



IMPACT OF BRAND CRISES ON BRAND IMAGE IN THE AGE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL
RESPONSIBILITY

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my uncles, Bashar, Maamon, Hassan and Mustafa Daboul, and to my aunt, Maha Daboul, who all passed away during the writing-up stage of this thesis. You have always been supportive to me while alive, you are still emotionally motivating, and you will forever be in my mind and heart, R.I.P.

Abstract

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has received the attention of researchers and practitioners in the field of brand management due to its significant impact on brand performance. A number of studies and practical cases suggested that integrating CSR with branding strategy creates a number of benefits to the brand and its stakeholders mutually. CSR has been found to be effective to increase brand value, develop brand equity, reflect a positive brand perception, and build strong brand identity. From a customer's perspective, CSR has been found to be effective in maximising the perceived functional and emotional values emphasising the strategic importance of CSR as tool to enhance brand image and sustain a competitive advantage. Consequently, crisis managers and researchers - particularly in public relations, utilised CSR as an effective tool to respond to crisis situations and enhance a damaged brand image. This research aimed at investigating the impact of brand crises on brand image that had been accentuated with different CSR activities. The research examined the impact of two crisis types; performance-related and values related on brand benefits, and considered Carroll's (1991; 2016) pyramid of CSR as a conceptual theory to compare the different role that each CSR category; economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic CSR has in the context of each crisis. This was aimed to contribute to the understanding of the significance of CSR to brands through examining whether positive CSR records would attenuate, increase, or make no difference to the negative impact of performance-related crisis and values-related crisis.

A research model with a set of hypotheses was developed in the literature. The hypotheses were tested through a 2 x 2 x 5 experimental research designed that consisted of 5 different questionnaires, legal CSR, ethical CSR, economic CSR, philanthropic CSR and no CSR. Specifically, the research tested 20 different situations: (values-related crisis, and performance-related crisis) X (functional/experiential benefits, and symbolic benefits) X (legal CSR, ethical CSR, economic CSR, philanthropic CSR and no CSR).

The findings from this study indicated that both crises types damage the perception of functional/experiential and symbolic brand benefits. The perception of benefits perceived was negatively affected by the crises' incidents. Positive records of CSR activities at a pre-crisis stage were found to vary in terms of anticipation to the negative impact of performance and values related crises based on the nature of the CSR activity. Ethical and Philanthropic CSR were found to be effective to protect brand image from the negative impact of performance-related crisis, however, they were found to expose the brand to more damage in the context of a values-related crisis.

Finally, the research findings highlighted the importance of developing Carroll's CSR pyramid to align with customer's perspective of CSR with brand crisis in mind, in accordance to this a theoretical model was offered.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Chapter introduction

During the last two decades, corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been increasingly recognised as an effective tool for creating a positive impact on business reputation and brand image (Torres *et al.*, 2012; Park *et al.*, 2014). Organisations now feel the pressure to anticipate with CSR as it is being widely used with regards to competitive advantages (Gallardo and Sanchez, 2014; Calabrese *et al.*, 2013; Shuili *et al.*, 2010). A number of studies and researches have been conducted in this field. Researchers found that CSR has a positive impact on brand image (Popoli, 2011) and can even be used to improve the image (Falk and He, 2012; Gupta and Pirsch, 2008). Moreover, customers are more likely to build a positive perception about a brand with CSR and develop a strong memory about it among its competitors (Falk and He, 2012). This perception contributes directly to the development of brand image, which, in the long term, creates brand reputation (Roper and Fill, 2012).

Brand image is a very important component of overall brand equity. According to Keller (1993), brand equity is the value held in the customer's awareness and knowledge of the brand. Through this value, brands benefit from stronger loyalty levels, positive expectation of the brand's products and services, increased marketing communications effectiveness, better opportunities for growth and expansion and better resilience to crises (Hsu and Lawrence, 2016; Dawar and Lei, 2009; Keller, 2013). Creating and enhancing brand image will increase this value and build strong brand equity (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).

In the event of a crisis, brand image is highly sensitive to negative effects (Dawar and Lei, 2009; Roehm and Tybout, 2006). Managers seek different ways to regain brand equity after a crisis. Numerous studies have been conducted on brand crises and their impact on brand reputation, brand image, and overall brand equity. Researchers also investigated the impact of certain tools on brand reputation in the context of a crisis with CSR activities being widely recognised as an effective response approach to crises (Benoit, 1997; Klein and Dawar, 2004; Kim, Jeesun, 2019). Yet, the role of a positive CSR record in the crisis situation is still an under-researched area (Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Janssen *et al.*, 2015).

Janssen *et al.* (2015) highlighted the critical importance for further investigations to cover this gap. Their proposal put forth three assumptions about the role of CSR in the crises context. Firstly, CSR would increase an organisation's attention to the crisis based on the level of its involvement with CSR, as some organisations have positioned their businesses completely into CSR (such as Innocent and Whole Foods Market) while others have decided to partly involve the business with CSR (such as Google and BMW). Second, CSR affects stakeholders' attribution to the crisis. This refers to the stakeholders' reaction to the crisis and their level of "blame" towards the company. The assumption they provided here is that the attribution would depend on the organisation's motive for considering CSR. Third, CSR raises stakeholders' expectations of the way an organisation might respond to the crisis. For example, an organisation with an ethical image is expected to react more ethically than other types of organisation.

These assumptions clearly indicate the need for researchers to study this area further. Hence, this research puts Janssen *et al.*'s (2015) proposal into practice by investigating: 1) The different categories of CSR and their impact on brand image, 2) The different categories of brand crisis and their impact on brand image, and 3) The differences in the customer's perception of a brand that has been performing CSR – before and after a crisis. In doing so, this research takes a further step towards a better understanding of customers' perceptions of CSR and evaluating the effectiveness of different CSR activities in the crises context.

This research aims to do that not only to fill in a knowledge gap in the literature, but also to provide valuable outcomes, which would allow brand managers to assess and estimate the impact of crises on a socially responsible brand image, and evaluate the effectiveness of integrating different CSR activities in brand identity with crises in mind.

This chapter of the thesis provides an overview of the research background in light of the above to introduce the context of the research and to highlight the significance of this research and the rationale and motivation behind it from theoretical and practical perspectives. The chapter is accordingly structured across five sections; Section 1.2 sets an overview of the research background. Section 1.3 explains the purpose of the research. Section 1.4 presents the research aim and objectives. Section 1.5 explains the study's theoretical and practical significance, and finally section 1.6 outlines the thesis structure.

1.2 Research background

Branding is a concept that is concerned with building strong relationships between the business and its customers (Aaker, 2010; Belaid and Temessek, 2011; Abratt and Kleyn, 2012). Successful organisations focus carefully on building their brand and communicating it internally (to their managers and employees) and externally (to their customers, investors and society) to improve their performance in the market. This is because branding has been found to be a useful and important source for several benefits that are essential for a sustainable performance (Keller, 2013; Orth *et al.*, 2004). One of the main benefits is value proposition (Abratt and Kleyn, 2012; Thompson *et al.*, 2006). Customers, investors and staff members seek a better understanding of the organisation, as having a clear and strong brand will provide distinctiveness and value that holds information about the organisation, which helps it to stand out in a competitive market (Coleman *et al.*, 2015).

According to De Chernatony (2010), a strong and successful brand is one that is designed to communicate and deliver added values that are perceived by customers in accordance to their needs. Fatma *et al.* (2015) added that customers evaluate these values based on their own beliefs. It is therefore what customers are concerned about and interested in that defines the effectiveness of brand values (Orth *et al.*, 2004; Siltaoja, 2006). Hence, different people will have different value priorities, and the understanding of these priorities will frame the creation of strong brand perception. The attempt to understand the relationship between customers and brands leads to the conceptualisation of the term “brand equity”.

Brand equity in the literature has been examined from different perspectives. The widely recognised one is customer-based brand equity, which is defined as the differential impact of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing communications and activities of that brand (Keller, 1993). Other perspectives include financial-based brand equity, which is the total financial asset recognised when buying/selling a brand and can be added to the balance sheet (Feldwick, 1996; Atilgan *et al.*, 2005; Kim, Hong-bumm *et al.*, 2003), and employee-based brand equity, which focuses on employees' perceptions of the brand's unique environment that differentiates its workplace from competitors (King and Grace, 2009). However, the literature around brand equity seems to agree on the link between value and equity. Aaker (1996) argued that brand equity is a representation of how brand assists with different components such as visual identity and visibility, associations and loyalty, which aim to add value. Value on the other hand is the functional worth of a brand (the value for money) and it gives customers a reason to buy the brand's products over its competitors (Jones, 2005; Pappu *et al.*, 2005).

The process of building brand equity and adding value consists of all the different activities undertaken by a business. These activities reflect on the brand reputation and of the business (Van Riel and Fombrun, 2007) and consist of a variety of components such as brand associations, brand loyalty, perceived quality and brand awareness (Abratt and Kleyn, 2012). Businesses incorporate a variety of activities to communicate their brand identity and reflect a favourable reputation in the market. As discussed above, customers compare these activities to their

expectations and the more relevant they are, the stronger the brand reputation and brand equity will become (Jones, 2005).

In today's marketplace, one of the most notable expectations of businesses is to operate in a socially responsible manner and contribute towards sustainability (Boronat and Pérez, 2019). According to Roper and Fill (2012), businesses have been relying on CSR activities to meet and exceed customers' and stakeholders' expectations to ensure positive reputation and create a stronger brand equity. Lai *et al.* (2010) identified a direct and positive relationship between CSR and brand equity, and CSR was found to enhance reputation which in turn enhances brand equity (figure 1.1).

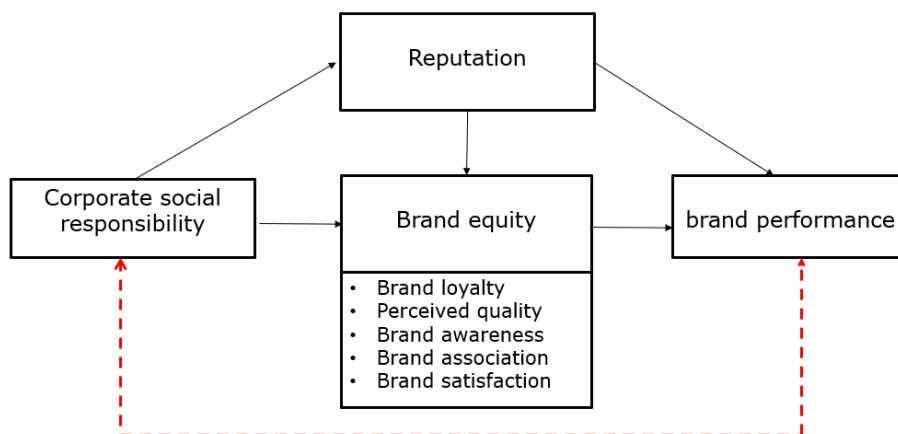


Figure 1. 1. CSR and brand equity. Source: Lai *et al.* (2010, P:459)

CSR was also found to increase brand equity attributions; if customers identify a match between the set of CSR activities undertaken by the brand and their expectations, then they will develop a favourable behaviour towards that brand. This will be through an increase in customer satisfaction, perception of good functionality and quality, and eventually a better customer loyalty. Lai *et al.* (2010)

also illustrated that reputation and equity have a direct impact on brand performance, which in return can enforce the CSR involvement through providing a supportive environment for sustainable development and socially responsible performance. Kotler and Lee (2005) argued that if companies portray themselves as responsible and ethical then this will lead to a higher brand reputation, higher profitability and increased share price, and thus improve brand positioning, which will generate a positive attitude from customers.

The significant relationship between CSR and reputation has been recognised and discussed in considerable detail in the literature. However, skeptical perception of the real motive behind a brand's involvement in CSR can be triggered and might instead damage the reputation if the CSR strategy is not well aligned with brand values (Ashforth and Gibbs, 1990; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Siltaoja, 2006). A damaged brand reputation is very harmful to the company's long-term profitability and success. This is because building a reputation requires a lot of time and effort but can quickly be damaged (Fatma *et al.*, 2015).

Brand reputation is a collection of different images that an external stakeholder (typically a customer) develops as a perception of the brand's values, personality and identity (figure 1.2). Brand image therefore holds the key to a strong reputation (Roper and Fill, 2012).

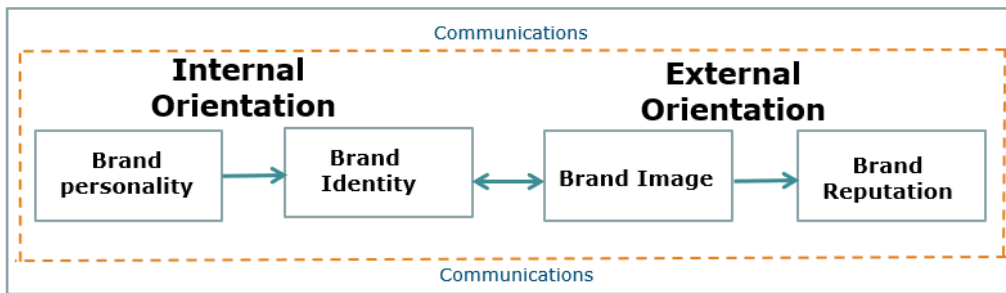


Figure 1. 2. Building blocks of brand reputation. *Source: Roper and Fill (2012)*

Brand image has been defined as the identification and the meaning of a brand held in a customer's memory, shaped by brand associations which hold and communicate values as a set of benefits perceived through integration with the brand and its products (Keller, 1993). The perceived benefits have been classified into two different components in the literature: product-related attributes, which include the quality of the products and raw materials, the performance and durability of the products and the ability to satisfy functional and experiential needs, and non-product-related attributes, such as social achievement, personal satisfaction (sense of achievement and confidence) and other social and emotional benefits that reflect a symbolic brand perception (Orth *et al.*, 2004; Keller, 2013). Thus, improved brand benefits will eventually help to reflect a positive brand image and brand reputation and result in better perception of a brand's value and equity.

CSR has been found to be an effective tool to increase brand benefits (Popoli, 2011; Falk and He, 2012; Podnar and Golob, 2007; Boronat and Pérez, 2019).

According to Loussaïef *et al.* (2014), brand image is the first level of brand equity that will be affected by CSR. Gupta and Pirsch (2008) tested the efficiency of CSR in

building a store image and found that the retailer's ability to deliver up-to-date products along with conducting CSR sustains a strong brand image. This is because CSR stimulates the ability of a brand to produce benefits. He and Lai (2014) investigated the impact of CSR on brand benefits and found that different types of CSR have different impacts on brand benefits. They adopted Carroll's CSR classification of CSR types; economic (businesses need to be profitable), legal (businesses are required to follow legislation and not break the law), ethical (behave and operate morally and ethically), and philanthropic (be a good corporate citizen) (Carroll, 2016). He and Lai (2014) found that legal CSR increases the perception of the brand's performance and quality, which directly affect the perception of the brand's functional benefits, while ethical CSR boosts the symbolic benefit perceived due to its impact on social and moral attributes. However, He and Lai (2014) did not test the other two CSR types, economic and philanthropic CSR, which leaves a gap in the literature that requires empirical investigation to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between CSR and brand image. Hence, this research will contribute to the knowledge by investigating this further and providing a complete and full understanding of the relationship between all four types of CSR and the brand benefits.

Thus, brand image and brand reputation require extra effort to build, especially as they are held in the customers' mind and memory and are exposed to all different factors that can affect their strengths and position. One of these factors is the intense global surveillance (Langaro *et al.*, 2018). A high level of media coverage and reach, and the large number of media channels available, intensify the

pressure on businesses as any trivial rumour can quickly escalate to become a crisis even if it was in a different country (Roper and Fill, 2012). Hence, brands seek different means and approaches to provide protection to their image and ensure customers' perceptions are still positive.

Research on crises' impact on brands proves that brand image is a vulnerable element to the negative impact of crises (Dawar and Lei, 2009). Different crisis types have different impacts on brand image. Researchers grouped crises into two broad types: performance-related crises, which are crises that affect the brand's performance and quality (Dawar and Pillutla, 2000; Lai *et al.*, 2015), and values-related crises, which affect the brand's moral and ethical image. It has been suggested in the literature that performance-related crises will therefore have a stronger effect than values-related crises on customers' perception of a brand's functional benefits. Values-related crises on the other hand will affect the symbolic benefits more than performance-related crises (e.g. Dawar and Pillutla, 2000; Roehm and Brady, 2007; Dutta and Pullig, 2011). However, it is significant to test and show the negative impact of the two crisis types on brand benefits in order to offer a further depth to the understanding of the effect on brand image, the current research aims to contribute to this area of knowledge.

Moreover, the negative impact of crises on brand image has also been found to be affected/moderated by the strengths and position of the brand itself. A number of researchers suggested that the pre-crisis perception of brand's behaviour would define customers' expectation of the brand's responsibility and image after a crisis. Benoit (1997) suggested that after a crisis, brands should remind customers of the

positive history and record of the brand's good behaviour – which forms an important approach in Benoit's image restoration theory. Klien and Dawar (2004) investigated the impact of performance-related crises on a socially responsible brand image and found that a positive record of CSR integration has the potential to protect the brand's image due to the CSR morality and ethical value that raises customers' expectations of the brand's response to correct the issue and act ethically and morally towards its stakeholders.

Furthermore, Godfrey *et al.* (2009) argued that after a crisis, stakeholders were more willing to blame external factors than accusing the bad management of wrong-doing if the organisation had a positive CSR record. Minor and Morgan (2011) added that if the motivation behind the brand's CSR involvement was recognised as socially responsible and not a strategy for profit maximisation, then the positive record of CSR will help to protect brand image after a crisis.

However, since different CSR categories are perceived differently by customers (Pérez and Rodríguez, 2014; Baden, 2016), there is a need to investigate the role of economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic CSR on brand image after crisis incidents in order to ensure a better understanding of crises impact and whether a high CSR involvement would protect the brand image or amplify the issue further.

1.3 Purpose of the research

A missing piece in branding with CSR theory is how different CSR categories perform in the context of different crisis types with regards to brand image management. Most of the current literature focuses on CSR activities with ethical nature and on "performance-related crises" with arguments and discussions about

the link between the topics and the implication of this on branding. This research therefore seeks to expand the knowledge into economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic types of CSR and considers the context of values-related crises as well as performance-related crises. This can help brand managers in their crisis planning to evaluate/predict the type of damage that might affect the brand image if the brand integrates CSR activities within its brand value and identity.

Furthermore, the research provides a clearer understanding of the impact of performance-related and values-related crises on brand benefits specifically. This can clarify the different crises' impact on brand image with and without CSR. This will also contribute towards evaluating whether brands should consider CSR or not as a type of precaution from further crises.

In addition, this research will identify what impact different CSR activities have on brand benefits. This will help to provide a better understanding of the relationship between brand image building and CSR.

1.4 Research aim and objectives

The aim of this research is to create and offer a conceptual framework based on current CSR theories in order to help brands to evaluate their CSR strategy and understand the impact of this on brand image before and after different types of crises.

Objectives of the research:

Objective 1) To critically analyse the existing literature and previous cases concerning CSR, brand crises, and brand image.

Objective 2) To investigate the different categories of CSR and their impact on brand image.

Objective 3) To investigate the different categories of brand crisis and their impact on brand image

Objective 4) To investigate the differences in the customer's perception of a brand that has been performing CSR – before and after crises.

1.5 Research significance

The significance of this research is within the contribution to both theoretical and practical perspectives as outlined in section 1.3:

1.5.1 Theoretical perspective

This research provides an investigation into Carroll's (1991) theoretical model of CSR. It tests the theory in the context of two crisis types: performance-related and values-related crises, and compares the impact on brand image through examining changes in perceived benefits. Specifically, the research examines 20 different situations: (values-related crisis, and performance-related crisis) X (functional/experiential benefits, and symbolic benefits) X (legal CSR, ethical CSR, economic CSR, philanthropic CSR and no CSR). The results provide a better and a comprehensive understanding of how each one of the four CSR categories reacts in the context of crises, which also helps to evaluate the effectiveness of incorporating the four CSR categories within brand identity building.

Furthermore, this research extends the understanding of the customer's perspective of a brand's social responsibility, and the results of the research have led to re-designing Carroll's CSR model to fit within branding strategy.

1.5.2 Practical perspective

In addition to better understanding the customers' perception of a socially responsible brand identity, the research provides managers with an explanation of how a positive record of different CSR activities – economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic – will pay off in the context of performance-related and values-related crises. This will enable managers to assess their CSR strategy and approach and understand how to achieve total CSR, i.e. full integration with all CSR types (Carroll, 2016), with crises in mind.

1.6 Thesis structure outline

Chapter one of this thesis starts with a review of the background of the research and identifies the limitations and gaps that this research aims to contribute to. The chapter also identifies key subjects and topics that are of concern to this study. The research purpose will then be explained and presented from a theoretical and practical perspective. The chapter identifies the aim of the research along with the set of objectives proposed for this research.

Chapter two provides an in-depth revision of literature with a focus on the three broad areas of this research: CSR, brand crisis and brand image. The chapter starts with a review of the origins of CSR and the relationship between CSR and sustainability. This is required to ensure a comprehensive theoretical understanding of the concept and models of CSR and to identify the relationship

between sustainability and CSR. The chapter then shifts to focus on CSR and its application at a branding level with an evaluation of the different benefits as well as criticism of CSR. The chapter turns towards crises and crisis management to ensure a full understanding of the different theories and strategies already available to revitalise and enhance a damaged brand image. CSR will then be re-introduced within the context of brand crises to identify the gaps in the literature further and to complete the development of the research hypotheses. The chapter also presents a conceptual model that illustrates the different research hypotheses along with the theoretical framework of the study.

Chapter three presents the research methodology. The chapter starts by outlining the research philosophy and highlights the philosophical standpoint with consideration to how the researcher views the nature of the research area. The chapter then discusses the justification of the research methods and strategy. It also outlines the pilot study and its process and stages.

Chapter four presents the data analysis measurement and findings. The first section offers a view of the descriptive data and the main findings from the explorative analysis. The second section discusses the analysis based on the impact of brand crisis on brand image. It moves to present the findings from the comparative analysis of the different situations to test the research hypotheses.

Chapter five consists of the main discussion of findings and reconsideration of the conceptual model considering the research findings. A critical comparison to the existing literature is also provided within this chapter.

The thesis concludes with the final chapter (**chapter six**) discussing the conclusions, the theoretical contribution, managerial implication, as well as limitations and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter critically analyses and reviews the current research relevant to the theories and models of corporate social responsibility (CSR), brand crisis, and brand image. The chapter provides an overview of essential theoretical approaches that explains the theoretical underpinning of this study and contributes in achieving the research aim and objectives. First, a distinction in meaning and definition between sustainability and CSR is developed. This is important to ensure a common understanding of the terms and concepts, and to provide a theoretical framework of the CSR and its categories and implementations in the business world, in which this research works. The second part investigates the application of CSR at a brand level. It is important to examine the effect of CSR on brand image and achieve a comprehensive understanding of the impact of each CSR category on brands, and brand image in particular. The third section looks at the concept of crises and crisis management. It provides a thorough investigation into the different categories of brand crises and their impact on brand image. The fourth and the final section states the overall conclusion of the current literature and develops a conceptual framework in which a set of hypotheses are developed to be investigated in a quantitative study.

2.2 Sustainability and CSR origins

Sustainability and CSR have been widely discussed in the literature. The concept of CSR has emerged from the view that businesses need to consider other concerns and issues beyond the technical, operational and economic aspects of business. Early research around CSR focused on the relationship between businesses and

society. Bowen (1953) defined CSR as the businessmen's responsibility to create policies, make decisions and manage actions that are framed by the society's values and will contribute to achieve wider social objectives. Bowen's view of CSR identifies broader business considerations that include the contribution to society's welfare, the living standards of individuals and progress of the economy.

In a similar view, Davis (1960) defines CSR as the businessmen's actions and decisions that are beyond the direct economic and technical interests of the business. According to this view, the financial performance of the business is not concerned with CSR and the focus should rather be on the obligations towards social aspects and values. Walton (1967) on the other hand contradicted this view and argued that there is a link between the financial performance of a business and its social obligations. This link comes from the voluntary responsibility to meet the external stakeholders' different needs and expectations. The importance of this view is that it introduced the "optional" aspect of CSR activities and that a wider range of stakeholders needs to be addressed.

Building on this, Johnson (1971) argues that businesses should find a balance between different stakeholder interests instead of pushing only for profit maximisation. Businesses are then required to identify multiple goals which by their achievement will meet different stakeholder's needs in addition to profit maximisation. This view introduces the rationale for stakeholder theory that will be discussed later in this chapter. Johnson (1971) suggests that businesses rank these goals based on importance and prioritise their social responsibility accordingly.

In 1971, the Committee for Economic Development (CED) offered a CSR model that classified CSR into three levels (figure 2.1). The first level of CSR consisted of the basic activities that aim to increase productivity and business economic performance. This level is called the inner circle of CSR. At a broad level, businesses need then to consider the consequences of their activities on the external environment and the society surrounding the business. This is highlighted in the model as an intermediate circle. Finally, the highest level of CSR consisted of a stronger and much broader focus of businesses on the social environment as represented by the outer circle in the model.

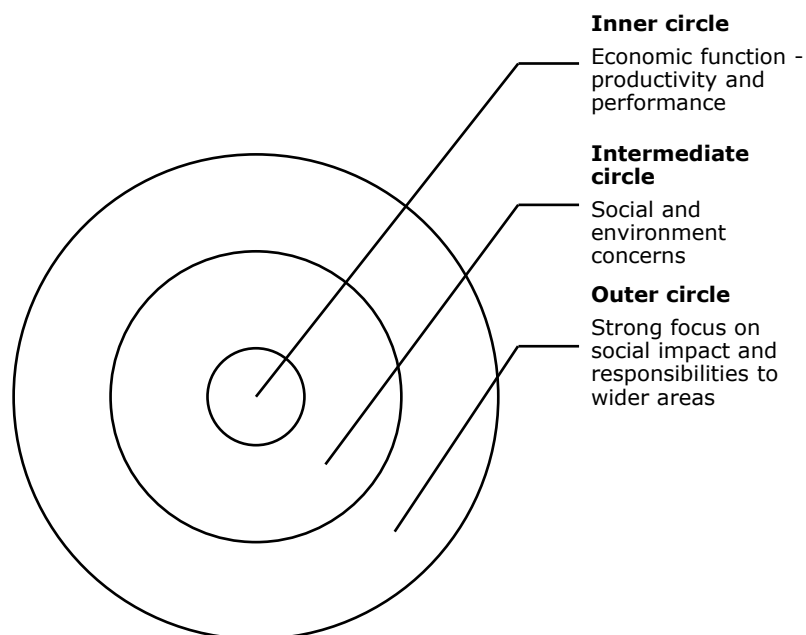


Figure 2. 1. The CED triple-centric model of CSR. *Source: adapted from (van Marrewijk, 2003)*

The triple-centric model of CSR was an important development of the concept as it differentiated between different CSR levels. The financial and economic benefit was still considered primary and placed in the centre, though two levels of social

responsibilities were identified which initiated the shift in CSR origin from a general social responsibility to defined stages (Carroll, 1999; Van marrewijk, 2003; Dahlsrud, 2008).

After the development of the CED triple-centric model, many studies emerged that developed the concept even further and introduced a wider range of responsibilities that would include different types of activities such as ethical and philanthropic, which will be examined further in this chapter (e.g. Sethi, 1975; Carroll, 1979; Carroll, 1991; Van marrewijk, 2003; Snider *et al.*, 2003; Gallardo and Sanchez, 2014; Carroll, 2016).

Hence, the concept of CSR emerged from the social obligations of businesses to meet the stakeholders' needs. These obligations were developed further in the literature and in the commercial world to fit with the increased expectation for business to act responsibly and to encourage social values and welfare. This is referred to as corporate social performance (CSP), which will be examined later in this chapter. CSR therefore has been considered as a major contributor to achieve the ultimate goal of sustainability and to boost sustainable development at a national level. To clarify this, it is important to review the concept and theory of sustainability to formulate a comprehensive understanding of the term.

2.3 Sustainability and sustainable development: Definitions and theories

Although sustainability is old in principle, the term sustainability was first mentioned in 1974 by the World Council of Churches in its conference in Geneva

about human poverty and the environment (Mcmanus, 2014). However, the first official definition of sustainability and sustainable development was not coined until 1983 by the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) (Mcmanus, 2014; Dresner, 2008; WCED, 1987). The report of the meeting was published in 1987 under the title *“Our Common Future”*, which is widely known as the Brundtland commission, where sustainable development was defined as “a development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987 p:8). Although this definition is widely used and quoted by scholars in the literature, it has also been criticised for being “anthropocentric” as it puts human needs and wants on top of all the other inhabitants of Planet Earth (Borland and Lindgreen, 2013). Dresner (2008) argues that the strength and weakness of this definition, at the same time, is being simple and vague, but the importance of the report in general is that it reflects the concern about environmental and economic issues, and balances between those considerations by presenting the idea of environmental limits (nature and natural resources limitations) in a way that governments and industries would agree to, as it does not interfere with the economic development and growth (Dresner, 2008; Hilgenkamp, 2005), and this is currently referred to as “ecological modernisation theory” (Dresner, 2008).

Belz and Peattie (2009) argue that the idea of sustainable development is embraced by sustainability, and *“requires a change in the behaviour of virtually everyone, including both producers and consumers”* (Belz and Peattie 2009, P: 30).

Hunt (2011) and Calabrese *et al.* (2013) agree with this view and add that at the

same time sustainable development should continually encourage economic growth.

Another widely accepted view of sustainability and sustainable development is that, in terms of definitions, the concepts are very contestable, meaning that the definition can take many interpretations and can be with a different view to different people (Jacobs, 1991; Blewitt, 2008; Dresner, 2008; Scott, 2009). Like freedom, democracy or justice, almost everyone agrees to the basic meaning of them, but the dispute is how they should be implemented (Jacobs, 2014). Blewitt (2008) supports this view and adds that, to avoid being vague and unfocused like liberty or justice, sustainable development must have a clear target. This view of not having one fixed definition that fits all basically explains the emergence of a variety of sustainability types, such as agricultural sustainability, sustainability accounting, and corporate sustainability (CS), which will be discussed further in this chapter. This view around sustainability and sustainable development also considers the two concepts of being inter-related, where “sustainable development” is the plan and the roadmap to achieve the long-term ultimate goal of “sustainability” (Dresner, 2008; Blewitt, 2008).

According to Zink (2008), the idea of sustainable development is based on three normative theoretical concepts and definitions:

- The focus is on human needs; human beings are the centre of concern and entitled to have a healthy life in contrast with nature, as stated in principle 1 of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in 1992 (UNCED, 1992).

- Generational equity; both inter-generational justice, which is the fair allocation of resources for current and future generations, and intra-generational justice, which is the fair allocation of resources within present generations, this concept was generated from the original definition of sustainable development in the Brundtland report (WCED, 1987).
- The equal consideration of the economic, social and environmental objectives, defined as the three pillars of sustainability (Elkington, 1997).

Recent views around sustainable development consider it to be an *“eco-centric epistemology that offers an alternative cultural and mental framework that focuses on the whole ecosystem and the balance of all species and elements”* (Borland and Lindgreen, 2013 P:174). This argument provides a notion of a sustainable approach in the form of a strategy development that is no longer *“anthropocentric”*, but includes the needs and wants of an ecosystem in its entirety (Borland and Lindgreen, 2013).

2.3.1 The pillars of sustainability

Sustainability is arguably based on three main pillars: social, environmental, and economic (Elkington, 1997; Blewitt, 2008; Ratner, 2004; Borland and Lindgreen, 2013) (figure 2.2). The challenge for sustainable development therefore is to balance between those three pillars, and achieve the three main objectives as defined by Zink (2008) and Blewitt (2008): social development, economic development, and environmental protection.

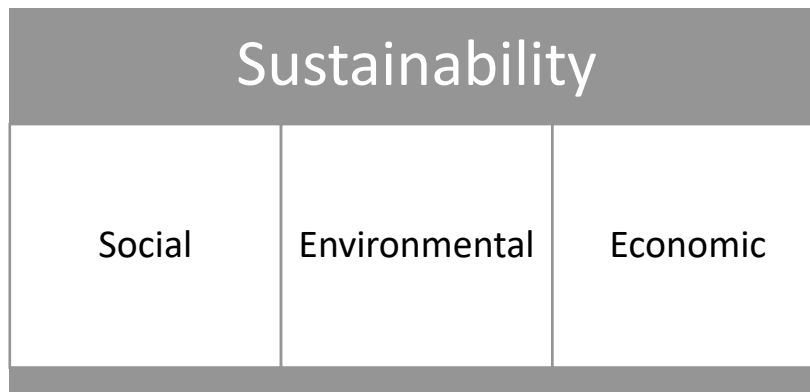


Figure 2. 2. The three pillars of sustainability. *Source: developed by the author from Elkington (1997).*

The phenomenon of the relationship between the three pillars is known as the three circles model which consists of two views: “conventional” and “concentric” (Scott, 2009; Hadsell, 2010). The conventional view, illustrated in figure 2.3, shows the balance of the three pillars, where the circles are equal in size reflecting the same importance of each pillar in theory (figure 2.3.A). However, in reality, the focus is rather on economy (figure 2.3.B), which has the priority of the decision making, and the society is bearing the cost of being less important, with the highest price been paid by the environment – the least important pillar. Support for this view is stated by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) in its 2006 report on the future of sustainability and its development in the 21st century. The report stated that a systematic change must be made to balance the size of the three circles, and to avoid a purely economic motivation for sustainability. However, Hadsell (2010) argues that there are determined directions towards more balanced sustainability practices, as sustainability is very powerful, and the concept is widely recognised.

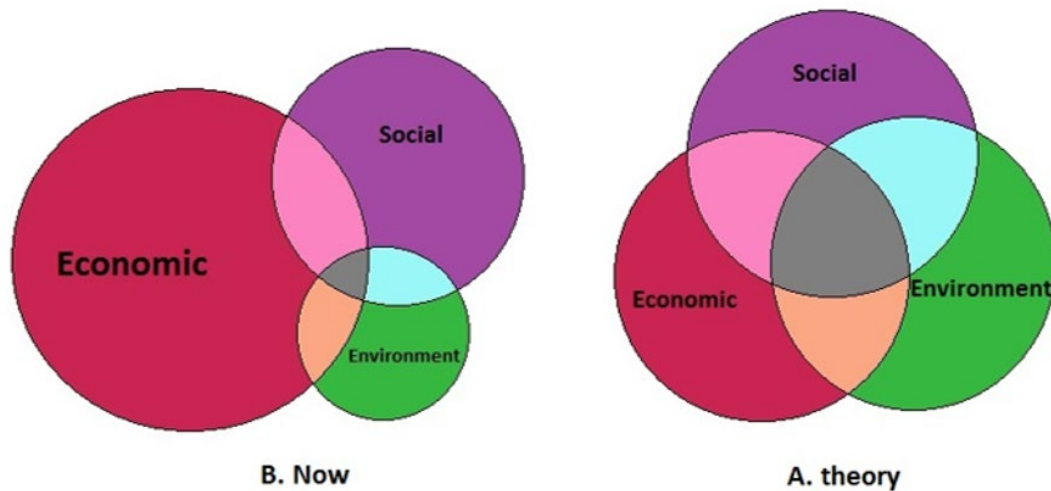


Figure 2. 3. The conventional model of the interrelation between the three pillars. *Source: developed by the author from Hadsell (2010) and Scott (2009)*

In the concentric view, the three circles interact with each other, but not interdependently; one circle might be pushed out of another (Scott, 2009). For example, a factory causing pollution to a nearby river may be considered acceptable by the management because the pollution goes to somewhere else outside the factory and does not necessarily affect the business performance. However, according to Dresner (2008), once they accept that there's no "somewhere else", and the river is actually part of the factory's sustainability, they will start to take the issue more seriously and accept the consequences. This view is adopted by ecological economists and illustrated in figure 2.4 (Jacobs, 1991; Khan *et al.*, 2013; Jacobs, 2014; Kahreh *et al.*, 2014).

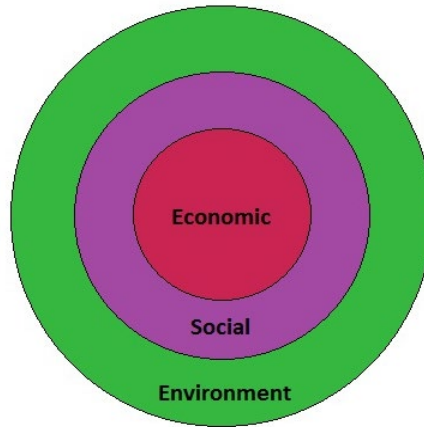


Figure 2. 4. The concentric model. *Source: developed from Scott (2009)*

A major criticism of the three-pillar model is that it needs updating to cope with the increased complexity of modern societies. Magee *et al.* (2013) argued that sustainability is a social condition and criticised the current approaches towards sustainability of trying to bind the concept into an economic and environmental condition. They reviewed the current approaches of implementing sustainability into practice as being either “bottom-up” or “top-down”. **Bottom-up approach** facilitates the role of people, nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) and communities, and starts from the people level (Dresner, 2008). Therefore, this approach is better at solving social problems and environmental issues (Nidumolu *et al.*, 2009; Elkington and Brenneke, 2007). **Top-down approach**, on the other hand, starts from the government and the large projects and corporations that can force the change in society to solve issues and crises – for example, an environmental crisis (Nidumolu *et al.*, 2009; Elkington and Brenneke, 2007). The study by Magee *et al.* (2013) concluded with the development of a third approach to sustainability that combined the two. The approach has three main aims:

1. To provide a foundational model for conceptualising social sustainability.

2. To structure engagement with local communities to identify key issues against that model.
3. To promote adoption, where acceptable, of specific indicators drawn from top-down frameworks.

Magee *et al.* (2013) argued that sustainability is a social condition that consists of four social categories. These four categories are framed by social responsibilities. The first one is the economic considerations which is a social category that fall under social obligations. The second category is the ecology as an alternative concept to the “non-social” pillar of environment. Culture and politics have also been recognised by the study as third and fourth pillars of sustainability because of their power and meaning with the social influence, and thus the result is a social sustainability with four pillars: economic, ecological, political, and cultural.

Although the study tends more towards the social aspects, in accordance with the agenda 21 and Hawkes (2001), it supports the importance and the power of culture in sustainability. This view is also considered by Borland and Lindgreen (2013), who also urged for a more dynamic approach towards sustainability, which is not entirely inclusive to the needs and wants of an ecosystem.

Thus, the phenomena of sustainability as being concentrated on environmental and ecological movements was developed to include social and cultural aspects. Sustainability is no longer limited to using natural resources sustainably; it also involves social impact consideration and value creation, which will contribute to the welfare of individuals and societies and become embedded within the culture at a broad level. In the business world, the application of sustainability has also

been discussed and debated. Having reviewed the roots of sustainability, it is now essential to examine the phenomena and its application at a business level which would help to further clarify the relationship between CSR and sustainability.

2.4 Sustainability in the business world

In the mid-nineteenth century, the focus of businesses was on how to increase profit margins. Methods like mass production, cutting cost and increasing productivity were the only means for competitive advantage, with no attention to the social impacts, working conditions of the low-cost labour, or to how natural and raw materials were sourced (Fletcher, 2008; Bhardwaj and Fairhurst, 2010). It was only in the 1960s when this form of operation started to be criticised (Brown *et al.*, 2010; Fletcher, 2008; Mcmanus, 2014), and as a result, new concepts emerged in the 1970s in the business world and in the literature, such as corporate sustainability, corporate social responsibility, green practice, social equity, business ethics, and fair trading (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Brown *et al.*, 2010; Bhardwaj and Fairhurst, 2010). Many cases revealed the shift in the public's opinion to be more effective and persuasive for businesses to consider their social, environmental and economic aspects of their business in that era (Hunt, 2011). In the 1970s the public stood against Nestlé due to its aggressive marketing of breast milk substitutes, mainly in developing countries where Nestlé milk substitutes were often mixed with contaminated water, which put the health of babies under high threat of infection. A boycott against Nestlé took place in the USA and quickly spread to Europe, which damaged the reputation of Nestlé internationally and

forced the company to change its practices, and to pay attention to ethical considerations (Krasny, 2012).

Levi's, the jeans and fashion company, also faced strong public pressure to change its policy of productivity improvements in the 1970s, after information reached the public that workers' basic rights had been abused in order to get them to work harder, cut cost and achieve a highly competitive low-price position in the market (Wong and Taylor, 2000; Graafland, 2002). Such cases show the early involvement of ethical and social issues in the business world, which directly affected and shaped the way businesses performed in national and international markets (Graafland, 2002). An example of this development was the formation of the International Labour Organization (ILO), which introduced a Tripartite Declaration of Principles on Multinational Enterprises and Social Policy in 1977 (Sajhau, 2000). This is an important policy that has impacted the retail sector that is still applicable today, and focuses not only on the workers' rights and promotion procedures but also on the protection of the natural resources, the environment and animal welfare (D'astous and Legendre, 2009; Sajhau, 2000).

Sustainability, in the business world, has become the umbrella where many other business concepts belong, such as corporate sustainability (Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002), corporate social performance (Wood, 1991), corporate governance (Khan *et al.*, 2013), and corporate social responsibility (Carroll, 1991) in spite of the fact that these concepts have been around much longer, as definitions, than sustainability has been (Belz and Peattie, 2009).

2.4.1 Corporate sustainability (CS)

Corporate sustainability (CS) is the transfer of the overall idea of sustainable development to the business level (Zink, 2008). According to Dyllick and Hockerts (2002), the overall definition of sustainable development by the WCED in the Brundtland report can therefore be translated to:

“Meeting the needs of a firm’s direct and indirect stakeholders (such as shareholders, employees, clients, pressure groups, communities etc.), without compromising its ability to meet the needs of future stakeholders as well” (Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002, p:131)

According to Zink (2008), from the perspective of corporate sustainability, corporations are important actors in sustainable development, because they not only satisfy the human needs but also create new needs and directly affect lifestyle in the society. Also, the stakeholders’ needs must be met as best as possible (Donaldson and Preston, 1995), and this is crucial for success and continuity (Zink, 2008). Thus, corporate sustainability consists of not only economic but also environmental and social considerations (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Zink, 2008). Same as the mother term: “sustainability”, corporate sustainability is based on the same three pillars of sustainability. However, here they are known as the 3Ps (profit, people, planet), or the “triple bottom line” of sustainability, which was first introduced by John Elkington in 1997 (Elkington, 1997; Van marrewijk, 2003; Zink, 2008).

2.4.2 Corporate social performance (CSP) and corporate social responsibility (CSR)

The concept of corporate social performance (CSP) has been in practice since the mid-1970s. Since then, many scholars investigated CSP and its approach. Carroll's (1979) research presented the first conceptual model of CSP. Derived from the phenomena of social responsibility, Carroll suggested that the term "responsibility" cannot be measured as it mirrors firms' motivation, and therefore the term "performance" can fit better as an operative concept. Carroll's model provided three dimensions – economic performance, social issues and philosophies of social responsiveness – but did not directly provide a definition for CSP. Sethi (1975) previously defined some methods to assess CSP but did not define the term itself. Preston (1978) investigated CSP and its policy, provided a research around the concept, but also did not define it. Wartick and Cochran (1985), based on Carroll's (1979) work, integrated CSP and constructed a model for it called "*the underlying interaction among the principles of social responsibility, the process of social responsiveness, and the policies developed to address social issues*" (Wartick, Cochran, 1985, P:758) and showed how several competing perspectives (economic responsibility, public responsibility, social responsiveness) could be incorporated into this framework (Wartick and Cochran, 1985). Wood (1991) coined the first and the most comprehensive definition of CSP, which is still adopted in the literature until today (Wang, Yijing and Berens, 2015; Belz and Peattie, 2009):

“a business organization’s configuration of principles of social responsibility, processes of social responsiveness, and policies, programs, and observable outcomes as they relate to the firm’s societal relationships” (Wood, 1991, P:693)

The definition reflects the essence and the purpose of CSP, to assess the social performance of a firm through examining the degree of the firm’s socially responsible actions, the usage level of socially responsive processes, the existence and nature of the policies and programmes designed to manage the firm’s societal relationships, and their social impacts (Wood, 1991).

Wood’s (1991) definition and model of CSP (figure 2.6) has been widely investigated in the literature. Studies by Swanson (1995; 1999), Orlitzky *et al.* (2003), Wood *et al.* (2006), Margolis *et al.* (2007), Hond *et al.* (2007) and Belz and Peattie (2009) support this definition and investigate the concept further with relation to the firm’s financial performance. However, other researchers like Walsh *et al.* (2003) and even Wood (2010) criticised the restriction of CSP with the firm’s side only: *“The whole idea of CSP is to discern and assess the impacts of business–society relationships. Now it is time to shift the focus away from how CSP affects the firm, and towards how the firm’s CSP affects stakeholders and society”* (Wood 2010, P: 76). However, Borland and Lindgreen (2013), and Belz and Peattie (2009), argued that this gap has already been covered by the CSR, which is considered to be part of the CSP. In fact, Wood’s (1991) model of CSP (figure 2.6) illustrates that CSR contributes to the overall CSP. Soler (2010) clarifies that the company’s CSP is directly affected by its CSR involvement; if a company fails to perform a positive CSR, the stakeholders will view its social integration and CSP as insufficient.

The Corporate Social Performance Model
Principles of corporate social responsibility
<p style="text-align: center;">Institutional principle: legitimacy</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Organisational principle: public responsibility</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Individual principle: managerial discretion</p>
Processes of corporate social responsiveness
<p style="text-align: center;">Environmental assessment</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Stakeholder management</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Issues management</p>
Outcomes of corporate behaviour
<p style="text-align: center;">Social impacts</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Social programmes</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Social policies</p>

Figure 2. 5. The Corporate Social Performance. *Source: Wood (1991 p: 694)*

Corporate social responsibility therefore is the integration of social and ecological aspects into the corporation's business activities and relationships with its employees and stakeholders, whether directly or indirectly (Zink, 2008; Van marrewijk, 2003). Corporate social responsibility is evoked into the triple bottom line of corporate sustainability (Van marrewijk, 2003) (Figure 2.7).

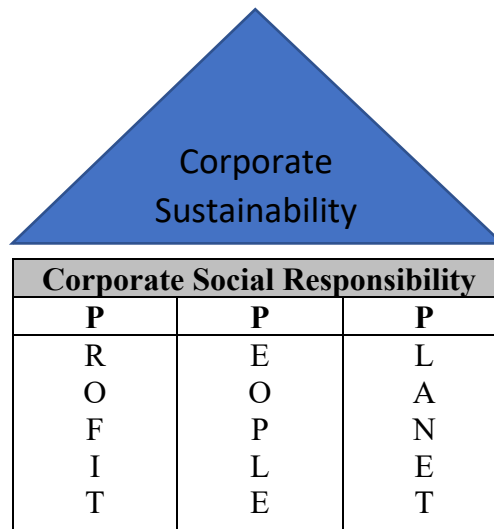


Figure 2. 6. The relationship between CS, CSR, and the 3Ps. *Source: Marrewijk, (2003, p:101)*

Corporate sustainability acts as the ultimate goal, and CSR as an intermediate stage, and corporations try to balance the 3Ps – Profit, People, Planet – in order to achieve these goals (Van marrewijk, 2003; Panapanaan *et al.*, 2003; Zwart, 2002).

After reviewing the concepts of CSR and CSP, it can be argued that the relationship between CSR and CSP can be described as a dynamic interrelationship. Scholars like Carroll (1978; 1991) and Wood (2010) considered CSR as being part of CSP. Wood (2010) argued that CSP can be seen as an extension of CSR, which focuses on actual results achieved rather than the general notion of businesses' accountability or responsibility to society (Wood, 2010). Other scholars like Wang and Berens (2015) argued that both terms reflect the same meaning and the argument should not be about which one contains the other. Belz and Peattie (2009) assert that both CSR and CSP concepts are embraced by the holistic term of sustainability. Therefore, the model in figure 2.8 illustrates the interrelationship

between CSR and CSP. CSR and CSP therefore can work side by side; each can feed into the other to contribute to the overall corporate sustainability:

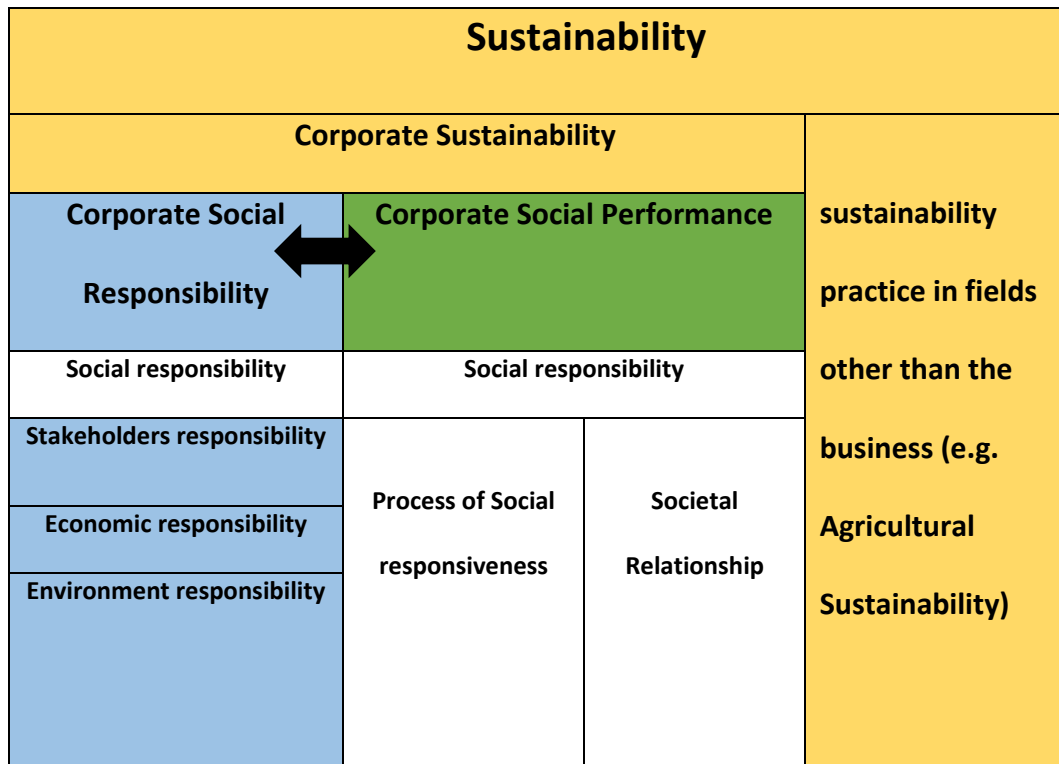


Figure 2. 7. Sustainability, CS, CSR, and CSP. Source: created by the author

Corporate sustainability, the overall concept, involves activities and issues tackled by both CSR and CSP respectively (Belz and Peattie, 2009). This is because it *“integrates social and environmental concerns in companies’ business operations and in their interaction with stakeholders on a voluntary basis”* (European Commission, 2001 P:4). CSR in this model adopted the original three pillars of CS: Economic, Social, and Environmental, in addition to the stakeholder’s responsibility, which was missing from the three pillars of CS and the triple bottom line model (Kaminsky, 2015). The particular reason for adopting the three pillars view is to illustrate the shared responsibility of “Social” between CSR and CSP. CSP, on the other hand, has been developed based on Wood’s (1978; 1991; 2010) work.

2.5 CSR – Theories, implementation, and impacts

Although there's still no single definition of CSR that can be agreed upon by scholars or practitioners (De Bakker, 2016; Dickson *et al.*, 2012), the general concept of CSR can be described as the *“context-specific organizational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social and environmental performance”* (Aguinis and Glavas, 2012 P:933). In the literature, a vast amount of work has been undertaken on CSR and the triple bottom line. It can be argued that the most popular work is Carroll's (1979; 1991) pyramid of CSR types (De Bakker, 2016; Dickson *et al.*, 2012; Borland and Lindgreen, 2013).

2.5.1 Types of CSR

Carroll's (1979) research presented four areas of conducting CSR: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary, which was changed to philanthropy in his 1991 work (Carroll, 1991). The four areas of CSR identified the four-definitional framework of CSR that represents the expectations of societies towards businesses. The framework argues that society expects businesses to be responsible and take actions that will contribute positively to the values of that society. Carroll argues that businesses need to be profitable, obey the law, be ethical, and be good corporate citizens (Carroll, 1979; 1991). According to Carroll (2016), the exact meaning of these types may change or develop in time based on the requirement and expectations of the society; however, findings of Carroll's work concluded that economic and legal responsibilities are required by society, ethical responsibility is expected, and philanthropic responsibility is desired (Carroll, 2016).

Based on this four-definitional framework of CSR, Carroll built the famous Pyramid of CSR in 1991 and re-examined it in 2016 (figure 2.9), which has been widely adopted and very popular among CSR and CSP scholars (Baden, 2016; Wang and Berens, 2015; Wood, 2010; De Bakker, 2016).



Figure 2. 8. The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility. Source: Carroll (1991 p:42)

The purpose of the pyramid was to emphasise the four-definitional framework and to illustrate its building block nature. The shape was designed to reflect the fundamental roles played and expected by businesses in society (Carroll, 1991; 2016). The assumption was that firms represent the economic institution and therefore have a primary responsibility for economic growth. Then the legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibility layers are ranked respectively in a decreasing order of implied attention, not importance, hence the decrease of size in each layer.

2.5.1.1 Economic responsibilities

This type of CSR emphasises the significance of being profitable. According to Carroll (2016), being profitable is a necessity for existence required by society and stakeholders. Businesses are required to sustain themselves and make a profit.

This will be through the products and services they offer to satisfy the stakeholders' needs and wants, which will eventually increase the business capability to add value and benefit to all stakeholders (Jensen, 2010).

This view of CSR is not new. As discussed earlier in this chapter, economic responsibilities were part of CSR roots and origins. Friedman (1970) argued that the primary responsibility of any business is to be profitable. The CED triple-centric model of CSR figure (2.1) placed economic responsibility at the centre (inner circle) of the CSR framework. Profit has also been considered a major element of sustainability. It is one of the triple bottom line factors that reflect the economic pillar of sustainability (Elkington, 1997). Carroll (2016) argues that economic responsibility is the foundation upon which all other CSR responsibilities rest.

2.5.1.2 Legal responsibilities

Legal responsibilities consist of the business obligations to follow legislations and business rules. According to Carroll (1991), law is the society's code of conduct of what is right and wrong and how things should be done. Stakeholders would therefore require businesses to follow this codification of right and wrong and perform according to government and law regulations.

Legal responsibility has also been rooted within CSR origins. Early research around CSR argued that businesses should obey the law (Friedman, 1970), and individuals

(employees and managers) should also be responsible for following the regulations (Johnson, 1971). Recent research has also shown that this type of CSR is still relevant and required by stakeholders in the 21st century (e.g. Baden, 2016; De Bakker, 2016; Janssen *et al.*, 2015; Becchetti *et al.*, 2015; Wang and Berens, 2015; Lai *et al.*, 2015).

2.5.1.3 Ethical responsibilities

This type of CSR refers to the business obligation to perform in accordance with the society's moral and ethical norms. The business activities, decisions, policies and standards should be framed with what is right, and should avoid harm even if it is not codified into law. Hence, businesses are expected to behave ethically beyond the mere compliance with laws and regulations (Carroll, 1991; 2016).

A vast number of studies have been conducted around ethical responsibilities. Garriga and Melé (2004) grouped the key research in this area into four theories. The normative stakeholder theory states that businesses should have a fiduciary relationship with all stakeholders, not just stockholders, and that the normative core of ethical principles should frame the business obligations towards stakeholders (Freeman, 1984; 2010). Universal rights theory refers to the adoption of the United Nations' Universal Declaration of Human Rights, labour rights and environmental protection (Cassel, 2001; Sullivan, 1999). Sustainable development theory refers to the business contribution towards the sustainable development discussed in section 2.3 of this chapter and maintains that to achieve human development there must be consideration of present and future generations (Garriga and Melé, 2004). Finally, the common good theory considers the key

reference for business ethics is the common good value of the society, and that businesses should contribute to this common value(s) and positively affect the development and wellbeing of the society (Velasquez, 1992; Mahon and McGowan, 1991). This contribution according to Garriga and Melé (2004) can be achieved through various ways, such as creating wealth, operating fairly and efficiently, and respecting individual rights in a friendly and fair manner.

Carroll (2016) argued that ethical responsibilities should embrace and saturate the pyramid. Ethical conduct should be considered throughout the pyramid. Societies expect businesses to operate in an ethical manner. They expect businesses to follow the legislations as discussed earlier which is an ethical comportment, though businesses should also conduct their affairs in a fair manner when the law does not provide a clear guidance. Moreover, the way profit is generated should be framed with ethical behaviour, and businesses should respect the norms and values throughout their function and operate in an objective and fair manner. Furthermore, involvement in philanthropic activities should be derived and motivated by ethical causes and performance. Hence, ethical responsibility performs a vital role in the achievement of the totality of CSR.

2.5.1.4 Philanthropic responsibilities

This type of CSR refers to the discretionary and voluntary activities guided by the business's desire to contribute and participate in the society. These types of activities are not required by law or expected in an ethical sense, though the motivation to get involved is derived from ethical and moral values (Carroll, 2016). Stakeholders generally expect business to "give back" and contribute to the well-

being of the society. However, since the nature of these activities reflects the “extra mile” that businesses may go as a further contribution to the social development this type of CSR is desired but not required (Carroll, 2016). Examples of such activities are: charity donations, product and service donations, voluntary work by the business people and any other discretionary activity that can help in the community development and would reflect a good citizen image of the business (Baden, 2016; De Bakker, 2016; Carroll, 2016).

Carroll’s pyramid of CSR provides an integrative and a comprehensive description of a full set of managerial duties in social responsibility terms (Becchetti *et al.*, 2015; Wang and Berens, 2015; Wood, 2010; Baden, 2016). According to Wang and Berens (2015) the four types of CSR – economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic – participate in motivating both financial and public stakeholders each in a different way. They argue that economic, legal, and ethical CSR reflect the firm’s fundamental concerns, which are directly linked to the degree of legitimacy. Legitimacy is the normative rules, the regulative processes, and the cognitive meanings which the firm must conform to (Ruef and Scott, 1998) and if they fail to conform, they risk losing the entire business (Wang, Yijing and Berens, 2015). Philanthropic, however, refers to a wider range of activities other than the fundamental expectations (Carroll, 1991). Philanthropic focuses on creating distinctiveness that corresponds to relative standing or desirability (De Bakker, 2016; Wang and Berens, 2015). In comparison, the triple bottom line model offers a rather generic classification of the areas that can be concerned with CSR, generate profit, treat people ethically and fairly, and protect the planet and the nature from the negative environmental impacts (Garriga and Melé, 2004).

Carroll's pyramid of CSR and the triple bottom line of sustainability are both widely considered and implemented by organisations to cope with the increasing necessity to integrate with CSR, either as a source of competitive advantage (Calabrese *et al.*, 2013) or to catch up with the competitors' CSR activities, or even as an attempt to satisfy the stakeholders' demand for CSR (Frels, 2012). In addition to those models, there is a wide range of approaches to implement CSR (Wang and Berens, 2015). According to Kujala *et al.* (2013), the challenge that faces the organisation's managers is to centralise CSR issues onto the corporate agenda, and integrate the core activities of CSR within the core strategies and objectives of the organisation. Businesses also have to be fully aware of the stakeholders' concerns, and take sensible steps in developing CSR (Kujala *et al.*, 2013). To understand the implementation of CSR further, it is crucial to review the two key theories that frame today's implementation of CSR: the agency theory and the stakeholder theory (De Bakker, 2016; Pepper and Gore, 2015; Moura-Leite *et al.*, 2014; Wood, 2010).

2.5.2 The agency theory

The agency theory indicates that the senior management of the organisation (agent) and the shareholders (principals) have different objectives and goals, each acting in a self-interested manner, and have a different assumption of risk (Denis, 2001). Therefore, the assumption is that this division of ownership and control between agent and principals will generate conflict and problems (Pepper and Gore, 2015). Berle and Means (1967) explained that the conflict can be referred to as the fact that agents (managers) care more about their personal welfare than the

principals' welfare of shareholders, but shareholders, on the other hand, have an interest in being the lead management of the organisation, in order to achieve their main aim: to maximise the value and profit for themselves. Hence, CSR activities are considered to be driven by profit maximisation motivation, and only interested in satisfying the shareholders' needs (Mitchell *et al.*, 1997). Moreover, the division of ownership and the decision making between managers and shareholders have a major impact on the implementation of CSR. Managers and shareholders might have different views on CSR and its implementation (Van marrewijk, 2003). Therefore, the agency theory requires organisations to create compensation systems as a method of alignment between management behaviour and shareholders' interests (Weidenbaum and Jensen, 1993).

The agency theory has been widely criticised as it focuses only on two sides, the management, and the shareholders of an organisation, and completely ignores the rest of the stakeholders such as customers and employees (Eisenhardt, 1989; Scharp and Steuber, 2014). This justifies the development of the stakeholder theory, which suggests a comprehensive and inclusive approach of all stakeholders when designing and applying CSR (Freeman, 2010).

2.5.3 The stakeholder theory

Probably, the most well-established theory that is directly linked with CSR is the stakeholder theory. The founder of this theory is Edward Freeman in 1984 (Freeman, 2010) who defined stakeholder as "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives" (Freeman, 1984, P: 46). The stakeholder theory is all about organisational

management and business ethics. It argues that organisations provide a social function as being social entities that impact the welfare of all its stakeholders rather than just the welfare of the shareholders (Freeman, 1984; Donaldson and Preston, 1995). The key success of any organisation is in the quality of the relationship with its stakeholders, and the added value to all stakeholders who represent the culture and environment of the organisation (Moura-Leite *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, in order for any organisation to manage its stakeholders effectively, they must first identify the stakeholders and their respective perceived stakes (Freeman, 1984). In other words, it is necessary to establish who the stakeholders are, and what the stake is (Mitchell *et al.*, 1997), and then understand the necessary processes for managing the relationship with the stakeholders, and finally, managing the transactions between the organisation and its stakeholders (Freeman, 1984).

The stakeholder theory is now well established as a theory of organisational ethics and business management, made distinct by its explicit concern for morals and values as a central feature of managing organisations (Donaldson and Preston, 1995). Based on this theory, CSR is not just a set of activities aimed at increasing profit or satisfying the decision makers' desires, it is rather more comprehensive and further derived by the needs and requirements of every stakeholder in the organisation (Torres *et al.*, 2012; Smith *et al.*, 2001; Becchetti *et al.*, 2015; Zink, 2008).

2.5.4 The importance of CSR

Since the first concept of CSR and its practice was coined, companies have considered the use of CSR based on the assumption that customers are willing to have a better perception of an organisation with CSR activities, and develop a positive attitude towards its business, than an organisation with no or low CSR involvement (Levy, 1999). Considerable research has been conducted in the CSR fields. From definitions, theories, and practice, to the effectiveness of CSR and evaluations of the outcomes of performing social initiatives for the business and consumers (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Overall, it can be argued that the importance of CSR relies on the actual benefits gained by including CSR activities into the business strategy (Nurn and Tan, 2010). Existing literature has distinguished between the benefits of CSR. The major classification that has been widely accepted and considered by the researchers is based on the area of CSR impact on the organisation; either internally – within the internal environment of the organisation, or externally – from the external surrounding environment of the organisation (Fatma *et al.*, 2015; Mishra and Modi, 2013; McWilliams *et al.*, 2002; Heyes, 2005). Other researchers further categorised the external – internal classification into tangible – intangible benefits (e.g Nurn and Tan, 2010; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Du *et al.*, 2007; Fonceca and Jebaseelan, 2012).

2.5.4.1 External Benefits of CSR

CSR has been found to sustain a number of external benefits to the organisation:

The reputation enhancement

Gardberg and Fombrun (2002) defined reputation as “a collective representation of a firm’s past actions and results that describes the firm’s ability to deliver valued outcomes to multiple stakeholders” (Gardberg and Fombrun, 2002, P: 303).

Reputation is an intangible and valuable asset for the organisation (Fatma *et al.*, 2015; Branco and Rodrigues, 2006). It is very important as it is a main source for a strong competitive advantage (Melo and Garrido-morgado, 2012). Customers normally evaluate the products/services in the market based on the organisation’s reputation (Hsu 2012; Lange *et al.*, 2011). According to Du *et al.* (2007), “reputation” comprises of a variety of dimensions, including product/service quality, investment value, innovation, people management and CSR. Fombrun and Shanley (1990) argued that CSR is one of the most effective methods to build a good reputation. CSR will therefore enhance the organisation’s reputation, as well as contributing to the wellbeing of the society (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Many studies in the literature suggest that customers’ perception of CSR programmes leads to a positive corporate reputation (Page and Fearn, 2005; Turban and Greening, 1997; Park *et al.*, 2014; Lai *et al.*, 2010; Bendixen and Abratt, 2007; Hsu, 2012). More recently, Fatma *et al.* (2015) also indicated the positive relationship between CSR and corporate reputation and demonstrated that CSR activities enhance the corporate reputation in the stakeholders’ eyes, and thus positively affect the customer’s perception about the organisation.

The reduction of business risk

Another external benefit of CSR is the reduction of business risk (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2009; Orlitzky and Benjamin, 2001; Husted, 2005). Mishra and Modi (2013) examined the CSR and the financial performance of 192 organisations in the time period of 9 years, 2000–2009. They found that CSR lowers the idiosyncratic risk of organisations – risk associated with confidence in large investments on one organisation’s stocks, and dealing merely with one organisation (Becchetti *et al.*, 2015). This is because CSR proved to have a significant effect on the shareholders’ trust and commitments towards the organisation. Godfrey *et al.* (2009) previously argued that although firms may not generate shareholder value from positive CSR with respect to higher returns, it is the “goodwill” gained by CSR that helps them enhance the shareholder wealth through lower stock market risks. Mishra and Modi (2013) added that negative CSR, on the other hand, reduces this “goodwill”, and as a result increases the idiosyncratic risk. This benefit of CSR is crucial to be understood and reviewed because idiosyncratic risk forms around 80% of the risks faced by organisations in the stock market (Gaspar and Massa, 2006).

Increase in competitors’ costs

CSR is found to be an effective tool to raise competitors’ costs (Lindgreen *et al.*, 2009). McWilliams *et al.* (2002) argued that organisations can use CSR to raise a rival’s costs when they make that strategy an industry standard. They suggest that organisations can focus on some aspects of CSR which they find easy to meet and exceed, like social or environmental activities, and then push for further and wider adoption of CSR policies in their entire business. Those CSR policies will make the organisation’s resources unique, valuable and costly to copy by the competitors,

and will therefore provide a more sustainable competitive advantage (Shuili *et al.*, 2010). The analysis of McWilliams *et al.* (2002) comes from an organisational resource-based view. Heyes (2005), however, argued the same issue, but from a more CSR point of view. They contend that CSR is a sustainable tool to raise rivals cost by signalling to the government about the expected compliance costs with future expensive and rigid governmental regulations. For example, in the toy industry, safety was considered an aspect of competitive advantage. The increased focus on the safety raised by major toy companies and brought government attention to that issue. In 2009, some products sold in the UK and the EU including toys were regulated by the government to meet certain quality and safety requirements, and consequently every toy must now have a CE sign to assure that it meets the legal standards (gov, 2015). Hence, CSR has the ability to provide some protection from competitors, and can help businesses to defend and protect their position in the market (Lindgreen *et al.*, 2009; Shuili *et al.*, 2010).

Positive impact on the decision-making process

The most debated benefit that has been under research since the early practice of CSR is the positive impact of CSR on the consumer behaviour and the decision-making process. CSR has been found to increase customers' perception of the product and service quality (Falk and He, 2012; Page and Fearn, 2005). Customers perceive these products to come with an extra value added. In addition to the high-quality perception, the source of this value is the company's goodwill and the extra social benefits that they receive by integrating and using the products and services. In other words, the customer will consider how others perceive them when they interact with a socially responsible company, and they might also feel

satisfied about involving themselves with a socially responsible activity (Falk and He, 2012; Kelley, 1987; Page and Fearn, 2005). Customer trust will therefore increase, and their purchase intention will be positively affected, which will positively motivate the overall decision-making process (Page and Fearn, 2005; Park *et al.*, 2014; Pérez and Rodríguez, 2014).

2.5.4.2 Internal benefits of CSR

Since the early practice of CSR, many internal benefits have been widely recognised:

Better employees, better workplace environment

Moskowitz (1972) proposed that socially responsible businesses are more likely to attract highly skilled and educated staff. A good ethical reputation would be considered by potential employees as an indicator of good internal relationships with a fair and ethical workplace (Greening and Turban, 2000). Turban and Cable (2003) agreed with this view and concluded that CSR will increase both the attractiveness of a firm to potential employees, and the employees' commitment to the company. This is because candidates normally wish to work with organisations that are aligned with their own personal values (Backhaus *et al.*, 2002). Dowling (2004) stated that a good ethical and socially responsible reputation would lead to more trust from employees in the organisation, and would help to create strong emotional and intellectual ties between the organisation and its employees. This is basically in accordance with Mowday *et al.*'s (1982) definition of the organisational commitment as being: "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation.

Conceptually, it can be characterised by at least three factors: 1) A strong belief and acceptance of the organisation's goal and values. 2) A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation. 3) A strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation" (Mowday *et al.*, 1982, p: 27). Thus, CSR activities would therefore result in a better organisational commitment (Dowling, 2004; Abratt and Kleyn, 2012; Du *et al.*, 2007; Turban and Greening, 1997; Turban and Cable, 2003; Mowday *et al.*, 1982).

Organisational learning and productivity

CSR would offer the employees many learning opportunities. Employees that are required to practise CSR will face a challenge of completing unfamiliar tasks that are foreign to their job scope and therefore will be offered the chance to learn new skills and develop competences which they would not do normally without CSR initiatives (Nurn and Tan, 2010). Logsdon and Wood (2002) argue that organisational learning and commitment are major benefits an organisation can obtain from CSR. Consequently, CSR is likely to increase employees' productivity and motivation (Orlitzky *et al.*, 2003). Branco and Rodrigues (2006) added that CSR may also increase employees' morale and loyalty to the organisation, as well as productivity and motivation.

Cost reduction

Another key internal benefit of CSR is cost reduction through more efficient use of raw materials. Epstein and Roy (2001) argued that adopting sustainability procedures into a business will lead to reduced energy and material costs. According to Porter and Van (1995), environmentally responsible activities will prompt new

innovations and solutions for improving productivity and operations process, as well as avoiding waste.

Thus, internal benefits of CSR can be concluded as: attracting better employees, better workplace attitude, organisational learning, organisational commitment, employees' motivation, employees' trust, employees' morale and loyalty, efficiency and cost reduction. External and internal benefits define the importance of CSR for any business. McWilliams and Siegel (2001) consider CSR to be a form of investment, and as a form of investment it provides the business with opportunities to expand and grow in the future (Kogut and Chang, 1991). Du *et al.* (2007) concluded that CSR practices are important for organisations that strive to be successful in the market. Fonceca and Jebaseelan (2012) argued that external and internal benefits to an organisation are the prizes gained by CSR that would contribute to a long-term successful business.

2.5.4.3 Tangible and Intangible benefits

Nurn and Tan (2010), in their study on the benefits of CSR, classified the external and internal benefits into tangible and intangible. Tangible benefits are those that can be quantifiable in financial and physical terms, whereas intangible benefits are difficult to quantify and are non-physical in nature (figure 2.10).

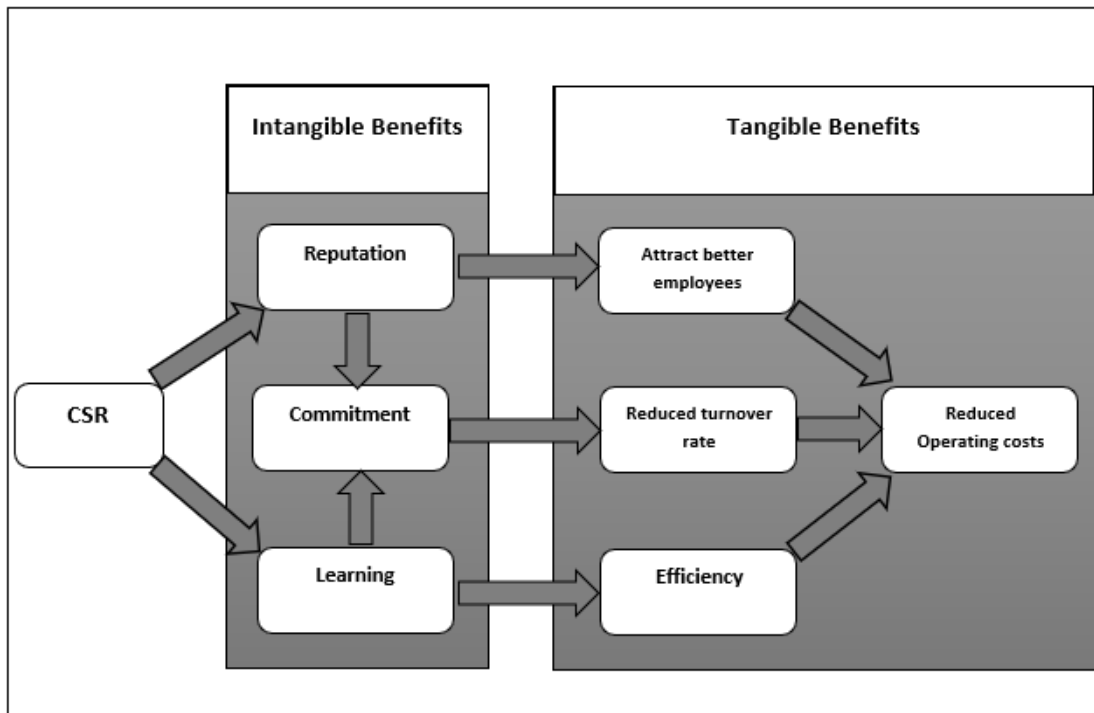


Figure 2. 9. Intangible and tangible benefits of CSR. *Source: Nurn and Tan (2010, P:361).*

Nurn and Tan (2010) argued that CSR provides better organisational reputation, as well as better organisational learning. Good reputation generates employee trust which leads to better commitment (Dowling, 2004; Shuili *et al.*, 2010; Fatma *et al.*, 2015). Organisational learning provides opportunities for employees to develop new skills and competences which will also positively impact their commitments (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). Hence, Nurn and Tan (2010) concluded that CSR activities will sustain a better commitment, and they classified the enhancement of reputation, learning, and commitment as intangible benefits of CSR. These intangible benefits according to Nurn and Tan (2010) will stimulate another component of more tangible benefits. Good reputation will attract a more productive workforce and better potential employees, organisational learning will also result in work efficiency, and stronger employees' commitment, which will reduce the turnover rate since employees who are committed to their organisation

will have a strong desire to maintain membership in it (Mowday *et al.*, 1982). Thus, with a better workforce, less turnover rate, and more work efficiency, businesses will benefit from a reduced operating cost (Nurn and Tan, 2010).

The importance of CSR, besides its tangible and intangible, or external and internal benefits, can also be justified from the increased customer demand for more socially responsible products/services (Smith 2009; D'astous and Legendre, 2009).

Recent studies show that from the customer's point of view CSR is no longer considered as an extra initiative a company can perform (Becker *et al.*, 2006; Smith, 2009; Bucic *et al.*, 2012; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009; Kahreh *et al.*, 2014), and customers generally expect a high level of CSR (Mohr *et al.*, 2001).

Furthermore, it has been proven that customers are able and willing to critically evaluate the CSR activities of a company, and then they may or may not develop a positive attitude towards the business. In fact, customers might even go further and boycott the products/services of the business if they perceived it as insincere in their social involvement (Snider *et al.*, 2003; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004; Becker *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, it is essential to investigate the impact of CSR on the customers, and their behaviour and purchase intention, in order to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the importance of CSR for any business.

2.5.5 CSR and consumer behaviour

CSR is considered to be one of the most recent factors that directly affects customer behaviour (Loureiro *et al.*, 2012). This finding was derived from the fact that consumers develop a positive attitude and perform a purchase action towards

a product/service not just because of their main function, but also for the extra values they receive from it (Solomon, 2015).

Consumer behaviour research helps to provide a better understanding of the consumer's – individual, group, or organisation – needs and demands, and the process they use to select, secure, use, and dispose of products or services (Solomon, 2015). It is a wide field that consists of a variety of subjects including psychology, marketing, economics, sociology and social anthropology. There are many factors affecting consumer behaviour. One of the most contemporary ones is CSR (Becker *et al.*, 2006). Moreover, CSR was found to have a positive impact not only on the financial performance of the organisation (Stanwick and Stanwick, 1998; Pava and Krausz, 1996), but also on the customer's purchase intention (Murray and Vogel, 1997), the total perceived quality of the product or service (Folkes and Kamins, 1999) and the overall consumer's behaviour (Loureiro *et al.*, 2012; Ellen *et al.*, 2000; Mohr *et al.*, 2001; Folkes and Kamins, 1999; Murray and Vogel, 1997).

Becker *et al.* (2006) studied the effectiveness of CSR on consumer behaviour and developed what they call "key variables" of fit, motivation and timing of CSR based on previous literature and investigations on the consumer's response to CSR initiatives, the issue and cause of CSR (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001), cause-related marketing (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988), the consumer's scepticism towards the firm's motivation – firm-serving benefits vs. public-serving motives (Foreh and Grier, 2003) – and the attribution theory (Kelley, 1967; Kelley, 1987; Jones and Davis, 1965). Becker *et al.* (2006) argued that *Fit*, from the marketing perspective,

is the link between an issue or a cause and the organisation's products/services, marketing position, brand image, and target segments (Becker *et al.*, 2006; Pava and Krausz, 1996; Stanwick and Stanwick, 1998). *Motivation* is what the customers perceive as the corporate motivation to conduct CSR – socially motivated vs. profit motivated. While *Timing* is the moment when corporations consider CSR, e.g. reactive CSR initiative due to a natural disaster or a corporation crisis, or proactive CSR initiative. The study found that consumer behaviour will be developed positively towards high-fit, socially motivated CSR, and negatively towards low-fit, profit-motivated CSR, which is basically a repetition of previous findings. However, when they extended the study and added *timing* of CSR initiatives, they found that proactive CSR will result in a positive consumer's behaviour response, but customers will still evaluate the motivation of the organisation for CSR, while reactive CSR will lead to the opposite and result in a negative response.

Becker *et al.* (2006) were criticised because they focused merely on consumer behaviour and perception of CSR (Du *et al.*, 2010; Pérez *et al.*, 2009). They did not consider the organisation's side, and thus left major factors that might affect the perception of CSR, such as the strategies of conducting CSR, and the role of advertising and promotion (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004). It has been suggested that these factors may raise the level of awareness and might not be affected by timing of CSR (Pérez *et al.*, 2009). Even though Becker *et al.* (2006) state that managers should be careful in choosing the right CSR initiative that fits with the organisation's objectives to ensure a positive consumer's behaviour response, they did not provide any suggestions on how the message should be sent (Du *et al.*, 2010; Pérez *et al.*, 2009).

It is also worth noting that 80% of Becker *et al.*'s (2006) respondents expected organisations to perform CSR initiatives, from which 76% believed that those initiatives would benefit the organisation. Interestingly, they found that 52% of respondents would boycott organisations acting irresponsibly only if alternatives were available. This finding comes in accordance with the behavioural gap between customers' attitudes and purchase actions. According to Mohr *et al.* (2001), sometimes it is very difficult to predict the consumer's behaviour, especially in ethical and social cases (Mohr *et al.*, 2001; Boulstridge and Carrigan, 2000). Many scholars have studied the gap between what customers say, and what they actually do. It has been proven that customers do not buy what they actually claim to prefer (Roberts, 1996b; Simon, 1995). A wide range of studies have tried to list the reasons for this gap. Juvan and Dolnicar (2014) investigated this issue in sustainable tourism. They examined the behaviour of people who care about the environment and engage in environmental protection activities at home but take vacations that have a negative impact on the environment. The study found that the reasons for this attitude-behaviour gap can be divided into six groups based on people's beliefs and response. Even though the study was conducted in the tourism industry, Juvan and Dolnicar (2014) tried to generalise their results, and not narrow it into just one field. As figure 2.11 illustrates, the research found that even though people were not comfortable with their behaviour, they tried to justify it to re-establish cognitive consonance. Juvan and Dolnicar then classified the findings into six groups: denial of consequences, the reason behind which is the preference of value perceived and denial of negative consequences of something valued; downward comparison, which emerges from the comparative

mechanism where people tend to compare their behaviour with others who have a worse behaviour with more negative consequences, to feel better about themselves; denial of responsibility, whereby in order to get relief from any responsibility people in this group will undermine the consequences of their activities, but this might also be developed from a genuine belief that their actions will not make a difference to solve the issue; denial of control, which is characterised by a full recognition of the consequences of behaviour with a belief that there is no other reasonable choice or alternative to the actions; exception handling, where exception is sometimes given to occasional behaviour, and since they do not happen so often, the consequences might be undermined. The final group is compensation through beliefs. Similar to the previous two groups, this group acknowledge the consequences of their activities but justify their attitude by linking to other behaviour that is perceived to be positive and important.

This study supports previous research on the reasons for the attitude–behaviour gap in CSR perception and action. Roberts (1996b) and Mohr *et al.* (2001) argued that customers' perception of green being expensive is one of the main reasons that triggers this gap. Mohr *et al.* (2001) also stated that social desirability alignment is a factor that contributes to widening the gap between attitude and behaviour; people prefer to appear and sound socially responsible to others and to themselves and it is easier to say “yes, I am socially responsible” when asked, than putting it into practice in reality (Mohr *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, Servaes and Tamayo (2013) asserted that the lack of customers' information and awareness about a social issue and CRS actions would affect customers' responsible attitude.

However, there is a growing group of people who commit to and behave in an ethical and socially responsible manner in their purchase decisions. This type of behaviour is called: Socially Responsible Consumers' Behaviour (SRCB) (Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009; Bucic *et al.*, 2012; Webb *et al.*, 2008).

2.5.5.1 Socially responsible consumer behaviour (SRCB)

The SRCB is basically the behaviour of consumers who focus their product/service information search, purchase, storage, use, disposal, and post-disposal evaluation in a way that minimises the waste or harmful effects, and maximises the long-term beneficial impact on society (Webb *et al.*, 2008; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009). Consumers with SRCB are referred to as socially responsible consumers (Roberts, 1996b). Socially responsible consumers are a small but growing segment (Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Ellen *et al.*, 2006; Laroche *et al.*, 2001). This is not new in the literature; Webster in 1975 defined socially conscious consumers as those who consider the consequences of their own consumption and attempt to be socially responsible (Webster, 1975).

Originally, socially conscious consumers' boundaries did not reach further than their own society (Webb *et al.*, 2008). Then in the 80s and early 90s, a new type of socially responsible consumers emerged, called green consumers (Shaw and Shiu, 2003). This group was characterised by being much more concerned about environmental issues, and more socially responsible in general (Shaw and Shiu, 2003; Roberts, 1996a). Green consumers were followed by another type called ethical consumers (Bucic *et al.*, 2012; Shaw and Sheila, 2005). Ethical consumers extend their responsibility to other issues such as working conditions in the

developing nations, human rights, and animal welfare (Strong, 1996). According to Shaw and Shiu (2003), ethical consumers are not as narrow as green consumers; they have extended beliefs and concerns to include other issues such as irresponsible selling and animal welfare (Shaw and Shiu, 2003). Webb *et al.* (2008) studied the socially responsible consumption based on the CSR, and came up with the term Socially Responsible Purchase and Disposal Consumer (SRPD), which was later developed by Ha-Brookshire and Hodges (2009) to include social responsibility in product information search, storage and post-disposal evaluation.

Some researchers were less interested in defining the socially responsible consumers. Smith (2009) stated that despite the contrast of characteristics of the socially responsible consumers, the main idea is still the same: that consumers do care about CSR, which will result in positive consumers' behaviour, and hence, organisations have to consider CSR initiatives in their marketing strategy.

Socially responsible consumers will always search and choose products/services with high commitment to CSR, in spite of their price, quality, or convenience (Roberts, 1996b). They will seek ethical and responsible ways to store, consume, and dispose of products/services (Webb *et al.*, 2008; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009), and will still evaluate the consequences of the post-disposal stage of the consumption process (Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009).

Thus, the impact of CSR on customers is an important aspect, as it – along with the benefits of CSR – justifies the overall importance of CSR involvement into the business. According to Bhattacharya and Sen (2004), this involvement has become essential, and companies must now focus on “how” they perform and

communicate CSR to target and satisfy customers, rather than “whether” they should incorporate CSR or not (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004). Therefore, it is important to understand how CSR can be communicated to and interact with stakeholders.

2.5.6 CSR communication

Generally, organisations communicate CSR with stakeholders through two means of communication: the organisation channels; for example advertising, annual CSR report, public relations, the organisation website, and at any stakeholder encounter point, or through independent channels; like word of mouth, or media coverage.

Choosing the right method of communication is important to avoid stakeholder scepticism (Becker *et al.*, 2006). Some organisations follow a discreet method and use internal channels, such as communicating with their employees about CSR programmes. The aim of this strategy is often to target internal people like current employees, and/or to create a socially responsible organisational culture that will work itself naturally inside out (De Bakker, 2016). Other organisations follow a more explicit method of communication to highlight their CSR initiatives to the public to develop a goodwill relationship with external stakeholders such as customers and communities (Dwyer *et al.*, 1987).

In fact, CSR communication strategies are getting more and more progressive. Organisations have understood the necessity of taking into consideration the outcome of their CSR activities, and the impact of their CSR programmes on the public and society, while concentrating on measurements of the social and

business benefits that can be achieved through CSR involvement (Du *et al.*, 2010). This has encouraged organisations to re-examine their communication strategies and, subsequently, add external sophistication to their priorities, such as annual reports, policies, standards, and measurements (De Bakker, 2016).

However, there is still a debate in the literature on whether social responsibility should be communicated to the public or not (Maignan and Ralston, 2002). The level of that debate varies by country, society and culture. Originally, social responsibilities have been considered as American tactics, but the concept and its practice quickly became popular across Europe, showing an effort to explicitly attach CSR to the corporate communications and marketing strategies (De Bakker, 2016; Moon *et al.*, 2005). Habisch *et al.* (2005) examined CSR in Europe and argued that the way an organisation communicates CSR is often manipulated and embedded in overall National Business Systems (NBS), which are the frameworks and institutions that define the national pattern of business activities in a specific society, for example, political and legal systems that define how businesses operate, norms and ethics defined by the culture, and the overall openness to CSR. Matten and Moon (2008) agreed to this and added that in addition to NBS, societal expectations and legitimacy are the factors that derive the CSR communication approach. *Societal expectations* consist of the societal awareness of social issues and expectations of business responsibility towards these issues, such as the business impact on environment, health, safety, and human rights. They are directly related to publicity and media attention. *Legitimacy* is associated with the business motivation for CSR, whether the organisation is obliged to respond to the community matters beyond just profit maximisation. Based on this, Matten and

Moon (2008) defined two spectrums of CSR communication: explicit and implicit. *Explicit* communication is the business policies that will direct the organisation to claim responsibility of a variety of society's interests and includes voluntary and self-interest-driven CSR programmes targeting a wide stakeholder group. In contrast, *implicit* communication consists of the country's formal and informal institutions through which the organisation's responsibility is assigned and agreed to, and involves rules, norms, and values which lead to mandatory requirements for organisations to practise CSR activities and social programmes. The study concluded that European culture is propitious to explicit CSR. This is because European societies have high awareness of social issues and respond more favourably to actions that tackle these issues, particularly in the UK and Switzerland where fair trade and ethical movements are key drivers in the society. Similarly, Tixier (2003), in his study on the different national forms of CSR communications, classified CSR communications into two main approaches: the *soft approach* of CSR communication, which implies a discreet strategy of CSR communication, popular in Latin countries, and the *hard approach*, which considers CSR as a marketing communication framed by official statements and measurement standards. This approach is adopted mainly in Anglo-Saxon cultures (Tixier, 2003).

In a customer-focused view, Habal *et al.* (2016) argued that CSR communication directly affects the customers' perception of the products/services. They found that customers might develop a perception that the prices have been placed higher than normal in order to cover the cost of CSR activities. Therefore, organisations communicating CSR must understand the customers' attribution of

CSR, and the perception of CSR values in the society, in order to optimise the effect of CSR engagement. Becker *et al.* (2006), as discussed earlier in this chapter, previously investigated this issue and found that communication of CSR should be with regards to fit, motivation, and timing of CSR; the communication strategy should reflect a link between the CSR activity chosen and the organisation's products/services, marketing position, brand image, and target segments (Becker *et al.*, 2006; Pava and Krausz, 1996; Stanwick and Stanwick, 1998). Hence, it can be argued that CSR communication is a very critical process as it might instead backfire and negatively affect the organisation and/or the society. This is in fact one of the major justifications for criticising CSR. The next session will discuss this further and investigate why some authors are against CSR.

2.5.7 The case against CSR

Since the conceptualisation of CSR, and the introduction of social obligations and commitments of businesses to social issues, the concept has been widely criticised. Friedman (1970) suspected the term CSR as being a cover for other motivations and not a true reflection of being "socially responsible". Friedman explained that the source of his opposition to CSR was that organisations do not have a responsibility, instead it is the people (individuals) in that organisation who are the characters that perform those CSR activities. This "individual performance" is directed by the organisation managers and executives, who – according to Friedman – are always and only responsible for serving the interest of the business owners, which is to achieve profit maximisation. Thus, the true motivation behind managers and executives conducting CSR is to maximise profit to satisfy the

stockholders of the business. That, according to Friedman (1970), contradicts the essence of CSR, or more precisely, contradicts the “philanthropic” and “ethical” notions. Moreover, Friedman also went on to argue that the actions of managers and executives who consider the implantation of CSR in the company’s business strategy are “fraud” and “theft”. This is because the benefit of social responsibilities has been violated by the executives and managers who take advantage of others to be used as a strategy for profit maximisation, which is immoral and illegal. Hence, Friedman created his infamous tagline “the social responsibility of business is to increase its profit”.

The argument of Friedman is widely discussed in the CSR area, from the first publication in 1970 until recently. Ihlen *et al.* (2011) disagree with Friedman. They argue that organisations are community members and have a responsibility to serve all the stakeholders, not just owners and stockholders, which is basically in correspondence with the stakeholder theory discussed earlier. It has also been argued that there is no harm in companies focusing on profit, as long as they are considering social responsibilities into their activities in return (Klassen and Whybark, 1999; Nunan, 1988).

Another major factor that spread a variety of views around CSR is that there is no one agreed definition of the concept. This can be concluded from this literature review when we discussed the variety of conceptual notions of CSR between authors. Dahlsrud (2008) argued that this lack of a single and unique definition of CSR left the subject open to interpretation. Everyone considers CSR in a certain

way that would satisfy their understanding of the concept, and so it cannot be implemented properly.

From an operational perspective, Perks *et al.* (2013) argued that CSR activities are associated with high cost of implementation and communication. For instance, the 2015 Christmas advertisement by John Lewis, 'The Man on the Moon', reflected John Lewis' commitment to Age UK charity as part of its social responsibility towards elderly people who are left alone. The campaign, although very successful with £18M revenue, cost John Lewis over £7M to produce and communicate (Armstrong, 2015). This would make it even harder for small and medium-sized businesses (SMEs) to compete as they do not normally have the budget and capabilities of John Lewis to operate and communicate their CSR activities in the same way (Jenkins, 2006).

So far, this chapter has focused on CSR as a concept and provided a thorough investigation around the theories and approaches of implementing and communicating CSR. The following section will examine CSR at a brand level and will discuss the impact of CSR on brand identity and brand image, the targeted area of this research.

2.6 CSR – from corporate level to brand level

CSR has been typically examined at a corporate level. Yet, it has been found that CSR has a different impact on the identity creation when it gets to branding (Grohmann and Bodur, 2014). The source of this claim comes from the difference in consumers' perception of the overall corporate social activities, and the social activities of a single product or a service of that corporation. In other words,

customers might have a certain perception about a company, but a different perception about one or more of its products. An example of this is the case of Coca-Cola and Innocent; even though Coca-Cola owns one of the most socially responsible juice and smoothies brands, “Innocent”, it is still perceived by customers as a company that sells unhealthy drinks, and has been referred to as “not so innocent” (PAD Research Group, 2016). Moreover, some customers may not be even aware that Innocent is in fact a Coca-Cola attempt at or implementation of CSR. Another example is L’Oréal and The Body Shop. Similar to Coca-Cola, although The Body Shop is one of L’Oréal’s brands, customers perceive The Body Shop as the ethical and environmentally friendly brand while its owner, L’Oréal, is seen as “the irresponsible corporation” that tests its products on animals, and includes worrying chemicals and environmentally harmful materials in its products (Chun, 2016). Hence, customers may have two types of perceptions: the perception of socially responsible companies (corporate social responsibility – CSR), and the perception of socially responsible product/service brand(s) (brand social responsibility – BSR) (Grohmann and Bodur, 2014). Consequently, CSR implementation and communication might differ at a brand level. The practices of CSR as a brand association in brand identity, brand image, and brand equity are all aspects of CSR at a brand level that must be examined in order to form a conceptual understanding of the impact of CSR on brands. Hence, the next section of this chapter will review the literature on brand concept. The discussion will be shifted towards branding and brand theories and models to formulate a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the relationship between CSR and branding, and how CSR affects brand-building efforts and strategies.

2.7 The concept of branding

Brands are a collection of tangible and intangible attributes. Traditionally, branding was concerned with differentiating a product on a shelf to increase awareness of the mass audience about the features of the product or service with an aim to increase sales volume (Gardner and Levy, 1955; Reynolds and Gutman, 1984). Park *et al.* (1986) later added that brand concept is a long-term investment designed to achieve competitive advantage. Kapferer (1994) argued that the brand concept, from a financial perspective, represents an intangible asset that boosts the brand's performance and competitiveness. Keller (1993) explained that the intangible asset consists of a set of associations held in the customer's mind that relate to the perceived value of the brand's products or services. Keller argued that these associations should be unique (exclusivity), strong (saliency) and positive (desirable). Pearson (1996) added that a brand is a combination of the product features that define what the product is, i.e. the perceived benefits, the needs and wants that the product satisfies, and the values represented by brand associations. Brands therefore are a combination of tangible, i.e. product related, and intangible, i.e. values, assets and associations (Keller, 2013; Hoeffler and Keller, 2002; De Chernatony, 2010).

Brands have been defined by the American Marketing Association (AMA) in 1960 as cited in Keller (2013, P:30) "name, term, sign, symbol or design or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors" (Keller, 2013, P:30). Similarly, Aaker (1991) defined the brand concept as "a distinguishing name and/or

symbol intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods or services from those of competitors. A brand thus signals to the customer the source of the product and protects both the customer and the producer from competitors who would attempt to provide products that appear to be identical” (Aaker, 1991, p:7). The definitions by AMA and Aaker (1991) are widely adopted and considered as classic definitions of brands. The importance of these definitions is that they both present the brand elements (such as name, logo, package design and other symbolic elements) which formulate key factors in creating strong brands. According to De Chernatony (2010), a successful brand is one that is designed in such a way that customers perceive its elements as relevant and consistent and can be identified and linked to a unique added value that meets their needs. Handerson and Cote (1998) argued that brand elements, particularly name and logo, communicate the company’s characteristics and personality, and therefore hold a significant role in stimulating customers’ perception and awareness and creating a unique and distinctive position in their mind. Hence, brands exist in the minds of customers, and companies should seek a clear understanding of customers’ perception to design effective communications and reflect on their brand elements (Ind, 2007).

However, the definition of brands by AMA and Aaker (1991) is limited to brand elements and materials. Brands have further been argued to be a combination of functional and emotional values that benefit both the company and the customers. De Chernatony and Dall’Olmo Riley (1998) argued that the success of brands requires matching these values with the customer’s functional and psychosocial needs. Keller (2001) identified the importance of understanding the customer’s

attitude towards the brand, and identified two types of customer response to brands: functional, which relates to the product quality and performance, and emotional, which relates to feelings and experiences perceived from integrating with the brand. Fetscherin and Heinrich (2014) developed this notion further and identified two types of customer–brand relationship: functional-based and emotional-based relationships. They argued that the brand concept anticipates the development of a relationship between the organisation and customers through value and perception development. Customers who have a strong functional perception of a brand but a weak emotional attachment will have a rational attitude motivated by the quality, performance and/or price. Consequently, organisations can benefit from high sales volume. On the other hand, customers with a strong emotional perception will develop an emotional connection with the brand even if its performance was not as efficient and effective as the competitors, and so the emotional value perceived from the brand compensates for the functional limitations. Fetscherin and Heinrich (2014) concluded that a strong brand is one that focuses on developing both functional and emotional values. This supports the findings of De Chernatony (2004), who examined the impact of a brand’s functional and emotional connections in a business-to-business (B2B) context. The research suggested that communicating functional and emotional values internally and externally creates strong brand perception. Rowley and Berman (2000) contended that branding aims to generate additional emotional value to increase the physical and psychological appeal of products and services in the market. De Chernatony *et al.* (2000) stated that emotional values of brands are durable and sustainable, and that managers rely on emotional values to

differentiate their brands from competitors. This emotional value reflects a visual association with the brand, which works as a reference point for the customer's decision-making process, and helps faster recall of information in memory (De Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Macdonald and Sharp, 2000). Hence, brands are clusters of functional and emotional values that help to build strong relationships with customers and create and motivate perception. Understanding the concept of branding and the customer–brand relationship is the first step towards understanding brand equity.

2.8 The concept of brand equity

Building strong relationships with customers through added value has been extensively discussed in the literature. Various approaches and strategies have been developed to build and maintain long-term relationships between the brand and its customers. Branding, as discussed earlier, focuses on adding and communicating these values to the stakeholders. According to Mudambi *et al.* (1997), the sum of all added values to the brand form the concept of brand equity. Lai *et al.* (2010) argued that brand equity is the brand value brought to customers, which differentiates it in the marketplace from other competitors. However, the work of Aaker (e.g. 1991, 1996) and Keller (e.g. 1993, 2001, 2013), who researched extensively on brand equity, considered a wider perspective of the concept. Their view of brand equity focused on the customer's responses to the marketing activities of brands. Aaker (1991) explained that brand equity consists of different assets and liabilities related directly to the values perceived by customers. Keller (2013) defined brand equity as the uniquely attributed marketing effects of a

branded product that would explain why different responses result from the marketing activities of that branded product than if it was not branded. In other words, it is the different customers' preference and response that a product or a service can achieve when they have a clear brand identification. This definition was titled customer-based brand equity (CBBE) because it adopts a perspective of the customer's perception of brands. This definition has been recognised in the literature as the most acceptable definition of brand equity.

Brand equity resides in the hearts and minds of customers (Datta *et al.*, 2017).

Researchers developed different ways to measure brand equity in order to understand the sources of brand equity and to identify how and where to add value. Aaker (1996) argued that brand equity consists of five different components that can be analysed to measure brand equity. These are brand loyalty, perceived quality and leadership, brand associations, brand awareness and market behaviour and position. Wang *et al.* (2006) later added brand satisfaction to the components of brand equity because it prompts customers' perception of the brand's value and the quality of its products and services. Keller (2001) developed the concept of CBBE into the CBBE pyramid which identifies two routes to building brand equity: rational, which relates to functional performance of the product, and emotional, which relates to brand image and feelings. The pyramid presents a sequence of interrelated steps that aim to achieve strong relationships with customers. The base of the pyramid was brand identification and salience. Keller (2002) argued that brands should have an identity to communicate it to the customers who will develop a perception based on this identity and based on their awareness of the brand's performance (brand meaning). Aaker (1991) stated that brand associations

imply a promise to customers about perceived values, and represent what the brand stands for (brand identity). According to Beverland (2018), customers choose a particular brand over others in the market when they observe favourable associations and perceive a value from that brand that helps them achieve an intended identity, connect with their social environment or to keep up with new trends in the market. In a similar view, research found that strong brand awareness and desirable associations directly contribute to reduce customer-perceived performance risk, social risk and self-image risk (Rubio *et al.*, 2014; Laroche *et al.*, 2010; Veloutsou and Bian, 2008). Hence, having a clear and meaningful brand identity will increase brand awareness and influence brand responses and engagement, which are all essential to forge a strong relationship between the customers and the brand and to create brand equity. It is therefore significant for brands to match the associations with customers' perception and close the gap between brand identity and brand image (Roper and Fill, 2012).

Managers seek different ways to increase the value of the brand and support the brand identity with unique, strong, and desirable associations (Keller 2013). A considerable amount of literature has been published on the classification of brand associations. Aaker (1991) categorised brand associations into eleven types: product attributes, intangibles, customer benefits, relative price, use/application, user/customer, celebrity/person, life-style/personality, product class, competitors and country/geographic area. Keller (1993) classified brand associations into three broad types based on the level of information and abstraction they hold: attributes, benefits and attitudes. *Attributes* are the different features and characteristics of the brand's products and services. They can be product-related,

relevant to the functionality and performance of the product and service, or non-product-related, external aspects of the product and service, such as price, packaging, and appearance of the product, user imagery (who uses the product), usage imagery (how to use the product). *Benefits* are the personal values attached to the products or services and have been classified into three types: functional, experiential and symbolic. *Attitudes*, which functional from the brand attributes and benefits and frame the customer behaviour towards the brand and the overall evaluation of that brand. Keller (2013) further differentiated between brand associations and classified them based on source into two types: core brand associations, defined as the most important aspects and values of a brand that can define the brand position and sourced directly from the brand attributes and benefits, and secondary brand associations, which are the other entities that have their own values and that brands can rely on as a source of values to either build and create new favourable and unique associations or to support the core and existing associations. Keller (2013) indicated that the secondary brand associations have four sources: people, such as employees and celebrities; places, such as the count of origin and channels of distribution; other brands, such as extensions or alliances; and things, such as causes, events and sponsorships.

CSR has been found to be an effective source for associations. The work of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993; 2013) on brand associations refers to CSR as a source of association reflected in its ability to increase brand value at a functional and emotional level, and contribute a number of attributes and benefits to brands as noted in sections 2.5.4 and 2.5.5. Furthermore, Cheng-Hsui Chen (2001) classified CSR as one of the major sources for brand associations. They suggested

categorising brand associations into two types: product associations, which are those that are relevant to the product or service (functional and symbolic), and organisational associations, which are grouped into corporate ability associations and CSR associations. The significant role of CSR as a brand association has been found to increase brand identification, brand image and benefits, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty (He and Li, 2011). In the next section of this chapter, the relationship between CSR and branding will be examined further, and the impact of CSR on brand equity, brand identity and brand image will be discussed.

2.9 CSR and branding

Considerable attention has been devoted to the impact of CSR on brand performance and effectiveness. CSR has been identified as a strong element in the development of brand equity. Martínez and Nishiyama (2019) investigated the impact of CSR on hotel brand equity and found that CSR adds value to the brand equity through reflecting positively on the emotional perception of brands which enhances brand image, provides assurance about brand's attitude and the performance of the brand's products and services which positively affects the perceived quality, increases brand awareness and attention to the brand's social behaviour, as a result, enhances brand loyalty. Similarly, Wang *et al.* (2015) studied the relationship between CSR, brand equity and brand performance and found that both CSR and brand equity maximise brand value and enhance brand performance. Wang *et al.* (2015), argues that CSR activities create an ethical business culture and reflects a favourable brand image in the market. Wang *et al.* (2015), further suggests that CSR is a significant source of competitive advantages

for brands in the high-tech industry due to its ability to increase the perceived value and differentiate the brand position.

Lai *et al.* (2010) examined the role of CSR in improving a brand's performance in a business to business context, and found that CSR has a considerable effect on brand reputation and brand equity. The study found that CSR positively affect the perception of brand quality and benefits, and as a result, CSR improves brand performance. Furthermore, He and Lai (2011) examined the effect of CSR on service brands and indicated that CSR has a direct impact on brand identification and customer satisfaction, and an indirect impact on customer loyalty. They stated that CSR, as a brand association, has a significant ability to increase brand awareness by reflecting a desirable perception in the customer's mind. However, the study revealed that service quality has a stronger impact on customer loyalty than CSR, and that brands should deliver the service expected in order to achieve satisfaction and build loyalty. In other words, the functional aspect of the service brand is the main factor to determine loyalty, and therefore service brands should focus on maintaining a service quality and CSR associations to keep and sustain customer loyalty. Fatma *et al.* (2015) also demonstrated the positive impact of CSR on brand evaluation and reputation, and noted that CSR can build brand equity through fulfilling customers' expectations of a brand's performance and contributing directly to positive evaluation.

However, these researches considered CSR from an ethical perspective through measuring perceptions of ethical and social activities of brands. A more comprehensive study would include all types of CSR to investigate different

impacts of different CSR activities on brands. This study is expected to contribute to that by considering four CSR types; economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic CSR and investigating the impact of these activities on brand image in context of brand crises.

Thus, the current literature shows the significant ability of CSR to increase a brand's value and reflect on brand equity and its elements. Since this study is particularly concerned in investigating the impact of CSR on brand image and customer perception, the next section will critically examine the literature in the field of brand identity and brand image in order to formulate an in-depth understanding of the mechanism of CSR in relation to perception development.

2.9.1 CSR and brand identity

The use of CSR activities to create a “socially responsible identity” has rapidly increased in recent years (Balmer *et al.*, 2007; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). A number of studies have examined the effectiveness of CSR to support and create ethical identity. It has also become an aspect of corporate identity management and communication (Balmer *et al.*, 2007)

Some brands typically communicate CSR by including CSR activities in their business strategy. For example, McDonald's business strategy includes the objective of “keep Britain tidy” through the reduction of waste, and the reuse of recycled materials to protect the environment (McDonalds, 2013). By contrast, other companies seek to integrate CSR strategy as a core business strategy, and position themselves fully as a “socially responsible company” like Innocent or Whole Foods Market (Janssen *et al.*, 2015).

According to Du *et al.* (2007), brands that have positioned their identity as “socially responsible” and based their business entirely on CSR will achieve more benefits than brands who merely integrated CSR activities to their business. This is because customers, as a response to CSR, are more willing to develop a positive perception about a brand based on the actual motivation of that organisation to perform CSR (Du *et al.*, 2007). It was highlighted earlier in this study that customers are more willing to accept and perceive the CSR message if the reason behind conducting CSR was socially motivated and not for maximising profit and generating sales. There should also be a close fit between an issue or a cause, and the organisation’s products/services, marketing position, brand image, and target segments (Becker *et al.*, 2006; Pava and Krausz, 1996; Stanwick and Stanwick, 1998). In terms of the timing of CSR practice, proactive CSR may contribute to a positive consumer’s behaviour response, while reactive CSR will lead to the opposite and result in a negative response (Becker *et al.*, 2006).

CSR performs as an indicator of brands’ “good will”, and reflects aspects of a brand’s ethical identity (Pérez *et al.*, 2009) which are not only fundamental and enduring, but also more differentiated by nature than other identities associated with other positions (Balmer *et al.*, 2007; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Marin and Ruiz (2007) argued that CSR directly influences the brand’s identity and increases its attractiveness. This attractive identity will then entice new consumers and empower the market position of the brand. Pérez *et al.* (2009) further added that CSR can influence brand attractiveness through positively affecting three brand identity characteristics: brand coherence, brand prestige, and brand distinctiveness.

2.9.2 CSR and brand coherence

Brand coherence refers to the consistency of the alignment between the different brand traits that create brand characteristics and influence identity perception. In other words, a consistent brand identity is reflected if the different integral brand elements are well integrated with each other (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003). Dean (2003) argues that customers' first reaction of CSR is normally sceptical. As presented in the CSR and customer behaviour section of this study, Habel *et al.* (2016) indicated the customers' scepticism of CSR, and argued that customers might develop a perception that the prices of products or services have been placed higher than usual, in order to cover the CSR costs. However, Pérez *et al.* (2009) found that when CSR practice is in line with the values and attributes of the brand identity, a strong brand coherence will be assured, which will help to ease off the customers' scepticism. This finding comes in accordance with the argument of CSR "fit" between the values and social perceptions and attributes of customers and organisations conducting CSR (Becker *et al.*, 2006). Brand coherence makes it easier for customers to capture, understand, and memorise brand information in different contexts (Dutton *et al.*, 1994; Scott and Lane, 2000). It allows customers to associate their feelings of belonging, their values, and characteristics with the brand identity (Escalas and Bettman, 2005). Therefore, a consistent CSR message would help to develop a coherent and attractive socially responsible brand identity, while a divided and incoherent brand, that presents different aspects of its identity, social values and attributes, will prevent the customers from maintaining self-concept integrity with the brand and obstruct the effectiveness of CSR and the attractiveness of the brand identity (Pérez *et al.*, 2009).

2.9.3 CSR and brand prestige

Customers develop a perception about a brand and its products and services. They also develop a perception about the brand's customers – the typical user of the brand (Keller, 1993). In doing so, they create a perception of the brand image held in the mind of other customers. Brand prestige is the belief that other customers hold a positive image about the brand (Pérez *et al.*, 2009). Customers' association with a prestigious brand improves their self-concept. Through this association, customers believe that they are integrating with an appealing brand that is favourably perceived by its public (Alcañiz *et al.*, 2009; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Dutton *et al.*, 1994). CSR has a powerful influence on brand prestige. It has been argued earlier in this chapter that CSR enhances brand reputation (Lai *et al.*, 2010; Fatma *et al.*, 2015; Abratt and Kleyn, 2012; Page and Fearn, 2005; Park *et al.*, 2014). Hence, individuals who sense the social reputation of a brand among others (brand attractiveness) will develop positive actions and integrate with that brand in order to satisfy their self-concept of being perceived by themselves and by others as moral and socially responsible, and to experience the quality of that prestigious socially responsible brand (Pérez *et al.*, 2009; Yoon *et al.*, 2006).

2.9.4 CSR and brand distinctiveness

Brand distinctiveness refers to the differentiation aspect of the brand (Brewer, 1991). Customers need to accentuate their interpersonal differences with others as a way of assuring their integrity (Pérez *et al.*, 2009). Brand distinctiveness relates to the differences between the brand's identity and other competitors in the market. If that brand is considered and perceived to be more distinctive than

other brands in the market, its brand identity attractiveness will increase (Keller, 2013). According to Pérez *et al.* (2009), CSR increases brand distinctiveness. This is because it allows the customers of a socially responsible brand to benefit from the extra social values perceived through their relationship with the brand, to develop a psychological difference with customers of other similar brands in the market (Falk and He, 2012; Pérez *et al.*, 2009). For instance, Innocent smoothies' brand identity has benefitted from the CSR impact to make the brand unique and to be perceived as distinctive in the market (PAD Research Group, 2016).

Thus, we can conclude that CSR has a strong positive relation with creating brand identity that involves values, traits, and objectives, and can directly influence customers' perception and increase brand attractiveness.

2.9.5 CSR – impact on brand image

Brand image is a very important component of the overall brand equity (Keller, 1993). It is defined as "*perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory*" (Keller 1993 P:3). Brand associations are the sum of information about a brand which contain the meaning of that brand for consumers. They are highly attached to the values perceived from the products or the service. These values are referred to as "brand benefits" (Keller, 1993).

Researchers found that there is a positive impact of CSR on brand image (Popoli, 2011; Falk and He, 2012; Podnar and Golob, 2007; Boronat and Pérez, 2019) and brand image is the first level of the brand equity that will be affected by CSR activities (Loussaïef *et al.*, 2014). Falk and He (2012) stated that customers were more likely to build a positive perception about a brand with CSR and develop a

strong memory about it among its competitors (Falk and He, 2012). Gupta and Pirsch (2008) tested the efficiency of CSR in building a store image and found that a retailer's ability to deliver up-to-date products along with conducting CSR will sustain a strong brand image. This is because CSR stimulates the ability of a brand to produce benefits.

Brand benefits are divided into three categories based on the motivation of customers to purchase the product or the service: functional benefits, experiential benefits, and symbolic benefits (Keller, 1993; Park *et al*, 1986):

- **Functional benefits:** are the fundamental benefits linked to the product-related attributes, for example the low petrol consumption of a car. This type of benefit satisfies the customers' basic needs such as physiological and safety needs.
- **Experiential benefits:** refer to what it actually feels like to use the product or the service. These benefits, the same as functional benefits, correspond to the product-related attributes and satisfy the customer's spiritual needs, such as feelings, learning, or enjoyment (Orth *et al.*, 2004).
- **Symbolic benefits:** correspond with non-product-related attributes. This type of benefit satisfies customers' self-esteem and underlying needs of social approval, like prestige, exclusivity, or fashionability of a brand (Solomon, 1983).

Brand image in the literature group these benefits based on their attributes into two groups; product related (functional and experiential) and non-product related

(symbolic) (Park *et al.*, 1986; He and Lai, 2014). He and Lai (2014) found that CSR categories positively affect brand benefits. They tested the legal and ethical categories of CSR (Carroll, 1991) and argued that legal CSR has a higher positive impact on functional/experiential benefits than ethical CSR, which has a higher effect on symbolic benefits than legal CSR. This is because legal CSR provides assurance on the quality and functionality of the product/service. Customers' decision-making process is generally associated with the perceived benefits and risks. Customers therefore seek information for assurance that the product or service has a consistent quality and will generate valuable benefits in exchange for a relationship with the brand (He and Lai, 2014). Obeying the law and following legal standards and legislations will provide this assurance and increase the customer's confidence in the brand. Hence, legal CSR will minimise the risk and uncertainty in the decision-making process (Klein and Dawar, 2004).

Ethical CSR concentrates on the morality and the social values and responsibilities of the brand, which in turn presents a more distinctive and prestigious brand identity (Sen *et al.*, 2006; Pérez *et al.*, 2009). Researchers found that customers normally seek integration and engagement with brands that provide them with self-distinction in society, and helps them to be perceived in an ethical manner which is a reflection of the symbolic benefits acquired from a brand (He and Lai, 2014; Falk and He, 2012; Pullig *et al.*, 2006; Fatma *et al.*, 2015). In the example of Innocent smoothies, the customers of that brand enjoy a symbolic value of being organic and environmentally friendly individuals in society (PAD Research Group, 2016). Similarly, in The Body Shop cosmetic brand example, one of the major motivations for their customer to integrate with the brand is the symbolic benefit

acquired of being environmentally friendly in the society and/or to themselves (Chun, 2016).

Philanthropic CSR activities also found to have positive impact on brand benefits. Mekonnen *et al.* (2008) indicated that philanthropic activities of businesses would help to increase the symbolic and functional benefits of a product, and will reflect positively on customer's perception when they match the customers' value. The study investigated the effectiveness of linking a product to a cause through a non-profit organisation (such as charity), and found that the activity generates a range of functional and symbolic benefits but the effectiveness of their value depends on the type of the cause or the affinity group that the product is linked to.

Furthermore, Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) argued that Philanthropic CSR improves brand perception and creates a desirable image in the market. This is because this type of CSR is characterised by being discretionary with a direct impact on the society welfare (Carroll, 2016). Due to its high social impact, a number of researchers investigated the effectiveness of philanthropic CSR on damaged brand image and supported its ability to improve and enhance the image (Yoon *et al.*, 2006; Menon and Kahn, 2003; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Margolis *et al.*, 2007; Barone *et al.*, 2000).

These views around the impact of CSR on brand benefits will be used in the development of the research hypotheses and will be referred to later in this chapter.

According to Loussaïef *et al.* (2014), CSR supports and consolidates the brand relationship theory. Brand relationship theory suggests that customers build bonds

with a brand for functional and emotional motives (Fournier, 1998; Thompson *et al.*, 2006). When the customers receive CSR values from a brand, they are more likely to develop strong ties with that brand, mainly due to the increase of the concurrence between their self-image and the brand image (Lee and Back, 2009; Mohamed and Néji Bouslama, 2010; Sweetin *et al.*, 2013; Loussaïef *et al.*, 2014). Hence, researchers and practitioners found it therefore logical to consider CSR as a tool to enhance damaged reputation and/or image. The assumption is that the positive record of good behaviour will create a “halo effect” of positivity around the organisation. This halo would motivate the public’s positive perception and may help to protect the image in the instance of a crisis (Coombs, 2014; Coombs, 1995; Benoit, 1997; Janssen *et al.*, 2015). The following section of this chapter will expand on this area further. It will examine the impact of brand crisis on brand image in the context of that positive CSR halo.

2.10 Brand crisis

Brand crisis is described as a major threat to brand equity with a potentially negative outcome affecting the brand reputation, and sometimes – even worse – destroying the entire business. The term crisis is defined in the literature as a *“major occurrence with a potentially negative outcome affecting the organisation, company, or industry, as well as its publics, products, services, or good name”* (Banks, 2010, P:02). However, when examining the concept, a vast number of different crises has emerged ranging from fire, lawsuits, negative legislation, boycott, wars, discriminations, harassment, to natural disasters, harmful products and much more. Therefore, researchers have attempted to investigate and group

the different kinds of crisis with a broad approach in order to provide a comprehensive classification.

Mitroff *et al.* (1988) classified the crisis types based on the organisational environment (internal – external). They suggested two main types of crises: *Internal Crises*; crises that occur from and within the organisation itself, such as a faulty product. *External Crises*; crises hit from the outside environment of the organisation, such as a natural disaster. Coombs (1995) developed the work of Mitroff *et al.* (1988) and added two more specifications to this classification. He argued that the instigator of the crisis should be considered, and whether it is known to be a person(s), or not known should be assessed. Hence, Coombs (1995) presented four general categories of crisis types: ***Internal-Personal***: such as organisational conflicts, sabotage, operational faults, or inefficient quality control; ***Internal-Impersonal***: such as technical or mechanical accidents, or industrial disasters; ***External-Personal***: such as rumours, or terrorist attacks; and finally ***External-Impersonal***: such as financial crises, and natural disasters.

It has been argued that the internal-external/personal-impersonal classification has a limitation when evaluating ethical and social issues. For instance, an external impersonal crisis such as a natural disaster could have also involved some ethical issues around how the organisation deals with that crisis. Another limitation is that some crisis could fit into two or more categories. For example, child labour could be seen as an internal-personal, as well as external-personal. In some developing countries, child labour is perceived as a normal and legal business practice by both the government and the society. This might be due to some cultural aspects of self-

dependency motivation, and/or simply because the child is the only source of support for his/her family (Norpoth *et al.*, 2014). Thus, when an international organisation places its factories in these countries and accepts the cheap and low-cost child labours, it might be difficult to classify this issue as internal-impersonal or external-personal. Therefore, researchers have developed another more comprehensive classification of crisis type, based on the nature of the event. Pullig *et al.* (2006) classified crises as whether they are related to the product, production, and the performance of the organisation (tangibles), or related to the values and morality of the organisation. Hence, they present two crisis types classification:

- **Performance-related crises:** are crises that directly involve the product or the service, such as faulty product.
- **Values-related crises:** are crises that involve ethical and social issues that surround the values of the product or the service.

This classification has been widely adopted in research around brand crisis and brand response (Roehm and Tybout, 2006; Dutta and Pullig, 2011), brand crisis and CSR (Klein and Dawar, 2004), brand crisis and brand benefits (Dutta and Pullig, 2011) and brand crisis and brand equity (Dawar and Lei, 2009). This is because it provides a comprehensive classification of brand crisis, and clearly distinguishes between the brand's values and morality, and its products' quality and functionality. It is therefore clear that this classification in particular highlights a connection between brand crisis and brand benefits; performance-related crisis with functional/experiential benefits, and values-related crises with symbolic

benefits (Dutta and Pullig, 2011), which will be discussed further under 6.1 subsection. Furthermore, this classification also presents a logical link between crisis types and CSR categories, because it involves a clear consideration of values and morality, which particularly fits within the ethical and philanthropic CSR. Therefore, this research will adopt this classification, which has in addition been considered by key authors and relevant research, which creates a strong base and support for this study.

2.10.1 Brand crisis impact on brand image

It was highlighted earlier that brand image is the customer's perception of a brand. It is a vital aspect of the value of brand equity. It defines the customer's preference for using the brand over its competitors (Abratt and Kleyn, 2012). Also, it reflects the customer's confidence in the brand ability to provide benefits and satisfy needs (Keller, 1993). According to Keller (2013) the overall perception about a brand, and the relationship between the customer and that brand, depends on the brand benefits. Brand benefits are classified into three types as discussed earlier in this chapter: functional, experiential, and symbolic benefits (Keller, 1993).

Brand image is highly sensitive to the impact of brand crisis. It is the first aspect of brand equity that is affected negatively by a crisis (Benoit, 1997; Benoit, 1995; Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Keller, 2013). This has been shown through examining the customer behaviour in the brand crisis situation. It has been found that the impact of the crisis on the customer's psychology responds more quickly than its impact on their purchase actions. Initially, customers might still perform some sort of transaction with the brand, in spite of developing negative or sceptical perception,

and would delay their final judgment, until they hear the full story and evaluate the brand's response (Benoit, 1997; Coombs, 2014). However, the extent of all these feelings and impacts depends on various aspects such as: pre-crisis brand behaviour, the customer's previous experience with the brand, the brand post-crisis response actions, and the type of the crisis itself (Dawar and Lei, 2009; Coombs, 1995; Klein and Dawar, 2004; Dutta and Pullig, 2011). All these factors will be discussed in the upcoming sections of this chapter.

The type of crisis is a significant factor that defines the nature and the effect of the damage caused; performance-related crises increase the functional risk associated with the product (Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Dawar and Pillutla, 2000; Klein and Dawar, 2004). For example, the recent launch of the new Samsung phone, Galaxy Note 7, was disrupted by the fault in the phone production that caused its battery to explode with no warning. The news quickly spread internationally and ruined Samsung's plans to acquire the market share before the launch of their primary rival, Apple iPhone 7. The consequences were significant in that Samsung shares dropped down, and they had to recall the phone back from the market, and postpone the launch date in other countries until the fault was fixed (BBC, 2016). The fault in the Note 7 affected the perceived functionality, and directly related to the performance and quality of the products and the perceived experiential value due to the increase in the functional risk.

Values-related crises on the other hand increase the social risk associated with using that brand's products, and how the customers are perceived by the public in the society when interacting with that brand (Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Dawar and

Lei, 2009). Earlier in this chapter, the case of Nestlé and its promotional campaign of breast milk substitutes in developing countries was presented. This triggered a massive boycott against Nestlé in the USA and Europe, and resulted in severe damage to Nestlé's brand image, forcing the brand to change its practices and to pay attention to ethical considerations. Also, Levi's faced strong public pressure in the 1970s to change its policy of productivity improvements after information about basic workers' rights being abused in order to work harder to cut cost and achieve a highly competitive low-price position in the market reached the public (Wong and Taylor, 2000; Graafland, 2002). In both cases, the morality and the ethical practice of the brands were questioned, and customers stopped identifying with a brand because their psychological and symbolic value was negatively perceived and unacceptable in the society.

In the literature, Dawar and Pillutla (2000) investigated the impact of product-harm crises on customer-based brand equity and found that customers' interpretation of the firm's response to a product-harm crisis is moderated by their expectations about the firm. In other words, the firm's actions alone are not enough to predict the level of impact of the crisis on brand equity. Customers' perception and expectations of the firm are important to be considered as key moderators. Hence, after a product-harm crisis, loyal customers require reassurance about the firm's responsiveness, whereas potential consumers need to be reassured about the absence of risk in consuming the product (Dawar and Pillutla, 2000). Roehm and Brady (2007) investigated customer responses to performance failure of a high-equity brand and found that customers' judgement and evaluation of the performance failure was higher in the case of a high-equity

brand. They argued that the brand response would therefore need to be up to the higher expectations to regain trust and they suggested an immediate and quick response to failure in order to contain the damage and regain trust. This suggests that product-harm crises and performance failures affect the customers' perception of the benefits perceived from the brand and its products since a reassurance of functionality and trustworthiness will be essentially needed.

Pullig *et al.* (2006) claimed that performance-related crisis hinders the perception of functional benefits, whereas values-related crisis prevents symbolic benefits, though this was not tested in their research. Dutta and Pullig (2011), in their investigation on the relationship between crisis types and corporate response strategy, conducted a pilot study and suggested that performance-related crisis is strongly related to the performance and functionality of the product and that values-related crisis is strongly related to the values espoused by the brand. This indication was derived from assumptions made by others (e.g. Dawar and Pillutla, 2000; Roehm and Brady, 2007; Dutta and Pullig, 2011) and a pilot study. Therefore, there is a need to test the impact of the two crises on brand benefits through the primary research of this study, based on the literature review, the first hypotheses are:

H1: Performance-related crises have a negative impact on the brand's perceived benefits.

H1a. Performance-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's functional/experiential benefits.

H1b. Performance-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's symbolic benefits.

H2: Values-related crises have a negative impact on the brand's perceived benefits.

H2a. Values-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's functional/experiential benefits.

H2b. Values-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's Symbolic benefits.

As noted above, in addition to the crisis types, brand reaction and response strategy to the incident is an important stage that can either lead to contain the damage or be responsible for amplifying the issue and cause further complications (Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Benoit, 1997; Coombs, 2014; Coombs, 1995). This will be examined in the next section.

2.10.2 Brand response – theories and strategies

Brand response towards crises has been widely investigated in the literature. The generally supported conclusion is that it is very difficult to have a standardised response strategy to all crises (Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Dawar and Lei, 2009; Klein and Dawar, 2004; Dawar and Pillutla, 2000). This is because researchers found that there are several variables that define the type of responses to a crisis. Dawar and Pilluta (2000) investigated the impact of product-harm crisis and performance-related crisis on customer-based brand equity, and found that there was a strong relationship between the customer's expectations about the brand, and the effectiveness of the brand response to a crisis. In other words, customers would interpret and perceive the response actions of a brand based on their previous experiences and awareness of that brand. Based on that, Dawar and Pilluta (2000)

defined three types of response: ***unambiguous support***, which involves a full consideration of responsibility, apologies to affected parties and society, and taking some responsible actions like recalling products and offering return or exchange; ***Unambiguous stonewalling***, which is the opposite and consists of a complete denial of any responsibility, no communication with the public or the society, and no correction actions. In between these two extreme types of response lies the ***Ambiguous response***, which consists of a mixture of both types, for instance a company might recall all the product out of the market but deny any wrongdoing, and refuse to communicate with media. The main driver of these responses is the customer's level of expectation and knowledge of pre-crisis behaviour of the organisation. The study also concluded that the customer's current positive expectations of a brand may help to protect the brand equity in the context of a product-harm crisis. This finding contributes to the formation of the hypotheses of this research, which will be discussed later in this section.

Brand response is framed by a number of theories developed by researchers based on numerous practices and cases, and previous experiences in the crisis management. Crisis response theories involve: apology theory, image restoration theory, decision theory, diffusion theory, excellence theory, situational crisis communication theory (SCCT), and others. In particular, apology, image restoration and SCCT theories emerged with brand image enhancement and protection aims (Hearit, 1995; Coombs, 2007; Benoit, 1997). The three theories provide the crisis managers with a variety of crisis response types, ranging from a complete denial of any wrongdoing, to total acceptance of consequences with a full apology to the society and the stakeholders. In addition, it can be noticed from

the three theories that researchers and practitioners appreciate the effect of the brand's good history in protecting and restoring its image after crisis. Coombs (1995; 2007; 2014) and Benoit (1995; 1997) and others highlighted the importance of having a history of positive brand behaviour in developing an effective response strategy. The image restoration theory (Benoit, 1995; 1997) addressed the bolstering crisis response strategy, which encourages brands to remind the customer of their positive record of business practice in order to balance the negative emotions and feelings associated with the crisis incident. SCCT suggested the ingratiation strategy, which also consists of emphasising the record of good works (Coombs, 1995; 2007). Hence, this research builds on this argument, and attempts to take it into further investigation to examine the different impacts of each CSR record (ethical, legal, philanthropic, and economic) on brand image in the crisis situation. It is therefore necessary to particularly examine the relationship between CSR and brand crisis in order to complete the link and develop research hypotheses.

2.10.3 Brand crises and CSR

The idea of conducting CSR activities as a crisis communication strategy is not novel. In the public relations (PR) and crisis management literature, CSR has been recognised as a tactic to communicate positive messages to society and the public. This tactic is included into the PR programme "community relations" (Fearn-Banks, 2010). PR programmes target a specific group of the public in order to create strong relationships with them. According to Mitroff (1988) and Coombs (2006), PR programmes may prevent crises and/or make the public supportive in the instance

of a crisis. This is because PR programmes aim to stimulate public trust, which positively affects the brand's credibility.

It has been discussed earlier in this chapter that CSR is one of the most effective methods in building a good reputation (Page and Fearn, 2005; Park *et al.*, 2014; Boulstridge and Carrigan, 2000; Servaes and Tamayo, 2013; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990). Research found that CSR has the ability to enhance the reputation, as well as contributing to the wellbeing of society (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Du *et al.*, 2007; Fatma *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, it has been discussed that CSR has a positive impact on the customers' perception of quality, goodwill, perceived value, customer purchase intention, and on the decision-making process (Falk and He, 2012; Kelley, 1987; Page and Fearn, 2005; Park *et al.*, 2014; Pérez and Rodríguez, 2014; Fatma *et al.*, 2015).

According to Godfrey, Merrill, and Hansen (2009), in the context of a crisis, stakeholders are more willing to blame external factors than accuse the bad management if the organisation was involved in CSR. Minor and Morgan (2011) agreed and argued that this is true when the motivation behind conducting CSR is not perceived as a self-interest. In other words, if the stakeholders believe that the organisation has been considering CSR as a socially responsible act, not as a profit maximisation or a competition response strategy, then the positivity of the CSR will pay off and help to protect the image (Minor and Morgan, 2011).

On the other hand, some research (Luo *et al.*, 2012; Janssen *et al.*, 2015; Du *et al.*, 2007) has proposed that CSR will make the crisis even more difficult to manage.

This is because CSR increases the attention to the crisis. As presented earlier in this

chapter, brands communicate CSR by either integrating CSR as a secondary brand association and consider its activities in their strategy of building brand identity at the customers' consciousness (Keller, 2013; Janssen *et al.*, 2015; Du *et al.*, 2007). Although Bhattacharya and Sen (2007) argued that "socially responsible" brands will favour more benefits than brands who merely integrated CSR activities to their business, in the crisis situation, the media are more likely to intensify reports and focus more on the crisis issue if the company was highly involved with CSR (Janssen *et al.*, 2015). Luo *et al.* (2012) supported this and stressed that negative publicity around brands with high CSR involvement is more likely to increase the shareholders' attention to the crisis, and the brand's response to the crisis will be watched and examined closely. This will put brands under more pressure when dealing with a crisis (Janssen *et al.*, 2015).

The variation of the view on whether CSR would be protective to brands in the context of a crisis or not is dependent on the differences in the stakeholders' perception of each CSR category, as well as the perception of each crisis type (Janssen *et al.*, 2015). There is a considerable amount of evidence in the literature to suggest that each CSR category will perform differently in every crisis type. Following the internal/external classification of crisis types, Lange and Washburn (2012) outlined that CSR will be more effective at overcoming the negativity of an external crisis than an internal crisis. This has also been supported by Janssen *et al.* (2015), who argue that stakeholders' positive perception of the organisation will emerge based on the level of the organisation responsibility for the crisis. Therefore, the impact of CSR on stakeholders' perception will only be positive if the cause is or is believed to be external. This argument is built on the finding that

if the crisis was seen as unintentional (external) by the stakeholders, such as a natural disaster, organisations can then manage to overcome the crisis more easily than if the organisation was perceived as the source of the crisis (internal) (Coombs, 1995; 2014; Fill and Turnbull, 2016). Moreover, Janssen *et al.* (2015) suggest that if the organisation is responsible for the crisis (internal), CSR may in fact backfire and intensify the issue and make it more complicated. In addition to this, stakeholders have different perceptions of different CSR activities as discussed previously. Since the stakeholder's perception is affected by crisis types, it is plausible to examine the relationship between each CSR category and crisis types; values-related and performance-related crises classification, which is the framework used in this research.

2.10.3.1 Performance-related crises and CSR

Klein and Dawar (2004) investigated CSR in the context of product-harm crises. Product-harm crises are crises that emerge from a faulty product or a danger posed using the product (Dawar and Pillutla, 2000). Thus, they can be classified under performance-related crises. Klein and Dawar (2004) found that stakeholders will blame the company more if it has a negative CSR record. In contrast, a company with a positive CSR record will be less likely to be blamed by stakeholders. They indicated that CSR plays a significant role in product and brand evaluation; it provides assurance of quality and performance that affects the judgement made by customers. Moreover, they found that a CSR record will develop positive attribution that will mediate the impact of a product-harm crisis for customers who are interested in CSR. However, Kelin and Dawar (2004) did not investigate different CSR types. Their research only investigated environmental

protection and responsibility against a product failure, which is of an ethical nature (Carroll, 2016).

Lai et al. (2015) suggested that positive CSR history will help to lower stakeholders' attribution and assist to regain positive brand perception in the context of product-related crises. They found that a positive CSR record will stimulate stakeholders' trust and confidence in the organisation's management. Stakeholders will rely on the company's socially responsible reputation as a reassurance of good behaviour and assume that it will deal with a performance-related crisis in a more responsible manner (Lai *et al.*, 2015). Unlike Kelin and Dawar (2004), Lai *et al.* (2015) did not argue the sensitivity of customers to CSR, rather their findings indicate that CSR would help to increase customers' positive attribution regardless of their interest in CSR, though they focused on one type of CSR – charity donations – which has a philanthropic nature (Carroll, 2016). Dutta and Pullig (2011) agreed with the view that CSR helps increase positive perception after crises. They added that after both crisis types, performance-related and values-related, embedding CSR activities with the crisis response strategy will help to reduce offensiveness and will result in an effective strategy that can help to reconstruct damaged image.

Janssen *et al.* (2015) assumed that moral activities such as ethical and philanthropic CSR will protect the credibility of the organisation in the performance-related crisis. They justified this assumption by saying that performance-related crises are less relevant to the organisation's ethical and moral identity, and so the credibility of the organisation will not get into conflict with the negativity of the performance-related crisis, and so organisations can benefit from

ethical and philanthropic CSR as these categories aim to sustain ethical and moral image and increase customer attribution and positive behaviour.

Based on the above, and as discussed earlier in sections 2.9.1 and 2.9.5, CSR with an ethical and moral nature contribute to building strong brand identity that will be recognised and praised by customers. Customers will then experience a feeling of social involvement and achievement when integrating with that brand. Hence, ethical CSR will increase a brand's symbolic benefits and create a positive image as a result (He and Lai, 2014; Popoli, 2011; Falk and He, 2012). It can therefore be hypothesised that:

H3: The presence of ethical CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

H4: The presence of philanthropic CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

Legal CSR refers to the brand's responsibility to adhere to legal requirements and standards (Carroll, 1991). It provides customers with assurance of the quality and functionality of the brand's products/services, and thus reduces the uncertainty risk associated with the decision-making process as discussed earlier in section 2.5.4 of this chapter (Klein and Dawar, 2004). Although legal CSR enforces the functional and experiential benefits, it has been suggested that the presence of legal CSR is normally expected by the society. Stakeholders expect brands to be legal, obey the law and comply with the rules (Carroll, 2016; He and Lai, 2014). Thus, in the case of a performance-related crisis, legal CSR might make no difference to the affected perception of the brand and therefore may not protect

the image from the damage. This was evident in the case of the Ford Pinto crisis; in 1971 in USA, Ford introduced its new car the Pinto to the market. At the introductory stage, the car was very successful, it was stylish at that time, and affordable. However, the car body had a deficiency with its fuel tank being placed at the back side of the car only six inches from the rear bumper (Boddy, 2014). This issue exposed the car to a high risk of a petrol leak when struck from behind even at low speed. The consequences were severe with 27 occupants dying and 24 suffering burns between 1971–1976 (Boddy, 2014). When the investigation revealed the fault in the car design, Ford's reputation suffered badly, even though the design met the national highway traffic safety standards for car production (Cavender and Miller, 2013; Boddy, 2014). Victims and members of the public called for a boycott, and tried to sue Ford, even though the brand had a good legal record before the crisis. However, because it met the safety standards, Ford won the lawsuit, but the safety standards were made stricter and the car was recalled from the market (Cavender and Miller, 2013).

Thus, the fifth hypothesis of this study is:

H5: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

With regards to economic CSR, this type of CSR is also argued to be expected from organisations (Carroll, 2016). The stakeholders and the society expect organisations to be profitable and productive in the economy. However, it has been found that the employees and the shareholders in particular are more interested in economic CSR than customers. This is because employees seek job

security assurance to feel safe with long-term employment, and shareholders are interested in the organisational profit and the economic wealth to assure profitable investments within that organisation (Smith *et al.*, 2001; Becchetti *et al.*, 2015; Torres *et al.*, 2012; Wood, 2010).

On the other hand, the interpretation of economic CSR by customers is widely debated in the literature. Since this research is interested in assessing impact on brand image through perception of perceived brand benefits, the customer's view of economic CSR is important. However, the specific impact of economic CSR on brand benefits has not been investigated yet. Some studies argue that profitability and economic stability of an organisation would be perceived positively by customers as it provides assurance of a strong position and financial performance (e.g. Wang, Yijing and Berens, 2015; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Tian *et al.*, 2011).

Based on this view, it can be assumed that economic CSR increases the functional benefit of a brand, and since it reflects a strong position in the market it might also be assumed that it increases the symbolic benefit as well.

However, other studies in the literature argue the opposite and state that from the customers' perspective, economic CSR works against the ethical and moral nature of CSR since its ultimate aim is profit maximisation (e.g. Xiao *et al.*, 2017; Mohr *et al.*, 2001; Friedman, 1970).

A third view on economic CSR and customers' perception is that the relationship between the two is nonsignificant (Podnar and Golob, 2007; Boronat and Pérez, 2019), meaning that customers are generally not interested in economic CSR.

According to this view, customers assume that the normal business objective is to

generate profit, but they expect this to be done in an ethical and legal manner (Baden, 2016). Hence, customers do not perceive economic CSR as an extra initiative (Podnar and Golob, 2007; Boronat and Pérez, 2019).

Despite the debate, it is agreed that customers' perception of economic CSR depends on the individual and society values and therefore it varies from one country to another (Maignan, 2001; Habisch *et al.*, 2005; Xiao *et al.*, 2017). In Europe, particularly in the UK, France, Germany, Spain and Slovenia, the findings support the third view above that economic CSR has no significant relationship with customers' perception (Maignan, 2001; Podnar and Golob, 2007; Maignan and Ralston, 2002; Boronat and Pérez, 2019). This view will therefore be considered in this research.

Hence, in the context of a performance-related crisis, it is not expected that customers will recognise economic CSR as an advantage to be considered when evaluating performance-related crisis impact. Therefore, economic CSR is not expected to play either a negative or positive role in the protection of customers' perception of brand benefits. This contention is however speculative, and it can then be hypothesised:

H6: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on the brand image.

2.10.3.2 Values-related crises and CSR

In values-related crises, CSR categories are tending to be more sensitive to them. Godfrey *et al.* (2009) argued that the value of the "goodwill" gained by CSR is the most important aspect to reduce business risk and stimulate a customer's loyalty.

Mishra and Modi (2013) added that negative CSR, on the other hand, reduces this “goodwill” and as a result increases business risk. Moreover, it was found that CSR has a positive impact on the customers’ perception of the product quality, perceived value, customer purchase intention, and on the decision-making process (Falk and He, 2012; Kelley, 1987; Page and Fearn, 2005; Pérez and Rodríguez, 2014; Park *et al.*, 2014). Dutta and Pullig (2011) revealed that a values-related crisis directly impacts the social and psychological risks. Social risk involves the individual concern of how other members of the society view his/her consumption of a certain brand, while psychological risk is the individual’s internal and personal values; that is, how much the brand fits with his/her values and morality (Dutta and Pullig, 2011).

Janssen *et al.* (2015) suggested that ethical and philanthropic CSR might be helpful in the context of a performance-related crisis to regain credibility due to the irrelevance between the crisis and the CSR. However, in the values-related crises case, they argued that CSR is more likely to backfire and intensify the issue. This is because the ethical nature of these CSR types is highly relevant to the values-related crises, as this would negatively affect the truthfulness and credibility of the organisation. Wagner *et al.* (2009) agree and found that in the event of a values-related crisis, stakeholders are likely to show a less-positive attitude towards an organisation with ethical and philanthropic activities, compared to an organisation with no such activities.

In practice, there is a considerable amount of cases that would support this assumption. For example, British Petroleum (BP) invested considerably in their

ethical and philanthropic image of being environmentally responsible and working carefully to minimise their environment impacts. They designed a CSR strategy in which they focused on several ethical issues such as: climate change, safety in the workplace, socio-economic impact in developing countries, and working with human rights organisations to provide support and development for people in need (BP, 2015). In 2010, the company faced huge public criticism for the Deepwater Horizon disaster, not only for the way they handled the disaster, but also because of their proclaimed ethical image of being environmentally friendly (Holmes and Sudhaman, 2011; Snyder and Diesing, 2015).

Thus, the seventh and the eighth hypotheses of this study are:

H7: The presence of ethical CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

H8: The presence of philanthropic CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

For legal and economic categories, as highlighted in the previous section, the identification of these two CSR categories is required and expected by the customers (Lai *et al.*, 2010; He and Lai, 2014; Smith *et al.*, 2001). Consequently, the researcher does not expect that these two categories will make any impact on values-related crises. Hence, the final two hypotheses of this study are:

H9: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

H10: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

2.11 Summary and conclusion

2.11.1 Theoretical framework

The discussion in this chapter has developed a common understanding of the term sustainability including corporate sustainability. For this research, it is suitable to use the term CSR as it reflects the sustainable development process in the business world and provides a clear and focused concern to the stakeholder groups.

The second section of the critical literature review examined the main theories and approaches of CSR that underpin this study. As this research aims to examine different types of CSR and their impact on brand image after crises, the stakeholder theory supports the focus of consumers as key stakeholders to perceive CSR activities. The CSR approach in this research will adopt Carroll's (1991; 2016) model of CSR. It presents an integrative and comprehensive description of a full set of managerial duties in social responsibility terms (Becchetti *et al.*, 2015; Wang and Berens, 2015; Baden, 2016; Boronat and Pérez, 2019). In contrast to the triple bottom line approach (people, profit, planet), the economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic dimensional CSR includes a set of both financial obligations and discretionary efforts and activities. Moreover, Carroll's model reflects more extensively on the added values and benefits, which identifies a relationship with all brand benefits (functional, experiential, and symbolic) that this research is particularly concerned to measure.

Moving on to the brand crisis notion, the literature review has provided a critical discussion around the term's definition and classifications, with regards to the research objectives in investigating the different types of brand crisis and their impact on brand image and CSR categories. It would be suitable to adopt the values-related / performance-related crisis classification. This is because it includes the impact of brand crisis on both the brand's values and morality, and its products' quality and functionality. Measuring through this classification would help to identify the reflection and changes in all perceived benefits, whether they are functional, experiential, or symbolic. Moreover, this classification presents a logical link between crisis and CSR, because it involves a clear consideration of values and morality, which particularly fits within the ethical and philanthropic dimensions of CSR.

The ability of CSR to enhance reputation is one of the major bases that this research was built on, which also formed a key element in the hypotheses' development of this research. The existing literature indicates that CSR has a positive impact on brand benefits. All CSR categories are found to add value to the perceived benefits and thus enhance the brand image (Popoli, 2011; Falk and He, 2012; Gupta and Pirsch, 2008; He and Lai, 2014). In particular, legal and economic CSR are found to increase the functional and experiential benefits of brands, while ethical and philanthropic CSR are found to increase the symbolic benefits of brands (He and Lai, 2014). Crises on the other hand are found to disturb and prevent the perceived benefits through increasing social and functional risks associated with the integration with the brand (Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Dawar and Lei, 2009; Klein and Dawar, 2004; Dawar and Pillutla, 2000). The contention about the specific

impact of each crisis type on each brand benefit will be retested through this research to ensure a clear and supported view of the negative impact of crisis types on brand image. In the context of the positive effect of CSR, the research will evaluate this impact on brand image with records of different types of CSR. This will contribute to extend the knowledge around CSR to understand the impact of involving different CSR types on brand image after different crisis types.

Every model and approach discussed in this chapter has some relevance to the research aim, whether it is on CSR, brand crisis, or brand image. However, models and theories that are relevant to the values, morality, and functionality of the brand, and that combine philanthropic and financial ideas, are aligned to the research objectives, framework and the research process (figure 2.12).

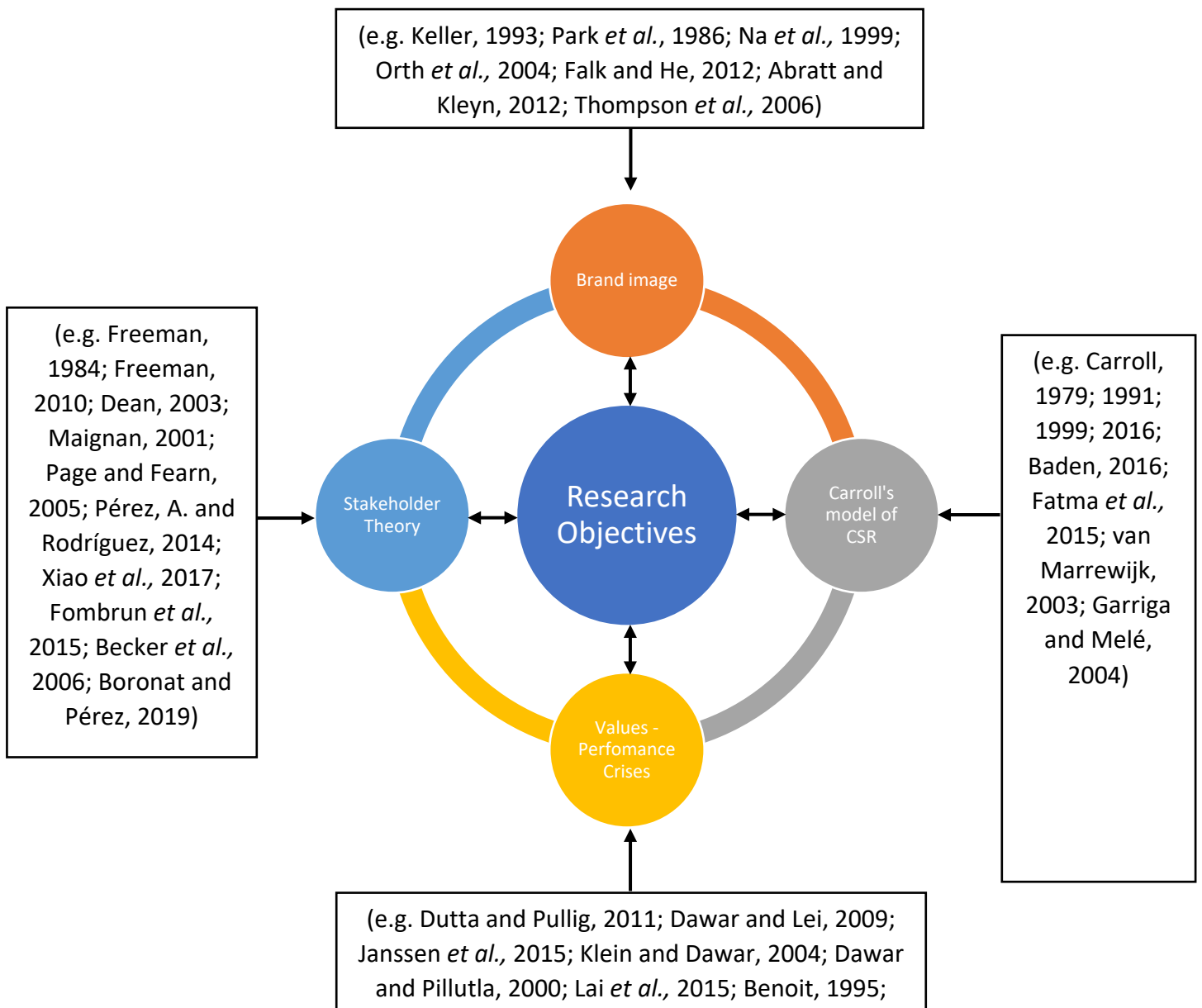


Figure 2. 10. Theoretical approach and theories in relation to the research objectives.

2.11.2 Research contribution to the literature

From figure 2.12 above, the research is expected to provide a further investigation on the customer's perception of CSR and will explain further the customer's expectations of a brand's social responsibilities, through identifying further the differences in impact of each CSR category in difficult situations (crises). In doing so, this study will interrogate Carroll's CSR pyramid and assess each layer's performance and impact in the different crisis situations. It will therefore provide another dimensional investigation and evaluation to the impact of each crisis type on socially responsible brand images.

More specifically, the research will extend the knowledge around the four types of CSR and their impact on brand image, particularly around economic and philanthropic (figure 2.13).

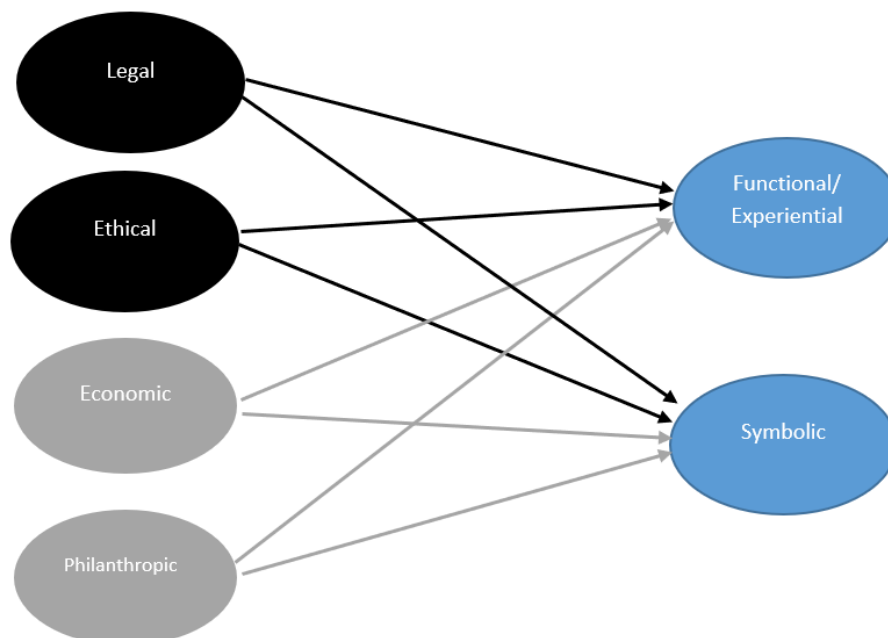


Figure 2. 11. The research contribution to He and Lai (2014) highlighted in grey colour.

Moreover, the research will contribute to the understanding of how the two crisis types affect a company's socially responsible image. The customer's perception of a positive CSR history in a performance-related crisis context have been discussed, though the investigation did not investigate the four different CSR types – the focus has been on a socially responsible reputation. This research will add to this investigation the case of values-related crises and will further assess the different impact of each of the four CSR categories (figure 2.14).

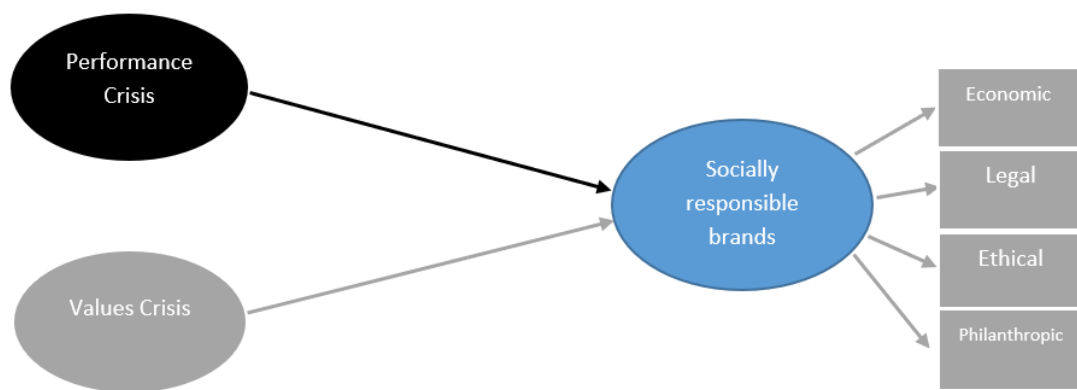


Figure 2. 12. Research contribution to the study of Klein and Dawar (2004)

Finally, the literature review has supported the progress towards achieving the aim of this research by contributing directly to the achievement of the first three objectives of the research:

Objective 1) To critically analyse the existing literature and previous cases concerning CSR, brand crises, and brand image.

Objective 2) To investigate the different categories of CSR and their impact on brand image.

Objective 3) To investigate the different categories of brand crisis and their impact on brand image.

The fourth objective, to investigate the differences in the customer’s perception of a brand that has been performing CSR before and after a crisis, will be achieved afterwards through the primary research and data collection, will test the set of hypotheses illustrated in figure 2.15.

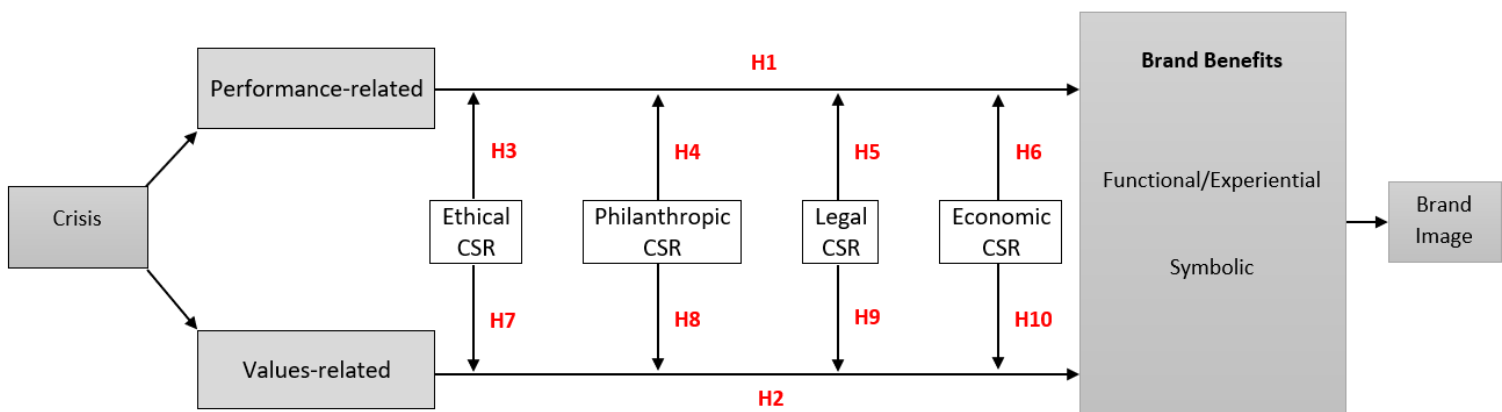


Figure 2. 13. Research model. *Developed by the author*

List of hypotheses:

H1: Performance-related crises have a negative impact on the brand’s perceived benefits.

H1a. Performance-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand’s functional/experiential benefits.

H1b. Performance-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand’s symbolic benefits.

H2: Values-related crises have a negative impact on the brand’s perceived benefits.

H2a. Values-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's functional/experiential benefits.

H2b. Values-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's Symbolic benefits.

H3: The presence of ethical CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

H4: The presence of philanthropic CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

H5: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

H6: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on the brand image.

H7: The presence of ethical CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

H8: The presence of philanthropic CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

H9: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

H10: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Chapter introduction

In the literature review, the concept of CSR was defined and explained in great detail, with regard to its positive contributions towards both the society (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004) and the brand (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Page and Fearn, 2005). Also, the term “Crisis” and its negative effects that result in a “damaged” brand image were discussed (Klein and Dawar, 2004). The essence of this research is to examine what will happen to the brand image when the negativity of a crisis hits the positivity of CSR. In other words, the aim of this research is to investigate whether CSR would help brands to protect their brand image in the event of a crisis.

Objectives of the research:

Objective 1) To critically analyse the existing literature and previous cases concerning CSR, brand crises, and brand image.

Objective 2) To investigate the different categories of CSR and their impact on brand image.

Objective 3) To investigate the different categories of brand crisis and their impact on brand image.

Objective 4) To investigate the differences in the customer’s perception of a brand that has been performing CSR – before and after a crisis.

In order to achieve this, the research’s philosophical and strategic theories and approaches must first be justified. According to Bryman (2012) this is important to the social researcher because it provides a rationale for the research and draws a

framework that determines the understanding of the social phenomena, and the interpretation of the research results and findings.

Thus, this section of the research comes to give a general overview of the research methodology in social sciences, and then explains and justifies the methodology and the methods that the researcher is employing in this research.

It can be divided into two general parts: the first part explains the research philosophy and approach, and the second part provides an overview of the methodology and methods of the research.

In doing so, this section will answer questions of how the researcher is approaching this research, why such methods have been chosen, and what steps were taken in order to collect the data.

3.2 The research philosophy

Research philosophy mainly describes the way the researcher views the world and directly influences the overall research strategy (Zikmund, 2003). Research philosophy can be very useful for identifying the research planning. This not only defines what kind of knowledge is required and how it is to be collected and interpreted, but also how is it going to answer the research questions (Easterby *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, understanding the philosophy provides the researcher with a full understanding of the limitations of each position, and thus can help the researcher to decide which research plan and approach is going to best suit his/her research (Baker, 2003). Furthermore, knowledge of the philosophy assists the researcher in identifying and creating research plans which could have been absent

from his/her mind. Hence, the main point here is about how well the research is able to reflect on the philosophical choices and justify them with regards to the alternatives (Baker, 2003; Bryman, 2012).

There are two major ways of thinking about the research philosophy: ontology and epistemology.

3.2.1 Ontology

Ontology is related to the nature of reality (Bryman, 2012). It is the assumption that the researcher has about the way the world operates and the commitments about views (Easterby *et al.*, 2012). Ontological consideration in social research is concerned with the social entities, which are divided into two contradictory aspects.

The first aspect of ontology is objectivism: this aspect portrays whether the social entities can be considered as objective entities that have a reality external to social actors (Bryman, 2012).

The second aspect is subjectivism, also known as constructionism: this aspect holds the perception that social entities can be considered to be social constructions built from the assumptions and consequent actions of social actors (Baker, 2003; Bryman, 2012).

In both cases, an ontological stance answers the questions “What is the researcher’s view of the reality’s nature (Saunders, 2012)?” and “Can/should this reality be considered as external tangible object beyond his/her influence?”

(Bryman, 2012) and so the researcher can understand “What is out there to know?” (Grummel, 2006).

3.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is concerned with examining the knowledge; what is, and what can be considered as acceptable knowledge in a discipline (Bryman, 2012) it is directly attached to the actual meaning of the realist (Crotty, 1998). According to Stewart (2010), epistemology is an effort to clarify the nature, possibilities, and limitations of an intellectual achievement. It investigates the specific knowledge and/or the rational belief (Stewart, 2010).

An epistemological stance aims to reflect methods and strategies by identifying which knowledge is to be achieved (Grummel, 2006).

The two major epistemological stance categories defined in the literature are positivism and interpretivism (Baker, 2003; Bryman, 2012; Zikmund, 2003).

3.2.2.1 Positivism

Positivism, or logical positivism as it is sometimes described in social science (Easterby *et al.*, 2012), is the epistemological philosophy of viewing social reality as observable in an objective ontological manner, and is considered to possibly be measured logically and mathematically (Klee, 1997), so the outcomes can provide an analytical statement of the observed reality (Partington, 2002) and can be formed as law-like generalisations (Stewart, 2010).

The positivist researcher will be concerned with “facts” rather than “impressions” (Saunders, 2012) he/she obtains from an objective stance, and will conduct the

research in a “value-free” way where they stay independent of the data (Baker, 2003). Bryman (2012) described positivism as having five main principles:

1. The principle of phenomenalism: Only phenomena that lead to knowledge indicated by the senses can be accepted as knowledge.
2. The principle of didacticism: the hypotheses are developed from an existing theory, which can be tested, and will then assess the explanation of laws.
3. The principle of inductivism: knowledge generated through gathering facts, which will provide the basis of laws.
4. The principle of objectivism: science must/can be conducted in a value-free way.
5. This last principle is implied by the first one, and states that the distinction is clear between scientific and normative statements, and here scientific is the true domain for scientists.

3.2.2.2 Interpretivism

Also known in the literature as constructivism, and naturalism, it is an alternative epistemological stance to positivism (Bryman, 2012) where the social reality is constructed from individuals’ experiences, rather than obtaining that reality from external objective factors (Gergen, 1999). Hence, the reality in interpretivism is determined by people’s views and feelings (Easterby *et al.*, 2012). According to this, it is crucial for the researcher in this stance to understand the differences between humans, and so requires the researcher to hold the subjective meaning of social actions (Bryman, 2012).

The intellectual heritage of interpretivism comes from the two traditions of phenomenology and symbolic interactionism (Bryman, 2012). Phenomenology is basically the way humans make sense of their surrounding world. In symbolic

interactionism humans are in a continual process of interpreting their social world. Those two traditions develop personalised meanings and actions (Bryman, 2012).

Unlike positivism, interpretivism rejects the assumption that only one real world exists with the same beliefs about the social reality (Hudson *et al.*, 1988). Reality is socially constructed from human interactions and experiences, and thus, multiple realities can exist and are continually changing, therefore the aim of interpretivism is not to “discover” a reality, but to “understand” the realities (Collins, 2010; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; Crotty, 1998)

Interpretivists argue that in social science, like in business and management, the social world is very complex and cannot be restricted to theorising laws the same way as physical science (Bryman, 2012). Positivists, on the other hand, argue that it is much more accurate for social science to be measured objectively to reflect tangible facts (Collins, 2010).

This contradiction between interpretivism and positivism, and so between subjectivism and objectivism, has resulted in what’s known as the paradigm war in the academy between the two schools. The core of the conflict is basically on which one is more comprehensive and better in answering a research question. Overall, there’s no one best way of conducting a research, as having all the concepts of research methodology listed does not provide a recipe to follow (Saunders, 2012) as every research is different, based on the nature of the research, and the researcher’s views and assumptions (Bryman, 2012).

3.2.3 The research paradigm

The “research paradigm” as a concept has multiple meanings in the literature.

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) define the research paradigm as “basic belief systems based on ontological, epistemological and methodological assumption” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005, P: 107).

Crotty (1998) viewed research paradigm as interpretation of the researchers’ views of the world, which involves their understanding of how knowledge can be established and how change can be conducted. Saunders (2012) however defined research paradigm as “the way of examining social phenomena from which particular understandings of these phenomena can be gained and explanations attempted” (Saunders, 2012, p: 118).

Thus, the different views of how researchers see the world, what is to be studied, how it should be done, and how the results should be interpreted is the essence of the research paradigm (Kervin and Murray, 2000; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). For some scholars (e.g. Bryman, 2012; Kervin and Murray, 2000) the debate takes quantitative and qualitative research as paradigms, and therefore the epistemological stance, the values, and methods are incompatible and cannot be combined (Kervin and Murray, 2000). Researchers must therefore take a position and hold to it in order to achieve the best results (Bryman, 2012). The research paradigm can be argued to have three philosophical positions. The first one is illustrated by the two radicals (positivism and interpretivism), which are generally against mixing methodologies (Bryman, 2006). The second position is represented by realism, which is considerably less “strict” and falls between the two. The third

one is pragmatism, which strongly defends the use of a combination of both “mixed methods” and claims the ability for the coexistence between the two extremists (Kervin and Murray, 2000; Bryman, 2006).

In investigating CSR, crises, and brand image, both objective and subjective methodologies have been used. For example, the work of Perez and Andrea (2014), Dutta and Pullig (2011), Klein and Dawar (2004), and Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) adopted an objective methodology, through a positivism epistemological approach concluded by a survey strategy in data collection while a subjective methodology has been adopted by Bhattacharya and Sen (2004), who followed an interpretive approach and collected data through interviews. Collection and combined methodologies, a “mixed method”, has also been adopted in the field. For example, He and Lai (2014) used a combination of survey and interviews. They designed a questionnaire for the initial data collection, followed by interviews for deeper investigation. In every case, the choice of the adopted methodology has been taken based on the nature of the research and the researchers’ views of the social world. Based on that, and in order to achieve the research aim and objectives, the ontology of this study will adopt an objective approach. Looking into the nature of this research, the researcher is concerned with facts that are directly related to external phenomena, and can be easily quantified and indicated by mathematical measurements and interpreted to scientific laws (Easterby *et al.*, 2012). As the main aim of the research is to explain causal relationships between variables, whether there’s a positive, negative, or no relationship between CSR and brand crises through examining the change in the brand image, this research can best acquire an indication of that change by gathering statistical data that can be

read and compared (Crotty, 1998). This view contributes to the theoretical deductive approach of conducting a research (Bryman, 2012; Saunders, 2012), which will be discussed in the next section.

3.3 Research approach

To complete the chain of the logical flow, it is necessary to understand the relationship between the theory and the research (Bryman, 2012), or in other words, understand the use of theory in the research (Zikmund, 2003). This is important as it determines the way of developing the research hypotheses, and the design of the research (Baker, 2003; Bryman, 2012; Saunders, 2012).

Three approaches are defined in the literature: deduction, induction, and abduction.

The deduction approach involves developing a theory from an idea, premise, or a set of hypotheses, which might suggest a relationship between variables or concepts, then taking that to be tested by collecting the appropriate data, then finally examining the analysed data, which might either support the hypotheses and the theory, or reject them so the theory can be completely rejected or modified (Baker, 2003; Bryman, 2012; Saunders, 2012).

Another view towards theoretical development is the inductive approach. In this approach, the research might otherwise start by collecting data to explore some certain social phenomena, and build a theory based on the findings (Bryman, 2012). In other words, followers of this approach will first get a sense or a feeling of what's going on in order to understand the nature of the problem, then

interpret and analyse the data collected, which as a result will form a theory (Baker, 2003).

On the other hand, the researcher might follow a hybrid approach of the deductive and inductive, which is known as the abduction research approach (Easterby *et al.*, 2012). In this approach, the data are collected to explore, identify, and explain a social phenomenon and patterns, which would lead to generate a new theory or modify an existing one, which then can be further tested through additional data collection (Bryman, 2012).

This research follows a deductive approach. A set of hypotheses have been developed to be tested in a value-free way (Bryman, 2012). The results will either support the hypotheses and the theory or reject them so the theory can be modified or considered as “false” (Saunders, 2012). These hypotheses are:

H1: Performance-related crises have a negative impact on the brand’s perceived benefits.

H1a. Performance-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand’s functional/experiential benefits.

H1b. Performance-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand’s symbolic benefits.

H2: Values-related crises have a negative impact on the brand’s perceived benefits.

H2a. Values-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand’s functional/experiential benefits.

H2b. Values-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand’s Symbolic benefits.

H3: The presence of ethical CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

H4: The presence of philanthropic CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

H5: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

H6: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

H7: The presence of ethical CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

H8: The presence of philanthropic CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

H9: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

H10: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

Understanding the research approaches will help the researcher to understand his/her research strategy, and the methods available which would fit to serve the research aim and objectives, and those which would not and are better to avoid (Bryman, 2012; Stewart, 2010). The research aims to examine relationships between variables to test a set of hypotheses that was developed in the literature. hence, a positivistic approach is suitable to collect data that can be interpreted

based on statistics and numerical the align to the research context and help achieve the research objectives.

3.4 The research methodologies and methods

The choice of appropriate methods depends mainly on the research paradigm and its ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions (O'Leary, 2004; Bryman, 2012). According to Kervin and Murray (2000), the adoption of quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods must be distinguished between the methods and the methodology. In other words, the researcher needs to distinguish between the methods as a collection of data, and the methods as a methodological approach in a single study. Quantitative research uses numerical measurements and statistics to explain relationships between variables and concepts (Baker, 2003). Hence, it fits into the positivism philosophy, especially when highly structured data collection techniques are being used (Bryman, 2012). Qualitative, on the other hand, uses meanings and opinions of humans' perceptions to collect non-standardised data in a naturalistic and interactive research process (Easterby *et al.*, 2012), therefore it fits into the interpretivist philosophy as the researcher tries to feel the subjective meaning of a phenomenon. Mixed methods research combines quantitative and qualitative together (Bryman, 2006). It is particularly helpful in providing more focus on a specific issue, e.g. a theory might be tested quantitatively and then investigated more qualitatively, or vice-versa (Kervin and Murray, 2000). Mixed methods are mainly led by the pragmatism and realism philosophies (Kervin and Murray, 2000).

This research follows a quantitative methodological approach proceeded from the ontology (objectivism) and epistemology (positivism) of the study. The key here is testing the hypotheses that will lead to the construct of theory. The choice of quantitative method can be justified by the nature of the research investigation, which aims to inspect: 1) What's the impact of each crisis type on brand image? 2) What is the impact of each crisis type on brand image with a positive CSR record? The two situations are expected to be compared to each other in order to detect any changes in the perceived level of brand image. According to Saunders (2012), quantitative data collection methods are highly controlled and systematic and can generate a large amount of data from the population in the form of mathematical records, which help to test a set of hypotheses in a deductive approach. In addition, quantitative data analysis is appropriate to provide statistical relationships between variables to assist researchers that aim to compare situations (Bryman, 2012). Hence quantitative data collection and analysis (mono-methods) is the most relevant data method for this research.

Mono-method technique is argued to be associated with "mono-method bias", which is the threat to validity by using one single type of data collection. According to Stewart (2010), if the use of another type of methods would generate different results or change the score on the dependent and independent variables, then the use of a mono-method is not consistent enough to provide reliable and factual data. However, as the research is attempting to answer comparative and relationship questions (**What** is the difference in impact between each crisis type on brand image? **Which** CSR category has more/less/same impact on brand image after each crisis type?), the aspect of **why** they differ is not the focus of this

research (as this has already been investigated in the literature). The research aims to test a set of hypotheses that has been developed in the literature. To achieve the research objectives, an examination of the relationship between variables is required. This aligns clearly with the positivist approach. The data collection is not expected to reflect different records with different methods. The researcher will test the reliability and the validity of the data collection method through a pilot study prior to the actual data collection process.

3.4.1 The research strategy

The main strategies that quantitative research is linked with are experimental and surveys (Baker, 2003; Bryman, 2012). The choice of appropriate strategy is guided by the research questions and objectives and logically flows from the research philosophy. This research aims to study the impact of crises (independent variable) on brand image (dependent variable) with and without four types of CSR (economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic). A quantitative strategy that is expected to best serve this purpose of the research is a mixed strategy of experiment and survey design. Experiments are useful to test impacts of variables (Kim and Jang 2014). Surveys are very strong in generating a large amount of data from the population. They can be the best choice to investigate causal relations between variables and to produce models of these relations (Zikmund, 2003). According to Bryman (2012), a survey strategy can allow easy comparison between situations. Furthermore, techniques belonging to survey strategy provide the researcher with more control over the research process and sustain contents that are more understandable and easier to explain to the respondents. Hence, surveys

can be very helpful for researches with a large number of variables (Easterby *et al.*, 2012; Bryman, 2012; Saunders, 2012).

The use of a survey strategy has been the most popular in studies testing the impacts of CSR and/or brand crisis. Dawar and Pillutla (2000) adopted survey strategy in their research on the impact of product-harm crises on brand equity. He and Lai (2014) utilised a survey strategy to investigate “the effect of CSR on brand loyalty: the mediating role of brand image”. Perez and Andrea (2014) conducted a survey research on how customers construct CSR images, as did many others i.e. Dutta and Pullig (2011), Klein and Dawar (2004), and Sen and Bhattacharya (2001).

3.4.2 The survey – design and tactics

3.4.2.1 Purpose and overview

The purpose of the study is to explain causal relationships between variables. The aim is to investigate how two different types of brand crises (performance-related crises and values-related crises) affect the image of brands with four different CSR activities through the measurement of brand benefits (functional, experiential, and symbolic). The crisis variable is manipulated, and brand benefits are inspected in two points: before and after the crisis incident in five different situations: no CSR, record of positive economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic CSR. Comparing the results of the different situations will clarify how the intervention of a crisis changes the perceptions of the brand and whether the previous CSR activities helped to isolate and protect the brand from the negative effect of the crisis, or otherwise intensify the issue, or whether the results are going to be the same for each CSR category.

The study is also expected to provide a clearer picture of “what’s going on” in the operationalisation of the CSR categories (Bryman, 2012). The results are expected to be generated from a strongly controlled data collection and will form the base for a statistical analysis.

The research is conducted on the apparel industry in the UK. The reasons for choosing this field are:

- The apparel industry involves all gender differences (men’s apparel and women’s apparel) and all age groups. This means that the apparel customers represent a wide variety of the population, which would give the researcher the ability to select sufficient-sized samples and have more control to ensure the validity of the data collected.
- Apparel brands not only fulfil a purely functional benefit (the basic need for buying clothes, for instance, or the need for heavy clothes in winter) but also fulfil other social aspects, such as self-expression, societal actualisation, appearance, etc. Therefore, the apparel industry has all the links with brand benefits (functional and experiential, and symbolic) and is therefore very appropriate to this research into “brand image”.
- Apparel industry is characterised by being very aggressive in terms of competition. Brands in the industry strive to differentiate their apparel and create a strong brand identification, resulting in different brand images being perceived by the customers. In such an environment, numerous cases of using CSR are available in the real market, many brands such as Marks & Spencer, Burberry, and others, have already experienced the use of CSR activities, which in turn has made the customers more aware about CSR issues. Moreover, the apparel industry

consists of many cases of brand crises, which all together will be beneficial to the data collection of this research.

3.4.2.2 Technique and the process of data collection

This cross-sectional study will be based on a quantitative data collection in the form of questionnaires. According to Oppenheim (2000), the questionnaire technique is highly useful to examine relationships between variables, and to evaluate cause and effect relations between these variables. Moreover, the questionnaire technique is precisely useful when the population is large. The researcher can easily reach a large number of respondents in a short time (Bryman, 2012).

Researchers distinguish between two main types of questionnaire techniques: **self-administered**, and **interviewer-administered** questionnaires (Easterby *et al.*, 2012; Saunders, 2012). Self-administered questionnaires are normally completed by the respondents. They can either be sent to them through the internet, by post, or delivered and collected in person. Interviewer-administered questionnaires are completed by the interviewer (the researcher) based on the answers of the respondent (Oppenheim, 2000). The choice of questionnaire type depends on the research question(s) and objectives (Bryman, 2012). Oppenheim (2000) argues that the size of the sample required, the characteristics of the respondents, the types of questions, and the number of questions are all particular aspects to define the type of the questionnaire.

As this research targets a large population (apparel customers in the UK) from which a large sample is advised to reflect the entire population's opinion

(Zikmund, 2003), and as it is conducted in a limited time-frame due to the university regulation for a research completion period, this research uses self-administered questionnaires. Self-administered questionnaires are normally associated with faster data collection, lower cost, especially if the questionnaire is going to be sent by e-mail or through social media, and they are more suitable for larger populations, which make this technique the most appropriate method for collecting data to help achieve the aim and answer the research questions (Oppenheim, 2000; Bryman, 2012). But to ensure the reliability of this technique, the research started by conducting a pilot study before the launch of the main study to test the questions and assess the quality of the data collected through that technique. Oppenheim (2000) advises that it would be useful to test the questions before deciding which type to choose. Through that test, the research formed a better understanding of the type of questions required, the respondents' characteristics, as well as evaluating the samples and assessing the sample size (Oppenheim, 2000; Bryman, 2012).

3.4.2.3 The questionnaire design

In accordance with the research aim and objectives, a structured survey had been designed. Due to the large number of variables that this research involves, this survey consisted of five scenario-based questionnaires (Appendix A). Each questionnaire measured the response towards the two crisis types (performance-related and values-related) in each of the five cases: ethical, legal, philanthropic, and economic CSR, and the case of no CSR which was designed to work as a control factor to be compared with each CSR case, and identify if there would be any changes in the respondents' perception with and without CSR in crisis

situations (figure 3.1). For instance, from figure (3.1), comparing questionnaire 1 (economic) with questionnaire 5 (no CSR) will assess the difference in response to the two types of crisis with the presence of economic CSR (vertical comparison). After following the same procedure with other questionnaires, comparison between the results can be made to assess the difference of impact of each crisis type on brand image without CSR and with the presence of each CSR activity (horizontal comparison).

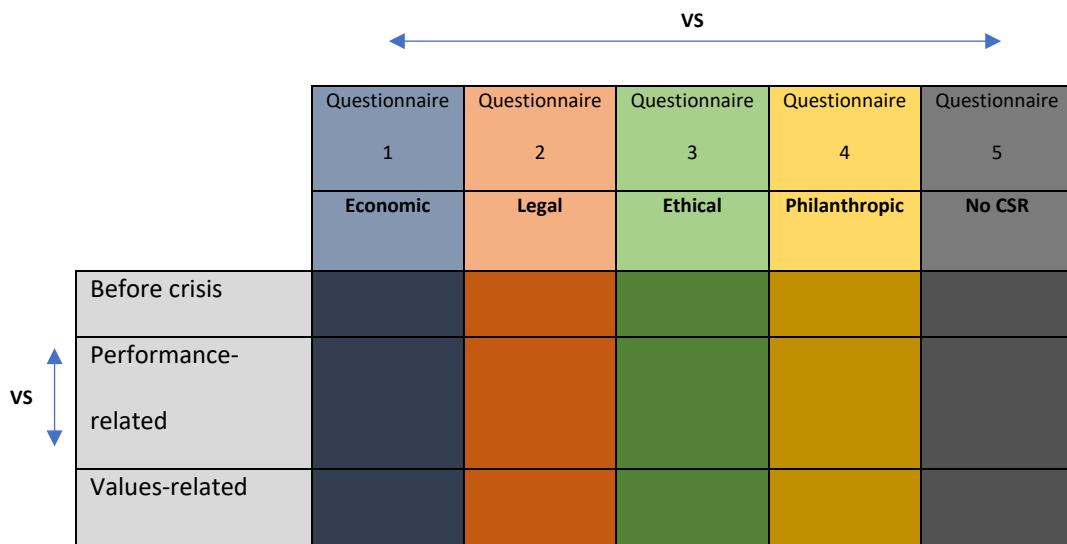


Figure 3. 1. The questionnaires cases and comparison. *Developed by the author.*

The sequence of the incidents (the scenarios) in each questionnaire had been designed to be presented successively (figure 3.2). The respondent's current perception of a familiar apparel brand was first measured. Zara, the apparel brand, was chosen due to its strong presence in the UK market, low CSR visibility and no known crisis history to the public. A thorough research has been conducted around Zara to make sure that this brand has never been in a crisis before. Moreover, the researcher investigated Zara's CSR practices, and found that Zara has a very low-

profile CSR; there's no indications of any CSR activities in their communication channels such as Zara's website, store environment, or in advertisements and promotion messages. This makes it easier to manipulate in certain scenarios. Moreover, the choice of Zara was assessed through the pilot study which showed that the brand still fits with the criteria required for this research.

After measuring the current brand image, the questionnaire introduced a positive CSR scenario, which was expected to increase the positive perception of the brand as noted by previous research (e.g. Popoli, 2011; Loussaïef *et al.*, 2014; He and Lai, 2014; Falk and He, 2012; Gupta and Pirsch, 2008; Sweetin *et al.*, 2013). Then a crisis scenario was revealed, which was expected to damage the current image according to relevant literature (e.g. Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Dawar and Lei, 2009; Dawar and Pillutla, 2000; Klein and Dawar, 2004; Benoit, 1997). The brand image was then measured again, and the results were compared to the first measurement.

The findings are expected to increase the knowledge about brand crisis in the context of CSR, which will ensure the completion of the issue and provide an insight into the change of perception and the brand image, and achieve the research aim and objectives.

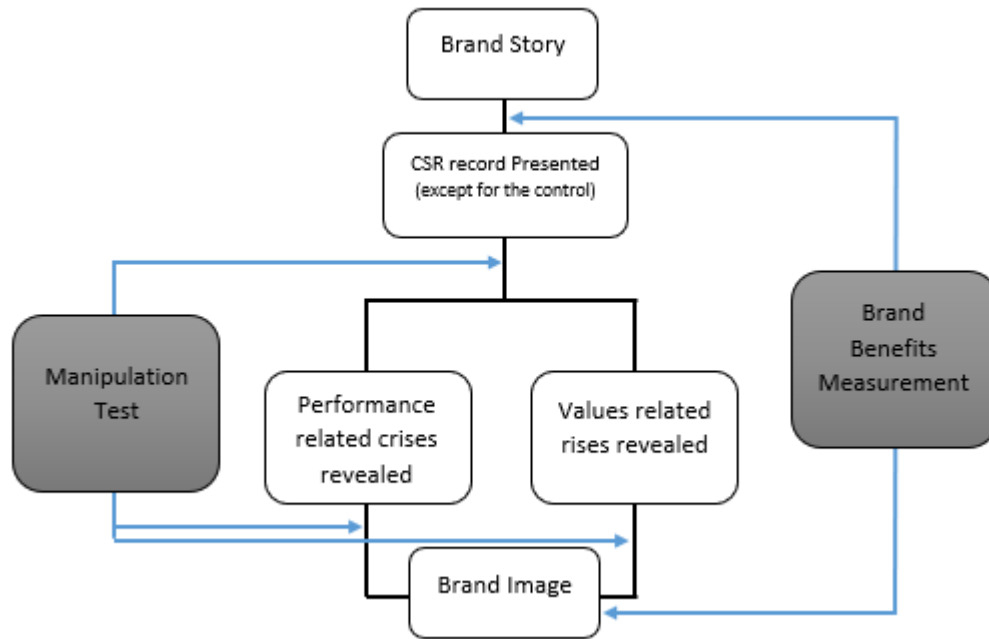


Figure 3. 2. Points of brand benefits measurements. Source: *Developed by the Author*

3.4.2.4 Measurements

From Figure 3.2, changes of the respondents' perception of the brand (the brand image) was measured by testing the changes in brand benefits through each questionnaire (Keller, 1993). The first part of each questionnaire presented a brief background of Zara (brand story-figure 3.2). In this first part, the respondents were asked about their shopping patterns at Zara, concluded in a multiple-choice question (see Appendix A for the questionnaire). Then, their brand perception was measured through brand benefits to determine their actual perception towards that brand without any CSR or crisis types. A set of brand benefits measurements were adopted from Sweeney and Soutar (2001) in a form of Likert scale questions (table 3.1). This was important to determine the actual perception of respondents towards that brand before any manipulations.

Table 3. 1. Brand benefits measurements. *Source: Sweeney and Soutar (2001).*

Brand Benefits	Measurements
Functional and Experiential	This brand has consistent quality
	The products of this brand are well made
	This brand has an acceptable standard of quality
Symbolic	This brand would help me feel acceptable
	This brand would improve the way I am perceived
	The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people

The second part of the questionnaires -except for the control; No Crisis (questionnaire 5), contained a short scenario of that brand conducting various CSR activities; one scenario for each CSR categories (see appendix A). CSR scenarios were adopted from similar studies (He and Lai 2014; Salmones *et al.*, 2005) and had been slightly adapted to fit with the chosen brand. The respondents were then asked to answer a set of Likert-scale questions; three items adopted from the same sources of the CSR scenarios to measure and assess the effectiveness of each CSR scenario's manipulation (table 3.2).

Table 3. 2.CSR manipulation measurements.

CSR category	Measurement	Source
Legal	This brand respects the law when carrying out its activities	(Salmones <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
	The product quality of this brand follows laws and regulations required by government and industry	(He and Lai, 2014)
	This brand performs in a manner consistent with expectations of the government and the law	
Ethical	This brand behaves ethically/honestly with its customers	(Salmones <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
	This brand is careful to respect and protect our natural environment	
	Respecting ethical principles has priority over achieving superior economic performance for this brand	
Philanthropic	This brand actively sponsors or finances social events (sport, music...)	(Salmones <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
	This brand directs part of its budget to donations and social works favouring the disadvantaged	
	This brand is concerned to improve general well-being of society	
Economic	This brand tries to obtain maximum profit from its activity	(Salmones <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
	This brand tries to obtain maximum long-term success	
	This brand always tries to improve its economic performance	

These CSR measurements have been carefully chosen because of their test validity from former studies and due to their popularity in CSR research. He and Lai (2014) adopted these measurements to investigate the impact of corporate social responsibility on brand loyalty. Lombart and Luis (2014) used these CSR measurements in investigating the impact of Corporate Social Responsibility and price image on retailer personality and consumer's satisfaction, trust, and loyalty.

Swaen and Chumpitaz (2008), also adopted these measurements to examine the impact of CSR on brand trust.

The third part of the questionnaire -including the control- presented two scenarios of brand crisis hitting Zara; performance-related crisis scenario, and values-related crisis scenario. The two scenarios, and one item of manipulation measurement for each scenario, have been adopted from Dutta and Pullig (2011) (figure 3.6). The respondents were asked about their perceptions towards the brand after each crisis, and brand benefits were measured for the last time through the measurement in table (3.1).

Table 3. 3. Crisis manipulation measurements. *Source: Dutta and Pullig (2011)*

Crisis type	Measurement
Performance-related	The incident is related to the quality of the company's products
Values-related	The incident is related to the values of the company

The questionnaires' structure and the points of manipulation tests and brand benefits measurements are illustrated in figure 3.2 above.

3.4.2.5 Scenarios and manipulation

Scenarios are defined as descriptions of a situation that has specific references to what are thought to be the most important factors in the decision making processes of respondents (Weber, 1992). The use of scenarios in business research is common as they are reliable to generate meaningful results (Easterby *et al.*, 2012). Kim and Jang (2014) highlighted the limitations of scenario based research and field student in business research as being less effective in capturing

respondents' positive emotions and behaviour. The study found that scenario-based experiments can capture negative feelings such as anger and disappointment more than positive feelings. They concluded that scenarios are particularly effective in measuring variables that are based on cognitive evaluation. Moreover, Bardsley (2005) argued that the limitation of scenario based research might lack real-life context if the scenarios are fictional and not well structured.

Scenarios form the core of this research with all five questionnaires being scenario based. To overcome the limitations of scenarios, the researcher has ensured that the research story is realistic and relevant to the context of the research. According to Weber (1992) when designing scenarios, a researcher can either fully construct the scenarios or adopt them from other studies. However, testing and re-testing is an important element to overcome the limitations of scenarios (Kim and Jang, 2014). Hence, all six scenarios of this research were adopted from relevant research to ensure effectiveness. The scenarios are based on published events in order to give credibility to the story. As discussed in the literature review chapter, researchers found that extrinsic source of CSR communication has higher credibility with the customers, who tend to believe the story and consider CSR activity by the organisation as credible (Becker *et al.*, 2006; Mohr *et al.*, 2001; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004). Similarly, for crisis, when the issue arose from inside the organisation, the respondents may take that as a confession of wrong doing which might affect their perception of the event (Coombs, 1995; Hearit, 1995; Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Janssen *et al.*, 2015; Klein and Dawar, 2004). For legal CSR, the scenarios and were adopted from He and Lai (2014) and Salmones *et al.* (2005), while ethical, philanthropic, and economic CSR

scenarios were adopted from Salmones *et al.* (2005). The two crisis scenarios (performance-related and values-related crisis) were adopted from Dutta and Pullig (2011). For performance related crisis, the scenario is about a report claims that Zara was caught by an undercover news agent using low quality raw materials in their production that have a significant effect on the durability and the functionality of their products. For values-related crisis, the scenario is about a report claiming that Zara is taking advantage of the cheap child labour in most of their factories in some developing countries, they employ children as young as 12 years old to work for the brand in order to cut the cost of operation and generate more profit.

Scenarios are generally concerned with manipulating variables in events to test the respondent's judgment. Therefore, it is important to test the manipulation effectiveness of each scenario (Weber, 1992). This test can be done by assessing the respondents' understanding of the event through measurement items, and also testing the reliability of each of these items. The manipulation of the CSR scenarios adopted in our research will be measured by 3 items each (table 3.2). While the manipulation of the crisis scenarios will be measured by one item each (table 3.3). All of the measurements have been adopted from the same source of the scenarios. A pilot study was conducted to test the measurements and to assess the validity and reliability of the questionnaires. In addition, the researcher will run a reliability test (Cronbach's alpha) to assure the internal consistency and reliability of all the scenarios (Kline, 2015; Weber, 1992), which will be discussed further in the validity and reliability section.

3.4.2.6 Sampling

Population overview and research sampling frame

Although the study uses the Zara brand to measure brand benefits and examine changes in the brand perception, the population is not limited to the customers of Zara. This is because people might have developed a perception about a brand even though they do not integrate with that brand. Hence, the total population and the sampling frame of this research consist of apparel customers in the UK. Individuals aged below 18 were not be included in the population. This is because these individuals have limited freedom on their purchase decision-making process, and so not all of them are part of the research sampling frame. Individuals aged 70 and above were not specifically targeted by this research because not everyone in this age group is able to shop for fashion (due to limited access, illness, time or other factors), but since they have the experience and can develop perception and have a better awareness of crisis issues, and since this research is not looking into comparing perceptions between age groups, any responses from this group will not be filtered out, but the group is not going to be specifically targeted. Hence, the total population of this research is people, or “cases”, aged 18 – 69 (Saunders, 2012; Bryman, 2012). Those cases must be British citizens living in the UK in order to ensure a common cultural background to minimise differences. The cases can be from any gender, any income, any educational and professional level, any social class, any religious background and any geographical location within the UK.

Sampling technique

A sample is a smaller section or subgroup deducted out of the research population. The process of sampling is very important for any research because it reduces the amount of data required by collecting from a smaller group rather than the entire population (Bryman, 2012). Hence, the sample should represent the entire population and reflect the population's opinions accurately. Researchers have developed different sampling methods and techniques to help researchers in identifying the right sample. These techniques can be divided into two types: probability and non-probability sampling (Easterby *et al.*, 2012; Bryman, 2012). In probability sampling, each individual (case) in the research population has an equal probability of being selected as a respondent. In non-probability sampling, on the other hand, the chance is not equal, and there might be zero chance for one or more cases to be chosen as respondents (Saunders, 2012; Bryman, 2012). As the population of this research is very large and cannot be entirely reached, the researcher will consider the non-probability technique in sampling.

According to Bryman (2012), non-probability sampling has five methods: quota, purposive, snowball, self-selection, and convenience. This study followed a quota sampling method. Quota sampling is the process where the total population is divided into groups. Each group has a calculated quota based on relevant and available data. Then, the data collection from each group follows a non-random approach, and at the end, all are combined together to provide the full sample. It is considered to be most useful when the population is large and the sample frame is not exact (Bryman, 2012). According to Easterby-Smith (2012), in a large and unidentifiable sample frame, quota sampling would ensure a cross-section of the

total population if the division of the quota groups was based on relevant factor(s).

The quota of this research population will be based on the case's age. This is because although customers' perception of CSR was found to be not related to age group (Pérez and Rodríguez, 2014), apparel shopping behaviour and brand perception have been found to be varied and affected by the customer's age (Seock and Sauls, 2008; Bhardwaj and Fairhurst, 2010).

Quota and sample size

The quota groups of this research will be based on age groups (18 – 69). The total population of the UK as of 2016 was 65,110,000 (Office for national statistics, 2016). Individuals aged between 18 to 69 were calculated as 45,582,600. The research has considered five main groups in order to ensure a cross-section of the population:

Group 1. Individuals aged 18 – 29: the size of this group is 12,559,800 (Office for national statistics, 2016). Based on that, the percentage of this group from the 42,582,600 population is: $(12,559,800 \times 100) / 45,582,600 = 27\%$

Group 2. Individuals aged 30 – 39: this group consists of 8,460,400 individuals (Office for national statistics, 2016). Following the same process with group 1, the percentage of this group is 19%

Group 3. Individuals aged 40 – 49: the total number of individuals in this group is 8,930,100 (Office for national statistics, 2016), and thus forms 20% of the population.

Group 4. Individuals aged 50 – 59: the size of this group is 8,516,000 (Office for national statistics, 2016) so it makes up around 19% of the UK population.

Group 5. Individuals aged 60 – 69: with 7,116,300 individuals (Office for national statistics, 2016), this group makes up only 15% of the UK population.

Easterby-Smith (2012) argues that in a larger and unidentifiable population size, the larger the sample the lower the likely error in reflecting the entire population's opinion. Saunders (2012) supports this and states that in self-selection sampling, the sample size can be as large as is practicable, and the researcher has more judgement over the size achieved (Oppenheim, 2000). Hence, based on relevant studies in the same area (e.g. He and Lai, 2014; Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Creyer, 1997; Sen *et al.*, 2006; Dawar and Lei, 2009; Klein and Dawar, 2004), and with regards to the nature and size of this research, the researcher expects to have a sample size of 100 for each questionnaire, so this is a total sample size of 500.

With regards to the quota groups percentage:

Group 1: 27%, that's a sample size of 135.

Group 2: 19%, that's a sample size of 95.

Group 3: 20%, that's a sample size of 100.

Group 4: 19%, that's a sample size of 95.

Group 5: 15%, that's a sample size of 75.

The process of data collection

In reaching groups 1 and 2, the University of Northampton, where the research was based, was found to be an ideal field from where the data can be efficiently collected with high confidence that the right cases can be reached. This is because for group 1 the most convenient and real representation of this group can be illustrated by undergraduate university and postgraduate students, and group 2 can be represented by researchers, members of staff, and mature PhD students. Regarding groups 3, 4, and 5 the responses were collected from various locations, including members of staff in the University of Northampton, the general public, family members and friends.

Requirement of participants followed a snowballing approach. An invitation letter was created (Appendix B) and sent to the respondents through email, social media, and direct contact. The letter explained the purpose of the research as well as the criteria of the required sample, a link to the information sheet and the consent form, and a link to the online questionnaires (appendix A). Participants were asked to forward it to whoever meets the criteria to increase the response rate. The consent form had four points with tick-boxes, which all needed to be ticked in order to start the questionnaire:

- I am a British citizen.
- I am 18 years of age or above.
- I have read and understood the information below (*i.e. ethical information, information about the research, and the criteria of the required samples*).
- I agree to participate in this research.

Respondents had to be 18 or over for ethical considerations and to fit within the population criteria. Once the respondents submitted their response to the consent form, they were then redirected to start filling the online questionnaire through Bristol Online Survey (BOS).

To conduct the quota sampling, a cap for maximum number of responses was placed on each online questionnaire to monitor responses from different age groups and to assure accurate reflection on the proposed quota. The first attempt of data collection managed to generate the aimed 500 responses, but the age groups was short on the proposed quota. Therefore, another round of data collection took place in the same approach of requirement and monitor until all required age groups achieved saturation. As a result, the final response number increased from 500 to 660 responses, the process of analysis is further explained under section (4.2.1).

3.4.3 The pilot study

The pilot study is an important step to ensure the validity and the reliability of the data (Bryman, 2012). It helps to test the questions and assess their clarity and language before the start of the main data collection process (Zikmund, 2003). This would help to minimise the possibility of respondents having problems in understanding and answering the questions, as well as any difficulties in the data analysis process (Easterby *et al.*, 2012). Results from the pilot study were used to correct any mistakes in the questions and/or the questionnaire structure and avoid potential problems in the main study (Bryman, 2012).

The pilot study was conducted for this research on final year undergraduate students at the University of Northampton with the following objectives:

1. To test the effectiveness of Zara as the chosen brand of this research.
2. To identify and test any other possible brands that might better serve the purpose of this research as an alternative to Zara.
3. To assess the validity and the reliability of the questionnaires' measurements.
4. To assess the manipulation effectiveness of the situational scenarios.

The reason for choosing this group of respondents is that it matches the actual samples criteria and falls in the largest quota group (group 1).

Objective 1 and objective 2 aimed to test the efficiency of Zara and identify/disadvantage other possible alternatives. Objective 3 and 4, aimed to test the designed questionnaires and assess the validity and reliability of the measurements and the scenarios. Therefore, the pilot study was conducted in three phases, phase one achieved objectives 1 and 2, phase 2 and 3 achieved objectives 3 and 4.

Pilot study – Phase one

The process included the discussion of two topics; (i) - General fashion shopping behaviour and brands preference, awareness, and loyalty, and (ii) - Specific behaviour towards Zara; brand identification, attachments, perceived benefits, and crisis associations, in addition to preference, awareness, and loyalty (table 3.4). As the aim was to form a conceptualisation around a specific topic, it was logical to adopt a qualitative data collection process (Bryman 2012). In particular, focus group strategy, as this strategy is helpful to formulate an understanding of a

particular issue -in this case the fashion shopping behaviour- and investigate it in more depth -assess the brand awareness of that particular industry including Zara the proposed brand for this research (Barbour 2008, Easterby, Thorpe and Jackson 2012). Furthermore, focus group is an effective and popular qualitative strategy at the exploratory stage of any research (Bryman 2012). This is because the focus group helps in generating ideas and identifying areas around the main topic(s) that might not be in the researcher considerations and in a relatively short time compared to other qualitative strategies (Barbour 2008, Denzin 2005). The sample size of the focus group was five, and the researcher developed a set of questions to the two topics that were discussed in the focus group (table 3.4).

Table 3. 4. Focus group discussion topics. *Source: created by the author.*

Topic (i): General fashion shopping behaviour
How often do you shop for fashion (e.g. clothes, shoes, accessories)?
Why do you shop for fashion? (i.e. do you only shop when there's a need for that such as heavy clothes for winter)?
Name a maximum of 5 brands starting from the most favourable to you to the least favourable (each participant)
Why do you like these brands in particular?
Can you tell me of any crises or scandals you know that are related to specific brands in the fashion industry? Can you also name the involved brand(s) (if they haven't done so already)
Topic (ii): Specific Zara brand perception
How often do you shop at Zara?
Why do you shop at Zara? (if they do so)
What is the first thing that jumps into your mind when I mention Zara?
How would you describe your relationship with Zara?
what do you think of Zara's products and service quality?
How do you feel when you shop at Zara?
How does using Zara's products make you feel?
Are you aware of any crises scandals associated with Zara?

Pilot study – Phase two

This phase continued through the same focused group of phase one. The aim was to examine the respondents' perception of the questionnaires and assess their clarity and language before the start of the main data collection process. It was expected that this would aid to minimise the possibility of respondents having problems in understanding and answering the questions, as well as any difficulties in the data analysis process (Easterby *et al.* 2012).

The design of this phase followed a cognitive pretesting approach developed by Hilton (2015) that aimed to help avoid any potential errors in questionnaire items. Based on relevant literature (e.g. Willis 2005, Buers *et al.* 2014, Collins 2003, Foddy 1994), Hilton (2015) created a protocol for pretesting questionnaires that required the researcher to sit with the respondents during the filling of the questionnaire, and observe their reaction and views on the questions. The researcher might encourage them to think out loud while filling in. Foddy (1994) previously conceptualised this stage as simply "think-out-loud". The researcher followed this method and introduced probe questions to check that the respondents managed to understand and interpret the questions as was intended. Hilton (2015) argued that asking probe questions will further stimulate the "think-out-loud" and the researcher can encourage feedback through direct questions. The probe questions used are summarised in table (3.5).

Table 3. 5. Probe questions for pretesting questionnaires

General probe questions	Specific probe questions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - How did you arrive to that answer? - Was that easy or difficult to answer? - I noticed that you hesitated, tell me what you were thinking? - How easy or difficult was it to choose an answer? Why was that? - Would you please repeat this question in your own words? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - What does brand quality mean to you? - Why would brands make us feel acceptable in the society? - How would you define self-acceptance? And how can brand help achieve this? - How can brand be ethical/ legal/ philanthropic/ economic? What is your definition of each one of these?

Pilot study – Phase three

The third and final phase of the pilot consisted of pretesting the experiment by collecting responses on the questionnaire after correcting any issues raised in the previous two phases (pilot results in the next section). Copies of the questionnaires were handed to the respondents who were from the same sample frame of the previous two phases in addition to colleagues, workers and academics of the University of Northampton. A total of 125 questionnaires collected with 25 responses for each group, economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic, and control.

Results from the pilot study

The pilot achieved its objectives; Zara was identified as a suitable brand to use in the research due to the brand familiarity and its low CSR and low crisis profile (examples of responses in table 3.6). Phase one indicated that Zara had a strong functional and symbolic image. Zara was mostly mentioned with favourable

perception. The respondents also were not able to recall a crisis or a clear CSR involvement of this brand.

Phase two and three of the pilot indicated the impact of the scenarios and the manipulation process (se appendix D for SPSS analysis on the pilot). Brand image measurements were also found to be reliable. The pilot further helped to identify and correct some typing mistakes in the questionnaires improving internal validity and reliability of the data collection.

Table 3. 6. examples from the focus group regarding Zara brand.

Issue	Script example
Efficiency of choosing Zara	<p>“Zara defiantly is the top”</p> <p>“I think like actually Zara”</p> <p>“...actually I like Zara the most”</p> <p>“I like Zara the most”</p> <p>“I would always just go for Zara”</p>
Functional benefits of Zara	<p>“..Zara because the quality is a little bit better”</p> <p>“I’m only like 5ft height, and ZARA they do really good like petite staff..”</p> <p>“...they have nice coats”</p>
Symbolic benefits of Zara	<p>“with ZARA’s I feel that they don’t go out of fashion”</p> <p>“...it suits our generation, they have like urban feel to it”</p>
Alternative brands	<p>“...M&S, ASOS, NEXT”</p> <p>“....Topshop ... but like Zara and H&M”</p> <p>“...Zara, ASOS, and then H&M”</p> <p>“Topshop and H&M”</p>

3.4.4 Data analysis

The main purpose for collecting the data was to examine changes of brand image in different situations. As discussed earlier, five groups of questionnaires were designed to measure the change of brand image (the dependent variable) after the two types of crisis, performance-related and values-related (independent variable), in five different situations (one group for each CSR type and one for no CSR).

The analysis of the data took two stages:

Stage one was concerned with testing the first two hypotheses (H1) and (H2) and the sub-hypothesis (H1a, H1b, H2a, and H2b) by examining the effect of each crisis on the two brand benefits groups. This was achieved based on the questionnaire that had no CSR scenarios in order to ensure the data are concentrated around crisis only and not contaminated with CSR perception. The respondents were from the same group to both crisis types; however, the two crises were considered in two separate incidents – not one after another, the change in each benefit type was measured against the two crises. Initially, a paired-samples t-test was proposed to run the analysis for the two benefits. Paired-samples t-test, according to Field (2018), is used to determine whether there is any significant difference between two groups (two paired observations, like before and after) for the same participants (Field, 2018). However, the normality test showed the data are not normally distributed. Therefore, a non-parametric test was used instead, specifically the Wilcoxon signed-rank test that is an equivalent to paired-samples t-test (Sheskin, 2003).

Through the Wilcoxon test, functional/experiential benefits were measured against two situations: before crisis vs. after a performance-related crisis, and then before crisis vs. after a values-related crisis. Similarly, symbolic benefits were also measured before crisis vs. after a values-related crisis and then after performance-related crisis. The results of the two groups helped to determine the direct effect of each crisis type on brand benefits and in testing the first two hypotheses and the sub-hypotheses.

The same approach was also followed in analysing each CSR item, which helped to investigate the impact of every CSR type on each brand benefit after each crisis.

The second stage of the data analysis aimed to test the other eight hypotheses by providing details about the role of CSR in the two crisis situations. This was done by measuring and comparing changes of brand image after every crisis type across the five questionnaires. A suitable test to run a comparison across five independent groups is the One-way ANOVA test (Field, 2018). However, the test of normality indicated that the data were not normally distributed. Therefore, the Kruskal-Wallis H test was instead applied which is the non-parametric equivalent to the One-way ANOVA (Vargha and Delaney, 1998).

3.4.4.1 Validity and reliability

It is crucial for any research to check for reliability and validity of the methods before conducting the main study (Bryman, 2012). This is to ensure that the data gathered will serve to provide accurate and efficient results, and to detect any errors or bias in the data collection process (Zikmund, 2003).

Reliability refers to the consistency of the data (Bryman, 2012). Saunders (2012) argues that reliability reflects the extent to which the chosen data collection technique will ensure consistent findings. Vaus (2002) says that the aim of reliability is to increase the confidence in the research findings.

Validity, on the other hand, refers to the extent to which the chosen data collection method can measure what it was designed to measure, and that the findings are really what they appear to be about (Bryman, 2012).

In questionnaire techniques, it has been argued that the questionnaire must be reliable to be valid, and an extensive reliability test must be considered, especially if the questionnaire technique is self-administered (Oppenheim, 2000). This is because the respondents might interpret some questions in one way when the researcher actually meant something else (Saunders, 2012). Various methods to check for reliability have been developed. For instance, there is the test-retest method, alternative form methods, panel of judges method, and internal consistency method (Easterby *et al.*, 2012; Bryman, 2012). Vaus (2002) argued that there's no one best way to check for reliability as every research is different, and it depends on the nature of the research.

To check for internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha measurement was applied (Kline, 2015; Bland and Altman, 1997). Cronbach's alpha is a common measurement in questionnaires with Likert scale questions as it determines the reliability of each scale in that questionnaire (Vaus, 2002). This helped to ensure the consistency of data across all of the questions and the subgroup of questions in each questionnaire, to test the reliability of the scales that measured brand

benefits, and to test the manipulation of the scenarios (Bland and Altman, 1997; Kline, 2015; Weber, 1992).

Besides internal consistency, there were some other issues that could have affected the reliability and validity in this research. First, as the survey design consisted of five different types of questionnaires, one for every CSR category, and a control with no CSR, each respondent was expected to only fill out one questionnaire, and so his/her opinion will be taken around one case only. To deal with this issue the researcher aimed for a high number of questionnaire responses to get a wide range of responses across the population. A sample size of 500 was proposed for this research, but a total of 660 responses were collected until the quota groups were satisfied.

Another issue expected was that some respondents might be more interested in CSR, which might affect the validity and reliability of their answers, as they might ignore the other factors and scenarios in the questionnaires and focus purely on the CSR case. To address this issue, the researcher adopted measurements to examine the manipulation efficiency of each scenario. As discussed earlier, for every CSR scenario, three Likert scale items were adopted to test the manipulation of CSR, and one Likert scale item was adopted for each of the two crisis scenarios.

In addition to that, the study was piloted, and all measurements and manipulations were tested prior to the start of the main data collection process.

3.5 Limitations of the research

One of the objectives of this research was to investigate how different CSR activities impact the brand image in different types of crisis situations. Although this is novel in the literature and would contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of CSR, it resulted in the research having a large number of variables, and it was necessary to investigate the relationship between these variables. The researcher had to examine 20 different situations: (values-related crisis, and performance-related crisis) X (functional/experiential benefits, and symbolic benefits) X (legal CSR, ethical CSR, economic CSR, philanthropic CSR and no CSR). This limited the researcher's flexibility to investigate each situation in more detail and to go beyond the structured questions.

The hypotheses development of this research structured the approach of the data collection and analysis, testing these hypotheses helped to achieve the research objectives, however, having formulated Hypotheses H5, H6, H9 and 10 as null hypotheses may indicate a limitation to the results. These null hypotheses propose a no significant difference to the relationship between variables. The test relies on the probability of a statistically significant result, precisely, the *P*-value which critics argue that it's insufficient to reflect on the differences between groups in an experimental design. The statistically significant findings of null hypotheses may therefore be misleading due to the simplicity of the comparison between the groups (Morrison and Henkel, 2006). However, the researcher has acknowledged this, and since this research is not concerned with investigating the reasoning behind the null probability and/or the exact estimation of level of differences, the

decision on the null hypotheses is based merely on whether there is or there is no significant difference between groups. To avoid the potential error of wrongly not rejecting the null hypotheses, a large sample is considered with this research. The large sample would generate adequate data for the statistic and so help to minimise the risk of absurd decision (Neckerson 2000).

Another limitation was placed by the design of the questionnaire and the presentation order of the two crisis scenarios. Researchers argue that the quality of data acquired through self-report questionnaires are at risk of being inaccurate (Walston *et al.*, 2006). This is because the efficiency of responses depends entirely on the respondents' capacity and willingness to provide reliable answers. Respondents may feel unmotivated, fatigued, or bored when filling in the questionnaire and become more likely to give meaningless or even random responses (Oppenheim, 2000; Burchell and Marsh, 1992). This is particularly problematic when scenarios are presented, respondents may feel less interested to read the full scenario which will affect their understanding and assessment of the case introduced to them, especially when two or more scenarios are used (Atzmüller and Steiner, 2010; Kim and Jang, 2014).

In this research, two crisis scenarios were used in each questionnaire, the researcher was aware that the presentation order of these scenarios may have an impact on the quality of responses that the view on the first scenario may be referred to when reading the subsequent scenario (Atzmüller and Steiner, 2010). To address these issues, the questionnaire design was kept short and specific, according to Oppenheim (2000), short questionnaires have stronger impact on the

respondents' engagement with the questions and have a higher rate of data accuracy. The length for completing the questionnaire was observed in the pilot study and the efficiency of the respondents' engagement was examined (see section 3.4.3). In addition to the questions, the scenarios adopted were kept brief and specific, as discussed in section (3.4.2.4) the scenarios were adopted from key literature, the two scenarios presented with simple language and realistic stories to ensure clarity, which was also supported by the pilot study of this research. Furthermore, manipulation checks were added after each crisis scenario to test the understanding of each scenario (see section 3.4.3).

In order to minimise the impact that may result from the presentation order of the two crisis scenarios, the respondents were informed before the start of the questionnaire that two crisis scenarios will be presented to them and that they need to consider these two scenarios in isolation of each other and assume that each crisis is a separate incident. The respondents were also reminded of this before the start of the crisis section (see appendix A). Another method followed to overcome this challenge was to focus on optimising the visual layout of the questionnaire by placing each crisis scenario and its measurements on a different page, this helped to reduce the potential conflict between the two scenarios as indicated by the pilot study observation.

Another limitation of the research was emerged by the chosen brand (Zara). Although the researcher was very careful in choosing a brand that fitted the situation of "No CSR - No crisis" and allowed the manipulation of the scenarios, it had limited the research to one industry (apparel) and also one brand. However,

CSR is not a new concept in the literature; numerous studies and researches have been conducted on different industries, from banking (e.g. Pérez and Rodríguez, 2014; Calabrese *et al.*, 2013; Poolthong and Mandhachitara, 2009; Fatma *et al.*, 2015) and cosmetics (e.g. Chun, 2016; He and Lai, 2014) to car and automobile industries (e.g. Loureiro *et al.*, 2012; Wang and Berens, 2015) and many others. Therefore, this research is expected to contribute to the variety of areas that consider CSR practices, and add a new insight to the big picture of CSR in the business world. Moreover, the measurements that the researcher adopted to investigate CSR and brand crises were used in other industries. The data that these measurements allowed to obtain can be generalised, as they are designed to investigate customers' perception of general incidents, which can be implemented in other areas.

The large population had also presented a limitation to the sampling of this research. It has been suggested that the perception of CSR is not related to age or education level (Pérez and Rodríguez, 2014), and although gender differences show slight variance between male and female, i.e. females were found to be slightly more interested in CSR activities than males, this difference is not significant (Kahreh *et al.*, 2014) and could not be considered as a major factor in determining customers' perception of CSR (Pérez and Rodríguez, 2014).

3.6 Ethical considerations

The research was approved by the University of Northampton's Research Ethics Committee. The researcher followed the University of Northampton ethics code and procedures in all steps of the research. Even though the researcher was not

interested in collecting any personal details of the respondents, such as name, address, or contact details, the researcher ensured and will continue to ensure ethical considerations and protection of confidentiality and anonymity of the data and respondents (see appendix A). The researcher also ensured that the respondents fully understood the purpose of the questionnaire and the research and were provided with a comprehensive description of the research. The questionnaires were posted online through the “Bristol Online Survey” website along with an invitation letter and a consent form. The respondents were provided with the researcher’s details. They had the right to contact the researcher regarding any concerns and/or any interests in the research outcomes and results. The data collected will be kept secure on a university computer which only the researcher has access to and will not be revealed beyond the supervisory team.

3.7 Conclusion

The methodology chapter provided a comprehensive overview of the philosophy and approach of the research, supported by the relevant methodological theories and literature. It presented the researcher’s ontological philosophical stance that framed the selected paradigm of positivism, which was also decided upon the knowledge required and the nature of the research.

The choice of quantitative methods was also discussed and justified. The researcher believed that the best type to achieve the research objectives is through quantitative design. This design helped to test the hypotheses. Data in the format of numbers and statistics provided a strong and clear indication of the differences between variables in different situations.

Within quantitative methods, a survey strategy represented by questionnaire technique was the most suitable technique to serve the research purpose. The design of techniques and methods was also discussed. Five questionnaires were designed and structured to capture the change of brand image after crises across all four CSR types and in the case of no CSR.

In terms of sampling, quota sampling was argued to be the most appropriate for this study to collect data with higher reliability. This is because it helps to provide a sample that mirrors the variance of the population. Hence, five quota groups were created based on age with a sample size of 500 to reflect on the population.

The process of data analysis was also explained and justified. Data statistical analysis techniques were also presented in this chapter, and Wilcoxon and Kruskal-Wallis' analysis were justified through their relevance and ability to identify significant differences between variables across groups.

The outcome of this methodological and strategically structured data collection process enabled the researcher to explain the impact of each CSR category on brand image. It was found to be effective and useful to test the hypotheses of this research and to investigate whether any CSR type would be helpful to protect brand image in different crisis situations or whether it would intensify the issue.

Chapter 4: Research Analysis and Findings

4.1 Chapter introduction

The data for the main study were collected over a period of eight months, starting from 1st of March 2017 to 30th of October 2017. This was mainly to ensure a wider variety of respondents was achieved and to reflect accurately on the cluster sampling targets. A total of 660 online questionnaire were collected from respondents using five different types of questionnaires of which one was a control that did not reveal the CSR scenarios and each questionnaire of the other four focused on each category of CSR. The data responses of all 660 questionnaires were entered in SPSS as the design of the online questionnaires and the filter questions helped to ensure all responses were fit and relevant.

In this chapter, the analysis of the data collected will be explained and presented. The chapter is divided into two sections: section one is descriptive statistics in which the frequency of responses will be analysed and presented, and the impact of the scenarios' manipulation will be checked. The second section consists of the analysis of the five questionnaires and testing of hypotheses through a comparative study between the five questionnaire types.

4.2 Descriptive analysis

4.2.1 Frequency of age groups

All 660 responses were collected from the sampling framework of this study. The age groups of the respondents are summarised in table 4.1.

Table 4. 1. Age group

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18 to 29	224	33.9	33.9
	30 to 39	123	18.6	52.5
	40 to 49	120	18.2	70.7
	50 to 59	106	16.1	86.8
	60 to 69	79	11.9	98.8
	70 or above	8	1.2	100.0
	Total	660	100.0	

The proposed sample size of this study was 500 as discussed earlier (see section 4.2.6.3. *Quota and sample size*) distributed between five cluster groups:

Group 1. Individuals aged 18 – 29: 135 responses required

Group 2. Individuals aged 30 – 39: 95 responses required

Group 3. Individuals aged 40 – 49: 100 responses required

Group 4. Individuals aged 50 – 59: 95 responses required

Group 5. Individuals aged 60 – 69: 75 responses required

The first attempt of data collection managed to generate the aimed 500 responses, but the total number of responses was raised to 660 until all age groups achieved saturation (see table 4.2). In addition to the aimed age groups, eight responses were from individuals aged 70 or above, and these responses were not excluded from the analysis because, as discussed earlier under *Population Overview and*

Research Sampling Frame, even though the research did not target people aged below 18, or above 70, it will only filter out responses of individuals aged below 18.

Table 4. 2. Numbers of responses for each quota proposed vs. achieved.

	Proposed	Achieved
Group 1. 18 – 29	135	224
Group 2. 30 – 39	95	123
Group 3. 40 – 49	100	120
Group 4. 50 – 59	95	106
Group 5. 60 – 69	75	79
TOTAL	500	652

As table 4.2 indicates, the responses achieved, and exceeded, the minimum number required from each group. This is in fact in favour of the quality of the data collection as the population of this research is large. Easterby-Smith (2012) argues that in larger and unidentifiable population sizes, the larger the sample the lower the likely error in reflecting the entire population’s opinion. Saunders (2012) supports this and states that in self-selection sampling, the sample size can be as large as is practicable, and the researcher has more judgement over the size achieved (Oppenheim, 2000).

The fixed number of responses was achieved by setting a cap on the number of responses for each questionnaire in the online survey service (BOS). The number was raised each time the researcher noticed a need for more responses to achieve the quota numbers for each questionnaire until it reached 132 each. The final

group to be covered was group 5 (60 to 69), and this explains why the responses from this group (69) are the closest to the proposed number (68) (table 4.2).

In summary, the data collected have shown a wide variety of age groups with a reasonable number of responses, which ensured that a cross-sectional view of the population has been reflected. Furthermore, looking at the distribution between all five questionnaires (figure 4.1), the number of responses from each age group is generally around the same range and the required quota numbers have been achieved.

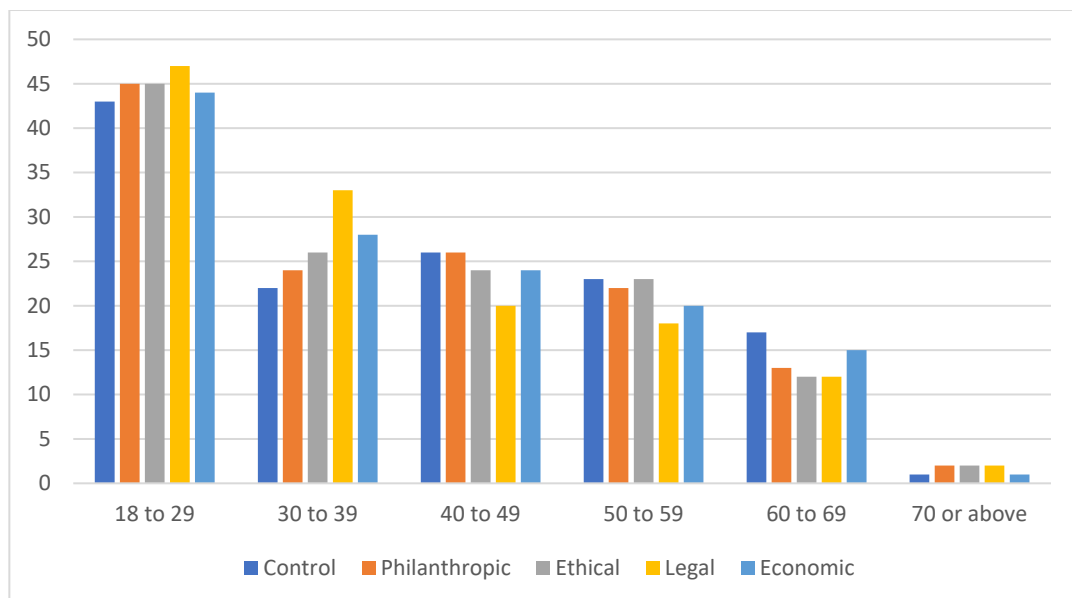


Figure 4. 1.Age groups per questionnaire type

4.2.2 Frequency of shopping at Zara

Respondents were asked to indicate how often they shop at Zara at the start of each questionnaire (after filter questions). This was asked to estimate their frequency of shopping with that brand. Table 4.3 illustrates the distribution of responses between the options given.

Table 4. 3. Frequency of shopping at Zara

		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Once a month	140	21.2	21.2
	Once every three months	386	58.5	79.7
	Once a year	110	16.7	96.4
	Never	24	3.6	100.0
	Total	660	100.0	

From the table (4.3) it can be noticed that out of the 660 responses, 58.5% of the respondents shop at Zara once every three months, followed by 21.2% who indicated that they shop at Zara at least once a month. This group clearly has a high loyalty level to the brand. This is followed by 16.7% responses who stated that they shop at Zara once a year, and their loyalty can be considered as less compared to the previous two groups. Finally, 3.6% of the respondents indicated that they never shop at Zara. Hence, the responses show a variety of frequency and the data collection managed to grasp the views of different shopping behaviour towards the chosen brand and provide a mixture of different loyalty levels that are necessary to reflect on the wider populations' opinion.

4.2.3 Scenarios manipulation

4.2.3.1 CSR scenarios

Out of the five questionnaires, four contained CSR activities and one did not show any CSR involvement of the brand to the respondents, which works as a control group. Each of the CSR questionnaires presented a CSR type: philanthropic, ethical,

legal and economic CSR. As discussed in the methodology chapter, one scenario for every CSR type was included along with three questions to check the effectiveness of these scenarios and to ensure that they work as designed. For legal and ethical CSR, the scenarios were adopted from Mohr and Webb (2005), while philanthropic and economic CSR scenarios were adopted from Salmones *et al.* (2005). The three scenario measurements took the format of a 5-point Likert scale and are summarised in table 4.4.

Table 4. 4. CSR scenario measurements

	Philanthropic	Ethical	Legal	Economic
CSR scenario measurement 1	This brand actively sponsors or finances social events (sport, music...)	This brand behaves ethically/honestly with its customers	This brand respects the law when carrying out its activities	This brand tries to obtain maximum profit from its activity
CSR scenario measurement 2	This brand directs part of its budget to donations and social work favouring the disadvantaged	This brand is careful to respect and protect our natural environment	The product quality of this brand follows laws and regulations required by government and industry	This brand tries to obtain maximum long-term success
CSR scenario measurement 3	This brand is concerned to improve the general well-being of society	Respecting ethical principles has priority over achieving superior economic performance for this brand	This brand performs in a manner consistent with expectations of the government and the law	This brand always tries to improve its economic performance

Reliability of the measurement items

It has been discussed earlier in this research under section 4.2.8 that this research will consider a test of internal consistency for reliability checks of the measurements of the questionnaires. This is because internal consistency is useful when the questionnaire has multi-item measures to a single sample at a single point of time (Bryman, 2012; Vaus, 2002). It measures the consistency of the data across all of the questionnaire questions, and/or a subgroup of questions from that questionnaire (Easterby *et al.*, 2012). Internal consistency can be tested through Cronbach's alpha (Kline, 2015; Bland and Altman, 1997), which is a common measurement for questionnaires with Likert scale questions, as it determines the reliability of each scale in that questionnaire (Vaus, 2002). Cronbach's alpha can also be useful to test the manipulation of the scenarios (Bland and Altman, 1997; Kline, 2015; Weber, 1992).

Table 4. 5. Reliability test of CSR scenario measurements

Group	Cronbach's alpha	No. of Items
Philanthropic	.926	3
Ethical	.915	3
Legal	.901	3
Economic	.898	3

According to Vaus (2002), the closest the value of Cronbach's alpha is to 1, the more reliable the question is. Ideally, Cronbach's alpha should be >0.7 in order for the measurement to be considered reliable. From table 4.6 we can see that the

Cronbach's alpha value for all four scenarios' measurements was above 0.7 and therefore the measurements can be considered reliable.

Responses to the CSR scenarios show that a considerable level of impact occurred after the scenarios were presented. This was clear in the high value of the mean rank of the responses to each measurement item as illustrated in figure 4.2. The high value of the means indicates that most respondents interpreted the scenarios as intended.

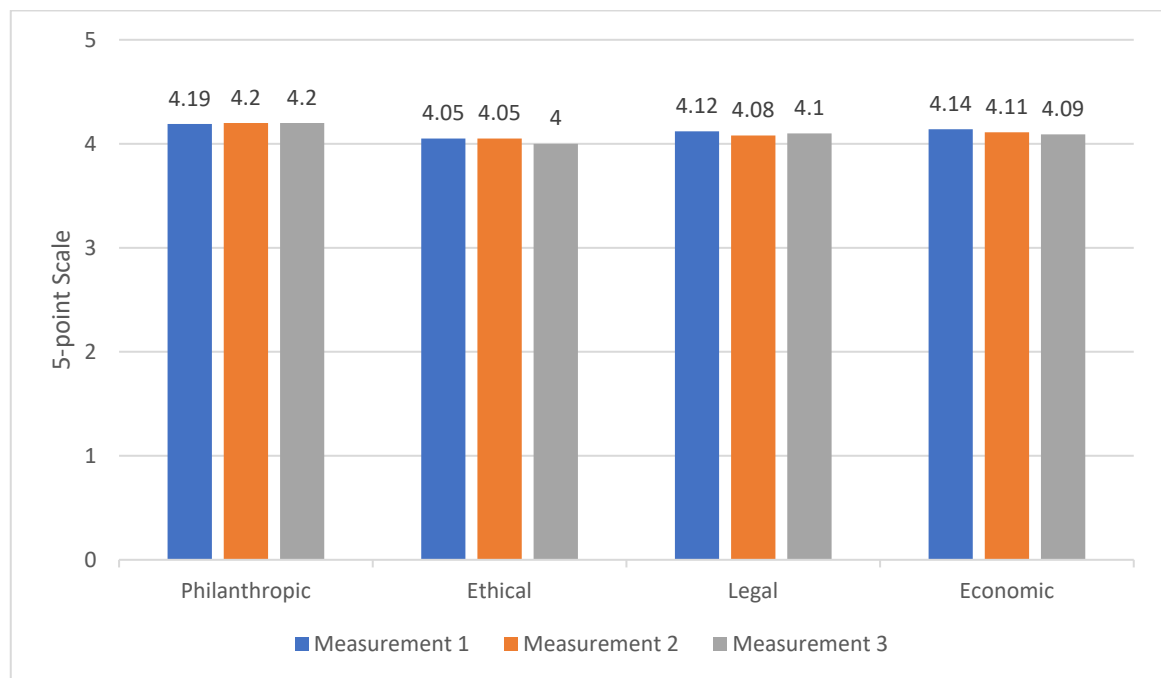


Figure 4. 2.Means of CSR measurement per CSR type.

4.2.3.2 Crises scenarios

Two scenarios of a brand crisis hitting Zara were presented to the respondents: a performance-related crisis scenario and a values-related crisis scenario. The manipulation check of the two crisis scenarios was carried out by examining

whether the scenarios had a significant impact on the brand image within the control group to avoid the CSR scenario impact. This was done by running an ANOVA test on SPSS to see whether brand image has changed after each scenario (Table 4.6).

Table 4. 6 Repeated-measures ANOVA analysis – the effect of crisis scenarios.

Brand Image		Mean Difference	Sig.	F-statistic	Degree of Freedom
Before a crisis Mean value 3.9937	After a Performance-related crisis Mean value 2.8030	1.1907	.000	65.03	4
	After a Values-related crisis Mean value 2.4356	1.5581	.000	287.78	4

The analysis shows that the manipulation was successful. First, there is a significant difference between brand image before a crisis and brand image after a performance-related crisis ($P = .000 < .05$). Similarly, there is also a significant difference between brand image before a crisis and after the values-related scenario ($P = .000 < .05$). Furthermore, by examining the difference of mean values, we can conclude that both crisis scenarios had a negative impact on the brand image, and this will be investigated further in this chapter.

The two scenarios, along with a single item of manipulation measurement for each scenario, were adopted from Dutta and Pullig (2011) and are summarised in table 4.7.

Table 4. 7. Crisis scenarios measurements.

Crisis type	Measurement
Performance-related	The incident is related to the quality of the company's products
Values-related	The incident is related to the values of the company

The responses to the items show that most respondents were able to link the incident with the relevant type of crisis (figure 4.3). For a performance-related crisis scenario, 98.2% agreed that the incident is related to the quality of the company's products, and 99.1% agreed that the second scenario is related to the values of the company. These high percentages show that the scenarios were perceived and understood clearly by the respondents.

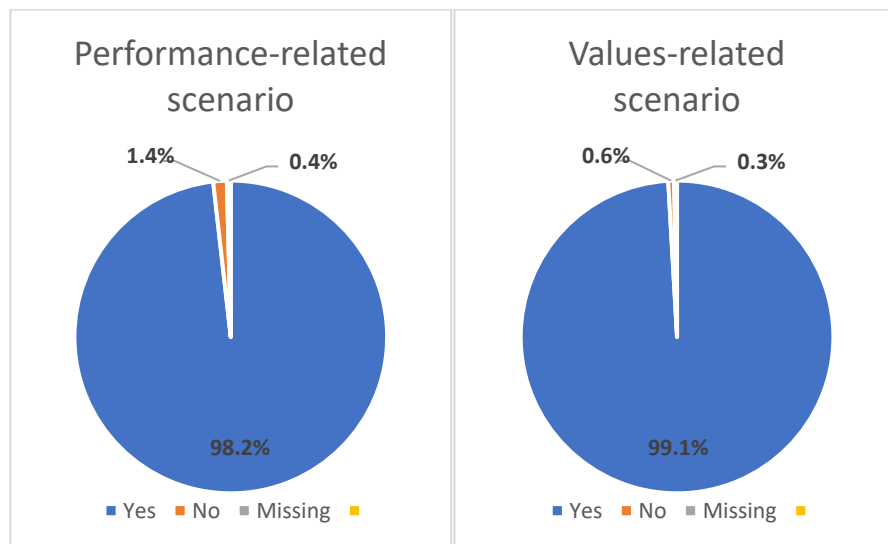


Figure 4. 3. Percentages of responses.

In addition to this single-item scenario check, the change of brand image before and after a crisis scenario was examined in the main analysis by testing the

changes of the brand benefits (Keller, 1993). This would ensure further checks on the manipulation of the two scenarios. However, before we start this analysis, it is important to test the reliability of the measurement items first, and this will be presented in the next section.

4.2.4 Reliability of brand image measurement items

A set of brand benefits measurements has been adopted from Sweeney and Soutar (2001). It consists of three measurement items for each brand benefit type in the format of a Likert scale (table 4.8).

Table 4. 8. Measurement items of brand image.

Brand Benefits	Measurement item
Functional/Experiential	This brand has consistent quality
	The products of this brand are well made
	This brand has an acceptable standard of quality
Symbolic	This brand would help me feel acceptable
	This brand would improve the way I am perceived
	The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people

According to Bryman (2012), Cronbach’s alpha is the preferred method to test the internal consistency of this set. This is because the set consists of a multi-items measurer like the CSR measurement discussed earlier in this chapter. The value of the Cronbach’s alpha was calculated through SPSS and it was 0.95 for the three-item scale that measured functional/experiential benefits and 0.92 for the three-

item scale that measured symbolic benefit. Hence, we can conclude that the measurement set of brand image is reliability as Cronbach's alpha is above 0.7.

4.3 Test of hypotheses

In this section of the chapter, the data collected will be analysed and compared as proposed to test the hypotheses.

First, an estimation of the responses to brand image measurements of each individual questionnaire was needed. This was followed by a comparative test between three points: before crisis, after performance-related crisis and after values-related crisis. This was needed to understand the impact of each crisis type on brand benefits with and without CSR.

Then, brand image was measured across the five different questionnaires, and the results from the CSR questionnaires were compared to the control to estimate the differences of crisis impact on brand image with each CSR type. The chosen method of analysis was dependent on the types of question and the nature of data collection method.

The first step towards the hypotheses test is to examine the change of each benefit type after each crisis. This will be analysed and presented in the following section:

4.3.1 Impact of brand crises on brand benefits

To determine the level of impact of each crisis type on brand benefits, the questionnaires were analysed separately, and a comparative analysis took the form of a "repeated" approach (Field, 2018). This is because each questionnaire had one dependent variable (functional/experiential benefit or symbolic benefit –

one at a time) measured at two occasions from the same group of respondents (before and after performance-related crisis or values-related crisis – one at a time).

A suitable analysis technique for this purpose is the paired-samples t-test (Sheskin, 2003). However, normal distribution of data is a requirement to run this parametric test.

4.3.1.1 Test of normality

Since two brand benefits are being analysed separately as two groups, the normality test for each group is required to inspect the normal distribution of the responses because understanding the distribution type of the data will ensure a more accurate approach when choosing the comparative analysis method.

Running the test through SPSS, the p value of the two groups' distribution is reported at $p = .000$ for both, which is below 0.05, and therefore the data are not normally distributed. This was not surprising since the majority of the respondents were from the target group of Zara. In addition that the vast majority of the respondents had a positive behaviour towards Zara as represented in table 4.9. This finding violates the assumption of a paired-samples t-test. Hence, a non-parametric method of analysis has been considered suitable to conduct this comparative study and test the hypotheses. Specifically, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, which is the non-parametric equivalent to the paired-samples t-test.

Table 4. 9 Age group * Frequency of shopping at Zara

		Frequency of shopping at Zara				Total
		Once a month	Once every three months	Once a year	Never	
Age group	18 to 29	105	114	5	0	224
	30 to 39	26	86	11	0	123
	40 to 49	8	110	2	0	120
	50 to 59	1	57	43	5	106
	60 to 69	0	19	49	11	79
	70 or above	0	0	0	8	8
Total		140	386	110	24	660

4.3.1.2 Impact of brand crises on functional/experiential benefit

Running the Wilcoxon test in SPSS showed that there was a significant difference between functional/experiential before the crisis and after performance-related crisis ($P = .000 < .05$) and also after the values-related crisis, in each of the five groups (with and without CSR) – see table 4.10 below. For every questionnaire, the null hypothesis that the median of differences is the same before and after a crisis is rejected.

Table 4. 10. Wilcoxon signed rank test of the difference of functional/experiential benefit before and after crises.

Null Hypothesis: The median of differences between functional/experiential benefit before and after a performance-related crisis equals 0.							
Group	Sig.	Test statistics (T)	Corresponding (z)	Effect size (r)	Mean	Range	Decision
Control – no CSR	.000	.000	-10.00	-0.38	-1.47	3.00	Reject the null hypothesis
With economic CSR	.000	2.00	-9.87	-0.38	-1.33	3.33	Reject the null hypothesis
With legal CSR	.000	.000	-10.03	-0.4	-1.51	2.00	Reject the null hypothesis
With ethical CSR	.000	.000	-8.61	-0.33	-0.82	3.00	Reject the null hypothesis
With philanthropic CSR	.000	6.50	-8.69	-0.33	-0.83	3.33	Reject the null hypothesis
Null Hypothesis: The median of differences between functional/experiential benefit before and after a values-related crisis equals 0.							
Group	Sig.	Test statistics (T)	Corresponding (z)	Effect size (r)	Mean	Range	Decision
Control – no CSR	.000	.000	-10.52	-0.41	-1.16	2.33	Reject the null hypothesis
With economic CSR	.000	1.00	-10.34	-0.40	-1.00	3.33	Reject the null hypothesis
With legal CSR	.000	1.00	-10.87	-0.42	-1.03	2.67	Reject the null hypothesis
With ethical CSR	.000	.000	-10.44	-0.40	-2.04	4.00	Reject the null hypothesis
With philanthropic CSR	.000	.000	-10.17	-0.39	-2.25	4.00	Reject the null hypothesis

The analysis indicates therefore that both crisis types affect the functional/experiential brand benefit. In order to identify the level of impact, the Wilcoxon test requires reporting medians of differences (summarised in table 4.11).

Table 4. 11.. Median ranks for functional/experiential benefits before and after crises.

Reporting Medians – Functional/Experiential benefits					
	Control	Economic CSR	Legal CSR	Ethical CSR	Philanthropic CSR
Functional/experiential benefits before crisis	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Functional/experiential benefits after a performance -related crisis	2.0	3.0	2.0	3.0	3.0
Functional/experiential benefits after a values -related crisis	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.0	2.0

By examining the results in table 4.11, a drop of ranking after both crises can be noticed across all questionnaires, which indicates that functional/experiential benefit was negatively affected by both types of crisis. It can also be noticed that the ranking of functional/experiential benefits before the crisis was the same (4.0), which might assume a consistency among the responses, though this is not very accurate at this stage and a comparison between the five groups will also not be accurate since the Wilcoxon test is a rank-based “repeated” test that aims to compare two groups (this comparative analysis between the five questionnaires will be completed later in this chapter through a different type of analysis). However, from the control group (no CSR), it is important to report that the rank of functional/experiential benefits dropped from (4.0) to (2.0) after the performance-related crises, and from (4.0) to (3.0) after the values-related crisis, this indicates a

significant impact on functional/experiential benefits from the crises. Hence, the sub-hypotheses (H1a) and (H2a) are supported:

H1a. Performance-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's functional/experiential benefits.

H2a. Values-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's functional/experiential benefits.

4.3.1.3 Impact of brand crises on symbolic benefit

The analysis on the impact of the two brand crises on symbolic benefit followed the same previous procedure. The Wilcoxon test was conducted in SPSS since the data were not normally distributed. The test examined whether there are any significant differences between symbolic benefit before and after cases. The summary of the test is reported in table 4.12.

Table 4. 12. Wilcoxon signed rank test of the difference of symbolic benefit before and after crises.

Null Hypothesis: The median of differences between symbolic benefit before and after a performance-related crisis equals 0.							
Group	Sig.	Test statistics (T)	Corresponding (z)	Effect size (r)	Mean	Range	Decision
Control - no CSR	.000	1.50	-10.51	-0.40	-0.89	2.33	Reject the null hypothesis
With economic CSR	.000	1.50	-10.08	-0.39	-0.80	2.33	Reject the null hypothesis
With legal CSR	.000	.000	-10.83	00.42	-0.92	2.00	Reject the null hypothesis
With ethical CSR	.000	80.50	-6.53	-0.25	-0.43	3.67	Reject the null hypothesis
With philanthropic CSR	.000	14.00	-4.76	-0.18	-0.25	3.33	Reject the null hypothesis
Null Hypothesis: The median of differences between symbolic benefit before and after a values-related crisis equals 0.							
Group	Sig.	Test statistics (T)	Corresponding (z)	Effect size (r)	Mean	Range	Decision
Control – no CSR	.000	.000	-10.95	-0.42	-1.95	2.33	Reject the null hypothesis
With economic CSR	.000	.000	-10.38	-0.40	-1.72	3.00	Reject the null hypothesis
With legal CSR	.000	.000	-10.44	-0.40	-1.78	3.00	Reject the null hypothesis
With ethical CSR	.000	.000	-10.35	-0.40	-2.75	3.33	Reject the null hypothesis
With philanthropic CSR	.000	.000	-10.38	-0.40	-2.96	3.33	Reject the null hypothesis

The results from the Wilcoxon test identified a change in symbolic benefit before and after crises in every questionnaire. There was a significant difference in the rank ($P = .000 < .05$) across all situations – with or without CSR. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected (table 4.12).

In order to identify the differences, reporting medians was required. Table 4.13 provides a summary of the median ranks for symbolic benefit.

Table 4. 13. Median ranks for symbolic benefit before and after crises.

Reporting medians – symbolic benefits					
	Control	Economic CSR	Legal CSR	Ethical CSR	Philanthropic CSR
Symbolic benefits before crisis	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Symbolic benefits after a performance -related crisis	3.0	3.0	3.0	4.0	4.0
Symbolic benefits after a values -related crisis	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	1.0

The differences between the median ranks shows an interesting result regarding ethical and philanthropic CSR. In both cases the symbolic benefit rank was the same after a performance-related crisis (4.0) but was dramatically dropped after the values-related crisis (1.0). The rank of 4.0 after a performance-related crisis required further examination since the Wilcoxon null hypothesis test indicated differences. By running a related samples test view on Wilcoxon for philanthropic, the following can be seen:

- Number of positive differences = 1
- Number of negative differences = 30
- Number of ties (no difference) = 101

By running the same test for ethical, the following can be reported:

- Number of positive differences = 4
- Number of negative differences = 58
- Number of ties (no difference) = 70

It can therefore be suggested that philanthropic CSR and ethical CSR both protected the symbolic benefit from the negative impact of performance-related crisis, but philanthropic was more useful with the vast majority of the responses (101/132) not affected by the negativity of the performance-related crisis.

However, from table 4.13, these CSR types intensified the negative impact of values-related crisis on symbolic benefits.

With regards to the no CSR case, both crises indicate significant negative impact on symbolic benefit with a dropped in rank from (4.0) to (2.0) after values-related crisis and from (4.0) to (3.0) after the performance-related crisis. Therefore, the two sub-hypotheses (H1b) and (H1a) of this research are supported:

H1b. Performance-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's symbolic benefits.

H2b. Values-related crises have a significant negative influence on the perception of brand's Symbolic benefits.

Thus, the impact of the two crises on brand benefits have shown that both crises types have a negative impact on the perception of the perceived benefits, all sub-hypotheses were supported by the research results, it can therefore be conveyed that the first two hypotheses (H1) and (H2) are supported:

H1: Performance-related crises have a negative impact on the brand's perceived benefits.

H2: Values-related crises have a negative impact on the brand's perceived benefits.

4.3.2 Exploring current brand image across the questionnaires

To ensure an accurate approach in monitoring the change of brand image between the different questionnaires, it was first necessary to check whether the current brand image is similar or not. This is because the aim is to compare changes of the dependent variable (brand image) at three points: before a crisis, after a performance-related crisis and after a values-related crisis of five independent groups. One-way ANOVA would be suitable to run this type of analysis (Field, 2018); however, the data need to be normally distributed as an assumption to carry out this test.

4.3.2.1 Normality test for brand image

A test of normality for brand image was necessary to ensure that the analysis follows the appropriate approach. Running the test through SPSS, the p value was found to be = .000, which means the data were not normally distributed and the condition to run One-way ANOVA was not met. Therefore the Kruskal-Wallis test was applied instead.

4.3.2.2 Kruskal-Wallis H test

Non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis H test is the equivalent to One-way ANOVA (Vargha and Delaney, 1998). It is used to compare the current brand image between the independent groups. The test did not show significant differences of current brand image across the five groups $p = 0.102$ (figure 4.4).

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Current BI is the same across categories of Group.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.102	Retain the null hypothesis.

Figure 4. 4. Comparison of current brand image

Even though the current brand image shows consistency across all questionnaires, and the mean value is very similar, it is still not exact (control 3.99, ethical 4, philanthropic 4, legal 3.99 and economic 3.96). Thus, for a more accurate comparison, we had to calculate the difference between current brand image and brand image after the performance-related crisis (Cur_PC), and the difference between current brand image and brand image after the values-related crisis (Cur_VC), in order to examine the impact of each crisis type and compare it to the control group to test the hypotheses.

4.3.3 Impact of the performance-related crisis on the brand image

The Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to run the comparison between the groups and to test the different level of impact of the performance-related crisis with vs. without CSR. It is a non-parametric test that enables the researcher to determine

whether there are any significant differences between three or more independent groups. It is appropriate to determine if there is any difference between three or more time-points (e.g. before, during, and after), if there is any difference between conditions of the different participants' response/performance, and if there is any difference between measurements.

The test was conducted on the difference between current brand image and brand image after the performance-related crisis (Cur_PC) of the five questionnaires.

First, an examination of the significant difference between the five "Cur_PC" was reported and the data showed that the distribution of Cur-PC across the questionnaire was not the same $P = 0.000$ (table 4.14).

Table 4.14. Results report of Kruskal-Wallis Test for Cur_PC.

Null Hypothesis: The distribution of Cur_PC is the same across categories of groups.					
Sig.	Test Statistic (H)	Degree of freedom	Corresponding (z)	Effect size (r)	Decision
.000	206.19	4	-2.25	-0.09	Reject the null hypothesis.

To investigate further, the Kruskal-Wallis test provides a pairwise comparison through the mean rank of each group reported in figure 4.5.

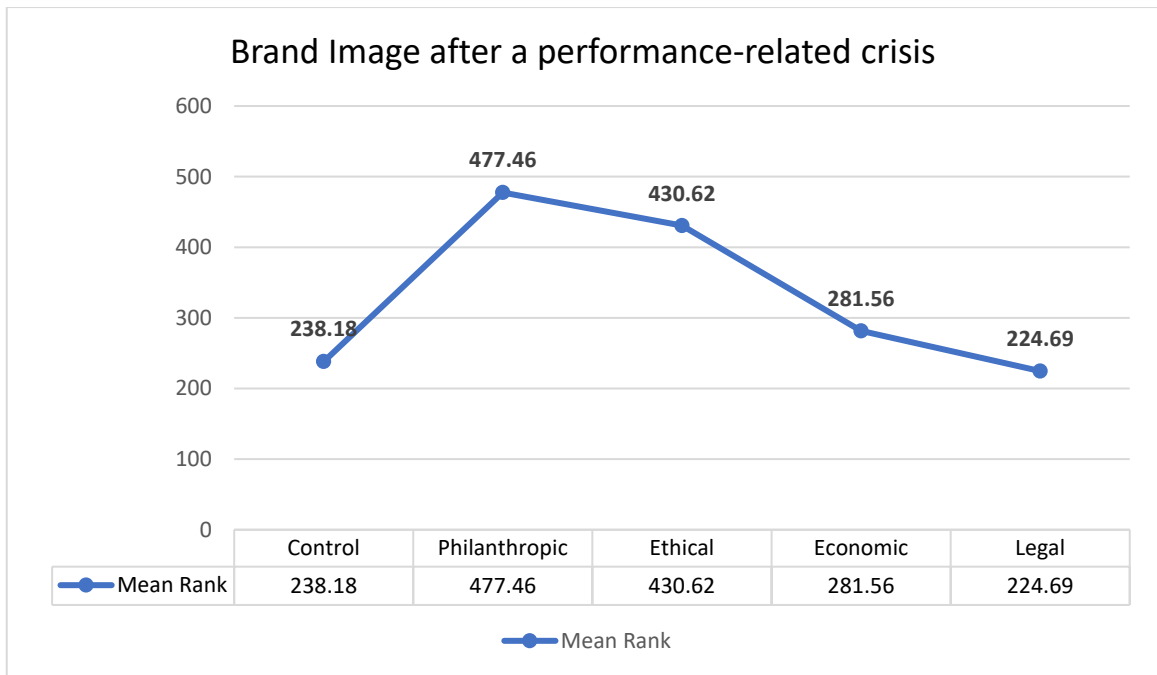


Figure 4. 5. Different mean ranks of Cur_PC

It is clear from the figure above that the performance-related crisis had negatively affected the brand image in all five questionnaires with different strengths. The control recorded a rank of 238.18, and the Kruskal-Wallis test can help in comparing the other groups to the control (table 4.15).

Table 4. 15. Kruskal-Wallis pairwise of Cur_PC

CSR vs. Control	Test Statistic	Adj.Sig.
Philanthropic – control	-239.280	0.000
Ethical – control	-192.439	0.000
Economic – control	-43.379	0.574
Legal – control	13.489	1.000

Through this test, it has been found that the presence of legal and economic CSR has no significant difference to the control “no CSR situation” ($P = 1.000$ and $P = 0.574$ respectively), while the presence of philanthropic and ethical has shown a significant difference to the control group ($P = 0.000$ for both). Hence, performance-related crisis has shown a less negative impact on brand image than in the case of no CSR, and this is clear by examining the mean ranks and the test statistics in the table above. Therefore, the first four hypotheses of this study are supported (table 4.16).

Table 4. 16. Hypotheses test of performance-related crisis condition

Hypothesis	Decision	Evidence
H3: The presence of ethical CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.	Supported	$430.62 > 238.18$
H4: The presence of philanthropic CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.	Supported	$477.46 > 238.18$
H5: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.	Supported	$P > 0.05$
H6: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on the brand image.	Supported	$P > 0.05$

It is important to note that the decision on null hypotheses (H5) and (H6) have been taken based on the significant statistic of P -value (table 4.16). Hence, the exact value is not required to be reported since it wouldn't represent an accurate estimation to the difference.

4.3.4 Impact of the values-related crisis on the brand image

Similarly, the Kruskal-Wallis test was also used to test the different levels of impact of the values-related crisis on brand image with and without CSR. The test was conducted on the difference between current brand image and brand image after the values-related crisis (Cur_VC) of the five questionnaires. To start the test, an examination of the significant difference between all Cur_VC was reported, and the data proved the distribution of Cur_VC across the questionnaire is significantly different $P = 0.000$ (table 4.17).

Table 4.17. Results report of Kruskal-Wallis Test for Cur_VC.

Null Hypothesis: The distribution of Cur_VC is the same across categories of groups.					
Sig.	Test Statistic (H)	Degree of freedom	Corresponding (z)	Effect size (r)	Decision
.000	385.97	4	7.04	0.27	Reject the null hypothesis.

A pairwise test through Kruskal-Wallis provided a clear comparison through the mean rank of each group (figure 4.6).

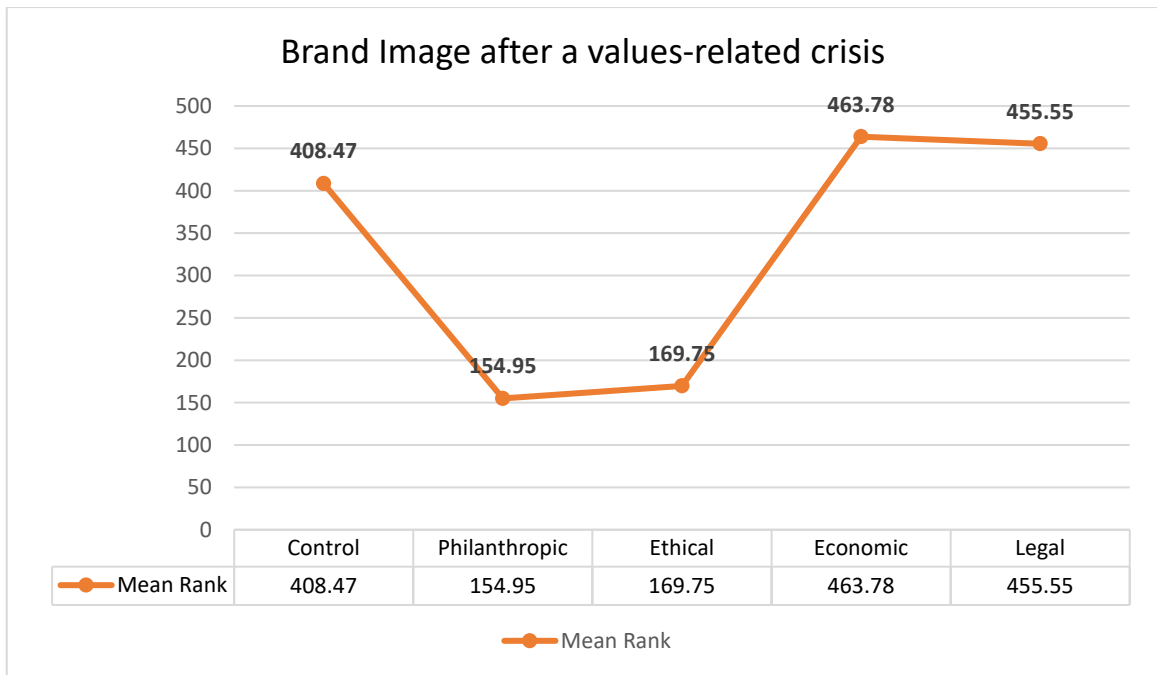


Figure 4. 6. Different mean ranks of Cur_VC

By examining the figure above, we can see that the values-related crisis had a different level of impact on the brand image in all five questionnaires. To compare the different brand images to the control (408.47), a pairwise comparative test through the Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted (table 4.18).

Table 4. 18. Kruskal-Wallis pairwise of Cur_VC

CSR vs. Control	Test Statistic	Adj.Sig.
Philanthropic – control	253.519	0.000
Ethical – control	238.720	0.000
Economic – control	-55.314	0.132
Legal – control	-47.076	0.349

As predicted, the presence of legal and economic CSR showed no significant difference against the control ($P = 0.349$ and $P = 0.123$ respectively) while the presence of philanthropic and ethical indicated a significant difference ($P = 0.000$) for both when compared to the control. The test has revealed that values-related crisis has shown less negative impact on brand image than in the case of no CSR (mean rank comparison from figure 4.6). Hence, the other four hypotheses of this study are supported (table 4.19).

Table 4. 19. Hypotheses test of values-related crisis condition

Hypothesis	Decision	Evidence
H7: The presence of ethical CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.	Supported	$169.75 < 408.47$
H8: The presence of philanthropic CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.	Supported	$154.95 < 408.47$
H9: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.	Supported	$P > 0.05$
H10: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.	Supported	$P > 0.05$

The test of the null hypotheses (H9) and (H10) merely considered the statistically significant P -value to take a decision on the difference between the groups. Same as the same approach of the null hypotheses (H5) and (H6), the exact value is not required to be reported since it wouldn't represent an accurate estimation to the differences.

4.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter presented the results and findings of the analysis conducted and structured towards testing the research hypotheses. When examining the two benefits against crises, it was found that the first two hypotheses and their sub-hypothesis of this research were supported: both, performance-related crisis and values-related crisis had a negative impact on the two brand benefits types; functional/experiential and symbolic benefit.

It was also noted that the philanthropic and ethical CSR both helped to protect the symbolic benefit from the negativity of a performance-related crisis. The opposite effect was observed for both in the case of a values-related crisis.

No statistically significant differences were observed between the control, and legal and economic groups under both types of crisis with the legal group showing the closest mean rank to the control in both cases, while the other two CSR groups –philanthropic and ethical – reflected a statistically significant difference when compared to the control. It was observed that philanthropic CSR and ethical CSR would help to diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image, but they would amplify the issue under a values-related crisis. Among all CSR types, philanthropic CSR was observed to have the highest level of impact in both situations. The final and main conclusion of this chapter is that all eight of the hypotheses of this research were supported. In the next chapter, a further discussion will be presented to interpret the data further, build discussions and highlight the contribution to the literature.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Chapter introduction

Previous studies suggest that a crisis situation will have a negative impact on brand image (e.g. Dutta and Pullig, 2011; Dawar and Lei, 2009; Dawar and Pillutla, 2000). The literature also suggests that for socially responsible brands the impact of brand crises can be moderated by the brand's CSR value. Klein and Dawar (2004) investigated the impact of a performance-related crisis on ethical brand image and found that customers are more willing to excuse a brand with high ethical CSR involvement in the event of a performance-related crisis. However, researchers have not investigated the case of values-related crisis on ethical image. This study tested the work of Klein and Dawar (2004) further and added to the knowledge the case of values-related crisis. Furthermore, the research around CSR acknowledged different types of social responsibilities other than merely ethical. It has been noted in the literature review chapter that different CSR activities have different impacts on brand image. For example, He and Lai (2014) compared the impact of ethical and legal responsibilities and concluded that ethical CSR increases the symbolic benefits while legal CSR increases the functional/experiential benefits. Baden (2016) highlighted a difference in customers' perception of CSR activities and suggesting that business, in today's context, should focus primarily on ethical CSR followed by legal and economic CSR and finally philanthropic CSR to match customers' expectations. In comparison to the literature, this study offers a more comprehensive view of the impact of brand crises on brand image with and without CSR activities. The research considered Carroll's (1991; 2016) CSR pyramid

as a theoretical framework to test the different role of four CSR activities in the case of the two crisis situations (figure 5.1).

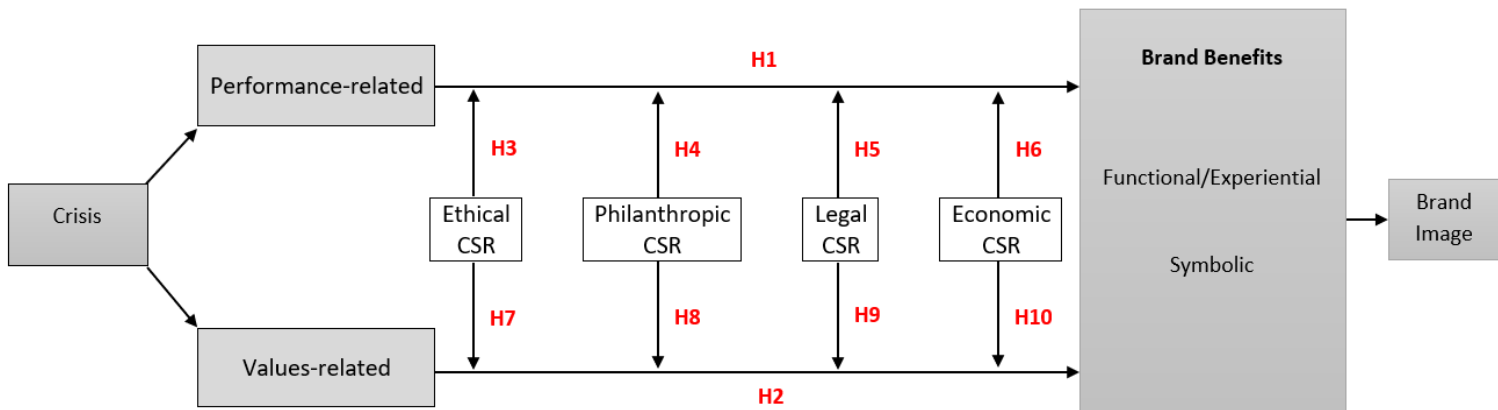


Figure 5. 1Research model. Developed by the author.

In this chapter, the results of the research will be discussed, and the findings will be examined further. The chapter starts by laying out the theoretical dimensions of the results by revisiting the conceptual framework to reflect on the key findings of the study. The impact of brand crises on brand image without CSR will be discussed. Even though this has already been covered by the literature it is still required to ensure that a valid and complete understanding of the relationship between brand crises and brand benefits is developed before contributing the case of values-related crisis to the CSR literature, which will be covered in the second section of this chapter.

The second section of this chapter will discuss the impact of brand crises on brand benefits with the presence of the CSR record. The role of each CSR type on Carroll's (2016) Pyramid will be discussed in the context of each crisis type, which will offer

a significant addition to the current knowledge of the research area though adding the case of values-related crises and four different types of CSR.

The fourth and final section of the chapter will discuss a roadmap that has been developed based on the findings that suggests two general strategies for brands incorporating CSR as a method to enhance their brand perception and image.

5.2 Summary of research findings

The research results provided a strong base to develop the theoretical underpinning of the research. The summary of the findings is illustrated in figure 5.2 below.

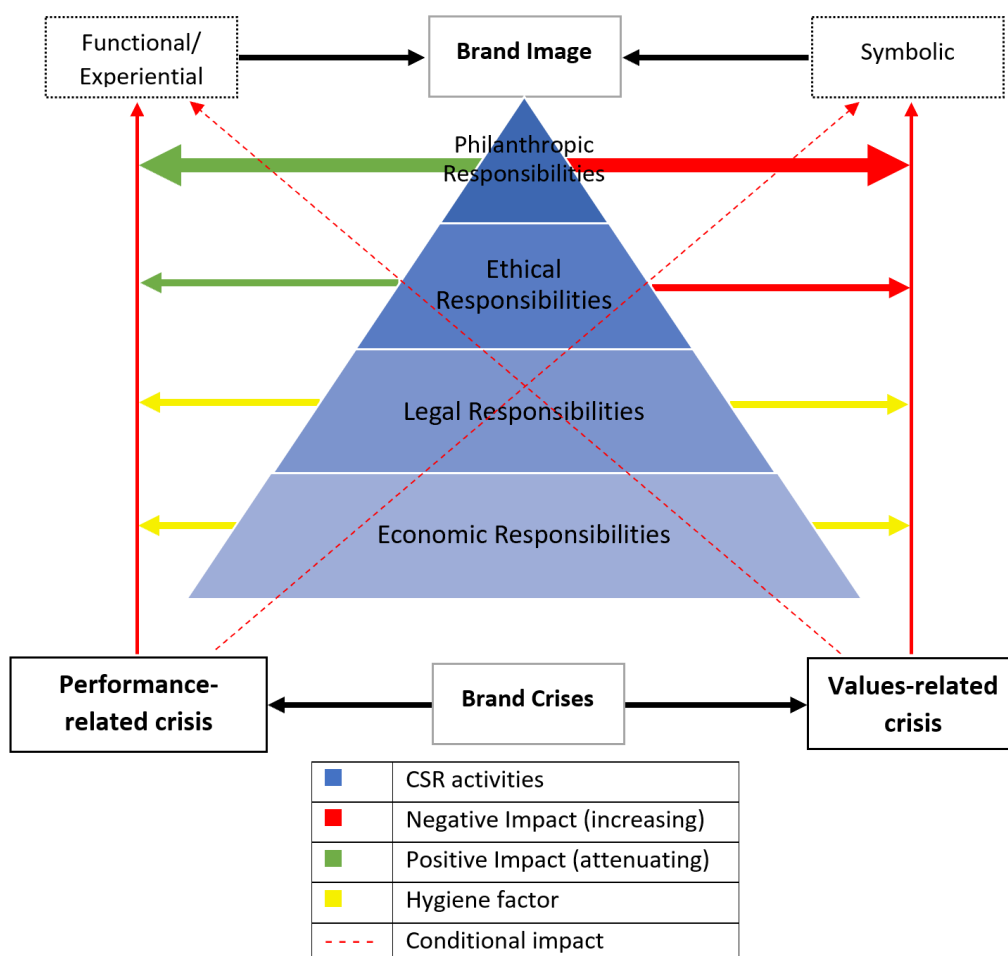


Figure 5. 2. Conceptual framework. Developed by the author.

The findings of this research indicate that the two types of brand crisis will have a negative impact on brand image in a normal situation (no CSR) (Dawar and Lei, 2009; Coombs, 2014). The impact comes particularly as a direct disturbance to the customers' perception of brand benefits. Customers – in the event of a crisis – become unsure about the benefits received from the brand, and as a result, the perception of the perceived value is questioned. The research results further indicate that the decline of positive associations of brand image will also be based on the strengths of the brand image pre-crisis. The research found that the stronger the brand image before the crisis incident, the less negative the crisis will be. Customers who have strong positive perception about a brand will show more favourable attitudes towards that brand in the post-crisis situation. This comes in accordance with the findings of Benoit (1997) and Coombs (2014), who suggested that customers with positive brand image would wait to hear the brand's side of the story and evaluate the brand's responses to the crisis before developing a negative attitude. Yet, the findings of this research indicate that a high positive brand image did not completely insulate the brand from the negativity of brand crisis (see figures 4.5 and 4.6).

The findings suggest that the two crisis types have direct negative effect on each type of brand benefit (functional/experiential, and symbolic). Both, performance-related crises and values-related crises found to hinder the perception of functional/experience and symbolic brand benefits. This has been illustrated in figure 5.2 by red arrows demonstrating the negative effect of the crisis types on brand benefits. It is worth noting that these findings support the assumptions made by Dutta and Pullig (2011) by testing through primary research, and extend

the findings of Pullig *et al.* (2006) who focused on brand positioning to include brand image.

Following the introduction of positive CSR records, a change of impact level of crises was noted. The four types of CSR were found to act differently within the context of the two crisis types. Ethical and philanthropic CSR were found to have an attenuating effect on the negativity of a performance-related crisis. This is illustrated in figure 5.2 with green arrows. This finding supports Klein and Dawar's (2004) argument that ethical brand image helps to aid the brand in the case of a performance-related crisis. However, the finding indicates that philanthropic CSR has a stronger impact than ethical CSR, and the strengths of the impact are demonstrated in figure 5.2 by the thickness of the arrows. This suggests that the more ethical the brand image is, the more resilient it will be to the harmful effect of a performance-related crisis.

In contrast, in the context of a values-related crisis, ethical and philanthropic CSR increased the negativity of the crisis. This is an important contribution to the theory in this area by suggesting that ethical brand image will not provide protection, and it cannot be considered as a reliable asset to prevent the damage to the brand perception. In fact, the more ethical the brand image is, the stronger the negative impact of the values-related crisis. This has also been highlighted in figure 5.2 by the thickness of the red arrows.

Economic and legal CSR, on the other hand, were found to have an insignificant impact on the negativity of both crisis types. This impact is represented by the yellow arrows on the developed model in figure 5.2. This finding supports the

argument in the literature that economic and legal CSR types are rather required by customers, but it is the absence of these two that will contribute to amplify the negativity of both crises. Hence, economic and legal CSR work as hygiene factors that are necessary to sustain brand image (Lai *et al.*, 2010; He and Lai, 2014; Smith *et al.*, 2001; Becchetti *et al.*, 2015).

The following sections of this chapter will provide further insight into these findings and will discuss and implication of the study with reference to the model in figure 2.

5.3 The negative impact of brand crises on brand image

The results of the research supported the first hypothesis of the research that performance-related crises have negative effect on brand benefits. It can be argued that performance-related crises increase the functional risk associated with customers' perception of the brand. When customers become aware of a deficiency in raw materials (the example used in the research for a performance-related crisis) they question the quality and durability of the product. This is because the nature of the crisis is directly aligned with the use of the product and so the assumption will be that the product of that brand is not going to perform as expected/promised, hence, the functional/experiential benefits of brand image will be particularly vulnerable to the performance-related crisis impact. This supports the discussion of crisis domain match and mismatch; the literature on crisis management had found that the domain of the crisis is an important aspect that defines the severity of the impact. When the crisis domain matches the contextual information, the damage will be more harmful (Janssen *et al.*, 2015; Klein and

Dawar, 2004; Dawar and Pillutla, 2000). In this case, the performance-related crisis (domain) matches the functional/experiential context of the brand and mismatches the symbolic. However, customers assume that not being responsible about the use of deficient materials in production is an unethical act. According to crisis management theory, crisis responsibility and the source of the news are both important factors for customers' evaluation of the crisis incident (Dawar and Lei, 2009; Folkes and Kamins, 1999; Coombs, 1995; Janssen *et al.*, 2015). Since the news of the crisis in the research was revealed by an undercover news agent (an external source with relatively high credibility) the morality of the brand was questioned. As an implication, the symbolic benefits were also affected by the performance-related crisis, but since the incident was related to the functionality of the product (domain match) it can be suggested that performance-related crisis affects brand image by directly damaging the perception of its functional/experiential benefits. Yet, the damage on the symbolic benefits will be conditional on whether the incident can be evaluated as an unethical act of irresponsibility, and also based on the credibility of the news source. Figure 5.3 illustrates this with dotted arrows indicating indirect impact.

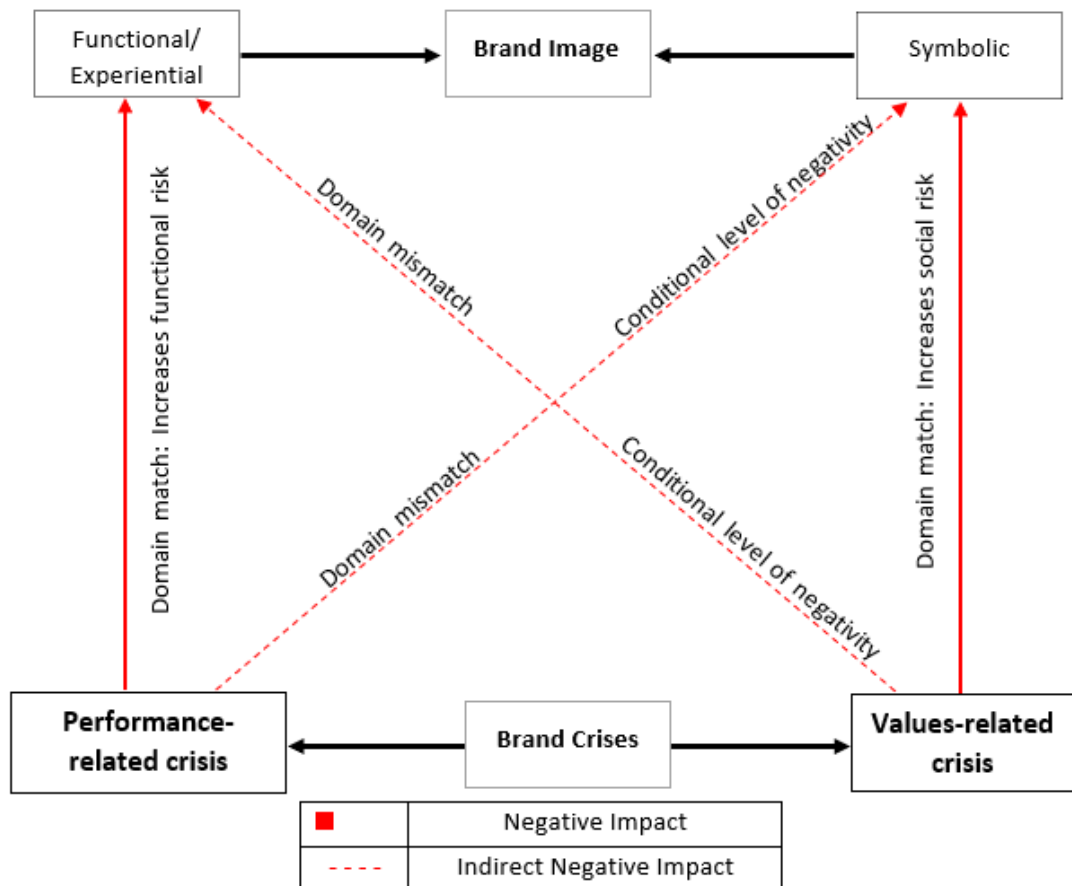


Figure 5. 3. Impact of crisis types on brand benefits. *Developed by the author.*

The results of the research also supported the second hypothesis that values-related crises have a negative impact on the perceived benefits. In the context of a values-related crisis customers develop a negative perception about the brand's symbolic benefits such as how they feel about themselves or how they believe they are being perceived by the public in the society when integrating with that brand. This can be linked to the domain match of the crisis type (Janssen *et al.*, 2015). Hence, a values-related crisis increases the social risk associated with the

brand and so directly disturbs the delivery of the brand's symbolic benefits. This supports the claims of Dutta and Pullig (2011) and Dawar and Lei (2009) who argued that the brand's ethical and symbolic position in the market will be negatively affected by values-related crises. Furthermore, it can be argued that values-related crises also affect the perception of the quality of the brand. Child labour was adopted in this research as a scenario of a values-related crisis. The results show that the functional elements of the brand were negatively affected by the crisis. The durability and functionality of the products were questioned since the staff who were involved in the production were – presumably – incapable of and/or did not have the experience and qualifications to provide high-quality products. The level of the impact will be conditional on the customers' values and beliefs and the mismatch between these values and the nature of the crisis. If for example customers believe child labour is not immoral, then the impact will not be as strong compared to someone who considers it as a major crime. This argument is in accordance with crisis management theory. Research around customer evaluation of crisis incidents states that customers' interpretation of the incident will be defined by the fit between their values and the nature of the crisis (Folkes and Kamins, 1999; Dawar and Lei, 2009; Klein and Dawar, 2004). Crisis response strategies, such as apologia, image restoration and situational crisis communication theory acknowledge customers' evaluation based on values and beliefs (Benoit, 1997; Benoit, 1995; Arora and Lodhia, 2017; Hearit, 1995; Coombs, 2007).

In addition, the literature recognises the importance of the brand position and reputation before the crisis incident as a variable that affects customers'

perception and evaluation. The findings of this research support this and reveal that the stronger the brand image at a pre-crisis phase the more resilient it will become to the negativity of that crisis. Strong brand image increases perception of perceived value and benefits from the brand, which at a time of a crisis will boost customers' expectation of a brand's responsible behaviour and corrective approach. As discussed earlier in the section 2.9, CSR is one of the most effective methods in building positive reputation (Page and Fearn, 2005; Park *et al.*, 2014; Boulstridge and Carrigan, 2000; Servaes and Tamayo, 2013; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Fatma *et al.*, 2015). The significance of this research was to investigate the different influences of four CSR types; legal, economic, ethical, and philanthropic on brand image in the context of performance-related crises and values-related crises. The next section of this chapter discusses the findings of this and will provide a complete overview of the role of each CSR type in the two crisis situations.

5.4 The role of CSR in brand crises

The existing literature indicates that CSR has a positive impact on brand benefits. All CSR categories were found to add value to the perceived benefits and thus enhance the brand image (Popoli, 2011; Falk and He, 2012; Gupta and Pirsch, 2008; He and Lai, 2014; Wang and Berens, 2015). Legal and economic CSR were found to increase the functional/experiential benefits of brands, whereas ethical and philanthropic CSR were found to increase the symbolic benefits of brands (He and Lai, 2014; Wang and Berens, 2015). As discussed earlier, strong brand position and image at the pre-crisis stage would be useful at the recovery stage after the

crisis hits. The assumption therefore was that a positive CSR record would help to protect the brand image from the negativity of a crisis.

Previous studies on CSR and crisis management generally focused on ethical CSR (e.g. Janssen *et al.*, 2015; Coombs, 2014; Klein and Dawar, 2004; Benoit, 1997).

However, the research results show that different CSR types have different impact at a post-crisis stage (figure 5.2). This discussion around this area will be divided into two parts: the first part will examine and discuss the role of the four CSR types in performance-related crises, and the second part will discuss the role of the four CSR types in values-related crises.

5.4.1 CSR in the case of performance-related crises

The findings indicate that performance-related crises damage the perception of brand image. While the existence of ethical and philanthropic CSR in the context of performance-related crisis was found to provide protection to the brand image, legal and economic CSR made no difference. The argument on this finding is that ethical and philanthropic CSR increase the morality and social value of the brand (see section 2.9). Customer trust and engagement with the brand's communications will be increased, which will boost customer confidence in the management and the performance of the brand in general. Consequently, positive expectation of the brand's corrective response to the crisis will be developed. Customers will have less negative perception of the brand's wrongdoing due to its high moral and ethical record. This supports the assumption made by Janssen *et al.* (2015) that performance-related crises are seen by customers as less relevant to

the brand's ethical identity, and so the credibility of the organisation will not be affected by the negativity of the performance-related crisis.

Hence, the next two hypotheses of this research were supported:

H3: The presence of ethical CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

H4: The presence of philanthropic CSR will diminish the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

The implication of this is that brand managers can rely on ethical and philanthropic CSR activities to reflect strong symbolic image in the customers' mind. If the brand gets affected by a performance-related crisis, this image will contribute to weaken the negative impact of that crisis and will help to protect the brand's position. In fact, the more ethical the brand image is, the better the protection will be. It has been noted from the results that philanthropic CSR has a stronger positive impact on brand image than ethical CSR. In the context of a performance-related crisis, philanthropic CSR proved to be the most effective CSR type to offer protection from the negativity of the crisis (figure 5.2) followed by ethical CSR in terms of protection.

On the other hand, legal and economic CSR showed no difference to the control group on the effect of the performance-related crisis. As discussed earlier, legal CSR refers to the brand's responsibility to adhere to the legal requirements and standards (Carroll, 1991). Legal CSR provides assurance of the quality and functionality of the brand's products, and thus reduces the uncertainty risk

associated with the decision-making process (Klein and Dawar, 2004). Even though legal CSR enforces the functional/experiential brand benefits, it has been found that the presence of legal CSR is normally required by customers. Customers expect brands to be legal, obey the law, and comply with the rules (Lai *et al.*, 2010; He and Lai, 2014).

The findings of this research demonstrate that communicating legal involvement will not make a difference to the negative impact of a performance-related crisis. Customers assume brands are operating according to legal requirements and following legislations accordingly. Communicating legal responsibility would provide reassurance on quality and performance, which accentuate customers' expectation of the products' functionality, but will not be interpreted as an extra initiative or an advantage.

In other words, the legal image would not provide any protection to the brand image in the case of a product-related crisis, but it would not amplify the issue either. The interpretation of this is that customers expect brands to be legal, and when a crisis of this type hits, the legal CSR would not help to shift the blame away from the brand (like blaming the legislation instead) but also would not increase the attention to the issue and intensify the blame. In fact, if a performance-related crisis hits a brand that is legal and obeys the law, the attention might then be shifted towards the ethical conduct of the brand, and the crisis might then become values-related as well. An illustration of this was evident in the case of the Pret A Manger crisis. The sandwich shop chain failed to indicate allergic warnings on their sandwiches. A total of three casualties were reported due to allergic reactions

after consuming Pret A Manger sandwiches. The brand was widely criticised, and its image was damaged even though the brand followed all the UK legal requirements of labelling, which states that sandwiches do not need to have a specific allergen label if the food was packaged on-site before selling. However, this failed to ease the tension, and the brand was instead accused of being unethical for not taking individual responsibility (BBC, 2018a). Thus, in the case of a performance-related crisis, a positive legal CSR record would make no difference to the affected perception of the brand, and therefore may not protect the image from the damage. This conclusion supports the fifth hypothesis of this research:

H5: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on brand image.

Similarly, economic CSR was also found to make no difference to the performance-related crisis negativity. In the literature, economic CSR was contended to be required from brands by stakeholders (He and Lai, 2014; Lai *et al.*, 2010).

Employees and shareholders are found to be particularly interested in this type of CSR. Employees seek job security and assurance to feel safe with long-term employment, and shareholders are interested in organisational profit and economic wealth to ensure profitable investments within that brand (Smith *et al.*, 2001; Becchetti *et al.*, 2015; Torres *et al.*, 2012; Wood, 2010). Yet, there is no specific research on customers' perception of brands with economic CSR involvement.

Profitability is an indication of a strong brand position in the market. Being profitable is a major element of a brand's success measurements (Fombrun *et al.*,

2015; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Gardberg and Fombrun, 2002). Profitability supports and influences future growth, which is also an indication of strengths. Hence, being profitable would increase customers' perception of a brand's performance as well as its position. It can therefore be argued that economic CSR would boost both types of brand benefits: functional/experiential benefits due to good performance, and symbolic benefits due to strong position among competitors. However, customers among other stakeholders have less interest in hearing about economic CSR involvement. Customers assume brands to be performing profitably (Orlitzky *et al.*, 2003; Margolis *et al.*, 2007; Aaker, 2010; Keiningham *et al.*, 2014). Evidence from the research findings supports this, economic CSR was found to be the closest CSR type to the control. This suggests that customers do not perceive economic CSR as an extra initiative despite its effectiveness at improving brand performance and position. Therefore, in the context of a performance-related crisis, this positive economic record will not help to protect the brand image but will not amplify the issue either. This was also indicated by the research results. Hence, the sixth hypothesis of this study is supported:

H6: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a performance-related crisis on the brand image.

The results around the role of CSR in a performance-related crisis from this research differ from what has already been discussed in the literature by studying the role of four different types of CSR. Research such as Lai *et al.* (2015) concluded that in the case of a performance-related crisis, the existence of a CSR record

would help to lower customers' attribution and regain positive brand perception. This has been supported by this study only if CSR was of an ethical nature (ethical and philanthropic). Other types of CSR (legal and economic) will not provide protection or be useful to regain positive perception.

The implication of this to practice is that brands should concentrate on ethical CSR and engage the highest level of ethical activities (philanthropic) within the brand's performance. This will become a valuable investment to protect the brand image in the instance of a performance-related crisis. However, for this to work, brands should ensure that legal and economic responsibilities have been met. These are hygiene factors required to assure the responsible performance of the brand and to meet customer expectations. It is therefore the absence of these activities that would damage the brand image no matter how strong the image was before the performance-related crisis hits.

This argument will be re-visited in the development of the strategic roadmap at the end of this chapter.

5.4.2 CSR in the case of a values-related crisis

Results indicate that a values-related crisis has a negative impact on a brand's image. As discussed earlier, there is a domain match between the nature of values-related crisis and symbolic brand benefits (section 5.3). CSR on the other hand was found to be a valuable source to increase brand's symbolic benefits (see section 2.9.5). This increase was found to provide protection to the brand image in case of a performance-related crisis as discussed in the previous section but was found to increase the negative impact of a values-related crisis. Brands with higher CSR

involvement into Carroll's model have a sensitive and weaker image against the negative impact of values-related crises (figure 5.2 – illustrated by the thickness of the red arrows).

Consistent with the literature, this research found that ethical identity raises customers' expectations of a brand's morality. Customers expect ethical brands to behave appropriately in the market and to exhibit honest behaviour in all situations (Janssen *et al.*, 2015; Wagner *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, if an ethical brand was found to be involved in a wrongdoing, a "values-related crisis", the ethical image will motivate even more negative judgement from customers. This can refer to the nature of the crisis itself since it is highly relevant to the values of the brand and to the type of CSR activity (ethical and philanthropic); in other words, customers, in addition to the negativity of the crisis, perceive CSR record as relevant to the crisis nature and question the truthfulness and credibility of the brand, which increase the social and psychological risks associated with brand. An illustration of this in practice was observed in the case of The Body Shop, a brand that has ethics in the core of its brand identity. The Body Shop had a strong involvement of ethical and philanthropic CSR activities ranging from animal welfare and protection, concerns about the environment, a fair workplace, and fair payment with full support to its suppliers (Chun, 2016). In 2006, the French cosmetic brand L'Oréal bought The Body Shop. L'Oréal was infamous for testing its products on animals while The Body Shop was publicly opposed to animal testing. The Body Shop was then accused of prioritising profit maximisation over ethical consideration and customers questioned its credibility and truthfulness. The issue quickly escalated, and the brand struggled in the market with L'Oréal putting every

effort into halting the issue. Eventually, L'Oréal put the brand up for sale calling it "uninspiring" (FT, 2018b). In June 2017 Brazilian cosmetic company Natura bought The Body Shop and an image restoration strategy launched with focus on the strong ethical record of The Body Shop since Natura has a similar interest in ethical and philanthropic CSR.

After more than 10 years of the crisis, The Body Shop is still suffering from the issue. Evidence suggests that customers still have a negative perception about its image – particularly its symbolic image. When competitors such as Boots who had less positive CSR involvement than The Body Shop offered alternative products with similar functional/experiential benefits, The Body Shop customers were willing to switch to them (BBC, 2017). This supports the other important finding by this research that in the case of a values-related crisis, the stronger the ethical CSR record of the brand, the more the negativity of the crisis on the brand image. This conclusion comes from the results of the research, which revealed that the presence of philanthropic CSR will cause more damage to the brand image than ethical CSR. This suggests that ethical CSR increases customer expectations of brands' good behaviour in the market, and the more ethical the brand is, the higher the expectation will be. It can therefore be argued that in the case of a values-related crisis, a positive ethical CSR record will contribute negatively by intensifying the issue even more through affecting customers' perception of a brand's symbolic benefit. Hence, the seventh and eighth hypotheses of this research are supported:

H7: The presence of ethical CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

H8: The presence of philanthropic CSR will amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

Turning now to the role of legal and economic CSR in the case of values-related crisis, the analysed results indicate similar findings to the performance-related crisis that legal and economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of the crisis.

Legal CSR was found to be useful to build positive brand perception by reassuring quality and performance and so increases the brand's functional/experiential benefits. Yet, it is still expected by customers as discussed earlier that brand image would be threatened if a brand was found to be breaking the law. The best example of this is the VW emission scandal. In 2015 VW was found to be cheating on the emission testing system of its diesel engines in the US. The issue escalated quickly and developed to become a values-related crisis that damaged VW image, not only in the US but internationally (FT, 2018a). Since then, VW has been suffering considerably, and in April 2019 the CEO of VW was charged in Germany over the fraud (BBC, 2019b).

It can be argued from the results of this research that in the case of values-related crises customers would not consider the positive legal CSR record as grounds for forgiveness. When the fashion brand H&M advertised on its website a hoodie worn by a young black child with the caption "the coolest monkey in the jungle", the brand was labelled "racist" and its image suffered from negative publicity (The

Guardian, 2018) – especially when celebrities such as The Weeknd and G-Eazy ended their partnership with the brand and called for a boycott (BBC, 2018c). eBay also banned people from selling the hoodie on its platform (BBC, 2018b). The hoodie was in accordance with the legislations of UK trade and advertising practice, and H&M is considered to have a positive legal record, though customers did not consider this when evaluating the intention of H&M. In fact, they referred to the values and ethical record of H&M instead of its legal obligations. The attention was mainly on the issue and the symbolic image of H&M rather than the quality and durability of the product. Hence, the ninth hypothesis of this research is supported:

H9: The presence of legal CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

Economic CSR was also found to perform a similar role in the context of a values-related crisis to a performance-related crisis. It was suggested in the previous section that economic CSR would boost both types of brand benefits due to its ability to encourage perception of good performance, and to reflect its strong position in the market. Bebbington *et al.* (2008) argued that financial performance is one of the key elements of brand reputation. Fombrun *et al.* (2015) considered financial performance as a reputation measurement. However, the current research suggests that customers will not show much interest/attention in the positive economic CSR record of the brand after a values-related crisis. No matter how profitable the brand is if it gets involved in a moral and ethical wrongdoing, the positive economic record will not be recognised by customers. Referring to

both cases of VW crisis and H&M, the high profitability and productivity of the brands were not helpful to ease the tension and protect the brand image. In fact, it can be argued that high economic CSR communication may raise customer expectations of the brand's crisis response since the brand will be perceived to have strong capabilities and resources and so be able to do more to compensate and fix the issue.

However, fulfilling economic responsibility is required to prevent negative perception. Customers still expect brands to be profitable and productive as discussed earlier. However, the findings of this research indicate that economic record will not help to protect the brand image in the case of a values-related crisis. Hence, the tenth hypothesis of this study can be supported:

H10: The presence of economic CSR will make no difference to the negativity of a values-related crisis on brand image.

The findings of this research on values-related crisis support the work of other studies in this area yet providing further examination on the impact of different CSR activities on customers' perception of brand benefits. The results indicate that philanthropic and ethical CSR activities would amplify the negativity of a values-related crisis. Legal and economic CSR would make no difference to the negative impact. It can therefore be suggested that brands need to consider the sensitivity of being involved in ethical and philanthropic CSR and consider more responsible performance when they associate the brand with these types of activities.

However, even though economic and legal CSR made no difference to the damage,

the absence or break of these activities can develop and escalate to threaten the brand reputation and perception.

In the next section, the implications of the main findings will be discussed further with a link to previous theories to develop a roadmap for brands who might consider CSR as a tool to build a positive reputation and reflect a stronger image in the market.

5.5 Incorporating CSR within branding strategy – a practical and theoretical perspective

CSR has been recognised to be helpful in building strong brand reputation and brand equity. It has been discussed earlier in the literature review that stakeholders perceive CSR activities based on different variables, such as the alignment between a stakeholder's own values and the CSR activity, the brand's motivation/intention for CSR and the timing of the CSR involvement (Becker *et al.*, 2006; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). According to Siltaoja (2006), when a company's actions are assessed by various stakeholder groups its brand reputation is constructed according to their respective value priorities and the reputation stories likely to form positive word-of-mouth. In other words, when CSR values align with those of stakeholders, the latter start saying good things about the company. The current research findings contribute to this view by focusing on customers' perception of four CSR activities among other stakeholders. The findings show that incorporating these four types of CSR will increase the perceived brand benefits and so improve the brand's value through positive perception, and as a result, the brand will achieve the advantage of having a

stronger image in the market. The research also reveals that the more ethical the nature of the CSR is, the stronger the image will become.

One of the most effective CSR activities that helped Sainsbury's supermarket to create a strong brand image was their partnership with The Royal British Legion. Sainsbury's has been supporting The British Legion for over 25 years (British Legion, 2019). In 2014, Sainsbury's created an advertising campaign around Christmas that featured the famous story of Christmas Day of 1914 during WW1 when British and German soldiers put their weapons down to come together and share greetings, treats, mementos and even a football game (Sainsbury's, 2014). The creative appeal of the advertisement was designed around emotions: music, pictures and performance were all aligned to motivate an emotional reaction. The results of the campaign were very positive. Sainsbury's benefited from a stronger and positive reputation and the story of Sainsbury's philanthropic image was reported on news, social media and word-of-mouth (Anderson, 2014; Graham, 2014). In addition to the communication design, the value of the CSR activity and the timing of communication made it very effective. The values of sharing, peace and forgiveness around Christmas time aligned with the customer's perception, which made the message even more appealing. It can be argued based on the findings of the current research that communicating the partnership of Sainsbury's with The Royal British Legion increased customers' perception of Sainsbury's symbolic brand benefits. Customers were able to see the social benefit of engaging with Sainsbury's as an extra added value. A sense of goodwill, patriotism, caring and support was added to the brand benefits bundle that boosted customers' self-image confidence in the society and made them perceive themselves positively

when shopping from that particular supermarket. This increased the symbolic benefit that would attenuate any negative impact from a performance-related crisis that Sainsbury's might face.

However, customers will be sceptical and will ask whether companies have got something to hide when integrating CSR with their branding (Ashforth and Gibbs, 1990; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Siltaoja, 2006). In Sainsbury's example, even though the brand managed to reflect a positive brand image, there were criticisms by some customers who questioned the reason for dramatising an "almost fictional" story of WW1 with a supermarket (Fogg, 2014). Sainsbury's was able to recognise this risk and followed the campaign with a short documentary showing the cooperation with The Royal British Legion and The Imperial War Museum in the making of the advertisement and to further support their involvement, the documentary featured an interview with a grandson of one of the soldiers who was there (Sainsbury's, 2014). It can be predicted based on the results of this research that if Sainsbury's was involved with a values-related crisis, its strong symbolic image would be threatened, especially if there was already some scepticism in the market. After five years of that campaign Sainsbury's managed to avoid this with consistency and commitment to The Royal British Legion. In 2018, Sainsbury's raised more than £3.5 million through store collections and sales of exclusive merchandise, donating all profits to the Legion (British Legion, 2019).

The strong effectiveness of philanthropic CSR and its benefit to reduce the negativity of performance-related crisis on brand image can come at the price of being very risky. Brands who integrate with philanthropic activities need to

consider the threat of a values-related crisis as well, since this type of CSR will increase attention and amplify the impact on symbolic image.

Ethical CSR activities are found to be less effective in building positive brand reputation than philanthropic ones. These activities are expected by customers; businesses are expected to operate in an objective and ethical manner, but as the current research found, they still have a strong impact on the customer's perception of a brand's symbolic value as discussed earlier.

Legal and economic CSR were found to have no real value in protecting the brand image from either type of crisis. These are required by customers and therefore brands need to ensure they are fulfilling these activities to prevent customers' negative perception. It is the absence of these activities that would amplify both crisis types and increase the risk of crisis.

Considering the above points, table 5.1 was created to assess each of the four activities and to consider effectiveness and risk when building reputation through CSR.

Table 5. 1. The four CSR types evaluation through findings. Source: developed by the author.

	Useful to brand perception	Performance-related	Values-related	Risk
Philanthropic	Strongly effective to build positive perception	High protection	Highly damaging	Very risky
Ethical	Effective	Protection	Damaging	Risky
Economic	No effect. Damage perception if absent	Required	Required	Very risky if absent
Legal	No effect. Damage perception if absent	Required	Required	Very risky if absent

5.5.1 Revisiting Carroll's CSR pyramid – a customer perspective

So far, this study has examined the economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic CSR types as separate activities to test the customers' perception of each one. The idea was to provide an insight into each type and investigate the role they play in each crisis incident: performance and values crises. It is worth noting that even though the literature clearly states that legal CSR is required by customers in particular (Lai *et al.*, 2010; He and Lai, 2014), the argument around economic CSR considers stakeholders' views in general (Becchetti *et al.*, 2015; Smith *et al.*, 2001; Torres *et al.*, 2012; Wood, 2010). It was therefore assumed that customers would expect

economic responsibilities as well as legal (see section 2.5.5). The findings of this research support the assumption made and contribute to the literature by suggesting that customers perceive the priority of CSR activities differently. There is evidence in the results that suggests customers might prefer to see brands fulfilling legal requirements over economic – from the research results (see figures 4.5 and 4.6) legal CSR ranking was found to be the closest one to the control group. This indicates that obeying the law and following rules and legislations was the most expected activity of CSR, followed by economic activity. This specifies that customers can see some value with brand's economic activities, even though the difference noted in the data analysis was small, but this suggests that extensive communication of brand's economic activities increases awareness and perception of the brand's financial and economic performance, which reflects positively on brand's perceived benefits. In comparison to the literature, this finding was unexpected since previous research focused on economic CSR as the core concern of employees and shareholders (e.g. Smith *et al.*, 2001; Becchetti *et al.*, 2015; Torres *et al.*, 2012; Wood, 2010).

Hence, it can be argued that from a customer's perspective, the first block of Carroll's CSR pyramid should instead be legal, followed by economic, ethical and finally philanthropic.

It has been discussed in the literature that the four CSR types are integrated and unified as a whole; Carroll (2016) explained that the CSR pyramid is not "and should not be" considered as a hierarchy. The shape of the pyramid reflects the importance of each CSR type to the stakeholders, and the four types should be

fulfilled simultaneously to achieve the “total CSR”, as Carroll (2016) described it: economic + legal + ethical + philanthropic = total CSR. The proposition of fulfilling all four types of CSR to achieve total CSR was found by this study to be relevant if the brand is seeking protection from a performance-related crisis. Communicating involvement of all CSR types would increase the brand’s perceived benefits and create a strong symbolic image. After a performance-related crisis, the brand’s symbolic image will work as a reference for positive perception and will increase trust and confidence in the brand’s intention. This means that messages sent by the brand after the crisis will be perceived favourably and trusted.

However, fulfilling all four types of CSR as Carroll (2016) suggested, and communicating this involvement to customers, will expose the brand image to the negativity of a values-related crisis. After a values-related crisis, customers will look at the brand’s symbolic image with high scepticism. They will get confused whether the brand’s ethical and philanthropic involvement was an act aimed to increase financial profit. This doubt of credibility could affect trust and interrupt the effectiveness of after-crisis brand communication. Therefore, brands with high involvement of all four types of CSR are advised to follow a “planning model of crisis management” (figure 5.4). With this approach, brands should monitor and scan the environment more regularly to detect and identify any issues or incidents with any potential escalation to a values-related crisis. According to Fill and Turnbull (2016), extra effort and time should be placed into the pre-impact phase, and brands should try to defuse the issue and assess the capabilities to manage the response before the crisis hits.

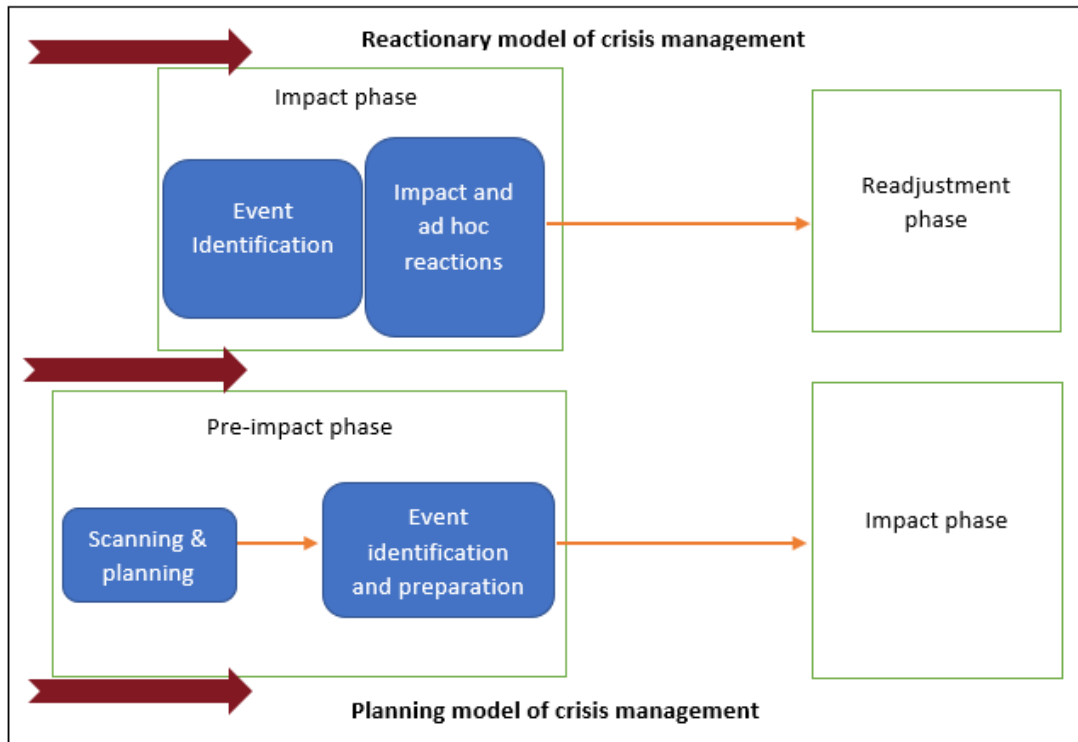


Figure 5. 4. Pre-impact phase of the twin models of crisis management. *Source: Fill and Turnbull (2016) P: 413*

Therefore, it is recommended that if brands do not have strong resources and capabilities to fully support their ethical performance in the market at all levels, they should avoid open and extensive communications of their ethical and philanthropic involvement (mainly philanthropic since ethical is expected to some extent).

These findings raise an intriguing challenge to the relevance of Carroll's CSR model as a pyramid when considering customers' perspectives and crisis contexts. A pyramid model in which CSR activities are fulfilled simultaneously is therefore not relevant. The results of this research points towards a circular shape instead (figure 5.5) in which brands incorporate their identity and CSR through sequential layers.

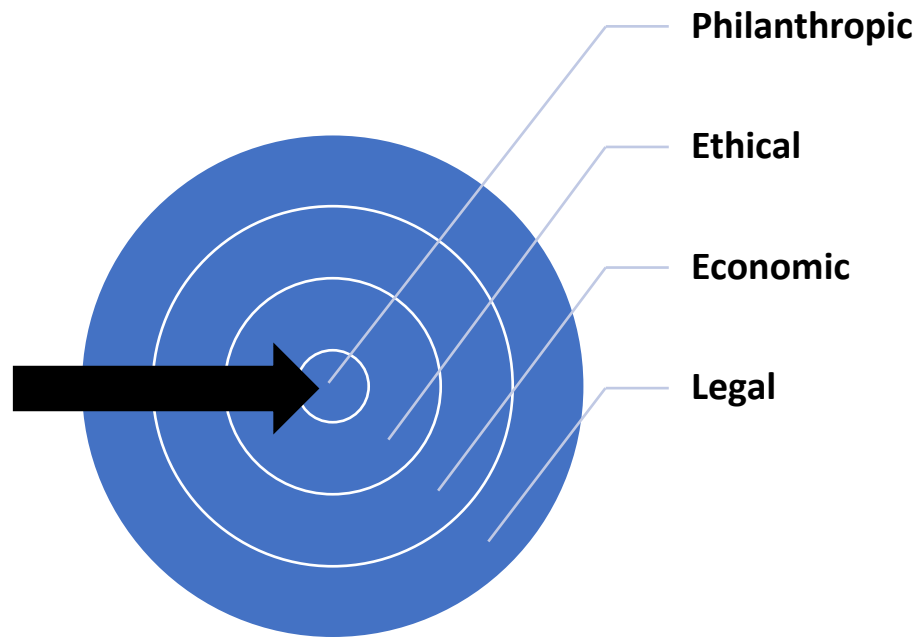


Figure 5. 5. Recommended CSR model. *Source: developed by the author.*

Each activity surrounds and frames the next one with considerations of crises consequences as found by this research. Starting from legal as this is the most expected one by customers, then economic to fulfil the hygiene factors and ensure maximum protection against performance-related and values-related crises, followed by ethical, and finally philanthropic. The practical mechanism of this model, and the process towards total CSR will be examined further in the following section.

5.5.2 Practical consideration of Brand’s social responsibility approach

Based on the discussion in the previous section and the development of the circular CSR model. This research recommends a framework for brands’ social responsibilities engagement that consists of a simplified approach to fulfil the suggested CSR model and achieve total CSR with the two crisis types in mind (figure 5.6).

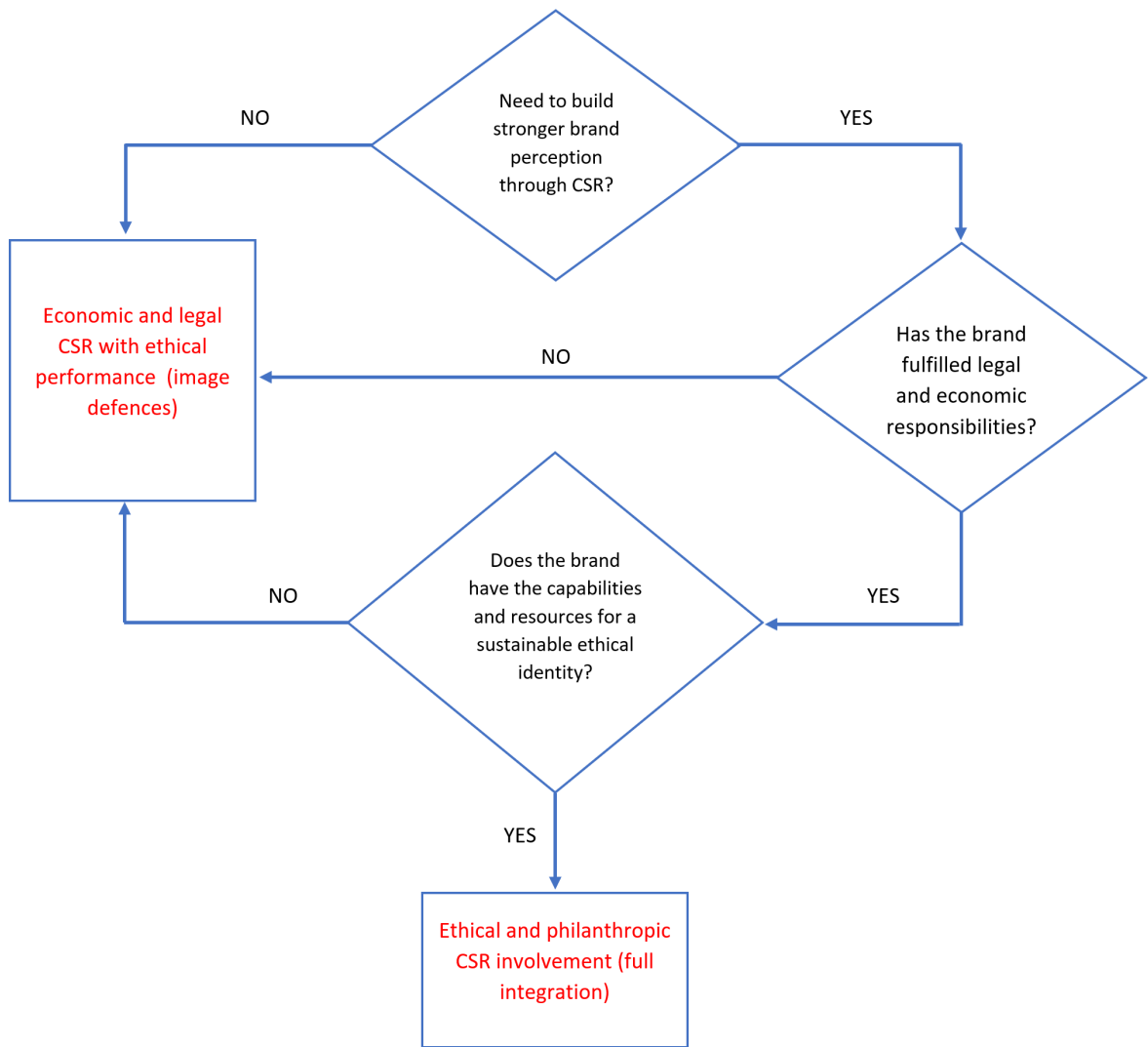


Figure 5. 6. Guidance to CSR integration with crises in mind. *Source: developed by the author.*

The guide suggests that brands, regardless of their intention, should first strive to fulfil legal and economic commitments. The aim is not only to reassure quality and performance, but also to prevent any internal issues from escalating to a values-related crisis as discussed earlier. The argument in this chapter also highlighted the strong link between the deficiency in legal and economic responsibilities and ethics. The VW example is an illustration of how breaking legal commitments can be viewed as a wrongdoing and unethical behaviour. On the other hand, fulfilling

legal and economic responsibilities without ethical considerations might also contribute to the development of a performance-related crisis and/or a values-related crisis. The case of Ford Pinto – presented in the literature review – is an illustration of this. Ford Pinto’s car design was in accordance with the legal requirements at the time, even though the placement of the fuel tank at the back side of the car only six inches from the rear bumper caused 27 deaths and 24 burn injuries to the tank, making it easy for the car to catch fire when hit from behind. When the investigation revealed the fault in the car design, the positive perception of Ford suffered badly, even though the design met the national highway traffic safety standards for car production (Cavender and Miller, 2013; Boddy, 2014). Customers did not only blame the legislations, they pointed to the ethical conduct and performance of Ford since the brand was aware of the issue and the casualties caused but did not recall the cars or change the design since it met legal standards. Therefore, when integrating CSR activities, brands should give legal and economic responsibilities with ethical considerations a priority over other CSR types. The communications of CSR should then raise awareness of this involvement to defuse any potential source for a values-related crisis. This strategy has been named “image defences” as it provides brands with precaution from the negativity of a values-related crisis but also helps during the impact phase of a performance-related crisis (figure 5.6). In the Ford Pinto example, Ford won the lawsuit made against the company because the Pinto met the legal and safety standards. Therefore, the “Image defences” strategy is also recommended even if the brand is not interested in CSR involvement.

Once the brand is confident with its legal and economic approach, it should then assess its capabilities and resources for a full ethical and philanthropic consideration. Communicating philanthropic involvement will increase the symbolic image in the customer's mind. This symbolic image will raise customers' expectation of the brand's performance in an ethical fashion, which would help to protect the brand image from the negative impact of a performance-related crisis but increase the threat of a values-related crisis. Therefore, brands should have the resources and capabilities required for a full and long-term philanthropic integration at all levels to minimise the chance of accusing the brand of hiding the real motivation – which might escalate to a values-related crisis. In June 2019, for example, Boots was accused of “hypocrisy” for their wide communication of their switch from the use of plastic bags to paper bags to reduce plastic production and contribute to Boots' ethical commitment to protecting the environment (The Guardian, 2019). Boots was committed to this; however, the accusation came because Boots did not replace the small plastic prescription bags of its pharmacy section. Even though by replacing the plastic carrier bag Boots contributed to the removal of 900 tons of plastic from Boots' supply chain, customers were still critical, and Boots had angry customers returning their plastic prescription bags with protesting words written on them such as “Shame on you!” and “Paper, not plastic!” (BBC, 2019a). This example highlights the danger and sensitivity of communicating philanthropic CSR even with strong legal and economic responsibilities fulfilment. Therefore, it is advised that if brands do not have the capabilities and resources for a full ethical and philanthropic integration, to follow

an “image defences” strategy they should work on developing their capabilities further before full involvement.

5.6 Chapter conclusion

This chapter has discussed how each of the four different CSR types is perceived by customers, and the role of each type in the case of brand crises. Carroll’s CSR Pyramid was taken apart to examine this and to test the hypotheses. After testing the hypothesis, the model was reassembled again and redesigned around brand image with crisis in mind.

The current research findings contribute to the theory in this area by focusing on customers’ perception of legal, economic, ethical, and philanthropic CSR activities among other stakeholders. The findings indicated that all four types of CSR will increase the perceived brand benefits and so improve brand’s value through positive perception, and as a result, the brand will achieve an advantage of a stronger image in the market. The research also reveals that the more ethical the nature of the CSR is, the stronger the image will become.

Economic and legal CSR were found to be required and only if absent will it increase the threat of negative image. Ethical and philanthropic CSR activities will increase the positive perception of a brand’s morality and will protect the brand image from performance-related crisis, but at the same time it will make the brand image more sensitive to the threat of a values-related crisis. Philanthropic CSR is found to be the most effective type to build a strong brand perception. Customers interpret philanthropic involvement as voluntary activities that are aimed to provide value to society and benefit the wider community. Customers generally

sense a match between these types of activities and their community standard; donating to charity, helping people in need and other social involvements would be recognised positively by customers.

The study concludes that total CSR concept can take different forms based on the resources and capabilities of the brand. The literature discussed alignment between brand identity and brand image for a strong reputation overall (Roper and Fill, 2012; De Chernatony, 1999). This research supports this notion; brands should ensure that their values, vision, culture and strategy all have an ethical and philanthropic approach at the core focus if the brand is aiming for a full integration strategy, but first, precaution measurement should be conducted to assess the suitable level of CSR position with crisis in mind. Theories of crisis response, such as legitimacy theory, RRM perspective and image restoration theory, consider stakeholders' expectations as an important element to determine the best response strategy. Customer expectation can be created through marketing communications and experience and engagement. CSR communication will increase customer expectation as discussed earlier. Therefore, brands should be careful when communicating CSR to customers with considerations to the affected benefits.

Chapter 6 Conclusion

6.1 Chapter introduction

The purpose of this research was to examine how economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic types of CSR affect brand image after performance-related crisis and values-related crisis. The research aimed to create a conceptual framework of understanding based on current CSR theories and primary findings to help brands evaluate their CSR strategies and understand their impact on brand image before and after different types of crises. This was undertaken through a set of objectives:

Objective 1) To critically analyse the existing literature and previous cases concerning CSR, brand crises, and brand image.

Objective 2) To investigate the different categories of CSR and their impact on brand image.

Objective 3) To investigate the different categories of brand crisis and their impact on brand image.

Objective 4) To investigate the differences in the customer's perception of a brand that has been performing CSR – before and after a crisis.

In this final chapter of the thesis, a summary of the research findings will be presented and related back to the research objectives and the main points of the discussion. The chapter also states the implications of the research to the field of knowledge and theory, as well as implications for the field of practice. Research limitations will also be discussed under this chapter to point out challenges and restrictions. Finally, further research will be recommended that would advance the knowledge and understanding in the area of this research.

6.2 Summary of main research findings

This research has identified the following main findings:

- 1. CSR as a concept is embedded under the broader term of corporate sustainability and found to be beneficial for businesses to enhance brand image.**

The literature review of this research has revealed that CSR is conceptualised as a contributor to the development of the sustainable performance of an organisation. The orientation of CSR is much more focused on specific activities that can reflect on the organisation's position and performance in the market. These activities relate directly to the triple bottom line of sustainability, but equality focuses on stakeholder's needs and expectations and provides a wider consideration to the organisation's commitment towards its surrounding environment. While sustainability is rather concerned with national and wider issues and concerns that also consider implications of businesses on the durability of tangible and intangible resources to meet the current needs without compromising future needs.

Due to its sustainability nature, CSR has been found to be effective in reducing the cost of operation, creating a productive workplace environment, would boost the opportunities for organisational learning, build a positive reputation, affect customer's evaluation and perception, reduce business risk, and increase competitors cost. CSR has also been found affective in branding. Different CSR activities add functional and emotional values to brand equity, build customer satisfaction, and contribute to customer loyalty. CSR has been found to enhance brand image after crisis incidents, it has also been used in PR

strategies and crisis response theories as an effective method to manage risk and re-gain trust.

However, the majority of research on CSR and crisis focused mainly on the ethical and social nature of CSR, and on the performance-related crises. This research contributes to this area with an investigation on four types of CSR, legal, economic, ethical, and philanthropic, in context of performance-related crisis and values-related crisis.

2. A record of positive CSR activities with an ethical and moral nature (ethical and philanthropic CSR) will attenuate the impact of performance-related crises on brand image.

The research found that the presence of both ethical and philanthropic CSR helps to protect the brand image after a performance-related crisis. CSR with an ethical nature increases the symbolic image and motivates the positive perception of a brand's morality. This was found to be useful to boost customers' expectations of a brand's attributes and provides protection to brand image. This research contributes to this area further by comparing the two CSR types, ethical and philanthropic, the findings suggest that pre-crisis philanthropic CSR is more effective than ethical CSR to attenuate the negative impact of performance-related crises and protect the brand image, hence, the more ethical the brand identity is before a crisis, the better the protection is to brand image from performance-related crises.

3. Records of positive CSR activities with an ethical and moral nature (ethical and philanthropic CSR) will increase the negativity of a values-related crisis.

In contrast to the previous point, the research found that records of ethical and philanthropic CSR will intensify the damaging impact of values-related crisis on symbolic benefits of the brand. The brand's morality will be questioned, and customers will be sceptical of the brand's social value. This will also affect the perceived credibility and trustfulness of the brand, and customers will develop a negative perception about the brand's attributes as a result. Furthermore, the research suggests that the record of philanthropic CSR will lead to a weaker image against values-related crises than the record of ethical CSR would. Therefore, the research argues that the more ethical involvement of the brand identity there is before the crisis, the higher the risk of brand image damage after values-related crisis.

4. Legal and economic CSR will make no difference to the impact of brand crises, performance-related or values-related.

Legal and economic CSR were both found to have no significant impact on brand image after either type of crisis (performance-related or values-related). The research argues that customers seem to not pay much attention to positive records of legal or economic CSR after crises. This supports the notion that these two types of CSR are rather required by customers, and therefore both are needed to ensure the brand's functional and symbolic values and avoid threats of crisis escalation. However, the research has found evidence of

customers' perception of legal and economic CSR that wasn't noted before in the literature before. The findings suggest that customers expect brands to follow the legislations and fulfil legal responsibilities more than any other CSR commitment. The findings also indicate that extensive communication of economic CSR would increase the customer attention to this activity and reflect positively on brand perception.

6.3 Implications for the field of knowledge

This research is the first comprehensive investigation into how different types of crisis affect brand image – through links to brand benefits – with positive record of different CSR activities.

The literature has revealed the impact and benefits of different CSR types on branding and brand benefits. CSR increases the value of brands perceived by customers, and the findings of this research support this notion. CSR is an effective method at reflecting a favourable brand image in the market. The majority of theories around CSR consider stakeholders' view and perception, this research extended the understanding of CSR perception by specifically emphasising customers' perception of CSR activities and expanding the knowledge of how customers perceive such activities from brands.

A significant contribution of this research is the development of Carroll's model from a pyramid into a circular shape, with legal CSR as top priority for brands followed by economic, ethical, and philanthropic CSR in a consecutive approach that aligns with customers' perception of brand's social responsibility and

considers brands crises nature and impact. This suggested model was presented in figure 5.5. under section 5.5.1.

Another significant contribution of this research is the extension of the understanding of crises impact on brand image. The findings found that both crisis types damage the perception of the perceived brand benefits. With regards to a “socially responsible image” the literature mainly focused on “ethical” CSR and revealed that in a performance-related crisis, this image will be more resilient to the negative impact. This research contributes to this knowledge by investigating four different types of CSR activities, legal, economic, ethical, and philanthropic CSR, which suggest that the stronger the ethical image the better the protection from performance-related crises. The research also contributed by investigating these four activities in the context of values-related crisis and found that ethical and philanthropic CSR will be harmful to the brand image after that type of crisis. Through this development, the research provides an insight into the knowledge and understanding of the customers’ perception of ethical brand image, and argues that for a strong ethical image to work against performance-related crises, legal and economic responsibilities must be fulfilled. Even though customers are interested in ethical and philanthropic CSR, they require this to be framed by appropriate and responsible performance that follows legislations and contributes positively to economic development.

6.4 Implications for the field of practice

The insight gained from this study provides an understanding of how the brand’s involvement with CSR activities encounters customers’ perception and brand

image after crises. The findings suggest that in terms of making the brand more reliant in the face of crises, ethical CSR is a two-edged sword. Ethical and philanthropic CSR will increase the brand value and emphasise the symbolic image, which in turn will provide protection in the case a performance-related crisis as discussed previously, though it would intensify the issue if the crisis was of a values-related nature.

The problem with values-related crises is that this type of crisis is contingent and can be developed quickly from a small issue due to media surveillance – particularly social media. Also, companies have less control over this type of crisis, which makes it even more difficult to manage the risk of brand image damage. Brands should therefore ensure full capabilities and resources are available to support a sustainable ethical identity in order to reduce the chances of values-related crisis development and escalation.

It is also required that brands, before getting involved with ethical and philanthropic activities, should ensure that the first two layers of Carroll's (2016) CSR model are fulfilled (legal and economic). This is because customers will view any lack in these activities as unethical behaviour which will then escalate into a values-related crisis – and if the brand has high ethical or philanthropic involvement, then the damage will be much more harmful due to the finding that ethical and philanthropic CSR will increase the negative impact of a values-related crisis. A revised model of CSR that was developed (figure 5.5) and a roadmap that was offered in the discussion chapter (figure 5.6) provide guidance to CSR integration with crises in mind for brands and businesses.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a summary of the results and the main findings of this research. The chapter also highlighted the research contribution to the field of knowledge and practice, discussed the research limitations, and offered a set of recommendations of further research. In conclusion, this research investigated customers' perception of brands with different CSR records before and after two crisis types. The findings have found that ethical and philanthropic CSR records help to protect brand image from performance-related crises but would increase the negativity of values-related crises. Economic and legal CSR are not seen by customers as extra initiatives and so have less impact on customers' perception than ethical and philanthropic, and in the context of a crisis customers would not pay much attention to the presence of these two unless one or both were not fully fulfilled, which would result in damaging the customer's perception of the brand's behaviour. Hence, the research argues that brands should act as customers expect them to act; if they portray themselves as ethical then ethics should be fully integrated within the brand's culture, values, personality and identity and brands should ensure sufficient resources are available to support the ethical image.

6.6 Research limitations

This research examined a complex set of variables including four types of CSR, two groups of brand benefits, two crisis types and a total of 20 different situations.

Although this is novel in the literature, it has limited the researcher's flexibility to investigate each situation in more depth and to ask behind the structured questions.

Another limitation to the research was the focus on the Zara brand for the purpose of data collection. Even though the choice of Zara was tested in the pilot with students and found to be a relevant case for the research aim and objectives, it can be argued that it restricted the findings into one specific industry. However, as mentioned in section 3.5 of the methodology chapter, the measurements of the research methods adopted were tested and used in different areas (banking, cosmetics, automobile and others) which ensures that the contribution can be generalised as they are designed to investigate customers' perception of general incidents, which can be implemented in other areas.

The large research population has challenged the researcher to ensure a broad and a reflective sample acquired. Quota sampling was found to be useful to reflect on the wider population, though limited the research in terms of capturing different values that people may have of ethics. The perception of CSR types and crisis incidents can vary based on different personal values and beliefs as discussed in the literature. Individuals have different perceptions about what is "good" and what is "bad". The quota sampling of this research was based on age groups, the data collection of this research took place in the east-midlands region, undermining location limited the research to grasp a wider view of the British population.

6.7 Recommendations for further research

Through this research, several ideas surfaced for further investigations within the research field:

First, this research examined whether CSR would affect customers' perception of brand image after crises. The research was based on "types" of crisis as one factor (values and performance related) and was interested in examining change of perception of brand benefits before and after the impact of each one. The research was not concerned with the level of impact itself; a further research can investigate this area further and focus on comparing the negative impact of the two crisis types on each brand benefit. Furthermore, customer perception of crisis was also found to depend on the level and severity of the crisis; crisis results leading to death or extreme damage might have a stronger impact than other less harmful crises. Further research should investigate this area within the contexts of different CSR activities. The current research findings found that CSR – especially ethical and philanthropic – would help to protect the brand image after a performance-related crisis. It would be interesting to test this against multiple levels of performance-related crises to investigate how CSR activities would anticipate towards customers' perception.

It would also be beneficial to investigate customers' perception of brand image under different levels of values-related crisis. The child labour crisis used in this research might not seem to be a major issue to everyone, and so it would be useful to compare and investigate how different CSR records might affect customers' perception in different values-related crises.

There is an evidence in the research findings to suggest that the damage of brand crisis on brand image differs based on the strengths of perception before the crisis and on the crisis type. The way brand crises affect brand image is by reducing the

values and attributions perceived. Customers' perception of brand benefits will be negatively affected by a crisis. However, the effect seems to be conditional on the strength of the brand image at a pre-crisis stage; the research indicates that customers who have stronger positive perception of a brand will be less judgmental on the brand benefits after a crisis, customers who favour a brand will still see some value in the brand after crisis, but will not completely protect the image.

Another recommendation for further research is to examine the findings of this study on a B2B context instead. It was discussed earlier in the literature review that research, such as, Lai *et al.* (2010), Baden (2016), and Coleman *et al.* (2015), identified differences of CSR perception and impact on brand equity at a B2B level. The current research was concerned with the B2C market and examined customers' (as individuals) perception. In practice, there is considerable evidence of B2B customers' perception being affected by their partners'/suppliers' behaviour – crises can affect the relationship, as well as views on CSR. Especially in the international market where CSR is perceived differently across continents.

Finally, further research could focus on the service industry. While this research was interested in brand image and perception, it did not distinguish between the types of product offered and delivered. Focusing on services in particular would help to examine more closely the experiential and hedonic benefits, especially if it was done through qualitative research since it would provide flexibility to observe and examine customers' experiences in more depth and ask questions for further insight.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Questionnaire 1: Control

Page 1: Information sheet/ Consent form

Welcome, Please take time to read the information below carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or would like more clarification. Take time to decide whether or not to take part, then tick the boxes and click next, if any of the below boxes is not relevant to you, then please do not attempt the survey.

Please select at least 4 answer(s)	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am a British citizen
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am 18 years of age or above
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have read and understood the information below
<input type="checkbox"/>	I agree to participate in this research.

Project Title: Impact of Brand Crises on Brand Image in the age of Corporate Social responsibility

Researcher: Maher Daboul – University of Northampton, Business School.

Purpose: Part of an academic course towards the award of doctorate of philosophy - PhD.

Contact address of researcher: Park Campus, Boughton Green Rd, Northampton NN2 7AL

Contact email address: maher.daboul@Northampton.ac.uk

Contact phone numbers: Monday to Friday 9:00 am – 3:00pm 01604 892527/
3:00pm – 6:00pm 07455157671

Supervisor contact details: Dr. Kathleen Mortimer, email:
Kathleen.Mortimer@northampton.ac.uk

The research purpose

The aim of this research is to investigate whether Corporate Social Responsibility would help brands to protect their brand image in the event of a crisis. This research targets fashion customers in the UK aged 18 and above. You have been chosen to take part in this research because we believe you fall within this category of population. Your participation will consist of filling up an online questionnaire.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely voluntary to take part. If you decide to participate in this research, you may withdraw without giving a reason at any time during the questionnaire filling process, and within 7 days of submitting the questionnaire.

What will happen to me if I take part?

The procedure involves filling an online questionnaire that will take approximately 11 to 12 minutes of your time to complete. Your responses will be confidential and we do not collect identifying information such as your name, email address or IP address. The survey questions will be about the fashion brand Zara. The scale questions will test your perception of that brand. You will be introduced to two fictional scenarios in which Zara will be put in a different crisis situations and your perception will be tested again.

What will I have to do?

You only need to read the scenarios and answer the scale questions based on your own perception and fashion shopping patterns.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

The process is online and completely anonymous. No personal details will be collected; such as names or addresses. Though, all data collected will be stored in a password protected computer accessed only by the researcher. The data will only be used for academic purposes, and the results of this study may be shared with the supervisory team, The University of Northampton, and academic journals.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

We cannot promise the study will help you, but the information we get from the study will help to increase the understanding of crisis management and brand social responsibility practices.

What if there is a problem?

If you would like to address any queries or concerns about any aspect of this study, please do not hesitate to contact the researchers. Contact details are on the top of this page.

This survey has been designed around your awareness of Zara the fashion brand. Zara is one of the largest international fashion companies. It belongs to Inditex, one of the world’s largest distribution groups. In the UK, they operate with 71 stores across the country. **Are you familiar with this brand?**

	Yes
	No

Page 2

This questionnaire will first assess your current perception of Zara the fashion brand. You will then be introduced to three different scenarios; Zara’s high involvement in a positive CSR practice, Zara’s involvement in a performance-related crisis, and Zara’s involvement in a values-related crisis. Any change in your perception of the brand after reading the scenarios will be assessed.

How often do you shop at Zara? At least ...	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a month
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once every three months
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a year
<input type="checkbox"/>	Never

Part 1

Based on your own experience with Zara’s products and services, please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Page 3

Part 2

In this part of the questionnaire, you will be introduced to two different crisis scenarios. It is highly important that you consider the two scenarios in isolation of each other, and assume that each crisis is a separate incident that hit after the positive economic CSR record had been published

Performance-related crisis scenario:

Several months after that positive rating of Zara’s performance, a report came out claiming that Zara was caught by an undercover news agent using very low quality raw materials in their production. The materials are not necessarily harmful to humans, but they have a significant effect on the durability and the functionality of their products.

Do you think the incident is related to the quality of the company’s products/ Services?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

How would you rate the following after knowing about the use of low quality raw materials, with the consideration of Zara’s economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Values-related crisis scenario: Assume that the second report was instead claiming that Zara is taking advantage of the cheap child labour in most of their factories in some developing countries. They employ children as young as 12 years old to work for the brand in order to cut the cost of operation and generate more profit.

Do you think the incident is related to the values of the company?

	Yes
	No

After reading about Zara’s scandal of child labouring, how would you rate the following with the consideration of Zara’s economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

The two crises incidents would change my views and perceptions about Zara

	Yes
	No

If yes, which scenario would have the greatest negative impact on your perception of the brand?

	Scenario 1 (the use of deficient materials)
	Scenario 2 (Child labouring)

Which one is your age group?

	18 to 29
	30 to 39
	40 to 49
	50 to 59
	60 to 69
	70 or above

Page 4

End of survey. Thank you very much for your contribution.

Questionnaire 2: Economic CSR

Page 1: Information sheet/ Consent form

Welcome, Please take time to read the information below carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or would like more clarification. Take time to decide whether or not to take part, then tick the boxes and click next, if any of the below boxes is not relevant to you, then please do not attempt the survey.

Please select at least 4 answer(s)	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am a British citizen
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am 18 years of age or above
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have read and understood the information below
<input type="checkbox"/>	I agree to participate in this research.

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Do I have to take part?

It is entirely voluntary to take part. If you decide to participate in this research, you may withdraw without giving a reason at any time during the questionnaire filling process, and within 7 days of submitting the questionnaire.

What will happen to me if I take part?

The procedure involves filling an online questionnaire that will take approximately 11 to 12 minutes of your time to complete. Your responses will be confidential and we do not collect identifying information such as your name, email address or IP address. The survey questions will be about the fashion brand Zara. The scale questions will test your perception of that brand. You will be introduced to two fictional scenarios in which Zara will be put in a different crisis situations and your perception will be tested again.

What will I have to do?

You only need to read the scenarios and answer the scale questions based on your own perception and fashion shopping patterns.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

The process is online and completely anonymous. No personal details will be collected; such as names or addresses. Though, all data collected will be stored in a password protected computer accessed only by the researcher. The data will only be used for academic purposes, and the results of this study may be shared with the supervisory team, The University of Northampton, and academic journals.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

We cannot promise the study will help you, but the information we get from the study will help to increase the understanding of crisis management and brand social responsibility practices.

What if there is a problem?

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This survey has been designed around your awareness of Zara the fashion brand. Zara is one of the largest international fashion companies. It belongs to Inditex, one of the world’s largest distribution groups. In the UK, they operate with 71 stores across the country. **Are you familiar with this brand?**

	Yes
	No

Page 2

This questionnaire will first assess your current perception of Zara the fashion brand. You will then be introduced to three different scenarios; Zara’s high involvement in a positive CSR practice, Zara’s involvement in a performance-related crisis, and Zara’s involvement in a values-related crisis. Any change in your perception of the brand after reading the scenarios will be assessed.

How often do you shop at Zara? At least ...	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a month
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once every three months
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a year
<input type="checkbox"/>	Never

Part 1

Based on your own experience with Zara’s products and services, please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Page 3

You recently learned that Zara was rated as having the best economic record in the industry. This rating was given by a highly respected, impartial organization that evaluates companies every year. Some of the reasons for the high rating are that Zara’s factories and stores in the UK secure a significant number of job vacancies, the majority of their workforce are from the UK. Sales have been reported better than expected for the first quarter of the year, with an increase in net-profit.

Based on your perception after reading this credible report, how would you rate the following, please select:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand tries to obtain maximum profit from its activity					
This brand tries to obtain maximum long-term success					
This brand always tries to improve its economic performance					

Part 2

In this part of the questionnaire, you will be introduced to two different crisis scenarios. It is highly important that you consider the two scenarios in isolation of each other, and assume that each crisis is a separate incident that hit after the positive economic CSR record had been published

Performance-related crisis scenario:

Several months after that positive rating of Zara’s performance, a report came out claiming that Zara was caught by an undercover news agent using very low quality raw materials in their production. The materials are not necessarily harmful to humans, but they have a significant effect on the durability and the functionality of their products.

Do you think the incident is related to the quality of the company’s products/ Services?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

How would you rate the following after knowing about the use of low quality raw materials, with the consideration of Zara’s economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Values-related crisis scenario: Assume that the second report was instead claiming that Zara is taking advantage of the cheap child labour in most of their factories in some developing countries. They employ children as young as 12 years old to work for the brand in order to cut the cost of operation and generate more profit. Do you think the incident is related to the values of the company?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

After reading about Zara’s scandal of child labouring, how would you rate the following with the consideration of Zara’s economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					

The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					
---	--	--	--	--	--

The two crises incidents would change my views and perceptions about Zara

	Yes
	No

If yes, which scenario would have the greatest negative impact on your perception of the brand?

	Scenario 1 (the use of deficient materials)
	Scenario 2 (Child labouring)

Which one is your age group?

	18 to 29
	30 to 39
	40 to 49
	50 to 59
	60 to 69
	70 or above

Page 4

End of survey. Thank you very much for your contribution.

Questionnaire 3: Legal CSR

Page 1: Information sheet/ Consent form

Welcome, Please take time to read the information below carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or would like more clarification. Take time to decide whether or not to take part, then tick the boxes and click next, if any of the below boxes is not relevant to you, then please do not attempt the survey.

Please select at least 4 answer(s)	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am a British citizen
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am 18 years of age or above
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have read and understood the information below
<input type="checkbox"/>	I agree to participate in this research.

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Do I have to take part?

It is entirely voluntary to take part. If you decide to participate in this research, you may withdraw without giving a reason at any time during the questionnaire filling process, and within 7 days of submitting the questionnaire.

What will happen to me if I take part?

The procedure involves filling an online questionnaire that will take approximately 11 to 12 minutes of your time to complete. Your responses will be confidential and we do not collect identifying information such as your name, email address or IP address. The survey questions will be about the fashion brand Zara. The scale questions will test your perception of that brand. You will be introduced to two fictional scenarios in which Zara will be put in a different crisis situations and your perception will be tested again.

What will I have to do?

You only need to read the scenarios and answer the scale questions based on your own perception and fashion shopping patterns.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

The process is online and completely anonymous. No personal details will be collected; such as names or addresses. Though, all data collected will be stored in a password protected computer accessed only by the researcher. The data will only be used for academic purposes, and the results of this study may be shared with the supervisory team, The University of Northampton, and academic journals.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

We cannot promise the study will help you, but the information we get from the study will help to increase the understanding of crisis management and brand social responsibility practices.

What if there is a problem?

If you would like to address any queries or concerns about any aspect of this study, please do not hesitate to contact the researchers. Contact details are on the top of this page.

This survey has been designed around your awareness of Zara the fashion brand. Zara is one of the largest international fashion companies. It belongs to Inditex, one of the world’s largest distribution groups. In the UK, they operate with 71 stores across the country. **Are you familiar with this brand?**

	Yes
	No

Page 2

This questionnaire will first assess your current perception of Zara the fashion brand. You will then be introduced to three different scenarios; Zara’s high involvement in a positive CSR practice, Zara’s involvement in a performance-related crisis, and Zara’s involvement in a values-related crisis. Any change in your perception of the brand after reading the scenarios will be assessed.

How often do you shop at Zara? At least ...	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a month
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once every three months
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a year
<input type="checkbox"/>	Never

Part 1

Based on your own experience with Zara’s products and services, please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Page 3

You recently learned that Zara was rated as having the best legal record in the industry. This rating was given by a highly respected, impartial organization that evaluates companies every year. Some of the reasons for the high rating are that Zara has never broken the regulations of manufacturing, the use of raw materials, and tax duties.

Based on your perception after reading this credible report, how would you rate the following, please select:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand respects the law when carrying out its activities					
The product quality of this brand follows laws and regulations required by government and industry					
This brand performs in a manner consistent with expectations of the government and the law					

Part 2

In this part of the questionnaire, you will be introduced to two different crisis scenarios. It is highly important that you consider the two scenarios in isolation of each other, and assume that each crisis is a separate incident that hit after the positive economic CSR record had been published

Performance-related crisis scenario:

Several months after that positive rating of Zara’s performance, a report came out claiming that Zara was caught by an undercover news agent using very low quality raw materials in their production. The materials are not necessarily harmful to humans, but they have a significant effect on the durability and the functionality of their products.

Do you think the incident is related to the quality of the company’s products/ Services?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

How would you rate the following after knowing about the use of low quality raw materials, with the consideration of Zara’s economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Values-related crisis scenario: Assume that the second report was instead claiming that Zara is taking advantage of the cheap child labour in most of their factories in some developing countries. They employ children as young as 12 years old to work for the brand in order to cut the cost of operation and generate more profit. Do you think the incident is related to the values of the company?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

After reading about Zara’s scandal of child labouring, how would you rate the following with the consideration of Zara’s economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					

This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

The two crises incidents would change my views and perceptions about Zara

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

If yes, which scenario would have the greatest negative impact on your perception of the brand?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Scenario 1 (the use of deficient materials)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Scenario 2 (Child labouring)

Which one is your age group?

<input type="checkbox"/>	18 to 29
<input type="checkbox"/>	30 to 39
<input type="checkbox"/>	40 to 49
<input type="checkbox"/>	50 to 59
<input type="checkbox"/>	60 to 69
<input type="checkbox"/>	70 or above

Page 4

End of survey. Thank you very much for your contribution.

Questionnaire 4: Ethical CSR

Page 1: Information sheet/ Consent form

Welcome, Please take time to read the information below carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or would like more clarification. Take time to decide whether or not to take part, then tick the boxes and click next, if any of the below boxes is not relevant to you, then please do not attempt the survey.

Please select at least 4 answer(s)	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am a British citizen
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am 18 years of age or above
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have read and understood the information below
<input type="checkbox"/>	I agree to participate in this research.

Project Title: Impact of Brand Crises on Brand Image in the age of Corporate Social responsibility

Researcher: Maher Daboul – University of Northampton, Business School.

Purpose: Part of an academic course towards the award of doctorate of philosophy - PhD.

Contact address of researcher: Park Campus, Boughton Green Rd, Northampton NN2 7AL

Contact email address: maher.daboul@Northampton.ac.uk

Contact phone numbers: Monday to Friday 9:00 am – 3:00pm 01604 892527/
3:00pm – 6:00pm 07455157671

Supervisor contact details: Dr. Kathleen Mortimer, email:
Kathleen.Mortimer@northampton.ac.uk

The research purpose

The aim of this research is to investigate whether Corporate Social Responsibility would help brands to protect their brand image in the event of a crisis. This research targets fashion customers in the UK aged 18 and above. You have been chosen to take part in this research because we believe you fall within this category of population. Your participation will consist of filling up an online questionnaire.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely voluntary to take part. If you decide to participate in this research, you may withdraw without giving a reason at any time during the questionnaire filling process, and within 7 days of submitting the questionnaire.

What will happen to me if I take part?

The procedure involves filling an online questionnaire that will take approximately 11 to 12 minutes of your time to complete. Your responses will be confidential and we do not collect identifying information such as your name, email address or IP address. The survey questions will be about the fashion brand Zara. The scale questions will test your perception of that brand. You will be introduced to two fictional scenarios in which Zara will be put in a different crisis situations and your perception will be tested again.

What will I have to do?

You only need to read the scenarios and answer the scale questions based on your own perception and fashion shopping patterns.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

The process is online and completely anonymous. No personal details will be collected; such as names or addresses. Though, all data collected will be stored in a password protected computer accessed only by the researcher. The data will only be used for academic purposes, and the results of this study may be shared with the supervisory team, The University of Northampton, and academic journals.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

We cannot promise the study will help you, but the information we get from the study will help to increase the understanding of crisis management and brand social responsibility practices.

What if there is a problem?

If you would like to address any queries or concerns about any aspect of this study, please do not hesitate to contact the researchers. Contact details are on the top of this page.

This survey has been designed around your awareness of Zara the fashion brand. Zara is one of the largest international fashion companies. It belongs to Inditex, one of the world’s largest distribution groups. In the UK, they operate with 71 stores across the country. **Are you familiar with this brand?**

	Yes
	No

Page 2

This questionnaire will first assess your current perception of Zara the fashion brand. You will then be introduced to three different scenarios; Zara’s high involvement in a positive CSR practice, Zara’s involvement in a performance-related crisis, and Zara’s involvement in a values-related crisis. Any change in your perception of the brand after reading the scenarios will be assessed.

How often do you shop at Zara? At least ...	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a month
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once every three months
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a year
<input type="checkbox"/>	Never

Part 1

Based on your own experience with Zara’s products and services, please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Page 3

You recently learned that Zara was rated as having the best environmental record in the industry. This rating was given by a highly respected, impartial organization that evaluates companies every year. Some of the reasons for the high rating are that Zara’s factories pollute less than others in the industry, it uses a high percentage of recycled materials in manufacturing its shoes and clothes, and its factories have good programs to conserve water and energy.

Based on your perception after reading this credible report, how would you rate the following, please select:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand behaves ethically/honestly with its customers					
This brand is careful to respect and protect our natural environment					
Respecting ethical principles has priority over achieving superior economic performance for this brand					

Part 2

In this part of the questionnaire, you will be introduced to two different crisis scenarios. It is highly important that you consider the two scenarios in isolation of each other, and assume that each crisis is a separate incident that hit after the positive economic CSR record had been published

Performance-related crisis scenario:

Several months after that positive rating of Zara’s performance, a report came out claiming that Zara was caught by an undercover news agent using very low quality raw materials in their production. The materials are not necessarily harmful to humans, but they have a significant effect on the durability and the functionality of their products.

Do you think the incident is related to the quality of the company’s products/ Services?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

How would you rate the following after knowing about the use of low quality raw materials, with the consideration of Zara’s economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Values-related crisis scenario: Assume that the second report was instead claiming that Zara is taking advantage of the cheap child labour in most of their factories in some developing countries. They employ children as young as 12 years old to work for the brand in order to cut the cost of operation and generate more profit. Do you think the incident is related to the values of the company?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

After reading about Zara’s scandal of child labouring, how would you rate the following with the consideration of Zara’s economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					

The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					
---	--	--	--	--	--

The two crises incidents would change my views and perceptions about Zara

	Yes
	No

If yes, which scenario would have the greatest negative impact on your perception of the brand?

	Scenario 1 (the use of deficient materials)
	Scenario 2 (Child labouring)

Which one is your age group?

	18 to 29
	30 to 39
	40 to 49
	50 to 59
	60 to 69
	70 or above

Page 4

End of survey. Thank you very much for your contribution.

Questionnaire 5: Philanthropic CSR

Page 1: Information sheet/ Consent form

Welcome, Please take time to read the information below carefully. Ask questions if anything you read is not clear or would like more clarification. Take time to decide whether or not to take part, then tick the boxes and click next, if any of the below boxes is not relevant to you, then please do not attempt the survey.

Please select at least 4 answer(s)	
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am a British citizen
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am 18 years of age or above
<input type="checkbox"/>	I have read and understood the information below
<input type="checkbox"/>	I agree to participate in this research.

Project Title: Impact of Brand Crises on Brand Image in the age of Corporate Social responsibility

Researcher: Maher Daboul – University of Northampton, Business School.

Purpose: Part of an academic course towards the award of doctorate of philosophy - PhD.

Contact address of researcher: Park Campus, Boughton Green Rd, Northampton NN2 7AL

Contact email address: maher.daboul@Northampton.ac.uk

Contact phone numbers: Monday to Friday 9:00 am – 3:00pm 01604 892527/
3:00pm – 6:00pm 07455157671

Supervisor contact details: Dr. Kathleen Mortimer, email:
Kathleen.Mortimer@northampton.ac.uk

The research purpose

The aim of this research is to investigate whether Corporate Social Responsibility would help brands to protect their brand image in the event of a crisis. This research targets fashion customers in the UK aged 18 and above. You have been chosen to take part in this research because we believe you fall within this category of population. Your participation will consist of filling up an online questionnaire.

Do I have to take part?

It is entirely voluntary to take part. If you decide to participate in this research, you may withdraw without giving a reason at any time during the questionnaire filling process, and within 7 days of submitting the questionnaire.

What will happen to me if I take part?

The procedure involves filling an online questionnaire that will take approximately 11 to 12 minutes of your time to complete. Your responses will be confidential and we do not collect identifying information such as your name, email address or IP address. The survey questions will be about the fashion brand Zara. The scale questions will test your perception of that brand. You will be introduced to two fictional scenarios in which Zara will be put in a different crisis situations and your perception will be tested again.

What will I have to do?

You only need to read the scenarios and answer the scale questions based on your own perception and fashion shopping patterns.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

The process is online and completely anonymous. No personal details will be collected; such as names or addresses. Though, all data collected will be stored in a password protected computer accessed only by the researcher. The data will only be used for academic purposes, and the results of this study may be shared with the supervisory team, The University of Northampton, and academic journals.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

We cannot promise the study will help you, but the information we get from the study will help to increase the understanding of crisis management and brand social responsibility practices.

What if there is a problem?

If you would like to address any queries or concerns about any aspect of this study, please do not hesitate to contact the researchers. Contact details are on the top of this page.

This survey has been designed around your awareness of Zara the fashion brand. Zara is one of the largest international fashion companies. It belongs to Inditex, one of the world’s largest distribution groups. In the UK, they operate with 71 stores across the country. **Are you familiar with this brand?**

	Yes
	No

Page 2

This questionnaire will first assess your current perception of Zara the fashion brand. You will then be introduced to three different scenarios; Zara’s high involvement in a positive CSR practice, Zara’s involvement in a performance-related crisis, and Zara’s involvement in a values-related crisis. Any change in your perception of the brand after reading the scenarios will be assessed.

How often do you shop at Zara? At least ...	
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a month
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once every three months
<input type="checkbox"/>	Once a year
<input type="checkbox"/>	Never

Part 1

Based on your own experience with Zara’s products and services, please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Page 3

You recently heard that Zara was rated best in the industry on social responsibility. This rating was given by a highly respected, impartial organization that evaluates companies every year. Some of the reasons for the high rating are Zara’s donations to charity and social events are larger than others in the industry, it has programs to recognize employees for their volunteer work in the community, and it donates products it makes, such as shoes and clothing, to disaster victims or others in need.

Based on your perception after reading this credible report, how would you rate the following, please select:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand actively sponsors or finances social events (sport, music...)					
This brand directs part of its budget to donations and social works favouring the disadvantaged					
This brand is concerned to improve general well-being of society					

Part 2

In this part of the questionnaire, you will be introduced to two different crisis scenarios. It is highly important that you consider the two scenarios in isolation of each other, and assume that each crisis is a separate incident that hit after the positive economic CSR record had been published

Performance-related crisis scenario:

Several months after that positive rating of Zara’s performance, a report came out claiming that Zara was caught by an undercover news agent using very low quality raw materials in their production. The materials are not necessarily harmful to humans, but they have a significant effect on the durability and the functionality of their products.

Do you think the incident is related to the quality of the company’s products/ Services?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

How would you rate the following after knowing about the use of low quality raw materials, with the consideration of Zara's economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					
This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

Values-related crisis scenario: Assume that the second report was instead claiming that Zara is taking advantage of the cheap child labour in most of their factories in some developing countries. They employ children as young as 12 years old to work for the brand in order to cut the cost of operation and generate more profit. Do you think the incident is related to the values of the company?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

After reading about Zara's scandal of child labouring, how would you rate the following with the consideration of Zara's economic CSR record?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
This brand has consistent quality					
The products of this brand are well made					
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality					
This brand would help me feel acceptable					

This brand would improve the way I am perceived					
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people					

The two crises incidents would change my views and perceptions about Zara

<input type="checkbox"/>	Yes
<input type="checkbox"/>	No

If yes, which scenario would have the greatest negative impact on your perception of the brand?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Scenario 1 (the use of deficient materials)
<input type="checkbox"/>	Scenario 2 (Child labouring)

Which one is your age group?

<input type="checkbox"/>	18 to 29
<input type="checkbox"/>	30 to 39
<input type="checkbox"/>	40 to 49
<input type="checkbox"/>	50 to 59
<input type="checkbox"/>	60 to 69
<input type="checkbox"/>	70 or above

Page 4

End of survey. Thank you very much for your contribution.

Appendix B

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Maher Daboul, I am a post-graduate research student in the Northampton Business School. As part of my degree, I am working on a research which I would like to invite you to take part in by filling in an online questionnaire. The aim of the research is to investigate whether Corporate Social Responsibility would help brands to protect their brand image in the event of a crisis.

Although the study doesn't require any personal details, the researcher assures confidentiality and protection of all data collected. It will be kept securely at the University of Northampton. Participating is completely voluntary. The results of the study will be published or presented at academic meetings. Should you accept to take part, please click here (*link will be provided*) to be directed to the online questionnaire process, which also includes an information sheet and a consent form to read and confirm before filling in. The questionnaire will assess your perception of fashion brands in different situations through a (1 to 7) scale tool. Please allow 11 to 12 mins to complete the process, you have the right to withdraw at any time during the questionnaire filling, and within 7 days of submitting the questionnaire, this is due to the difficulties in deleting data that has already been inserted into the analysis process.

If you face any difficulties, or if you have any enquiries, please do not hesitate to contact me Monday – Friday 9am – 6pm (my contact details are at the bottom of this letter).

I really appreciate your co-operation, the success of the research depends on your participation.

Thank you very much for your time,

Kind Regards,

Maher Daboul,

NBS,
The University of Northampton,
Park Campus,
Boughton Green Road,
Northampton,
NN2 7AL,
Mobile: 074 551 57671
E-mail: Maher.daboul@northampton.ac.uk

Appendix C

Pilot study – SPSS analysis

Frequency Table

		Group			Cumulative
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Percent
Valid	Control	25	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Philanthropic	25	20.0	20.0	40.0
	Ethical	25	20.0	20.0	60.0
	Legal	25	20.0	20.0	80.0
	Economic	25	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	125	100.0	100.0	

Zara is one of the largest international fashion companies. It belongs to Inditex, one of the world's largest distribution groups. In the UK, they operate with 71 stores across the country.

How often do you shop at Zara?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative
					Percent
Valid	Once a month	56	44.8	44.8	44.8
	Once every three months	51	40.8	40.8	85.6
	Once a year	15	12.0	12.0	97.6
	Never	3	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	125	100.0	100.0	

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
This brand has consistent quality	125	100.0%	0	0.0%	125	100.0%
The products of this brand are well made	125	100.0%	0	0.0%	125	100.0%
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality	125	100.0%	0	0.0%	125	100.0%

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
This brand has consistent quality	Mean		4.32	.052
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.22	
		Upper Bound	4.42	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.36	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		.332	
	Std. Deviation		.576	
	Minimum		3	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		2	
	Interquartile Range		1	
	Skewness		-.156	.217
	Kurtosis		-.617	.430
	The products of this brand are well made	Mean		4.37
95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Lower Bound	4.27	
		Upper Bound	4.46	
5% Trimmed Mean			4.38	
Median			4.00	
Variance			.283	
Std. Deviation			.532	
Minimum			3	
Maximum			5	
Range			2	
Interquartile Range			1	
Skewness			.057	.217
Kurtosis			-.993	.430
This brand has an acceptable standard of quality		Mean		4.35
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.26	
		Upper Bound	4.45	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4.37	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		.294	
	Std. Deviation		.543	
	Minimum		3	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		2	
	Interquartile Range		1	

Skewness	.000	.217
Kurtosis	-.834	.430

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
This brand would help me feel acceptable	125	100.0%	0	0.0%	125	100.0%
This brand would improve the way I am perceived	125	100.0%	0	0.0%	125	100.0%
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people	125	100.0%	0	0.0%	125	100.0%

Descriptives

			Statistic	Std. Error
This brand would help me feel acceptable	Mean		3.90	.091
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.71	
		Upper Bound	4.08	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.94	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		1.046	
	Std. Deviation		1.023	
	Minimum		2	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		-.478	.217
	Kurtosis		-.932	.430
	This brand would improve the way I am perceived	Mean		3.86
95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Lower Bound	3.68	
		Upper Bound	4.05	
5% Trimmed Mean			3.90	
Median			4.00	
Variance			1.070	
Std. Deviation			1.034	

	Minimum		2	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		-.433	.217
	Kurtosis		-1.001	.430
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people	Mean		3.87	.092
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.69	
		Upper Bound	4.05	
	5% Trimmed Mean		3.91	
	Median		4.00	
	Variance		1.048	
	Std. Deviation		1.024	
	Minimum		2	
	Maximum		5	
	Range		3	
	Interquartile Range		2	
	Skewness		-.427	.217
	Kurtosis		-.988	.430

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
This brand would help me feel acceptable	.212	125	.000	.844	125	.000
This brand would improve the way I am perceived	.208	125	.000	.847	125	.000
The products of this brand would make a good impression on other people	.209	125	.000	.848	125	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Group * Zara is one of the largest international fashion companies. It belongs to Inditex, one of the world's largest distribution groups. In the UK, they operate with 71 stores across the country. How often do you shop at Zara?

		How often do you shop at Zara?				Total
		Once a month	Once every three months	Once a year	Never	
Group	Control	12	10	2	1	25
	Philanthropic	7	13	5	0	25
	Ethical	12	10	3	0	25
	Legal	12	10	2	1	25
	Economic	13	8	3	1	25
	Total	56	51	15	3	125

Appendix D

Main study – SPSS analysis

Age group

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 18 to 29	224	33.9	33.9	33.9
30 to 39	123	18.6	18.6	52.5
40 to 49	120	18.2	18.2	70.7
50 to 59	106	16.1	16.1	86.8
60 to 69	79	11.9	11.9	98.8
70 or above	8	1.2	1.2	100.0
Total	660	100.0	100.0	

Frequency of shopping at Zara

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Once a month	140	21.2	21.2	21.2
Once every three months	386	58.5	58.5	79.7
Once a year	110	16.7	16.7	96.4
Never	24	3.6	3.6	100.0
Total	660	100.0	100.0	

Reliability test of CSR scenarios measurements

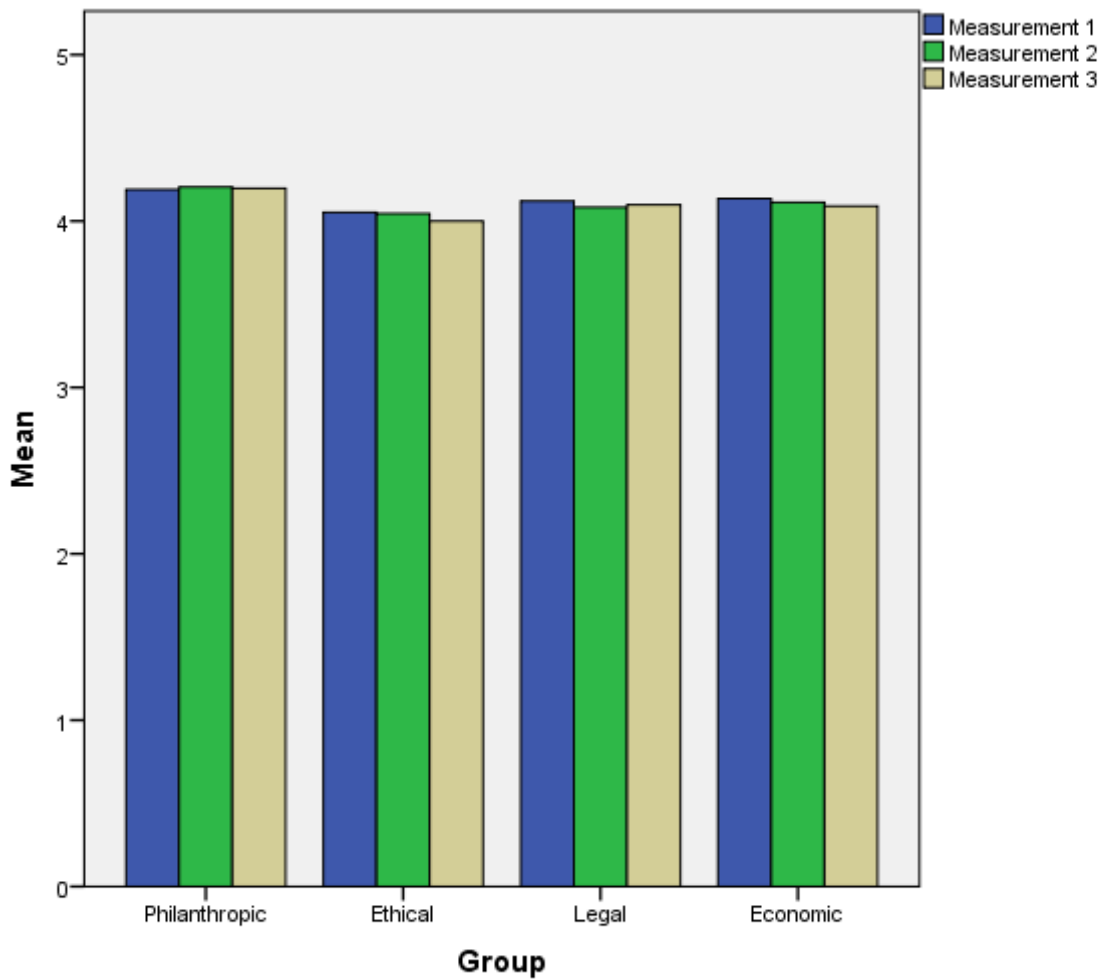
Group	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Philanthropic	.962	3
Ethical	.915	3
Legal	.901	3
Economic	.898	3

Summary of means; CSR scenarios measurements

Group	Mean
Philanthropic	
Measurement 1	4.19
Measurement 2	4.20
Measurement 3	4.20
Ethical	
Measurement 1	4.05
Measurement 2	4.05

	Measurement 3	4.00
Legal	Measurement 1	4.12
	Measurement 2	4.08
	Measurement 3	4.10
Economic	Measurement 1	4.14
	Measurement 2	4.11
	Measurement 3	4.09

Figure 2.2. Means of CSR measurement per CSR type.



Summary of scenario check responses

Performance-related crisis scenario item					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	648	98.2	98.6	98.6
	No	9	1.4	1.4	100.0
	Total	657	99.5	100.0	
Missing	0	3	.5		
Total		660	100.0		
Values-related crisis scenario item					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	654	99.1	99.4	99.4
	No	4	.6	.6	100.0
	Total	658	99.7	100.0	
Missing	0	2	.3		
Total		660	100.0		

Tests of Normality

Group		Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Control	Current_BI	.447	132	.000	.468	132	.000
Ethical	Current_BI	.402	132	.000	.627	132	.000
Philanthropic	Current_BI	.360	132	.000	.744	132	.000
Legal	Current_BI	.449	132	.000	.428	132	.000
Economic	Current_BI	.426	132	.000	.565	132	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Symbolic_Before	660	100.0%	0	0.0%	660	100.0%
Func_Before	660	100.0%	0	0.0%	660	100.0%

Descriptives

		Statistic	Std. Error	
Symbolic_Before	Mean	3.9914	.01840	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.9553	
		Upper Bound	4.0275	
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.0174		
	Median	4.0000		
	Variance	.223		
	Std. Deviation	.47258		
	Minimum	1.00		
	Maximum	5.00		
	Range	4.00		
	Interquartile Range	.00		
	Skewness	-1.672	.095	
	Kurtosis	9.655	.190	
Func_Before	Mean	4.0444	.01547	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4.0141	
		Upper Bound	4.0748	
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.0455		
	Median	4.0000		
	Variance	.158		
	Std. Deviation	.39732		
	Minimum	2.00		
	Maximum	5.00		
	Range	3.00		
	Interquartile Range	.00		
	Skewness	-.917	.095	
	Kurtosis	9.986	.190	

Tests of Normality

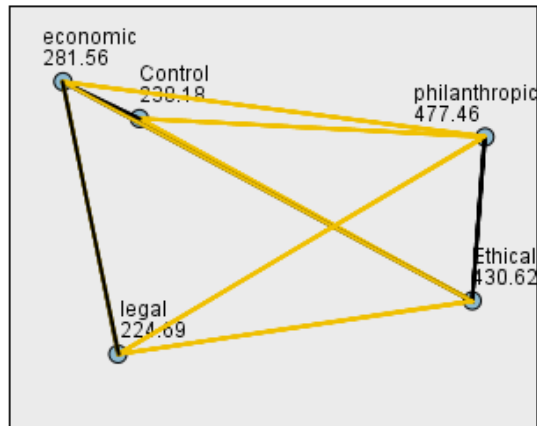
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Symbolic_Before	.435	660	.000	.531	660	.000
Func_Before	.448	660	.000	.468	660	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Differences between brand image before and after a performance-related crisis

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Cur_PC is the same across categories of Group.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.				

Pairwise Comparisons of Group



Each node shows the sample average rank of Group.

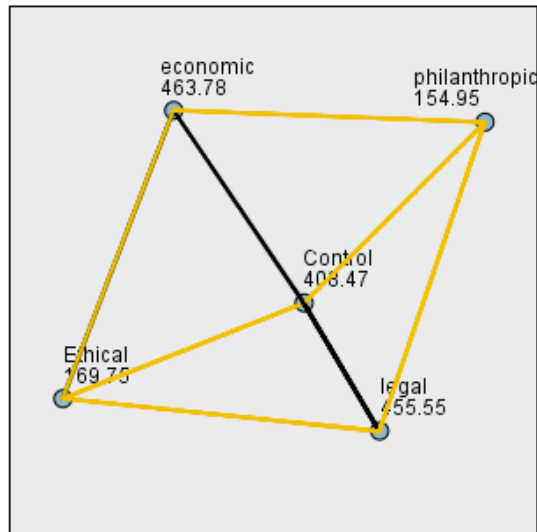
Sample1-Sample2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj.Sig.
legal-Control	13.489	22.830	.591	.555	1.000
legal-economic	-56.867	22.830	-2.491	.013	.127
legal-Ethical	205.928	22.830	9.020	.000	.000
legal-philanthropic	252.769	22.830	11.072	.000	.000
Control-economic	-43.379	22.830	-1.900	.057	.574
Control-Ethical	-192.439	22.830	-8.429	.000	.000
Control-philanthropic	-239.280	22.830	-10.481	.000	.000
economic-Ethical	149.061	22.830	6.529	.000	.000
economic-philanthropic	195.902	22.830	8.581	.000	.000
Ethical-philanthropic	-46.841	22.830	-2.052	.040	.402

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same. Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Differences between brand image before and after a values-related crisis

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Cur_VC is the same across categories of Group.	Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test	.000	Reject the null hypothesis.
Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.				

Pairwise Comparisons of Group



Each node shows the sample average rank of Group.

Sample1-Sample2	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj.Sig.
philanthropic-Ethical	14.799	22.320	.663	.507	1.000
philanthropic-Control	253.519	22.320	11.359	.000	.000
philanthropic-legal	-300.595	22.320	-13.468	.000	.000
philanthropic-economic	-308.833	22.320	-13.837	.000	.000
Ethical-Control	238.720	22.320	10.696	.000	.000
Ethical-legal	-285.795	22.320	-12.805	.000	.000
Ethical-economic	-294.034	22.320	-13.174	.000	.000
Control-legal	-47.076	22.320	-2.109	.035	.349
Control-economic	-55.314	22.320	-2.478	.013	.132
legal-economic	-8.239	22.320	-.369	.712	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same. Asymptotic significances (2-sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05.