ 40,000-49,999	9	8	13	30
£ 50,000-59,999	10	9	6	25
£ 60,000 or more	10	4	8	22
<i>Total</i>	60	60	60	180

A total of 180 participants were recruited for the second experiment and these were allocated randomly to one of the three conditions, with 60 for each. Overall, there were more females than males, with 86 and 94, respectively. In terms of age groups, 34 participants were from 18-24, 29 from 25-34, 30 from 35-44, 37 from 45-54, 31 from 55-64 and 19 were from the 65 or over age group. Whilst 85 of them were not parents, 95 were. Finally, regarding annual personal net income, 12 of them were unemployed, 23 had an income level of £1-14,999, 36 from £15,000-29,999, 32 from £30,000-39,999, 30 from £40,000-49,999, 25 from £50,000-59,999 and 22 had one of £60,000 or more.

6.3.3 Findings

In the simple mediation model, it is proposed that a causal antecedent of joint brand advertising influences behavioural intention through the intervening variable of product interest. In this model, there are two pathways by which joint brand advertising can influence behavioural intention: relative direct effect of joint brand advertising on behavioural intention and relative indirect effect of joint brand advertising on behavioural intention through product interest as well as the total effect. With relative indirect effect, joint brand advertising first influences product interest, which in turn, influences behavioural intention.

These effects are called relative since the study model has a multicategorical causal antecedent of advertising types, including single brand ad, joint ad with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand, and joint ad with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand. The relative direct, relative indirect and relative total effects in such a model have been conventionally estimated by investigators through three approaches: analysing the entire data after

discarding, combining subsets of the groups into one group, and causal steps approaches, but each has its flaws. In the first strategy, analysis might be conducted comparing those exposed to single brand condition to those exposed to lesser brand condition, temporarily discarding those in the highly-reputed condition. The analysis is then repeated for comparison between lesser-reputed condition and highly-reputed condition, temporarily pretending like no single brand condition in the study and so on. In the second approach, those assigned to either of lesser-reputed condition or highly-reputed condition might be treated as a single joint condition, and a mediation analysis conducted comparing this group to those who saw only single brand advertising. Third approach relies on a set of hypothesis tests such as conducting a mediation test significance of the main relation as well as the relation between mediator and the dependent variable should already been met (Hayes, 2018). However, since the procedure described in Hayes and Preacher (2014) overcomes the shortcomings of the three approaches mentioned above through PROCESS for SPSS, this is used in the analysis of the second experiment.

Regression analysis allows researchers to compare mean degrees of two groups. However, there are three independent variable categories (groups) in this study. Hence, to conduct mediation analysis, indicator coding/dummy coding and Helmert coding are used for coding groups. Through indicator coding, a comparison will be made between those in the single brand condition and the lesser-reputed one as well as the former condition with the highly-reputed one. Through Helmert coding, a comparison is made between those in the single brand condition and the average mean scores of those in the lesser and highly-reputed conditions as well as between those in the lesser-reputed condition and highly-reputed one.

6.3.3.1 Analysis Through Indicator Coding

This coding system results in two variables which are denoted X1 and X2 on PROCESS output. The first variable is set for 1 for those participants who were exposed to joint brand advertising between Turkey and Right Holidays, with everyone else being set to zero. When the second variable is set to 1 for those who were exposed to joint brand advertising between Turkey and Thomas Cook, all other participants are set to zero on X2 (see Table 6.10). In other words, whilst X1 captures the effect of joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand of Right Holidays versus single brand advertising, X2 captures the effect of joint brand advertising with the highly-reputed travel intermediary brand of Thomas Cook versus single brand advertising. Participants who were exposed to single brand advertising are accepted as a reference category, meaning this does not have an indicator code.

Table 6.10: Indicator coding of categorical X for analysis

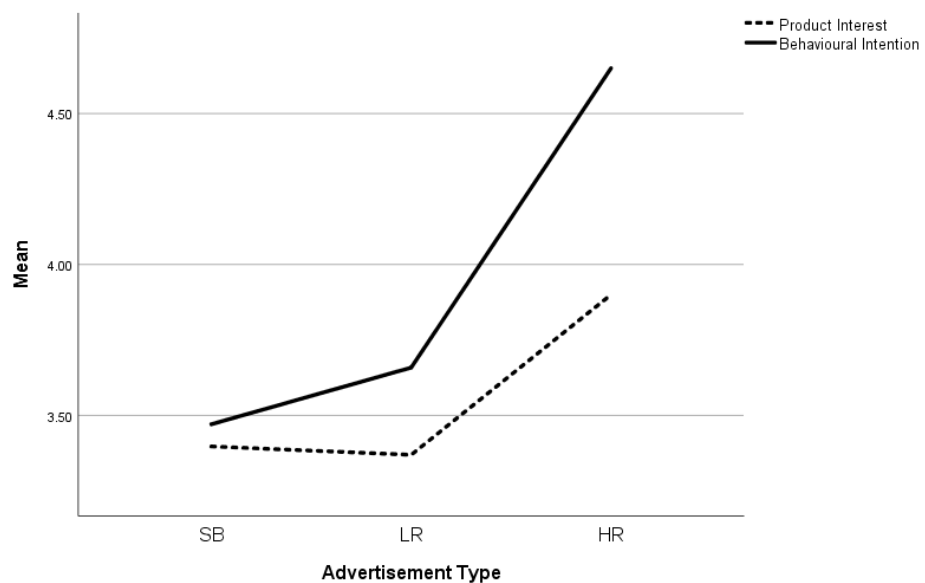
Conditions	X1	X2
0	0	0
1	1	0
2	0	1

Descriptive statistics for variables in the three conditions can be seen in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Descriptive statistics for the research model

		M	Y	Y
		PRODUCT INTEREST	BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION	Adjusted
Single brand advertising (X=0)	Mean	3.397	3.471	3.598
	SD	0.687	1.113	
Joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand (X=1)	Mean	3.369	3.658	3.808
	SD	0.770	1.332	
Joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand (X=2)	Mean	3.900	4.650	4.371
	SD	0.450	1.180	
Mean		3.556	3.923	
SD		0.691	1.312	

Table 6.11 shows the mean degrees of product interest and the behavioural intention variables for three conditions, namely, *single brand* (SB), *lesser-reputed* (LR) and *highly-reputed* (HR). Also, line graph can be seen in Figure 6.2.

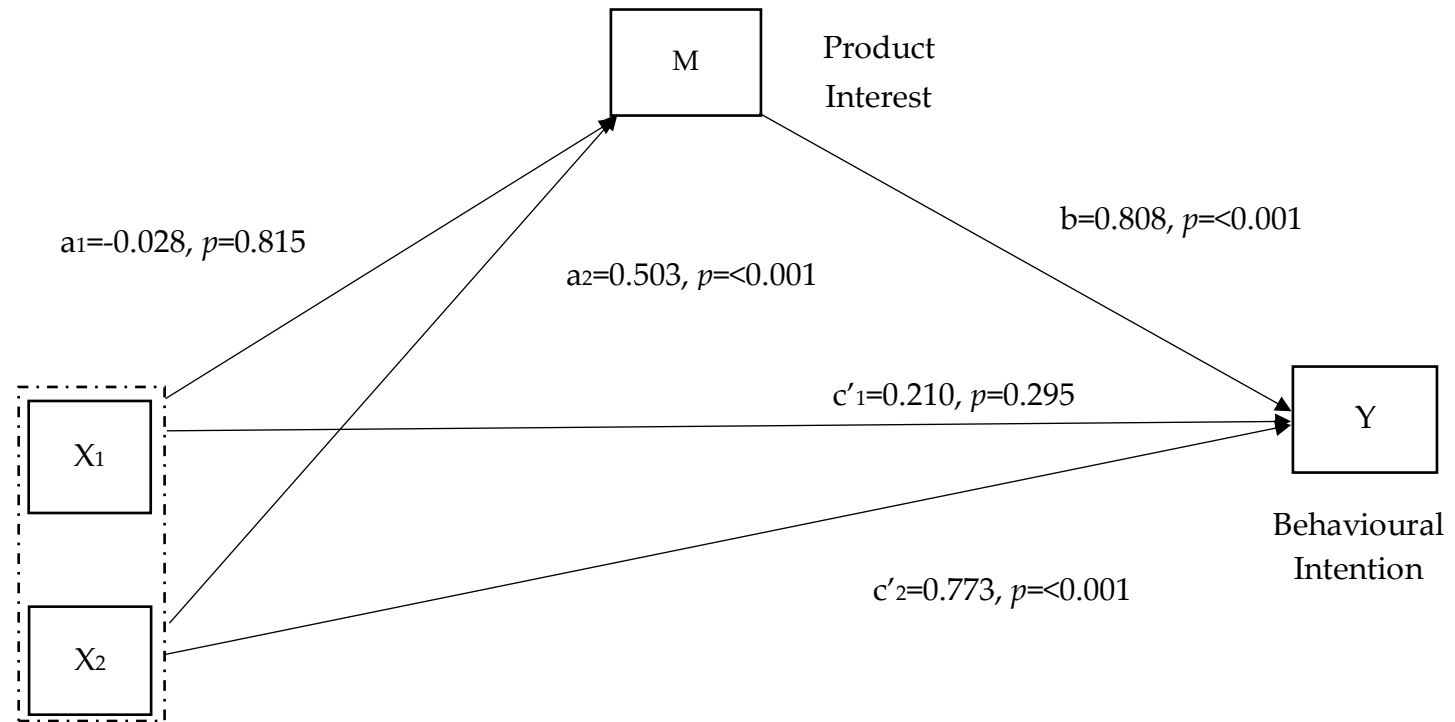
Figure 6.2: Mean degrees of behavioural intention and product interest based on advertisement type

Note: Behavioural Intention was measured on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from extremely unlikely (1) through to extremely likely. Product Interest was measured on a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from extremely unlikely strongly disagree (1) through to strongly agree (5).

As can be seen, it appears that for both variables are higher in the highly-reputed condition than for the lesser-reputed and single brand ones. Also, in comparison to the lesser-reputed condition, whilst product interest is higher, behavioural intention is lower in the single brand condition.

The statistical diagram for the simple mediation model for the joint brand advertising effect is illustrated in Figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3: The statistical diagram of the research model through Indicator Coding



X1: Joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand versus single brand advertising,

X2: Joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand versus single brand advertising.

The output from the PROCESS procedure for SPSS for the joint brand advertising effect can be found in Appendix XVII and the regression analysis is summarised in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Model summary for the joint brand advertising mediation analysis through Indicator Coding

Antecedent	Consequent											
	Y (BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION)			M (PRODUCT INTEREST)			Y (BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION)					
	Coeff.	SE	<i>p</i>	Coeff.	SE	<i>p</i>	Coeff.	SE	<i>p</i>			
X ₁	c ₁	0.187	0.221	0.848	a ₁	-0.028	0.119	0.815	c' ₁	0.210	0.200	0.295
X ₂	c ₂	1.179	0.221	<0.001	a ₂	0.503	0.119	<0.001	c' ₂	0.773	0.210	<0.001
M (PRODUCT INTEREST)		-	-	-		-	-	-	b	0.808	0.127	<0.001
Constant	i _Y	3,471	0.156	0.001	i _M	3.397	.084	<0.001	i _Y	0.725	0.453	0.112
		R ² =0.156				R ² =0.125				R ² =0.315		
		<i>F</i> (2,177)=16.405				<i>F</i> (2,177)=12.680				<i>F</i> (3,176)=26.954		

The model of behavioural intention without product interest in the model by eliminating standard errors is:

$$\hat{Y} = i_Y + c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 \quad (6.2)$$

$$\hat{Y} = 3.471 + 0.187 X_1 + 1.179 X_2$$

with, $R^2 = 0.156$, $F(2, 177) = 16.406$, $p < 0.001$. 15.6% of the observed variances on behavioural intention are explained by advertising type and the remainder, by other variables. Group means on behavioural intention (in Table 6.11) generated through this model are:

$$\bar{Y}_{SB} = 3.471 + 0.187(0) + 1.179(0) = 3.471$$

$$\bar{Y}_{LR} = 3.471 + 0.187(1) + 1.179(0) = 3.658$$

$$\bar{Y}_{HR} = 3.471 + 0.187(0) + 1.179(1) = 4.650$$

The relative total effect of joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand relative to single brand advertising, c_1 , corresponds to the mean difference in behavioural intention between those in the single brand condition and those in the lesser-reputed one.

$$c_1 = \bar{Y}_{LR} - \bar{Y}_{SB} = 3.658 - 3.471 = 0.187$$

This relative total effect is statistically not significant since $p = 0.848$, which is higher than the 0.05 criterion. This result suggests that compared to single brand advertising, joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand does not have a statistically significant influence on behavioural intention.

The total effect of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand compared to single brand advertising, c_2 , corresponds the

mean difference between those in the highly-reputed condition and the single brand one:

$$c_2 = \bar{Y}_{HR} - \bar{Y}_{SB} = 4.650 - 3.471 = 1.179$$

This relative effect is statistically different from zero ($p < 0.001$). Hence, this suggests that exposing to a joint advertisement with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand did have an influence on tourist behavioural intention.

To summarise, with regards to the relative total effect of joint brand advertising on behavioural intention regardless of product interest, compared to single brand advertising, tourist behavioural intention is higher when exposed to a joint advertisement of a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand than when a joint advertisement with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand is presented. These relative total effects are divided into relative direct and relative indirect effects, which will be constructed, firstly, by estimating product interest to get a_1 and a_2 and secondly, by regressing behavioural intention on both experimental conditions and product interest to get c'_1 , c'_2 , and b .

The model of product interest by eliminating the error term is:

$$\hat{M} = \mu_M + a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 \quad (6.3)$$

$$\hat{M} = 3.397 - 0.028 X_1 + 0.503 X_2$$

with, $R^2 = 0.125$, $F(2, 177) = 12.680$, $p < 0.001$. Product interest is influenced by 12.5% by the joint brand advertising, while the remaining 87.5% is influenced by other variables not included in the model. Three group means can be reproduced from this equation by using the patterns for each group:

$$\bar{M}_{SB} = 3.397 - 0.028(0) + 0.503(0) = 3.397$$

$$\bar{M}_{LR} = 3.397 - 0.028(1) + 0.503(0) = 3.369$$

$$\bar{M}_{HR} = 3.397 - 0.028(0) + 0.503(1) = 3.900$$

a_1 and a_2 correspond to the mean degree differences in product interest between those in the single brand condition and lesser-reputed condition ($a_1 = \bar{M}_{LR} - \bar{M}_{SB} = 3.369 - 3.397 = -0.028$) as well as between those in the single brand condition and highly-reputed condition ($a_2 = \bar{M}_{HR} - \bar{M}_{SB} = 3.900 - 3.397 = 0.503$), respectively. Those assigned to the lesser-reputed condition were, on average, 0.028 units lower (since a_1 is negative) in their interest towards the advertised product than those assigned to single brand condition. However, this is not statistically significant, as having a p value of 0.815 is bigger than the cut off value of 0.05. On the other hand, participants who were assigned to the highly-reputed condition were, on average, 0.503 units higher in their interest towards the product than those who were assigned to the single brand condition and this is statistically significant as $p < 0.001$.

To summarise, when product interest is treated as a dependent variable, in contrast to single brand advertising, the effect of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand on such interest is statistically significant. Most notably, the effect on product interest is insignificant for joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand.

The model of the joint brand advertising effect on behavioural intention, including both experimental conditions and product interest, ignoring the standard errors is:

$$\hat{Y} = i_y + c'_1 X_1 + c'_2 X_2 + bM \quad (6.4)$$

$$\hat{Y} = 0.725 + 0.210X_1 + 0.773X_2 + 0.808M$$

with, $R^2=0.315$, $F(3,176)=26.954$, $p<0.001$. The direct relation between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural intention and the indirect one between them through product interest account for 31.5% of the variance. Adjusted group means can be generated from this equation by setting M to the sample mean ($M=3.556$ in Table 6.11).

$$\bar{Y}^*_{SB}=0.725+0.210(0)+0.773(0)+0.808(3.556)=3.598$$

$$\bar{Y}^*_{LR}=0.725+0.210(1)+0.773(0)+0.808(3.556)=3.808$$

$$\bar{Y}^*_{HR}=0.725+0.210(0)+0.773(1)+0.808(3.556)=4.371$$

c'_1 and c'_2 are the relative direct effects of advertising jointly with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand and with a highly-reputed one, respectively, compared to single brand advertising. In other words, these are the differences in the adjusted mean degrees in Table 6.11. The regression coefficient for the relative direct effect of joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand compared to single brand advertising is $c'_1=\bar{Y}^*_{LR}-\bar{Y}^*_{SB}=3.808-3.598=0.210$. That is, independent of the effect of the product interest on tourist behavioural intention, those participants assigned to the lesser-reputed condition are estimated to be 0.210 units higher on average in their behavioural intention. But this effect is not significant as the p value (0.295) is higher than the threshold value of 0.05.

The regression coefficient for the relative direct effect of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand in comparison to single brand advertising quantifies the differences in the adjusted means, such that $c'_2=\bar{Y}^*_{HR}-\bar{Y}^*_{SB}=4.371-3.598=0.773$. That is, compared with those assigned to the control condition, those who were exposed to the joint advertisement with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand were, on average, 0.773 units higher in their behavioural intention. This relative direct effect is significant as $p<0.001$.

Comparison of the adjusted means to each other for the three conditions can be made through an omnibus test. The test results reject the null hypothesis of equality of the adjusted means, $\Delta R^2=0.055$, $F(2,176)=7.080$, $p=0.001$. That is, there is a significant difference in the adjusted mean scores in the three conditions.

b is the effect of product interest on behavioural intention when the advertisement type is held constant. The estimation of b is 0.808 and is statistically significant in the model, having a p value of less than 0.001. That is, two participants who were assigned the same experimental condition, but differed by one unit on product interest, are estimated to have differed by 0.808 units in their behavioural intention.

The relative indirect effects are estimated as a_1b and a_2b , where $a_1b=-0.028(0.808)=-0.023$ and $a_2b=0.503(0.808)=0.406$. Hence, when compared to single brand advertising, joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand would appear to enhance the tourist behavioural intention by 0.406 units since this generates more product interest, which translates into more behavioural intention. However, when comparing single brand advertising joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand on product interest, the latter has a negative effect, whilst the former has a positive one.

Regarding the indirect effect of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural intention, 95% bootstrap confidence intervals, using 5,000 bootstrap samples, are -0.259 to 0.176 for the lesser-reputed condition and 0.210 to 0.634 for the highly-reputed condition. For the first condition, since the zero is within the confidence interval, it cannot be concluded that the relative indirect effect of joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand is different from zero. On the other hand, being entirely above zero for the

confidence interval in the highly-reputed condition supports the conclusion of the indirect effect of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand is greater than for single brand advertising and this outcome relating to behavioural intention through product interest is statistically significant.

The relative total effects of manipulation on behavioural intention can be derived by summing the relative direct and indirect effects, that is, $c_1 = c'_1 + a_1b = 0.210 - 0.023 = 0.187$ and $c_2 = c'_2 + a_2b = 0.773 + 0.406 = 1.179$. It means that those who were exposed to a joint advertisement with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand were, on average, 0.187 units higher in their behavioural intention than those exposed to a single brand advertisement. Moreover, those who were in the highly-reputed condition were, on average, 1.179 units higher in their behavioural intention than those who experienced the single brand condition.

6.3.3.2 Analysis Through Helmert Coding

For the analysis of the Study 2, to examine the relative direct, indirect and total effects, firstly control group was chosen as a reference group through the indicator coding system above. Hence, through indicator coding, comparison was made between those in the single brand condition and lesser-reputed one as well as between those in the former condition and highly-reputed one in the analysis. With the Helmert coding, comparison between the single brand condition and joint one, referring to the combination of the other two conditions, namely the highly- and lesser-reputed ones, can be made. In addition, the highly-reputed condition can be compared with the lesser one. This comparison of two such groupings is not feasible with indicator coding. Nevertheless, this relative comparison is also necessary to meet the aims of the

study. Hence, second mediation analysis was conducted through Helmert Coding for comparing those who saw the joint ad regardless of brand reputation with those who are in the single brand condition as well as those who are in the lesser-reputed condition with those who are in the highly-reputed one.

Helmert coding representing two orthogonal contrasts allows for the comparison of the single brand condition group to all joint brand advertising groups ordinally higher in the variable specified, which is unlike indicator coding that uses the group with the numerically smallest code on the categorical variable as the reference group (Hayes, 2018). In this coding system, single brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand is used as the reference group (see Table 6.13).

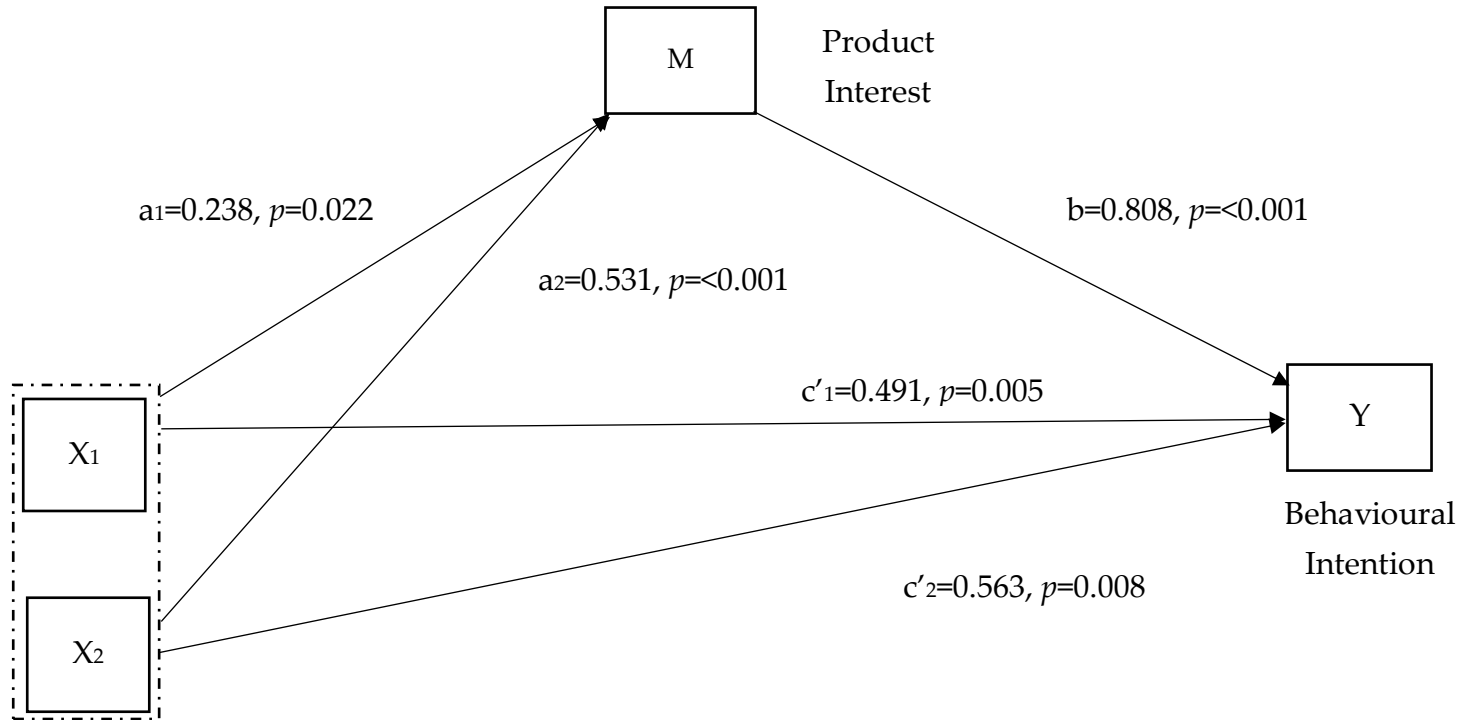
Table 6.13: Helmert coding of categorical X for analysis

Conditions	X ₁	X ₂
0	-2/3	0
1	1/3	-1/2
2	1/3	1/2

X₁ and X₂ were constructed, such that X₁ captures single brand advertising versus joint brand advertising regardless of it being less or highly-reputed. X₂ captures joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand versus joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed one.

The statistical diagram can be seen in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6.4: The statistical diagram of the research model through Helmert Coding



X1: Joint brand advertising regardless of brand reputation versus single brand advertising,

X2: Joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand versus with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand.

The output from the PROCESS procedure for SPSS can be found in Appendix XVIII, and a summary of the PROCESS output is provided in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14: Model summary for the joint brand advertising mediation analysis through Helmert Coding

Antecedent	Consequent											
	Y (BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION)			M (PRODUCT INTEREST)			Y (BEHAVIOURAL INTENTION)					
	Coeff.	SE	<i>p</i>	Coeff.	SE	<i>p</i>	Coeff.	SE	<i>p</i>			
X ₁	c ₁	0.683	0.192	<0.001	a ₁	0.238	0.103	0.022	c' ₁	0.491	0.176	0.005
X ₂	c ₂	0.992	0.221	<0.001	a ₂	0.531	0.119	<0.001	c' ₂	0.563	0.211	0.008
M (PRODUCT INTEREST)		-	-	-		-	-	-	b	0.808	0.127	<0.001
Constant	i _Y	3.927	0.090	<0.001	i _M	3.556	0.048	<0.001	i _Y	1.052	0.458	0.023
		R ² =0.156				R ² =0.125				R ² =0.315		
		F(2,177)=16.405				F(2,177)=12.680				F(3,176)=26.954		

The total effects model or the model of joint brand advertising that includes both experimental condition without product interest is:

$$\hat{Y} = i_Y + c_1 X_1 + c_2 X_2 \quad (6.5)$$

$$\hat{Y} = 3,927 + 0.683 X_1 + 0.992 X_2.$$

with, $R^2 = 0.156$, $F(2,177) = 16.405$ and $p < 0.001$. The group means on Y can be generated from this model.

$$\bar{Y}_{SB} = 3,927 + 0.683(-2/3) + 0.992(0) = 3,472$$

$$\bar{Y}_{LR} = 3,927 + 0.683(1/3) + 0.992(-1/2) = 3.659$$

$$\bar{Y}_{HR} = 3,927 + 0.683(1/3) + 0.992(1/2) = 4.651$$

c_1 , the regression coefficient for X_1 quantifies the effect of joint brand advertising, regardless of whether this is with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand or highly-reputed travel intermediary brand, compared single brand advertising on behavioural intention.

$$c_1 = (\bar{Y}_{LR} + \bar{Y}_{HR}/2) - \bar{Y}_{SB} = (3.659 + 4.651/2) - 3.472 = 0.683$$

c_1 is statistically significant, with $p < 0.001$. This result suggests that joint brand advertising irrespective of brand reputation is more effective than single brand advertising at positively impacting on behavioural intention.

The c_2 regression coefficient for X_2 quantifies the effect of joint brand advertising with the highly-reputed travel intermediary brand on behavioural intention relative to joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand.

$$c_2 = \bar{Y}_{HR} - \bar{Y}_{LR} = 4.651 - 3.659 = 0.992$$

Since this effect is significant, as $p < 0.001$, this suggests that joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand is less effective

that such advertising with a highly-reputed one in terms of the influence on behavioural intention.

In sum, when product interest is excluded from the model, joint brand advertising statistically does have a positive effect on tourist behavioural intention. Further, compared to joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand, that with a highly-reputed one is more effective in having a positive impact on behavioural intention.

Regarding the corresponding effects of experimental condition on product interest when treated as a dependent variable, the regression model of product interest on X_1 and X_2 is:

$$\hat{M} = \mu_M + a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 \quad (6.6)$$

$$\hat{M} = 3.556 + 0.238X_1 + 0.531X_2$$

with, $R^2=0.125$, $F(2,177)=16.405$, $p < 0.001$.

The group means are:

$$\bar{M}_{SB} = 3.556 + 0.238(-2/3) + 0.531(0) = 3.397$$

$$\bar{M}_{LR} = 3.556 + 0.238(1/3) + 0.531(-1/2) = 3.370$$

$$\bar{M}_{HR} = 3.556 + 0.238(1/3) + 0.531(1/2) = 3.900$$

a_1 refers to the difference between the unweighted average product interest response to two joint advertisements and the average product interest in the single brand advertisement.

$$a_1 = (\bar{M}_{LR} + \bar{M}_{HR} / 2) - \bar{M}_{SB} = [(3.370 + 3.900) / 2] - 3.397 = 0.238$$

Since this effect is significant, with a p value of 0.022, this would suggest that joint brand advertising has a statistically significant effect on interest towards the product.

a_2 pertains to the difference in product interest of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand in comparison to such advertising with a lesser-reputed one, this being:

$$a_2 = \bar{M}_{HR} - \bar{M}_{LR} = 3.901 - 3.370 = 0.531$$

This effect is significant, having a p value less than 0.001, which means that the effect of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand on product interest statistically differs to that of joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand.

To summarise, when product interest is treated as a dependent variable, compared to single brand advertising, the effect of joint brand advertising irrespective of whether it is with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand or with a lesser-reputed one on product interest is statistically significant. Also, compared to joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand, the effect of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand on product interest is statistically significant.

The model of joint brand advertising effect on behavioural intention including both experimental conditions and product interest ignoring the standard errors is:

$$\hat{Y} = i_y + c'_1 X_1 + c'_2 X_2 + bM \quad (6.7)$$

$$\hat{Y} = 1.052 + 0.491X_1 + 0.563X_2 + 0.808M$$

$$R^2 = 0.315, F(3, 176) = 26.954, p < 0.001$$

The adjusted means of tourist behavioural intentions are

$$\bar{Y}^*_{SB} = 1.052 + 0.491(-2/3) + 0.563(0) + 0.808(3.556) = 3.598$$

$$\bar{Y}^*_{LR} = 1.052 + 0.491(1/3) + 0.563(-1/2) + 0.808(3.556) = 3.807$$

$$\bar{Y}^*_{HR}=1.052+0.491(1/3) +0.563(1/2) +0.808 (3.556) =4.370$$

The relative direct effect c'_1 is the estimated mean difference between the unweighted mean scores of participants who are exposed to joint advertisements and those who are exposed to a single brand advertisement.

$$c'_1=(\bar{Y}^*_{LR}+\bar{Y}^*_{HR}/2)-\bar{Y}_{SB}=[(3.807+4.370)/2]-3.598=0.491$$

This effect is significant, as the p value of 0.005 is less than the 0.05 criterion. That is, participants who were exposed to joint advertisements were, on average, 0.491 units higher in their behavioural intention than those who were exposed to a single brand advertisement.

The relative direct effect c'_2 is the estimated mean difference in behavioural intention between those exposed to a joint advertisement with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand versus those who saw a joint advertisement with a lesser-reputed one, among those equal in their product interest.

$$c'_2=\bar{Y}^*_{HR}-\bar{Y}^*_{LR}=4.370-3.807=0.563$$

This relative direct effect is significant, as $p=0.008$. It indicates that participants who were shown the joint advertisement with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand were, on average, 0.563 units higher in their behavioural intention than those who were shown a joint advertisement with a lesser-reputed one.

$b=0.808$ is statistically significant in this model, which reflects that among those exposed to the same type of adverts, those who have a product interest of one unit more have a behavioural intention 0.808 units more. This interpretation is the same as with the indicator coding.

The relative indirect effects are estimated as a_1b and a_2b , where $a_1b=0.238(0.808)=0.192$ and $a_2b=0.531(0.808)=0.429$. Hence, relative to single brand advertising,

joint brand advertising enhances tourist behavioural intention by 0.192 units. That is, joint advertisement stimulates greater interest towards the product, which in turn, leads to a higher behavioural intention. Also, compared to joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand, that with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand enhances behavioural intention indirectly through product interest

Regarding the indirect effect of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural intention, 95% bootstrap confidence intervals, using 5,000 bootstrap samples, are 0.321 to 0.372 for joint brand advertising and 0.197 to 0.714 for joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed condition. For both conditions, being entirely above zero for the confidence interval, supports the conclusion of an indirect effect of joint brand advertising that is stronger than for single brand advertising. Moreover, the indirect effect of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand is more powerful than such advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand.

The relative total effects of manipulation on behavioural intention can be derived by summing the relative direct and indirect effects, as:

$$c_1 = c'_1 + a_1b = 0.491 + 0.238(0.808) = 0.683$$

$$c_2 = c'_2 + a_2b = 0.563 + 0.531(0.808) = 0.992$$

It can be concluded that product interest mediates the effect of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural intention. When people are exposed to a joint advertisement (ignoring its form), this generates more product interest than if they are exposed to a single brand advertisement and this is translated into a more positive behavioural intention. Also, being exposed to a joint advertisement with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand creates more interest towards a product than being shown a joint advertisement with a

lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand, which in turn, positively influences behavioural intention.

6.4 Discussion of the Findings

Table 6.15 summarises the findings of the two experiments performed in the current thesis.

Table 6.15: Summary of the two studies

<i>Result of Study 1 (Field experiment through Google Display Network)</i>	
1	Joint brand advertising has a positive impact on tourists' behavioural response.
<i>Results of Study 2 (Lab Experiment)</i>	
2	Joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand does not have a greater significant impact on behavioural intention than single brand advertising. Joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand does not generate higher interest towards product and subsequently, leads to greater behavioural intention than single brand advertising.
3	Joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand does have a positive significant impact on behavioural intention, whereas single brand advertising does not. Joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand generates higher positive interest in the product and subsequently, leads to greater behavioural intention than does single brand advertising.

Table 6.15: Summary of the two studies

Results of Study 2 (Lab Experiment)

4 Joint brand advertising, irrespective of the partnering brand's reputation, has a greater positive significant impact on behavioural intention than does single brand advertising.

Joint brand advertising regardless of the partnering brand's reputation generates greater interest towards product and subsequently, leads to higher behavioural intention than does single brand advertising.

5 Joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand has a greater positive impact on behavioural intention than joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand.

Joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand generates greater positive interest in the product than joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand.

6.4.1 Joint Brand Advertising versus Single Brand Advertising

In Study 1, to measure of effectiveness for the GDN display banner advert, click through behaviour is applied (Chandon et al., 2003).

The results of Study 1 indicate that, compared to single brand advertising, joint brand advertising is more effective in driving tourists' behavioural response (H1). Providing new insights into the destination marketing literature, this result is consistent with some other research findings in tourism and hospitality (McKinney et al., 2009; Park & Nicolau, 2015; Pisierra et al., 1999). Joint brand advertising has always been investigated between cities/town and

business entities (i.e., hotel/motels, airlines and recreation sites) (McKinney et al., 2009; Park and Nicolau, 2015). This thesis provides an understanding about the brand partnership between a DMO and a travel intermediary. Consumers' apparent interest in online adverts suggests that they need information for their purchasing decision (Chandrasekaran, Srinivasan, and Sihi, 2018). Accordingly, they search for supplementary information by perusing the adverts.

The findings in Study 1 also reveal that a joint advert encourages current and potential tourists to visit the Website more effectively than a single brand advert, in that former drives more traffic through clicks being made. Consumers may not be able to buy a product immediately after seeing the offline advertisements, as at that time it is not needed. However, their apparent interest in online adverts could indicate an informational need in the purchase decision process that might well draw upon at a later date (Chandrasekaran et al., 2018). By clicking voluntarily on a banner ad, potential responders look for supplementary information by visiting the target Website, where they can buy the advertised item very quickly, thereby shortening the decision process (Chandon et al., 2003). Furthermore, as a result of joint brand advertising, consumers want to know more about the product advertised. Intermediaries can be seen as facilitators of the travel activity and therefore generate more interest, whilst DMOs are often seen as initiators of interest and inspirational.

To explain further, whilst single brand advertising can create an overall image for the long-term, joint brand advertising mostly focuses on promotions and prices for the short-term, but it can be part of "long-term collaborative strategy in which one product is branded and identified simultaneously by two brands" (Helmig et al., 2008, p. 360). Hence, single brand advertising does not always need to generate an immediate real demand for visiting a particular destination. That is, consumers who are exposed to single brand advertising

may not be able to take action immediately. In fact, it usually does not offer any immediate buying option either. However, consumers can make an immediate direct response by purchasing the product advertised as a result of joint brand advertising. Such advertising also responds consumer's demand which was created by the advertising activities of its competitors. In sum, demand created by single brand advertising can be met either by travel intermediaries through organised tourism tours towards that particular destination (Alaeddinoglu and Can 2010) or by consumers themselves through the arrangement of essential elements of tours, such as flight, hotels, transfer etc., separately. Joint brand advertising offers an opportunity to consumers to take an action in response their desire to go to a specific destination created as a result of both type of advertising. Furthermore, joint brand advertising facilitates the consumption of co-branded products, unlike single brand advertising of DMOs, which is usually aimed at creating awareness of a product but not offering consumption.

6.4.2 Joint Brand Advertising with a Lesser-Reputed Travel Intermediary Brand versus Single Brand Advertising

The findings of this Study 1 show that in comparison to single brand advertising, joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand does not have a significant effect on tourist behavioural intention, either directly or indirectly through product interest.

This result provides evidence that contradicts the argument that collaboration even with a relatively lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand could be

successful, if there is a high perceived fit in terms of products and brands (Simonin & Ruth, 1998). Tourists do not favourably evaluate the advertised product even if the partnering brands are perceived complementary. Park, Jun, and Shocker (1996) also pointed out that a brand alliance strategy is meaningful when two brands are complementary (based on image or usage situations) to each other. In the current study, there is no doubt both that, consumers easily understand that products of both brands (Turkey as a destination brand and Right Holidays as a travel intermediary brand) are related to the tourism tours and that these brands strongly fit each other. Thus, it can be concluded that a complementary component of a product and category fit of brands do not guarantee the effectiveness of an advertisement in a collaboration, for in the current study no significant effect of these combinations emerged.

Moreover, the findings of this study would appear to disapprove the affect transfer theory regarding joint brand advertising. This theory states that the affect of transfer process occurs from the one partner brand to another as a result of collaboration (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994). That is, prior knowledge and experiences are carried from one object to another through the affect transfer process. Consumers expectancy is about transferring skills to the new item, whilst positive association with the brand facilitates the transfer process (Liu, Hu, & Grimm, 2010). Moreover, if companies extend similar, but distinct products, consumers evaluate the quality of product more favourably. That is, the more shared attributes between the partnering brands, the higher favourable evaluation of quality of them (Keller & Aaker, 1992). Based on this theory, it should be expected that Turkey as the original brand offers several types of tourism products and its experience in these products should be reflected in the advertisement, thereby leading to higher consumer perception favourable behavioural intention towards the product advertised collaboratively. However, the findings from this study indicate insignificance

with regards to consumers transferring their positive intention towards one of the partner brand to a jointly advertised product even though the another partner brand belongs to the same category. Thus, it would seem reasonable to conclude that affect transfer theory is not applicable to the context of joint brand advertising in tourism when partnering with a less reputable travel intermediary brand. That is, even though holiday destination place and a travel intermediary that organise tourism tours towards that particular destination are in the same category, this does not bring a positive perception towards the lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand.

This result implies that brand reputation serves as a potential boundary condition for the effects of collaboration in advertising on tourist behavioural intention. A recent study has found that people's motivation to willingness to buy or make recommendation mainly comes from their perceptions of the company (60%) not of the products (40%) (Hur, Kim, & Woo, 2014). That is, if they perceive companies as lesser-reputed meaning having lack of credibility, they do not tend to show positive response to the advertised product by these brands. This study also approves this conclusion that collaboration with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand in an advertisement does not necessarily contribute to favourable tourist behaviour towards a particular tourism destination having a higher perceptually reputation in the minds of consumers. Besides, collaborating with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand may decrease the tourists' interest toward a particular product but this is not significant. The negative value of coefficient might indicate that consumers may consider advertising value as low for lesser-reputed travel intermediary brands which results in relatively negative consumer response (Dahlen et al., 2009). The possible reason behind this finding might be that uncertainty about the co-branded product and highly reliable brand increase through co-branding as argued by Geylani, Inman, and Hofstede (2008). The

process of uncertainty transfer occurs when consumers consider one of the collaborative brands as highly uncertain thereby transferring this high uncertainty to the more reliable brand. This also reflects on uncertainty about the product such that consumers revise their prior brand beliefs or perceptions as a result of co-branding.

Besides, Gurhan-Carli and Maheswaran (1998) point out that if consumers perceive two brands in collaboration inconsistent, this affect demand negatively. It means that DMOs should consider the advantages of collaboration with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand in advertising and a potential negative effect of this collaboration on demand to the advertised product before entering into a collaborative partnership.

The reputation level of the travel intermediary brand used in the lab experiment (Right Holidays) is more or less the same as that used in the lab one. Normally, similar results would be expected in terms of the effectiveness of joint brand advertising. However, different results emerged in the field experiment and the lab one. One possible explanation for this difference could be related to the sample size. The number of people who were shown to adverts was almost 1 in 10,000, that is, whilst 1 person was exposed to adverts in the lab experiment, 10,000 people were shown them in the field one. Also, people exhibit different behaviours in a laboratory setting (Viglia & Dolnicar, 2020). As real brands were used for the experiments, many external factors (confounding variables) could have affected the outcome. In this regard, for example, in this thesis, brand familiarity has not been included as a covariate (to rule out potential confound for the use of real brands) (Won & Lee, 2020). Instead, brand familiarity has been mentioned in the limitation and future research direction section.

Regarding the aim of the current thesis, the Study 2 findings do not support the effectiveness of joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand. Also, with regards to the thesis objective of testing the mediator role of product interest, the findings indicate that joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand does not stimulate product interest nor subsequently behavioural intention. Hence, this result adds to recent literature on tourist destination advertising effectiveness (de Souza, Mendes-Filho, & Buhalis, 2019) that destinations should also consider the reputation of the partner in their joint brand advertising activities to achieve more effective results.

With regards to the four stages at the AIDA model, joint brand advertising with a less reputable brand does not support the role of joint brand advertising on interest and action stages since it does not create interest for the advertised product of tourism tour towards Turkey which leads to positive behavioural intention. This result contradicts with the result of Woodside and Lysonski (1989) and Woodside and Carr (1988) that shows the applicability of hierarchy of effect model into holiday selection process of tourists.

6.4.3 Joint Brand Advertising with a Highly-Reputed Travel Intermediary Brand versus Single Brand Advertising

The results of the study demonstrate the direct influence of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand (versus single brand advertising) on tourist behavioural intention and the indirect influence through product interest. This result is consistent with that of the field

experiment. That is, potential tourists exhibit the same behaviours towards the single brand advertising and joint brand advertising if the latter is undertaken in collaboration with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand. Possible explanations as to why potential tourists positively respond to the advertisement jointly executed with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand are made in terms of the attributional and quality perspectives.

Attribution theory postulates that individuals attribute observable events that have happened in their environment by making causal ascriptions (Heider, 1958). The advertisement itself is generally treated to be the behavioural event (Sparkman & Locander, 1980). When consumers are exposed to one, the message can be considered to be the observable effect, which can be attributed to being an underlying cause. That is, they attribute either to the actual features of the brand in the advert or to the advertiser's desire to sell the particular brand (Settle & Golden, 1974). In this study, the presence of additional highly-reputed travel intermediary brand in an advert has evoked the attributional process.

Brand associations are the attributes of a brand that come into the mind (Keller & Aaker, 1992), which "contain the meaning of the brand for consumers" (Keller, 1993, p. 3). Associations assist consumers to process or retrieve information and build a positive attitude or feeling linked to a brand, thereby attracting them to buy (Aaker, 1992; Washburn et al., 2000). Consumers may associate brands with their specific features of attributes, past experience, or logo (John, Loken, Kim, & Monga, 2006). Reputation pertains to a value judgement about a company's attributes (Balmer, 1998; Gray & Balmer, 1998). Partner attribute belief is the most salient cue that contributes to the formation of co-branded product belief (Geylani et al., 2008). Brand associations also help consumers easily to remember a particular brand or a product within their category. Consumers retrieve relevant information stored in their memory

when a category is considered before making any judgement. The strength of the association between a given item and the category enables easy accessibility from memory to make a decision (Posavac, Sanbonmatsu, & Fazio, 1997).

Thus, featuring Thomas Cook as a high reputable brand might lead to respondents making a linkage in tourism tours for their future possible holidays. The possible implication of this is that destinations could promote their traditional products, such as sea, sand, and sun, in collaboration with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand, if the travel intermediary has a reputation in the package tour market. For example, collaboration with Thomas Cook, as a mass tour operator mainly selling summer holiday packages, could bring higher interest to the summer holiday products of Turkey, which are mainly based on mass tourism. Additionally, brand reputation can deliver competitive advantage for companies in a particular market where similar products are available (Husted & Allen, 2007). Thus, collaboration in the form of an advertisement with a reputed travel intermediary for summer holiday tours could enable DMOs a competitive advantage. Park and Nicolau (2015) also confirmed the importance of joint brand advertising between firms, especially in competitive market conditions.

Given that reputation refers to “the overall value, esteem and character of a brand as seen or judged by people in general” (Chaudhuri, 2002, p. 34), superior consumer value conferred on a brand heightens its reputation. Accordingly, a low perceived value is likely to be negative consumer response like tuning out or unfavourable advertising evaluations since the exchange relationship in communications between advertisers and consumers fails or consumers consider adverts inappropriate (Ducoffe & Curlo, 2000). Weiss, Anderson, and MacInnes (1999) view reputation as perceptions of a brand based on esteem or high regard. Johansson and Ronkainen (2005) also posit that the success of global brands comes from their status, prestige, and esteem

associated with them. Thus, reputed travel intermediary brands lead to positive feelings towards the stimuli. Venkatesh and Mahajan (1997) also posit that branded components may suppress the value of their partner as perceived by the consumers. Similarly, the result of the current study indicates that due to respondents' perceptions about the value and esteem of the lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand, collaboration with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand in advertising does not trigger their favourable behaviour and stimulate their interest to the product advertised.

Also, Wernerfelt (1988) postulated that the presence of a second brand in an alliance may provide greater assurance about quality of the product to consumers than one brand can do it alone. This kind of relationship in an alliance shows brands' willingness to put its reputation on the line. Washburn et al. (2000) also point out that low equity brands can take advantage from the co-branding and further, a high equity brand is not denigrated from partnering with a low equity brand. However, this study demonstrates the opposite that branding strategy with a less reputable brand does not lead favourable consumer evaluations of branded product through partnership in an advertisement and lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand does not benefit from this.

Brand reputation refers to "a backward-looking asset with forward-looking benefits", whereby consumers evaluate the reputation of brands not only through their past experiences, like exposure or consumption as well as through their expectation on the continuous high standard of quality in the future (Dahlen et al., 2009). Because of this, consumers tend to perceive advertisements for highly-reputed travel intermediary brands more positively, which results in more favourable consumer responses.

As a result of pairing a new product (target brand) with an existing one in co-branding, favourable attitudes towards the former can be created (Grossman, 1997). If additional attributes to an existing product can create or increase demand and can improve willingness to pay, then collaboration is desirable (Rao & Ruekert, 1994). In the current study, collaboration with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand has been found to increase interest in the product, which in turn, leads to favourable behavioural intention.

The findings of this study corroborate the results of previous research that brand collaboration signals the quality of the product to consumers when one partner cannot successfully achieve it by itself (Geylani et al., 2008; Kim, Misra, & Shapiro, 2019; Rao & Ruekert, 1994; Wernerfelt, 1988). For example, Rao and Ruekert (1994) posited that the premise in the brand alliance is that reputable brand signals information that could not be signalled alone by an unknown brand itself. That is, consumers' evaluation is higher for an unknown brand with an ally than without a brand alliance (Gammoh, Voss, & Chakraborty, 2006). Also, Geylani et al. (2008) supported the finding of Park et al. (2006) and concluded that brands will attract each other through partnership. Further, they suggested that a brand should collaborate with a moderately higher performance partner, for this will contribute to the improved perception of the co-branded product. Thus, the results of this research are in line with those of the above studies; a highly reputable brand contributes to the advertised product by making it a more favourable option.

Regarding the aim of the thesis, which was to investigate the comparative effectiveness of joint brand advertising, the Study 1 findings have provided evidence for the comparative effectiveness of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand. Also, the results support the mediator role of product interest on the relation between joint brand advertising and behavioural intention. With regards to the AIDA advertising

model, the outcomes of Study 2 support the applicability of interest and action stages of this model in the tourism context through joint brand advertising between a travel intermediary and a destination. This implies a sequence of consumer responses to a joint advertisement.

6.4.4 Joint Brand Advertising Regardless of Brand Reputation versus Single Brand Advertising

The results of the study show that joint brand advertising, regardless of the reputation of the partner brand, has both significant a direct and indirect impact through product interest on tourist behavioural intention. That is, joint brand advertising leads to people seeking more information about the advertised product - a possible precursor to an actual behaviour. In terms of the relative effectiveness of joint brand advertising, this finding is consistent with past research (McKinney et al., 2009; Park & Nicolau, 2015; Psierra et al., 1999). The difference between these studies and this one, is that while partnership in the former was between cities/town and business entities, such as hotel/motels, airlines and recreation sites (McKinney et al., 2009; Park & Nicolau, 2015) or between a hotel and a restaurant (Park & Nicolau, 2015), it was between a DMO and a travel intermediary in the current one.

Destinations commonly use advertisements for the purpose of providing information to current and potential tourists as well as for destination branding. Graeff (1996) also points out that when consumers make a decision about their possible holiday destination place to travel, they commonly consider advertisements and their promotional messages as evaluative criteria. In recent years, visual elements, such as logo creation, slogan incorporation and advertising campaign design, have commonly been applied to form place

(destination) branding (Kavaratzis, 2009). Joint ad visuals may also include logos, hotel or flight information, textual messaging (slogan) and/or brand-level information. When seeing the logo of the destination in an advert, consumers think that they can reach information only on where to go. However, when they see the featuring of an additional travel intermediary they can think the ad provides additional product related information, such as when to go, how to travel, where to stay and so on. Thus, the study result indicates that partnership of a destination with a travel intermediary in the concept of advertising can create a synergy that involves looking for details about the advertised product, which in turn, positively influences tourist behavioural intention towards that particular destination.

Furthermore, whilst a destination's own advertising (brand advertising) can create an overall image for the long-term, joint brand advertising is mostly focussed on promotions and prices for the short-term, but it can be part of "long-term collaborative strategy in which one product is branded and identified simultaneously by two brands" (Helmig et al., 2008, p. 360). Hence, brand advertising does not always need to generate an immediate real demand for visiting a particular destination. That is, consumers who are exposed to brand advertising may not be able to take action immediately. In fact, it usually does not offer any immediate buying option either. However, consumers can make an immediate direct response by purchasing the product advertised as a result of joint brand advertising. Also, joint brand advertising also responds consumer's demand which was created by the advertising activities of its competitors. In sum, demand created by brand advertising can be met either by travel intermediaries through organised tours towards that particular destination (Alaeddinoglu & Can, 2010) or by consumers themselves through the arrangement of essential elements of tours, such as flight, hotels, transfer etc., separately. Joint brand advertising offers an opportunity to consumers to

take an action in response their desire to go to a specific destination created as a result of both single brand advertising and joint brand advertising.

Advertising has three major functions: (1) awareness and knowledge; (2) liking and preference; and (3) conviction and purchase. These functions, as mentioned in previous chapters, are directly related to cognitive, affective, and conative or motivational dimensions of behaviour. “Image” (brand) ads can change the affective attitude and feeling of tourists relating to a specific image component towards a particular destination (Lavidge & Steiner, 1961), but this does not necessarily lead to direct behavioural action. Since increasing awareness could not only lead to the choice of a destination for consumers, but also, to transferring the destination from the long-term memory into the working memory (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989), whereby exposing the additional travel intermediary in the joint advertisement brings some extra stimulus to the consumer. Whilst Woodside and Lysonski (1989) weakly confirmed that a well-designed marketing mix directed at a particular destination by a DMO influences mental categorisation of that destination by increasing the possibility of being included in consumers’ consideration, the current study has shown the relative incapability of a single brand advert in transforming their consideration into a behavioural response.

To explain this in more detail, in various marketing contexts, such as in adverts, products, product placements and distribution outlets, the intentional pairing of two brands with one another has increasingly become a more common marketing phenomenon, i.e. co-branding (Grossman, 1997). However, there is no single effective method for generating marketing collaboration for all business environments (Palmer & Bejou, 1995). In this regard, a co-brand (joint ad) normally includes a prominent product, which is called the base and a less prominent one, termed the supplemental product, but can often be inseparable in terms of selling/marketing (Levin et al., 1996). That is, these two brand name

products are packaged and sold together, so consumers cannot avoid the consumption of one brand name product. Furthermore, a joint advertisement facilitates the consumption of co-branded products, unlike single brand advertising of DMOs, which is usually aimed at creating awareness of a product but not offering consumption.

This finding is beneficial for both DMOs and travel intermediaries. These organisations aim to increase interest toward the product advertised or stimulate behavioural intention to the destination-oriented product. Hence, collaborating together provide efficiency in advertising activities for both. Finally, the study outcomes confirm work by Johnson and Messmer (1991), who found that advertising promotes and supports a hierarchy of responses in two stages: further information inquiry and actual visitation pertaining to holiday destination choice. This supports the applicability of the interest (product) and action (behavioural intention) stages of the AIDA model in the concept of joint brand advertising.

6.4.5 Joint Brand Advertising with a Highly-Reputed Travel Intermediary Brand versus with a Lesser-Reputed Travel Intermediary Brand

The results reveal that joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand, as expected, leads to favourable behavioural response and stimulates product interest, which in turn, leads to positive behavioural intention.

Brand reputation is crucial for consumers in their perception of risk and preferences (Erdem, Swait, & Louviere, 2012) especially when there is an

uncertainty. Uncertainty about a product may occur, if there is an imperfect environment and asymmetric information in the marketplace, where consumers have less knowledge about products than companies. That is, they rely on brand reputation in their assessment the company or product when faced with imperfect information (Schnietz & Epstein, 2005). Also, consumers are more likely to give companies with a higher reputation the benefit of the doubt when negative information appears (Lange, Lee, & Dai, 2011). Ahn and Back (2018) defined brand reputation as the cumulative perception of consumers regarding the prominent features of a brand. Also, reputation gives confidence in expectations being fulfilled and hence, valued outcomes generated (Sabate & Puente, 2003). Older brands are more likely to have a strong reputation as consumers build perceptions of a brand's reputation over the years (Chaudhuri, 2002). Also, having trust in a company increases the belief that it will keep its promises (Bhattacharya, Devinney, & Pillutla, 1998) and hence, consumers are more likely to believe in the company's ability to deliver the value outcome. Consequently, consumers tend to favour a tour operator with a well-established reputation, which creates more trust and delivers high quality.

Brand reputation is one of the precious intangible assets of immense value for brands (Heikkurinen, 2010), which is difficult to duplicate / imitate (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006). Tourists buy tourism products at a distance without having any chance to pre-test before purchasing. Thus, the difficulty of assessing tourism product quality without gaining experience with it (Gallegati, 2012) increases the importance of reputation in this context (Herbig & Houston, 2010). Favourable reputation can be considered as a precursor to sets of actions and the behaviour (Cornelissen & Thorpe, 2002) of consumers favourable to a brand. That is, it creates a propensity for prospective tourists appreciating the travel intermediary and its products.

Moreover, in the case of service failure, which leads to depression and anxiety, brand reputation plays an important role for consumers. Consumers associate positive qualities with highly-reputed travel intermediary brands, which results in higher levels of behavioural intentions than with lesser-reputed travel intermediary brands. Hence, brand reputation influences their expectation of delivering the product or service and thus, also, their evaluation, if there is any kind of service failure as to the effectiveness of the recovery strategy (Sengupta et al., 2015). In sum, this means that tourists are confident that, if confronted by service failure, it will be coped with better by the highly-reputed travel intermediary brand.

To summarise, joint advertising works differently in case of a collaboration with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand and a lesser-reputed one. This study has confirmed this premise, whereby advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand has been found not to lead to favourable action towards visiting a destination, either directly as the result of an advertisement or indirectly through interest, as proposed in the hierarchy effect of interest. Rather, advertising both directly and indirectly through product interest has emerged as influencing tourist behavioural intention, if collaboration happens with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand.

6.5 Summary

This chapter has provided the demographic information about the participants, analysis and discussion of the data gathered from the two experiments. After summarising the demographic information for the participants to Study 1 that was conducted through banner adverts in GDN, the analysis of the field experiment was provided. The output of binary logistic

regression analysis indicates relative effectiveness of joint brand advertising (over single brand advertising) on tourist behavioural response. The originality of this result comes from being the first study testing the efficacy of joint advertisement between a destination and a travel intermediary through measuring tourist behavioural response in a real business environment like Google. This finding is consistent with the limited previous research conducted on different joint brand advertising activities in the tourism context. For the second study, output from PROCESS macro through indicator coding has revealed the insignificance of joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed brand (over single brand advertising) and the significance of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed one. This result indicates brand reputation as a boundary condition in the selection of a partner brand in joint brand advertising. The results through Helmert coding show the relative effectiveness of joint brand advertising regardless of brand reputation over single brand advertising and the comparative effectiveness of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand over joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand on tourist behavioural intention. These results confirm the findings of the first experiment and empirically show the mutual benefits of joint brand advertising for both DMOs and travel intermediaries in the tourism market. Further, the results of this study support the premise that partnering with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand in a collaborative relation leads to greater behavioural intention than partnering with a lesser-reputed one. That is, the outcomes of the study suggest that brands should consider the reputation of a partnering brand before entering into collaboration. Also, the research findings confirm the applicability of the interest and action stages of the AIDA hierarchy of effects model in the tourism context. However, this would appear not be true, if collaboration in advertising occurs with a lesser-

reputed travel intermediary brand. Next, the final chapter will summarise the key findings and explain the new knowledge that has emerged from this study.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter first discusses the principal findings in conjunction with the research objectives. Then, a number of conclusions are drawn about the key aspects of the research undertaken, followed by discussion on the limitations and finally, proposals for future work are put forward.

7.2 Discussion of the Principal Findings in Relation to the Research Objectives

7.2.1 Research Objective 1: Critically Reviewing the Literature in Collaborative Marketing and Joint Brand Advertising

The critical review of the literature started with identification of the concept collaborative marketing and scrutinising the extant literature on this, with a focus on tourism. Whilst Chapter 1 provided the foundation on which the research was built regarding the collaborative marketing, Chapter 2 addressed this research objective in detail.

Chapter 1 delineated that DMOs and travel intermediaries are the two pivotal players in the tourism industry in terms of influencing tourist behavioural response towards a particular destination. In the tourism marketing literature, there are various activities that the tourism industry players can engage in, such as travel exhibitions, roadshows, workshops, sponsorships, public relations activities and joint brand advertising, to achieve their goals. Whilst DMOs mainly aim at building image and development of destination branding (Baker & Cameron, 2008; Constanza & Pike, 2011), travel intermediaries chiefly focus on selling their tours (Carey, Gountas, & Gilbert, 1997). That is, the former generates demand that cannot be met by itself, whereas the latter can fulfil all potential tourists' demands whether or not these are generated by DMOs or travel intermediaries. Ultimately, the activities of each of these actors encourage tourists to visit a particular destination (Cioccia & Michael, 2007;

Mair, Ritchie, & Walters, 2016). Several internal and external factors, such as fierce competition in the market, availability of substitute products, the need for product and brand differentiation, the development of a branding strategy and reaching the maximum number of tourists with minimum cost, encourage these actors to collaborate.

Chapter 2 reviewed the theory of collaborative marketing to allow for the situating of the concept of joint brand advertising. Section 2.2 provided a definition of collaboration and the main characteristic of it, that is, working together with partners to achieve a common goal. Then, the degree of uncertainty around the term joint brand advertising as a form of collaborative marketing in the literature was considered in Section 2.3, whereby collaborative, co-operative, co-branded and joint brand advertising have been often used interchangeably and without precision. In this regard, to surmount this uncertainty and these terms have been distinguished in Figure 2.2. Subsequently, Subsection 2.3.1 provided a joint brand advertising definition, one that emphasised its distinctive key features, including the partnership of at least two brands to promote one product through an advert based on shared cost, while preserving each brands' independence. After reviewing prior joint brand advertising research in the tourism context (Subsection 2.3.2), the potential for further research was explained. Also, the possible advantages of joint brand advertising were categorised as profit and cost, product, consumer, brand, knowledge and market related benefits (Subsection 2.3.3), with possible disadvantages also being considered (Subsection 2.3.4).

In sum, critically reviewing the literature allowed the researcher to position the concept of joint brand advertising under the umbrella of collaborative marketing by distinguishing this from the similar terms used in the literature and to produce a new definition of such advertising. Also, it emerged that there is still room for advancing the theory of joint brand advertising, especially in

the destination marketing context. This then led the researcher to formulate the second objective, as discussed next.

7.2.2 Research Objective 2: Advancing the Theory of Joint Brand Advertising in the Destination Marketing Context

The literature revealed that, despite joint brand advertising being one of the most common ways for collaboration in practice, it has not been given the deserved attention in research so far. This prompted the second research objective, that is, the need for expanding the theory of joint brand advertising. To achieve this objective, evaluation of the available advertising models in the literature and formulating a research model for the current study was needed. Thus, Chapter 3 addressed the former objective and Chapter 4 addressed the latter.

Chapter 3 described the models that explain the effect of advertising on consumer behaviour. The hierarchy of effects model, which assumes consumers move in a certain sequential process from unawareness to loyalty for a product or a brand (Wijaya, 2012; Yoo et al., 2004), was then described in detail (Section 3.2). Also, a number of approaches on tourism advertising effects were presented. For example, Kim et al.'s (2005) model posits that various media channels affect the cognitive and behavioural processes of potential tourists and subsequently, this encourages them to request information and to visit a particular destination (Subsection 3.2.1). Seigel and Zilf-Levine's (1990) model postulates that tourism advertising creates awareness and promotes a positive image of a destination, which motivates

potential tourists to visit it (Subsection 3.2.1). Following this, Section 3.3 described the AIDA hierarchy of effects model with its four stages of attention, interest, desire and action as the adopted model for the current study. However, most focus was given to the interest and action stages, as these were the ones operationalised for present study. Product interest was considered as consumers' interest towards the principal attributes of a product (Kulkarni et al., 2012) (Subsection 3.3.2), whilst tourist behaviour was measured as an action and tourist behavioural intention was considered as the strong precursor leading up to the actual behaviour (Subsection 3.3.4).

Chapter 4 presented the two research models for the study and development of hypotheses. For the first, joint brand advertising was proposed as the predictor of tourist behavioural response. The second hypothesis predicted that product interest was the underlying mechanism for the effect of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural intention. Also, brand reputation was proposed as a boundary condition for this effect. Specifically, whether the effects of joint brand advertising on interest towards a product and subsequently, on tourist behavioural intention, are higher for partnerships that occur with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand and lower for a lesser-reputed one, are investigated.

In sum, through pursuing first research objective, after critically reviewing the literature, the notion of joint brand advertising was situated as a form of collaborative marketing. Then, the insufficiency of the existing models directed the researcher to the second research objective, that of expanding the joint brand advertising modelling by proposing a research model for the current thesis.

7.2.3 Research Objective 3: Investigating the Underlying Psychological Process for the Joint Brand Advertising Effect

The proposed model in Chapter 3 shaped the third and fourth research objectives, whilst Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 addressed these. The third objective was to ascertain what the psychological phenomena underlying joint brand advertising are and how these affect interest in the product and subsequently, tourist behavioural intention.

To achieve this objective, Chapter 5 described the methodological approach adopted for the current thesis (Section 5.2) and two consecutive experiments (Section 5.3) to test the hypotheses developed in the previous chapter. A positivist approach was acknowledged throughout the thesis as this allowed for explaining the behaviour with measurable data to test the hypotheses (Antwi & Hamza, 2015) relating to collaboration and the AIDA theory through experiments. Specifically, this thesis involved performing two consecutive between-subject experimental designs to show causal relation between variables. The instruments for measuring product interest, brand reputation and behavioural intention were drawn from the existing literature. The validity and reliability of the data obtained from experiments were also documented for each experiment. The analysis was undertaken through binary logistic analysis in the first experiment, as the dependent variable was dichotomous (Field, 2005), whereas it was carried out through PROCESS for macro in the second experiment, as this allows for a simple mediation model to be deployed (Hayes, 2018; Hayes & Preacher, 2014).

Chapter 6 presented findings from the two conducted experiments (Section 6.2 and 6.3) along with critical comparison of these outcomes with those found in

the literature (Section 6.4). The analysis of the first study identified that joint brand advertising has more influence on tourist behavioural response than does that for a single brand. This could be due to increasingly aroused exploratory behaviour, whereby a joint advert might motivate potential tourists to explore more the product advertised.

The analysis of the second study through indicator and Helmert coding identified four results. Firstly, the outcomes did not support the higher effectiveness of a joint advert with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand directly on tourist behavioural intention. That is, the evidence indicated that this kind of joint advert does not stimulate interest in the product and thus, is not associated with favourable behavioural intention.

Also, the findings from the second study, indicate that partnering with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand triggers higher interest in the product and generates greater behavioural intention than does a collaboration with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand. This implies that consumers (or tourists) trust brands' reputation to guarantee the quality of the product advertised (Akdeniz et al., 2013; Gammoh & Voss, 2011). Also, they expect a better recovery strategy from a reputed travel intermediary brand in the case of a service failure (Sarkar, Krishnan, & Balaji, 2014). In sum, with regards to third research objective, this thesis demonstrated product interest as an underlying psychological process for the effect of joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand, but this is not so with a lesser-reputed one.

7.2.4 Research Objective 4: Identifying the Boundary Conditions for the Joint Brand Advertising Effect

The fourth objective was to uncover the potential boundaries for the joint brand advertising effect, such as brand reputation for partnering brands in such an advertisement. The analysis of second study indicated that brand reputation is a potential boundary condition for the effect of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural intention. This is because the higher effectiveness of a joint advert with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand directly on behavioural intention and indirectly through product interest was elicited, which was not the case with a lesser-reputed one. This result implies that the presence of additional well-reputed brand triggers the attributional process (Foroudi, 2019), which stimulates interest in the product and triggers favourable behavioural intention. Also, this result demonstrates that featuring a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand in a joint advert provides assurance on the quality of the product advertised.

Furthermore, the thesis outcomes suggest that joint brand advertising, irrespective of it being with a lesser- or highly-reputed travel intermediary brand, has a more significant effect on product interest and behavioural intention than single brand advertising. This result demonstrates that partnering with a travel intermediary in an advert creates synergy for the advertised product, such that, this kind of partnership evokes potential tourists to search for more information on the tourism product and subsequently, they show favourable intention to visit that destination. In sum, regarding the final research objective, this thesis has identified brand reputation as a boundary condition for the effect joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural intention.

7.3 Contributions of the Thesis

The current thesis represents a first attempt in marketing to assess the effects of joint brand advertising over single brand advertising in the context of a destination and a travel intermediary. Also, as to my knowledge, this is the first study that involved examining the underlying psychological phenomenon of product interest regarding the joint brand advertising effect on tourist behavioural intention. Given the importance of joint brand advertising in practice, this has not received the theoretical attention that it deserves. Thus, the aim of the study was to investigate the effect of joint brand advertising over single brand advertising on tourist behaviour and the role of product interest as a mediator on this effect. The AIDA hierarchy of effects model was applied by focussing on the interest and action stages of it. Then, two main hypotheses were developed stating that joint brand advertising has a positive significant effect on tourist behaviour, and that product interest mediates the relation between joint brand advertising and behavioural intention. Subsequently, these hypotheses were tested through two consecutive experiments. The first field experiment was conducted in the real business environment of the Google Display Network through two display banner adverts to test the natural behaviour of consumers. However, this experiment did not allow for exploration of the psychological mechanism underpinning the causal relation between joint brand advertising and tourist behaviour. Thus, a complementary lab experiment was conducted through an online platform, with three different adverts being shown to uncover the psychological phenomenon of product interest involved in the first experiment.

The next subsections summarise the key findings of the research, including their theoretical and practical implications as well as the contributions made to the field.

7.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

This thesis provides three theoretical contributions. First, the findings of the field (Study 1) and lab experiment (Study 2) provide evidence for the superiority of joint brand advertising over single brand advertising in terms of favourable behavioural response and tourists' intention to visit, respectively. This contrasts with Baltas (2003), Chandon, Chtourou, & Fortin (2003) and Robinson, Wysocka, & Hand (2007), who argue that the appearance of an additional brand in advertisements does not generate a favourable behavioural response (i.e. click through behaviour).

Second, these findings demonstrate that product interest is an important psychological mechanism underpinning the causal relation between joint brand advertising and tourists' intention to visit. Aujla and Kaur (2017) state that multiple factors need to be considered for brand collaboration and brand alliance. This thesis has revealed that the reputation of a partner brand is a key factor, if the brand alliance is aimed at increasing interest toward the product. However, irrespective on the level of reputation, brand alliance - compared to single brand advertising - increases tourists' intention to visit the destination. Hence, the finding of this study is not in line with novelty seeking behaviour, whereby partnership with a new or unusual brand is considered to motivate customer behaviour (Sung et al., 2016; Skavronskaya et al., 2019). Given it has emerged that only a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand has the ability to create favourable intention to visit at the destination, brand alliance seems to be a win-win strategy. The findings of this work challenge Romaniuk (2013) and Nguyen et al. (2018, 2020), who find evidence that using two brands is irrelevant or creates information overload, respectively. The findings of the current thesis suggest that presenting a second brand in an advert does not

steal the partnering brand's spotlight in the tourism context in terms of influencing intention to visit.

Third, previous studies on the theory of collaboration have mainly examined tourism marketing alliances between regions (Naipaul et al., 2009; Wang, 2008; Wang et al., 2013; Wang & Fesenmaier 2007), inter-governmental organisations (Henderson, 2017) or cross-borders arrangements (Kozak & Buhalis 2019). De Pelsmacker and Janssens (2007) argue that brands should build more interest in their products. The current study extends this literature by examining the collaboration theory between DMOs and travel intermediaries as well as determining product interest as a potential intermediate outcome of this collaboration in the tourism context.

Fourth, the findings support two stages in the theoretical framework of the AIDA hierarchy of effects model, which was developed by Strong (1925). As explained, this model describes a sequence of stages regarding consumers' response to an advert, namely: awareness, interest, desire and action. The results of the current thesis provide partial evidence that joint brand advertising can be understood as a sequence of the hierarchical stages described in the AIDA model, such that, joint brand advertising stimulates interest in the product and subsequently, leads to behavioural intention. This means that, the AIDA model could be used as a conceptual framework for joint brand advertising. Also, this finding implies that when tourism destinations or travel intermediaries determine strategies to encourage tourist behavioural intention, the AIDA process should always be considered.

Finally, joint brand advertising is a commonly-used notion in marketing and yet, it is a concept difficult to define precisely. This is because the definitions of collaboration, co-operative, co-branded and joint brand advertising vary in the literature and hence, there is terminological confusion. In this study, a new definition of joint brand advertising has been provided, with its distinct

features from other terms being delineated. These vital features cover business to business collaboration, partnering of at least two brands, working jointly to achieve a common goal, such as promoting a destination or a product, engaging in a co-operative arrangement and/or sharing costs for an advert, whilst maintaining independence of the partners in the process. This new definition of joint brand advertising could be used by researchers in various disciplines and fields. In sum, it can be said that collaborative marketing is an overall umbrella term covering co-branding and joint brand advertising.

7.3.2 Practical Contributions

Marketers in tourism are often having to deal with difficult advertising decisions due to limited budgets and pressure from industry partners (Fyall & Garrod, 2020). This is particularly the case for Ministries of Tourism and NTOs that manage national tourism brands with limited funds for promoting their countries in different markets and supporting intermediaries (Buhalis, 2000a; Mistilis, Buhalis, & Gretzel, 2014). From a practice/industry perspective this thesis provides three actionable levers.

First, this current thesis contributes to advertising literature by testing the impact of joint brand advertising on tourist behavioural intention under partnering lesser- and highly-reputed brand conditions. It has demonstrated brand reputation as a boundary condition for understanding the effect of joint brand advertising on behavioural intention. This result indicates some new insights and actionable guidance for DMOs and travel intermediaries in terms of understanding criteria in a partnership in advertising. Joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand is an appropriate tool for DMOs to target those current and potential tourists, who have higher

trait curiosity and openness to experiencing niche or new tourism products. Because as Silvia, Henson and Templin (2009) posit, new and uncertain things (partnering with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand in the current thesis) have a stronger effect on people's exploration behaviours. Similarly, DMOs can enter into collaborative partnership in advertising with lesser-reputed travel intermediaries, by selling special interest holidays or tours. On the other hand, joint brand advertising with a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand is a useful tool for DMOs to promote their traditional tourism products, such as sea, sun, and sand tourism, by particularly targeting people who avoid new and unfamiliar things. Highly-reputed travel intermediary brands can capture the interest of these people and motivate engagement. Thus, DMOs should co-operate with highly-reputed travel intermediary brands to promote their well-known products.

Second, DMOs and travel intermediaries should use joint brand advertising as a strategic tool for promoting tourism products, developing destination brand image and influencing tourists' behavioural responses. Joint brand advertising can be very effective in promoting tourism destinations and tourism destination-oriented products, such as package tours, city breaks or sun, sea and sand tourism. Collaborating with travel intermediary brands not only draws more interest in tourism destinations (Riaz & Ahmed 2016). It also creates higher tourist behavioural responses as well as allowing for limited advertising budgets to go further.

Presenting a travel intermediary in the joint advertisement introduces additional positive stimulus and facilitates higher conversion to sales, as perspective travellers have an action call to fulfil their order. Hur, Kim, and Woo (2014) have found that brand associations influence consumers' motivation to make a positive recommendation in regard to purchasing. When tourists see a reputable travel intermediary in an advert, they do tend to have

a more favourable response to the advertised product (Wang, Japutra, & Molinillo, 2020). If potential tourists are uncertain about visiting Italy for their holiday, due to the recent coronavirus outbreak, collaborating with a perceived quality operator, such as TUI, would help them feel more secure and decrease uncertainty. On top of the statutory regulations of the respective destination, consumers can also trust comprehensive sets of measures and standards implemented by reputable organizations, such as TUI (Wen, Kozak, Shaohua, & Liu, 2020). Hence, a collaboration between the public and private sector would ensure a more effective response to a crisis or new market challenges (Armenski, Dwyer, & Pavlukovic, 2019) such as COVID-19 (McCartney, 2020).

Third, free riding, i.e., visiting a website but buying tourism packages from another provider, has been a problem in destination marketing for a long time (Khalilzadeh & Wang 2018). Promoting a destination may trigger the interest for a trip generally or to a particular destination, but consumers can decide to buy the advertised product from other companies or even different destinations (Gretzel et al., 2020). Joint brand advertising should also be complemented by appropriate search engine marketing to ensure effectiveness (Paraskevas et al., 2011). DMOs should, therefore, develop omni-channel strategies to enter into collaborative advertising partnerships with a variety of travel intermediaries. This would provide opportunities for potential tourists to convert their interest into a purchase through a range of market offerings and a plethora of platforms, regardless of the specific distribution channels (Buhalis, 2020).

7.3 Limitations of the Research

While this study has built on existing research on collaboration in several ways and provides important theoretical and managerial implications for joint brand advertising in the tourism context, several limitations should be mentioned.

Firstly, using only Turkey as a destination brand in adverts limits the generalisability of the findings. To increase generalisability, more research on this is needed, with the inclusion of different tourism destination brands. Moreover, the present thesis was focused on consumers in the United Kingdom. The UK travel market was heavily dominated by three tour operators, namely Thomas Cook, TUI and Jet2, until the announcement of the UK Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) that Thomas Cook group had ceased trading with immediate effect (caa.co.uk). To demonstrate the dominance of such tour operators in the outbound tourism market in the UK, Westwood, Morgan, Pritchard and Ineson (1999) found that consumers memorised only the mass tour operators, such as Thomson (sub-brand of TUI), Thomas Cook etc., whereas they had a low awareness of other tour operators' brands in the UK. However, consumers' dependence on and their awareness of tour operator brands in other countries may be different and thus, future research should examine joint brand advertising effect with different tour operator brands in different countries, so as to be able to generalise the findings.

Before moving on to a second limitation some explanation on the collapse of Thomas Cook as stated above is needed. This brand was chosen according to YouGov BrandIndex rankings in 2018 as it was ranked as the highest reputed travel intermediary at that time on this index. The lab experiment that comprising adverts that included the Thomas Cook logo was conducted between 8 and 17 August 2019. Since the thesis was executed before the

collapse of the company on 23 September 2019, this event has not had any effect on validity of the data collected and the interpretation of the findings. Also, being perceived as a highly-reputed travel intermediary brand by respondents shows that consumers' perception about such brands cannot easily be changed, even they are on the edge of collapse. Furthermore, well reputed brands' value may not die even after the collapse. This can be clearly seen from the fact that Thomas Cook brand was sold to Club Med owner Fosun for £11 million on 1 November 2019 (bbc.co.uk/news/business-50267453).

Secondly, in terms of limitations, for this thesis, only a display banner advert was utilised for the field experiment and adverts having a photo for the lab one. In this regard, Lin et al. (2012) demonstrated that adverts that have visual information (e.g. pictures or videos) may be more influential in encouraging consumers to search for product information, thus generating greater product interest. However, online advertisements in banner and video format may yield different results (Li & Lo, 2015). Hence, the results of this thesis should be interpreted in consideration of this limitation and should not be extended to explain behaviour towards dynamic banner adverts or video adverts. By the same token, the results should not be interpreted beyond the adverts on Google related websites, such as those in various social media channels.

Thirdly, the thesis finding of the relative ineffectiveness of joint brand advertising with a lesser-reputed travel intermediary brand should be interpreted with caution since the chosen travel intermediary may not have a widespread good reputation. However, it could have a high reputation in its niche tourism market, such as golf or adventure tourism, or it may be well known among certain group of people, such as the Turkish community in the UK being aware of Right Holidays.

7.4 Future Research

As a boundary condition for the efficacy of joint brand advertising, the brand reputation was taken into account in this thesis; however, considering some other variables as boundary conditions, such as brand familiarity or brand credibility may provide more insights. For example, consumers' association with brands is much stronger with a familiar brand, while being weaker with unfamiliar brands (Simonin & Ruth, 1998) since brand familiarity creates brand awareness through repetitive exposure and strong association (Kim & Lee, 2018). More recently, Chi et al. (2020) have demonstrated that destination familiarity moderates the relation between destination awareness and travel intention as well as the relation between perceived quality and travel intention. Thus, brand familiarity has the potential to be a moderator for the joint brand advertising effect. Regarding brand credibility, recently, in the context of a brand extension regarding the UNESCO World Heritage brand, del Barrio-Garcia and Prados-Pena (2019) have shown that tourists' perception of the brand extension's credibility has a direct effect on the brand equity of that extension. Hence, future studies could examine whether familiarity or credibility of the brand influence the strength of the joint brand advertising effect on tourist behaviour or not.

Participants in the experiments in this thesis were exposed to an advert once and the intensity of advertising exposure could change the outcomes. As suggested by Krugman (1972), three exposures are optimal, such that cognitive curiosity is aroused during the first, whilst recognition occurs from the second and the decision takes place during the third. Kirmani (1997) demonstrated that advertising repetition leads to a higher level of product quality inference for unfamiliar brands. Budiawan et al. (2017) empirically showed the differential effect of exposure on stages of the AIDA model. Furthermore,

Olson and Thjomoe (2003) suggested that increasing exposure to brands and brand information would be more beneficial to new brands rather than well-established ones. Campbell and Keller (2003) also contended that repetition of advertising decreases the effectiveness for an unfamiliar brand relative to a familiar one. Cauberghe and De Pelsmacker (2010) also elicited that there are negative effects of a high level of exposure on the brand attitude. Hence, future research should be conducted with more exposure to joint adverts, which has also been suggested by Pegoraro et al. (2009) in relation to the concept of call-to-action in advertisements.

Whilst this thesis has contributed to the development of joint brand advertising theory and modelling from the consumers' point of view, the understanding travel intermediaries' view about such advertising could also be crucial for enhancing the modelling. Thus, future studies should also examine the drivers for joint brand advertising from the perspective of travel intermediaries and DMOs since as to my knowledge there has been no study that explored this, as yet.

Product interest was considered as a mediator to uncover the underlying mechanism for the joint brand advertising effect in this thesis. Thus, further research is needed to delineate different variables such as destination image, that underlie the relationship between joint brand advertising and tourist behavioural intention. It is argued that destination image has become a key element in marketing efforts aimed at differentiating a destination (Ekinci, 2003; Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006). Kislali, Kavartzis, & Saren (2016) posited that collaboration between DMOs and organisations has an impact on the formation of a destination image. Thus, tourists' perception of a destination is affected by the projected image in joint brand advertising. Also, perceived destination image as being cognitive evaluations, such as beliefs or knowledge about a destination's attributes or characteristics (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999)

and affective evaluations of tourists such as positive or negative feelings (Chen & Uysal, 2002; Giraldi & Cesareo, 2014), is proposed to have a positive effect on tourist intentions to visit destinations (Kim & Richardson, 2003). Moreover, the findings of Murphy, et al. (2007) have indicated a strong and significant relationship between tourist perception of a destination and tourist attitude towards it, referring to intention to visit. Hence, future studies could treat destination image as a mediator on the relationship between the effects of joint brand advertising on destination visiting intentions.

Moreover, 'believable' advertisements are able to elicit sufficient confidence that truthfulness of the advertisement is acceptable, whereas 'unbelievable' ones are not able to evoke a response (Atkin & Beltramini, 2007). In other words, if an advertisement is perceived unbelievable, the possibility of evoking a desire response is significantly reduced (Beltramini & Evans, 1985), whereas consumers' perceived believability of an advertisement greatly increases the possibility of evoking such a response. Thus, measuring the effects of joint brand advertising are meaningful, if it is considered believable (McKinney et al., 2009). Accordingly, believability should also be considered as a potential moderator in future studies.

For this thesis, the AIDA model was adopted as the underlying theory to explain the effects of collaboration in advertising on consumer behaviour. In the future, other theories and models in advertising literature, such as other hierarchy of effects model, for example, the cognition-affect-conation chain (or a permutation thereof) or the integrated marketing communication (Ahmad, Salleh, & Perumal, 2019; Anabila, 2019; Luxton, Reid, & Mavondo, 2015; Momen, Sultana, & Haque, 2019), could be considered in order to enhance further the understanding of collaboration in advertising.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Joint brand advertising criteria for Turkey

REPUBLIC OF TURKEY, MINISTRY OF CULTURE AND TOURISM (OFFICES ABROAD)

CRITERIA OF JOINT ADVERTISEMENTS-2018

1. SCOPE

Joint advertising activities (advertisements) shall be held with the representatives of travel industry that organize tours to Turkey and are based within the operational area of Offices of Counsellors/Attachés for Culture and Information attached to the Republic of Turkey, Ministry of Culture and Tourism.

2. DESCRIPTION

Administration: Republic of Turkey, Ministry of Culture and Tourism

Administrative Representative: Republic of Turkey Embassy/Consulate General of, Offices of Counsellors/Attachés for Culture and Information.

Representative of Travel Industry: Tour Operators, Travel Agents, Association of Tour Operators and Travel Agencies, Tourism Unions and Associations, Airline Companies whose head offices are based within the operational area of Offices of Counsellors/Attachés for Culture and Information and that have scheduled and/or charter flights to Turkey.

Agency: Organizations that purchase advertisements from media and implement them on behalf of the representative of travel industry

Creative Work: Authentic visual, audio and written materials reflecting the idea and strategy of Turkey's promotions

3. CRITERIA

The joint advertising activities shall be performed on printed media, outdoor platforms, TV, radio, Internet, mobile applications and similar types of media of the representative of travel industry. The criteria that shall be followed are as follows:

A) Common Cases

1. The creative works to be used in the advertising campaigns shall comply with the characteristics of the market as well as with the general criteria of advertisement issued by the Administration; in addition, authentic creative works can also be used.
2. Creative works to be used in the advertising campaigns shall be prepared by the representative of tourism industry only once it has been approved by the administrative representative. If changes regarding time span, size, visuals, scenario, script etc. are made after the approval of the administrative representative, the changes must be re-submitted to the Administrative Representative and another written approval must be requested from the Administrative Representative.
3. The TV clips, videos and visual archives of the Administration can be used.
4. Joint advertisements shall only be Turkey-themed, and such materials and information as logo, slogan, visuals etc. that may be associated with other countries shall not be included.
5. Provided that the approval of relevant administrative representative is sought, the logo of the Administration shall be used together with the logo of the representative of travel industry in a size in proportion to the creative work.
6. The probative documents such as the samples of publicized and released materials, list of advertisements, visuals and reports showing that the joint advertisements are carried out on the dates of the Media Plan shall be submitted to the administrative representative in three original copies.
7. The dates, duration, number, size etc. of the advertisements shall be indicated clearly and in no uncertain terms on the media plan. All relevant information shall be converted to the measure units used in Turkey.

B) Window Displays:

The creative works and projects for the window display activities that promote Turkey shall first be submitted to the administrative representative. The

proposal that is submitted by the representative of travel industry shall cover the list of travel agencies where windows display activities are planned to be performed, too.

Up to fifty percent (50%) of the approved works, exclusive of VAT and other taxes but inclusive of window renting/allocation prices, post/cargo prices, design & graphics costs, montage/disassembly costs and expenses of printing and materials (on condition that an invoice is provided), shall be paid.

C) Mediums of the Representative of Travel Industry

The available promotional tools of the representative of travel industry (such as web pages, social media and mobile mediums, magazines, TV-radio channels, agencies, etc.) and its projects in which each and every opportunity and method are exploited to canalize promotional activities and consumers' demand towards Turkey shall be submitted to administration in line with the positive view of the administrative representatives within the framework of the joint advertising activities.

During the applications under this article, the representative of travel industry is liable to provide the administrative representative with the general and declared price tariff of the media, where joint advertising activities will take place, prior to the approval of the media plan. If such price tariffs not available, the price of the medium (demonstrating the demanded prices when the same mediums are put to the service of other organizations) where the joint advertising activity will be realized shall be documented. No third party invoices for joint advertising activities carried out within this framework will be sought and 50% of the total value of the medium where joint advertising activities be made shall be met.

4. THE LIABILITIES OF THE REPRESENTATIVE OF TRAVEL INDUSTRY AND AGENCY

A) The liabilities of the representative of travel industry and agency towards the administration are as follows:

1. To provide the preparation, production and application of the creative works
2. To pay due attention and consideration to the specific characteristics of the market country (such as the language, culture, reservation times, holiday habits, etc.) where joint advertising activities will be put to practice
3. To make and implement plans about the time and space selection in compliance with the goals of the advertising campaign and about the application of the advertisements in the most correct and effective media as considering the market requirements as well as the cost-and-benefit criteria.

4. To oversee the implementation of all activities in accordance with the Criteria of Joint Advertisements in case joint advertising activities be carried out by an official subsidiary or associate of the representative of travel industry

B) The responsibilities of representative of travel industry/agency at the stage of offering and performing joint advertising activities are as follows:

1. The representative of travel industry who demands joint advertisement shall apply to the administrative representative. An informing file about the representative of travel industry shall be submitted with the application documents. This file shall include the representative of travel industry's capacity, past activities and goals towards the market of Turkey it intends to achieve with the advertising campaign.

2. The applications will be assessed by the administrative representative. The demands in conformity with the criteria will be sent to the administration. The other demands which do not comply with the criteria will be returned to the applicant in writing for completion of missing documents.

3. After the assessment of the applications by the administration, the appropriately-found demands shall be submitted for an approval. This approval will then be sent to the related administrative representative.

4. The media plan encompassing all creative works (visual, film, advertisements scripts, music etc.), media publication/broadcast calendar (number of spots, frequencies, dates, name & place & list of publications/broadcasts, duration, number, size, advertisement formats and other relevant information) and media buying costs shall be first submitted to the written approval of administrative representative (If the creative works will be prepared after the media plan is approved, the additional approval of the administration must be obtained).

5. The advertising campaign shall be carried out according to the media plans and creative works submitted to the administrative representative and approved by the administration.

6. Any advertisement not approved by the administration will not be placed, published or broadcasted. In case the representative of travel industry/agency make any such commitments without informing the administrative representative and administration, the administration and representative of administration will not take any responsibility.

7. The representative of travel industry/agency shall bear full responsibility and shoulder the material losses and damages the Administration suffers arising from any changes that are implemented in the media plans without

obtaining a written approval from the administration and representative of administration.

8. If no written approval for any changes in the advertisements published or broadcasted is granted from the administration or erroneous information is placed on the content of the advertisements (info/text/picture etc.), the representative of travel industry bears full responsibility to remove these defects. The administrative representative is expected to detect these defective applications and indemnify the lost value of the advertisement from the representative of travel industry and agency. If the error is irrecoverable, no payment shall be made to the representative of travel industry with respect of these advertisements.

9. In the event that compulsory or necessary changes are considered to be made in the media plan without causing any increase in budget and any value loss in the advertisements, the approval of the administrative representative will be sufficient provided that changes be made within a month. If the changes are made at a time exceeding one month limit, the approval of the administration has to be obtained. Date changes are not permitted for any activities that are not carried out on the date scheduled in the media plan.

10. The representative of travel industry/agency shall act in a professional and organized manner in buying media, and shall ensure that any benefits obtained with this purchase are fully utilized by the administration.

11. All services shall be provided in accordance with legislation in effect and with the best practices of the industry. All required licenses, permits or clearances shall be obtained by the representative of travel industry/agency.

12. The representative of travel industry/agency shall ensure that the advertisements be released in approved places, at approved times, and in a manner conforming with the approved media plan. The representative of travel industry/agency shall provide the administrative representative with the information, document, report and photographs/records in three original copies along with the invoices of the services issued.

5. METHOD OF PAYMENT AND INVOICING

The matters below shall be considered during the payments and invoicing:

1. The amount payable by the administration shall be limited to a maximum of fifty per cent (50 %) of the invoice for the net amount of the media buying. VAT, other compulsory and legal taxes, production costs, commissions for advertising agency and creative works' expenses shall not be taken into consideration in determining the net amount of the media buying. Deduction will be dropped if present. The half of the cost of the net media location/time

buying shall be regarded. Clause B of Article 3 will be validated as to the payments of window displays.

2. The third party invoices regarding joint advertising activities (the invoices received from the organizations that directly provide the media services or from the service provider itself) shall be issued on behalf of the administration and shall be given by the representative of travel industry to the administrative representative after the advertising services are completed. Invoices shall include a statement indicating that the advertisement is regarding Turkey. In case that the third party invoice is not issued on behalf of the administration, a copy of the invoice shall be attached to the main (all-services showing) invoice issued by the advertising agency or representative of travel industry on behalf of the administration. If the third party invoices are not submitted, no payments will be made.

3. In case that invoices of media buying stated in Article 2 are not directly obtained from the service provider itself (third parties) due to local conditions, the representative of travel industry shall notify its grounds to the administrative representative in writing before the joint advertisement activity is commenced. No third party invoices for joint advertising activities carried out in media channels of the representative of travel industry will be sought.

4. The administrative representative shall be held accountable for checking the media buying prices of joint advertising activities presented by the representative of travel industry/agency, making a market research as to the mentioned prices, making sure that the discount rates are kept at maximum level, and comparing the prices with those of the previous year.

5. The invoices shall indicate all relevant information about the medium, date and other relevant information regarding the advertisements. No expressions such as "miscellaneous", "other" and "alike" shall be put into the invoices. The spending, costs and services rendered shall be defined on the invoice clearly.

6. The probative documents showing that the advertisement be made (at least three copies of original publication where the advertisement is published or CD/DVD including the digital copy of the original print and its colour printout; report of the radio/TV broadcast; images of digital applications; list of outdoor and poster advertisements indicating locations, photographs and/or digitally recorded images) shall be attached to the invoice sent by the representative of travel industry to the administrative representative.

7. After the approval of the administration and submission of the probative documents and all media invoices, payments shall be made by the administrative representative directly to the representative of travel industry,

media organization or agency in line with the local legislations. Within this framework,

A) All payments shall be made after all services are provided, all advertising works are completed, and all required documents are submitted to the relevant administrative representative from the representative of travel industry or Agency. The payments of the advertisement that do not conform to the criteria of joint advertisements and to the approved media plans shall not be made. Invoices shall be issued to the following title and address of the Administration, and sent to the relevant administrative representative.

xxx

B) In case that payments are to be made in currencies other than those of where the administrative representative is based, the foreign exchange rate issued by the central bank of the country where the administrative representative is based/ by the bank nominated by the administrative representative shall be considered on the payment date. The payments shall be made with the currency unit stated in the media plan.

C) The representative of travel industry and agency shall check and verify the accuracy and conformity of third-party invoices as well as ensure that the Ministry benefits from any discounts available.

D) If there is a delay in making the payment, no interest shall be charged for the period between the submission of invoices to the relevant administrative representative and the payment date.

Note: The relevant administrative representative shall obtain from the authorized representative of travel industry a written acceptance of the criteria stated above before engaging in an agreement on a joint advertising activity with the representative of travel industry in question; or it would be sufficient when both parties sign the criteria document.

Source: London Turkish Tourism Board

Appendix II: A letter received from Gulet Holidays

16 August 2018

Dear Sir/ Madam

I am the owner of Eco Travel Shop Ltd. Limited trading as Eco Turkey Travel. Eco Travel Shop has ownership of Eco Turkey (www.ecoturkey.com) and Gulet Holidays (www.guletholidays.com) websites.

I can confirm to cooperate with Ali Selcuk Can to conduct experimental advertisements for his PhD. I will allow him to use our companies' logos (EcoTurkey & Gulet Holidays), and advertise through our business account. I am already aware that advertisements will be branded with Turkey logo only and with Turkey and EcoTurkey/Gulet Holidays logo.

I will be providing him all the results of the advertisement that will be conducted through Google Display Networks. I am also aware that cost of these advertising campaign will be covered by himself in the budget range of 50-300 pounds totally. He is free to use any of Turkey related photos for the advertisements.

If you have any further questions, please do not hesitate to contact with me.

Kind Regards,


Ali Keskin

Appendix III: A letter received from the Turkish Tourism Board

The Embassy of the Republic of Turkey
Office of the Counsellor for Culture and Information

Dear Selcuk,

This is an official confirmation that following logos are the official Turkey logos for Turkish tourism and these can be used in your research experiment. Also I can confirm that ownership of the following photos belong to Turkish Tourism Board and these can be used in any platform without getting any further permission.

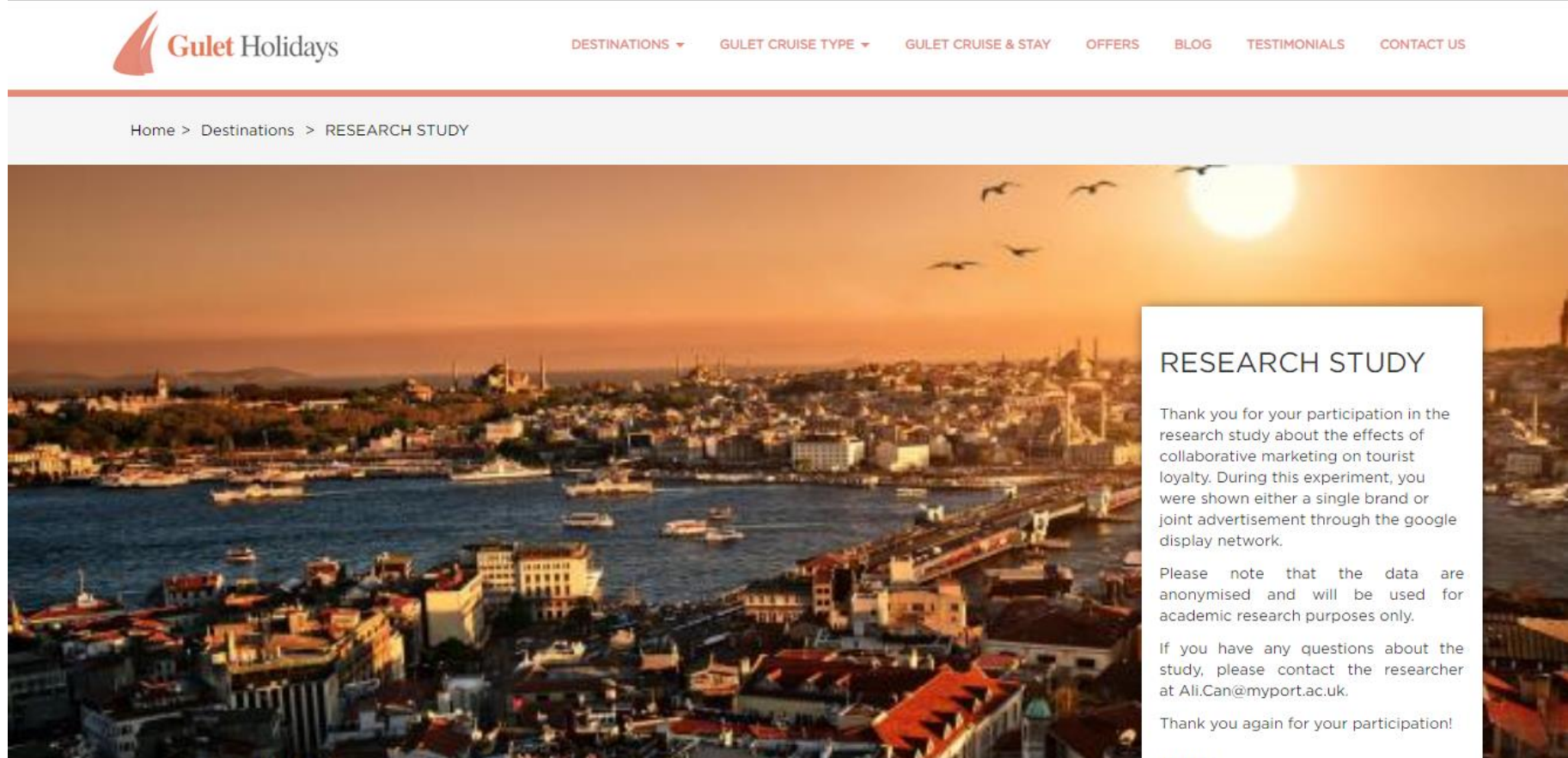


Kind Regards,

Umit Bozdag

Marketing Manager

Appendix IV: The tour packages and debrief statement on the Gulet Holidays' website



The screenshot shows the Gulet Holidays website. The header includes the logo and navigation links: DESTINATIONS, GULET CRUISE TYPE, GULET CRUISE & STAY, OFFERS, BLOG, TESTIMONIALS, and CONTACT US. The breadcrumb trail reads: Home > Destinations > RESEARCH STUDY. The main content area features a large background image of a coastal city at sunset. A white text box on the right contains the following text:

RESEARCH STUDY

Thank you for your participation in the research study about the effects of collaborative marketing on tourist loyalty. During this experiment, you were shown either a single brand or joint advertisement through the google display network.

Please note that the data are anonymised and will be used for academic research purposes only.

If you have any questions about the study, please contact the researcher at Ali.Can@myport.ac.uk.

Thank you again for your participation!

.....



KARACASOGUT - BODRUM (MINI TOUR) WITH A/C BOATS

235 £
/per person

VIEW



FETHIYE - MARMARIS (MINI TOUR) WITH A/C BOATS

290 £
/per person

VIEW



BODRUM - KARACASOGUT (MINI TOUR) WITH A/C BOATS

235 £
/per person

VIEW

Need help booking ?

Call us on the number below to speak to one of our advisers who will help you with all of your holiday needs.

+44 0203 4176373

Appendix V: The endorsement received from the Ethics Committee

Ali Selcuk Can

Marketing and Sales

Faculty of Business and Law

Richmond Building

Portland Street

PO1 3DE

FAVOURABLE ETHICAL OPINION

Study Title: An investigation into the effects of collaborative marketing on tourist loyalty

Reference Number: BAL/2018/E517/CAN

Date Resubmitted: 28/09/2018

Thank you for resubmitting your application to the Faculty Ethics Committee and for making the requested changes/ clarifications.

I am pleased to inform you that the Faculty of Business and Law Ethics Committee was content to grant a favourable ethical opinion of the above research on the basis described in the submitted documents listed at Annex A, and subject to standard general conditions (See Annex B).

Please note that the favourable opinion of the Committee does not grant permission or approval to undertake the research/ work. Management permission or approval must be obtained from any host organisation, including the University of Portsmouth or supervisor, prior to the start of the study.

Wishing you every success in your research



Peter Scott, Chair of the Faculty of Business and Law Ethics Committee

Annexes

A - Documents reviewed

B - After ethical review

ANNEX A - Documents reviewed

The documents ethically reviewed for this application

Document	Version	Date
Application form	1	26/07/2018
Application form	2	22/08/2018
Application form	3	24/09/2018
Supervisor confirmation email	1	25/07/2018
Supervisor confirmation email	2	22/08/2018
Supervisor confirmation email	3	24/09/2018
Letter from Turkish Tourism Board	1	25/07/2018
Letter from Mr Ali Keskin	1	16/08/2018
Email from reviewer (Giampaolo Viglia)	1	09/07/2018
Email from reviewer (Giampaolo Viglia)	2	24/09/2018
Amendment table	1	22/08/2018
Amendment table	2	24/09/2018
Debrief	1	22/08/2018
Debrief	2	24/09/2018

ANNEX B - After ethical review

1. This Annex sets out important guidance for those with a favourable opinion from a University of Portsmouth Ethics Committee. Please read the guidance carefully. A failure to follow the guidance could lead to the committee reviewing and possibly revoking its opinion on the research.
2. It is assumed that the work will commence within 1 year of the date of the favourable ethical opinion or the start date stated in the application, whichever is the latest.
3. The work must not commence until the researcher has obtained any necessary management permissions or approvals – this is particularly pertinent in cases of research hosted by external organisations. The appropriate head of department should be aware of a member of staff's plans.
4. If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study beyond that stated in the application, the Ethics Committee must be informed.
5. Any proposed substantial amendments must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for review. A substantial amendment is any amendment to the terms of the application for ethical review, or to the protocol or other supporting documentation approved by the Committee that is likely to affect to a significant degree:
 - (a) the safety or physical or mental integrity of participants
 - (b) the scientific value of the study
 - (c) the conduct or management of the study.
 - 5.1 A substantial amendment should not be implemented until a favourable ethical opinion has been given by the Committee.
6. At the end of the work a final report should be submitted to the ethics committee. A template for this can be found on the University Ethics webpage.
7. Researchers are reminded of the University's commitments as stated in the Concordat to Support Research Integrity viz:

- maintaining the highest standards of rigour and integrity in all aspects of research
- ensuring that research is conducted according to appropriate ethical, legal and professional frameworks, obligations and standards
- supporting a research environment that is underpinned by a culture of integrity and based on good governance, best practice and support for the development of researchers
- using transparent, robust and fair processes to deal with allegations of research misconduct should they arise
- working together to strengthen the integrity of research and to reviewing progress regularly and openly.

8. In ensuring that it meets these commitments the University has adopted the UKRIO Code of Practice for Research. Any breach of this code may be considered as misconduct and may be investigated following the University Procedure for the Investigation of Allegations of Misconduct in Research. Researchers are advised to use the UKRIO checklist as a simple guide to integrity.

Appendix VI: The experiment instrument for the control group

1.	Are you a resident of the United Kingdom?	(1)Yes	(2)No (Go to the End)		
2.	Have you ever bought a package holiday to Turkey ?	(1)Yes	(2)No		
3.	Have you ever visited Turkey?	(1)Yes	(2)No (Go to Q7)		
4.	Approximately how many times have you visited in the last 10 years?	-----			
5.	When was your last visit?	(1)Less than a year ago	(2)Within past 1-2 years	(3)Within past 3-5 years	(4)More than 5 years ago
6.	What was the purpose of your last visit?	(1)Holiday	(2)Business	(3)Other	



		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.	Having seen this advertisement, I would be interested in going on holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	This advertisement gives me a good impression about a holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	Having seen this advertisement, I like the idea of taking a holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10.	Having seen this advertisement, I would like to gain more knowledge about a holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
11.	Having seen this advertisement, I want to know more about Turkey as a holiday destination.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	Having seen this advertisement, I am willing to search for more information about holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Please answer the following questions by choosing your answers on a scale 1-7, where 1 is extremely unlikely and 7 is extremely likely.						
13.	How likely is it that you will take a holiday in Turkey in the near future?					
14.	How likely is it that you would recommend taking a holiday to Turkey to someone who seeks your advice for his or her holiday?					
15.	How likely is it that you would encourage friends and/or relatives to take a holiday in Turkey?					
16.	How likely is that you would say positive things about taking a holiday in Turkey?					
Please read each item carefully and click the best box that suits you.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
17.	Turkey is a credible holiday destination.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	Turkey has a good reputation as a holiday destination.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

19.	Turkey is a well-known holiday destination.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	Turkey is a popular holiday destination.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	Turkey is a highly esteemed holiday destination.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	Your gender?	(1) Male (2) Female (3) Non binary				
23.	How old are you?	(1) 18-24 (2) 25-34 (3) 35-44 (4) 45-54 (5) 55-64 (6) 65 or more than 65				
24.	What is your parental status?	(1) Not a parent (2) Parent				
25.	How much is your annual net salary?	(1) Unemployed (2) Less than £14,999 (3) £15,000-29,999 (4) £30,000-44,999 (5) £45,000-59,999 (6) £ 60,000 or more than £ 60,000				
If you would like to receive a copy of any resulting report, please enter your email address below.						
We thank you for your time spent taking this survey. Your response has been recorded.						

Appendix VII: The experiment instrument for the experimental group 1

1.	Are you a resident of the United Kingdom?	(1)Yes	(2)No (Go to the end)		
2.	Have you ever bought a package holiday to Turkey ?	(1)Yes	(2)No		
3.	Have you ever visited Turkey?	(1)Yes	(2)No (Go to Q7)		
4.	Approximately how many times have you visited in the last 10 years?	-----			
5.	When was your last visit?	(1)Less than a year ago	(2)Within past 1-2 years	(3)Within past 3-5 years	(4)More than 5 years ago
6.	What was the purpose of your last visit?	(1)Holiday	(2)Business	(3)Other	



		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.	Having seen this advertisement, I would be interested in going on holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	This advertisement gives me a good impression about a holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	Having seen this advertisement, I like the idea of taking a holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	Having seen this advertisement, I would like to gain more knowledge about a holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
11.	Having seen this advertisement, I want to know more about Turkey as a holiday destination.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	Having seen this advertisement, I am willing to search for more information about holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Please answer the following questions by choosing your answers on a scale 1-7, where 1 is extremely unlikely and 7 is extremely likely.						
13.	How likely is it that you will take a holiday in Turkey in the near future?					
14.	How likely is it that you would recommend taking a holiday to Turkey to someone who seeks your advice for his or her holiday?					
15.	How likely is it that you would encourage friends and/or relatives to take a holiday in Turkey?					
16.	How likely is that you would say positive things about taking a holiday in Turkey?					
Please read each item carefully and click the best box that suits you.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
17.	Right Holiday is a credible company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	Right Holiday has a good reputation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	Right Holiday is a well-known brand.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	Right Holiday is a popular brand.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	Right Holiday is a highly esteemed company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22.	Your gender?	(1)Male (2)Female (3)Non binary				

23.	How old are you?	(1)18-24 (2)25-34 (3)35-44 (4)45-54 (5)55-64 (6)65 or more than 65
24.	What is your parental status?	(1)Not a parent (2)Parent
25.	How much is your annual net salary?	(1)Unemployed (2)Less than £14,999 (3)£15,000-29,999 (4)£30,000-44,999 (5)£45,000-59,999 (6)£ 60,000 or more than £ 60,000
If you would like to receive a copy of any resulting report, please enter your email address below.		
We thank you for your time spent taking this survey. Your response has been recorded.		

Appendix VIII: The experiment instrument for the experimental group 2

1.	Are you a resident of the United Kingdom?	(1)Yes	(2)No (Go to the end)		
2.	Have you ever bought a package holiday to Turkey ?	(1)Yes	(2)No		
3.	Have you ever visited Turkey?	(1)Yes	(2)No (Go to Q7)		
4.	Approximately how many times have you visited in the last 10 years?	-----			
5.	When was your last visit?	(1)Less than a year ago	(2)Within past 1-2 years	(3)Within past 3-5 years	(4)More than 5 years ago
6.	What was the purpose of your last visit?	(1)Holiday	(2)Business	(3)Other	



		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
7.	Having seen this advertisement, I would be interested in going on holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	This advertisement gives me a good impression about a holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	Having seen this advertisement, I like the idea of taking a holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

10.	Having seen this advertisement, I would like to gain more knowledge about a holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
11.	Having seen this advertisement, I want to know more about Turkey as a holiday destination.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	Having seen this advertisement, I am willing to search for more information about holiday to Turkey.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Please answer the following questions by choosing your answers on a scale 1-7, where 1 is extremely unlikely and 7 is extremely likely.						
13.	How likely is it that you will take a holiday in Turkey in the near future?					
14.	How likely is it that you would recommend taking a holiday to Turkey to someone who seeks your advice for his or her holiday?					
15.	How likely is it that you would encourage friends and/or relatives to take a holiday in Turkey?					
16.	How likely is that you would say positive things about taking a holiday in Turkey?					
Please read each item carefully and click the best box that suits you.		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
17.	Thomas Cook is a credible company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18.	Thomas Cook has a good reputation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19.	Thomas Cook is a well-known brand.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20.	Thomas Cook is a popular brand.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21.	Thomas Cook is a highly esteemed company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

22.	Your gender?	(1)Male (2)Female (3)Non binary
23.	How old are you?	(1)18-24 (2)25-34 (3)35-44 (4)45-54 (5)55-64 (6)65 or more than 65
24.	What is your parental status?	(1)Not a parent (2)Parent
25.	How much is your annual net salary?	(1)Unemployed (2)Less than £14,999 (3)£15,000-29,999 (4)£30,000-44,999 (5)£45,000-59,999 (6)£ 60,000 or more than £ 60,000
If you would like to receive a copy of any resulting report, please enter your email address below.		
We thank you for your time spent taking this survey. Your response has been recorded.		

Appendix IX: The invitation letter

Name and Contact Details of Researcher: Ali Selcuk CAN, Department of Marketing & Sales, University of Portsmouth, Portland Building, Portland Street, Portsmouth, PO1 3DE, Ali.Can@myport.ac.uk, Mob. Phone: 07415 039345

Name and Contact Details of Supervisor: Prof. Yuksel EKINCI, Department of Marketing & Sales, University of Portsmouth, Richmond Building Portland Street Portsmouth PO1 3DE, yuksel.ekinci@port.ac.uk, Telephone: 02392 844253

Invitation Letter

Study Title: An investigation into the effects of collaborative marketing on consumer behaviour

REC Ref No: BAL/2019/19/CAN

Dear Potential Participant

I would like to invite you to participate in a research study. I am a PhD Student at the University of Portsmouth. The purpose of my study is to investigate the effect of advertising on consumer behaviour. The survey results will be used only for academic purposes. I have reached you through prolific.ac.

This letter has been forwarded by prolific.ac because they have identified that you might be a suitable participant in my research about collaborative marketing but they have not provided me with your name, address or personal details.

If at any time you decide to withdraw your participation during the completion of the survey, please feel free to do so. Once the survey is completed, please see your details of your withdrawal rights on the Participant Information Sheet. Should you agree to take part in the research, please read the information sheet and fill in the consent form below. Please click the appropriate button that indicates your response to the survey questions. Only one answer can be selected for each statement.

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you in advance for your time.

Sincerely yours,
Ali Selcuk Can,

PhD student, University of Portsmouth
Ali.Can@myport.ac.uk

Appendix X: The consent form

Name and Contact Details of Researcher: Ali Selcuk CAN, Department of Marketing & Sales, University of Portsmouth, Portland Building, Portland Street, Portsmouth, PO1 3DE. Email: Ali.Can@myport.ac.uk, mobile phone: 07415 039345

Name and Contact Details of Supervisor: Prof. Yuksel EKINCI, Department of Marketing & Sales, University of Portsmouth, Richmond Building Portland Street Portsmouth, PO1 3DE. Email: yuksel.ekinci@port.ac.uk, telephone: 02392 844253

CONSENT FORM

Title of Project: An investigation into the effects of collaborative marketing on consumer behaviour

University Data Protection Officer: Samantha Hill, 023 9284 3642 or data-protection@port.ac.uk

Ethics Committee Reference Number: BAL/2019/19/CAN

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time during the completion of the survey without giving any reason. After completing the questionnaire, but before the data is analysed, that is, 30 September 2019, I understand I can ask for my data to be withdrawn from the study by sending my unique prolific ID to the researcher by email.
3. I understand that data collected during this study will be processed in accordance with data protection law, as explained in the Participant Information Sheet.
4. I understand that the results of this study may be published and / or presented at meetings or academic conferences. I give my permission for my anonymous data, which does not identify me, to be disseminated in this way.
5. I agree to take part in the above study.

Appendix XI: The participant information sheet



Name and Contact Details of Researcher: Ali Selcuk CAN, Department of Marketing & Sales, University of Portsmouth, Portland Building, Portland Street, Portsmouth, PO1 3DE. Email: Ali.Can@myport.ac.uk, mobile phone: 07415 039345

Name and Contact Details of Supervisor: Professor Yuksel EKINCI, Department of Marketing & Sales, University of Portsmouth, Richmond Building, Portland Street, Portsmouth, PO1 3DE. Email: yuksel.ekinci@port.ac.uk, telephone: 02392 844253

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Title of Project: An investigation into the effects of collaborative marketing on consumer behaviour

Ethics Committee Reference Number: BAL/2019/19/CAN

I would like to invite you to take part in my research study. Joining the study is entirely up to you. Before you decide I would like you to understand why the research is being undertaken and what it would involve for you. I will go through this information sheet with you, to help you decide whether or not you would like to take part and answer any questions you may have. This will take about 5-7 minutes. Please feel free to talk to others about the study, if you so wish and do ask, if anything is unclear.

The online experiments are to be accessed by clicking one of the links mentioned below.

https://pompeufabraeac.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_bgxgzSZWcLLme8Z.

https://pompeufabraeac.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_aW73ojg2rTTn9oV.

https://pompeufabraeac.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_e8V4ipwBvbcDJM9.

I am a PhD Student at the University of Portsmouth and conducting this research as part of my PhD thesis. This study is concerned with the effect of collaborative marketing on consumer behaviour. This is important because most of destination marketing organisations rely heavily on this kind of activities to influence consumer behaviour. I am seeking participants who are UK residents aged equal to or more than 18 years old. Participation in the research would require you to fill out the online experiment, which will take 3-5 minutes.

The purpose of the study is to investigate how collaborative marketing activities influence consumer travel decision making process. You have been identified as a possible participant through prolific.ac. The total number of participants for this experiment will be 120. Taking part in this research is entirely voluntary. It is up to you to decide whether or not you want to volunteer for the study, which is described in this information sheet. If you agree to take part, you will be asked to complete the consent form below, Version 4.0, dated 30 July 2019.

Should you agree to take part in the research, please click on the appropriate button that indicates your response to the survey questions. Only one answer can be selected for each statement. Your evaluations regarding an advertisement and some demographic information will be collected during the experiment. After taking part in this experiment, you will be paid £ 0.50 through prolific.ac.

The data, which is anonymous as I we have been provided with no names by prolific.ac, may be presented to others at academic conferences, published as a project report, academic dissertation or in academic journals and/or produced as a book. It could also be made available to any commissioner or funder of the research. The raw data will be retained for a minimum of 10 years. When they are no longer required, they will be disposed of securely destroyed.

The Department of Marketing & Sales of the University of Portsmouth wishes to process your personal data (that is, collect, use, store and destroy data that identifies you) as part of the experiment. If you have any queries about this experiment please contact Ali.Can@myport.ac.uk or if you have any general queries about how your data will be processed, please contact the University's Data Protection Officer, Samantha Hill, using any of the following contact details:

Phone, 023 9284 3642, email information-matters@port.ac.uk or write to her at
University House, Winston Churchill Avenue, Portsmouth, Hampshire, PO1 2UP, UK

I ask for your consent to process the data we ask for in the experiment, so that we can conduct the research as described in the Participant Information Sheet. I will not share your personalised data with anyone. Your personal data will be held securely on the Google team drive within the EU for 10 years, and securely destroyed after that date.

Although you have the right to request a copy of the personal data we hold about you, to restrict the use of your personal data, to be forgotten, to data portability, and to withdraw your consent for the use of your data, it is possible that we may not be able to fully comply with those rights where your data has been used for the research and / or has been anonymised. For more information on your rights, in general, please see the information at the following link: <http://www.port.ac.uk /departments/ services /corporategovernance/gdpr/>.

You also have the right to lodge a complaint about the use of your personal data, initially to the University (email information-matters@port.ac.uk) and then, if you are unhappy with its response, you can contact to the Information Commissioner's Office (ICO) – for more information please see <https://ico.org.uk/for-the-public/raising-concerns/> .

As a volunteer you can stop any participation in the experiment or withdraw from the study at any time, without giving a reason during the completion of the survey. If you do withdraw from a study after some data have been collected you will be asked if you are happy for the data collected so far to be retained and included in the study. If you prefer, those collected can be destroyed and not included in the study. Once the research has been completed, and the data analysed, it will not be possible for you to withdraw your data from the study, that is, after 30 September 2019.

If you have any queries, concerns or complaints about any aspect of this study, in the first instance, you should contact the researcher. As the researcher is a student, there will also be an academic member of staff listed as the supervisor whom you can contact. If there is a complaint and there is a supervisor listed, please contact the Supervisor with details of the complaint. The contact details for both the researcher and any supervisor are detailed above.

If your concern or complaint is not resolved by myself or my supervisor, you should contact the Head of Department:

The Head of Department: Dr. Dan NUNAN, 023 9284 4727
daniel.nunan@port.ac.uk
Department of Marketing & Sales
University of Portsmouth
Richmond Building, Portland Street
Portsmouth PO1 3DE

If the complaint remains unresolved, please contact:

The University Complaints Officer
023 9284 3642 complaintsadvice@port.ac.uk

This research is being funded by myself. I will not receive any financial reward by conducting this study.

Research involving human participants is reviewed by an ethics committee to ensure that the dignity and well-being of participants is respected. This study has been reviewed by the University of Portsmouth's Faculty of Business & Law Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical judgement.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for considering volunteering for this research. If you do agree to participate, your consent will be sought, through your completion of the accompanying consent form.

Appendix XII: Favourable ethics opinion



FAVOURABLE ETHICAL OPINION

Study Title: An investigation into the effects of collaborative marketing on consumer behaviour.

Reference Number: BAL/2019/19/CAN

Date Resubmitted: 30/07/2019

Thank you for resubmitting your application to the Faculty Ethics Committee and for making the requested changes/ clarifications.

I am pleased to inform you that the Faculty Ethics Committee was content to grant a favourable ethical opinion of the above research on the basis described in the submitted documents listed at Annex A, subject to standard general conditions (See Annex B) and subject to the following condition:

- Please correct the cut-off point for withdrawal on the consent form, in order to make it consistent with the other participant documentation. Please then submit the corrected version to ethics-bal@port.ac.uk for reference to confirm the changes have been made before commencing the fieldwork.

Please note that the favourable opinion of the Faculty Ethics Committee does not grant permission or approval to undertake the research/ work. Management permission or approval must be obtained from any host organisation, including the University of Portsmouth or supervisor, prior to the start of the study.

Wishing you every success in your research

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "Peter Scott".

Peter Scott, Chair of the Faculty of Business and
Law Ethics Committee

ANNEXES

A - Documents reviewed

B - After ethical review

ANNEX A Documents reviewed

The documents ethically reviewed for this application

Document	Version	Date
Application form	1	08/04/2019
Application form	2	08/05/2019
Application form	3	20/05/2019
Application form	4	30/07/2019
Invitation letter	1	08/04/2019
Invitation letter	2	08/05/2019
Invitation letter	3	20/05/2019
Invitation letter	4	30/07/2019
Participant Information Sheet	1	08/04/2019
Participant Information Sheet	2	08/05/2019
Participant Information Sheet	3	20/05/2019
Participant Information Sheet	4	30/07/2019
Consent Form	1	08/04/2019
Consent Form	2	08/05/2019
Consent Form	3	20/05/2019
Consent Form	4	30/07/2019
Questionnaires (1,2 & 3)	1	08/04/2019
Questionnaires (1,2 & 3)	2	08/05/2019
Questionnaires (1,2 & 3)	3	20/05/2019
Questionnaires (1,2 & 3)	4	30/07/2019

ANNEX B - After ethical review

1. This Annex sets out important guidance for those with a favourable opinion from a University of Portsmouth Ethics Committee. Please read the guidance carefully. A failure to follow the guidance could lead to the committee reviewing and possibly revoking its opinion on the research.
2. It is assumed that the work will commence within 1 year of the date of the favourable ethical opinion or the start date stated in the application, whichever is the latest.
3. The work must not commence until the researcher has obtained any necessary management permissions or approvals – this is particularly pertinent in cases of research hosted by external organisations. The appropriate head of department should be aware of a member of staff's plans.
4. If it is proposed to extend the duration of the study beyond that stated in the application, the Ethics Committee must be informed.
5. Any proposed substantial amendments must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for review. A substantial amendment is any amendment to the terms of the application for ethical review, or to the protocol or other supporting documentation approved by the Committee that is likely to affect to

a significant degree:

- (a) the safety or physical or mental integrity of participants
- (b) the scientific value of the study
- (c) the conduct or management of the study.

5.1 A substantial amendment should not be implemented until a favourable ethical opinion has been given by the Committee.

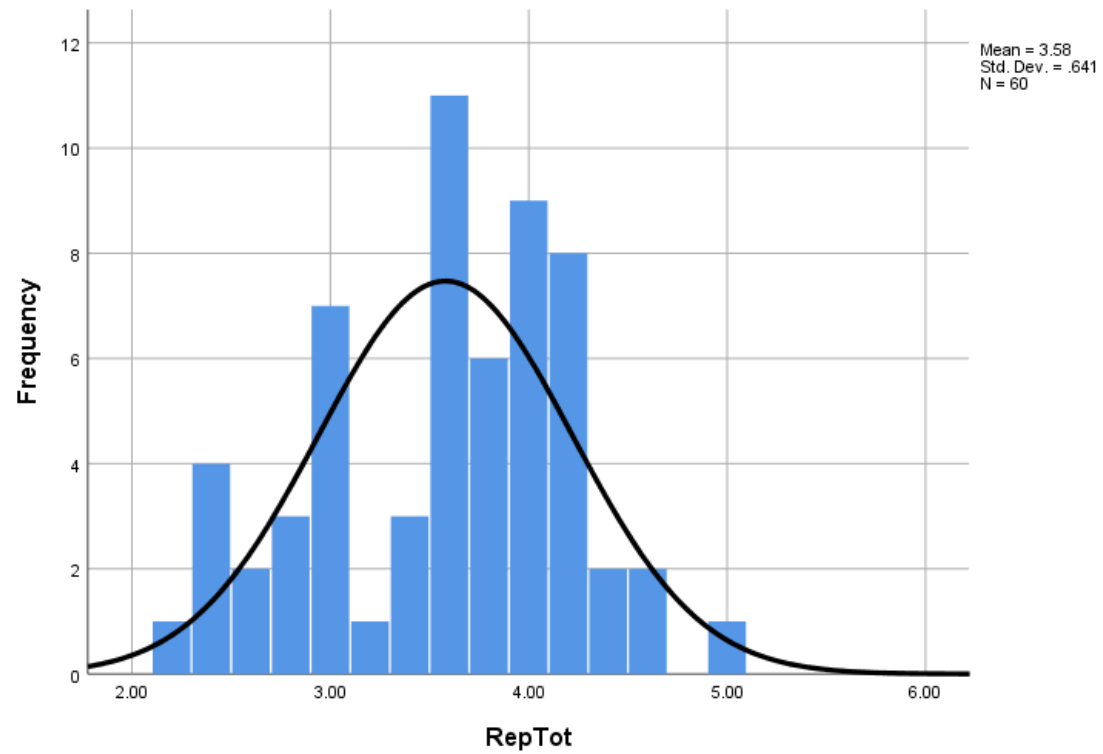
6. At the end of the work a final report should be submitted to the ethics committee. A template for this can be found on the University Ethics webpage.

7. Researchers are reminded of the University's commitments as stated in the [Concordat to Support Research Integrity](#) viz:

- maintaining the highest standards of rigour and integrity in all aspects of research
- ensuring that research is conducted according to appropriate ethical, legal and professional frameworks, obligations and standards
- supporting a research environment that is underpinned by a culture of integrity and based on good governance, best practice and support for the development of researchers
- using transparent, robust and fair processes to deal with allegations of research misconduct should they arise
- working together to strengthen the integrity of research and to reviewing progress regularly and openly.

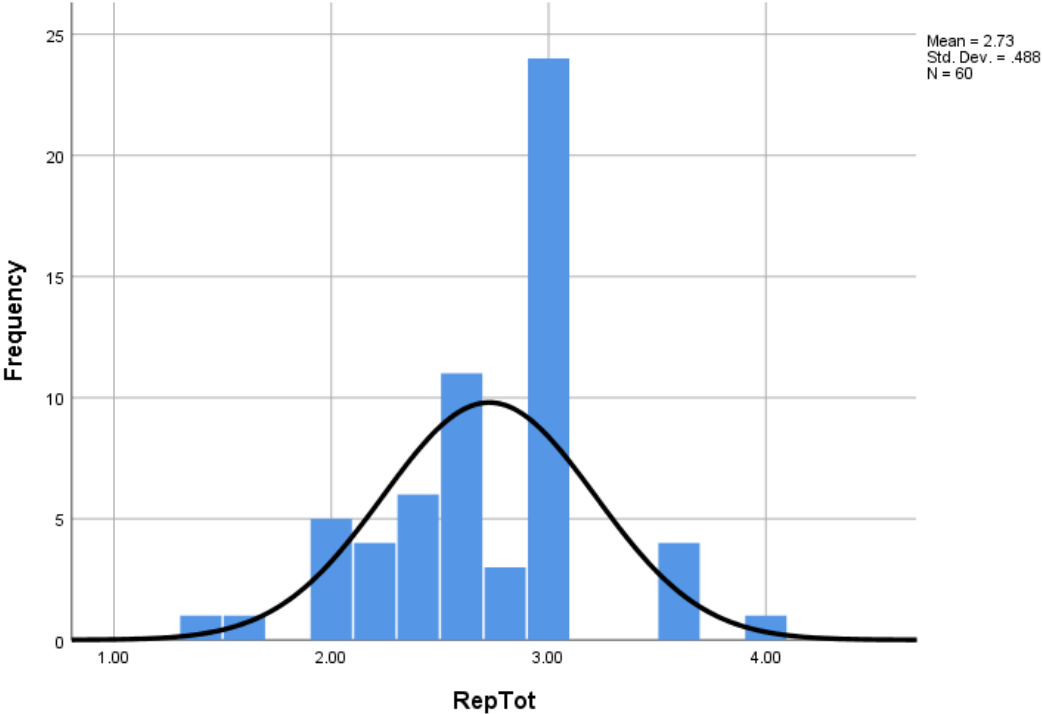
8. In ensuring that it meets these commitments the University has adopted the [UKRIO Code of Practice for Research](#). Any breach of this code may be considered as misconduct and may be investigated following the University [Procedure for the Investigation of Allegations of Misconduct in Research](#). Researchers are advised to use the [UKRIO checklist](#) as a simple guide to integrity.

Appendix XIII: Histogram of brand reputation for control group



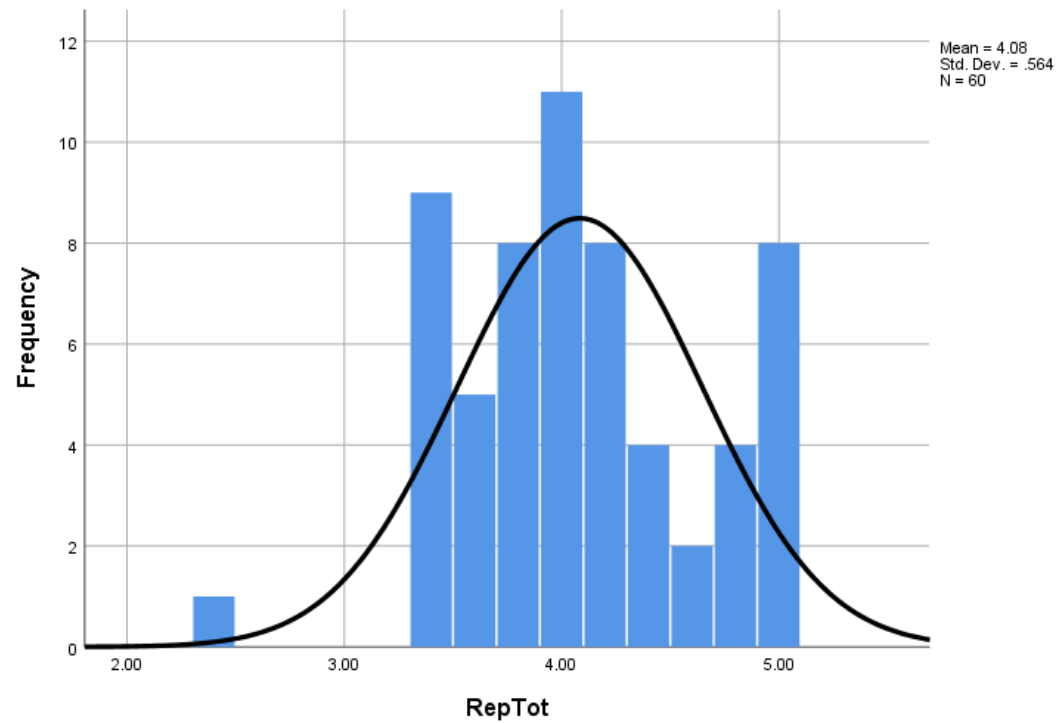
1: Strongly disagree, 5: Strongly agree

Appendix XIV: Histogram of brand reputation for treatment group 1



1: Strongly disagree, 5: Strongly agree

Appendix XV: Histogram of brand reputation for treatment group 2



1: Strongly disagree, 5: Strongly agree

Appendix XVI: The outputs of the one-way ANOVA

Descriptives

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
X is a credible company/ holiday destination.	Single	60	3.63	.956	.123	3.39	3.88	1	5
	Joint1	60	3.03	.450	.058	2.92	3.15	2	4
	Joint2	60	4.02	.792	.102	3.81	4.22	2	5
	Total	180	3.56	.860	.064	3.43	3.69	1	5
X has a good reputation..	Single	60	3.35	.971	.125	3.10	3.60	1	5
	Joint1	60	2.90	.440	.057	2.79	3.01	1	4
	Joint2	60	3.93	.800	.103	3.73	4.14	1	5
	Total	180	3.39	.875	.065	3.27	3.52	1	5
X is a well know company or holiday destination	Single	60	4.12	.739	.095	3.93	4.31	2	5
	Joint1	60	2.30	.869	.112	2.08	2.52	1	4
	Joint2	60	4.58	.530	.068	4.45	4.72	3	5
	Total	180	3.67	1.224	.091	3.49	3.85	1	5
X is a popular holiday destination / company	Single	60	3.83	.806	.104	3.63	4.04	2	5
	Joint1	60	2.53	.769	.099	2.33	2.73	1	4
	Joint2	60	4.32	.651	.084	4.15	4.48	2	5
	Total	180	3.56	1.058	.079	3.41	3.72	1	5
X is a highly esteemed holiday destination / company.	Single	60	2.97	.882	.114	2.74	3.19	1	5
	Joint1	60	2.87	.596	.077	2.71	3.02	1	4
	Joint2	60	3.57	.909	.117	3.33	3.80	1	5

Total	180	3.13	.861	.064	3.01	3.26	1	5
-------	-----	------	------	------	------	------	---	---

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
X is a credible company/ holiday destination.	Between Groups	29.478	2	14.739	25.365	.000
	Within Groups	102.850	177	.581		
	Total	132.328	179			
X has a good reputation..	Between Groups	32.211	2	16.106	27.206	.000
	Within Groups	104.783	177	.592		
	Total	136.994	179			
X is a well know company or holiday destination	Between Groups	174.633	2	87.317	165.531	.000
	Within Groups	93.367	177	.527		
	Total	268.000	179			
X is a popular holiday destination / company	Between Groups	102.078	2	51.039	91.948	.000
	Within Groups	98.250	177	.555		
	Total	200.328	179			
X is a highly esteemed holiday destination / company.	Between Groups	17.200	2	8.600	13.168	.000
	Within Groups	115.600	177	.653		
	Total	132.800	179			

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Type of advertisement	(J) Type of advertisement	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
			(I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
X is a credible company/ holiday destination.	Single	Joint1	.600*	.139	.000	.27	.93
		Joint2	-.383*	.139	.018	-.71	-.05
	Joint1	Single	-.600*	.139	.000	-.93	-.27
		Joint2	-.983*	.139	.000	-1.31	-.65
	Joint2	Single	.383*	.139	.018	.05	.71
		Joint1	.983*	.139	.000	.65	1.31
X has a good reputation..	Single	Joint1	.450*	.140	.005	.12	.78
		Joint2	-.583*	.140	.000	-.92	-.25
	Joint1	Single	-.450*	.140	.005	-.78	-.12
		Joint2	-1.033*	.140	.000	-1.37	-.70
	Joint2	Single	.583*	.140	.000	.25	.92
		Joint1	1.033*	.140	.000	.70	1.37
X is a well know company or holiday destination	Single	Joint1	1.817*	.133	.000	1.50	2.13
		Joint2	-.467*	.133	.002	-.78	-.15
	Joint1	Single	-1.817*	.133	.000	-2.13	-1.50
		Joint2	-2.283*	.133	.000	-2.60	-1.97
	Joint2	Single	.467*	.133	.002	.15	.78
		Joint1	2.283*	.133	.000	1.97	2.60

X is a popular holiday destination / company	Single	Joint1	1.300*	.136	.000	.98	1.62
		Joint2	-.483*	.136	.001	-.80	-.16
	Joint1	Single	-1.300*	.136	.000	-1.62	-.98
		Joint2	-1.783*	.136	.000	-2.10	-1.46
	Joint2	Single	.483*	.136	.001	.16	.80
		Joint1	1.783*	.136	.000	1.46	2.10
X is a highly esteemed holiday destination / company.	Single	Joint1	.100	.148	.777	-.25	.45
		Joint2	-.600*	.148	.000	-.95	-.25
	Joint1	Single	-.100	.148	.777	-.45	.25
		Joint2	-.700*	.148	.000	-1.05	-.35
	Joint2	Single	.600*	.148	.000	.25	.95
		Joint1	.700*	.148	.000	.35	1.05

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Homogeneous Subsets

X is a credible company/ holiday destination.

Tukey HSD^a

Type of advertisement	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Joint1	60	3.03		
Single	60		3.63	
Joint2	60			4.02
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 60.000.

X has a good reputation.

Tukey HSD^a

Type of advertisement	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Joint1	60	2.90		
Single	60		3.35	
Joint2	60			3.93
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 60.000.

X is a well know company or holiday destination

Tukey HSD^a

Type of advertisement	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Joint1	60	2.30		
Single	60		4.12	
Joint2	60			4.58
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 60.000.

X is a popular holiday destination / company

Tukey HSD^a

Type of advertisement	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
Joint1	60	2.53		
Single	60		3.83	
Joint2	60			4.32
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 60.000.

X is a highly esteemed holiday destination / company.

Tukey HSD^a

Type of advertisement	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Joint1	60	2.87	
Single	60	2.97	
Joint2	60		3.57
Sig.		.777	1.000

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 60.000.

Appendix XVII: Output from the PROCESS procedure for SPSS through Indicator Coding

```
process y=BhvTot/x=AdType/m=IntTot/mcx=1/total=1/model=4/seed.30217.

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.4 *****

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.      www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

*****

Model   : 4
  Y   : Behavioural Intention   (BhvTot)
  X   : Advertising Types       (AdType)
  M   : Product Interest        (IntTot)

Sample
Size: 180

Coding of categorical X variable for analysis:
AdType   X1   X2
  .000   .000   .000
  1.000  1.000   .000
  2.000   .000  1.000

*****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
  IntTot

Model Summary
      R      R-sq      MSE      F      df1      df2      p
    .3540    .1253    .4220    12.6798    2.0000    177.0000    .0000
```

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.3972	.0839	40.5099	.0000	3.2317	3.5627
X1	-.0278	.1186	-.2342	.8151	-.2618	.2063
X2	.5028	.1186	4.2393	.0000	.2687	.7368

 OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 BhvTot

Model Summary	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.5611	.3148	1.1994	26.9540	3.0000	176.0000	.0000

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	.7245	.4531	1.5990	.1116	-.1697	1.6188
X1	.2100	.2000	1.0499	.2952	-.1847	.6046
X2	.7727	.2099	3.6821	.0003	.3586	1.1869
IntTot	.8084	.1267	6.3791	.0000	.5583	1.0585

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****
 OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 BhvTot

Model Summary	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.3955	.1564	1.4684	16.4055	2.0000	177.0000	.0000

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.4708	.1564	22.1864	.0000	3.1621	3.7796
X1	.1875	.2212	.8475	.3979	-.2491	.6241
X2	1.1792	.2212	5.3298	.0000	.7426	1.6158

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Relative total effects of X on Y:

	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
X1	.1875	.2212	.8475	.3979	-.2491	.6241
X2	1.1792	.2212	5.3298	.0000	.7426	1.6158

Omnibus test of total effect of X on Y:

R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
.1564	16.4055	2.0000	177.0000	.0000

Relative direct effects of X on Y

	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
X1	.2100	.2000	1.0499	.2952	-.1847	.6046
X2	.7727	.2099	3.6821	.0003	.3586	1.1869

Omnibus test of direct effect of X on Y:

R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
.0551	7.0800	2.0000	176.0000	.0011

Relative indirect effects of X on Y

AdType	->	IntTot	->	BhvTot
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	-.0225	.1095	-.2586	.1764
X2	.4064	.1078	.2102	.6344

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000----- END MATRIX -----

Appendix XVIII: Output from the PROCESS procedure for SPSS through Helmert Coding

```
process y=BhvTot/x=AdType/m=IntTot/mcx=3/total=1/model=4/seed.30217.
```

```
Run MATRIX procedure:
```

```
***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.4 *****
```

```

                Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.      www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

```

```
*****
```

```

Model   : 4
  Y   : Behavioural Intention   (BhvTot)
  X   : Advertising Types       (AdType)
  M   : Product Interest        (IntTot)

```

```

Sample
Size: 180

```

```
Coding of categorical X variable for analysis:
```

```

AdType   X1   X2
.000   -.667   .000
1.000   .333  -.500
2.000   .333   .500

```

```
*****
```

```

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
  IntTot

```

```
Model Summary
```

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3540	.1253	.4220	12.6798	2.0000	177.0000	.0000

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.5556	.0484	73.4353	.0000	3.4600	3.6511
X1	.2375	.1027	2.3124	.0219	.0348	.4402
X2	.5306	.1186	4.4736	.0000	.2965	.7646

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

BhvTot

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.5611	.3148	1.1994	26.9540	3.0000	176.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.0521	.4579	2.2976	.0228	.1484	1.9558
X1	.4913	.1758	2.7955	.0058	.1445	.8382
X2	.5628	.2110	2.6677	.0083	.1464	.9791
IntTot	.8084	.1267	6.3791	.0000	.5583	1.0585

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

BhvTot

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.3955	.1564	1.4684	16.4055	2.0000	177.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3.9264	.0903	43.4717	.0000	3.7481	4.1046
X1	.6833	.1916	3.5665	.0005	.3052	1.0614
X2	.9917	.2212	4.4823	.0000	.5551	1.4283

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Relative total effects of X on Y:

	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
X1	.6833	.1916	3.5665	.0005	.3052	1.0614
X2	.9917	.2212	4.4823	.0000	.5551	1.4283

Omnibus test of total effect of X on Y:

R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
.1564	16.4055	2.0000	177.0000	.0000

Relative direct effects of X on Y

	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
X1	.4913	.1758	2.7955	.0058	.1445	.8382
X2	.5628	.2110	2.6677	.0083	.1464	.9791

Omnibus test of direct effect of X on Y:

R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
.0551	7.0800	2.0000	176.0000	.0011

Relative indirect effects of X on Y

AdType	->	IntTot	->	BhvTot
	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
X1	.1920	.0860	.0321	.3721
X2	.4289	.1330	.1967	.7138

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals: 5000 ----- END MATRIX -----

FORM UPR16

Research Ethics Review Checklist



Please include this completed form as an appendix to your thesis (see the Research Degrees Operational Handbook for more information)

Postgraduate Research Student (PGRS) Information		Student ID:	UP886421			
PGRS Name:	Ali Selcuk CAN					
Department:	Marketing	First Supervisor:	Prof. Yiksel EKINCI			
Start Date: (or progression date for Prof Doc students)	01/02/2018					
Study Mode and Route:	Part-time	<input type="checkbox"/>	MPhil	<input type="checkbox"/>	MD	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Full-time	<input type="checkbox"/>	PhD	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Professional Doctorate	<input type="checkbox"/>
Title of Thesis:	The effects of joint brand advertising on tourists' behavioural response					
Thesis Word Count: (excluding ancillary data)	49.284					

If you are unsure about any of the following, please contact the local representative on your Faculty Ethics Committee for advice. Please note that it is your responsibility to follow the University's Ethics Policy and any relevant University, academic or professional guidelines in the conduct of your study

Although the Ethics Committee may have given your study a favourable opinion, the final responsibility for the ethical conduct of this work lies with the researcher(s).

UKRIO Finished Research Checklist:
(If you would like to know more about the checklist, please see your Faculty or Departmental Ethics Committee rep or see the online version of the full checklist at: <http://www.ukrio.org/what-we-do/code-of-practice-for-research/>)

a) Have all of your research and findings been reported accurately, honestly and within a reasonable time frame?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO <input type="checkbox"/>
b) Have all contributions to knowledge been acknowledged?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO <input type="checkbox"/>
c) Have you complied with all agreements relating to intellectual property, publication and authorship?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO <input type="checkbox"/>
d) Has your research data been retained in a secure and accessible form and will it remain so for the required duration?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO <input type="checkbox"/>
e) Does your research comply with all legal, ethical, and contractual requirements?	YES <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	NO <input type="checkbox"/>

Candidate Statement:

I have considered the ethical dimensions of the above named research project, and have successfully obtained the necessary ethical approval(s)

Ethical review number(s) from Faculty Ethics Committee (or from NRES/SCREC):

BAL/2019/19/CAN
BAL/2018/157/CAN

If you have *not* submitted your work for ethical review, and/or you have answered 'No' to one or more of questions a) to e), please explain below why this is so:

Signed (PGRS):		Date:	19/08/2020
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