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EDITORIAL

In the first article, Dimitrova et al. examine the impact of globalization on consumer store choice in four transition economies (TEs) in Central and Eastern Europe (Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia). The authors find that in countries that score higher on cultural globalization, consumers tend to shop in modern grocery stores such as supermarkets and hypermarkets. This suggests that direct contact with foreign cultures plays an important role in changing consumers' shopping patterns. Further, younger and more educated TE consumers as well as people who live in bigger towns are more likely to shop in modern grocery stores. Global retail chains should thus seek to penetrate TEs that have achieved a higher level of cultural globalization to take advantage of changing consumption patterns as well as target younger, more educated consumers and consumers who live in bigger towns. At the same time, global retailers that decide to penetrate TEs should not completely ignore host market culture because globalization might reinforce consumer desire to preserve cultural traditions in an attempt to protect their cultural identity. So, global retailers operating in or planning to penetrate TEs should offer a large variety of imported products that will allow TE consumers to satisfy their desire to experience other cultures as well as rely on the experience and local market knowledge of local suppliers in order to fulfill TE consumers' domestic product needs. Store design in TEs that have achieved a higher cultural globalization level should also reflect this blend of the global and the local. In addition, "mom-and-pop" stores in TEs that aim to resist the intense competition brought about by modern stores should offer a more specialized and customized product assortment that will allow TE consumers to experience foreign cultures without abandoning their

local consumption patterns and tastes. In fact, these stores' key strategic advantage is their profound knowledge of the local market and their ability to cater to local consumers' needs. So, they should focus on further developing their capabilities in this area in order to sustain intense foreign competition.

The mediating effect of preference for regular-size models in the relation between individual characteristics and attitude towards the advertisement, attitude towards the brand, and purchase intention is examined by Ketelaar et al. Past studies indicate that personal differences may influence the preference for regular-size models. The first personal characteristic that might influence the preference for regular-size models is BMI. The second personal characteristic that might influence the preference for regular-size models is age. The third personal characteristic that might influence for regular-size models is self-confidence. Closely related to this is body satisfaction. One might expect that women who are dissatisfied with their own bodies will feel uncomfortable when confronted with seemingly perfect thin models. The final characteristic is internalization of social attitudes toward appearances. In the light of these, the authors postulate that the preference for regular-size models mediates the relation between individual characteristics and persuasion variables. It is further stated that a higher BMI is related to higher liking of regular-size models. Lower age, self-confidence, internalization of social attitudes and body satisfaction are related to higher liking of regular-size models.

The study used a three-part online survey. In the first stage, participants answered questions about their preference for either slim or regular-size models. Second, the study tested the effect of preference for models in ads on persuasion variables such as attitude towards

the ad, attitude towards the brand, and purchase intention. The participants saw two ads featuring regular-size woman from the “Time for Real Beauty” campaign and were asked if they knew the campaign. Participants who indicated that they did not know the campaign were excluded from the analysis. To control whether participants actually perceived the models as regular-size, they were asked to describe the size of the models in this campaign. The research agency TNS NIPO randomly selected 726 female participants from a database. Of those selected, 72.3% (n=525) returned the online questionnaire and 59% (n=428) participated in the study. Participants received an incentive of 5 Euros.

Study findings indicate that women prefer regular-size models more when they have higher BMI, lower self-confidence, and lower internalization of the thin ideal; in addition, preference for the regular-size model is in turn associated with a more positive attitude towards the ad and attitude towards the brand, as well as increased purchase intention.

Industrial marketing research has for a long time ignored the case of subcontracting. Now today, it seems that a specific approach could really give results in industrial companies. Blanc and Chassagne propose to analyze, to build, and to develop a strategic marketing model through a longitudinal perspective. A main result is to get a new marketing mix concept applied to a new typology of subcontractors.

In the age of the relationship marketing paradigm and lovemarks as the ultimate brand positioning, practitioners are required to understand and reflect in their communication what a loved brand is and how this relationship between a specific brand and the customer is unique and also different from any interpersonal love relationship. The proposed conceptual model by Ezgi Merdin emphasizes the most important antecedents of brand love and thus represents the points of action in order to leverage the brand. The dimensions provided

under the concept of brand love are points of investigation to determine the lovability of the brand. For example, the intimacy dimension can be measured via the consumers’ willingness to disclose information as part of CRM efforts of a certain brand. The strategic outcomes part of the conceptual model provides information about the strategic value of creating and nourishing a loved brand and thus helps justifying the marketing expenses and empowering the CMOs (chief marketing officers). For example, any investment in social media is prone to be seen as sunk costs financially, whereas realizing that positive WOMM is a strategic positive outcome of a loved brand, any effort to create brand communities and aligning marketing tactics in synchronization with the demands or reactions of those powerful groups that are in love with your brand is a winning step.

The current brand environment, where companies are constantly losing their power over controlling the perception of their brand at various levels and populations (Iglesias & Bonet, 2012), like the context in which the consumer first encountered the brand, which functionality it fulfilled, which life-cycle the consumer (or the brand) was in, makes it more difficult to persuade and sustain consumers.

Every critical touch point through the cycle of a relationship is of critical value, and once the attributes of the brand attract the consumer to fall in love, their maintenance by the company over time is perceived as the brand deserving and winning the love. Therefore, being a loved brand requires a total organizational mindset that deals with the production processes, innovative capacity, packaging, and pricing decisions.

Enjoy reading the journal!

Erdener Kaynak
Editor-in-Chief

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ARTICLES

Globalization and Consumer Store Choice in Central and Eastern European Transition Economies

Boryana V. Dimitrova
Bert Rosenbloom
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ABSTRACT. The manuscript examines the impact of globalization on store choice in four Central and Eastern European transition economies. Using data from the World Bank's World Development Indicators, we find two underlying dimensions of globalization, cultural and technological, in the four countries included in the study. We then estimate a multinomial model and find that cultural globalization affects store choice in the hypothesized direction.

KEYWORDS. Store choice; globalization; transition economies; multinomial probit

INTRODUCTION

Globalization refers to the cross-border flow of people, capital, goods, and knowledge which can lead to the internationalization of markets as well as to the emergence of a global consumer culture (Appadurai, 1990; Kiggundu, 2002; Bird & Stevens, 2003; Dreher, 2006; Krishnan, 2006). So, globalization not only involves cross border trade and investment, but can also influence consumption habits, tastes, and preferences because it enables consumers to experience diverse cultures and become acquainted with consumption practices prevalent in other countries. Recently, globalization has become a powerful force worldwide, but even more so in former communist nations of Central and Eastern Eu-

rope. These countries, having undergone major economic, social, and political reforms, are frequently referred to as transition economies (TEs). As TEs are integrated into the world economy, globalization leads to changes in consumer living standards and shopping behavior (Reinartz, Dellaert et al. 2011). In particular, it has been shown that globalization improves the economic development of TEs and affects TE consumers' global brand purchase likelihood as consumers are exposed to consumption trends and products prevalent in developed economies (Cernat & Vranceanu, 2002; Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2008; Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2011). Globalization may also be an important determinant of store choice because "the retail environment in numerous countries has been subject to the

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influence of globalization forces” (Reinartz, Dellaert, Krafft, Kumar, & Varadarajan, 2011, p. S53). Specifically, globalization has made possible the operation of global retail chains in TEs that act as agents for cultural change and, hence, tend to foster changes in shopping patterns among TE consumers (Coe & Hess, 2005; Dawson, 2007).

Consumer store choice has been examined by marketing scholars studying retail strategy and structure as well as by consumer behavior researchers who focus on the underlying consumer decision processes associated with consumer preferences in store selection (see, for instance, Yavas, Kaynak, & Borak, 1981; Bawa & Ghosh, 1999; Fox, Montgomery, & Lodish, 2004; and Carpenter & Moore, 2006). Understanding consumer store choice is especially important today as global retailers expand their operations in a growing number of countries and as they attempt to adjust their store formats to changing consumer needs. Further, understanding store choice decisions is important because consumer store choice plays an important role in determining the retail structure that emerges in the trading areas where consumers shop (Yavas, Kaynak et al., 1981; Ho and Sin, 1987; Kaynak & Kara, 1992). Retail structure, in turn, affects the price, quality, and assortment of products available to consumers (Miller, Reardon et al., 1999).

The purpose of this paper is to examine the impact of globalization on consumer store choice in several TEs in Central and Eastern Europe (Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia). We picked these countries because we believe they capture the different stages of economic development and globalization evident in CEE. We are particularly interested in the relationship between globalization and consumer preference to shop in modern stores, or large retail chains such as supermarkets and hypermarkets, vs. “mom-and-pop” stores, which are small, independent, single proprietor stores. The main contribution of this study

is delineating the relationship between globalization at the country level and consumer store choice. In addition, using the World Bank’s World Development Indicators (WDI) database, we find two dimensions of globalization: cultural globalization and technological globalization. Although these two globalization dimensions have been previously discussed by marketing scholars, there are not any empirical measures of cultural and technological globalization. Hence, the variables used to capture cultural and technological globalization can be used by marketing scholars in the future.

In the following sections, we review the relevant literature and present our hypotheses. Next, we explain our methodology, develop our empirical model, and discuss the results. We conclude with a summary of our findings, implications, and directions for future research.

BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Before examining the relationship between globalization and store choice, we briefly review the existing literature on store choice which has focused almost exclusively on demographics.

Consumer Demographics and Store Choice

For well over a half century, consumer store choice has been examined almost exclusively in terms of its relationship to demographic variables such as age, income, education, and several others (see Table 1). Data for measuring demographic variables are widely available, relatively easy to collect and represent simple and straightforward constructs such as the age or per capita income of a given consumer. Yet these simple demographic constructs have provided substantial insight into complex patterns of consumer behavior that underlie store choice because certain demographics are highly correlated to store

Table 1. Demographic Variables Examined in Store Choice Studies

Authors	Demographic variables examined	Demographic-related shopping behavior
Lambert (1979)	Age	Older consumers prefer shopping in stores where the store personnel treats them with respect and patience and can provide them with additional product information, stores where they can easily locate products, stores where they can purchase products in smaller packages, and stores that are in close proximity to their home
Yavas, Kaynak, and Borak (1981)	Marital status, employment, age, household size, number of children in family	Consumers of different marital status, age, household size, and employment occupations are equally likely to shop in supermarkets
Zeithaml (1985)	Gender, female working status, age, marital status, income	Females are more likely to shop in supermarkets; Older consumers tend to patronize a larger number of stores; Married consumers spend more time planning their shopping trips; Higher income shoppers spend more time shopping
Kopp, Eng, and Tigert (1989)	Age, marital status, employment, occupation, education, and income	Women fashion shoppers show a higher degree of multi-store patronage
East, Harris, Willson, and Lomax (1995)	Gender, number of school-aged children in a household, household size, income, employment status, age, duration of full-time education	People in the 25-44 age bracket are most loyal to supermarkets
McGoldrick and Andre (1997)	Age, gender, family size, household income, occupation	Loyal store customers are middle-aged, married, have a higher income, and a larger family
Bawa and Ghosh (1999)	Household size, employment, household income, household head age	Households with working adults shop less frequently; Larger families shop more frequently; Household head age positively affects shopping trip frequency; Higher income households shop more frequently
Kim and Jin (2001)	Age, family size, education, income, employment status	Consumers with a full-time job are more likely to shop in multinational discount stores than in domestic stores
Straughan and Albers-Miller (2001)	Age and gender	Men are more loyal to domestic retailers than women; Age does not affect domestic retail loyalty

Rodriguez, Berges, Casellas, Di Paola, Garrido, and Gentila (2002)	Household income, household size, household head age, number of children under 14 years, household head education, household head gender	Higher income households tend to shop in supermarkets; Less educated and older consumers tend to shop in small stores; Families with fewer children under 14 years shop in supermarkets
Moschis, Curasi, and Bellenger (2004)	Age	Older consumers tend to shop in stores where they can receive special assistance such as valet parking, delivery, and carry-out assistance with packages; Older consumers patronize stores that are close to their work and/or home and that offer a familiar brand assortment
Fox, Montgomery, and Lodish (2004)	Family size, income, education, number of children under 6 years, home ownership, female employment status	Family size affects consumer store preferences; More educated consumers patronize fewer stores; Home owners are less likely to shop in drug chain stores
Carpenter and Moore (2006)	Education, income, household size	Higher income consumers shop in specialty grocery stores; Smaller households tend to shop in supermarkets; Less educated and lower income consumers as well as larger households shop in supercenters; More educated and higher income consumers prefer shopping in warehouse formats
Prasad and Aryasri (2011)	Gender, age, marital status, occupation, monthly household income, family size	All demographic factors included in the study except marital status affect store format choice
Goldman, Ramaswami, and Krider (2002)	Home size, number of non working adults in a household, car ownership	Consumers who own a car are more likely to shop in supermarkets and superstores than in small stores; The number of nonworking adults in a household and home size negatively affect consumer preference to shop in supermarkets and superstores

choice behavior. In particular, age, income, and education have been shown to be especially important predictors of store choice.

Age. Older people shop more frequently, so they tend to show a preference for smaller, neighborhood stores because such stores are located in close proximity to their homes as well as to other stores (Ingene & Brown, 1987; Bawa & Ghosh, 1999; Moschis, Curasi et al., 2004). This is particularly true in TEs where older consumers often lack the resources necessary to travel long distances and purchase large quantities of products at once (Kaynak & Cavusgil, 1982; Veeck & Burns, 2005; Diaz, Lacayo et al., 2007; Uncles, 2010). In addition, some important factors that affect the store choice behavior of older consumers are in-store assistance, the opportunity to socialize, and sales personnel's friendliness. Smaller stores can often ensure individual customer assistance because the relatively small sales area does not allow a large number of people to shop in the store at the same time. Moreover, frequent patrons of small stores are able to establish a close relationship with store personnel as well as other store patrons (Goldman, Krider et al., 1999; Zinkhan, Fontenelle et al., 1999; Lo & Lin, 2001). Hence, older consumers are more likely to shop in smaller stores.

In contrast, younger consumers tend to prefer one-stop shopping because they are typically time poor, and thus try to minimize the number of shopping trips they make (Yavas, Kaynak et al., 1981; East, Harris et al., 1995; Messinger & Narasimhan, 1997; Veeck & Burns, 2005). Further, younger consumers, especially in TEs where this consumer segment tends to be better educated and more affluent, have the capacity to purchase greater product quantities per shopping trip (Cui & Liu, 2001; Veeck & Burns, 2005; Hung, Gu et al., 2007). Age differences in TEs also reflect generational differences in terms of values and behavior, foreign brand usage, and openness

to other cultures (Inglehart & Baker, 2000; Hung, Gu et al., 2007; Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2008). For example, younger consumers in TEs tend to be more culturally open, more willing to adopt Western consumption practices, and more eager to experience foreign brands (Hung, Gu et al., 2007; Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2008). Hence, they are more likely to shop in modern stores because these retailers offer one-stop shopping convenience, in addition to a greater foreign product assortment and the opportunity to experience Western-style shopping.

Income. Higher income consumers prefer shopping in larger, modern retailers because their opportunity cost of time is high and so they are able to shop less frequently, but buy more on each shopping trip (Sampson & Tigert, 1992; Messinger & Narasimhan, 1997; Rodriguez, Berges et al., 2002; Fox, Montgomery et al., 2004; Veeck & Burns, 2005; Carpenter & Moore, 2006; Uncles, 2010). Such consumers are also more likely to engage in leisure activities and, hence, try to spend less time shopping (Zeithaml, 1985). Moreover, wealthier consumers in TEs are more exposed to different media, more willing to try new products, and more eager to explore foreign cultures through the purchase of imported products (Crask & Reynolds, 1978; Cui & Liu, 2001; Hung, Gu et al., 2007). This has led to widespread acceptance of modern retailers among the higher income segments in these countries (Rodriguez, Berges et al., 2002; Dries, Reardon et al., 2004; D'Andrea, 2010; Uncles, 2010).

In contrast, smaller stores in TEs serve the needs of lower income consumer segments. First, smaller stores are easily accessible for this consumer segment because many lower income consumers do not own cars and, hence, prefer to shop in stores that are within walking distance of their home. Second, small stores tend to extend credit to regular customers and are often able to offer lower prices be-

cause the simple facilities and fast product turnover of these stores allow them to reduce their costs (Goldman, Krider et al., 1999; Goldman, 2000; Lo & Lin, 2001; Diaz, Lacayo et al., 2007). So, lower income consumers often turn to small stores for the majority of their shopping needs.

Education. Highly educated consumers tend to have more sophisticated needs, to be knowledgeable about more products and brands available on the market, and to seek more variety when shopping (Henry, 2005; Ustuner & Holt, 2010). Moreover, educated consumers, especially in TEs, are eager to explore diverse cultural experiences and engage in consumption practices that set them apart from others (Holt, 1998; Ratchford, 2001; Henry, 2005; Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2008; Ustuner & Holt, 2010). Therefore, such consumers are active seekers of diversity in the marketplace, which is often expressed through the purchase of different products and, hence, a preference for shopping in modern stores that offer a larger product variety in general and a larger variety of imported products in particular (Belk, 1988; Ustuner Holt, 2010).

Next, we discuss different forces of globalization and how they affect consumption behavior. Based on this review, we are then able to delineate the relationship between globalization and store choice and arrive at a globalization scale that we use to test the relationship between globalization and store choice.

Globalization Forces

As described earlier, globalization refers to the cross-border flow of people, capital, goods, and knowledge, which can lead to the internationalization of markets as well as to the emergence of a global consumer culture (Appadurai, 1990; Kiggundu, 2002; Bird & Stevens, 2003; Dreher, 2006; Krishnan, 2006; Dreher, Gaston et al., 2008). Some of the major forces that have contributed to higher lev-

els of globalization worldwide are (1) increased international travel, (2) the flow of capital and the marketing activities of global corporations, (3) the flow of goods and services, (4) advanced technology, and (5) better global communications (Ger & Belk, 1996; Holton, 2000; Keohane & Nye, 2000; Alden, Steenkamp et al., 2006; Dreher, Gaston et al., 2008; Paliwoda & Slater, 2009).

International Travel. Contact with tourists and the ability to travel abroad as well as to communicate with relatives and friends who live outside one's home country allow consumers to develop an "international social network" and gain exposure to cultures different from their own (Ger & Belk, 1996; Alden, Steenkamp et al., 2006; Craig & Douglas, 2006; Nijssen & Douglas, 2008). This stimulates consumer desire and willingness to adopt consumption habits prevalent in other countries. For example, Nijssen and Douglas (2008) find that awareness of and support for international consumer-related social and ethical issues influence store image perceptions. Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (2006) show that what they refer to as mass migration exposure (i.e., traveling to outside cultures, having social contacts with foreigners and friends and family who have lived or live abroad) positively affects consumer attitudes towards global brands. Further, Ger and Belk (1996) argue that the influx of tourists in less economically developed countries has led to changes in consumption habits because international travelers "act as walking billboards for luxury consumption of their home cultures" (p. 281). Craig and Douglas (2006) point out that "people who have been exposed to other cultures...through living in or traveling to other cultures, will exhibit adaptability to different culture systems" (p. 333-334).

Flow of Capital and the Marketing Activities of Global Corporations. The flow of capital in the form of foreign direct investment (FDI) and the marketing activities of global corpora-

tions also contribute to higher globalization levels. For example, FDI in TEs helps these countries to integrate into both the European and the world economies (Pournarakis & Varsakelis, 2004; Zorska, 2005; Rugraff, 2008). This leads to higher standards of living and changes in consumption patterns. Moreover, FDI makes possible the transfer of advanced technology and managerial know-how into a given country (Djankov & Hoekman, 2000; Bosco, 2001; Albuquerque, Loayza et al., 2005). Higher FDI levels often serve as an indicator of a higher degree of technological and managerial sophistication of the host country and attract more global corporations seeking growth and expansion (Al-Sadig, 2009; Deichmann, 2010). Once global corporations penetrate a host market, they engage in marketing activities designed to stimulate consumer demand and “educate” consumers about Western consumption practices (Ger & Belk, 1996; Holton, 2000). Thus, these firms essentially create new consumer needs.

Flow of Goods and Services. The flow of goods and services across borders is also an important globalization force because people are able to experience foreign cultures through the consumption of imported products and services (Dreher, 2006; Krishnan, 2006). For example, products that are rich in cultural meaning such as movies, music, and books enable consumers to gain exposure to the cultural practices of other people (Ger & Belk, 1996; Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Craig, Douglas et al., 2005). In other words, the flow of culturally rich goods and services across national borders fosters openness to other cultures. Thus, consumers worldwide become active seekers of cultural diversity in the marketplace, which is expressed through the purchase of foreign products and services (McCracken, 1986; Belk, 1988; Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2008; Ustuner & Holt, 2010).

Technological Change and Advances in Global Communications. Consumers can not only

directly experience foreign cultures through travel and contact with people from other countries, but also indirectly learn about different cultures thanks to the rapid pace of technological change and advances in global communications (Ger & Belk, 1996; Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Craig & Douglas, 2006; Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2008; Cleveland, Laroche et al., 2009). Hence, these two factors are important globalization forces. Improvements in technology such as the spread of the Internet and substantial phone network upgrades have facilitated contact with foreign cultures as well as communication with relatives and friends living abroad. Further, the diffusion of global communications through the Internet, global television networks, and other media such as newspapers and the telephone has had a major impact on “the visibility of foreign ideas” (Appadurai, 1990; Ger & Belk, 1996; Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Nijssen & Douglas, 2008). Therefore, people do not need to leave their home or workplace in order to find out how consumers in other countries live or what their value systems and consumption habits are (Hannerz, 1990; Walker, 1996; Craig & Douglas, 2006; Paliwoda & Slater, 2009).

Globalization and Store Choice

Although demographics have been shown to be an important determinant of consumer store choice in many countries around the globe, in Central and Eastern European TEs, globalization may also affect store choice through its impact on consumption habits, tastes, and preferences (Kaynak & Cavusgil, 1982; Kaynak, 1988). In particular, consumer patronage of modern stores in developing nations, one category of which are TEs, is to a significant extent determined by the degree to which modern stores can adequately satisfy consumer needs (Kaynak & Cavusgil, 1982; Lau & Lee, 1988; Reinartz, Dellaert et al., 2011). In other words, consumers have to “ac-

cept” a given type of store before they start patronizing it (Kaynak, 1979; Goldman, 1981). We believe that globalization is one of the main forces behind the changes in shopping patterns and consumer preferences currently taking place in TEs. Through contacts with family and friends abroad, international travel, improvements in global communications, and the marketing operations of global corporations, globalization enables TE consumers to experience diverse cultures and get acquainted with consumption patterns prevalent in developed economies (Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2008; Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2011). Such consumption behavior changes in TEs can lead to consumer acceptance and increased patronage of modern retailers.

Globalization also fosters openness to other cultures, which affects consumer behavior (Hannerz 1990; Cannon and Yaprak 2002; Skrbis, Kendall et al. 2004). In particular, people who are more open to other cultures are more likely to purchase foreign products as well as adopt an innovation (Gatignon, Eliashberg et al., 1989; Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Nijssen & Douglas, 2008; Cleveland, Laroche et al., 2009). Similarly, a higher degree of globalization in TEs leads to changes in consumer shopping patterns. We argue that because of globalization, many TE consumers prefer shopping in modern retail stores. First, modern stores offer a wide variety of imported products and global brands. When consumers shop in these stores, they gain, at least indirectly, exposure to foreign cultures. In addition, through the consumption of global brands, consumers in TEs feel connected to “an imagined global community” because global brands provide a vehicle for participation in the global world (Holt, Quelch et al., 2004; Cova, Pace et al., 2007; Strizhakova, Coulter et al., 2011). Modern retailers provide the means of purchasing global brands by offering a wide selection of globally branded products. Further, modern stores are a retail format innovation (Zimmerman, 1955;

Goldman, 1981) and, in the case of TEs, this retail innovation is transferred from abroad through the operations of global retail chains that have penetrated TEs as a result of the opening of these nations to international trade and foreign investment (Gielens & Dekimpe 2007; Reinartz, Dellaert et al., 2011). So, modern stores allow TE consumers to get exposed to global consumption trends. That is, by shopping in modern stores, TE consumers are able to mimic the consumption habits of consumers in more economically developed countries where modern retailing has become part of consumers’ lifestyle. Thus, global retail chains act as agents of cultural change in TEs by allowing TE consumers to become exposed to new (for them) store formats and consumptions habits (Coe & Wrigley, 2007; Dawson, 2007; Reinartz, Dellaert et al., 2011).

Additionally, globalization should stimulate consumer patronage of larger modern stores such as hypermarkets more than patronage of smaller stores such as supermarkets. Hypermarkets were first introduced in TEs by global retail chains such as Metro Cash and Carry and Carrefour, among others, at the end of the 1990s and early 2000s when TEs had already achieved substantial progress toward the establishment of a free market economy as well as a progress towards globalization (Dawson & Henley, 1999; Dawson, 2001). Supermarket chains were introduced by domestic retail firms in TEs almost immediately after the fall of Communism. Supermarket growth in TEs though was stimulated mainly when global retail chains started penetrating these markets during the mid to late 1990s because these retail powers fostered improvements in the operations of domestic supermarket chains (Dawson, 2007). In particular, retail competition intensified when foreign retailers started penetrating TEs, thus requiring domestic supermarket chains to innovate (Durand, 2007; Di Gregorio, Thomas et al., 2008). Additionally, foreign retailers made possible the transfer of advanced retail technology in TEs,

thus further helping improve domestic supermarket operations (Zinkhan, Fontenelle et al., 1999; Baron, Harris et al., 2001; Bianchi & Mena, 2004). So, once globalization progress was in place, TE consumers were gradually exposed to western-style supermarkets. So, we believe that the impact of globalization on consumer tendency to shop in supermarkets rather than in “mom-and-pop” stores is smaller than the impact of globalization on consumer tendency to shop in hypermarkets rather than in “mom-and-pop” stores. Based on the discussion above, we argue that:

H₁: Globalization is positively related to shopping in modern stores in TEs.

H₂: Globalization is positively related to shopping in larger modern stores in TEs.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The data for the study were obtained from the 2009 Shopping Monitor CEE study conducted annually by INCOMA GfK. INCOMA GfK is a Czech company that conducts research projects in CEE. Its competencies are mainly in the areas of retail and distribution, shopper behavior, regional analyses, real estate development, industrial and B2B research, and hospitality. The survey was conducted through a network of systematically trained interviewers asking questions in a representative randomly chosen sample of households. The interviews were conducted at the respondents' homes. The person answering the questionnaire was always the one doing the most grocery shopping (15 to 79 years of age). The interviews were conducted in accordance with a structured, previously prepared questionnaire. The collected data was subject to multi-factor weighting in order to arrive at a rigorously characteristic random sample representing the analyzed group (i.e. the population of each of the countries).

The countries included in our sample are Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia. We picked these four countries for the following reasons. First, we wanted to include in our sample CEE countries from the first (2004) and second (2007) wave of EU accession. Slovakia, Poland, and Hungary joined the EU in 2004 while Bulgaria in 2007. Second, out of the first wave countries, Slovakia is the most economically advanced country. Poland has considerably improved after its EU accession, but it has not yet reached the level of economic development of the other first wave countries. Hungary has generally been considered as better performing, compared to other CEE countries, thanks to earlier (i.e., prior to 1990) liberalization reforms. Bulgaria, although gradually improving, has lagged behind the other three countries in terms of economic development and globalization. So, we believe that these four countries capture the different stages of economic development and globalization evident in CEE. The total sample size is 3,326 (952 in Bulgaria, 667 in Hungary, 690 in Poland, and 1,017 in Slovakia).

Measurement

Store Choice. Store choice is a categorical variable indicating consumer tendency to shop in hypermarkets, supermarkets, and “mom-and-pop” stores, respectively. INCOMA GfK defines a hypermarket as a store that has more than fifteen cash desks, offering a wide variety of non-food products, a supermarket as a store that has between four and fifteen cash desks, offering mainly food products, and a “mom-and-pop” store as a sole proprietor store with attendance, offering various food products. Respondents were asked about the name of the store where they did most of their grocery shopping as well as the type of store where they did most of their grocery shopping. Major retailers in each country were classified in advance into one of three store type categories. Whenever a respondents indicated that

they did most of their shopping in a store not included in the list of major retailers, they were asked to indicate the type of the store (i.e., hypermarket, supermarket, or “mom-and-pop” stores) where they did most of their grocery shopping. Descriptive statistics on the percentage of consumers within the sample who tend to shop in each of the three store formats as well as the 2009 market share of each store format at the country level are shown in Table 4.

Demographics. In the present study, we control for the following demographic variables – age, family income, and education. We also control for town size because we think that this variable is relevant in the context of the study. That is, smaller towns in TEs are served mainly by small stores because they are not attractive enough for modern retailers and because the population in these areas differs in terms of consumption habits and income level from people who live in metropolitan areas (Diaz, Lacayo et al., 2007; Reinartz, Dellaert et al., 2011).

Age. Age is a dummy variable where 1 corresponds to the under 29 years and 30-39 years age groups while 0 corresponds to the 40-49 years, 50-59 years, and 60 years and more age groups.

Income. In the original CEE Shopping Monitor Study, income is measured as respondents’ household income based on different income brackets in the four sampled countries. We generated a dummy variable for the income variable where 1 corresponds to higher household income and 0 to middle and lower household income. The four highest income brackets in each country fall into the higher household income group. All income brackets below the minimum wage in a given country fall into the lower household income group (minimum wage statistics for Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, and Slovakia were obtained

from Eurostat). All other income brackets fall into the middle household income group.

Education. Education is measured on a 1-4 scale corresponding to different levels of education (elementary, secondary school with no graduation (skilled), secondary school with graduation, and university). We should note that in the initial multinomial probit model we included additional demographic variables such as gender, household size, and the number of children under 14 years. However, none of these variables was statistically significant, so in the interest of parsimony, we decided to drop them.

Control Variable

Town Size. We include town size as a control variable because modern stores tend to prevail in larger towns in TEs while smaller stores in smaller towns. Town size is measured on a 1-6 scale corresponding to different town sizes (under 1,000 inhabitants, 1,000-4,999 inhabitants, 5,000-19,999 inhabitants, 20,000-99,999 inhabitants, more than 100,000 inhabitants, and capital city).

Globalization. It has been argued that there are multiple dimensions of globalization such as cultural, economic, political, and intellectual globalization (Keohane & Nye, 2000; Krishnan, 2006; Dreher, Gaston, et al. 2008). Hence, after an extensive overview of scholarly research on the sources of globalization, we decided to conduct exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on variables obtained from the WDI database in order to identify the underlying dimensions of globalization. The data were obtained for the period 1991-2009 for the four CEE countries included in the study. The following variables are included in the EFA: (1) international tourism, number of arrivals (TOURARR); (2) international tourism, number of departures (TOURDEPT); (3) international tourism receipts (current USD)

Table 2. Exploratory Factor Analysis Variables

	TOURARR R	TOURDEP T	TOURRE C	AIRDEP T	NEWS P	FDIINF L	MGOODS S	INTVCTR F	INTU S	COMP
TOURARR	1.00									
TOURDEP T	0.91	1.00								
TOURREC	0.98	0.89	1.00							
AIRDEPT	0.88	0.85	0.80	1.00						
NEWSP	-0.39	-0.46	-0.44	-0.28	1.00					
FDIINFL	0.89	0.91	0.87	0.73	-0.44	1.00				
MGOODSS	0.86	0.85	0.81	0.92	-0.20	0.80	1.00			
INTVCTRF	-0.13	0.11	-0.14	0.00	0.27	0.09	0.27	1.00		
INTUS	-0.08	0.16	-0.07	0.07	-0.08	0.13	0.30	0.63	1.00	
COMP	-0.15	0.12	-0.16	0.01	0.08	0.08	0.28	0.86	0.91	1.00

Table 3. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Variables	Mean	S.D.	Factor 1	Factor 2	Cronbach α	Extracted Variance
TOURARR	7,402,914.89	6,494,383.74	0.98			
TOURDEPT	18,046,603.77	17,679,677.01	0.96			
TOURREC	3,745,125,000.00	2,955,437,547.82	0.96			
AIRDEPT	26,705.24	22,804.04	0.90			
NEWSP	141.26	39.50	-0.48			
FDIINFL	5,554,566,360.75	11,481,709,222.95	0.92			
MGOODSS	41,913,663,082.82	45,041,282,860.17	0.90		0.88	55.19
INTVCTRF	47.77	26.14		0.90		
INTUS	15.55	18.88.		0.89		
COMP	10.01	11.65		0.99	0.94	27.60

(TOURREC); (4) air transport, registered carrier departures worldwide (AIRDEPT); (5) foreign direct investment, net inflow (BoP current USD) (FDIINFL); (6) imports of goods and services (BoP current USD) (MGOODSS); (7) daily newspapers per 1000 people (NEWSP); (8) international voice traffic (minutes per person) (INTVCTRF); (9) internet users per 100 people (INTUS); and (10) personal computers per 100 people (COMP). TOURARR, TOURDEPT, TOUREREC, and AIRDEPT capture international travel from and to TEs (Ger & Belk, 1996; Alden, Steenkamp et al., 2006; Nijssen & Douglas, 2008). FDIINFL captures the flow of capital and marketing activities of global corporations in the sampled countries (Ger & Belk 1996; Keohane & Nye, 2000; Dreher, Gaston et al., 2008; Paliwoda & Slater, 2009). MGOODSS captures the flow of goods and services (Krishnan, 2006; Dreher, Gaston et al., 2008). NEWSP, INTVCTRF, INTUS, and COMP capture technological change and advances in global communications (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Nijssen & Douglas, 2008; Paliwoda & Slater 2009).

The correlations between the variables included in the EFA are reported in Table 1. The EFA results with VARIMAX rotation are shown in Table 2. Two factors emerge from the analysis. The first factor, which we name cultural globalization (CULTGLOB), is composed of TOURARR, TOURDEPT, TOURREC, AIRDEPT, NEWSP, FDIINFL, and MGOODSS while the second factor, which we name technological globalization (TECHGLOB), is composed of INTVCTRF, INTUS, and COMP. The Cronbach α of both factors exceeds the accepted threshold of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978; Hair, Black et al., 2009).

Since the data for the study were collected in 2009, in the final analysis we include the natural log of the 2009 cultural globalization measure for each of the four sampled countries and the natural log of the 2008 technological globalization measure for each country

(2009 data is not yet available for the three measures of this construct). We decided to include the log form of each measure in order to normalize the data and facilitate the interpretation of our findings. The correlation between the independent variables included in the study is shown in Table 3. As can be seen, none of the correlations exceed 0.70, which means that multicollinearity is not a problem here (Hair, Black et al. 2009).

MULTINOMIAL PROBIT MODEL

In order to analyze the hypothesized relationships, we employ a multinomial probit model because our dependent variable is categorical with more than two categories (Long, 1997; Wooldridge, 2002; Greene, 2008). The multinomial probit model is a variation of the multinomial logit model, but it relaxes the independence from irrelevant alternatives assumption, which states that the ratio of probabilities of selecting any two alternatives will not be influenced by adding a third alternative or changing the characteristics of a third alternative (Hausman & McFadden, 1984; Small & Hsiao, 1985; Wooldridge 2002). As this assumption is often violated, which is the case here, the multinomial probit model is preferred because it allows for error correlation across choices (Wooldridge, 2002; Cameron & Trivedi, 2009). The multinomial probit model is specified as follows:

$$U_{ij} = \mathbf{x}'_{ij}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \varepsilon_{ij}, j = 1, \dots, J, [\varepsilon_{i1}, \varepsilon_{i2}, \dots, \varepsilon_{iJ}]$$

Where i indexes individuals, j indexes choice, U is the utility of individual i from making choice j , \mathbf{x} is a vector of independent variables, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is a vector of corresponding coefficients, and ε is the error term, which is normally distributed with $\varepsilon \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$. Alternative q is chosen if and only if $U_{iq} \geq U_{ij}$ for all $j \neq q$. This probability is given by:

$$p_{iq} = \text{Prob}[y_i = q] = \text{Prob}[\varepsilon_{i1} - \varepsilon_{iq} < (\mathbf{x}_{i1} - \mathbf{x}_{i1})'\boldsymbol{\beta}, \dots, \varepsilon_{iJ} - \varepsilon_{iq} < (\mathbf{x}_{iJ} - \mathbf{x}_{iJ})'\boldsymbol{\beta}]$$

We also control for the market share of “mom-and-pop” grocery stores in order to account for supply side factors such as availability of a particular store format in the countries examined here. We obtain the store type market share data from Euromonitor International. We include only the market share of “mom-and-pop” stores in order to avoid multicollinearity problems because the market shares of hypermarkets and supermarkets, respectively, are highly correlated with some of the independent variables. Moreover, the market shares of the different store types examined here are highly correlated with each other. We should note, however, that the results are consistent regardless of the store type market share included in the model.

FINDINGS

The findings of the study are shown in Table 6. We report the exponentiated coefficients. Overall, the model has a good fit as its

log likelihood is -4053.1205 and the χ^2 statistics with 24 degrees of freedom is statistically significant. As expected, we find that there is a positive relationship between cultural globalization and shopping in hypermarkets and supermarkets.

Specifically, our results show that consumers in countries that score higher on cultural globalization exhibit preference for hypermarkets, followed by supermarkets. Technological globalization does not seem to be an important store choice determinant. Hence, H_1 is partially supported while H_2 is supported because we find evidence that globalization stimulates consumer patronage of larger modern stores in TEs.

Not surprisingly, our results also show that younger and more educated consumers as well as people living in bigger towns also tend to shop in modern stores. Family income, however, seems not to be an important determinant of modern store choice in this study.

Table 4. Consumer Store Choice and Store Format, Market Share in Sampled Countries

Store Format	% consumers	2009 Market share (%)			
		Bulgaria	Hungary	Poland	Slovakia
Hypermarkets	26.00	11.73	27.38	18.80	23.48
Supermarkets	27.00	20.65	15.79	14.68	26.30
“Mom-and-Pop” Stores	9.00	37.18	10.78	28.18	10.87

Table 5. Correlation Table: Independent Variables

	Mean	S.D.	Age	Family Income	Education	Town size	Cultglob	Techglob	“Mom-and-pop” market share
Age	0.33	0.47	1.00						
Family Income	0.03	0.17	0.06	1.00					
Educ	2.55	0.95	0.13	0.08	1.00				
Town size	3.52	2.01	0.11	0.00	0.31	1.00			
Cultglob	24.94	0.62	0.03	-0.03	-0.11	-0.19	1.00		
Techglob	4.53	0.66	0.02	0.27	0.01	-0.13	-0.31	1.00	
“Mom-and-pop” market share	0.22	0.12	0.04	-0.17	0.08	0.19	-0.32	-0.54	1.00

Table 6. Multinomial Probit Regression Results

	HYPERMARKET	SUPERMARKET
AGE	0.60*** (0.157)	0.45*** (1.529)
FAMINCOME	0.70 (0.516)	0.56 (0.520)
EDUC	0.55*** (0.076)	0.44*** (0.070)
TOWNSIZE	0.72*** (0.053)	0.68*** (0.051)
CULTGLOB	2.21*** (0.268)	1.23*** (0.266)
TECHGLOB	0.22 (0.199)	0.00 (0.199)
“Mom-and-pop” Market Share	-5.09*** (1.382)	-2.68*** (1.376)
Constant	-57.41 (7.492)	-32.15 (7.438)
N	2054	
Log likelihood	-1486.06	
Wald χ^2 (24)	656.22	
Prob > χ^2	0.000	

Notes: Base category: “Mom-and-pop” stores. Dependent variable: Store choice. Standard errors are in parentheses.
 † Significant at $p < .10$, * Significant at $p < .05$; ** Significant at $p < .01$; *** Significant at $p < .001$.

DISCUSSION

Globalization is a powerful force. It constantly affects our lives as well as businesses around the world. Its impact is particularly evident in the retail sector because globalization influences both consumption habits and the operations of domestic and global retailers. Hence, studying the relationship between globalization and different retailer- and consumer-related issues can offer valuable theoretical and managerial insights. Globalization fosters economic development and helps improve a country’s standard of living (Dreher, 2006; Dreher, Gaston et al., 2008). Consumers’ tastes and preferences thus change, and so

do their expectations because consumers tend to look for ways to encounter foreign cultures through their consumption practices.

In addition, globalization, by facilitating FDI flows, makes possible the transfer of advanced technology and managerial know-how across borders (Bevan & Estrin, 2004; Sohinger, 2005). When global retailers penetrate a market, they bring with them retail technology that may not be available in the host country. These retailers also possess the managerial skills necessary to effectively utilize such technology. Hence, domestic retailers can learn from experienced global retail chains and employ retail practices that can help them improve their performance as well

as consumers' shopping experience (Zinkhan, Fontenelle et al., 1999; Bianchi & Mena, 2004). However, globalization not only leads to an increased desire by consumers to delve into foreign cultures by traveling abroad, purchasing global brands, and engaging in consumption practices prevalent in other countries; it also fosters a desire among people to preserve their own cultural identity and traditions because "despite globalization, the nation remains a key unit of shared experience" (Craig & Douglas, 2006; De Mooij & Hofstede, 2002; Inglehart & Baker, 2000, p. 20). In fact, this trend is even more pronounced in TEs that are characterized by important differences regarding values and beliefs as well as attitudes toward globalization among generational cohorts (Cui & Liu, 2001; Coulter, Price et al., 2003). So, further insights into the impact of such developments on shopping behavior and retail operations in TEs should be gained in the future.

In the current study, we show that globalization does indeed affect consumption habits in TEs, but this is only a first step towards understanding how globalization influences retail phenomena. We investigate the impact of globalization on store choice in four CEE countries. As countries from the region have recently become integrated into the world economy, examining the relationship between globalization and store choice helps us reveal important consumption pattern changes currently taking place in CEE. We find that the degree of cultural globalization in the four TEs examined here affects consumers' store choice. This suggests that direct contact with foreign cultures plays a more important role in changing consumers' shopping patterns than does indirect contact through mass media and technology. Further, younger and more educated TE consumers as well as people who live in bigger towns are more likely to shop in modern stores.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

We find that higher cultural globalization levels in TEs provide a greater potential for modern stores. Global retail chains should thus seek to penetrate TEs that have achieved a higher level of globalization to take advantage of changing consumption patterns. At the same time, global retailers that decide to penetrate TEs should not completely ignore host market culture. As mentioned, globalization leads to changes in consumer tastes and preferences, but not to the extent that cultural norms entirely disappear. In fact, in some cases, globalization might reinforce consumer desire to preserve cultural traditions in an attempt to protect their cultural identity (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2002; Jackson, 2004; Craig & Douglas, 2006). So, global retailers operating in or planning to penetrate TEs should offer a large variety of imported products that will allow TE consumers to satisfy their desire to experience other cultures as well as rely on the experience and local market knowledge of local suppliers in order to fulfill TE consumers' domestic product needs. Store design in TEs that have achieved a higher globalization level should also reflect this blend of the global and the local. In addition, "mom-and-pop" stores in TEs that aim to resist the intense competition brought about by modern stores should offer a more specialized and customized product assortment that will allow TE consumers to experience foreign cultures without abandoning their local consumption patterns and tastes. In fact, these stores' key strategic advantage is their profound knowledge of the local market and their ability to cater to local consumers' needs (Goldman, Krider et al., 1999; Ho & Tang, 2006). So, they should focus on further developing their capabilities in this area in order to sustain intense foreign competition.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Store choice studies to date have examined primarily the impact of demographic factors on consumer store choice. Moreover, almost all of this research has been conducted in developed nations. As globalization has permeated virtually every aspect of consumers' lives, we believe that this force is an important store choice determinant, especially in less economically developed nations because globalization allows consumers in these countries to learn about and experience Western-style consumption practices. Thus, we investigate the impact of globalization on consumer tendency to shop in modern stores in four CEE countries that have recently been integrated into the world economy and have joined the EU. Using data from the World Bank's World Development Indicators, we find two underlying dimensions of globalization: cultural and technological globalization. The results of the study show that only cultural globalization has a positive impact on consumer preference to shop in modern stores. We also find that age, education, and town size are important store choice determinants in the sampled countries.

In the future, the current study could be extended by including consumers from a greater number of countries in order to further test the reliability of the globalization scale developed herein and confirm the generalizability of our findings. It would also be interesting to find out how globalization affects consumer preference to shop in different types of non-grocery stores. Additionally, in the current study we investigate the relationship between globalization at the country level and consumer store choice. So, future research could examine the extent to which globalization at the country level fosters world-mindedness and cosmopolitanism at the individual consumer level and how consumer world-mindedness and cosmopolitanism affect

consumer store choice. Further, consumer demand is heterogeneous not only across TEs, but also within TEs (Cui & Liu, 2001; Hung, Gu et al., 2007; Reinartz, Dellaert et al., 2011). As a result, different store formats often exist and are patronized in different geographic regions of a given country (Kaynak, 1979; Kaynak, 1988). While in this study we examine the overall impact of globalization on consumer store choice in TEs, in the future it would be interesting to examine differences in consumer shopping patterns across different consumer segments in TEs. It is also worth investigating the relationship between store choice and the retail structure available in a given country or even a smaller trade area, such as a city or a small town, and how globalization, by making possible the transfer of advanced retail technology and managerial know-how, affects the operations of "mom-and-pop" stores as well as domestic retail chains in developing countries. Finally, online shopping makes the flow of goods and services across national boundaries almost seamless. It can thus speed up cultural globalization and affect consumer store choice, especially for younger consumers who are very tech savvy. Online shopping allows consumers to purchase products from different parts of the world relatively easily and hence plays a significant role in the diffusion of foreign cultures. It would thus be interesting to find out how online shopping affects cultural globalization and, ultimately, consumer store choice.

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Industrial Marketing: Can Strategic Marketing be Applied to Subcontracting?

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ABSTRACT. For a long time, research in business to business marketing has overlooked subcontracting. It was thought that subcontractors could not build an effective marketing strategy and support it. However, this study shows that tactical and strategic marketing can be practiced by subcontractors. In addition, a competitive advantage could be based not only on technical differentiation but on marketing practices. This is a proactive, autonomous, visible and deliberate form of marketing. This paper focuses on applied research with the aim of offering subcontractors a marketing toolbox.

KEYWORDS. Subcontracting, strategic marketing, networking, relationship marketing, competitive advantage, technology, differentiation

INTRODUCTION

Since the year 2000, industrial marketing research, while continuing to develop, has not devoted much attention to the issue of subcontracting even though it represents a significant economic stake. Indeed, studies of consumer behavior have dominated research and managerial applications. However, research by the IMP Group (Industrial Marketing and Purchasing Group), which originated in Scandinavia, has structured the field and contributed answers to many questions through concepts, models, and studies of networks. While subcontracting is naturally included in fundamental publications from this perspective (Ford, Gadde, Hakansson, Snehota, 2003), we cannot

really claim a clear vision of subcontractor marketing has emerged. This is particularly true for strategy, tactics, and the methods that need to be applied.

The paper proposes an approach based on applied research, not only in order to understand the situation and its underlying questions, but also to provide assistance in making subcontractor marketing decisions. This study started with informal meetings with subcontractors, which rapidly led to more formal interviews and discussions. More specifically, an opportunity arose to observe a subcontracting case in the field of metal turning and forging from 1998 to 2008. From a theoretical standpoint, an effort was made to find a dominant theme linked to the work of the IMP

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Group without overlooking the traditional debate between transactional and relationship marketing. At the end of this ten-year study, we can formulate the following proposal:

- capitalize on changes in the subcontractor decision-making process
- set up the bases for a diagnostic of a subcontracting marketing mix.

THE LONGITUDINAL STUDY

The study can be divided into two sequences. The first part consisted of an analytical phase, illustrated by a trajectory alternating between relationships and transactions. A second diagnostic phase focused on the decision-making process.

The First Period (1998-2004): Alternating Between Relationships and Transactions

The first stage of the study, in 1998, was devoted to observing the European leader in metal turning, a group working essentially for the automobile industry. This initial approach can be described as inductive, based on the traditional case study method (Yin, 1994). This approach was selected in order to focus on an analysis of industrial networks. As Easton (1995) points out, this research method takes into consideration the “embedded” na-

ture of relationships because it enables identification of the forces and actors that make up the network. Nevertheless, from a theoretical standpoint, reference to the IMP Scandinavian model, and particularly Hakansson’s work, led us to abduction i.e. inferring a theoretical framework while continuing our observations. Abduction can generate new ideas *while keeping a theory in mind*, in this case the IMP model. Furthermore, the aim of this approach is to move beyond the traditional debate opposing constructivism and positivism by authorizing an independent analysis of managerial decisions. More specifically, meetings, in-depth interviews, as well as analyses of internal documents made up the material studied. Three cases were examined.

Case #1

This case concerned a site employing 500 people within a large industrial group with a total workforce of 2,200 and 15 factories devoted to several sectors ranging from metal forging to turning and machining. The underlying model is the one developed within the IMP by Hakansson and Snehota (1994/1998). It is based on three layers: activities, actors and resources. It is, in fact, an initial example of a network. At the time, the model was used as in the following chart:

Table 1. Activities, Actors, and Resources

	In the firm	Bond created	Outcome
Activities	Production function Marketing function	Structure of activities	Pooling knowledge
Actors	Technicians Salesmen	Contract between actors	“Network” of actors
Resources	Machines Technology Infrastructures	New productive process	New industrial site

If we consider both the lines and columns of the ARA chart, we end up with interwoven ties and the foundations of a network. In a more detailed way, validation was based on the international development of the industrial

unit through acquisition of a foreign site, namely:

- for the activities layer, pooling of knowledge, French metal turning skills associated with foreign mastery of the local market

- for the actors layer, “networking” through cooperation between foreign salesmen and French technicians
- concerning the resources layer, a new foreign industrial site received machines from the French firm and integrated them in the existing facilities

This case validates the ARA (activities-resources-actors) model.

Moreover, in marketing terms, the traditional demonstration by Morgan and Hunt (1994) has been established: network links are indeed based on a form of confidence. In more general terms, the relationship takes priority over the transaction. It is essentially characterized by: a) a strategic orientation based on differentiation, b) a creative offer produced through joint-development and joint-contracting, and c) sharing a competitive edge through partnership.

Eight years later, in 2004, the same firm found itself in a different situation. Apparently the transaction had replaced the relationship. The rather isolated firm had to cope with global and anonymous sourcing, which considerably threatened the stability of its relations with customers. This fragile strategic position was not founded on differentiation, but on a basic criterion: the capacity to supply high volume at low prices. The network effect seems to have disappeared. Models of activities, actors and resources have their limitations.

What Happened?

First, a market with a small number of buyers and sellers had become a market with many actors, all of them international. Secondly, competition, which was previously known and localized, became much broader (cf. marketplace phenomena and bidding practices that have increased competition). For example, a tender was awarded to a Mexican site that the firm had never heard of. Relationships had become impersonal. The contact and ne-

gotiator are no longer always identified, a case that had been observed inside a large automobile manufacturer. Such a situation was unimaginable in 1998. In terms of strategy and marketing tactics, this represents a dead end. The subcontractor must ride out the storm, incapable of reacting as the network escapes him, a network he has not, at any rate, contributed to build.

In order to confirm this analysis, we met with the manager of the group to which the site we had previously studied belonged. We were surprised to observe that his version was quite different. For the decision-maker, he had “taken over” and the balance of power had been reversed, meaning that the subcontractor was now in a proactive situation. By playing on the complexity of the offer, he now had the possibility of proposing a global product by simply adding tasks and jobs. For example, analysis of a part (an automobile tow hook), can be used to reduce the manufacturer’s demand from 25 to 4 models, thus saving €2 per part. This can be applied to thousands of vehicles. The strength of the offer lies in the “machining+forging+turning” combination. Each of these jobs, when considered separately, no longer offers a comparative advantage. Only the global product is efficient.

Competitiveness is based on a *core business* that combines complexity and skill. Porter’s system of activities (1999) is completely confirmed. There are no key factors to success; instead, we can observe a form of skills engineering rather than reliance on a single skill. In this case, the return to relationship marketing is more pronounced. It also implies an organizational impact: deployment of a specific unit to ensure negotiations and organization of a centralized engineering office inside the industrial group. A single invoicing system reinforces the distance between the subcontractor and the prime manufacturer. This implies, all the same, greater confidence and a certain balance of power. At best, the partners can expand their cooperation. Conse-

quently, this can lead the prime manufacturer, a large automobile group for example, to negotiate with the subcontractor's steel suppliers in his place in order to lower costs. The *core business* is therefore difficult to imitate and provides the subcontractor with a new competitive edge. This approach goes hand in hand with the need to increase productivity, at the purchasing level obviously, but also at the process and logistics levels and, above all, the design level and the overall manufacturing of the product. Prices are only provided for complete units by project managers who are not linked to a particular site and work for the centralized engineering office. Consequently, the negotiations now revolve around a complete set instead of a single part. Therefore, we can observe a form of shared competitive advantage and the creation of joint value. Competitiveness is based on both the complexity and strength of the offer. It is therefore possible to combine differentiation and volume, contrary to the traditional approach to strategy. A complex offer is difficult to imitate and can be applied to large series that enhance its value. A virtuous circle emerges: complexity generates contractualization, which secures investment, which then allows for volume.

Complexity \Leftrightarrow Contractualization \Leftrightarrow
Security \Leftrightarrow Volume

To sum up, analysis of the manager's decisions in 2004 seems to reveal a strategy focused on assembling skills. There is a search for a new form of leverage by the subcontractor and application of a hybrid transactional-relationship model. During the same period, it seemed interesting to confirm this analysis by going outside the framework of the initial study and working on another case study.

Case #2

A new decision-maker was the focus of our research. It concerned a subcontractor em-

ploying around fifty people. The analysis of this firm's practices revealed some surprises. In the beginning, its problem seemed obvious. How can we cope with a commonplace order, expressed by a powerful industrialist, when we are a small firm only capable of producing standardized, low-tech products? It is difficult to respond in terms of joint-development and joint-contracting. In fact, this is where marketing can come into play. The approach is based on two components: a) the choice to satisfy a prime manufacturer positioned on niche markets and small series, for example sports cars or highly specialized assembly equipment, and b) the will to facilitate formulation of the offer by broadening it, for example welding on a complementary part to achieve a complete product.

The consequences of such an approach are the addition of significant added-value and a high level of customer loyalty. The question of price is put in perspective. It is important to note that the subcontractor can apply this approach himself, by calling in turn on a subcontractor. It is also important to note the entire approach is not based on a high level of complexity involving a specialized engineering unit, but on a product-service combination similar to the marketing of consumer goods. The final goal of negotiations is not to limit discussions to the technical part, but to reason on the scale of the finished unit. Emphasis is placed on service. Relationship marketing is still asserted. The exchange system is maintained to a certain extent by the subcontractor. There is a shift in the situation, from dependency to interdependency.

The manager of the second firm seems to present the same typology as the one in the first case, a skills assembler. Yet, while the first manager seemed to base his reasoning on an offer of volume over the long-term and a strategic approach, the second manager seemed to favor a more tactical dimension based on differentiation marketing. The lesson of this first phase is the observation of a stra-

tegit trajectory alternating between relationships and transactions. Thus, the initial phase of the relationship is replaced with a transactional practice that is reiterated in the development of new relations. From a longitudinal perspective, we took up the study again in 2008, to see how the abovementioned cases had evolved. It was important to see whether the reference to a trajectory was still valid four years later and whether the transactional-relationship debate had changed.

The Second Period (2004-2008): A Variety of Models

The two previous cases were the subject of interviews in 2008 in order to grasp the changes in the two entities. Analysis of the metal turning site and the larger group to which it belonged (case #1) can be broken down into two parts: on the one hand, a part concerning the manager and, on the other hand, a part resulting from the former director's move to a more diversified subcontracting firm, independent from the original group. Concerning the complementary case study (case #2) of the small subcontracting firm, its situation appeared to be stable. It was the subject of a new analysis, with the help of the same manager as in 2004.

If we consider the first case, we can observe, first of all, the group had been reorganized with the arrival of foreign investors. Our contact in 2004 was now the head of a different site than the one in the initial study, which had less economic importance in 2008. Four years earlier, this manager had accepted the prevalence of transactions over relationships and insisted on the weakness of the subcontractor's position. Hakansson's initial model, which was confirmed in the 90s, was refuted in 2004. Yet, in 2008 we were confronted once again with a different situation. In the transactional-relationship debate, price remained an essential factor, but it was no longer determinant. Our manager preferred to

emphasize the importance of the relationship's longevity. Marketplaces, which had particularly modified the context of decision-making (international auction systems on the web), had become less influential. The global sourcing model, which was greatly feared in 2004, had not been forgotten, but it was no longer the only reference. Competition, which was still uncertain in 2004, was, on the contrary, clearly identified in 2008 and characterized by a certain level of stability. Key account management was the privileged approach. The markets were less volatile, more contractual, and more confident, and long-term initiatives were expressed within a truly strategic framework.

Despite the "*search for quality parts at the right price*", markets were no longer captive and actors were called into question less often. In fact, we witnessed the renewed popularity of Hakansson's model, which was confirmed once more. Ties had indeed been established between activities, actors, and resources. The system is structured, but it is the network that creates stability rather than the direct intervention of people. For example, buyer turnover is not as important because the same technical teams remain. They ensure the continuity of relationships between prime manufacturers and subcontractors. The idea of systematic non-management of the network converges with recent IMP Group studies that claim a *managed network* is doomed to fail. It does, however, go hand in hand with long negotiations, a key to better relations. According to the manager interviewed, we can even observe a trend towards pseudo-relocation of the sector in France. Thus, a major prime manufacturer prefers working with a firm registered in Bulgaria that, in fact, has its workshops set up in Brittany! To summarize this case, our manager represents the model of the engineer who is locked in the transactional-relationship debate and who is highly attached to a cost-based approach. In fact, he is not very proactive concerning his environment.

To continue in reference to the first case, the former group manager was now president of a holding company with several different businesses, including subcontractors. His interview completed our analysis with a singular perspective. At first, this manager expressed his pessimism concerning the situation of French subcontractors. In his opinion, low cost strategies prohibit any positive changes in the sector. The transactional-relationship debate, illustrated by a trajectory, was falling apart. The essential question had shifted towards service and management. This meant that value was no longer created by applying skills to the product as in the past, but by the development of these skills based on services. Thus, the important thing was to manage supplies, logistics, reserve stocks, and even production control on behalf of the prime manufacturer. For example, our contact had created a specialized unit in the United States to control manufacturing for key accounts. Production on site was no longer ensured, and our manager had become a high-level relationships salesman, optimizing the choice of subcontractors to suit customer demand. These relationships are highly contractualized, both upstream and downstream. The “broker” principle (Burt, 2000) is truly applied. The subcontractor can regain control by developing an extended service and thus reduce his dependency. His methodology becomes his *core business*. He can therefore ensure a high-quality, low-cost supply upstream (on Indian or Chinese markets) by finding the best prices and combine it, downstream, with a quality service that generates value, performed inside a large manufacturing firm (for example, quality control). Here we are at the heart of the transactional relationship or transactionalized relationship model (Lacoste, 2008). However, subcontractors do not use this model exclusively.

In fact, in keeping with the method used in 2004, we took up the example of the specialized subcontractor for our second case in

2008. Four years earlier, we had been surprised by the practices of this firm, which we qualified at the time as a skills assembler strategy. According to the manager, since 2008 nothing had changed. Emphasis is placed on service and differentiation. However, two orientations are developed: on the one hand, low costs, and, on the other hand, specialization in high-technology. The first direction is illustrated by the creation of an engineering office in China with an engineer that describes himself as a supplier of low cost contracts. In the building trade, for example, the subcontractor selects local low cost firms to satisfy European demand. Furthermore, for the second orientation, small high-tech series are produced in France based on a strong product and engineering, for example, batteries for hybrid cars. The aim is to develop strong differentiation, even if this means refusing to supply low-margin customers and settling for lower sales. Emphasis is placed on a relationship founded on a local network, capitalizing on the new needs of existing customers. Work is focused on niches (“things that are difficult to do”, “when there is a problem”, “things that large companies cannot or do not want to do”). These are products with high added-value such as waterproof power outlet covers for luxury hotel pools or stainless steel parts for high-speed trains. This has led a firm with less than 50 employees to become a supplier of thirty different parts for a high-end vehicle produced by a German manufacturer. This can also mean the supply of harness buckles for the New City Fire Department after an international tender is won by a small French company. Dependency on the prime manufacturer is not patently obvious. On the contrary, we can observe real power exercised by the subcontractor. The competitive edge is based on a combination of technical skills, service, and effective sales techniques. In terms of strategy, performing the job is supported by an organization, an internal engineering office capable of designing and making its own pro-

duction tools. At the heart of this organization, middle managers play a special role. The mix is completed by a powerful communications strategy based on participating in trade fairs and the packaging of industrial equipment (“everything the customer sees must be perfect”). For example, the use of new packaging for industrial products can provide an additional competitive edge. It is a type of ad hoc marketing based on specialized subcontracting. In fact, our observation of the firm’s decision, four years earlier, to opt for differentiation marketing is completely confirmed. For the subcontractor, it is important not to imitate others, but to be creative, which is perfectly coherent with differentiation. To conclude these updates in 2008, creation of value through relationship management with an emphasis on service within a channel has been demonstrated. After these changes in the decision-making process, a qualitative typology

can be attempted.

Using these two case studies, three decision models have emerged. The longitudinal analysis of the first case reveals the profile of an engineer locked in the transactional-relationship debate. Attached to a strict definition of the subcontractor’s job, the dominant model for him is based on costs and the alternatives are delocalization or relocalization. This profile can be qualified as an example of **conservative marketing** and it is difficult to imagine a new subcontracting marketing strategy based on this model.

Near the opposite end of the spectrum from this manager, a second profile emerges. It concerns the former general manager of the metal turning group studied in the initial phase and who is currently the president of a holding company of subcontractors.

Emphasis is placed on the character of the broker, the strategic interface.

Table 2. The Study Models

Models	Principle characteristics of the decision-making process	Degree of strategic commitment	Type of model deployed
The conservative’s model	Status quo Passive acceptance of the transactional-relationship debate Little room for marketing	Subcontractor non-strategy	“Rigid” skills management model
The adventurer's model	Seizes short-term opportunities Multiple, changing combinations between transactions and relationships, moving beyond the debate	Assembly of tactics	Unstable skills management model
The long distance navigator’s model	Consistent long-term strategy Creation of a technology and marketing mix based on differentiation Active acceptance of the transactional-relationship debate	Real subcontracting strategy	Stable skills management model

There are numerous combinations, products and services; the skills mix is highly diversified. Once again, the transactional-relationship debate is a thing of the past. Better still, skills are combined both upstream and downstream. In contrast to the previous profile, this one represents an **adventurer** capable of seizing new opportunities.

If we now consider the third model, its dominant features are the expression of a real strategy founded on the long-term and applied to lasting differentiation. Competitiveness, at a high price, is built on marketing and technology is applied to specific niches. This profile can be assimilated into a **long distance navigator** taking part in a specific race that he knows and masters. Table 2 summarizes our attempt at defining a typology.

This longitudinal study over a ten-year period from 1998 to 2008 enabled us to reveal, during an initial phase, a type of strategic trajectory alternating between transactions and relationships and evolving towards a hybrid model. Then, during a second phase, there seemed to be a tendency to move beyond the transactional-relationship debate. The trajectory that had been observed during the previous period had disappeared in favor of a decision-making typology resulting from differentiated itineraries. It is obvious that the results were produced using a purely qualitative approach and they cannot be generalized. However, they provide the outline of an analytical framework for subcontractor marketing. Therefore, it is important to examine the lessons we can learn, not only from an analytical standpoint, but also in terms of a marketing strategy for subcontracting and the tactics that need to be developed.

CONSEQUENCES IN TERMS OF STRATEGIC MARKETING

At the start of our longitudinal analysis, we could not help but observe that the subcontractors were not concerned with marketing

and got along without it. In fact, they essentially accepted the power of the prime manufacturer within a framework of unilateral dependency. Responding to tenders was a forced exercise, limited to the price quality ratio. Their only margin for negotiation was based on a technical or technological response. The transaction was more important than the relationship. The scales were tipped to the prime manufacturer's advantage. On a theoretical level, since relationship marketing replaced transactional marketing, even though we have seen a great deal of research in this area since the seminal work of Morgan and Hunt (1994) and later developments (Möller-Halinen 2000), there have been few articles concerning the specific case of subcontracting. Most studies have come out of the IMP Group and analyze relationships and network effects. The vast and interesting perspective developed by Rumyansteva-Tretyak at the 2003 IMP Conference is one example. In fact, our longitudinal study reveals a form of appropriation of marketing techniques by the subcontractor that does not necessarily fit within an analysis in terms of interdependency and networks. It can be more easily assimilated into the search for a competitive advantage based on the expression of a strategic marketing plan and the deployment of an operational marketing plan.

A Strategic Approach that Needs to be Applied

If we take into consideration the typology defined earlier, only one model seems relevant: the *long distance navigator*. This choice is based on the following characteristics: it is the only decision model expressed over the long term during the entire period studied, and it has ensured the survival of the firm concerned. Indeed, the two other models concern organizations that were modified during the ten-year observation period and are characterized by a degree of instability.

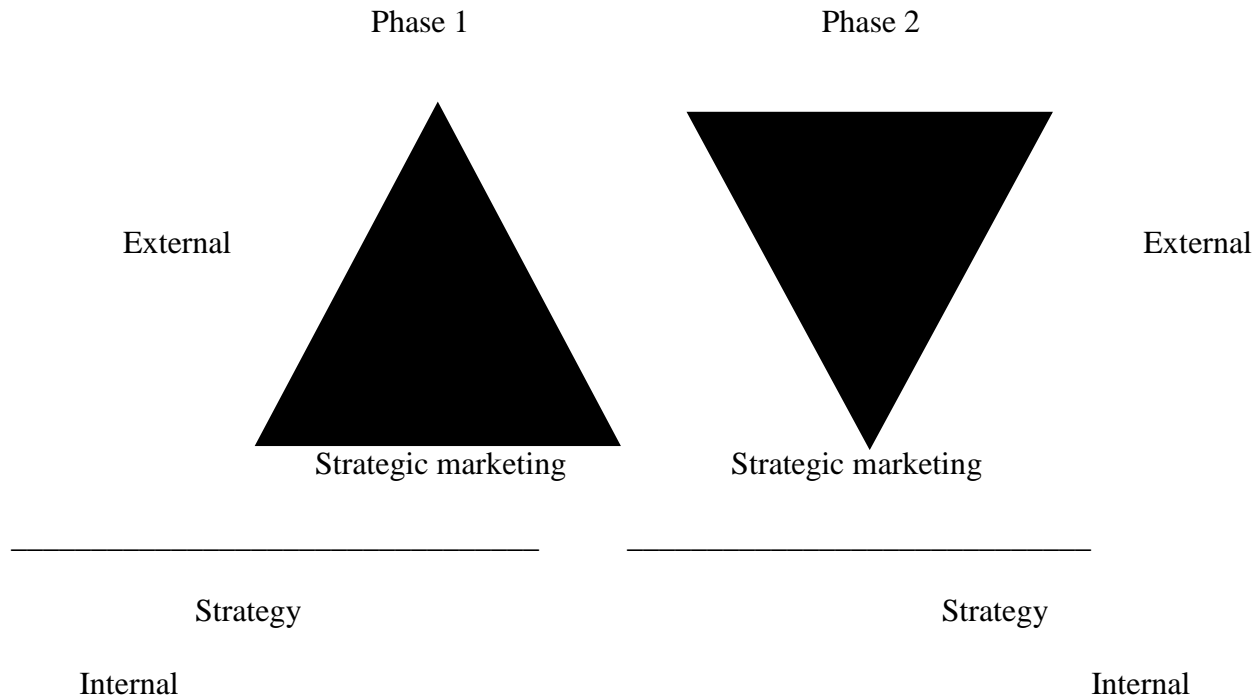
On the contrary, the model selected is based on a stable approach and consistency in decision-making. The founding element is the search for differentiation through a combination of marketing and technology. However, within this tandem, marketing plays the dominant role and is considered a technology in and of itself. This broad strategic vision is a departure from the habits observed in the subcontracting world. We can cite our *conservative* manager as an example. We can easily

see in this approach a reference to the broad vision of technology following the development of the TRM (Technical Resource Management) 20 years ago (Morin 1985). It also involves mastery of a creative offer that supersedes traditional relationships between prime manufacturer and subcontractor. The result is a new framework for actions that can be compared to the previous model in the following chart.

Table 3. The Former and the New Framework for Action

Former framework for action	New framework for action
Absence of strategic marketing Response to an order, to a highly formatted demand Deployment of technology in the strictest sense	Strategic marketing based on the search for differentiation Creative offer Deployment of a marketing/technology tandem or technology broadened to include marketing
Strong dependency	Independence

Figure 1. The Strategic Marketing Framework



In more general terms, the pyramid representing the relationship between strategy and strategic marketing has been turned upside down. Strategic marketing becomes the basis of the strategy and not a simple manifestation of it.

Traditionally in phase 1, strategic marketing is the visible, external manifestation of the strategy, transforming a strategic competitive advantage into a marketing competitive advantage. The sources of the competitive advantage are mainly the firm's resources and skills.

During phase 2, the pyramid is turned upside down, and strategic marketing becomes more important in relation to resources and skills due to the support of a creative offer, designed using good knowledge of the environment. This new model requires the deployment of a suitable operational marketing plan.

Tactics that Need to be Developed

In the search for an operational marketing model, the approach of the *long distance navigator* seems a natural choice. It is characterized, as we have seen before, essentially by an active and visible marketing mix, combined with the deployment of a specific technology. In this context, the product variable designates both the search for ways to differentiate the offer and the choice of niche. The search for exclusivity is based essentially on a broadening of the product in the strictest sense to exceed manufacturer expectations. As for the choice of niche, it reflects the search for differentiation through hyper segmentation applied to very small series. Moreover, it is possible to adopt a high-tech positioning for very sophisticated products with a large profit margin (e.g. sports car parts) and at the same time promote a second "low cost" positioning by setting up a subsidiary in China whose sole purpose is to find sources of parts for large series at the best possible price.

The price variable is also enabled again, since the subcontractor acquires a new capaci-

ty for negotiation and real power in dealing with the customer. In fact, he combines the situation of the specialty subcontractor (whose competitive advantage is based on technology and marketing) with the situation of the large capacity subcontractor who is able to respond to "low cost" demand. These two maneuvers concerning product and price tend to reduce dependency. The transactional-relationship debate is not only accepted, but it is a source of energy rather than the expression of a constraint.

It is important to note that this proposed course of action should not be confused with the emergence of a hybrid model combining transactional and relational dimensions (Covello-Brodier-Danaherp-Johnston, 2002). The relationship spectrum as understood by Grönroos (1994, 2000) is not the most appropriate framework. This is not a transaction-relationship continuum, but the implementation of two parallel, concomitant, and independent initiatives.

If we consider the distribution variable, operability is developed through intermediation rather than the traditional mastery of a distributive function. This means that the subcontractor, as we have seen before, controls the upstream and downstream production processes, for example, by choosing a supply channel or auditing the implementation of manufacturing on the customer's premises. It is important to note that these practices have been observed more specifically for our *adventurer*, who rather cleverly develops the role of a *broker* as defined in social capital theory (Burt, 2000). We can observe similarities in two profiles, the *long distance navigator* and the *adventurer*, which can easily be explained by their common ability to respond quickly to demand and seize new opportunities.

Finally, it is perhaps via the expression of the communication variable that the subcontractor is the most successful in developing his own marketing. Up until now, advertising did not really concern subcontractors. However,

today there is a real desire not only to show the strategy via strategic marketing, but also to communicate directly about the marketing competitive advantage. This is why the *long distance navigator* does not hesitate to sponsor sports and other events that have little to do with traditional B2B marketing. This type of initiative can reach the general public. Fur-

thermore, sometimes a product designed for an exceptional target (as in our previous example of harness buckles for the FDNY) can generate a great deal of publicity. Table 4 summarizes the key points of the marketing tactics that can be applied to subcontracting.

Table 4. Marketing Tactics Applied to Subcontracting

<p>GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE MIX</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Marketing + Technology = offer broadened to include the entire sector - Producer of value at every level of the sector
<p>CHARACTERISTICS OF EACH VARIABLE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Active at the product level Differentiation applied to a niche using a skills mix - Autonomous at the price level Combination of "low cost" (capacity) and high price (specialty) - Visible at the distribution level Role of middle man, both upstream and downstream Distributes skills - Open at the communication level Promotes skills outside the B2B circuit by targeting the end user

Far from encouraging subcontractors to spread themselves thin and create combinations of products and services inspired by the marketing of consumer goods, this table proposes to place the emphasis on skills and their expression. More specifically, it shows the results of including marketing at the heart of the firm's resources.

To conclude, this study allows us to make an initial observation: marketing, whether on a strategic or tactical level, can and should be practiced by subcontractors. Secondly, marketing is the basis of a competitive advantage, just like technological differentiation. By reversing the relationship of dependency with the prime manufacturer, the subcontractor becomes a full-fledged actor within the sector. This form of marketing is active, autonomous, visible, and open. By challenging stereotypes,

it represents a significant departure from the traditional vision of subcontracting. Moreover, the current situation of subcontractors only serves to confirm the need to help managers move in this direction.

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A Few More Ounces? Preference for Regular-Size Models in Advertising

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ABSTRACT. Previous studies have shown the influence of regular-size models in advertisements on women's self-images. This study investigated the effect of the preference for regular-size models on the attitude toward the ad, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention. An online survey among 428 adult women showed that women with a higher BMI, lower self-confidence, and higher internalization of the contemporary beauty ideal, more often prefer regular-size models over slim models. In addition, women who prefer regular-size models over slim ones have a more positive attitude toward advertisements in which regular-size models are shown, a more positive attitude toward the advertised brand, and a higher purchase intention. The results suggest that preference for regular-size models plays a mediating role in the relation between individual characteristics relating to body image and advertising effectiveness.

KEYWORDS. Preference for regular-size models, personal characteristics, attitude toward the advertisement, attitude toward the brand, purchase intention

INTRODUCTION

The Western world promotes an unrealistic image of female beauty, based on the images presented in the media (Orbach, 2005). As Orbach states, "being beautiful means being skinny, having big breasts and long legs." Numerous previous studies have shown that exposure to this ideal of female beauty in the media is related to body image disturbances among women (for reviews see Grabe, Ward, & Hyde, 2008; Groesz, Levine, & Murnen, 2002). Some women and men have tried to refute the female beauty image

that the media pour out on a daily basis. Recently, there have been several initiatives in the fashion industry to reduce the use of underweight models. For example, organizers of the 2005 Madrid fashion week required that models on the catwalk have a minimum weight. Top fashion designers Mark Fast and Marc Jacobs have even banned underweight models from the catwalk. Additionally, in the television program "America's Next Top fashion Model," regular-size models are joining the competition. However, in the advertising world, only Dove seems to use regular-size women in its ad campaigns.

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The effects of using regular-size models in advertisements on women's body image are generally unknown, and they are not necessarily positive (Anschutz, Engels, Becker, & Van Strien, 2009). Similarly, the effects of using regular-size models on advertising effectiveness are also mainly unclear. The present study aims to determine whether individual differences between women underlie differences in preference for a certain body type of advertising models, which in turn affects advertising effectiveness.

Preference for either slim or regular-size models might be an important factor in advertising effectiveness, since research has shown that communicators who are liked are more effective persuaders than those who are not (e.g., Eagly & Chaicken, 1973; Sampson & Insko, 1964). The content of an ad may influence both attitudes towards the ad and towards the brand (e.g., Holbrook & Batra, 1987). According to Coulter and Pinto (1995), consumers who think positively about an ad will have positive feelings about the brand which will enhance the chances of purchase behavior (e.g., Brown & Stayman, 1992; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989). This implies that if consumers prefer regular-size models, they will show a more positive attitude towards ads and brands featuring regular-size models rather than slim ones.

Whether or not women prefer regular models to slim ones might depend on several individual characteristics that are related to body image (see also Groesz et al., 2002). Festinger's Social Comparison Theory (Festinger, 1954) states that people compare themselves to relevant others. Joshi, Herman, & Polivy (2004) and Tiggeman, Polivy, & Hargreaves (2009) argue that all women compare themselves with media models because they expect to be judged according to these standards, but some women feel worse afterwards and others do not. The way slim models make some women feel may influence

their preference for regular-size models. If slim models make a woman feel bad, she will probably prefer to see regular-size models. Therefore, we theorize that personal differences may influence the preference for regular-size models.

The first personal characteristic that might influence the preference for regular-size models is *BMI* (Body Mass Index). Several studies (Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; Henderson-King & Henderson-King, 1997) have shown that BMI is related to the way women compare themselves with models. Heavier women, those with a higher BMI, may feel bad about themselves after seeing a slim model, probably because they experience a discrepancy between their own body and that of the model (Bissell, 2006). Hence, we expect that women with higher BMI scores will prefer regular-size models.

The second personal characteristic that might influence the preference for regular-size models is *age*. Previous studies have related age to the self-image of women after exposure to slim models (Champion & Furnham, 1999; Groesz et al., 2002; Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Tiggeman, 2004). Those studies revealed that younger women are more influenced by slim models than older women, because appearance is more important to women when they are young. Therefore, we expect that younger women will prefer regular-size models.

The third person characteristic that might influence the preference for regular-size models is *self-confidence*. Women who are highly self-confident are less likely to compare themselves with models, because they already "know where they stand" (Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Smeesters & Mandel, 2006; Wilcox & Laird, 2000; Wood, Giordano-Beech, Taylor, Michela, & Gaus 1994). Women lacking self-confidence may compare themselves with models more frequently, leading to feelings of self-doubt: "Am I thin enough?" Hence, we expect that

women with lower self-confidence will prefer regular-size models.

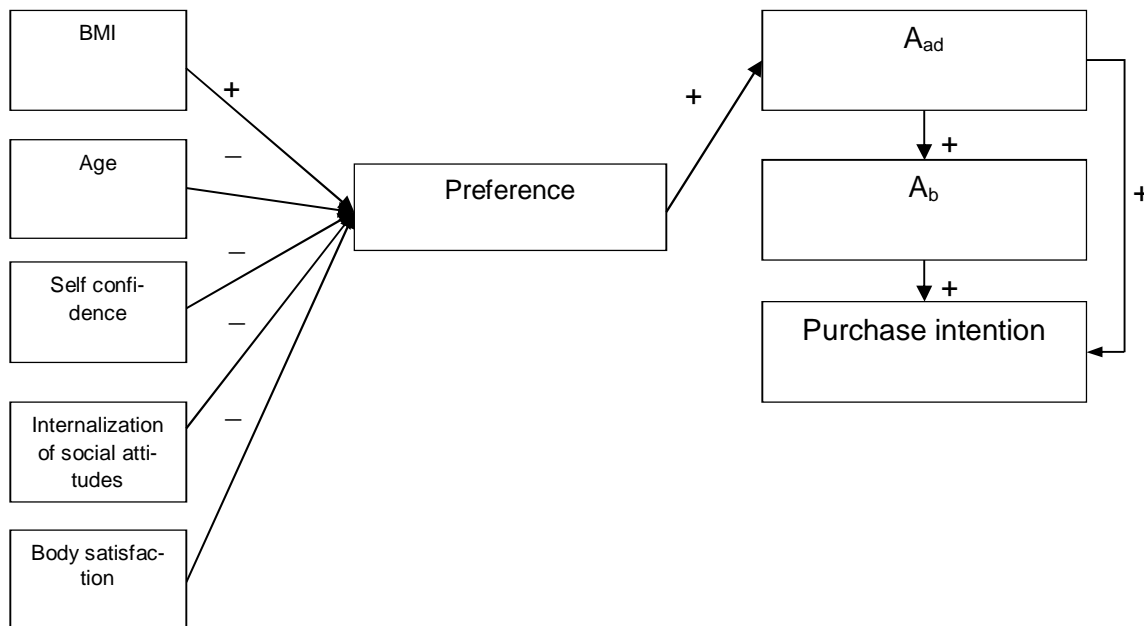
Closely related to self-confidence is *body satisfaction*. One might expect that women who are dissatisfied with their own bodies will feel uncomfortable when confronted with seemingly perfect thin models. Studies have found that women who are dissatisfied with their bodies have negative feelings toward slim models (Bessenoff, 2006; Groesz et al., 2002; Odgen & Munday, 1998; Pinhas, Toner, Ali, Garfinkel, & Stuckless, 1999; Posavac, Posavac, & Posavac, 1998; Richins, 1991; Tiggeman & Slater, 2004; Trampe, Siero, & Stapel, 2007). Consequently, we assume that women with low body satisfaction will prefer regular-size models.

The fifth characteristic is *internalization of social attitudes toward appearances*. Western societies present thinness as positive and desirable, and women who internalize this attitude incorporate the thin ideal as a personal norm (Cusumano & Thompson, 1997; Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; Heinberg,

Thompson, & Stormer, 1995; Thompson & Stice, 2001). We expect that women who internalize these social attitudes to a great degree will favor these standards when reflected in advertisements. In other words, they will prefer to see slim models: Women with a high level of internalization of social attitudes toward appearances will not prefer regular-size women.

According to Gerbner's Cultivation Theory (Gerbner, 1969), people are influenced by the media. His research showed that people who watch television a lot, so called heavy television viewers, have a view of reality that is closer to "television reality" than light viewers. Heavy viewers are mostly confronted with thin women, or at least with women who are thinner than most women in the real world (Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004). As a result, Bissell (2006) concludes that the media cultivate an ideal that is unattainable for most women. Martin & Gentry (1997) argue that the media have a great influence on the Western ideal of beauty.

Figure 1. Graphic Display of Expected Relations



Hence we expect that how women perceive an “average size” woman will depend on television watching time. Women who are heavy media users will perceive an “average” woman as weighing less than women who are light media users.

To summarize, we expect that the preference for regular-size models mediates the relation between individual characteristics and persuasion variables. A *higher* BMI is related to higher liking of regular-size models. *Lower* age, self-confidence, internalization of social attitudes and body satisfaction are related to higher liking of regular-size models (see Figure 1). We also expect that women who prefer regular-size models will have a more positive attitude towards the ad when regular-size models are used. A more positive attitude towards the ad will in turn contribute to a more positive attitude towards the brand and a higher purchase intention.

METHOD

Procedure

The study used a three-part online survey. First, participants answered questions about their *preference* for either slim or regular-size models. Second, to test the effect of preference for models in ads on *persuasion variables* (attitude towards the ad, attitude towards the brand, and purchase intention), we referred to the widely-known Dove campaign “Time for Real Beauty.” This campaign features regular-size models, which makes it possible to establish attitude towards the ad (A_{ad}), attitude towards the brand (A_b), and purchase intention. Dove introduced the campaign “Time for Real Beauty” in 2004 to promote a broader concept of beauty. The campaign features women who do not look like the stereotypical slim models (Dove, 2008). Dove has received many awards for its revolutionary way of advertising, especially for those commercials that show counter-stereotypical, regular-size models. The

participants saw two ads featuring regular-size woman from the “Time for Real Beauty” campaign and were asked if they knew the campaign. Participants who indicated that they did not know the campaign were excluded from the analysis. To control whether participants actually perceived the models as regular size, they were asked to describe the size of the models in this campaign. As expected, most women indicated that the models were “regular” or “normal,” with only a few calling them “full models.”

Subsequently, participants answered questions to determine their attitude towards the ads from the Dove campaign, their attitude towards Dove as a brand, and their intention to purchase Dove products. Finally, they answered questions about *individual characteristics* and their *television viewing behavior*. The questions were presented in a fixed order in all the questionnaires.

Participants

The research agency TNS NIPO randomly selected 726 female participants from a database of 200,000 respondents that is representative of the Dutch female population (age 18-65, BMI 15.74 – 49.38, region, size of household, social class). Of those selected, 72.3% (N=525) returned the online questionnaire and 59% (N=428) participated in this study, because they already knew the Dove campaign, which was a precondition for participating (as mentioned above). Participants received an incentive of 5 Euros.

Measures

Preference for the model. We measured preference for the model in two different ways: (1) a choice between six pairs of models (Preference 1), and (2) a six item preference for the model scale (Preference 2).

First, following Wilcox and Laird (2000), we used 6 pairs of regular and thin models (see

Appendix 1) in a random sequence. After seeing each pair, participants were given the following instruction: "Please indicate which of the two models you prefer most." All models are real models, the photos of each pair are similar, and both models wear either a black dress or a bathing suit.

To ensure that only the weight of the model determined the preference, variables like attractiveness, age, skin color, clothing, brand and background were kept as neutral as possible. We depicted models according to the criteria established by Goodman, Morris & Sutherland (2008): the women only modelled clothes, not other products, and no product logos or brand names were visible. We calculated averages (score 0: "I prefer the slim model most"; score 1: "I prefer the average model most").

Second, to validate our first measurement of preference we measured preference for the model by asking 6 questions about the size of models in general (Holt, Clark, & Kreuter, 2001). Each item consisted of a statement ("I prefer seeing slim women in ads for personal care," "I prefer women with a larger size," "If I advertised a body lotion, I would use regular-size women as models," "Models in ads for skin-care products are too thin," "I feel more comfortable after seeing regular women than skinny models," "I prefer skinny models more than regular ones"). The items were followed by 5 point scales (1= *strongly disagree*, 5= *strongly agree*). The item responses were averaged to form a scale ($\alpha = .806$). Factor analysis showed that all individual items point to the same underlying concept: Preference for regular-size models. The scores on the two measures correlated highly ($r = .64$ $p < .01$ *two-tailed*). As it was not possible to aggregate the two measures, we analyzed the results of each measure to determine preference for the model.

Body Mass Index (BMI). To measure Body Mass Index, we asked participants to indicate their height (in cm) and their weight (in kg).

BMI was calculated by the formula: $\text{weight}/(\text{length})^2$

Self-confidence. We measured self-confidence by using all 10 items of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg 1965) (e.g., "There are moments that I feel useless"). The item responses were averaged to form a scale ($\alpha = .868$, 1= *strongly disagree*, 5= *strongly agree*).

Internalization of social attitudes toward appearances. We measured internalization of the contemporary beauty ideal using 8 items of the Socio-cultural Attitudes Toward Appearance Questionnaire (SATAQ) developed by Heinberg, Thompson, and Stormer (1995) (e.g., "I want to look like women in TV programs and movies") ($\alpha = .872$, 1= *strongly disagree*, 5= *strongly agree*).

Body satisfaction. To determine body satisfaction, we used 8 items of the Body Image Inventory created by Berscheid, Walster, and Bohrnstedt (1973) ("How satisfied or dissatisfied are you about your face / belly / legs / buttocks / breasts / height / weight / whole body") ($\alpha = .878$, 1= *strongly dissatisfied*, 5= *strongly satisfied*).

Attitude toward the ad (A_{ad}). We measured A_{ad} using five 5-point semantic differential items: "like / do not like"; "appeals / does not appeal"; "negative / positive feeling"; "good / bad"; and "irritating / not irritating" (Coulter & Pinto, 1995; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989; Martin, Veer, & Pervan, 2007) ($\alpha = .934$).

Attitude toward the brand (A_b). We measured A_b by using four 5-point semantic differential items: "like / do not like"; "negative / positive"; "good / bad"; "better than other brands / not better than other brands" (Coulter & Pinto, 1995; Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989; Martin et al., 2007) ($\alpha = .878$).

Purchase intention. Based on Baker & Churchill (1977), Coulter & Pinto (1995), and Martin et al. (2007), we measured purchase intention using four items ("Would you like to

try this brand?"; "Would you buy this brand if you saw it in a shop?"; "Would you actively search for this brand to buy it?"; "If this brand cost the same as the body lotion you normally use, would you buy it the next time you go shopping?"). The items were followed by a five point scale (1=*surely*, 5=*surely not*). The item responses were averaged to form a scale ($\alpha = .931$).

Television viewing time. Following Potter (1986) and Shrum, Wyer, & O'Guinn (1998), participants answered open questions about their television viewing: "How many hours do you watch television on average? On an average weekday /Saturday /Sunday I watch ___ hours and ___ minutes."

Perceived weight of average women. To determine what weight women perceive as being "average," participants were presented with the 9 models from the Body Size Drawing Scale (Fallon & Rozin, 1985;

Silberstein, Striegel-Moore, Timko, & Rodin, 1988; Stunkard, Sørensen, & Schulsinger, 1983; Thompson & Gray, 1995) and asked to estimate the average weight of the women.

ANALYSIS

In order to test for the hypothesized relationships (as shown in Figure 1), we performed path analysis, conducting a series of linear regression analyses. In order to estimate the presumed effects of personal characteristics on the preference for the regular-size model (preference 1), we estimated a linear regression model with preference for the regular-size model as the dependent variable and the personal characteristics BMI, age, self-confidence, internalization of social attitudes, and body satisfaction as independent variables.

Table 1. Mean and Standard Deviations of all Variables

Variable	Mean	St. Deviation
Preference 1	3.27	1.79
Preference 2	3.53	0.64
BMI	25.66	5.29
Age	41.51	12.76
Self-confidence	3.92	0.68
Internalization	2.30	0.72
Body satisfaction	6.08	1.40
TV viewing time	1264.17	677.63
Perceived weight of average women	2.59	1.01
A_{ad}	4.04	0.85
A_b	3.97	0.74
Purchase intention	3.12	0.99

The resulting beta-parameters indicate the sign and size of the effect. In order to estimate the effect of preference for the regular-size model on A_{ad} , we used a linear regression model with A_{ad} as the dependent variable, and preference for the regular-size model and the personal characteristics as independent

variables. To estimate the effects of A_{ad} , preference for the regular-size model and the personal characteristics on A_b , we conducted a linear regression analysis with A_b as the dependent variable. Finally, the regression of purchase intention on A_b , A_{ad} , preference for the regular-size model and the personal

characteristics provided us with the path-coefficients for purchase intention. This whole series of regression analyses was repeated for the second measurement of preference.

RESULTS

Table 1 provides an overview of all the variables and their mean and standard deviations. Table 2 presents an overview of the correlations between the independent variables, because high correlations between these variables can influence the results of the regression analysis. Table 2 shows strong

correlations between body satisfaction and BMI and self-confidence. Body satisfaction also correlates with internalization. Self-confidence also correlates strongly with BMI and internalization. Only BMI and internalization, on the one hand, and age and body satisfaction, on the other, show no correlation.

We found a significant relation between television watching time and perceived average weight ($r = -.103$; $p < .05$, $N=427$).

The results of the regression analyses are presented in Figures 2 and 3.

Table 2. Pearson Correlations between Independent Variables

	BMI	Age	Self-confidence	Internalization	Body satisfaction
BMI					
Age	.222**				
Self-confidence	-.211**	.082*			
Internalization	.068	-.130**	-.408**		
Body satisfaction	-.516**	-.046	.502**	-.248**	

Figure 2. Graphic Display of Results Preference 1 (the figure shows beta-values. Only significant relations are displayed)

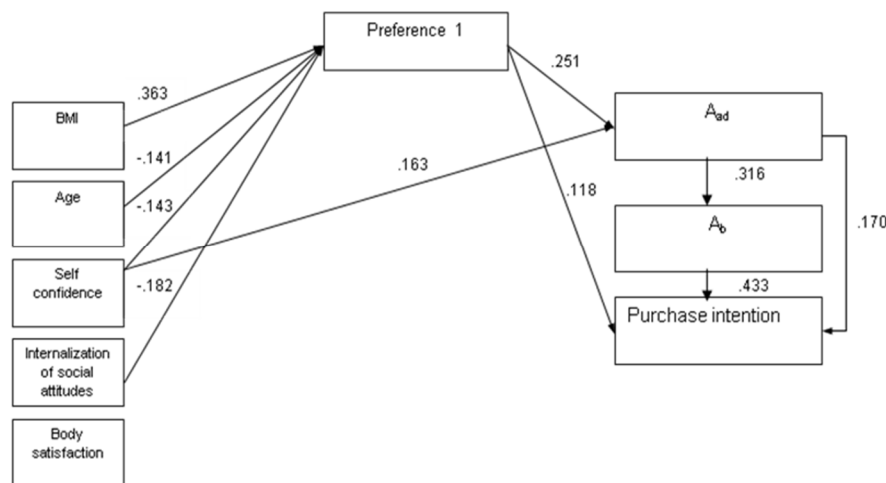
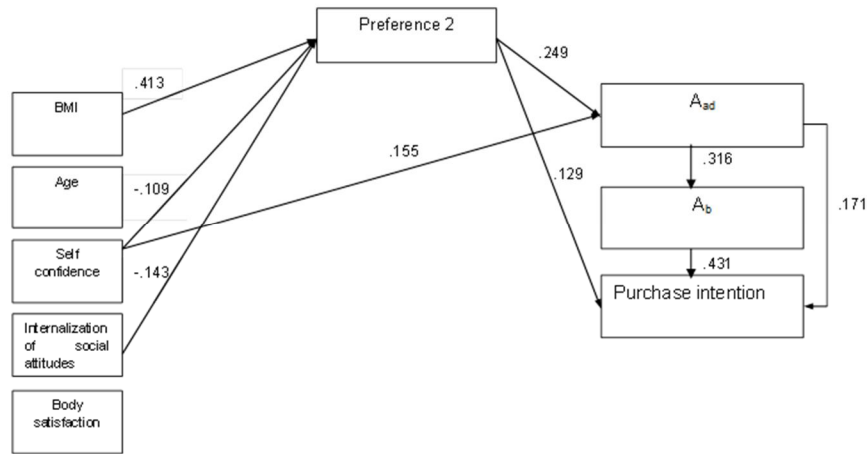


Figure 3. Graphic Display of Results Preference 2
(the figure shows beta-values. Only significant relations are displayed)



The results show a direct effect of Preference 1 on attitude toward the advertisement and purchase intention (see Figure 2). The results also show a direct effect of both attitude toward the advertisement and attitude toward the brand on purchase intention, and an indirect effect of attitude toward the advertisement on purchase intention through its effect on attitude toward the brand.

For the personal characteristics, the results show a direct effect between BMI, age, self-confidence and internalization of social attitudes with Preference 1. In addition, self-confidence has a direct connection with attitude toward the advertisement. Body satisfaction did not relate to either preference or persuasion variables.

To validate our scale for preference, we also analyzed this model with our second measure for preference (6 items on a 5-point Likert-scale). This showed almost the same results. The only difference is that age did not have a direct effect on this measure of preference (see Figure 3).

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The goal of this study was to determine whether individual differences underlie women's preferences for a certain body type

for advertising models, and whether this in turn affects advertising effectiveness. Our findings show that women prefer regular-size models more when they have higher BMI, lower self-confidence, and lower internalization of the thin ideal; in addition, preference for the regular-size model is in turn associated with a more positive attitude towards the ad and attitude towards the brand, as well as increased purchase intention.

Confirming the studies of several authors (e.g. Eagly & Chaicken 1973; Sampson & Insko 1964), our study has shown that preferred communicators are more effective persuaders than less preferred communicators. The clear implication of our study is that women who prefer the regular-size models in the Dove campaign are more positive about the ads of Dove and are more willing to buy Dove products. Confirming the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and the ideas of several researchers (e.g., Brown & Stayman, 1992; Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989), we found (using two different measures of preference) that preference for regular-size models is directly related to a positive *attitude towards the ad* and brand *purchase intention*, and indirectly related to a more positive *attitude towards the brand* as a result of the positive attitude towards the ad.

However, whether or not women preferred regular-size models seems depend on individual characteristics. In line with our expectations, women with a higher BMI, lower self-confidence, and lower internalization of the thin ideal preferred regular-size models more. Probably, women with higher BMI scores feel less discrepancy between their own body and that of a regular-size model than they would with a slim model, which would explain their preference for regular-size models (Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; Henderson-King & Henderson-King, 1997). In addition, this study provides additional empirical support for the notion that women with low *self-confidence* prefer regular-size models more than women who are highly confident. Women with low self-confidence might feel threatened by slim models (Festinger, 1954; Martin & Kennedy, 1993; Wood et al., 1994), which would explain their preference for regular-size models. We also found a direct positive relationship between self-confidence and attitude towards the ad. Possibly, women who are highly self-confident like ads for beauty products in general more than those who are less confident, thus eliminating the mediating effect of preference for model-type.

Furthermore, we found that *internalization of social attitudes toward appearances* was negatively related to the preference for regular-size models. Women who have internalized the thin ideal perceive thinness as something positive (Cusumano & Thompson, 1997; Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004; Heinberg, Thompson, & Stormer, 1995; Thompson & Stice, 2001), and tend to like slim models more than regular-size ones. Conversely, women who do not accept the current thin ideal as a personal norm are more likely to prefer regular-size models over slim ones.

The results regarding the relation between *age* and preference were inconclusive. We had expected that the appearance of models would be more important to younger women than to older ones. Groesz et al. (2002) concluded that

women of all ages feel dissatisfied about their own appearance after seeing slim models, but found that this effect was stronger for young women. We only found a significant relation between age and preference for one of the measures of preference (Preference 1, using pictures of models). This might be explained by the different measurement techniques. Choosing between pictures might be a less direct way of measuring preference than a questionnaire. Younger women might perceive the slim models as more beautiful but provide socially desirable answers on the questionnaire.

Surprisingly, this study did not find support for the argument made by various researchers that *body-satisfaction* and exposure to the model in an advertising campaign are related (Groesz et al., 2002; Odgen & Munday, 1998; Pinhas et al., 1999; Posavac et al., 1998; Richins, 1991; Tiggeman & Slater, 2004). This unexpected result might be due to the fact that body satisfaction correlates strongly with some of the other independent variables (like self-confidence) and therefore does not explain additional variance in preference (see Table 2).

Confirming Gerbner's Cultivation Theory (Gerbner, 1969), we found a significant relation between *television watching time* and *perceived weight of average women*. Women who are heavy media users perceive average women as weighing less than women who are light media users. This supports the assumption that the media plays a role in providing women with a standard for body size.

This study has two possible limitations. First, is the question whether the results of the study are generalizable. We measured a campaign effect of the well-known Dove "Time for Real Beauty" campaign, which raises the study's ecological validity. Still, we do not know if the relations that were found between personal characteristics and preference for this campaign also hold for single ads that are not a part of a campaign, or for products other

than body-care. Future studies could focus on other products and brands.

Secondly, our results could be biased because of social desirability. Many participants may have been aware of the premise of the Dove campaign, namely that it was trying to change unrealistic views about women's beauty. This could have influenced the scores on A_{ad} , A_b and purchase intention.

This study is important for two reasons. First, most research (e.g., Groesz et al., 2002; Henderson-King & Henderson-King, 1997; Myers & Biocca, 1992; Peck & Loken, 2004; Richins, 1991; Smeesters & Mandel, 2006; Wilcox & Laird, 2000) has focused on the effect of exposing women to slim or regular-size models on their self-image. No research to date has investigated if women actually prefer regular-size models to slim ones, and if so, which women. Second, our study demonstrates that preferring regular-size models is related to a more positive attitude towards ads using regular-size models, towards purchase intention, and indirectly to a more positive attitude towards the brand using such advertisements.

As we have seen, women's preference for regular female models mediates the relation between individual characteristics and advertising effectiveness. Some women prefer models "with an ounce more," while others tend to favor slim models, and these preferences affect their attitudes and purchase intentions.

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What is True (Brand) Love? The Love Concept in Branding Theory and Research

Ezgi Merdin

ABSTRACT. Despite being highly desired by practitioners, brand love is not yet fully researched in the academic literature. It is a frequent phenomenon when consumer narratives are analyzed. However, its emotional complexity led to a diversity of the terms used and also a diversity of models and hypotheses that are not easily incorporated. This paper is bringing a comparative perspective analyzing both interpersonal theories and their branding research applications. In addition, a preliminary conceptual model of brand love is attempted for further testing.

KEYWORDS. Branding, consumer psychology, brand management

INTRODUCTION

Love has been an important concept in a number of sciences, including positive sciences or social sciences. Biology, genetics, medicine as well as sociology and history looked at the concept of love from their own perspectives. However, as a social phenomenon, psychology has been a productive field for love research. Sternberg (1986), Lee (1977), Aron and Aron (1986), Reis and Aron (2008), and many other researchers worked on the theorization of the concept and paved the way to fruitful research as an ultimate form of close relationship.

The branding research however, under the domain of marketing and consumer behavior, has also leaned on the relationship-related concepts with the paradigm of relationship marketing and emphasizing not only the consumer and not only the product or firm but rather the close relationship between them.

Stemming from the strong romantic attachments of consumers to symbolic or hedonic products, love became the next step, and many branding and consumer researchers borrowed the concept to incorporate into their own research.

Before branding, however, the strong emotional attachment and affect-intense relationship concepts have been thought to suit the consumer-object relations (COR). Shimp and Madden (1988), as pioneers, conceptualized COR (consumer-object relation) as a significant type of relationship and only that kind of strong affect and irrationality such as intense love can describe many consumption activities like collections, highly hedonic purchases, and extreme object attachments. In a study on consumers' identity narratives and intense interviews with consumers, Ahuvia (2005) stated that "the word 'love' is used as often with objects and activities as with people. We hear it all the time" (p.171).

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The successful use of relationship theory in branding came with Fournier (1998) under efforts on developing the relationship theory in consumer research. Brand animism, brand anthropomorphism, and brand personality literatures make it easier to conceive brand as a person, thus legitimizing interpersonal research usage (Fournier, 1998). Later on, Reimann and Aron (2009) took the perspective of self-expansion theory in order to explain the person-brand relationships by transferring a grand theory in interpersonal relationships. The scope of this paper has been limited to *brand love*, excluding the vast amount of research on product love and also excluding to some degree various similar names and concepts used to describe the extreme relationship style. Brand love in itself is of critical value and still underresearched when compared to its potential of being tied with highly desired outcomes like market share, competitive advantage, price premium, and loyalty.

Like in many other domains in consumer behavior, the borrowing of the love concept has successfully worked in brand relationship area, too. However, the theorization part has been limited compared to the amount of empirical studies or narrative studies in this domain, partly caused by the confidence in the development level of love in psychology research. As Fournier (1998) strategically points out, the fruitful interpersonal relationships literature has been scarcely used by the consumer researchers. Not to continue without mentioning, there are also many differences as well as similarities between the love relationship of two people and the love relationship of a person with a brand. This paper is thus an attempt to critically analyze the transferability of love research to brand love research, highlighting borderline conditions if available and also digging into domains or types of research domain or method that is the most promising or similar. As a precautionary note, it is safe to mention that it is still very early to arrive at

conclusions, though, considering the blooming of this research stream as late as the 90s and the new millennium.

CONCEPTUALIZATION OF BRAND LOVE

Definition of Interpersonal Love v. Brand Love

In addition to the definition of love, the process of defining love is also in itself a matter of curiosity. According to Reis and Aron (2008), “perhaps in response to the inconclusiveness of theoretical and philosophical attempts to define love, some researchers have adopted a bottom-up approach by examining how ordinary people construe love and their many different love experiences” (p.82). This process has been replicated also in consumer research as a result of the significant usage of love wording and also the similarities of consumer’s relation with products or brands projecting love-like emotional states. Being curious in terms of this strong relationship; the research on consumer narratives, the grounded theory works by consumer culture theoreticians and usage of different materials in the exploratory phases of this newly discovered relation have appeared and thus the procedures and the steps in psychological love research needed to be transferred into consumer research.

Consumer research has also not discovered brand love in one instance. It came up as an extended stream of research delving into consumer’s emotions. Chadhuri and Holbrook (2002) had defined brand *affect* as “the potential in a brand to elicit a positive emotional response in the average consumer as a result of its use” (p.37), which was far less useful theoretically and practically from a brand love concept but served as an operationalization tool for consumer choice models. The emphasis on the emotions stemming from brand relationship has also resulted in the concept of

brand passion. Bauer and others (2007) defined brand passion as “a primarily affective, extremely positive attitude toward a specific brand that leads to emotional attachment and influences relevant behavioral factors” (p.2190).

Within this tradition of naming the emotion-intense relationship between brands and consumers, even the concept of brand romance has been conceptualized. Defined by Patwardhan and Balasubramanian (2011) “as a state of emotional attachment (evoked in response to the brand as a stimulus) that is characterized by strong positive affect toward the brand, high arousal caused by the brand, and a tendency of the brand to dominate the consumer’s cognition,” the brand romance is experienced subjectively like all other emotions.

Brand love has been defined as “a reciprocal, dynamic, multiplex, and purposive relationship between satisfied consumers and their brands” (Pang et al. 2009, p.599) or “the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for the brand (particular trade name)” (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006, p.81).

As a remedy or a deeper analysis, it is useful to look at the components of the love concept in both interpersonal realm and brand-consumer realm. Since it is multidimensional, complex, and embodying many other concepts in itself, it is not surprising to see that most love research in psychology and also consumer research have been devoted to identifying the factors and the dimensions of it and identifying how this holistic model works by creating typologies and scales.

Essential Components of the “Love” Concept

The bottom-up approach to defining the concept of love has resulted in a multiplicity of accounts and divergent feelings and practices. Love being exhaustive but also necessitating operationalizability, beginning from 1970s there emerged a surge of theoretical or

empirical accounts digging deeper into concept by generating scales, separating the exclusive dimensions, and thus arriving at typologies (eg. Rubin, 1970; Lee, 1977; Swensen, 1972).

On the way to encourage empiricism, measurement, and modeling, Sternberg and Grajek (1984) studied how the nature of love looked and what that entity consisted of. This study led to the most common structuralization of love into three main components later by Sternberg (1986). This revolutionary approach in psychological love study analyzed three modules in love: intimacy, passion, and commitment. The modeling studies of love revealed that the cognitive, emotional, and motivational aspects of love belonged to different domains.

Intimacy, representing the emotional aspect of love, is defined as closeness, connectedness, and bondedness. Pang and others (2009) redefined the concepts of Sternberg in terms of consumer-brand relationships. Thus, brand intimacy has been defined as closeness and harmonization with the brand and as consumers’ willingness to stay with the brand, share feelings with/for it, and support it in difficult times. In terms of the relationship with the brand, keeping it near, showing irrational emotional attachment in (difficult) times, and willingness to share love and other positive emotions about it are components of intimacy.

The cognitive component of the model is under the rubric of decision-commitment. Sternberg (1986) clearly defines decision as short-term and commitment as long-term intention to maintain the relationship, as decision does not necessarily bring commitment. Pang and others (2009) define brand commitment as “consumers’ decision-making about the existence of and potential long-term pledge to a loving consumer-brand relationship” (p.604). Similar cognitive states are observable in brand relationship, contrasting a quick falling in love with a brand (during shopping, logo effect, or a very successful

campaign) versus a prolonged love in terms of commitment (constant buying, avoiding other brands, searching for it in times of absence, etc.).

The passion component of Sternberg's original triangular theory represents the motivation in love, defined as the earnest or strong desire directed towards something. An example by Shimp and Madden (1988) best represents the passion for brands: the wish lists. Wish lists are lists of branded products that are passionately wanted and that occupy a person's thoughts. In their application of passion to brand relationship, Pang and others (2009) warn that brand passion is sometimes blind just as passion in personal love, emphasizing the irrationality. They extend the brand passion by stating that mostly it is driven by self-extension, uniqueness, and social identification needs. These are especially true for hedonic products. In line with products as extensions of the self (Belk, 1988), especially branded and hedonic products are used as signals about ourselves, showing how unique we are by carrying, collecting, or using it and shaping how we want to be observed and remembered. However, Reimann and Aron (2009) partly challenge that assumption by considering that even everyday products can contribute to self-expansion and lead to being included in the self, as long as they are novel and challenging.

Having identified the main components of love eventually led to new conceptualizations and better explaining of variances. The eight different types of love by different combinations of these three components will be discussed within the taxonomy part later in the paper. A number of authors have also contributed to the discussion of essential parts of love. For example, according to Ahuvia (2005), brand love also includes positive evaluation of the brand, a willingness to declare love, and not having any expectancy about love nor disconfirmation, and it should not

include any negative feelings for the brand like hate.

Last but not least, in terms of brand love and passion, Fournier (1998) listed some essentials. A few of them are a feeling that something is missing when not using the brand for a while, irreplaceability, warmth, affection, passion, infatuation, selfishness, obsessive dependency (Lane & Wegner, 1995), and a biased positive perception of the partner (Murray et al., 1996).

The Dimensional Structure of Brand Love

Consumer-object relationship has been the focal point before in brand relationships literature. People's love and attachment to certain objects to the degree of inseparability and the emotional meanings attached to them have been a starting point of investigation. However, one of the main points of divergence from interpersonal love was the unidirectionality of a person's love to the object as opposed to the dynamic and reciprocal love relationship of the person with a brand. Opposed to a tangible, inanimate object; a brand can love or not love you back through various media. This main point of divergence is ignored most of the time and also could not yet find a suitable place even in marketing strategy because it is a relatively novel type of relationship.

A bunch of studies theoretically or empirically investigated the perception of reciprocity in consumers' relationship with the brands (e.g. Fournier, 1998; Pang et al., 2009). Shimp and Madden (1988) brought this issue into the agenda much earlier with their investigation on consumer-object relationships and assumed that even though their study was qualitatively different from interpersonal relations because it is unidirectional and the object cannot love back (with the exception of pets), there are still enough meaningful analogies to investigate further.

Fournier (1998) has been one of the first to legitimize using interpersonal relationship

theory by legitimizing a brand as an active relationship partner in the dyad. In her account, marketing communication, everyday marketing plans and tactics, and brand personality through brand characters are perceived as behaviors of the loved one, the brand. The love literature on relationship with pets, God, and fans support this legitimization. Cautiously, Fournier (1998) notes that a brand is not a vital entity, and it is not able to think, act, or feel but the marketing and branding literature has enough similar concepts to make analogies with interpersonal love research. In a similar vein, according to Jin and Jia (2009), a “consumer’s love to brand can’t last long if brand didn’t love ‘his’ consumer” (p.1). They define brand’s love of a consumer as actions of the brand providers to create consumer satisfaction-as-love.

Transfer of Love Taxonomies to Brand Research

Along with the accounts on establishing the validity of interpersonal research transferred to branding research, many researchers applied existing love taxonomies to the brands and products realm. They either confirmed that they worked or came up with a different set of concepts suitable for explaining this different type of love relationship.

To recall, Rubin (1970) first distinguished between a liking and love; then came the revolutionary tripartite model of Sternberg (1986), consisting of intimacy, commitment, and passion, comprising the affective, motivational, and cognitive components. Lee’s (1977) conceptual typology of love has also been an inspiration as well as a methodological tool for following researchers. These taxonomies paved the way in earlier stages of theoretical development, and just recently, they have been transferred into marketing and branding research, too.

Shimp and Madden (1988) conceptually transferred Sternberg’s eight love types to the realm of consumer-object relations successful-

ly with slight alterations. For example, among the original eight types of love (all combinations of the three main components) developed by Sternberg (1986), only liking and infatuation labels could be preserved for the study of consumer-object relations. Nonlove has been changed to nonliking (covering situations when the consumer is already loyal to another brand or not involved in the category as a whole). Infatuation, which had originally been defined as love at first sight with extreme arousal, meant overarching trends or peer pressure in the consumer realm. Both trends and peer pressure signify lack of liking and commitment but only passion (yearning). Empty love has been renamed as functionalism instead of the original meaning of commitment only. Opposite to Sternberg’s (1986) view that it is mostly the final stage of a relationship when the passion and intimacy is gone, for goods, functionalism means problem solving in an unimportant way.

The romantic love concept of Sternberg (1986), borrowed from Romeo and Juliet, has been renamed as inhibited desire, meaning the inability to buy, have, or use the product somehow. Though the concept has changed, it still meant unfinished love, considering the wish list of a person for goods that cannot be obtained until the person’s financial status gets better or the constraints disappear. Companionate love has been redefined as utilitarianism. In the absence of passion, Shimp and Madden (1988) give the example of repeat purchasing. Fatuous love, lack of intimacy due to speed of relationship or the conditions, has been redefined as succumbed desire, the constraints of intimacy being external sources like family, peers, or religion. Lastly, the consummate love (complete love) is defined basically as (brand) loyalty. Though inspirational, these type of studies first need to discuss in greater depth how loyalty is different than the ultimate brand love concept.

Table 1. Comparative Concepts of Sternberg (1986) and Shimp and Madden (1988)

	Intimacy (Liking)	Passion (Yearning)	Decision / Commitment
Nonlove (Nonliking)	-	-	-
Liking	+	-	-
Infatuated Love (In- fatuation)	-	+	-
Empty Love (Functionalism)	-	-	+
Romantic Love (Inhibited Desire)	+	+	-
Companionate Love (Utilitarianism)	+	-	+
Fatuous Love (Succumbed Desire)	-	+	+
Consummate Love (Loyalty)	+	+	+

In a similar vein, Jin and Jia (2009), in their study on conceptualizing and measuring brand's love to consumer (BLTC), used Sternberg's triangular theory of love to form the framework. The three factors were shown to be valid as intimacy, commitment, and passion in brand's love to consumer. The intimacy component included good emotional interaction with the customers. Passion included respect and care for the consumer. Even the brand's social responsibility is a part of this factor. However care and respect are questionable under the rubric of passion, which had originally been defined as longing for other and high arousal. The commitment component is relatively easier to draw analogies to and also a better match to brand-consumer relation without changing the concept. In brand's love to consumer, commitment was operationalized as guarantee and advantage for the consumer. So, the three factor model still works in many realms, but very careful definitions and reconceptualizations are necessary.

A similar theoretical approach to Shimp and Madden (1988) and a similar methodological approach to Jin and Jia (2009) have been performed by Whang et al. (2004) in their study on romantic consumer-product relationships with the case of bikers. When analyzing the interviews with bike lovers, they used the lens of Lee's (1977) typology of love. Lee (1977) had originally conceptualized seven styles of love: Eros as romantic and passionate love, Ludus as game-playing love, Storage as friendship love, Mania as possessive and dependent love, Agape as selfless love, and Pragma as logical love. There is no doubt that this typology had been an inspiration for the latter models and especially for Sternberg's passion-logic divide.

The Whang et al. (2004) study was in a way the operationalization of these terms in terms of consumer and marketing concepts. Mania and Agape were operationalized as excitement and sacrifice for the object (bike); Eros was measured as true match (my bike and me); Pragma was measured as the sym-

bolic value of the bike; Storage was measured as the positive results of a long relationship with the bike like friendship or love; and Ludus was measured as the intention to avoid or lose the specific bike (Whang et al., 2004). What was significant about the study was that the consumer-bike relationship resembled Eros, Mania, and Agape, including passion, giving, and dependency, being very romantic indeed, and that the passion component actually was the one that predicted love and loyalty towards the object.

There were also attempts for totally new conceptualizations. Fournier's (1998) attempt to develop a brand typology has been an influential starting point for this type of research. Based on very few participants but their total of 144 brand relationships, fifteen types of consumer-brand relationships were formed. The total list varied from "arranged marriages" where the relation with the brand was initiated by third parties and involuntary, like sticking with a family member's choice. On the other extreme, the relationship was called "enslavement," where there is entire governance of desires. In between, the relationship types were called casual friends, marriages of convenience, committed partnerships, best friendships, compartmentalized friendships, kinships, rebounds, childhood friendships, courtships, dependencies, flings, enmities, and secret affairs. To give an example about brands, the secret affair type was symbolized by a certain brand of candies that the participant sneaked at work.

Interestingly though, even if the consumer-brand relationship was seen from this angle as a new standing point, the conceptualization has not yet reached the maturity to grow on its own. The wordings are almost the same as love or interpersonal research and most of the time these studies remain as attempts of transfer. A successful next step would be not only to rephrase or try to reshape the consumer narratives to fit the existing typologies but to come up with a consumer-brand terminology

that still builds on the solid works and working models of previous work like Steinberg's.

TOWARDS A BRAND LOVE MODEL

A number of brand love models will be analyzed briefly in this section in order to arrive at a more comprehensive, up-to-date conceptual model of love for a brand. However, because of the diversity of existing conceptualizations and the lack of agreement on using the term love and its subdimensions, it is hard to arrive at a fully developed brand love model.

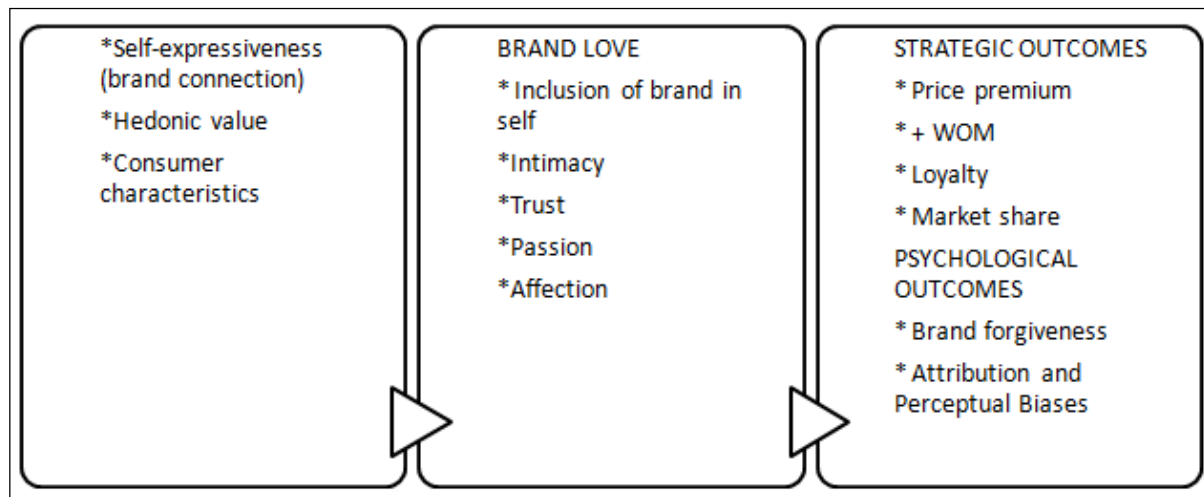
To begin with, as the establisher of the relationship paradigm, Fournier (1998) also developed a tentative model of "brand relationship quality", which is a concept including brand love, passion, self-connection, commitment, interdependence, intimacy and brand-partner quality. So it is difficult to identify specifically which brand's behaviors and consumer's behaviors affect brand love. The ultimate consequence of the brand relationship quality is relationship stability and durability, through the processes of accommodation, forgiveness, biased perception, devaluation of alternative brands, and several attribution biases. As obvious, this is a tentative framework borrowed from the interpersonal theory as a whole and lacks enough explanation and conceptualization. In addition, brand love is used as a synonym for brand passion.

Far from developing a sound brand love theory and conceptualization, bits and pieces of the love construct have been studied and modeled by consumer researchers. Another example is the model of brand passion developed by Bauer and others (2007), which at least identifies the list of variables leading to passion. Among them are brand uniqueness, self-expressiveness, prestige, hedonic value, and consumer's extraversion. Also this model emphasizes strategic outcomes compared to other models like price premium, positive word of mouth (WOM), and purchase

intention. Chadhuri and Holbrook (2002) also used the term *brand affect* as an umbrella and as the key to commitment. Again, in their model there are managerially valuable outcomes on the firm-side, such as market share increase and ad-to-sales ratio following brand commitment. Thomson and others (2005) also showed that price premium and brand loyalty are outcomes of emotional attachment to brand. Since they employed attachment theory from psychology, the model ultimately predicted attachment and then

loyalty and price premium to the brand. So the emotionally intense concept (whether it is named brand love or affect or passion or attachment) is incredibly affected by which interpersonal theory is borrowed. More recently, a brand love model has been developed by Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) focusing on brand self-expressiveness and hedonic value to predict loyalty and WOM through love. The similarity of outcomes signals the similarity of differently named constructs, too.

Figure 1. A Proposed Conceptual Model of Brand Love



Overall, it can be stated that there has been a quick shift from consumer related individual outcomes to more strategic firm-related outcomes like market share, and there is also a consensus to some degree in terms of antecedents like self-expressiveness or hedonic value. However, it is not possible to talk about the same agreement in terms of the words chosen to name the main construct, whether it be passion, emotion, love, or affect.

CONCLUSION

Brands are more than objects and relationships with them are more than buying or using. As complex phenomenon requires good theory and concepts, this conceptual piece of

work looked at the state of the art in brand love research and whether theories, models, or taxonomies borrowed from social psychology have been usefully implemented or went under major structural transformation to fit the domain.

Overall, it is safe to say that the brand as an active relationship partner has been legitimized in the area, and thus a major bridge between interpersonal research and this new domain has been established. The consumer-brand relationship is quite successful in establishing its own vocabulary when necessary but at the same time directly benefiting from major theories like Attachment (Bowlby, 1969) or Self-Expansion (Aron & Aron, 1986). Moving ahead of definitions and taxonomies,

it is now very valuable to look at the outcomes of this relationship and unveil the whole model without utopizing a loved brand or degrading it.

FUTURE RESEARCH AVENUES

Consumers' relationships with brands is a hot topic; especially the emotion-intense and irrational relation types attract attention to understanding unconventional loyalties. In this domain, apart from traditional loyalty and price premium outcomes, unconventional outcomes should be considered in the future. For example, it is warned that the longer the relationship with the brand lasts and the more interaction occurring, the less self-expanding the relationship will be found (Reimann & Aron, 2009). So what should the brand or marketers do to renew this relationship process and make it more appealing by introducing self-expansion opportunities?

Also, one step ahead from the concepts of *brand avoidance* and *brand rejection* (Fournier, 1998), the irrational and unexpected outcomes of loving a brand too much are important. Patwardhan and Balasubramanian (2011) give the examples of forgiving transgressions of a high-romance brand, overlooking its faults, exaggerating its virtues, restricting recall of competing brands, etc., as possible fruitful research areas. Also brand avoidance and brand divorces are recent research topics. To these biases, a concept of *brand jealousy* can be added, similar to the dark sides of the love concept.

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BOOK REVIEW

The ABA Guide to International Business Negotiations: A comparison of cross-cultural issues and successful approaches, 3rd edition, edited by James R. Silkenat, Jeffrey M. Aresty and Jacqueline Klosek, Chicago: American Bar Association, 2009, 1106 pages. ISBN: 978-1-60442-369-3. List price: \$169.95 (paperback).

Reviewed by Claude Cellich Professor and Vice President International University in Geneva, Switzerland

Back in 1995, I wrote a review of the first edition of the *ABA Guide**. At that time, the Guide provided an excellent synopsis of negotiation theory and techniques coupled with specific country chapters. With the 3rd edition, the Guide has become a major reference resource of 1106 pages consisting of two parts. Part 1 addresses building trust in online negotiations and the handling of cross cultural issues in international business in the 21st Century. Part 2 contains 32 country chapters dealing with the legal aspects of doing business in these countries.

This latest edition of the *ABA Guide* offers the reader a deeper understanding of communications technology in negotiating international deals online. Negotiating online and its legal complexity are well developed across numerous chapters in Part 1. Although online technology provides a number of advantages, such as speed of communication, low cost, overcoming time zones and elimination of travel costs, it is difficult to build trust unless both parties have an existing relationship. Trust not only takes time to develop but calls for greater cooperative negotiation strategies as they are more suitable in cross cultural negotiations particularly in relationship-oriented cultures. In these cultures, face saving, patience, and taking a long-term outlook pre-

vails. Such an approach makes sense as deals are hardly profitable in the first transaction. It is only through repeat business from satisfied counterparts over the long run, especially in supply chain contracts, that substantial profits can be derived.

Inadequate use of the Internet, mostly across cultures, may be counterproductive, leading to misunderstanding and creating barriers among the parties. Ideally, it is best to combine online with face to face negotiations. For example, prior to meeting the other party, the Internet becomes helpful in exchanging non-confidential information like how many people will attend, their titles, setting the agenda, location/travel arrangements, language of the negotiations, whether interpretation will be needed, and so forth. Overall, it is better to rely on online negotiations for minor or single issues and have face-to-face negotiations for difficult or sensitive ones. There are times, however, when complex issues are best discussed online as it allows both parties to take time to examine them with their colleagues before responding as opposed to face-to-face discussions.

Concerning the Internet, the point is made about the age and status of the negotiators. The older generation is probably less conversant in English and unaware of the benefits of

the Internet. However, they occupy senior positions and are highly respected by their peers in most of the emerging economies. Consequently, it is advisable to know the status of the other party before contacting them online. In cases in which emails are not well drafted or fail to take into consideration cultural etiquette and status of the sender, such messages may delay or even damage the level of trust among the parties. In most relationship-oriented cultures, negotiators will only deal with people they know and trust and will not risk a relationship. However, they would consider taking greater risks with people they trust.

An issue that is mentioned in the *Guide* is the timing for holding the negotiations. Besides public and religious holidays, certain dates are considered “auspicious” for initiating projects and for signing contracts in many countries (Bhasin, 2012). In Asia, numbers like 8 in China and Japan are viewed as bringing good luck and prosperity thereby influencing the timing of the negotiations. It is no coincidence that the Beijing Summer Olympic Games were inaugurated on 8/8/2008. In Europe, negotiating on Friday the 13th of the month is viewed with suspicion and is best to be avoided.

In Part Two, the reader is provided with 32 country chapters written by legal experts operating in these countries which make the contents relevant, practical, and up to date. Each chapter provides a brief historical and cultural background followed by details on negotiation practices, the role of government, contract formation, and dispute resolution. In addition, practical information is given on specific legal issues such as regulation of foreign investment, corporation law, bankruptcy, exchange control, taxation, employment regulations, antitrust laws, intellectual property rights, contracts, environment protection, privacy, and data security.

In the first edition, 17 countries were included covering Asia, Europe, and North and

Latin America. In the 3rd edition, all the geographical regions are represented by including Africa (Nigeria and South Africa) and the Middle East (Dubai, Qatar and Saudi Arabia). Although there are nearly 200 countries represented in the United Nations today, no more than 30 countries account for 80% of world trade (Borgeon and Cellich, 2012). All these countries are included in this latest edition. Negotiating in these new environments will require greater attention not only about negotiation practices but the legal system and its business implications. In view of globalization, several countries from Africa, Asia, and the Middle East could be included in a future edition to reflect their growing role in the world economy.

Overall, this latest edition of the *ABA Guide* is timely as business executives are facing increasing competition and the ever increasing complexity and risk of doing business internationally. Moreover, it explores the challenges and opportunities of negotiating across the cultural and digital divide. The communication revolution and the widening use of online negotiations not only raises concerns for security issues but increases the risk of misunderstanding and damaging relationships especially in high context cultures. To overcome these barriers, negotiators can reduce business risks by paying close attention to the development of trust with their counterparts, considering the participation of legal experts throughout the negotiation process, taking a long-term outlook, and communicating online with the greatest care. Executives planning to become involved in complex negotiations including joint ventures, strategic business alliances, or investing in new foreign markets would benefit greatly by consulting the *ABA Guide* as a first step in their preparation.

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JOURNAL OF EUROMARKETING

Enlarged Europe is playing an increasingly more important role in the global economy. The purpose of the Journal of Euromarketing is to meet the needs of academics, practitioners, and public policy makers in the discussion of marketing issues pertaining to Europe and European countries' trading relationship with other nations. The purpose of this exciting journal is to increase our understanding of the strategic planning aspects of marketing management in Europe. As well, marketing and international business aspects of the trading relationship between European and foreign firms are also explored conceptually as well as analytically. The unique position of the region would provide fascinating reading material for practitioners, public policy makers and academicians. The articles submitted to the journal create a forum whereby a conceptual understanding of the European markets and marketing systems be operationalized, analytical insights obtained as well as the past, the present, and the future of European marketing be highlighted.

The manuscripts submitted should report the results of cross-cultural/national and comparative studies conducted among countries of Europe. They can be based upon a single country of the region and/or industry there upon with a concerted effort to contrast the results/findings and managerial implications with those obtained by international marketing scholars/practitioners elsewhere. Both thought provoking and well-developed and documented conceptual/ theoretical as well as empirical contributions are sought. But every manuscript must have an applied, managerial orientation.

With its 27 full and 5 associate members, EU is the world's largest internal market possessing nearly \$12 trillion economy. Its importance is constantly increasing. Currently, there is a vacuum in the marketing literature which needs to be filled by relating the Europe factor to the global marketing scene;

emphasizing on an interaction mode – that is, the horizontal dimension as well as the inter and intra trade and marketing activities in Europe. As such, Journal of Euromarketing covers the following areas of inquiry:

- a) Functional areas of marketing in Europe and comparison with the practices of those in other regions.
- b) The dynamics that account for the linkage of European national markets into markets of the developing world, North and Latin America, the Far East and Africa.
- c) Determine the best methods available for marketing goods and services in different socio-economic, demographic, cultural, competitive, and legal-political environments of Europe at national and regional levels.
- d) The method by which European marketing institutions are linked together into viable and coherent business systems.
- e) The type of environmental factors prevailing in different European countries of the region which force changes in the marketing structure of the area countries and industrial sectors
- f) How efficiently does the marketing system perform its universal functions in the countries of Europe and how the weaknesses of the marketing system can be overcome in the region?
- g) The various stages of market and marketing system development in Europe as a working device for generalizing and, possibly, predicting likely developments in marketing in individual countries of the region.

Both thought provoking theoretical/ conceptual and insightful empirical contributions containing most current and up-to-date knowledge which offer the greatest managerial insights are considered. Articles submitted must contain practical information for the marketing practitioners, public policy makers, classroom teachers and researchers with a major emphasis on European marketing. The

Journal tries to appeal to a larger group of readers, so the articles should be written in such a manner that those outside the field can comprehend the expertise and attitudes of those who work within it. Hence, a major criterion is that the language used should be as simple as possible without altering in any way, form, or shape the quality of the information to be communicated. Although not exhaustive, the following topics are illustrative of the subject areas to be covered in the Journal:

- Cross-National Consumer Segments in Europe
- Export behavior of European Firms
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- Marketing Implications of Strategic Alliances of European Firms
- Markets and Marketing Systems of European Countries
- Marketing Practices of Europe Companies
- Public Sector Marketing in Europe
- Comparative Marketing Systems in Europe
- Diffusion of Innovations Among European Nations
- Transfer of Marketing Technology and Reverse Technology Transfer in Europe
- Buyer-Seller Interactions and Organizational Buyer Behavior Issues in European Markets
- Business Customs and Practices Among European Countries
- Marketing Interaction/Interrelationships Between Europe and Other Trading Blocs
- European Corporate Cultures
- Legal-Political Aspects of Marketing in Europe
- Marketing Issues Pertaining to EU, EFTA, Council of Europe, European Members of OECD, and Associate Members of EU
- Marketing Research in Europe
- Communication/Promotion/Advertising Strategies of European Firms
- Other Topics Directly Related to European Marketing

The Journal is published four times a year. Papers are blind reviewed by at least two

members of the Editorial Review Board. Book reviews are special case study materials based on product/service, success and/or failure of European companies in global markets and industries shall also appear as regular items in the Journal of Euromarketing.

Prospective authors are requested to attempt to restrict their submissions to approximately twenty-five double spaced pages including figures, tables, and references. Authors should submit their manuscripts electronically along with a short abstract and a one-page executive summary to either Editor-in-Chief Erdener Kaynak at ek9@comcast.net or Associate Editor Svetla Marinova at svetla@business.aau.dk. The IMDA Press style guidelines should be used in preparing manuscripts. If in doubt, prospective authors should either refer to the inside back cover of any IMDA Press journals or use The APA Style Guidelines. For more information and subscription to the journal visit <http://journals.sfu.ca/je/index.php/euromarketing> For "Instructions for Authors" and for additional information, please contact the Editor-in-Chief.

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INSTRUCTIONS FOR AUTHORS

Aims and Scope. The *Journal of Euromarketing* aims to meet the needs of academicians, practitioners, and public policymakers in the discussion of marketing issues pertaining to Europe. It helps to increase our understanding of the strategic planning aspects of marketing in Europe and the marketing aspects of the trading relationship between European and foreign firms. Today's Europe is going to play an increasingly more important role in the global economy, so the unique position of the region is certain to provide fascinating reading material. The *Journal of Euromarketing* fosters a conceptual understanding of the European markets and marketing systems, provides analytical insights, and highlights the past, present, and future of European marketing.

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