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Consumer-green brand relationships: a conceptual framework and empirical analysis in Vietnam

Thi Be Loan Pham

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THÈSE

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Présentée par

Thi Be Loan PHAM

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préparée au sein du **Laboratoire Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches
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dans l'**École Doctorale Sciences de gestion (EDSG-275)**

Consumer-Green Brand Relationships: A Conceptual Framework and Empirical Analysis in Vietnam

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Consumer-Green Brand Relationships:

A Conceptual Framework and Empirical Analysis in Vietnam

ABSTRACT

This research contributes to the existing literature on consumer-brand relationships by developing a dynamic construct servicing as an alternative approach to studying social-environmental consumer intentions. It empirically validates a model of factors consisting of antecedents and consequences of two brand relationship quality (BRQ) components (Hot BRQ/Cold BRQ) based on three distinct sets of consumer values and two branches of social responsibility, which aims to synthesize findings on the drive of consumer-green brand relationships on consumers' purchase and advocacy intentions in Vietnam. An extensive literature review generated the conceptual model, validated by a sequential exploratory approach combining qualitative research through 20 in-depth interviews and quantitative research as the dominant approach with a questionnaire survey to collect data from a sample of 525 respondents. The results support that Hot and Cold BRQ components have varying influences on consumers' responses as a direct result of personal values, social values, culture and individual social responsibility. BRQ has direct and indirect influences on behavioral indicators of consumer perceptions of corporate social responsibility (CSR), willingness to pay a price premium, positive word-of-mouth and green purchase intentions, albeit with differing effects from both BRQ components. While hot BRQ tempts consumers to pay more for the brand and their perceptions of a company's CSR activities, cold BRQ engenders sharing of positive reviews. These findings corroborate previous endeavors and shed light on novel insights for managers of green product brands.

Keywords: Relationship marketing, Brand Relationship Quality, Values, Social responsibility, Green brands, Green purchases, Culture, Vietnam

Relations consommateurs-marques vertes: cadre conceptuel et analyse empirique au Vietnam

RÉSUMÉ

Cette recherche s'étend une littérature existante concerné aux relations consommateur-marque en développant une construction dynamique comme une approche alternative à l'étude des intentions sociales et environnementales des consommateurs. Plus précisément, cette thèse nous permet de valider ce modèle de facteurs qui consiste à d'antécédents et de conséquences de deux composants de la qualité de la relation à la marque (BRQ) (Hot BRQ / Cold BRQ) et basé sur trois ensembles distincts des valeurs de la consommation et deux branches de responsabilité sociale, qui vise à synthétiser résultats sur la dynamique des relations consommateur-marque verte sur les intentions de comportement des consommateurs au Vietnam. Une vaste revue de la littérature a généré le modèle conceptuel, validé par une approche séquentielle exploratoire combinant la recherche qualitative à travers des entretiens approfondis de 20 participants, et la recherche quantitative qui est une approche dominante avec une enquête auprès de 525 répondants. Les résultats nous permettent que les composants - hot BRQ et cold BRQ - ont des influences différentes sur les réponses des consommateurs en conséquence directe des valeurs personnelles, des valeurs sociales, de la culture et de la responsabilité sociale individuelle. BRQ a des influences directes et indirectes sur les indicateurs comportementaux qui sont la perception de la responsabilité sociale des entreprises (RSE) par les clients, la volonté de payer d'un prix premium, la propagation d'une bouche à oreille, et l'intention d'achat verte, bien qu'avec des effets différents des deux composantes du BRQ. Alors que le hot BRQ incite les consommateurs à payer plus pour la marque et leurs perceptions positives des activités de RSE d'une entreprise, le cold BRQ stimulait la propagation une bouche à oreille positif. Ces résultats corroborent les efforts précédents et mettent en lumière de nouvelles idées pour les gestionnaires de marques de produits vertes.

Mots-clés: Marketing relationnel, Qualité de la relation à la marque, Valeurs, Responsabilité sociale, Marque verte, Achats verts, Culture, Vietnam

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BRQ	Brand Relationship Quality
BRS	Brand relationship score
BPI	Brand Purchase Intention
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CSA	Covariance Structure Analysis
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CR	Construct (Composite) Reliability
GoF	Goodness of Fit
ISR	Individual Social Responsibility
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SMI-Q	Self-Importance of Moral Identity Questionnaire
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
TBL	The triple-bottom-line theory
PLS	Partial Least Squares
RQ	Relationship Quality
WOM	Word-of-mouth
WTP	Willingness to pay
WTPP	Willingness to pay a price premium

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Section 1. Relevance of the study

Growing awareness about human health and global environmental challenges, including global warming, energy security, and resource scarcity, exposes an emphasis on minimizing the human ecological footprint by shifting to more sustainable consumption as well as an expectation of developing a green market trend (Kotler, 2011; Žabkar et al., 2018). The current marketplace that has considerably affected growth in revenue streams for businesses is consumers' support for green products promoted as environmentally friendly and consumers' consumption in such green brands (Lin et al., 2017a; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2019). Green brands offer specific value to their customers. They provide a set of motivations stemming from environmental designs, performances, and altruistic nature, which aims to reinforce supportive consumer behavior towards the green brand (Ahmad and Thyagaraj, 2015).

Indeed, the growing popularity of green products has recently become a significant trend and is expected to be a substantial development in consumption. Leonidou and Skarmeas (2017) argued that the value of the global green market has significantly increased in just four years, rising from \$209 billion (USD) in 2011 to \$845 billion in 2015. This market is estimated to be valued at over \$36 billion in 2019 and set to grow to \$54 billion by 2027 (Future Market Insights, 2018)¹. The survey of over 6,000 consumers in 11 countries across North America, Europe, and Asia, carried out by Accenture in 2019², found that 72% of respondents have currently bought more environmental-friendly products than five years ago. Also, the demand for eco-friendly products that benefit the environment by reducing waste, reducing water use, and reducing energy use has been growing as 81% of respondents plan to buy more eco-friendly products over the next five years.

Undoubtedly, the increasing demand for cosmetic products is an essential driving factor in the market. Consumers have been spending more annual disposable income on buying cosmetics than they had in the past³. The cosmetic products market's growth is associated with changing beauty product use trends and increasing consciousness about appearance. In addition, consumer demand in emerging economies worldwide, varying climatic conditions, and

¹ <https://www.futuremarketinsights.com/reports/natural-cosmetics-market>

² https://www.accenture.com/_acnmedia/PDF-107/Accenture-Chemicals-Circular-Economy-Growth.pdf

³ <https://www.statista.com/statistics/297070/growth-rate-of-the-global-cosmetics-market/>

changing lifestyles are all encouraging the cosmetic market's growth⁴.

The chart below (Figure 1) shows the annual growth rate of the global cosmetics market from 2004 to 2019. In 2019, the global cosmetics market grew by an estimated 5.5 percent compared to the sales of 2004.

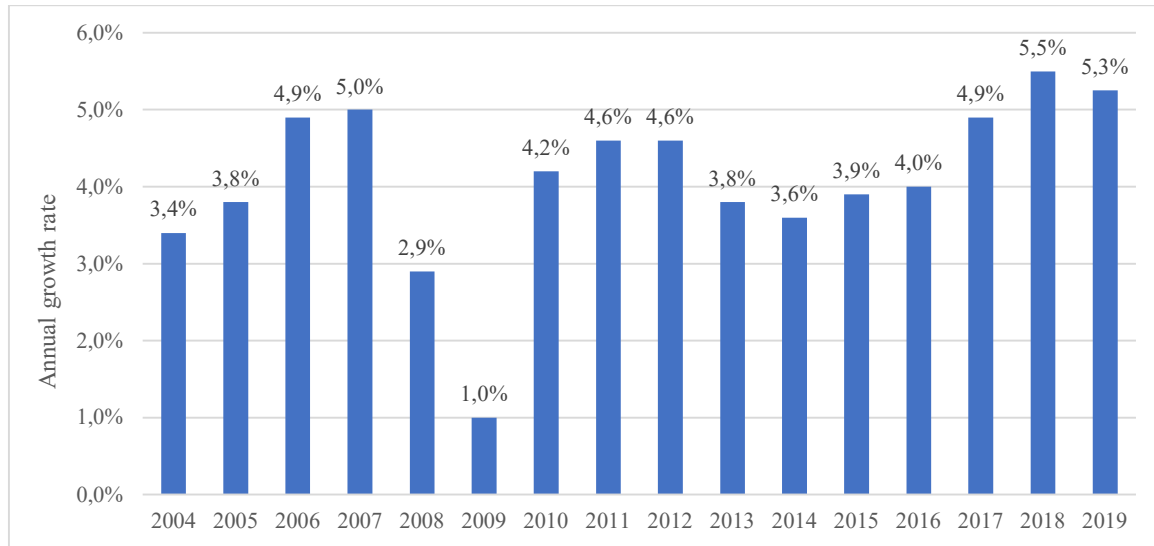


Figure 1. The growth rate of the global cosmetics market 2004-2019

Source: Statista, Inc. (2020)

In 2018, the beauty and personal care market of the Asia-Pacific region (APAC) grew by more than 30% over the preceding four years and was expected to reach around \$192 billion by 2021⁵. In 2018, the size of the Asia Pacific's cosmetics market was approximately \$120 billion and was forecasted to be worth about \$129 billion by 2020⁶. Some Asian countries such as China, Japan, and Korea were the leading cosmetics markets, followed by Vietnam catching up rapidly. Several factors can be attributed to the increasing size of the cosmetics markets in the Asia Pacific region. First, this growth is the consequence of the growing middle class in countries such as China, Indonesia, and Vietnam. Second, awareness of health, wellness, and beauty is expanding. Within the Asia region, Vietnam is a healthy market with a high growth rate. As consumer demand has been growing, Vietnam has become a promising and highly competitive market for cosmetics manufacturers and is now home to the largest number of beauty specialist retailers compared to its neighboring countries⁷.

⁴ <https://www.alliedmarketresearch.com/cosmetics-market>

⁵ <https://www.statista.com/statistics/550547/cosmetic-market-size-asia-pacific/>

⁶ <https://www.alliedmarketresearch.com/press-release/asia-pacific-cosmetics-market.html>

⁷ <https://www.statista.com/topics/5335/cosmetics-market-in-vietnam/>

Meanwhile, the demand for natural cosmetics has also significantly grown. The global market value for natural cosmetics is predicted to see a positive increase from almost \$34.5 billion in 2018 to roughly \$54.5 billion in 2027⁸. These figures present the growth of the natural cosmetics market. Additionally, the natural cosmetics products market size has the potential to grow by \$3.2 billion during 2020-2024. While Europe led the natural cosmetics market in 2018 with a market value of \$13.06 billion and is projected to continue leading over the next few years, Asia Pacific, due to the growing millennial population, increased exposure to and demand for natural beauty products, is also expected to drive the demand globally over the forecasted period⁶.

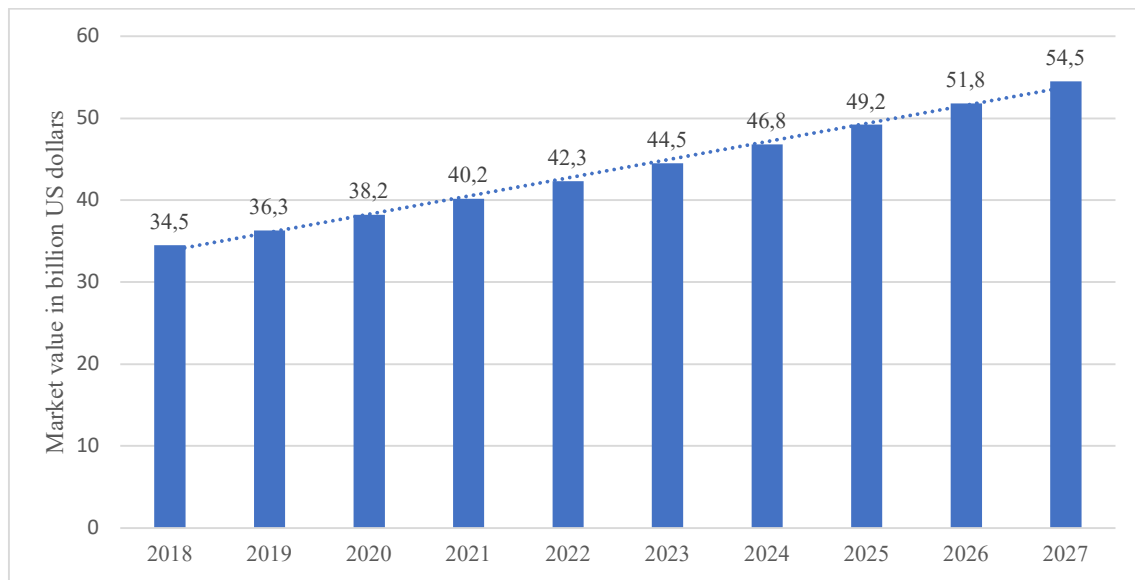


Figure 2. Global market value for natural and organic cosmetics from 2018 to 2027

Source: Statista, Inc. (2020)

Green products were previously questioned or dismissed; however, consumers have become increasingly curious about green cosmetics products' potential benefits. The growing preference for green cosmetics is a significant factor contributing to the global green cosmetic market's growth. Several driving forces behind this market trend can be identified:

First, consumer awareness of natural ingredients used to produce green products and green cosmetic products is growing⁹. Consumers are opting for chemical-free cosmetic products such as organic/natural cosmetics, which are formulated using naturally occurring ingredients, as chemical cosmetic products contain synthetic ingredients carrying the potential for user side-

⁸ <https://www.statista.com/statistics/673641/global-market-value-for-natural-cosmetics/>

⁹ <https://www.statista.com/statistics/673641/global-market-value-for-natural-cosmetics/>

effects. Green cosmetics contain nutritional ingredients, such as vitamins, aloe, and other essential oils, which have increased the adoption of natural cosmetics. Consistent with a report published by Grand View Research, Inc. (2019)¹⁰, the demand for natural cosmetic products is gaining a boost towards chemical-free makeup and natural solutions based on shifting consumer perceptions around natural ingredients in cosmetics.

Second, higher levels of awareness are driving health-conscious people to pay closer attention to their purchasing choices. As a result, consumers are becoming more discerning about the products they apply to their skin. The products targeting this market segment are free of a wide range of chemicals regularly used in other beauty products and free of microplastics and animal-derived ingredients⁸. Consumers perceive green cosmetic products to be safe and are expected to increase their spending mainly on health and well-being.

Third, the population's focus on social consciousness is increasing. Buying such green products is more prevalent than it has ever been before¹¹, particularly as environmental awareness is becoming mainstream among millennials and the younger generation. Also, the development of social media plays a key role in transforming consumer demand. Green products trend more quickly and widely, particularly when celebrities and influencers publish posts urging their followers to become more environmentally-friendly and health-conscious consumers.

Last, consumer awareness of environmental issues and sustainable development in their lives is increasing. It would be a disservice to consumers' intelligence to claim that the move towards green products is only down to celebrity influence or peer pressure. Instead, the green cosmetics trend results from global changes and a new form of consumerism, based on the principles of consumer awareness and caring about people and the planet¹¹. Consumers aspire that their purchases be not only good for the community but also for the environment.

Briefly, there is a growing shift towards green cosmetics that boosts market growth since such products provide organic alternatives containing natural ingredients. Growing awareness of the benefits of consuming green products is also the key factor driving the rising demand for green cosmetics. Consumers have been gradually shifting from conventional cosmetics to natural cosmetics claimed to be free from synthetic chemicals or potentially harmful substances that affect human health. Brands adopting green cosmetics feature elements such as eco-friendly packaging and no animal-derived ingredients. Also, the growth of this market trend has a

¹⁰ <https://www.grandviewresearch.com/industry-analysis/natural-cosmetics-market>

¹¹ <https://staging2.beautybusinessjournal.com/the-organic-cosmetics-market-is-growing-naturally/>

positive impact on global perceptions of the beauty industry on environmental issues and consumer well-being since green products benefit the environment and sustainable development. Thus, green cosmetics motivate consumers to become more socially conscious.

Due to the ongoing trend toward green products, the cosmetics industry has invested significantly more in research and development to boost their green products and cater to changing consumer preferences. Thus, firms have increasingly attempted to respond by investing significant resources in developing environmentally-friendly products (Olsen et al., 2014) and emphasizing the relevance of research to provide insight on consumers' internal motivations for green purchase intention.

Marketing researchers and practitioners have increasingly recognized brands' role as one of the most valuable and strategic resources of firms (Keller and Lehmann 2006); thus, branding has evolved as a top management priority. Relationship marketing dominates contemporary marketing's theory (Sheth and Parvatiyar, 2000), in which the brand is an intermediary to build long-lasting relationships with consumers. Further, observing such essential green market specificities, this research has focused on consumer behavior intention and customer-brand relationship quality in the specific context of green cosmetic brands. As a better relationship quality leads to stronger customer purchase intentions (De Cannière, De Pelsmacker, and Geuens, 2010), wherein green behavior intentions are an implied outcome of healthy consumer-brand relationships which can lead to greater loyalty to green brands (Wieseke, Geigenmuller, and Kraus, 2012).

Section 2. Rationale of the study and research gaps

There is no doubt that the increasingly high demand for beauty products, coupled with the rising awareness about environment-friendly products and the harmful impacts of synthetic chemicals, is expected to drive growth. Also, rising consumer understanding of the side effects of ingredients contained in cosmetics on both human health and the environment is compelling manufacturers to introduce green cosmetics. The growing demand for natural and organic products is encouraging new manufacturers to enter the market. In response, various manufacturers are acknowledging the wide-ranging and relevant consumer concerns by concentrating on natural cosmetics launches to gain larger market shares.

According to Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006, the factors making a product "become green" are that:

- "(1) *non-toxic for nature (Product which preserves natural resources, be made of recycling*

content, be made with natural or organic ingredients, non-toxic for nature, without petroleum, phosphate, ammonia);

- (2) good for health (e.g., "Product non-toxic towards health");

- (3) socially responsible (e.g., "Product made locally");

- (4) good for the planet (e.g., "Product with minor impact on the environment")"

Green cosmetics are produced from agricultural ingredients without pesticides, synthetic fertilizers, sewage sludge, genetically modified organisms, or ionizing radiation (Ghazali et al., 2017), or ingredients derived from dead animals (Salo et al., 2014). They are manufactured with approved methods integrating cultural, biological, and mechanical practices. Besides, these methods foster the recycling of resources, promote ecological balance, conserve biodiversity (Salo et al., 2014) and not test in animals. Green cosmetics include a large variety of skincare, haircare, makeup products, fragrances consisting of shampoos, shower gel, body lotions, creams, lipsticks, and essential oils, among others ...

The development of the consumer–green brand relationship is an arduous commission because of the complexities of the green sector (Papista and Dimitriadis, 2019). Consumers are prevented from purchasing green products by barriers relating to augmented prices, spending time to evaluate and search for the product (Gleim et al., 2013), which leads closely to inaction (Johnstone and Tan, 2015). Consumers are skeptical about the corporates' motivation for greening and products' environmental performance, which deters them from new or repeat green purchases (Leonidou and Skarmeas, 2017). These context-specifics generate the necessity of identifying factors that can affect green consumption and present a general framework for green consumption (Groening et al., 2018; He et al., 2015). The increasing market penetration of green products has shifted to focus on the construction of a sustainable and robust relationship between the consumer and the green brand that requires a shift from the concept of the green product to the green brand, entailing a specific set of attributes and benefits related to the product's reduced environmental impact (Hartmann et al., 2005; Lin et al., 2017b).

Furthermore, marketing scholars have also emphasized the need for establishing a strong relationship between consumers and their chosen brands because of its essential role in making a business profitable (Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel, 2004; Woodside and Walser, 2007); that is based on Fournier's (1998) comprehensive model of brand relationship quality (BRQ). BRQ is described as "a customer-based indicator expressing the strength and depth of relationship of

the person-brand relationship" (Fournier, 1998), and is conceptualized along with two different components: a hot component centered on emotions and a cold component formed through object-relevant beliefs (Nyffenegger, Krohmer, Hoyer, and Malaer., 2015). The first component of BRQ (hot BRQ) has been defined as "the strength and intensity of a consumer's personal connection and closeness with a brand based on the positive feelings the consumer develops for that brand" (Nyffenegger et al., 2015; Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006). Cold BRQ, as the second component of BRQ, illustrates "the strength and depth of a consumer's beliefs in and evaluations of the brand's performance" (Nyffenegger et al., 2015)

Scholarly works on pro-environmental behaviors have primarily investigated conscious aspects (health consciousness, environmental cognition) and abstract-level attitudes (attitudes towards the environment) (Chen and Chai, 2010; Choi and Johnson, 2019; Hsu, Chang, and Lin, 2016). However, there is a lack of empirical and theoretical studies on how consumer-brand relationships affect consumers' purchase and advocacy intentions for a green brand (Papista, Chrysochou, Krystallis, and Dimitriadis., 2018). Since the early introduction of the consumer-brand relationship referring to interactions between the consumer and the brand was presented by Fournier (1994), this multifaceted relationship has given profound suggestions for comprehending consumer behaviors in academics and practitioners (Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2001). Consumers expect to be understood in what they demand in terms of brand relationships and then be responded to appropriately, which leads to a consideration of managing brand relationships as one of the most effective marketing tools (Avery, Fournier and Wittenbraker 2014). Consistent with Fournier (1994, 1998), a brand relationship is an essential part of consumers' lives since brand relationships involve and range across several expectations and evolve over a series of interactions and contextual changes. Additionally, the successful theoretical background of a brand relationship allows researchers to conceptualize and examine the bonds between consumers and brands, then enhance knowledge about interactions of brands with consumers behaviors to illuminate how marketers can encourage and uphold a strong brand relationship as well as secure sustainable competitive advantages (Gummesson 2011).

Moreover, one of the most influential theories answering differences from motivation in a purchase is the theory of consumption value developed by Sheth and Parvatiyar (1995), focusing on the consumption values that explain "why consumers choose to buy or not to buy (or use or not use) a specific product, and "why consumers choose one product type over another." Similarly, values can differentially influence customer loyalty to a brand expressing "why they choose this brand over another." The role of values in the development of

environmental behaviors needs to be considered since values are an incredibly momentous factor that guides the consumer behavior in the context of environmental behavior (Kilbourne and Pickett, 2008).

Consumer–brand relationships are complicated, leading to challenges for managing brand relationships. Besides, the existing literature on BR's measurement reveals significant gaps that still exist in both conceptual and empirical approaches (Fournier 1994). While earlier studies have considered various antecedents for BRQ such as brand equity, brand perceived quality, and brand extensions (Japutra, Ekinci, Simkin, and Nguyen, 2018; Keller, 1993; K. Kim, Park, and J. Kim, 2014), Yeh, Wang, and Yieh (2016) have shown a positive impact of consumer values and consumer-brand identification on brand loyalty where consumers with strong emotional values, functional and social attributes, as well as positive brand identification, can develop loyalty to the brand. Values are generally understood as stable constructs that are not easily changed, even if considerable effort is invested (Schwartz, 2012). As a result, values can serve as better predictors of behavior over extended periods; therefore, values are fundamental constructs for understanding and reaching consumers.

Moreover, Papista et al. (2018) indicate that consumer values directly affect relationship quality and loyalty to the green brand. The question relating to the linkage of consumer values and consumer-brand relationship quality in the green brand context remains unanswered. Therefore, this research examines various aspects of BRQ in the context of green brands regarding consumers' implicit values transcending specific situations and guiding evaluations of behavior in shaping preferences and evaluative judgments (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987).

Over the last two decades, society's demands to be more socially responsible are becoming increasingly relevant, which results in global warming attributed to industrial manufacturing activities and daily human lives (Chen, 2011). Responding to such demands, communities over the past 20 years or so, especially in developing countries and emerging economies, have become gradually more aware of unsustainable consumption and social welfare problems leading to preserving environmental sustainability behavior. Consequently, the phenomenon of green behavior has been prominent as perceptions of social responsibility that emphasize the effort of individuals and corporations (Carroll and Shabana, 2010; Malik, 2015). Furthermore, prior research has also presented social responsibility involving two branches: individual social responsibility (ISR) and corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Galaskiewicz 1991; McGee 1998; Drom 2015), with each focusing on their own niche. Individuals engage in socially responsible behaviors to acknowledge their perceptions of what they should be doing to benefit

society's well-being, whereas corporations place on the individual perceptions of their roles in society as a whole. ISR relates to moral individuals who desire to engage in social responsibility in their actions and make society a better place (Skubinn and Herzog, 2016). Thus, ISR may lead to a positive attitude towards green brands. Whereas CSR in this study is considered as "Consumer perceptions of CSR" and "individual perceptions of the role corporations." Consumers prefer to think of themselves as a green consumer, and then, they may associate CSR with a green product/green brand.

Moreover, the increasing pressures from various stakeholders on humanity and the natural environment have persuaded businesses to change their ways and become more involved in socially responsible issues. Companies, therefore, need to consider both their financial welfare and the impact of their business practices on the environment (Elkington 1997). The literature ultimately emphasizes the importance of CSR, but a little attention to the assistance of social responsibility research at the individual level in achieving long-term growth and taking advantage to gain business sustainability is required. This gap was noted by Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, and Ganapathi (2007); also, Aguinis and Glavas (2012) did a review of CSR via a meta-analysis and found only 4% of articles focused on the individual-level analysis.

A strong consensus is also documented in social responsibility's influence on consumer behavior in the green product context. However, little attention is paid to the relationship between ISR, consumer perceptions of CSR, and BRQ; thus, these two facets of social responsibility are of interest in this study.

Although many studies documented CSR's effect on BRQ, little is known on how BRQ reacts to consumer perceptions of CSR in theory. Indeed, customer interactions with the perception of CSR today have changed because of suspicions of firms' motivations to do CSR activities (Bondy et al., 2012; Rivoli and Waddock, 2011). Consequently, it is also possible to argue for the reverse causal effect of BRQ on customers' perceived CSR, which has been neglected so far.

Furthermore, existing studies have found that BRQ also plays a vital role in commercial success since it drives consumer responses to a brand in terms of paying a price premium or the willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP) as well as word-of-mouth (WOM) (Nyffenegger et al., 2015) and purchase intention. Meanwhile, a separate but growing body of literature has highlighted the critical role of a strong BRQ in profitability. This research examines the influences of BRQ on consumer responses to a green brand, which has hitherto been largely

ignored. To the extent that green behavior intentions are an implied outcome of healthy consumer-brand relationships, consumers may demonstrate greater loyalty to green brands (Wieseke, Geigenmuller, and Kraus, 2012).

Section 3. Research objectives and Research questions

The significance of the research and the gaps identified in existing studies together present an opportunity to investigate consumer-brand relationship quality in the green brand context. This is central to establishing a strong relationship between customers and a green brand, and to then deduce more meaningful consumer green purchase intention factors.

The research's overall purpose is to extend the existing consumer-brand relationship quality literature to the green brand context by developing and examining empirically a specific causal model consisting of antecedents and consequences of consumer-green brand relationship quality. Specifically, this study contributes to the knowledge of existing consumer-brand relationship quality through the relevance of various antecedents and the consequences of two components of BRQ (Hot and Cold BRQ) in the context of green brands.

This research focuses on two main objectives:

Objective 1: Investigating the antecedents of two components of BRQ in the green brand context.

The first objective is to define some variables that affect BRQ towards green brands. Based on the arguments discussed above, the research addresses the critical issue of consumer values and ISR in the green brand context; thus, two sub-objectives are proposed:

Sub-objective 1a: Examining the impacts of consumer values on hot and cold BRQ in the context of green brands.

Sub-objective 1b: Determining the role of ISR on hot and cold BRQ in the context of green brands.

Objective 2: Investigating the consequences of two components of BRQ in the green brand context.

The second objective is to study the relationships of BRQ with its consequences, such as consumer perceptions of CSR and consumer behavior intention in terms of willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP), word-of-mouth (WOM), and brand purchase intention. Significantly,

this research proposes an integrative relationship quality framework to measure consumer behavior intention. Hence, two further sub-objectives are proposed:

Sub-objective 2a: Determining the role of consumer-brand relationship quality on consumer perceptions of CSR in the context of green brands

Sub-objective 2b: Examining the impacts of consumer-brand relationship quality on consumer green relational behavior.

Based on these objectives, the following research questions are formulated:

RQ1: How are consumer-brand relationships built and developed in the green brand context?

RQ2: How do consumer-brand relationships encourage supportive consumer behavior intention towards green brands?

Section 4. Research contributions

By addressing these objectives and research questions, this dissertation makes several contributions to theory and practice.

1. Theoretical Contributions

With respect to theory, this research first contributes to knowledge by enriching BRQ literature. It feeds into brand relationship marketing works by extending the understanding of relationship reinforcement. This research also contributes to the literature on the measurement of BRQ roles by identifying and examining two dimensions – hot and cold BRQ in building relationships.

Second, the study of motivations to develop consumer-brand relationships taps into consumer behavior research. In other words, the consumer-brand relationship knowledge offers increased insight into the relations between brands and consumers to clarify the influence of the consumer-brand relationship on consumer relational behavior.

Third, another theoretical contribution is the study of the relationship at the given specific category of product – green products, green cosmetics, and green brands, since the presence of a positive brand relationship with green products and its impact on purchase decisions for green cosmetics has not been widely investigated within the domain of green marketing. Thus, this study contributes to adopting the existing consumer-brand relationship quality literature to the green brand context.

Fourth, the dissertation proposes a model of factors affecting the sustainable relationships

between consumers and green brands, which would provide academics with a more differentiated view on the various antecedents of two components of BRQ (hot and cold BRQ); precisely customer values and ISR.

Fifth, the research delves deeper into understanding the consequences of both BRQ components for consumer responses to green products. Notably, it specifies the different relative effects of hot versus cold BRQ on the indicators of consumers' perceived CSR and consumer behavior intention in the context of green brands.

Lastly, this dissertation contributes to empirically examining green brand purchase intentions with a new causal research model representing organizational growth through different business strategies.

2. Practical contributions

Concerning practice, this dissertation provides some guidelines on constructing and strengthening the bond between consumers and green brands.

First, this study provides rigorous answers about the extent to which companies manage strong brand relationships with their customers, based on the results of examining the effects of the antecedents of hot and cold BRQ on green brand purchase intention in an emerging market. In other words, this study allows marketers to determine what aspects of brand relationship strength firms should focus on to build strong consumer-brand relationships and, ultimately, positive behavior toward the brand. Specifically, this research offers insights to the manager on how consumer values and ISR interact with green brands. The results provide insights for businesses on the implementation of consumer-brand relationship development and the maintenance of good relationships.

Second, the dissertation advances understanding of how strong consumer-brand relationship quality encourages consumers' perceived CSR and consumer behavior intention towards green brands. The findings help businesses to comprehend consumer responses to green brands and act as a reference to better understand complex consumer purchase behavior and formulate alternative policies.

Section 5. Delimitation of the research scope

The scope of this study was delimited in two aspects. First, it focused on the relationship

between consumer and green brand in a specific product category – green cosmetics. Second, it was restricted to Vietnam, an emerging and transitional market in Asia, as the research site for observation and empirical testing.

Section 6. Dissertation Structure

After a general introduction highlights the study's importance and rationale associated with research gaps, research objectives, justification of the research's contributions, and delimitation of scope, this dissertation is composed of six chapters.

Part 1 presents a theoretical approach of this research that offers a general overview of BRQ, its antecedents and consequences, comprising Chapter 1 and Chapter 2, respectively. Chapter 1 introduces consumer-brand relationship, BRQ and approaches to assessing these, particularly the crucial dimensions of BRQ such as satisfaction, trust and commitment. Chapter 1 also focuses on comprehensive discussions into two components of BRQ (Hot and Cold BRQ) that present the role of BRQ in emotions and cognitions aspects as two components based on a distinction between “hot” and “cold” attitudes in the context of green brands. Chapter 2 concentrates on the relevant literature of antecedents and consequences of BRQ, including consumer values, social responsibility, and consumer behavior intention.

Chapter 3 presents a theoretical model integrating BRQ, cultural values, personal values, social values, together with two branches of social responsibility, consumer behavior intention in terms of WTPP, WOM and brand purchase intention. As well as the model, the chapter ends with the hypothesized relationships among these primary constructs, which are derived from the model in accordance with established research questions and the justifications for them.

Part 2 presents an empirical approach of this research. Chapter 4 provides explanations for research methodology selection together with a clear and detailed qualitative and quantitative studies. Within this chapter, the design and empirical context of the research are introduced. The qualitative phase of the study concerning procedures, purposeful sampling and participants, and the interviewing process is presented, and then the quantitative phase of the study, including its six sections: the constructs and their measurement scales; questionnaire design; measures to tackle the issue of common method bias; data collection; and data analysis.

Chapter 5 represents the structure model analyses, including quantitative results and analyses of data collected from the survey. The chapter provides details of the validation of ten constructs' measurement scales using Joreskog's ρ and average variance extracted (AVE).

The chapter conveys the results of testing the theoretical model and hypotheses described in Chapter 3, using PLS-SEM in support of XLSTAT software. This chapter ends with a summary of the hypotheses results.

The final chapter, Chapter 6, provides a general discussion of key research findings and the conclusions drawn in conjunction with previous studies, theoretical contributions, and managerial implications are outlined. The results are discussed in detail, outlining the practical significance and application of the findings. The dissertation findings add to some of the ongoing debates within their substantive domains. Finally, the chapter concludes with limitations and suggestions for further research.

The general framework of this research is represented in Figure 3 below.

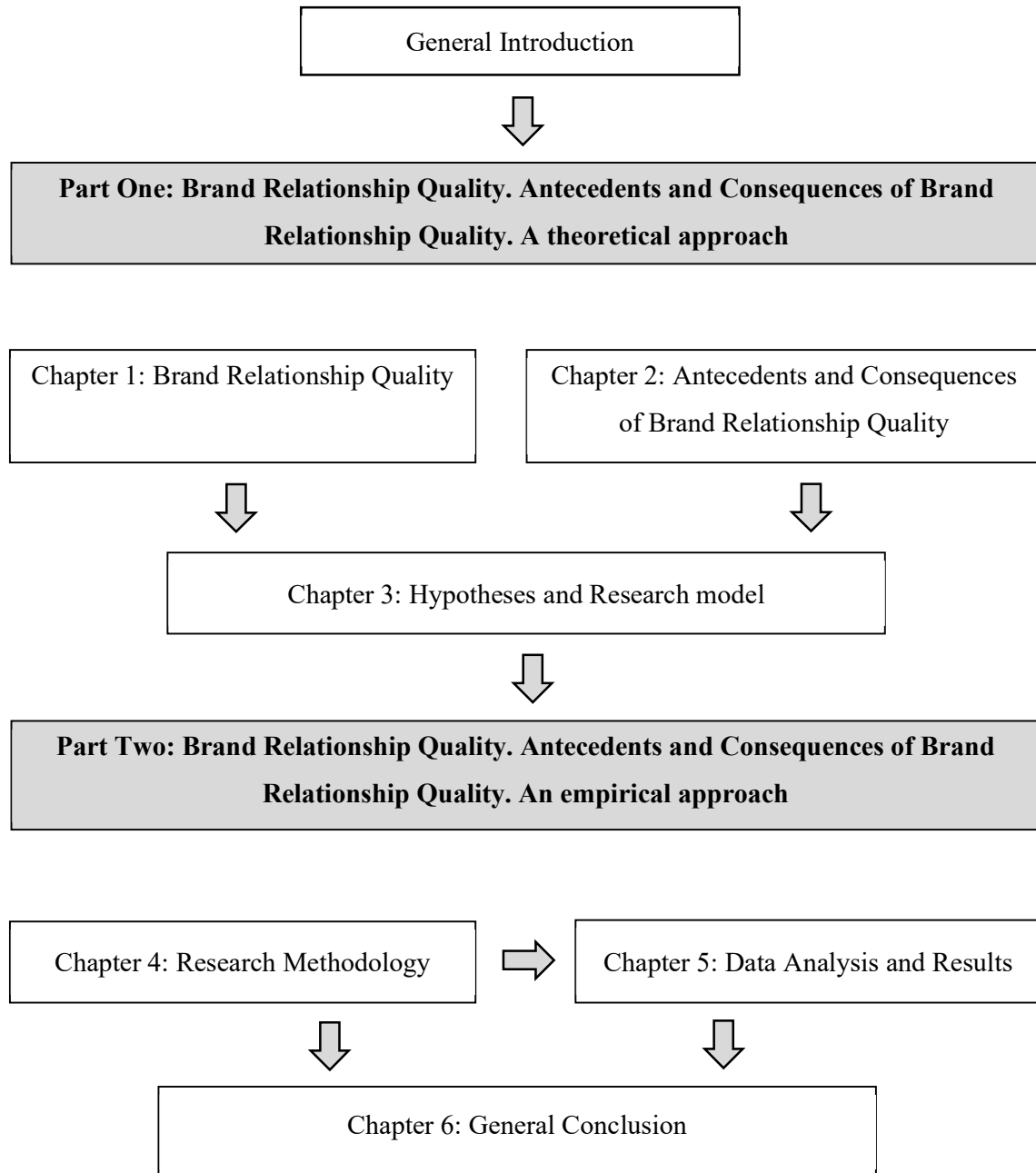


Figure 3. The general framework of dissertation

**PART ONE - BRAND RELATIONSHIP QUALITY.
ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF BRAND
RELATIONSHIP QUALITY. A THEORETICAL APPROACH**

This part outlines the overview of the existing literature related to the studied constructs, including the essential concepts of BRQ, antecedents, and consequences of BRQ.

This part starts by focusing on a review of the literature on relationship marketing theory showing that relationship marketing places at its core interactions between consumers and brands. Advanced research in the concept of BRQ proposed by Fournier (1998) was argued by Nyffenegger et al. (2015) to expand to two components of BRQ, namely hot and cold BRQ.

This part aims to provide the shortcomings in the existing literature of considered variables that are studied as antecedents and consequences variables of hot and cold BRQ. Besides, this part guides the consolidation of separate theoretical models and justification for selecting the independent antecedents and consequences of hot and cold BRQ and outcome constructs. Thus, a conceptual model of relations between consumer values, social responsibility, two components of BRQ, and consumer behavior intention is proposed.

The first part also shows the statement of research hypotheses by examining the literature of hot versus cold BRQ and their antecedents as well as consequences.

The first part of this dissertation includes three chapters:

Chapter 1 handles the literature regarding BRQ

Chapter 2 addresses the issues concerning antecedents and consequences of two components of BRQ (Hot and Cold BRQ). More specifically, this chapter reviews a comprehensive discussion on three types of consumer values (personal values, social values, and cultural values), two branches of social responsibility (ISR and Consumer perceptions of CSR), and consumer behavior intention (WTPP, WOM, Brand purchase intention)

Chapter 3 draws an integrated conceptual model from literature and presents the hypotheses of the research

Figure 4 below illustrates part 1 progress.

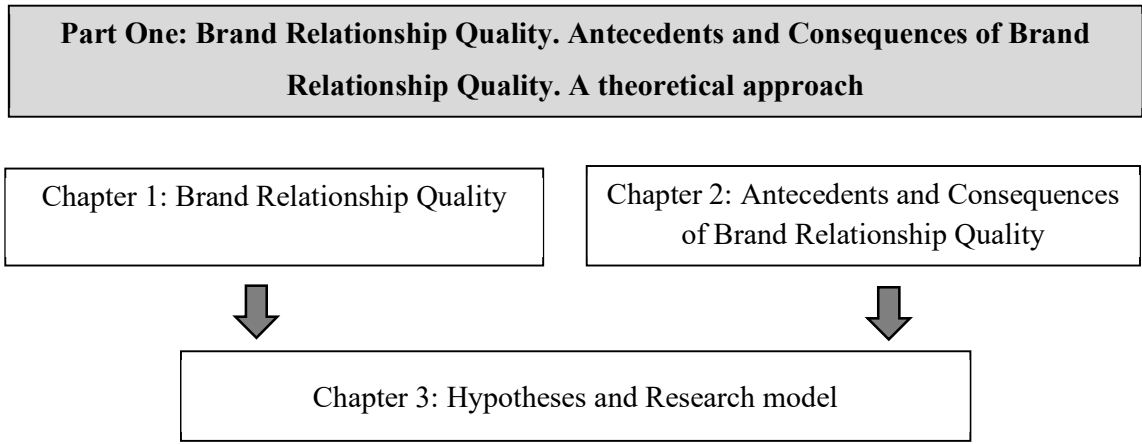


Figure 4. Part 1 framework

In this first part, the literature review relating to the study will be presented to establish a proposed research model in order to meet the defined research objectives (see General Introduction). The second part will, in its turn, introduce the validation of the proposed research model to answer research questions regarding how consumer values and ISR affect hot and cold BRQ, and regarding how hot and cold BRQ influence consumer perceptions of CSR and consumer behavior intention in the context of green brands.

CHAPTER 1 - BRAND RELATIONSHIP QUALITY

Following the discussion of the research objectives and questions in Introduction, this chapter deals with a review of the relevant literature regarding BRQ. We explore this literature through relationship marketing theory. Thus, it begins with characteristics of relationship marketing and the inherent presence of benefits to the relationship. In consumer goods markets, relationships are developed between consumers and brands, formed from a series of interactions. This chapter discussed a review of the conception of consumer-brand relationship as an emerging research area, including the principles of consumer-brand relationships, and considers this research area's current state.

Next, the literature abounds the widely researched BRQ framework proposed by Fournier (1998). In light of this, this chapter discusses BRQ's role to characterize the strength of consumer-brand relationship with three main relational constructs: trust, satisfaction, and commitment. Taking the framework further, other literature expands the origins of BRQ theory, which then highlighted and concentrated on hot and cold BRQ, argued to be two components of BRQ in the work of Nyffenegger et al. (2015). This chapter also compares with other brand relationship conceptualization constructs and argues that cognitive and affective relations likely drive relationship quality. As an outcome, they represent the emotions and cognitions as two components based on a distinction between “hot” and “cold” attitudes.

The chapter is structured in two sections. The first section reviews the existing literature on BRQ. The second section introduces the Constructs of BRQ involving dimensions and components of BRQ.

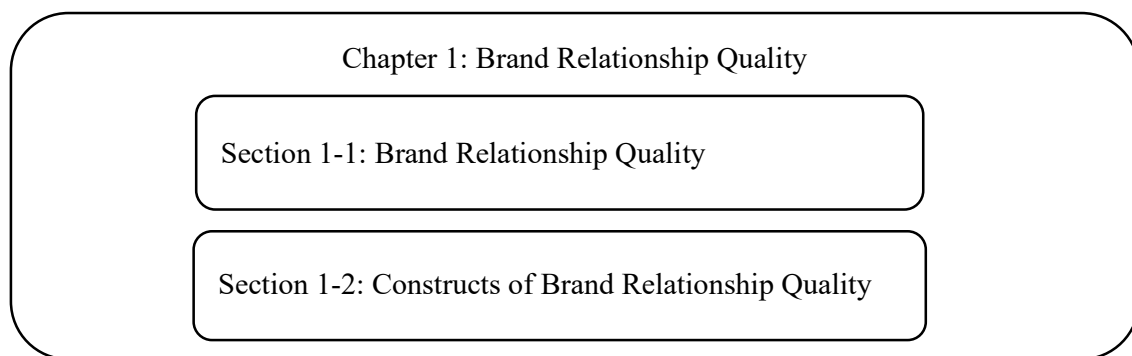


Figure 5. Outline of Chapter 1

Section 1-1. Brand Relationship Quality

1. Relationship Marketing

The globalization has promoted the healthy development of information technology and social networks, which leads the business environment to be continuously changed. This remarkable change challenges marketing practitioners and researchers to replace traditional 4Ps marketing (focus on business and sales) by relationship marketing (centre on awareness and behavior, especially the interaction between customers and brands). Relationship marketing is investigated in various disciplines (Möller and Halinen, 2000), and drawn from an economy's transition product-based to service-based offer. It is the shape of the new dominant logic for marketing (Vargo and Lusch, 2014), wherein direct interactions between a firm and its customers are considered one of the central points.

Relationship marketing is introduced as a strategy to attract and develop sustainable relationships with customers (Berry et al., 1983), argued to be relevant to the retail sector because of consumers' requirements about the personal services accompanying sales services (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). In the same vein, Grönroos (1995) suggested that Relationship marketing is the set of “*marketing activities directed toward establishing, developing, and maintaining successful relational exchanges*” (Morgan Hunt 1994, p.22). The purpose of relationship marketing is to build, maintain and develop long-term relationships between firms and their customers through cooperation, desire, empathy, and trust, which satisfy consumer needs and encourage them to be loyal to brands (Callaghan et al., 1995).

Relationship marketing is defined in various statements, but the research to date has tended to encompass the following notion of Agariya and Singh (2011): acquisition and retention of customers, profitability enhancement, long-term orientation, and a win-win situation for all stakeholders of the organization. Cannon et al. (2000) argue that Interdependence is central to the discipline of relationship maintenance. Specifically, a relationship is desired to maintain even when dependent partners have trouble achieving their goals rather than finding a replacement partner or acquiring new ones, causing the cost to undertake. This view supports the long-term relationship orientation (Ganesan, 1994) and the extent of partners' trust in each other. Sheth and Parvatiyar (1995) reveal that relationship marketing develops from a change of competition/conflict to cooperation and independence to interdependence. It is recognized as being indeed a value-added activity through collaboration between firms and customers (Sheth and Parvatiyar, 2002), of which the success requires cooperation through a sharing

process of mutual benefits and values. Together, mutual interdependence and cooperation are the bases of relationship marketing.

Relationship marketing is beneficial for both the firm and the customer (Palmatier et al., 2006). Benefits for the firm in close relationship with their customers are mainly the fact that they are more profitable from loyal customers than finding new consumers (Berry, 1995), and bringing greater flexibility and organizational learning (Cannon et al., 2000). Relationship marketing also furnishes the benefits to consumers. Fournier (1998) grouped these benefits into three categories: functional, psychosocial and emotional benefits, which have each own concern. Functional benefits relate to the utility and practical brand; emotional benefits are associated with feelings; social benefits (symbolic) are relative to identity. In an attention economy, relationship marketing approaches to a cost-benefit understanding of economic exchange at the immensely close of the brand connection (Mussol, 2014). Kapferer (2008), in his book, notes that consumers cannot spend their time comparing before choosing because of so much choice and opacity. As it stays clear, customers simplify to make their decision based on not risk reduction in the purchase of services but social benefits such as the recognition and importance feeling (Bitner, 1995), thus, increasing comfort. This statement brings to mind the increasing importance of brand building.

Relationship marketing figures out the potential impacts of brand identification on consumer behavior and attitude (Keller, 1993) are results of building up intangible customer assets and form brand equity. They are consistent with the arguments of Lindgreen (2001), indicating relationship marketing aims to build customers' satisfaction, share, retention, and loyalty. Hence, recent developments in businesses or brands success have shown the need to maintain sustainable development by building strong relationships with customers. In other words, relationship marketing is the fundamental premise of the relationship quality (Dwyer et al., 1987; Crosby et al., 1990) discussed in the next sub-section.

2. Brand Relationship

a. Brand

Duncan and Moriarty (1998) define brands as a signaling concept: "*Brand is a differentiating sign, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers*". According to American Marketing Association (2013), "*A brand is a customer experience represented by a collection of images and ideas; often, it refers to a symbol such as a name, logo, slogan, and design scheme*", which are developed to symbolize

implicit ideas, values, and personality. Accumulated experiences from the use of specific product/service, advertisement, media commentary, and design could create brand recognition. In relation, the basic brand definition is proposed as “*a name, logo or trademark of product or organization*” (Raut et al., 2014). So drawn on this concept, it becomes clear that brand essence is captured by a name with the power affect buyers, and it is considered by Fournier (1994) as a multiplex social phenomenon existing in the individual and collective minds through a collection of perceptions, as consumers have stronger connections with the brands embedded in the norms of their groups (Escalas and Bettman, 2003). Fournier (1998) defines brands as “*powerful repositories of meaning purposively and differentially employed in the substitution, creation, and reproduction of concepts of self in the marketing age*”; thus, brands are highlighted to bring consumers to facilitate choices and perceived low-risk.

Brands can produce and convey meanings to consumers following the notion of Patterson and O Malley (2006). When individuals desire to effectively build and communicate their identity through their consumption and relationships with objects via a person-thing-person way (Belk, 1988). Wallendorf and Arnould (1988) argue that preferred objects mediate personal meanings and attachments because making divergent choices in consumption is formed on internalized social pressure spreading a different perceived identity from others (Berger and Heath, 2007). This view is supported by Warde (2005), consumption is only a part of social practices, but the basis of individuality is decisive in the construction of personal identity. Similarly, Solomon (1983) found that products can play the role of social stimuli and reaffirm consumer identity while brands are social signals (brands as social stimuli).

Besides, the consumers adhere to the brand in different ways, affecting how they observe, evaluate, and recommend it later. Thus, brands can develop real personalities to become real partners in relationships with consumers (Smit et al., 2007) (brands as partners). Kapferer (2008) also complements a brand definition as the complex added emotional perceptions of a non-indifference attitude, which is knitted into consumers’ hearts and then goes from emotional resonance to liking. Brand definitions may vary, but Kotler et al., (1999) delivered it up to four levels of meaning:

- Attributes – a brand comes to human mind several words associated with the branded products when it is thought of
- Benefits – a brand provides customers benefits, which are translated into functional and emotional benefits afterward

- Values – a brand identifies values coinciding with the delivered benefit package and spread meanings to consumers

Personality – a brand reaffirms a personality and attracts people whose desired self- concept connection matches its image.

In this dissertation, we consider a brand as a link between functional and emotional consumer perceptions on product and brand’s marketing activities (De Chernatony and Dall’Olmo Riley, 1998), enhancing brand value (Sweeney and Chew, 2002).

b. Brand Relationship

Most of the studies in the field of the “consumer-brand relationships” or “brand relationship” and its impact on consumer loyalty have only dealt in the business to business (O’malley and Tynan, 1999). The term brand relationship was first introduced in the 90’s by early research assessing the relationship consumer form with brands (Blackston, 1992). Fournier (1998) established a solid study framework of “Relationship Marketing in B2C market” or brand relationships in a business to customer context, aiming to observe the existing relationships between consumers and their brands at the level of lived experiences.

Similarly, Smit et al., (2007) define the connection between customer and brand as the consumer-brand relationship. Blackston (2000) constructed analogousness with human relationships; the brand relationship is “*an analogy of the complex cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes which constitute a relationship between brand and consumer.*” One study by Veloutsou (2007) reveals that consumers form expression feelings towards brands similar to their interactions with other humans, and despite not specifically admitting their relationships with brands, consumers comprehend brands’ importance to them. This study also pointed out product categories form to vary the brand relationships; for instance, a complex and high involvement product implies stronger established bonds. Then, the brand's meaning becomes inseparable from the product’s value (Fournier, 1998).

Psychology defines interpersonal relationships as a result of a sharing standards process, rules, and worldviews, maintained on a common cognitive foundation (Morton and Douglas, 1981). Whereas sociology defines a relationship as a series of uninterrupted interactions from the past, present to the future between two mutually interdependent partners, that person’s behavior affects the other's outcome and vice versa (Blumstein and Kollock, 1988).

In marketing theory, relationships are a series of interactions between two mutual understanding partners, fluctuating in interactions and depending on the situation (Fournier,

1998). Shimp and Madden (1988) used the “Triangular theory of love” (Sternberg, 1986) to define the brand relationship as “*Consumers form relations with consumption objects (products, brands, stores, etc.), ranged from feelings of antipathy to slight fondness, all the way up to what would, in person-person relations, amount to love.*”

Brand relationship is also reciprocal exchange relationship between active and interdependent partners. It is as “people are concerned with how much they receive for how much they give” (Esch et al., 2006, p.100). A relationship requires positive equity for each of the parties to maintain and grow (Peterson, 1995).

Consistent with the notion of Blackston (1993), a sustainable relationship is a two-way process involving both brands and consumers, wherein remarked “the brand’s attitudes, behaviors towards the consumer” and “consumer attitudes, behaviors towards the brand”. Indeed, brand plays an essential role in creating and maintaining successful relational exchanges (Peppers et al., 1999) while the customer constructs the meanings in his/her mind to observe and analyze how a brand communicates with them via attitudes and behaviors (Blackston, 1992).

Consumer-brand relationship research became popular in the late 20th century, along with the increasing interest in a consumer relation to brands of business (Fritz et al., 2014). Consumers do buy brands for not only a regular basis of performance reasons but also complicated relationships. Consumers have a predisposition to engage in various relationships. Brand relationship is one of the drivers of loyalty to the brand and consumers' willingness to reduce the complexity of some purchases (Sheth and Parvatlyar, 1995). Thomson et al., (2005) reported that a consumer-brand relationship could be defined as a lasting bond between the brand and the consumer bringing meaning to its success. Emphasizing on long-term commitment, Kumar et al., (2006) defined “*Brand relationship is nothing but to know how people make long-term commitments to inanimate objects that they buy and use, help make, sell, and distribute.*”

The most widely accepted paper on consumer-brand relationships by Fournier (1998) stated, “*Brand may become an active relationship partner for the consumer and provide meanings in a psycho-socio-cultural context.*” Also, the research to date has tended to widely accept the notion stated by Fournier (1994, p.107), brand relationship is “*a voluntary or imposed interdependence between a person and a brand characterized by a unique history of interactions and anticipation of future occurrences, intended to facilitate socio-emotional or instrumental goals of the participants, and that involves some type of consolidating bond.*”

Given from this concept, brand relationship is constituted in three key elements: Interdependence, temporality, and emotional bond. Similarly, Aggarwal (2004) discusses a relationship between two partners featured by a mutual dependence, closeness, and cooperation, an evolving process over time, and reinforced by a functional or socio-emotional benefit. The idiographic concept of brand relationships has recently matured into a vibrant psychosocial-cultural construal because of the one-to-many of community brand relationships, including and characterizing consumer societies (Heath et al., 2006).

There has been diversity in the measurement of brand relationship strength (Fetscherin and Heinrich 2014). However, it is acknowledged that the most seminal and inclusive measurement of brand relationship strength is brand relationship quality (Papista and Dimitriadis 2012) introduced in the next sub-section.

3. Brand Relationship Quality

Since BRQ was first presented by (Gummesson, 1987, 2002), it has been increasingly paid attention by marketing researchers and practitioners because of its importance as part of customer perceived quality (Grönroos, 2000).

BRQ has become one of the pillars of Relationship Marketing (Gummesson, 2002) and gained its role in measuring successful business relationships (Palmatier et al., 2006), yet there is no consensus on a definition of BRQ (Palmatier et al., 2006; Sheth and Parvatiyar, 2002). Table 1 details numerous studies on BRQ over the last twenty years, including BRQ employed definitions. BRQ has been defined diversely in different contexts.

In a working people-based context reflecting inter-organizational approach, BRQ is viewed as *“the joint cognitive evaluation of business interactions by key individuals in the dyad, comparatively with potential alternative interactions”* (Holmlund, 2001, p.15). Also, BRQ is identified by Moorman et al., (1992, p. 316) to refer to *“the degree to which users view user-researcher interactions as productive.”* In the specific context of relationships between consumers and a brand, for example, the context of IT products and after-sale services, Hennig-Thurau and Klee (1997) and Lo (2020) suggested that RQ reflects the degree of the relationship's appropriateness to satisfy customer's needs associated with the relationship. On the other hand, BRQ represents *“the degree to which buyers are satisfied over time with the overall partnership as manifested in product quality, service quality, and value for money”* (Huntley, 2006).

From the customer's perspective, Crosby et al., (1990) indicate that *“RQ is achieved through*

the salesperson's ability to reduce perceived uncertainty", based on the early definition of Dwyer et al. (1987) reflecting RQ with the three "key facets" Satisfaction, Minimal opportunism and Trust. Crosby et al. (1990) also argue that BRQ is customer perceived trust and satisfaction to sellers. This concept reflects a significant impact on the consumer-brand relationships and is demonstrated explicitly through those situations where the customer perceives that "the salesperson is the company." Since then, several studies have inherited and developed on this definition when researching RQ (Bejou et al., 1996; Dorsch et al., 1998; Roberts et al., 2003; Golicic, 2007).

Some authors have driven the further development of BRQ as an indicator of health, strength, and length of long-term relationships (Crosby et al., 1990; Kumar et al., 1995). Fournier (1994) indicates that BRQ means "*a customer-based indicator of the strength and depth of the person-brand relationship.*" The concept has attracted increasing interest from academics over the years and has now widely been used. Similarly, Smith (1998, 2007) and Hudson et al. (2015) use the term BRQ to refer to the relationship's strength and how it meets expectations by three components: Trust, Satisfaction, and Commitment. These definitions are close to that of Hennig-Thurau and Klee (1997) which measures BRQ along with customer's related quality perception, trust, and commitment. These criteria affect the nature as well as the strength of the relationship and contribute to relationship quality. The absence of consensus in terms of definition might be caused by the various levels at which relationships develop, e.g., structural, economic, and social (Holmlund and Tornroos 1997; Walter et al., 2003) as well as the context-specific nature of relationship marketing (Palmatier et al., 2006; Walter et al., 2003). However, a considerable amount of studies has determined that BRQ is "*a higher-order construct comprising several different, though related dimensions*" (Crosby et al., 1990; Dorsch et al., 1998; Dwyer et al., 1987; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2001; Kumar et al., 1995; Roberts et al., 2003; Woo and Ennew, 2004).

This research focuses on BRQ as an essential indicator to develop the relationship in the environmental goods sector. To propose a meaningful definition, an integrated and multifaceted construct, BRQ, is best thought of as "*a higher-order construct that comprises different facets referring to the cognitive evaluation of and emotional connection to a brand*" (Blackston and Lebar, 2015; Fournier 1994, 1998; Giovanis, 2017; Nyffenegger et al., 2015), covering the most important aspects of relationship quality discussed in social psychology (Fletcher et al., 2000). Having established a definition of BRQ, the following will provide a review of the dimensions used to model BRQ (see Table 1).

Table 1. Summary of a Literature Review on Definitions of Brand Relationship Quality

Authors	Relationship Quality Definition	Context
Dwyer and Oh, 1987	None. Relationship quality is reflected in the “key facets” Satisfaction, Minimal opportunism, and Trust	Buyer-seller relationships in the marketing channels
Shimp and Madden, 1988	Consumers form relations with consumption objects (products, brands, stores, etc.)	Person-person relationship Vs. Consumer-object relations
Crosby et al., 1990	Higher-order construct composed of at least two dimensions: Trust in the salesperson, and Satisfaction with the salesperson’s performance	Life insurance; Services people- based relationships
Lagace et al., 1991	None.	Life insurance; Services people- based relationships.
Moorman et al., 1992	The degree to which users view user-researcher interactions as productive.	Relationships between marketing researchers and various users.
Storbacka et al., 1994	Relationship quality as relationship strength in a relationship profitability model.	Relationships between service providers and consumers.
Kempeners 1995	None.	Business-to-business relationships.
Kumar et al., 1995	Higher-order concept encompasses five constructs: Conflict, Trust, Commitment, Willingness to invest in the relationship, and Expectation of continuity.	Business-to-business relationships between large suppliers and small resellers.
Bejou et al., 1996	The same as in Crosby et al. (1990).	The same as in Wray et al. (1994).
Boles et al., 1997	An evaluation of the personal and business ties linked to an interaction between a buyer and salesperson in a business	Business-to-business relationships.

	setting.	
Hennig-Thurau and Klee, 1997	The degree of appropriateness of a relationship to fulfil the needs of the customer associated with the relationship.	Relationships between consumers and firms.
Leuthesser 1997	None.	Relationships between industrial purchasing executives and various suppliers.
Bejou et al., 1998	None.	Financial services; Relationships between customer and financial adviser.
Dorsch et al., 1998	Higher-order construct encompasses six dimensions.	Business-to-business relationships between purchasing executives and vendors.
Smith 1998	Higher-order construct comprised of outcomes/dimensions that reflect the strength of the relationship and how it meets expectations.	Relationships between industrial purchasing executives and suppliers.
Boles et al., 2000	None.	Telecommunications, business customers.
Hennig-Thurau 2000	The same as in Hennig-Thurau and Klee (1997).	Relationships between customers and manufacturers.
Naudé and Buttle, 2000	Crosby et al. (1990)'s definition mentioned.	Business-to-business relationships.
Shamdasani and Balakrishnan, 2000	The same as in Smith (1998).	Relationships between service providers and customers.
DeWulf et al., 2001	None.	
Hennig-Thurau et al.,	Relationship quality comprises five dimensions.	Relationships between students (alumni) and

2001		universities.
Holmlund 2001	The joint cognitive evaluation of business interactions by key individuals in the dyad, comparatively with potential alternative interactions (working definition).	Business-to-business relationships.
Keller 2001	Brand resonance	Relationship between retail consumers and providers
Vieira 2001	None.	Business-to-business relationships between banks (via client managers) and small to medium enterprises.
Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002	None.	Relationships between consumers and various service providers.
Hewett et al., 2002	A buyer's level of trust in and commitment to a seller firm.	Industrial buyer's relationship with a particular seller
Parsons 2002	None.	Relationship between purchases and various types of suppliers, mostly industrial, at both individual and organizational levels
Wong and Sohal, 2002	The same as in Crosby et al. (1990) and Fournier 1994, 1998	Relationships between shoppers and large departmental store
Keating et al., 2003	None.	Relationships between online retail consumers and providers
Roberts et al., 2003	Higher-order construct made of several distinct, though related dimensions	Relationships between services providers and consumers
Walter et al., 2003	Higher-order construct 'often' encompassing three distinct, though related dimensions of business relationships.	Business-to-business relationships between clients and industrial suppliers.

Ivens 2004	None	Relationships between purchasing managers and their suppliers.
Woo and Ennew, 2004	A higher-order construct comprising three dimensions	Business-to-business professional services
Huntley 2006	The degree to which buyers are satisfied over time with the overall partnership as manifested in product quality, service quality, value for money	Relationships between a firm and customer representatives for IT products and after-sale service.
Kumar et al., 2006	Emphasizing on long-term commitment	Relationship between customers and firm for toothpaste and cars
Uлага and Eggert, 2006	None. ‘Focuses’ on three “key characteristics” of relationship quality: Commitment, Satisfaction, and Trust.	Relationship between manufacturing companies and purchasing managers.
Ivens and Pardo, 2007	None.	Business-to-business relationships in goods and services industries.
Rauyruen and Miller, 2007	Relationship quality comprises four different but related dimensions	Business-to-business relationships in a services setting.
Smit, Bronner and Tolboom, 2007	A customer-based indicator of the strength and depth of the person-brand relationship. the connection between customer and brand	Relationships between purchases and various categories of product
Acitelli, Forgas and Fitness, 2008	Internal representations and conscious reflections about a particular relationship	
Morry, Reich, and	The evaluation of an individual’s relationship, which is	

Keito, 2010	comprised of relationship awareness, and consists of relational foci of attention.	
Xie and Heung, 2012	the strength and depth of the relationship consumer forms with a brand.	Relationships between consumers and services providers
Papista and Krystallis, 2012	A higher-order construct offers a deeper understanding of the consumer-brand relationship.	
Farooqi 2014	The positive or negative feelings about a relationship	
Blackston and Lebar, 2015	The same as in Fournier 1998	Relationships between consumers and several brands
Nyffenegger et al., 2015	A higher-order construct that comprises different facets referring to the cognitive evaluation of and emotional connection to a brand	Relationships between services providers and consumers.
Hudson et al., 2015	The same as in Smit, Bronner and Tolboom, 2007	Relationships between consumers and festival brands
Giovanis 2017	The same as in Nyffenegger et al., 2015	Relationships between consumers and services providers
Papista et al., 2018	The same as in Papista and Krystallis (2012)	Relationships between consumers and green brands
Lo 2020	The same as in Hennig-Thurau and Klee 1997	Relationships between consumers and services providers

Source: Adapted from Vieira Armando Luís, Winklhofer Heidi, and Ennew Christine T. (2008)

Section 1-2. Constructs of Brand Relationship Quality

This research focuses on consumer-brand relationship quality as a managerial indicator to develop the relationship between brands and consumers in the green product context. According to Smit, Bronner, and Tolboom (2007), BRQ is considered the most significant construct and the most impact framework to comprehend the consumer-brand relationship's strength, compared with other brand relationship conceptualization constructs. Thus, there is a need to examine the construct of BRQ, which is the foundation of this study. This section will introduce more details about the BRQ construct involving its dimensions and components.

1. Dimensions of Brand Relationship Quality

Empirical studies have included a plethora of constructs as dimensions of BRQ (see Table 2). They showed many constructs used as dimensions of BRQ, yet there is little consensus about how BRQ is modeled since BRQ is influenced by different environments, cultures, industries, and research contexts. Also, measuring BRQ under the customer perspective approached should be considered. In terms of the dimensions of BRQ, the two-factor theory presents that the successful brand relationships consist of two factors: trust and satisfaction (Blackston, 1992), which is consistent with an emulation of Crosby et al., (1990) conceptualizing BRQ as a higher-order construct including satisfaction with and trust in the salesperson (Bejou et al., 1996; Boles et al., 2000; Lagace et al., 1991; Leuthesser, 1997; Parsons, 2002; Vieira, 2001; Wray et al., 1994). Since then, many studies modeling BRQ used either the same two dimensions (Bejou et al., 1996; Boles et al., 2000; Farooqi, 2014; Lagace et al., 1991) or including a few of additional dimensions Naudé and Buttle, 2000; Walter et al., 2003).

Although this approach forms the foundation of constructing BRQ, it has neglected other essential factors. More recent empirical work exams satisfaction and trust as first-order dimensions of BRQ and those that also consist of commitment (Akrouf and Nagy, 2018; Giovanis, 2017; Hudson et al., 2015; Ivens, 2005; Ivens and Pardo, 2007; Lo, 2020; Roberts et al., 2003; Ulaga and Eggert, 2006; Walter et al., 2003). Consistent with the conception of Crosby et al., (1990), these three determinants have also been referred to as building blocks of Relationship Marketing. In 1992, Markinor Market Research Co. developed the brand relationship score (BRS) summarized by three indicators: awareness, trust, and loyalty, known as the Three Indicator theory. Nevertheless, it reveals limited views of the neglect of satisfaction and the defect of measuring every indicator by several items, even only one (Elena and Jose, 2001).

Fournier (1998) used a new construct of the BRQ to measure the strength, stability and constancy, considered as The Six Element theory consisting of love and passion, self-connection, interdependence, commitment, intimacy, and brand partner quality (Figure 6). These six indicators could be combined into three more significant parts: affective and social attachments, behavioral ties, and supportively cognitive beliefs (See Table 3). However, an integrated quantitative model was not advanced through empirical research to testify six parts of BRQ, which prevented managers from grasping the comprehensive condition of brand relationships simply (Aaker et al., 2001).

The Eight Indicator theory provided by Duncan and Moriarty (1999) posits eight indicators to evaluate brand relationships from the practicing perspective, which contains awareness, credibility, consistency, contact, responses, passion, affinity, and fancy. These indicators may not be well constructed as they are a series of theories and empirical studies but identified under the virtue of the researchers' experience.

In a short conclusion, many constructs have been employed as dimensions of RQ, but there is little consensus as to how the constructs should be modeled. BRQ is suggested to be much richer than overall brand evaluations or behavioral intentions and reflects consumers' strong emotions and motivation with a brand. Fournier's model (1998), the most widely accepted framework, has been tested in various settings, which identifies six facets of BRQ:

1. Love and passion: Consumers' emotions/feelings with the brand, which is central to all strong relationships.
2. Self-connection: consumers' self-identity, which expresses the closeness of identifying the brand and its values.
3. Interdependence: Consumers' intense interactions, which involve reciprocal actions with the brand and the other partner.
4. Commitment: consumer intention to maintain a long relationship with the brand.
5. Intimacy: consumer familiarity with the brand.
6. Brand partner quality: Consumers' evaluation of the brand's qualities as a partner in the relationship.

These facets of BRQ show an effect on relationship stability and demonstrate that BRQ is a multifaceted aspect with several relationship components: affective emotions (love/passion, self-connection, and nostalgia), a relation of behavior (interdependence and commitment), and

cognitive beliefs (trust, intimacy and brand partner quality) (Fletcher et al., 2000; Fournier 1996, 1998; Park et al., 2013).

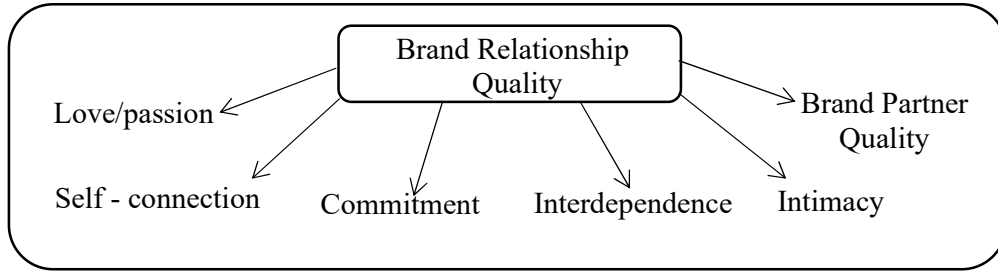


Figure 6. A preliminary model of brand relationship quality (Fournier 1998)

Table 2. Dimensions of Brand Relationship Quality

Authors	Trust	Satisfaction	Commitment	Other constructs
Dwyer and Oh, 1987	X	X		Minimal opportunism
Crosby et al., 1990	X	X		
Lagace et al., 1991	X	X		
Storbacka et al., 1994				Relationship strength
Wray et al., 1994	X	X		
Kumar et al., 1995	X		X	Conflict, Willingness to invest in the relationship, Expectation of continuity.
Bejou et al., 1996	X	X		
Hennig-Thurau and Klee, 1997	X		X	Product-related or service-related quality perception
Leuthesser 1997	X	X		
Bejou et al., 1998	X	X		Customer orientation, Ethics, Expertise, Length of relationship, Sales orientation,
Dorsch et al., 1998	X	X	X	Minimal opportunism, Customer orientation, and Ethical profile.
Smith 1998	X	X	X	
Boles et al., 2000	X	X		Equity.
Hennig-Thurau 2000	X		X	Product-related or service-related quality perception

Naudé and Buttle, 2000	X	X		Coordination, Power, and Conflict.
Shamdasani and Balakrishnan, 2000	X	X		
DeWulf et al., 2001	X	X	X	
Hennig-Thurau et al., 2001	X		X	Service quality.
Holmlund 2001				Technical, Social, Economic.
Vieira 2001	X	X		
Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002	X	X	X	
Hewett et al., 2002	X		X	
Parsons 2002	X	X		
Wong and Sohal, 2002	X		X	
Keating et al., 2003				Effort, Value, Understanding, Communication, Power
Roberts et al., 2003	X	X	X	Affective Conflict.
Walter et al., 2003	X	X	X	
Ivens 2004	X	X	X	
Woo and Ennew, 2004				Cooperation, Adaptation, and Atmosphere.
Huntley 2006				Technical, Social, Economic, Partnership, Time.
Ulaga and Eggert, 2006	X	X	X	

Ivens and Pardo, 2007	X	X	X	
Rauyruen and Miller, 2007	X	X	X	Service Quality
Choo, Jung and Chung, 2009	X	X		
Liu, Zeng and Su, 2009	X	X	X	
Chen, Hung and Tseng, 2010	X	X	X	
Chung and Chin, 2010	X	X	X	
Vesel and Zabkar, 2010	X	X	X	
Xie, D., and Heung, V. C., 2012	X	X	X	
Papista và Dimitriadis, 2012	X	X	X	
Farooqi 2014	X	X		
Hudson et al., 2015	X	X	X	
Nyffenegger et al., 2015	X	X	X	
Giovanis et al., 2017	X	X	X	
Akrout and Nagy, 2018	X	X	X	
Papista et al., 2018	X	X	X	
Lo 2020	X	X	X	

Source: Vieira Armando Luís, Winklhofer Heidi, and Ennew Christine T. (2008)

Table 3. Fournier's (1998) Six dimensions of Brand Relationship Quality

	Dimensions	Definitions
Attractive and socio-emotive attachment	Love and passion	Reflecting the intensity and depth of the emotional ties between consumers and brands. The dimension of BRQ is denoted by a strong attraction and affection toward the brand, and a feeling of fascination, exclusivity, and dependency in the relationship.
	Self-connection	Reflecting the degree to which the brand delivers an important identity concern, tasks, or themes, thereby expressing a significant aspect of the consumer's self.
Behavioral ties	Interdependence	Reflecting the degree to which the actions and reactions of a relationship partner are intertwined. The pattern of interaction between the partners, the strength of the impact of each occurrence, and the scope of activities are important determinants of this BRQ dimensions
	Commitment	Capturing the strength of attitudinal stability toward a relationship. Commitment is a well-developed concept in marketing and can be seen as the intention of – and dedication to the relationship's future continuity.
Supportive cognitive behavior	Intimacy	Referring to the degree of closeness, mutual understanding, and openness between relationship partners. According to social psychology, self-disclosure, listening, and caring are salient aspects of intimate relationships.
	Brand partner quality	Representing consumer evaluation of the brand's performance in the relationship. The essential aspects of partner quality are trust, reliability, and expectation fulfillment.

Source: Adopted from Fournier (1998) and Thorbjørnsen et al., (2002)

2. Components of Brand Relationship Quality

The academic interest in consumption for symbolic and psychological reasons identified that consumers consume goods to create, reinforce, and express their self-concept (Belk, 1988; Kleine et al., 1995). Academics also acknowledge that brands are a source of symbolic properties to encourage self-brand connections to consumers, in which consumers could identify themselves with the brand (Escalas, 2004). The attention of relationship building as a brand success driver increased among marketing scholars on a consumer-brand relationship. However, there is reasonable doubt to question the dominant keys of building and maintaining a robust consumer-brand relationship. Deriving, it is necessary to investigate the understanding of consumer interest in the consumer-brand relationship. Further, consumers' reactions and responses to brands attempt to encouraging consumers to form relationships.

Agariya and Singh (2011) investigated 700 articles to underline six constructs of BRQ: trust, satisfaction, loyalty, commitment, quality, and communication, wherein satisfaction, trust, and commitment are frequently quoted in the literature as components of the quality of the relationship (Sirieix and Dubois, 1999). Consumer-brand relationships affect satisfaction, attachment, and commitment, including the brand's preference based on cognitive and affective (Dick and Basu, 1994). Cognitive factors are based on brand attitudes and the brand's accessibility, while affective factors include feelings/emotions about the brand and satisfaction.

While past studies examined BRQ to be a unified system (Aaker et al., 2004; Chang and Chieng, 2006; Zhang and Bloemer, 2008), some research consider BRQ as a two-dimensional construct: Cognitive and Affective Aspects, which are defined along with these cognitive and affective relationship-building elements (Park et al., 2006; Nyffenegger et al., 2015; Giovanis, 2017). BRQ is a higher-order construct, proposed by Fournier (1998), reflecting six cognitive and emotions driven relationship-building dimensions. Nyffenegger et al. (2015) offered the role BRQ of emotions and cognitions as two components based on a distinction between “hot” and “cold” attitudes

a. Hot BRQ

The “hot” component of BRQ based on emotions associated with the brand referring to how positively or negatively individuals feel about their relationships (Morry et al., 2010), which is called affective/emotional BRQ. Hot BRQ is defined as *“the strength and intensity of a consumer’s personal connection and closeness with a brand based on the positive feelings the*

consumer develops for that brand” (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Nyffenegger et al., 2015). More specifically, emotions are the focal aspect of a strong brand relationship (Thomson et al., 2005). Emotional aspects such as feelings of self-concept connection (Fournier, 1998), feelings of love for a brand, and perceptions of the self-closeness brand have been central focus areas for improving relationship quality. Hot BRQ illustrates the emotional properties, including consumers’ feelings and connection to the brand. These feelings represent the effect of the brand’s linkage on the consumers (Park et al., 2006).

This BRQ component is based on three facets of the triangular theory of love (Sternberg, 1986): passion, intimacy, and commitment. Passion expresses an intense longing and a feeling of being incomplete when separated from the brand (Fournier, 1994). Intimacy reflects a greater understanding of the brand’s actions due to an emotional feeling of closeness and connection to the brand (Sternberg, 1986). Commitment refers to a desire to stay in a long-lasting relation with the brand manifested in *“loyalty to the brand through a period of both good and bad times”* (Nyffenegger et al., 2015). In this study, hot BRQ is composed of three dimensions: passion, intimacy, and commitment.

➤ *Passion*

Passion is described as the motivational component of Sternberg’s theory and a motivational factor of consumption decisions (Belk et al., 2003; Sternberg, 1986). Passion refers to *“the drives that lead to romance, sexual consummation, physical attraction, and related phenomena in loving relationships”* (1986, p. 119). Passion includes *“self-esteem, nurturance, affiliation, dominance, submission, and self-actualization”* (p. 122).

In the context of consumer-object and brands, brand passion is defined as *“a primarily effective, extremely positive attitude toward a specific brand that leads to emotional attachment and influences relevant behavioral factors”* (Albert et al., 2008; Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) which *“describes the zeal and enthusiasm features of consumer-brand relationships”* (Keh et al., 2007, p. 84). Sternberg (1986) also suggests that *“the passion component of love will almost certainly be highly and reciprocally interactive with intimacy”* and expresses an intense longing status and an uncompleted feeling when separated from the brand (Fournier 1994, Nyffenegger et al., 2015; Thomson et al., 2005; Park et al., 2006). In particular, passionate consumers sometimes feel uncomfortable when they cannot consume enough specific products/brands if they are unavailable (Matzler et al., 2013). As such, passion encourages the customer’s willingness to build a close relationship with a brand and consume

the brand (Baumeister and Bratslavsky, 1999).

In this study, passion refers to a primarily affective, extremely positive attitude toward a specific brand leading to emotional attachment with the brand and a feeling of incompleteness in case of brand absence (Fournier 1998; Giovanis, 2017; Nyffenegger et al. 2014).

➤ *Intimacy*

Intimacy is defined as “*a recurrent preference or readiness for experiences of close, warm and communicative interpersonal exchange*” (McAdams and Vaillant, 1982). Intimacy illustrates the emotional basis for the love relations as “*feelings of closeness, connectedness, and bondedness*” to the brand (Sternberg, 1986, p. 119), includes sharing, supported emotional feelings, and intimate communication. Intimacy also presents feelings of closeness and connection in consumer-object relations, which is aptly labeled “liking,” referring to feelings such as attachment, fondness, and the properties of intimacy ascribed by Sternberg (Sternberg, 1986; Shimp and Madden, 1988).

In this study, we describe intimacy as an emotional feeling of closeness and connection to the brand, leading to a healthy relationship and closeness between consumers and brands (Giovanis, 2017; Sternberg, 1986; Nyffenegger et al., 2015).

➤ *Commitment*

Commitment encompasses the cognitive aspect of Sternberg’s theory. Commitment is “*the long-term intention to maintain that love*” (1986, p. 119). Commitment is also “*an enduring desire to maintain a valued relationship*” (Moorman et al., 1993, p.316) and presents “*short-term sacrifices for long-term benefits*” (Gundlach et al., 1995).

Commitment also derives from a combination of personal and functional characteristics to develop a consumer-brand relationship (Hess and Story, 2005). Sternberg stated that decision/commitment reflects “*in the short term, the decision that one loves someone else and in the long term, the commitment to maintain that love*” (Sternberg 1986, p. 119).

Commitment also represents “*the consumer’s psychological attachment toward the online service provider, along with his/her willingness to maintain the customer-firm relationship*” (Akroun and Nagy, 2018). Giovanis (2017) indicate that commitment reflects “*the free will of customers to maintain the relationship with a service brand and is based on emotions such as the feeling of belonging or respect for the other party.*”

We consider the term “Commitment” as “the loyalty to the brand and the intention to stay with

the brand through good times and bad” (Fournier 1994; Warrington and Shim, 2000; Nyffenegger et al., 2015), which reinforces over time and is nourished by mutuality (Morgan and Hunt, 1994).

Overall, the “hot” component of BRQ is built from three facets of the theory of love. Intimacy refers to the psychological closeness between the relationship partners and the knowledge about the brand. Personal commitment means loyalty to the brand in terms of faithfulness and willingness to make small sacrifices. Passion represents the brand's integration in its user's daily life, the attachment, and the feeling that something is missing if the brand is not used.

b. Cold BRQ

The “cold” BRQ reflects object-relevant beliefs as an evaluative judgment referring to the brand and its performance (Park et al., 2006), called cognitive BRQ. Cold BRQ is considered as *“the strength and depth of a consumer's beliefs in and evaluations of the service brand's performance”* (Nyffenegger et al., 2015). This component is based on object-relevant beliefs, cognitive evaluation, and thoughts about a relationship brand with two considered dimensions: trust and satisfaction (Selnes, 1998; Nyffenegger et al., 2015).

➤ *Trust*

The concept of trust is one of the most considered constructs in explaining consumer behavioral intentions. Trust has been explored in a large number of domains, but in marketing, trust refers to *“the ability and willingness to rely on the relationship manager's integrity and behavior (i.e., trustworthiness) so that the long-term expectations of the buyer will be met”* (Crosby et al., 1990; Moorman et al., 1992).

Trust is also defined as *“a set of positive beliefs or expectations with respect to the competence, integrity, and benevolence of the firm”* (McKnight et al., 2002). This notion is based on the Ability, Benevolence, Integrity (ABI) model (Mayer et al., 1995). Trust has been considered a key concept in conducting successful long-term relationship orientation between companies (Ganesan, 1994; Wang et al., 2008). Additionally, Hartmann et al. (2015, p. 109) stated that trust plays an essential role in uncertainty and risky situations.

The concept of brand trust refers to the average consumer's willingness to be confident of the ability of the brand's performance of stated function (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001, p.82). According to Gurviez and Korchia (2003), brand trust illustrates *“the presumption the consumer has of the brand, as a personified entity, to agree to have a predictable and consistent action with expectations while maintaining this orientation in time with goodwill.”* It relies on

credibility, integrity, and benevolence, which are the main parts for the existence of trust (Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). Pavlou et al., (2007) also claim that trust is an effective means to minimize uncertainty or extenuate the sources of uncertainty.

We follow trust's notion of Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), illustrating consumers' beliefs about a brand on the reliability, safety, and honesty. Trust is also an affective concept since the development of the relationship reinforces it. It is not only a belief but also an intention.

➤ *Satisfaction*

Over the past few decades, the conceptualization of satisfaction has been gradually refined. While trust rises from “an accumulated knowledge” (Johnson and Grayson, 2005), satisfaction arises from “cumulative evaluation” that shows the relation of the brand's performance and expectations (Aaker et al., 2004; Nyffenegger et al., 2015; Oliver, 1993). Satisfaction is based on the difference between the customer's expectations and their confirmation or disconfirmation (Oliver, 1980), formed according to a standard existing in the consumer mind before the purchase.

Saleem and Raja (2014) claimed that satisfaction is a psychological notion about consumer's emotional evaluation of or the pleasurable degree of the experience associated with specific products or services; which also relate to the emotional response of a consumer to the product or service experience after purchase, as well as the expected and perceived performance after the product has been consumed (Tse and Wilton, 1988). Oliver (1997) demonstrated that satisfaction is an emotional response to specific products, services, and purchasing experiences.

Satisfaction towards the brand can result from a simple post-purchase evaluation of a transaction and a series of successive experiences with the brand. We consider satisfaction as “*a consistent satisfaction with the decision to consume the brand's underlying service or product*” (Nyffenegger et al., 2015). It also presents “*the assurance, perceived by the buyer, regarding the relationship manager's future performance, given that past performance has been consistently satisfactory*” (Crosby et al., 1990; Parsons, 2002). Satisfaction links to loyalty; the earlier concept seems to explain consumer buying habits, including all of their consistent purchasing behaviors (Bennett and Rundel-Thiele, 2005). Secondly, satisfaction with the preferred brand is only one of the determinants of customer repurchase intention for a brand (Selnes 1993).

Hence, cold BRQ consists of two dimensions: Trust and Satisfaction. Trust arises from “an

accumulated knowledge” (Johnson and Grayson, 2005) and illustrates beliefs of consumers as well as attributions about a brand on its reliability, safety, and honesty (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Satisfaction arises from “cumulative evaluation” and reflects *“aconsistent satisfaction with the decision to consume the brand’s underlying service or product”* (Nyffenegger et al., 2015).

Conclusion of Chapter 1. Brand Relationship Quality

In past decades, consumer-brand relationships have been widely studied and grown into an established research area (Fetscherin and Heinrich 2014). According to (Fournier 2009), consumer-brand relationships are purposive, multiplex, and process phenomena. Thus, further research on the consumer-brand relationship should consider measuring the strength of the consumer-brand relationship and the development process of consumer-brand relationships (Fournier 2009).

An advanced research measurement of brand relationship strength is the concept of BRQ proposed by Fournier (1998), which was initially suggested to be a second-order construct with six dimensions: self-connection, love/passion, intimacy, partner quality, interdependence, and commitment. However, the lack of consensus on its structure and the linkages between BRQ dimensions have caused difficulties with practical application.

While past research has examined BRQ to be a unified system, Nyffenegger et al. (2015) considered it along with two constructs: Cognitive and Affective aspects, which refers to cognitive and affective relationship-building elements. Two components devote to the role of BRQ based on a distinction between “hot” and “cold” BRQ. The “hot” component of BRQ is based on emotions and reflects emotional feelings towards and connections to the brand. This BRQ component is based on three facets of the triangular theory of love: passion, intimacy, and commitment. The “cold” component of BRQ, on the other hand, is based on cognitive beliefs and evaluations, reflects an evaluative judgment in respect of the brand and brand's performance. This component involves two dimensions: trust and satisfaction.

This chapter provides a review of the relevant literature on consumer-brand relationship quality, including definitions, dimensions, and components of BRQ. In the next chapter (Chapter 2), the literature relating to all antecedents and consequences of BRQ will be underlined to answer the research question and establish a solid theoretical foundation that will become the starting point for empirical investigations.

CHAPTER 2 - ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF BRAND RELATIONSHIP QUALITY

This chapter deals with the literature regarding the antecedents and consequences of BRQ.

After introducing the basic and expanded concept of BRQ in Chapter 1, we launch reviews of different variables of consumer values in the first section of this chapter, including personal values, social values, and cultural values. First, various definitions of value are presented to emphasize the crucial roles of values in shaping the characteristics of cultural groups, societies, and individuals. Second, we focus on constructing personal, social, and cultural values in terms of conceptual definitions and components. We also discuss the influence of cultural differences in conceptualizing as residing with a person's shared cultural beliefs and values. Besides, the role of personal values, social values on relationships between consumers and green brands through their dimensions are considered.

In the second section, this chapter covers literature concerning social responsibility's main relational constructs at two levels: individual social responsibility (ISR) and corporate social responsibility (CSR) under the consumer's perspective called Consumer perceptions of CSR or Consumers' perceived CSR. This chapter also discusses the linkages between two branches of social responsibility and BRQ.

Finally, the chapter presents different variables of consumer behavior intention in terms of Willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP), Word-of-mouth (WOM), and Brand purchase intention (BPI).

This chapter will be organized, as described in Figure 7.

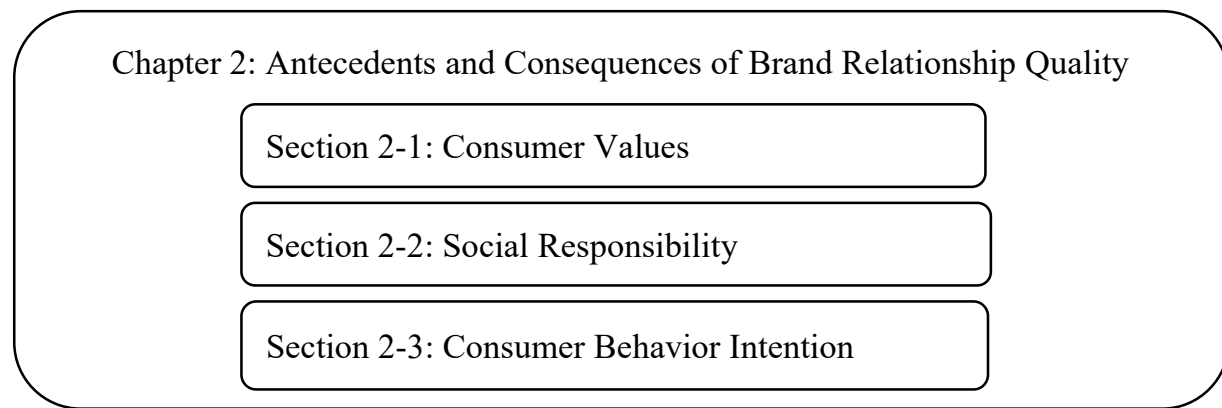


Figure 7. Outline of Chapter 2

Section 2-1. Consumer values

This section presents the literature review and characteristics of some kinds of consumer value. Values have been considered a central concept in the social sciences due to their inception (Schwartz, 2012). In earlier research, values have been crucial explanations for social and personal changes (Durkheim, 1897/1964) and (Weber, 1905/1958). Values have played an essential role in several disciplines such as sociology, psychology, anthropology, and related ones since values could shape characteristics of cultural groups, societies, and individuals. Values also trace change over time and explain the motivational foundations of attitudes and behavior (Schwartz, 1986).

Despite the increasing understanding of values through various research, the concept's definition has been a challenging task. Values are beliefs or concepts linked inextricably to affect and infused with a feeling if they are activated (Schwartz, 1992). Values refer to desirable goals to motivate actions and lead to desirable end states or behaviors, which transcend specific situations and guide behavior (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987), make a preference, and evaluative judgments (Holbrook, 1996).

The values also serve to compare between specific objects and situations (Long and Schiffman, 2000). These features are consistent with the main features of values in Schwartz's value theory (Schwartz, 1992, 2006) and help distinguish values from norms and attitudes, which are often concerned with specific actions, objects, or situations. In the context of consumer behavior, (Rokeach 1968, 1973; 1979) is credited for operationally defining values: *"... a value is an organized set of preferential standards that are used in making selections of objections and actions, resolving conflicts, invoking social sanctions, and coping with needs or claims for social and psychological defences of choice made or proposed. . . "* (Rokeach, 1979, p.20).

Values are generally understood as stable constructs that are not easily changed, even if considerable effort is invested. Besides, the concept of values is frequently drawn upon to shed light on individuals' attitudes and behavior and the functioning of organizations, institutions, and societies (Rokeach, 1973; Hofstede, 1980). As a result, values can serve as better predictors of behavior over extended periods; therefore, values are fundamental constructs to understand and reach consumers.

According to Schwartz and Bilsky (1987), values illustrate either terminal or instrumental goals

that can act as guiding principles in people's lives. Terminal values illustrate the goals to achieve, whereas instrumental values refer to preferable modes of behaviors or means to reach a goal. However, terminal values have been widely used to measure the consumers' value pattern, and the relationship of terminal values to consumer behavior is at a higher level than that of instrumental values. Thus, terminal values present a more ideational achieved goal than instrumental values (Kamakura and Novak, 1992). The terminal value is divided into personal values and social values, which individually are termed self-centric and social-centric, respectively (Ajitha and Sivakumar, 2017; Kamakura and Novak, 1992; Rokeach, 1973).

An agreement in the study of values from the viewpoint of the individual evaluates his/her environment. The consumption of green products, specifically green cosmetics, is "*the tool of self-presentation and impression formation,*" which illustrates the impression management and psychological meaning (Ajitha and Sivakumar, 2017; Goffman et al., 1978). Furthermore, Wiedmann et al. (2009) argue that values present consumers' cognitive and emotional representations of overall their requirements. They also admit the worth of investing in a green brand that consumer feels after their consumption. Therefore, the construct of personal and social values might conceptualize for consumers who choose green brands to express emotional and symbolic attributes of themselves. We will introduce more details about personal values and social values in terms of conceptual definitions and components in the next sub-sections.

1. Personal values

Schwartz's theory of basic human values has been considered as a milestone in the study of values in psychology in the field of cross-cultural studies (Smith, Fischer, Vignoles, and Bond, 2013). Over the past 20 years, systematic theories on individuals' value systems have been proposed and empirically examined, among which "Values Theory" (Schwartz, 1992, 1994, 2006; Smith and Schwartz, 1997) has further a leading role. Schwartz (1992) defined human values as:

"(1) beliefs intrinsically related to emotion that, when activated, generate positive and negative feelings

(2) a motivational construct that drives people to act appropriately

(3) something that transcends specific situations and actions, differing from social attitudes and norms, in addition to guiding people in various social contexts

(4) something that guides the selection and evaluation of actions, policies, people and events and that composes criteria for judgments

(5) something that is ordered according to the relative importance given to the other values, thus forming an ordered system of axiological priorities”.

Based on this definition, personal values are defined as *“a desirable trans-situational goal varying in importance, which serves as a guiding principle in the life of a person or other social entity”* (Schwartz, 1994). Personal values are considered an essential construct in the psychosocial concepts central to predicting attitudes and behaviors. The Schwartz theory of basic values (1992) further identifies that personal values system is a coherent structure organized in a set of ten personal motivational values types recognized across cultures. They are:

- *“Self-Direction – independent thought and action—choosing, creating, exploring.”*
- *“Stimulation – excitement, novelty, and challenge in life.”*
- *“Hedonism – pleasure or sensuous gratification for oneself.”*
- *“Achievement – personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards.”*
- *“Power – social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources.”*
- *“Security – safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self.”*
- *“Conformity – restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms.”*
- *“Tradition – respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that one’s culture or religion provides.”*
- *“Benevolence – preserving and enhancing the welfare of those with whom one is in frequent personal contact (the ‘in-group’).”*
- *“Universalism – understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature.”*

Table 4 summarizes the above discussion. It lists the ten fundamental values identified in theory and their conceptual definitions. One or more of these three universal requirements of human

existence ground each value (Schwartz, 1994).

Table 4. Conceptual Definitions of Ten Basic Values according to their Motivational Goals and Components of the Definitions that Suggest Subtypes of Values

Personal Values	Conceptual Definition	Definition Components
Self-Direction	Independent thought and action - choosing, creating, exploring	Autonomy of thought Autonomy of action
Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life	Excitement Novelty Challenge
Hedonism	Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself.	Single component: Pleasure
Achievement	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards	Personal success Demonstrating competence
Power	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources	Dominance over people Control of material resources Face: Status and prestige
Security	Safety, harmony and stability of society, of relationships, and of self	Societal security Personal security
Conformity	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms	Interpersonal: Avoiding upsetting others Compliance with social norms
Tradition	Respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide	Single component: Maintaining cultural and religious traditions
Benevolence	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact	Single component: Caring for ingroup members
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature	Tolerance Societal Concern Protecting nature

Source: Adapted Schwartz, 1994, p.22

Values have been investigated in many fields to assess under a different, but complementary point of view. Values are described as a universal requirement of human existence and developed into sets of ten motivational goals in Schwartz's advanced study (1992). Values Theory suggests that these ten fundamental personal values distinguish among the type of motivational goals in four higher-order value domains: “self-transcendence”, “conservation”, “self-enhancement” and “openness-to-change”. Ten dimensions of personal values form a circular structure of motivationally opposed but compatible values wherein the closer any two values in either direction around the circle, the more similar their underlying motivation (Schwartz et al., 2001).



Figure 8. The Schwartz theory of basic values (Adapted from Schwartz, 1992)

Although a large number of studies have adopted the theory of basic values in the last two decades, not many studies investigated in depth the central assumption of the theory articulated in Schwartz’s work in 1992. Schwartz (1992) states that the motivational differences between value(s) must be continuous rather than as discrete, and the partitioning of the space between these motivational types is arbitrary (Schwartz, 1992). This partitioning can be overcome by a partitioning that is “based on a revised theory showing discrete values with the greater universal heuristic and predictive power” (Schwartz, 1992, p. 45).

Schwartz et al. (2012) proposed a refined theory of basic values based on the idea of the original theory’s central assumption which has mostly ignored, that is, “values are arrayed on a circular motivational continuum.” The refined theory divides the motivational continuum into a set of 19 conceptually distinct values, including Self-direction of Thought and Self-direction of Action; Stimulation; Hedonism; Achievement; Power of Domination and Power over Resources; Face;

Personal Security and Social Safety; Tradition; Conformity with Rules and Conformity with Interpersonal Conformity; Humility; Benevolence Dependence and Benevolence Care; Commitment; Nature Universalism and Tolerance Universalism. Table 5 presents the 19 potential values of the refined theory and definitions in terms of motivational goals.

Table 5. The four higher-order values and 19 Values in the Refined Theory of values, Each Defined in terms of its Motivational Goals

Higher-order values	Values	Conceptual Definitions in terms of Motivational Goals
Openness-to-change	Self-Direction — Thought	Freedom to cultivate one’s own ideas and abilities
	Self-Direction — Action	Freedom to determine one’s own actions
	Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, and change
	Hedonism	Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself
Self-enhancement	Achievement	Success according to social standards
	Power — Dominance	Power through exercising control over people
	Power — Resources	Power through control of material and social resources
	Face	Security and power through maintaining one’s public image and avoiding humiliation
Conservation	Security — Personal	Safety in one’s immediate environment
	Security — Societal	Safety and stability in the wider society
	Tradition	Maintaining and preserving cultural, family or religious traditions
	Conformity — Rules	Compliance with rules, laws, and formal obligations
	Conformity — Interpersonal	Avoidance of upsetting or harming other people
	Humility	Recognizing one’s insignificance in the larger scheme of things
Self-transcendence	Benevolence — Dependability	Being a reliable and trustworthy member of the ingroup
	Benevolence — Caring	Devotion to the welfare of ingroup members
	Universalism — Concern	Commitment to equality, justice and protection for all people
	Universalism — Nature	Preservation of the natural environment
	Universalism — Tolerance	Acceptance and understanding of those who are different from oneself

Source: Adapted from Schwartz et al., 2012, p.60

Values are organized in a circular motivational continuum encompassing the vast number of different values recognized by people. Motivationally compatible values are close together in this circle, whereas values whose motivations conflict are distant from one another, on opposite sides of the circle. Compared with the original theory's motivational order, the refined theory provides a consistent order of values around a circular continuum, with one exception - benevolence values and universalism values are ordered reversely. Also, the associations between the values and behavior reflect a circular motivational continuum. When behaviors are promoted with the compatible values, the goals of a pair of values are express. Whereas behaviors have opposite consequences for two values, the goal of one over the other is promoted and the values conflict. Figure 9 shows the ordering of the 19 motivational values in the circular structure of the refined theory.

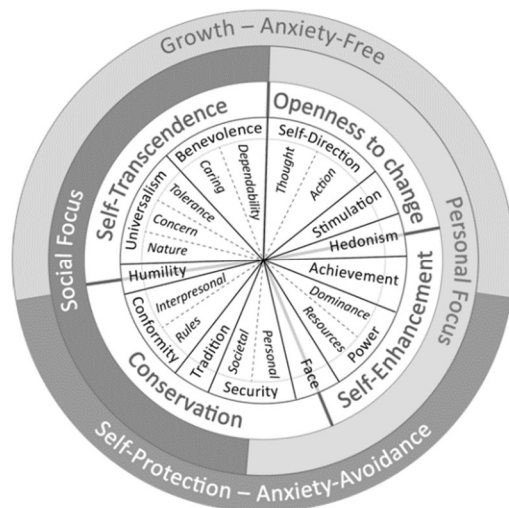


Figure 9. Motivational circle of values according to the refined basic values theory (Adapted from Schwartz et al., 2012)

The refined theory covers the same motivational continuum proposed by the original theory (Schwartz et al., 2012). However, this dissertation focuses on personal values as one of the antecedents of BRQ, which causes a lack of space to administer a more extended measure. Thus, we would like to incorporate the theory of basic human values into our study, which can keep capturing the patterns and magnitude of correlations associated.

Values emerged close around the circle express compatible motivational goals that correlate most positively. Whereas values emanated in opposing directions from the center express conflicting

motivational goals that correlate less positively or even negatively. “Self-transcendence” combines benevolence and universalism, refer to equality, concern for others as well as the welfare of those around oneself (benevolence), emphasizing tolerance towards all people, promoting a sense of unity with nature, and protecting the environment as well as nature (universalism) (Schwartz, 1994). Individuals who attribute high importance to self-transcendence values are motivated to seek social justice and equality for all people and to be helpful, loyal, and honest in their everyday interactions. In other words, self-transcendence concerns the pursuit of self-interests; thus, self-transcendence values have a positive relationship with pro-environmental attitudes and behavior (Schultz and Zelezny, 1999).

The self-transcendence values focus on others and the environment, compared with self-enhancing values promoting others' welfare and interests. “Self-enhancement” combines power that displays self-interest goals by controlling and dominating over people and resources, social status and prestige people, and achievement that refers to ambition and socially recognized demonstration of personal capabilities and success based on shared societal standards (Schwartz, 1992). Individuals who attribute high importance to self-enhancement values are motivated to pursue social status and prestige, control and dominate people and resources, be seen as successful, and demonstrate competence according to social standards. Self-enhancing values are negatively related to environmental attitudes and behavior (Leonidou et al., 2010); thus, self-enhancement values have not been examined in this research.

“Openness-to-change” integrates self-direction, stimulations, and hedonic values type. Openness-to-change values express motivations for thoughts and actions (self-direction); novelty, a challenge in life, eagerness, and readiness for change (stimulation); sensuous gratification and pleasure for oneself (hedonism). It expresses independent action, thought and feeling, and readiness for a new experience. Openness-to-change values exhibit a positive correlation with innovativeness (Schultz and Zelezny, 1999); thereby, individuals who openness-to-change values are less likely to comply with prevailing social norms, but more likely to motivate to explore and discover, to seek novel and unexpected situations, to make independent judgments by their own experience (Schwartz, 1992). As such, people with a high “openness-to-change” score seek attraction at an eco-innovative proposition as a feeling of “[being] environmentally concerned and doing the right thing in an exciting, modern way” (Barbarossa et al., 2017).

“Conservation” includes tradition, conformity, and security, which demonstrate motivations to preserve traditional beliefs and customs from the past (tradition), to observe rules and expectations of others (conformity), to ensure safety and stability (security). These values express the motivation to avoid uncertainty, ambiguity, and instability. Individuals who emphasize conservation values are motivated to perceive themselves and others in simple unequivocal terms. Conservation also concerns about self-restriction, order, and resistance to change. As such, the values of conservatism have been shown to positively impact pro-environmental behavior except for tradition values (Schultz and Zelezny, 1999); thus, tradition values have not been considered in this study.

Moreover, personal values guide an individual’s behavior based on emotional being, self-identity, and hedonism (Parks and Guay, 2009; Vigneron and Johnson, 1999), emphasizing how individuals perceive their roles in social systems and unique ways in which they see themselves in this set of meanings (Barbarossa et al., 2017). Also, values can form essential ingredients of a person’s role in society by idealizing him/herself with the aims of showing self-concept value as one’s self-image, sense of identity, self-esteem, and self-perception (Jamal and Goode, 2001; Sparks, 2000; Conner and Armitage, 1998; Ajitha and Sivakumar, 2017). Self-identity refers to how an individual sees him/herself and can encompass all aspects of the self (McAdams, 1995). People tend to express themselves in ways that are congruent with their self-identity (Burke and Reitzes, 1991) in order to label their identity, which influences their behavior what they do is “a reflection of who they are” (Biddle et al., 1987). Erikson (1964a) proposed that identity is rooted in the very core of one’s being, involves being true to oneself in action, and is associated with respect for one’s understanding of reality. Self-identity also describes a person’s personality to appreciate from others because he/she has an ethical action, environmental concerns, and a high level of CSR through an individual’s green self-identity. Green self-identity describes a perceived identification with the green consumer’s role and a central motivation that encourages individuals to indulge in pro-environmental behaviors (Van der Werff et al., 2013). Similarly, a green self-identity reflects the extent to which people indicate that environmentalism is a central part of who they are; and people with a green self-identity are motivated to engage in green behavior (Gatersleben, Murtagh and Abrahamse, 2014).

In general, these value dimensions can predict behavior that promotes environmental behavior. Self-transcendence items formed a positive predictor of engaging pro-environmental action,

whereas Self-enhancement is found as a negative predictor. Both values later (Openness-to-change and Conservation) and Green self-identity most closely correspond to pro-environmentally behavioral intention. In other words, environmental consumption can be motivated by two different types of motives: the consumer's individual objectives and society's long-term collective objectives. Thus, the intention to buy green products may be considered as a function of an individual's values to achieve those goals.

2. Social values

One of the most important goals and outcomes of social life is to attain social status in the groups to which we belong. A company's economic superiority is frequently implied by its brand name's strength, giving it the ability to differentiate itself, yielding status, or greater conspicuousness of consumption. It implies that consumers' status and conspicuous consumption tendencies are essential in creating relationships between consumers who possess such characteristics and specific types of products and brands that yield status (O'Cass and McEwen, 2014). Further, social values are "*the perceived utility of a product based on the item's ability to enhance one's social well-being*" (Kim and Ko, 2012). Maynard et al. (2007) made an interesting observation in which a large percentage of customers preferred purchasing products designated as green to preserve the environment even if they were not concerned about the environment. In the same vein, Papista et al. (2018) indicate that social values reflect "*the perceived utility of a product to enhance an individual's social self-concept and association with one or more specific social groups*" in the green brand context.

Additionally, Griskevicius et al., (2010) provided the top five reasons for consumers purchasing a hybrid vehicle in which environmental conservation was listed as the last. Indeed, individuals prefer to consume green products to demonstrate their status and wealth. This finding demonstrates that greater perceived importance of status and conspicuousness increases the willingness to purchase products that preserve the environment.

It appears that status and conspicuous consumption are often identified in the literature as if they are inherently the same phenomena. For example, Eastman et al. (1999) consider status consumption as "*the motivational process by which individuals strive to improve their social standing through conspicuous consumption of consumer products that confer or symbolize status for both the individual and surrounding others.*" Besides, Marcoux et al. (1997) describe social

status consumption as a dimension of conspicuous consumption, “*Conspicuousness of product use, as well as products that rely heavily on an image, lend themselves most readily to self-concept moderations.*” These definitions support the theoretical overlap of status consumption and conspicuous consumption, to the point where they are mostly used interchangeably, particularly, a definition in effect defines one construct in terms of the other.

The status and conspicuous consumption theory may be fundamentally flawed since each construct’s domain are not thoroughly delineated. Status consumption implies or leads to the conspicuousness of such consumption, and Status consumption tendencies can lead individuals to be more conscious of displaying their consumption of status and possessions. In other words, status consumption is based on conspicuous consumption, and conspicuous consumption is based on status portrayal (Veblen 1934). However, the notion of status possessions resides in consumption; it is unclear if such consumption must be conspicuous. Consumers desire to gain status from the acquisition of specific products and brands, but conspicuous consumption focuses on the visual display or usage of products in others' presence. The difference may arise from the view of status consumption tending to emphasize the personal nature of owning status-laden products, which may or may not be publicly demonstrated. In contrast, conspicuous consumption focuses more on putting wealth or position in evidence, whereby products/brands are overtly displayed (O’Cass and McEwen, 2004). Given the theoretical belief that status and conspicuous consumption are conceptually and empirically separate constructs, the authors argue that the constructs of status consumption and conspicuous consumption are significantly different.

Thus, this study examines social values' roles in relationships between consumers and green brands through social status value and conspicuousness value presented in more detail in the following sub-sections.

➤ *Social Status Value*

Status is a rank or position in society or a group awarded to an individual by others (Dawson and Cavell 1986). Status in one’s social groups is not only ubiquitous in social life but important for an organizing force in personality because individuals’ status within their group impacts personal well-being, social cognition, and emotional experience (Adler et al., 2000; Keltner et al., 1998). Specifically, status implies asymmetrical amounts of attention, whereby group members with higher status are more noticeable, visible, renowned (Fiske, 1993; Goldhamer and Shils, 1939).

Furthermore, status involves differential amounts of influence within the group, such that higher status members are more influential in group decisions and processes (Berger et al., 1972). Donnenwerth and Foal (1974, p. 786) defined status as *"an expression of evaluative judgment conveying high or low prestige, regard, or esteem."* Eastman et al. (1999) argue that status, among other things, is *"a form of power that consists of respect, consideration and envy from others, and represents the goals of a culture."* Status also intimates unequal amounts of admiration and esteem; higher-status members in a group are more admired, prestigious, and respected by others than those of lower status.

Eastman et al. (1999) distinguish three different kinds of status:

"(1) status by definition or assignment (e.g., royalty),

(2) status by achievement (an individual has higher status if he/she does a better job compared to others in his/her line of work), and

(3) status by consumption (Hayakawa 1963; Brown 1991). Our focus is on this final type of social status which is acquired through possession."

In the status consumption domain, some marketing scholars have stressed the desire for status as a prime motivator for product and brand choice, such as women's cosmetic products (Chao and Schor, 1998) and clothing (Goldsmith et al., 2010; Solomon and Rabolt 2004). Indeed, the desire for social position, a higher rank in the social hierarchy or "status" is a powerful motivator for behavior. Goldsmith et al. (1996) assert that *"one important motivating force that influences a wide range of consumer behavior is the desire to gain status or social prestige from the acquisition and the consumption of goods."* Individuals often spend their income on products that help them display their status and success to significant others with the aims of gaining recognition and distinction. In other words, status consumption involves purchasing and using products (and brands) to increase a person's status, perceived or otherwise (Goldsmith et al., 1996). Consistent with the notion of O'cass and Frost (2002), individuals consume specific products that are perceived to be high in status to gain status or social prestige. Inherently, *"the motivational process by which individuals strive to improve their social standing through conspicuous consumption of consumer products that confer or symbolize status for both the individual and surrounding others"* and *"the more a consumer seeks status, the more he/she will engage in behaviors, such as the consumption of status symbols increasing their status"* (Eastman et al.,

1999; O’cass and McEwen, 2004).

In terms of eco-friendly behavior, status motivation is an influential antecedent for choosing pro-environmental green products over more luxurious non-green products that are equally priced, which indicates that consumers’ desire for environmentally friendly products commensurate with their social status could influence their social standing (Griskevicius et al., 2010). Griskevicius et al. (2010) also argued that status could motivate people to shy away from luxurious non-green products and choose self-sacrifice with green products for other’s benefit in a group as an alternative of traditional approaches with aims of increasing the self-sacrifice’s status in that group they belong to (Gurven et al., 2000; Hardy and Van Vugt, 2006). Since green products can benefit the environment, waste fewer resources to produce, and reduce pollution, yet green products often cost more for others’ benefits and are of not as qualitative as a non-green product, which may be inferior for personal use.

Also, costly signaling theory (Zahavi and Zahavi, 1999) suggests that consumers will sacrifice product convenience or effectiveness for environmental benefits that are increasingly costly in terms of resources, energy, risk, or time to increase their relative status. In other words, a person can gain status if he/she is willing and able to sacrifice specific resources for others (Cole and Chaikin, 1990). A relationship between self-sacrifice and status as a “costly signal” functioning to build and maintain social status is given in costly signaling theory (Miller, 2011; Zahavi, 1975). The purchase of green products makes people more “green” and allows them to signal their volunteer willingness as well as the ability to incur the cost of owning a product that benefits the environment and society at large, which may become an active motive for status to engage in conspicuous pro-environmental acts. Besides, engaging in prosocial behaviors is associated with status in a group whose definition certainly involves a reward hierarchy; wherein individuals with a higher status can gain greater access to their desirable things, receive more attention than those lower in the hierarchy and enhance their social prestige (Fiske, 1993).

Furthermore, brands can be positioned to communicate prestige and brand users' social position (Zinkhan and Prenshaw, 1994). Consumers’ desire for status maybe not exclusive to the wealthy (Ram, 1994) but those of modest means (Bansanko, 1995) with meaningful outward symbols of status; which is consistent with Belk’s argument (1988), people in developing countries are indulged in features of conspicuous consumption even before the adequate food, clothing, and

accommodation.

In a more complex context, green brands can allow consumers to fit in by portraying a particular image of consumers' desire with specific characteristics provided by these brands such as conspicuous green labels to imply at every class level of social status. Hence, such a notion rests on the view that specific brands attract consumers who desire to consume for social status in order to increase a person's status, perceived (Flynn and Eastman, 1996; Goldsmith et al., 1996) and adjust one's behavior to fit via appropriate product/brand selection to gain the desired status (O'cass and McEwen, 2004). Table 6 summarizes the above discussions on Social Status Value.

Table 6. Summary of a Literature Review on Definitions of Social Status Value

Authors	Social Status Value Definitions
Underwood 1994; Bansanko 1995	The wealthy and modest means with meaningful outward symbols of status
Goldsmith et al., 1996	One important motivating force that influences a wide range of consumer behavior is the desire to gain status or social prestige from the acquisition and consumption of goods;
Cole and Chaikin, 1990	sacrifice specific resources for others to gain status
Eastman et al., 1999	A form of power consisting of respect, consideration, and envy from others, and represents the goals of a culture
Zahavi and Zahavi, 1999; Zahavi 1975	Costly signaling theory, increasing cost in terms of resources, energy, risk, or time to increase the relative status
O'cass and Frost, 2002	Perceived consumption of a product to be high in status to gain status or social prestige
O'cass and McEwen, 2004	The motivational process by which individuals strive to improve their social standing through conspicuous consumption of consumer products that confer or symbolize status for both the individual and surrounding others
Goldsmith et al., 2010	The desire for social position, a higher rank in the social hierarchy
Griskevicius et al., 2010	Self-sacrifice for other's benefit in a group increasing the self-sacrifice's status in the belonging group
Miller 2011	A relationship between self-sacrifice and status as a "costly signal."

➤ *Conspicuousness Value*

Consumption is to gain status, but the products and brands' consumption must also be socially, publicly or visible. The concept of conspicuous consumption and its implications in various perspectives focusing on prestige and luxury signal have considerably explored in literature. Veblen (1979) portrays conspicuous consumption broadly as "*all consumption in excess of the subsistence minimum,*" whose patterns may be determined by economic situations and underlie more than material. He indicates that conspicuous consumption:

"(1) no longer a privilege limited to the high-status leisure class, but exists in every stratum of society,

(2) reflecting individuals' status aspirations to excel equals and emulate high status,

(3) be mobilized as a means to demonstrate or evidence high status."

Campbell (1987) delineates that conspicuous consumption is not individuals' own but a higher stratum to adapt their consumption with the desirable group. Simmel (1950) suggests that conspicuous consumption is "*a status conferring game played among socioeconomic status equals,*" in which the starting equal relationship is, then, subverted by enhancing one's relative status.

Conspicuous consumption also represents symbolic status desires or status aspirations to become a particular type of people (McKendrick et al., 1982; Yoon and Seok, 1996). Wooliscroft et al. (2012) indicate that conspicuous consumption is the customer's expenditure of a high-price product or service not to display his/her wealth but indicate the social class. Veblen, (1934) argue that the aim of "*gaining and holding the esteem of man it is not sufficient merely to possess wealth or power. The wealth or power must be put in evidence, for esteem is awarded only on evidence*" (p. 36). Significantly, conspicuous consumption is based on the premise that those who desire to demonstrate their wealth in evidence are awarded preferential social treatment whose effects depend upon the desirability comparison of signaling through price, quantity or quality (Bagwell and Bernheim, 1996). Displays of wealth become important social symbols.

Furthermore, conspicuous consumption intimates not only heightened status-seeking behavior but the benefits of displaying their position and possessions. Consumers' desire for conspicuous goods is still primarily determined by their social networks. Conspicuous consumption is pursued

to enhance one's social prestige, achieved through public demonstration signaling wealth and communicating affluence to others. While Veblen (1934) describes conspicuous consumption make for inflating the ego, Mason (1981) coupled with the ostentatious display of wealth. Conspicuous consumption of consumers expresses actions and behavior visible to others to display status and success to significant others (Bagwell and Bernheim, 1996; O'cass and McEwen, 2004).

According to Cass (2001), individuals set quality consumption standards impacting one's demand for socially conspicuous products to gain recognition and distinction through their income spent on products. In other words, individuals pursue conspicuous consumption to enhance their prestige in society by demonstrating the wealthy signals coupled with affluence communication. Conspicuous consumption might involve expenditures in order to inflate the ego (Veblen, 1934) and swank wealth (Mason, 1981), which manifests actions as clearly visible to others intending to increase their self-image within a reference group (O'cass and McEwen, 2004). Besides, consumers desire to gain recognition and acceptance in the reference groups which they belong to via conspicuous consumption of products/brands as props to fit a vital concern for their image, their appearance and status because the conspicuousness of a product is essential to reference group members to approve or disapprove the product or brand (Cass, 2001).

Moreover, the definition of conspicuousness is built from the perception of symbolic value (Ajitha and Sivakumar, 2017), which significantly impacts consumer product or brand usage behavior (Tsai, 2005; Ajitha and Sivakumar, 2017). A specific social status in the 21st century has undoubtedly been afforded by luxurious automobiles, jewelry, and fashion. Nevertheless, growing concern about environmental problems such as pollution, natural resources exhaustion, global climate change, and social norms evolutions propose that personal status should be increasingly granted upon the manifestation of austerity rather than ostentation, which might minimize the environmental impact of consumption. Hence, owning a green product exhibits the will and purchasing power that affords to buy a green product which is beneficial for the environment but maybe inferior for personal use (De Groot and Steg, 2008), a phenomenon is termed as conspicuous conservation.

According to Griskevicius et al. (2010), individuals with more significant resources or wealth desire to participate in environmental actions. They are more likely to be respected, show their

conspicuousness through participation in such actions, and are perceived as elevated in status. The authors argue that green products are purchased by consumers, not due to intrinsic motivation to buy the product, but due to extrinsic motivation. Green products are considered expensive; they are purchased by wealthy people to display their accumulation of wealth to the public through conspicuous consumption, referring to spending money on costly items to display the possessed wealth.

Also, consumers are considering the social status-enhancing benefits by striving to be seen as prosocial because the purchasing of green products can improve an individual's status within a group (Griskevicius et al., 2010). Prosocial individuals are desirable to become environmental consciousness with brands in order to attain their social status since green products can demonstrate the voluntary of self-sacrifice and the ability to afford costs of their owners, which are associated with status (Dreber et al., 2008; Hardy and Van Vugt, 2006). Table 7 summarizes the above discussions on Conspicuousness Value.

Table 7. Summary of a Literature Review on Definitions of Conspicuousness Value

Authors	Conspicuousness Value Definitions
Veblen 1934	Visible to others with purposes of inflating the ego, displaying status and success to significant others
Vehlen 1979	All consumption over the subsistence minimum (1) no longer a privilege limited to the high-status leisure class, but exists in every stratum of society, (2) reflecting individuals' status aspirations to excel equals and emulate high status, (3) be mobilized as a means to demonstrate or evidence high status.
Mason 1981	The ostentatious swank of wealth
Campbell 1987	Not individuals' own but a higher stratum
Simmel 1950	A status conferring game played among socioeconomic status equals
McKendrick et al., 1982 Yoon and Seok, 1996	Symbolic status desires or status aspirations
Bagwell and Bernheim, 1996	The same with Veblen, (1934)
Cass 2001	Prestige in society through public demonstration wealthy signal
O'cass and McEwen, 2004	The same with Veblen, (1934) Visible to others to increase self-image within a reference group
Ajitha and Sivakumar, 2017	Perception of symbolic value
Wooliscroft et al., 2012	The customer's expenditure of a high-price product or service to display wealth and indicate the social class

3. *Cultural values*

The impact of culture and cultural differences in how people think, feel, and behave has become the growing interest of many subfields in psychology. Culture is defined as a specific location group's beliefs, values, and norms (Triandis, 1995). One of the most comprehensive frameworks is used to portray and investigate cultural differences concerning how an individual makes self-definition and state relationships with others in specific groups or communities to which an individual is belonging. The core of self-definition/self-concept immensely presents the culture differences. Specifically, in Western cultures, individuals define themselves based on individual autonomy and separation from others; but based on social embeddedness and interdependence with others in Eastern groups. Many attempts have referred to this distinction as a cultural attribute (e.g., individualism vs. collectivism) (Hofstede, 1980; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961) and as a people attribute/a psychological variable (e.g., independent vs. interdependent self-construal, idiocentrism vs. allocentrism) (Oyserman et al., 2002; Triandis 1989, 1995; Brewer and Chen, 2007). Specifically, while the potential antecedents of status consumption and conspicuous consumption are numerous, the focus here is Cultural values are defined as “*a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of action*” (Kluckhohn, 1951).

Regarding the study of values at the cultural level, the seminal work of Geert Hofstede (1980) highlighted values' aggregates giving the culture nature of a predictive variable. Furthermore, people are expected to respect their interaction with others and the world by fundamental beliefs considered as cultural values orientations (Kluckhohn, 1951). From the cultural psychological perspective, individualism and collectivism are described as constructs and cultural orientations, summarizing fundamental differences in how the relationship between individuals and societies is analyzed and whether individuals/groups are considered as the basic unit of analyses (Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier, 2002). Also, the extant cross-cultural literature has often utilized two distinct cultural patterns, namely individualism and collectivism (e.g., Hofstede, 1980, Kacen and Lee, 2002, Park and Lee, 2009, Sivadas et al., 2008, Triandis and Gelfand, 1998, Wheeler et al., 1989).

Further, individualism and collectivism across cultures have recently been considered

fundamental to understanding cultural values (Triandis, 2004; Triandis and Gelfand, 1998) that reflect a successful predictor of behavioral patterns (Triandis and Gelfand, 1998). In marketing and consumer behavior research, the effects of individualist/collectivist orientations have been well documented on values, motivation, attribution, and behavioral outcomes (Dutta-Bergman and Wells, 2002; Maheshwaran and Shavitt, 2000). It is also said that two major cultural orientations – individualism and collectivism – influence many aspects of consumer behavior (Badgaiyan and Verma, 2014).

Moreover, the relationships between cultural values, pro-environmental beliefs and purchasing behaviors are based on fundamental value constructs amongst which individualism and collectivism have been emphasized as fundamental beliefs about humans' relationships and interactions with the world and other humans (McCarty and Shrum, 2001). In that sense, cultural values in this study are along two dimensions: individualism and collectivism, as cultural values orientations. Consistent with Brewer and Chen (2007) and Oyserman et al. (2002), the terms individualism and collectivism should be conceptualized as residing with the context of shared cultural beliefs and values.

The literature of two dimensions of cultural values (individualism and collectivism) is presented in the following paragraphs.

➤ *Individualism*

The core unit of individualism is the individual who is independent of one another. Definitions of individualism all conceptualize in view of centralizing the personal (such as personal goals, personal uniqueness, and personal control), and peripheralizing the social (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, and Tipton, 1985; Hsu, 1983; Kagitcibasi, 1994; U. Kim, 1994; Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Sampson, 1977; Triandis, 1995). From this core, individualism is principally related to independence, self-orientation, idiocentricism, freedom, and self-confidence. (Triandis et al., 1988).

Hofstede (1980) indicates that individualism is as a focus on rights above duties, an emphasis on the personal autonomy and self-fulfillment, a concern for oneself and family, and the basing of one's identity on one's accomplishments. Waterman (1984) defined individualism as "*a focus on personal responsibility and freedom of choice, living up to one's potential, and respecting the integrity of others.*" Consistent with Schwartz (1992), individualism is related to intellectual and

affective autonomy at the cultural level and to self-direction, stimulation, and hedonism on the individual level.

Within individualism, individuals are considered separate from one another; and societies exist to promote individuals' well-being (Oyserman and Spike, 2008). Hofstede (1980) argues that individualism refers to the proneness to considering only themselves instead of other social members. Thus, individualistic people care more about themselves and personal goals instead of putting themselves in social spheres. Consistent with Schwartz (1990), individualism is defined as a fundamental contract that consists of narrow basic groups, negotiated social relations, expectations, and specific obligations, centering on achieving status. Besides, Triandis (1995) defined individualism as a social pattern consisting of autonomous and independent individuals from their in-groups. Individualists are likely to prioritize their personal identity and be less concerned about cooperation and maintaining harmonious relationships among in-group members (Brewer and Chen, 2007).

Individualism can be widely presented as “*the tendency to value the individual over the group and prioritize personal goals over group goals*” (McCarty and Shrum, 2001; Triandis, 1989). Besides, individualism may emphasize “*individual initiative, a stronger focus on the self and emotional independence*” (Hofstede, 1980). In other words, individualism refers to the proneness to considering only themselves instead of other social members (Hofstede, 1980). Individualistic people take personal goals seriously and care more about themselves instead of putting themselves in social spheres. They behave primarily based on attitudes rather than groups' norms (Triandis, 2001). It also emphasizes both self-reliance, choice in freedom, and individual rights over duties (Triandis, 1994). Individualism encourages “*contractual relationships based on the principles of exchange. People calculate profit and loss before engaging in a behavior*” (Sinha and Verma, 1987), thus, pays more attention to the relationship between individuals' behavior and their own need (Bond and Forgas, 1984).

Under the psychological perspective, Oyserman, Coon, and Kimmelmeier (2002) indicate that individualism implies self-concept, well-being, attribution style, and relationality. Regarding self-concept, individualism implies that (1) a primary human endeavor is to create and maintain a positive sense of self (Baumeister, 1998); (2) valuing having good feelings about oneself, personal success, and many unique or distinctive personal attitudes/opinions (Oyserman and

Markus, 1993; Triandis, 1995); (3) abstract traits are central to self-definition (Fiske, Kitayama, Markus, and Nisbett, 1998). Regarding well-being, individualism implies the open emotional expression and the attainment of one's personal goals that are important sources of well-being and life satisfaction (Diener and Diener, 1995; Markus and Kitayama, 1991). Regarding attribution style, individualism promotes a decontextualized and implies that judgment, causal inference and reasoning style are generally oriented toward a person rather than the social context or a situation, which assumes that social information is not bound to social context. Last, regarding relationality, individualism implies an ambivalent point of view. Individuals need relationships and group memberships, which is costly to maintain to attain self-relevant goals (Kagitcibasi, 1997; Oyserman, 1993). Individualists balance relationships' costs and benefits that base on equity norms. If participation costs exceed the benefits, they leave relationships/groups and create new relationships as their personal goals shift. As a result, relationships and group memberships in individualism are impermanent and non-intensive (Shweder and Bourne, 1982).

➤ *Collectivism*

As conceptual frameworks, individualism and collectivism conceptualize contrasting worldviews (Kwan and Singelis, 1998; Oyserman et al., 2002). The core unit of collectivism is the group that binds and mutually obligates individuals. Collectivism definitions all focus on a social way of being, the oriented toward in-groups, and the away from out-groups. From this core, collectivism is mainly characterized by interdependence, other orientation, allocentrism, harmony, and conformity (Oyserman, 1993). Collectivists, as a result, give importance to conformity, cooperation, unity, and harmony. Triandis (1995) defines collectivism as a social pattern that consists of individuals who are an integral part of one or more in-groups, such as family or co-workers. Collectivism is related to conservatism at the cultural level and to tradition, conformity, and security at the individual level (Schwartz, 1992).

Within collectivism, individuals are observed as fundamentally connected through relationships and group memberships. Societies exist, and individuals must fit into them (Oyserman and Spike, 2008). Collectivism focuses on their in-groups' goals and has a function of shaping individuals' behavior based on the group's norms to behave communally (Mills and Clark, 1982). Collectivist societies are concerned with relationships and maintaining their relationship with others. According to Schwartz (1990), collectivist societies are characterized by diffuse, mutual

obligations, and expectations in centralizing with social units of shared fate, common goals, and shared values.

Moreover, a person is a component of the society, making the in-group the key unit of analysis (e.g., Triandis, 1995). Also, in-groups may include family, clan, ethnic, religious, or other groups; collectivism is thus proposed to join culturally disparate on different levels and different kinds of reference groups. As a result, collectivism is referred to in a larger range of values, attitudes, and behaviors than individualism.

From the psychology perspective, collectivism's implications are discerned such as self-concept, well-being, attribution style, and relationality. Regarding the self-concept, collectivism implies that (1) the central aspect of identity is group membership (Hofstede, 1980; U.Kim, 1994); (2) the goals of collectivism is to sacrifice to the common good and to maintain harmonious relationships with close others, which reflects valued personal traits (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Oyserman, 1993; Triandis, 1995). Regarding well-being, collectivism implies life satisfaction derived from the completed social roles/obligations and avoided failures (U. Kim, 1994; Markus and Kitayama, 1991). Collectivism also restrains in emotional expression as a manner to ensure in-group harmony. Regarding attributions style, collectivism implies the social context, situational constraints, and social roles in person perception (Miller, 1984; Morris and Peng, 1994). Regarding relationality, collectivism is defined that (1) ascribing and fixing important group memberships, which is viewed as "facts of life" that people must accommodate to; (2) the boundaries between in-groups and out-groups are stable, relatively impermeable, and important; and (3) equality or even generosity principles are foundations of in-group exchanges (Oyserman, Coon and Kimmelmeier, 2002; Triandis,1995).

Moreover, several other conceptualizations of individualism and collectivism have been proposed, reflecting a broad scope of coverage. Table 8 shows the comprehensive nature of these constructs under consideration, in which several characteristics purported to be components of individualism and collectivism can appear rather be traditions or customs or not necessarily implicated by Individualism/Collectivism.

Table 8. Features and Component Ideas of Individualism/Collectivism

Authors	Individualism	Collectivism
Janzx 1991	Human beings as the fundamental “building block” of society; “dignity” of the individual; individual as the primary source of value (ethical individualism); collective goals subsumed under personal ones; individual having firm boundaries (Homo Clausus); “equality” of individuals (at least in principle); and “liberty” from the interference of others.	Emphasis on the group or community; the group as the source of value; the interests of the group taking precedence over those of the individual, with “commitment” as the moral aspect of ideology; individual not separate from others, but inextricably linked with them or embedded in a group; individual freedom “restricted” by the group.
Hsu 1983	Aggressive creativity; conformity; self-reliance, competitiveness; insecurity; large military spending; prejudice toward different racial and religious groups; unrealistic, interpersonal (and international relations—policeman of the world).	Low emotionality; seeking group protection; not interested in competition; low in creativity.
Triandis 1990 (after Gould and Kolb, 1964)	Individual is an end in himself, and as such ought to realize his “self” and cultivate his own judgment, notwithstanding social pressures toward conformity.	Emphasis on (a) the views, needs, and goals of the (in)group; (b) social norms and duty defined by the group rather than pleasure-seeking; (c) beliefs shared with the group rather than beliefs that separate self from a group; and (d) readiness to cooperate with the group.
Ho and Chiu, 1994	Values of the individual; autonomy; individual responsibility (consequences of action affect the individual); individual achievement; self-reliance (individual interests; security in individual’s strength).	Value of the group; conformity; collective responsibility (consequences of action affect the whole group); group achievement; interdependence (group interests; security in-group solidarity)
Cha 1994	-----	Korean collectivism: dependence; hierarchy; courtesy; heartfulness/fraternity; family line; filial piety; and sacrifice of women.
Bellah et al., 1985	American individualism: self-reliance, independence and separation	-----

	from family, religion, and community; hedonism, utilitarianism, and emphasis on exchange; competition; equity and fairness in the distribution of rewards; trust in others; emphasis on competence; involvement in community life (getting something in return); equality of people and the rejection of arbitrary authority; the self as the only source of reality.	
Yamaguchi 1994	-----	Japanese collectivism: expectation of rewards and punishments from the ingroup lead to “collectivistic tendencies”; low need for uniqueness, high self-monitoring, and external locus of control.

Source: Berry et al. (1997)

Hofstede’s (1980, 2001) model includes an Individualism index described as one pole of the Individualism–Collectivism cultural dimension. He defines the two poles as follows: *“Individualism stands for a society in which the ties between individuals are loose: Everyone is expected to look after her/his immediate family only. Collectivism stands for a society in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people’s lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty”* (Hofstede, 2001).

The GLOBE study revealed that the dimension of collectivism could effectively be divided into two sub-dimensions: institutional collectivism (the degree to which societally institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources as well as a collective action, as opposed to individual distribution and individual action) and in-group collectivism (the extent to which members of a society express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their groups, organizations or families). However, in-group collectivism, reflecting *“the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families,”* is similar to the dimension of collectivism as typically understood in the literature (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Triandis, 1989, 1995).

On the other hand, researchers have recently paid attention to the essential values distinctions

between people with a predilection for hierarchy or equality within cultures: horizontal and vertical dimensions of individualism and collectivism (Singelis et al., 1995; Shavitt et al., 2006). Consistent with the notion of Triandis (1995), individualism and collectivism are subdivided into horizontal and vertical aspects, in which the horizontal type emphasizes equality between group members, and conversely, the vertical type underlines hierarchy and competition.

Horizontal and vertical dimensions are at opposite poles of a spectrum and exist in both individualist and collectivist cultures. Vertical is a structural hierarchy of members within the culture wherein individuals accept inequality and acknowledge the importance of social class or social status (Triandis and Gelfand, 1998), while horizontal is the structural equality of members who accept interdependence equal status for all (Triandis, 1995). Triandis and Gelfand (1998) proposed a four-fold orientation of social relationships from the original dichotomy, including Horizontal Individualism (HI), Vertical Individualism (VI), Horizontal Collectivism (HC), and Vertical Collectivism (VC).

Both HI and VI orientations emphasize the autonomy of the self, but in HI cultures, the self is perceived as equal in status to others, in contrast to in VI cultures, the self is perceived as different from others (Singelis et al., 1995). Besides, the vertical self focuses on uniqueness in a status orientation; conversely, the horizontal self considers oneself as part of a group (no status or power), but within an individualist society, an individual may be “unique” in ways not related to status. However, even though people are self-reliant and want to be unique in both types of individualist cultures, the VI is competitive and status-oriented, and the HI is not. Particularly, HI, where people want to be unique and “do their own thing”, conversely, VI, where people want to do their own thing and be “the best”. Both HC and VC focus on similarity to others and commonality of goals, but the HC emphasizes authority and considers personal goals as secondary, whereas the VC accepts inequality and relative status differentiation (Singelis et al., 1995). In HC cultures, people merge their selves with their in-groups; and in VC cultures, in turn, people submit to the authorities of the in-group and are willing to sacrifice themselves for their in-group. As such, VC cultures defer to authority and show primacy to the group’s wishes, individuals within these societies are also more likely to be conforming in terms of product choice (Shavitt et al., 2006).

The articulation of these horizontal and vertical categories summarized in Table 9 provides an added necessary degree of refinement to the broad individualism/collectivism cultural

classifications.

Table 9. Characteristics of Vertical and Horizontal Individualism and Collectivism

	Horizontal (Self at the same level as others)	Vertical (Self in a hierarchy relative to others)
Individualism (independent self)	Being distinct and separate from others Being self-directed Being self-reliant Modesty, not conspicuousness Expressing uniqueness	Improving individual status via competition Seeking achievement, power, prestige Standing out Display of success, status
Collectivism (interdependent self)	Maintaining benevolent relationships Common goals with others Social appropriateness Sociability Cooperation	Maintaining and protecting in-group status via competition Deference to authorities and to in-groups Conformity Harmony

Source: Shavitt et al. (2006)

Overall, individualism and collectivism are complex constructs expressing the distinction between prevalent cultural orientations that value the importance of an individual versus those that value group harmony. Typical attributes associated with individualism are independence, autonomy, self-reliance, uniqueness, achievement orientation, and competition. Individualists are characterized to have control over and take responsibility for their actions. In turn, collectivism is correlated with a sense of duty toward one's group, the interdependence with others, a desire for social harmony, and conformity with group norms. Collectivists are determined by in-group's norms or demands such as the close-knit community for their behavior and attitudes.

According to Triandis et al. (1988), individualism and collectivism also reflect patterns of evaluating events in the social environment that distinguish most traditional, complex cultures from either industrial or straightforward, complex cultures. Self-reliance, competition, achievement, and interdependence themes may distinguish their meanings in the context of the two kinds of cultures. In individualistic cultures, self-reliance implies the freedom to do one's own thing and competition among individuals; thus, individuals feel proud of their achievements and

their success in personal competition in individualist cultures. Moreover, interdependence is observed in social exchange terms in individualist cultures. In the collectivist cultures, in turn, self-reliance implies not being a burden on the in-group, and competition among in-groups is unrelated to it. Thus, people feel proud of their group's achievement and success in collectivist cultures. Also, interdependence is considered in terms of duties, obligations, and morality in collectivist cultures.

On the one hand, individualism and collectivism have been identified as orientations built to respect a person's or group's relationship with others. People with individualist values tend to see themselves as independent of others and generally behave according to personal attitudes and preferences, whereas people with collectivistic values see themselves as interdependent with others and usually behave according to social norms (Triandis, 1995). Hofstede (2001, p.225) defines that *“Individualism stands for a society in which the ties between individuals are loose; everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family only”*; whereas, *“collectivism stands for a society in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.”*

On the other hand, an individualistic society is “me-oriented”, conversely, collectivist societies are “we-oriented”. The major themes of individualism are a self-definition as an entity that is distinct and separate from the group(s), emphasis on personal goals even if the pursuit of such goals inconveniences the ingroup, and less concern and emotional attachment to the in-groups (Triandis et al., 1988). Individualism gives priority to personal goals; collectivism emphasizes group goals over personal goals. The major themes of collectivism are self-definition as part of the group(s), the subordination of personal goals to in-group goals, concern for the integrity of the in-group, and intense emotional attachment to the group (Triandis et al., 1988). In other words, collectivistic people are more likely to put themselves in group-based situations and take groups' profits for granted (Triandis, 1995). It describes the relation of self with a group and stresses conformity, in-group harmony, sharing, duties, and obligations (Triandis and Gelfand, 1998). Individualists consider prioritizing personal motivations, goals, and desires (Roos and Hahn, 2017). Collectivism is defined as *“the preference of taking other social members into account when dealing with issues.”* Collectivistic people seek cooperation, pursue harmonious relationships, and prefer to stay friendly with others (Hui,1984). Collectivism emphasizes

individual behavior's repercussions for others; collectivists behave following social norms and are willing to share scarce resources (Sinha and Verma, 1987). Collectivists emphasize the role of empathy, seeing themselves as an integral part of harmonious groups such as family and friends (Triandis, 1995; Iran et al., 2019).

Section 2-2. Social Responsibility

To date, previous studies have explored individuals' motivation for socially responsible behavior characterized by health consciousness, awareness of environmental issues, knowledge of remedial alternatives best suited for environment problem, and overall orientation towards the social welfare (Schwartz, 1977; Stern, 2000) and towards individuals' relationship with others in the community (McCarty and Shrum, 2001). Society's demands to be more socially responsible are becoming increasingly relevant, which results in global warming attributed by industrial manufacturing activities and daily human lives (Chen, 2011). Responding to such demands, people living in one of those ages, especially in developing countries and emerging economies, have been gradually aware of unsustainable consumption and social welfare problems leading to preserve environmental sustainability behavior. Consequently, the phenomenon of green behavior has been prominent as perceptions of socially responsible that emphasize the effort of individuals and corporations (Carroll and Shabana, 2010; Malik, 2015).

Moreover, the benefits, costs, and limits of socially responsible behavior are concerned as a means to further societal goals. The firms' adoption of a more long-term perspective, the delegated exercise of prosocial behaviors on behalf of the insider-initiated corporate philanthropy and stakeholders are motivated to benefit the business. The individual concerns are underlined to understand how prosocial behavior is further promoted. Also, prior research presented social responsibility involving in two branches: individual social responsibility (ISR) and corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Galaskiewicz 1991; McGee 1998; Drom 2015) with each own focusing.

This section is devoted to presenting literature concerning two social responsibility branches: individual social responsibility (ISR) and corporate social responsibility (CSR).

1. Individual Social Responsibility

In previous research, an individual's prosocial behavior has been linked to moral identity that is defined as the degree to which being moral fundamental to a person's identity. For instance, donating blood, volunteering in the community, giving to charities, investing in socially responsible funds, and consuming green products are prosocial behaviors that can benefit both individuals and society at large (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, and Schroeder, 2005). Prosocial behaviors often obey a complicated mix of interdependent motivations described as ISR obeying

an interdependent mix of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, including intrinsic altruism, material incentives, and social or self-esteem concerns (Bénabou and Tirole, 2010). Thus, ISR is described as “*a state in which a person expresses an intention to take action directed toward remediation of social and environmental problems acting not as an individual consumer with his/her own economic interests, but through a citizen consumer concept of societal-environmental well-being*” (Stone et al., 1995; adapted Taufique et al., 2014). In line with this view, this study maintains concerning individual perceptions of SR representing a disposition toward making decisions based on a conscious understanding of the consequences that business operations have on stakeholders and broader society.

Also, ISR has been aptly defined as “*the moral principles and standards that guide the behaviors of individuals as they obtain, use, and dispose of goods and services*” (Muncy and Vitell, 1992). In the same vein, Kohlberg (1971 and others (Rest, 1979) with an updated version of (Piaget, 1932) pecking extend the cognitive-developmental model posit that people take action in the service of human welfare due to the sophistication of a person’s moral reasoning, which probably explains his or her moral behavior (Kohlberg, 1984; Kohlberg and Hersh, 1977). Moreover, the socio-cognitive model (Bandura, 1999) argues that moral standards and self-sanctions drive moral behavior. Both aspects are essential since moral behavior may be less affected by moral conceptions without one of the aspects. Besides, a positive relationship between moral identity and prosocial behavior is indicated by Hertz and Krettenauer (2016) with a recent meta-analysis. Consequently, ISR can be presented by a psychological construct built from the cognitive-developmental and the socio-cognitive model, called moral identity.

An individual’s core and concerns being true to oneself in action rooted moral identity (Erikson, 1964b). Moral identity is considered as the mental representation of one’s moral character held internally as a cognitive schema and expressed to others externally through one’s actions (Aquino et al., 2002), and enables to predict various types of prosocial behavior across many situations (Shao et al., 2008; Lefebvre and Krettenauer, 2019) or motivate prosocial behavior (Fisher and Ackerman, 1998; Grant, 2012). This finding is in line with Shao et al. (2008), “*consistent adherence to behavioral prescriptions associated with the moral self can be expected if and only if*

(1) a person’s first-order moral desires are chronically accessible and therefore always likely to

be experienced as part of the self regardless of situational factors and

(2) his or her second-order desire to be a moral person occupies the highest position among a set of second-order desires (i.e., desires about one's desires) ”.

Furthermore, ISR can be illustrated by a psychological construct called moral identity described as *"a self-conception organized around a set of moral traits"* (Aquino et al., 2002; Skubinn and Herzog, 2016), based on a trait perspective but embraces a social cognition perspective. In this sense, Shao et al. (2008) determine moral identity by integrating the individual's character perspective and the social cognition perspective, as *"[b]oth emphasiz[ing] the importance of the moral self as determining the regulatory potency of moral identity and both rely[ing] on the desire for self-consistency as providing the primary motivational impetus for moral action."* (p. 519). The character perspective specifies three components of moral identity: *"judgment of responsibility, the centrality of the moral self, and the motivational potency of the desire"* with aims of maintaining self-consistency (Blasi 1984, 1993, 2004); whereas the social cognition perspective comprehends *"moral identity as an organized cognitive representation, or schema, of moral values, goals, traits, and behavioral scripts"* (Shao et al., 2008, p. 517).

Besides, previous research described moral identity as a self-regulatory mechanism kind motivating moral action (Blasi, 1984), and people's moral identity might consist of collectively shared and moral characteristics (Aquino and Reed, 2002). Moral identity can be a foundation of social identification used to construct one's self-definition. A person's moral identity may also relate to specific beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Cheryan and Bodenhausen, 2000).

Skubinn and Herzog (2016) state that the character perspective element shapes moral behaviors oriented toward the future (foresight morality), but short-term oriented (everyday morality) of the social-cognitive perspective element. Furthermore, prosocial behavior is more or less likely to occur as a function of moral identity; and many identity theories suggest that there are both public and private aspects of the self (Erikson 1964; Schlenker and Weigold, 1992; Winterich et al., 2013). Indeed, moral identity relates to one's understanding of reality and describes not only the notion of a private (internalization) but a public self (symbolization) (Aquino et al., 2002). Narvaez and Lapsley (2009) also understand moral identity as the heart of what it means to be a person concerned with his/her qualities. This argument implicates both who a person is and how a person acts, which follows an ontological tradition in moral philosophy and psychology. It posits

that moral identity involves a private dimension (which is rooted in the core of one's being) and a public dimension (that is manifested in an orientation to be true to oneself) (James, 1892/2001; Schlenker, 1980).

The moral identity concept has been further drawn on trait-based and social cognitive perspectives (Aquino et al., 2009; Aquino and Reed, 2002). Moral identity is identified as a consistent predictor of prosocial behavior, but the specific relationship and predictive strength of its two dimensions: a private, "having" side (internalization) and a public, "doing" side (symbolization). Consistent with these ideas, ISR in this study serves as "*an individual's benchmark and guide of moral behavior.*" It is identified within two dimensions: internalization and symbolization, associated with different primary sources of prosocial motivation and introduced in more detail in the following paragraphs.

➤ *Internalization*

Internalization reflects people's subjective experiences central to their overall self-concept (Aquino and Reed, 2002). It is relative between the sense of self and the mental representation of people to do moral action. A person's sense of self and identity is based on deeply felt concerns, commitments, and attachments (Solomon, 1992) as people high in moral identity internalization can motivate selfishness/egoistic to be a highly accessible mental representation of a private moral self (Winterich et al., 2013). As such, they can take responsibility, make decisions, exert control over themselves and the environment (Baumeister, 1998; Blasi, 1984; Erikson, 1964a). Therefore, internalization is consistent with the view of the agentic self (Frimer et al., 2014).

Regarding a socio-cognitive perspective, moral identity is conceptualized as "*an associative network of related moral traits, goals, and behaviors,*" comprising a person's schema of their moral character (Aquino and Reed, 2002). In the same vein, high internalized moral identity individuals are those whose networks of morally relevant knowledge constructs are chronically accessible within the working self-concept in terms of quantity and speed (Aquino et al., 2009).

Moreover, ISR reflects individuals' self-importance as multifaceted of one private and the other public (Aquino, 2012). Consistent with Aquino et al. (2002), internalization gives the impression of being the self-importance of the moral characteristics and expresses the self-importance of individuals' perceptions about their role in society. Aquino et al. (2002) also noted that being high in moral identity internalization does not indicate whether one is a moral person in a normative

sense. However, a higher level of internal moral identity has been shown, a stronger tendency to engage in moral behaviors and self-concept is expressed (Droms Hatch and Stephen, 2015).

Winterich et al. (2013) proposed that a vital drive for people high in moral identity is to maintain self-consistency. People are likely to act prosocially when they experience moral identity as necessary to the self, and this is consistent with their understanding of what it means to be a moral person. Winterich et al. (2013) also suggest that a person with high moral identity internalization should motivate prosocial behaviors regardless of whether they are in private or public situations. As a result, people high in moral identity internalization desire to maintain self-consistency between their behaviors and their moral identity as a highly salient goal to avoid psychological distress when there is a discrepancy between how they view themselves and how they should behave (Blasi, 1984). This finding is consistent with the argument of Winterich et al. (2013), people high in moral identity internalization are likely to experience a stronger motivation to act prosocially than those who are low.

➤ *Symbolization*

Symbolization reflects people's tendency to express their moral character through outward actions in the world. A person's characteristic presents ways of thinking, feeling, and regulating behavior (Solomon, 1992), considered as an indicator of a means of self-verifying an identity (Swarm Jr, 1983) and presents the authenticity of moral identity. Symbolization is the view of the self-concept and an actor to be accepted into social groups; and gain the benefits of exchange, which is cognitively and socially constructed (Harter, 1999). This social construction occurs through roles, practices, and interpersonal interactions in the context of social-moral identity in which a person is embedded, such as family, community, or organization (Hunter, 2000; Jennings, Mitchell, and Hannah, 2014). Therefore, engaging in moral identity symbolization is motivated to behave prosocially to increase the chances of being accepted into a social group and enhance social status. In the same view of Aquino et al. (2002), symbolization dimension demonstrates how individuals present their desire to participate in socially responsible behaviors to be more general self-concept.

According to Aquino (2012), the notion of an individual's self-importance is also a faceted public side. The symbolic moral identity dimension describes the impression of being the self-importance and appears to be "*a more general sensitivity to the moral self as a social object whose actions in*

the world can convey that one has these characteristics” (Winterich et al., 2013). Symbolization dimension demonstrates how individuals present their desire to participate in socially responsible behaviors to be more public self (Aquino and Reed, 2002). A person with high moral identity symbolization tends to engage in visible activities to convey a commitment to moral goals and ideals, whereas a person with low moral identity symbolization is less prone to take part in these public performances. As the same view of Winterich et al. (2013), people high in moral identity symbolization should be more sensitive to recognize when making decisions about whether or not to act prosocial behaviors; thus, moral identity symbolization should be a more reliable predictor of prosocial behaviors when prosocial acts are expected to be recognized than when they do not.

According to Mead (1934), symbolization is rooted in a symbolic interactionist perspective and is associated with realizing the self as a social entity (Schlenker, 1980). Symbolization is considered as a source of motivation for engaging in prosocial behavior (Winterich et al., 2013). As such, people high in moral identity of symbolization desire to verify a critical aspect of the self through others' reflected appraisals. Acting prosocially is promoted to achieve this goal since such prosocial behavior is recognized when others witness (Grant, 2012). Moreover, the need to maintain self-consistency between behavior and moral identity of people high, compared with the low, moral identity of symbolization should be more sensitive to recognizing their prosocial behaviors when making decisions about whether or not to act prosocially.

To summarize, ISR relates to individuals who desire to engage in socially responsible actions, directly impacting the communities outside their immediate groups to make society a better place. ISR is defined as *“a state in which a person expresses an intention to take action directed toward remediation of social and environmental problems acting not as an individual consumer with his/her economic interests, but through a citizen consumer concept of societal-environmental well-being”* (adapted Taufique et al., 2014). The concept of ISR is conceptualized by the concept of moral identity, has tapped the distinct aspects of self: self-concept, self-importance, and self-consistency.

ISR has been further drawn on the notion of a public and a private side. Two aspects of moral identity are shaped by different motivational mechanisms (Winterich, Aquino, Mittal, and Swartz, 2013). Internal moral identity describes the degree to which moral traits are central to the self-concept, whereas symbolic moral identity refers to the degree to which moral traits are

expressed publicly externally through a person's actions in the world (Aquino et al., 2002; Reynolds and Ceranic, 2007). In the same vein, a person's moral identity defines not only a self-identity but also a social identity desired to express to others in-group and may motivate choices to demonstrate his/her social responsiveness to the others' needs. (Winterich et al., 2013). Also, internalization exposes to tap into the self-importance of the moral characteristics directly; symbolization, in turn, taps a more general sensitivity to the moral self-observed as a social object that can convey these moral characteristics through its actions. Besides, internalization stimulates a desire to maintain identity-behavior, self-consistency (Winterich et al., 2013); symbolization, in turn, motivates from self-presentational goals that are related to the recognition of the self as a social entity and self-affirming feedback of others (Jennings et al., 2015).

Moreover, several studies indicate that what it means to be a moral person includes traits which are indicative of pro-sociality (Aquino and Reed, 2002; Walker and Frimer, 2007), which contains at least some prescriptive elements directing a moral identity person to be responsive to others (Winterich et al., 2013). Members in-group share similar virtues: being kind, compassionate, caring, helpful, generous, and friendly, which typically accounts for 30% to 40% of their own value to state moral identity across cultures (Jia et al., 2019). These characteristics are based on the Self-Importance of Moral Identity Questionnaire (SMI-Q) derived from six values of Aquino et al. (2002), and has been widely used in the majority of moral identity research to define a moral person (Jennings et al., 2015, Hertz and Krettenauer, 2016). The SMI-Q (Aquino et al., 2002) also consists of two components: internalization and symbolization. Hence, consistent with previous research, ISR in this study reflects the self-importance, self-concept, and self-consistency of individual as multifaceted of one private and the other public (Aquino et al., 2002); and is represented by two dimensions: internal moral identity (private side) referring to individuals' internal perceptions about their social responsibility and symbolic moral identity (public side) that incline to their external concept of social responsibility (Droms Hatch and Stephen, 2015; Schlenker, 1980; Erikson, 1964a; Reynolds and Ceranic, 2007). Table 10 shows a summary of the characteristics of Internal moral identity and Symbolic moral identity.

Table 10. Summary of characteristics of two dimensions of ISR (Internal moral identity and Symbolic moral identity)

	Internal moral identity (internalization)	Symbolic moral identity (symbolization)
Side	Private side	Public side
The self-concept	Be central to the self-concept	Be expressed publicly externally through a person's actions
The self-importance	The self-importance of moral characteristics	A more general sensitivity to the moral self A social object can convey moral characteristics by actions
The self-consistency	A desire to maintain identity-behavior self-consistency	Motivations from self-presentational goals related to the recognition of the self as a social entity and self-affirming feedback of others

2. Consumer perceptions of Corporate Social Responsibility (Consumer perceptions of CSR/Consumers' perceived CSR)

The concept of CSR was originated in the year 1930s and 1940s but first appeared in the publication "Social Responsibilities of the Businessman" by Bowen (1953), who is called the "Father of Corporate Social Responsibility." CSR was referred to more often as social responsibility (SR) than in the early writings. Bowen (1953) argues that "*social responsibility refers to the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society*" (p. 6), which means that "*businessmen were responsible for consequences of their actions in a sphere somewhat wider than that covered by their profit-and-loss statements*" (Bowen, 1953, p. 44).

Since the CSR construct's evolution began in the 1950s, it has ushered in the modern era of CSR whose definitions were expanded during the 1960s. Davis (1960) marked a significant growth in attempts to formalize or, more accurately, state what CSR means, which is observed in a managerial context. He expanded CSR's definition, referring to "*businessmen's decisions and actions that are taken for reasons at least partially beyond the firm's direct economic or technical interest*" (Davis, 1960, p. 70).

During the 1970s, CSR definitions proliferated and became more specific and commonplace with alternative emphases such as corporate social performances and corporate social responsiveness. The most notable contributions to the definitional construct in this period included the works of Johnson (1971) and Carroll (1979). Johnson (1971) explained views of CSR within four definitions: the possibility of a stakeholder approach as a "multiplicity of interests", "long-run profit maximization", "utility maximization", and "lexicographic view of social responsibility". Meanwhile, Carroll (1979) defines "*The social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time,*" and indicates that the social responsibility of businesses in four dimensions: economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic.

In the 1980s, there were fewer original definitions but more empirical research to measure and conduct research on CSR. CSR is associated with the concept of the triple-bottom-line theory (TBL) used to illustrate a sustainable development model. TBL was first introduced by Elkington

(1994) and expanded in 1998 to seek a balance of three aspects: economic, ecological, and ethical performance (Reichel and Oczyp, 2011). In the same vein, Wartick and Cochran (1985) presented their “evolution of the corporate social performance model” to extend the three-dimensional integration of responsibility, responsiveness, and social issues (adapted from Carroll, 1979).

In the 1990s, CSR concept continues to perform as a core construct but further transforms significantly into alternative themes, including stakeholder theory, corporate social performance, business ethics theory, and an additional assessment of corporate citizenship. Carroll et al. (1991) suggested that “*the CSR firm should strive to make a profit, obey the law, be ethical, and be a good corporate citizen*” (Carroll, 1999, p. 43).

Brown and Dacin (1997) defined CSR as the reflection of an organization’s status and activities relating to its perceived social obligations. They also considered CSR as a scale to distinguish between economic and non-economic responsibilities. However, this definition has not been used to differentiate CSR’s components since it describes CSR as a universal awareness that adequately reflects consumers’ minds.

Carroll (1999) indicated CSR as follows: “*The social responsibility of business encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time.*” This notion reveals Carroll’s CSR pyramid, including four components: economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic responsibilities based on Carroll (1979, 1991). The first component-economic-refers to consumer perceptions of socially responsible firms concerning certain economic practices (Alvarado-Herrera et al., 2017). As a result, society expects businesses to produce and sell goods/services at a profit. The second component-law-illustrates consumer perceptions of socially responsible firms concerning certain legal practices (Maignan, 2001; Maignan and Ferrell, 2004) or the basic “rules of the game” by which businesses are expected to function. In other words, businesses must consider the legal provisions regulated by the national and local administrations during decision-making and the commissioning of decisions (Carroll, 1979). As such, society expects businesses to fulfill their economic missions within the framework of the legal requirements set forth by the society’s legal system. The third component-ethical responsibility- expresses consumer perceptions of socially responsible firms concerning certain ethical practices (Alvarado-Herrera et al., 2017). Thereby, businesses must practice ethical norms and kinds of behaviors expected to follow. These extend to behaviors and

practices that are beyond what is required by the law. The fourth component is the discretionary responsibilities representing consumer perceptions of socially responsible firms concerning certain philanthropic practices and voluntary roles of these businesses, making the company a good corporate citizen (Carroll, 1991). Carroll (1999) also proposed to ensure all aspects of interests of customers, employees, suppliers, investors, communities. This conceptual is considered the most widely accepted definition (Mohr et al., 2001; Mandhachitara and Poolthong, 2011).

The increase in the complexity and pace of social changes has resulted in demands for new roles for businesses. Specifically, businesses recognize that shareholders continuously demand growth; employees look for meaning in their work; and public expectations from the businesses to address social, economic, and environmental challenges are increasing (Mirvis et al., 2016). The term CSR, then, was redefined with the Stakeholder Theory (Johnson, 1971; Carroll, 1999), wherein they emphasized the expectations of society from the company in their social, economic developments. Ghobadian et al. (2007) based on the stakeholder theory and suggested that CSR is concerned with treating the firm's stakeholders ethically or socially responsible. Stakeholders exist both within a firm and outside. Social responsibility aims to create higher living standards and preserve a corporation's profitability for stakeholders both within and outside it. This definition indicates that CSR is a multidimensional concept with many stakeholders, and the primary goal of CSR is to satisfy stakeholders.

Aguinis (2011) argues that CSR is *“organizational actions and policies that consider stakeholders’ expectations and the triple-bottom-line of economic, social, and environmental performance.”* CSR is divided into three factors, namely, economic, social, and environmental development. Business operations and corporate culture must be sustainable in all three. The definition, accepted by many researchers, divides CSR into three factors: economic, social, and environmental development (E. Rupp, 2011; Rupp et al., 2013). Glavas and Kelley (2014) defined CSR as *“caring for the well-being of others and the environment to create value for the business”* (p. 171), which initially links to businesses' economic performance.

Although the literature on CSR has been further elaborated since the 1950s, its precise definition is still problematic due to evolving continuous concepts determined by different perspectives of business, government, and scholars (Chang and Yeh, 2017; Dahlsrud, 2008). In particular,

marketing scholars have focused on social obligations relating to marketing functions such as social finance (Simmons and Becker-Olsen, 2006), environmental marketing (Crouch, 2006), communication marketing (Caruana and Crane, 2008), consumer product responses towards CSR (Brown and Dacin, 1997; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001) and corporate reputation (Berens et al., 2005; Wagner et al., 2009). However, CSR's concept in the view of marketing perspective only emphasizes customer relationships without CSR activity aspects. CSR was initially approached from the view of management as an obligation on the part of companies and after that, launched to all the stakeholders as *“a firm’s commitment to maximizing long-term economic, societal and environmental well-being through business practices, resources and policies”* (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Du et al., 2011). The European Commission concisely defines CSR as *“a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and their interaction with their stakeholders voluntarily.”* (European Commission 2001, p. 6).

Furthermore, there are three most-used methods to measure CSR, first, the construct within the domain of stakeholders (employees, customers, the community, and the natural environment) (Boğan, Ulama, and Sarıışık, 2016b; David et al., 2005; Singh et al., 2007; Turker, 2009b); second, Carroll's (1979) social responsibility pyramid dimensions (Fu et al., 2014a, Fu et al., 2014b; Wang, 2014); and third, the pillars of sustainable development (economic, social and environmental) (Alvarado and Shlesinger, 2008; Alvarado-Herrera, Bigne, Aldas-Manzano, and Curras-Perez, 2017; Bigne et al., 2005; Dedeoğlu, and Çalışkan, 2019) (see Table 11).

Business leaders believe that CSR tangibly contributes to companies' bottom line and reputation (Reputation Institute, 2019). For companies to succeed, they no longer focus on creating business transactions but building and maintaining relationships with their customers. Besides, Bhattacharya et al. (2009) proposed that stakeholders gain personal benefits either through their direct involvement in company CSR initiatives or mere knowledge based on their perceptions of such initiatives. Thus, this study examines CSR within the stakeholders' domain because it provides *“a clear investigation about the activities linked with intended stakeholders and beneficiaries”* (Park and Levy, 2014, p. 337).

The reason for this increasing interest in CSR is its potent effects on consumer responses to situations in which consumers are demanding more from business rather than a quality product

at a lower price (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004). Besides, stakeholder theory suggests that companies must view customers as an economic entity and as members of a family, community, and society (Maignan et al., 2005). In line with the stakeholder management approach, customers are one of the main interest groups who are seriously paid attention since their reaction could decide enterprises' existence and development (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004). Indeed, one of the most important stakeholders for companies is consumers (Jones, Reilly, Cox, and Cole, 2017) who represent “*a central feature of every CSR report, as they are vital for a corporation's long-term survival*” (Öberseder et al., 2014). A company engages in improving the environment and community through active participation of key stakeholder groups such as consumers as not merely their ethical responsibility, but instead achieving their strategic goals to gain a competitive advantage over their formidable rival (Raghubir et al., 2010; Mahoney et al., 2009; Porter and Kramer, 2006). Besides, a successful CSR strategy is documented once be awarded and satisfied by consumers.

Taking into consideration the complexity of the concept of CSR with several suggested definitions in the literature is as a social obligation, as a stakeholder obligation, as ethics driven, and as a managerial process (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004); this research follows the stakeholder perspective and focuses on consumers as the primary stakeholder. As such, CSR is understood, by us, as the company's strategic management geared towards the Consumer perceptions of CSR or Consumers' perceived CSR. Under this approach, we consider CSR as “individual's perceptions of the role corporations” comprising two distinct external-facing dimensions: the benefit of the company to the consumer (Consumer Benefit) and the benefit of the company to the society (Social Benefit) (Droms Hatch and Stephen, 2015).

➤ *Consumer benefit* refers to the perceived benefit main stakeholders/consumers derive from the company's products/services and the level of information concerning a product's risks and benefits (Droms Hatch and Stephen, 2015; Turker, 2009a). Additionally, this dimension includes information concerning a product's risks and benefits informed by organizations to demonstrate their respect to consumers. They probably pay attention to purchasing products/services.

➤ *Social benefit* expresses the positive effect of a company's activities on the environment, community well-being, and sustainable development (Turker, 2009a). These initiatives are

focused on stakeholders inside the organization and on societal well-being to represent the company's efforts to make the world better. As such, firms can find solutions to social problems that are not directly related to the costs they impose on society. Mainly, if individuals believe that corporations demonstrate respect for consumers at a high level and responsibility to society, they will likely present a high intention to organizations' products/services.

Overall, CSR is described as "Consumers' perceived CSR" which would have of an organization, but it would not be aware of how an organization presents itself to its internal and governmental stakeholders. Consumers' perceived CSR comprises two dimensions: Consumer Benefit and Social Benefit (Droms Hatch and Stephen, 2015; Turker, 2009b), which deal with consumer perceptions of an organization's CSR activities to benefit its consumers and society.

Table 11. Conceptual characteristics of measurement scales for CSR and its dimensions

Research and scale name	Dimension(s) of the scale and what it/they attempt(s) to measure	Theoretical approach for the dimension(s)
Carroll (1979, 1991, 1999)	Economic the responsibility to produce goods and services to make profits Legal obligation of taking into account the regulated legal provisions Ethical the kinds of behaviors and ethical norms that society expects business to follow Philanthropic the conscientious responsibility to the community	Carroll's Pyramid model (1979 and 1991)
Johnson 1971	Multiplicity of interests", "long-run profit maximization", "utility maximization", and "lexicographic view of social responsibility"	Stakeholder
Wartick and Cochran, 1985	Responsibility, responsiveness, and social issues	Carroll's Pyramid model (1979 and 1991)
Elkington 1994	Economic, ecological, and ethical performance	The triple-bottom-line theory (TBL)
Brown and Dacin, 1997	Economic and non- economic aspects	Corporate associations
Maignan 2001; Maignan and Ferrell, 2004	Economic Importance - a consumer attributes to the economic dimension of CSR Legal Importance - a consumer attributes to the legal dimension of CSR Ethical Importance - a consumer attributes to the ethical dimension of CSR Philanthropic Importance – a consumer attributes to the discretionary dimension of CSR	Carroll's Pyramid model (1979 and 1991)
Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004	Employees, customers, community and the natural environment	Stakeholder
Ghobadian et al., 2007	Employees, customers, community and the natural environment	Stakeholder
David et al., 2005	Moral-Ethical - Personal importance attributed to the moral and ethical aspects of CSR activities and the firm's perceived performance	Adapted from Carroll's Pyramid model (1979 and

	Discretionary - Personal importance attributed to the discretionary aspects of CSR activities and the firm's perceived performance Discretionary - Personal importance attributed to the relational aspects of CSR activities and the firm's perceived performance	1991)
Bigne et al., 2005	Social Consumer perception of socially responsible firms in relation to certain social practices Economic Consumer perception of socially responsible firms in relation to certain economic practices Environmental Consumer perception of socially responsible firms in relation to certain environmental	Sustainable development
Singh et al., 2007	Commercial Consumer perception of socially responsible firms in relation to their creation of value in commercial terms Ethical Users' opinion of what the firm does about its social responsibility in the ethical arena Social Consumer perception of socially responsible firms in relation to certain social practices	Carroll's Pyramid model (1979 and 1991)
Alvarado and Shlesinger, 2008	Economic - Users' opinion of what the firm does about its social responsibility in the economic arena Ethical-legal - Users' opinion of what the firm does about its social responsibility in the ethical-legal arena Philanthropic - Users' opinion of what the firm does about its social responsibility in the discretionary field	Carroll's Pyramid model (1979 and 1991)
Turker 2009b	Employees, customers, the community and the natural environment	Stakeholder
Reichel and Oczyp, 2011	Economic, ecological and ethical performance	The triple-bottom-line theory (TBL)

Aguinis 2011	Economic, social and environmental development	Sustainable development and Stakeholder
Du et al., 2011	Employees, customers, the community and the natural environment	Stakeholder
E. Rupp 2011	Economic, social and environmental development	Sustainable development
Rupp et al., 2013	Economic, social and environmental development	Sustainable development
Fu et al., 2014a ; Fu et al., 2014b	Economic Importance - a consumer attributes to the economic dimension of CSR Legal Importance - a consumer attributes to the legal dimension of CSR Ethical Importance - a consumer attributes to the ethical dimension of CSR Philanthropic Importance - a consumer attributes to the discretionary dimension of CSR	Carroll's Pyramid model (1979 and 1991)
Wang 2014	Economic - Users' opinion of what the firm does about its social responsibility in the economic arena Ethical-legal - Users' opinion of what the firm does about its social responsibility in the ethical-legal arena Philanthropic - Users' opinion of what the firm does about its social responsibility in the discretionary field	Carroll's Pyramid model (1979 and 1991)
Öberseder et al., 2014	Employees, customers, the community and the natural environment	Stakeholder
Glavas and Kelley, 2014	Economic, social, and environmental development	Sustainable development
Park and Levy, 2014	Employees, customers, the community and the natural environment	Stakeholder
Alvarado-Herrera et al., 2017	Economic, social and environmental development	Sustainable development
Jones et al., 2017	Employees, customers, the community and the natural environment	Stakeholder
Boğan and Dedeoğlu, 2019	Economic, social and environmental development	Sustainable development
Gursoy et al., 2019	Employees, customers, the community and the natural environment	Stakeholder

Section 2-3. Consumer behavior intention

1. *Willingness to pay price premium*

Consumer response to prices is investigated in many different marketing literature concepts. Willingness to pay (WTP) is one of the key parts of price perception processing (i.e., reference price, acceptable price). WTP is defined as “*the maximum price a buyer accepts to pay for a given number of goods or services,*” including environmental goods (Cha et al., 2009; Wertenbroch and Skiera, 2002, p. 228); and predicted to be an essential factor of consumers’ decision-making processing (Le Gall-Ely, 2009). Several studies have revealed WTP as “the reservation price” (Kalish and Nelson, 1991; Kristensen and Gärning, 1997) or the “floor reservation price” to calculate the marginal price values (Wang et al., 2007).

According to Porral et al. (2013), the number of customers willing to pay for a product of a brand is larger than the number of those willing to pay the similar product of other similar relevant brands; such brand is known as a brand obtaining a premium price (Aaker, 2007). Thus, Netemeyer et al. (2004) defined willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP) as the number of consumers willing to pay to purchase a brand they prefer compared with a similar brand.

Husted et al. (2014) consider WTPP as the marginal WTP for green products, defined as “*the percentage over the willingness to pay for the base commodity*” (Sedjo and Swallow, 1999). From the perspective of psychology, consumers are willing to pay a premium for environmental goods to express a behavioral intention (Ajzen and Driver, 1992); thus, WTPP/marginal WTP is described as an instruction given by consumers to pay “*an additional amount for the environmental attributes of products beyond the price of the base product.*” Consistent with the notion of Cordano and Frieze (2000, p. 628), WTPP illustrates “*the amount of effort a person exerts to perform a behavior*” to reward a product attribute such green product.

In this study, WTPP is further defined as “*the excess price a consumer is willing to pay for a brand over comparable brands/lesser brands of the same package size/quantity*” (Aaker, 1996; Netemeyer et al., 2004). WTPP refers to the amount of money an individual is willing to pay to secure a welfare improvement (Aguilar and Vlosky, 2007) and is a key to understand how attitudes toward differentiated products transform into monetary values since WTPP is a measure of the value that a person assigns to a consumption or user experience in monetary units (Aaker, 1996).

2. Word-of-mouth

Many previous studies have stated that WOM is one of the most potent forces in the marketplace which represents a highly influential information source for consumers before making a decision (Ring et al., 2016) because of its essential role in shaping consumer attitudes, behaviors, future purchase decisions (Brown and Reingen, 1987; De Bruyn and Lilien, 2008) and the attitude towards the brand [Parks and Guay, 2009).

Westbrook (1987) defined WOM as “*all informal communications directed at other users about the ownership, usage, or characteristics of particular goods and services or their sellers,*” which is consistent with the notion of Anderson (1998, p. 6), WOM is “*informal communication between private parties concerning evaluations of goods and services.*” WOM is reported to happen in the context of a specific situation (Allsop et al., 2007) and may contain both cognitive and emotive elements (Sweeney et al., 2012).

Several studies have contended that WOM is an exchange of informal interpersonal communications/information between individuals, which refers to “*an informal, person-to-person communication between a perceived non-commercial communicator and a receiver regarding a brand, a product, an organization, or a service*” (Anderson, 1998; King and Summers, 1970; Murphy et al., 2007). Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) defined positive WOM as the degree to which the consumer praises the brand to others, consistent with the notion of (File et al., 1992, p.5) who informed that WOM is “*recommending the firm and the service to others as well as communications with the firms.*” Consumers who had memorable shopping experiences with a brand tend to tell others in their network about those experiences; thus, WOM provides vital information about a firm to consumers that often helps consumers decide whether or not to patronize a firm (Zeithaml et al., 1993).

Consumers frequently share their purchase experiences with people nearby after they have consumed a particular product and/or service. Thereby, WOM also makes a massive change in spreading information to disseminate brand-related information in their established social networks of friends, classmates, and other acquaintances (French and Read, 2013; Vollmer and Precourt, 2008), even getting rid of the limitations of face-to-face information exchange (Dellarocas, 2006). It is an exchange of information between individuals (King and Summers, 1970) since WOM is considered as “*an act of telling at least one friend, acquaintance, or family*

member about the personal experience with a satisfactory or unsatisfactory product or retail establishment,” whereby individuals communicate positive or negative information to others in the form of recommending or warning against serving of a seller’s operation (Richins, 1983).

From previous research, in this study, positive WOM refers to actions/intentions of a consumer to recommend the brand to other people and friends, which helps consumers decide whether to consume a product/brand (Westbrook, 1987) with less skepticism than firm-initiated promotional efforts (Herr et al., 1991). In the same vein, positive WOM has been recognized as a specific non-commercial valuable vehicle for promoting a firm’s products and services.

3. Purchase intention and Brand purchase intention

Intention represents *“the person’s motivation in the sense of his or her conscious plan to exert effort to carry out a behavior”* (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993, p. 168). Purchase intention has been widely used in the literature as a predictor of subsequent purchase. Purchase intention is the likelihood that a customer will buy a particular product/service (Dodds et al., 1991).

Purchase intention is a useful tool to predict the buying process, affected by internal or external motivations during the buying process (Gogoi, 2013). Thus, purchase intention sometimes becomes the consumers’ reason not to purchase a product/service when it does not come to their mind. In the same vein, purchase intention relates to the behavior, perceptions, and attitudes of consumers. It is a kind of predisposition that examines the motivation of buying a particular brand by the consumer in a specific condition (Shah et al., 2012); and, it is also a crucial point for consumers to access and evaluate the specific product.

Purchase intention has been evaluated by asking consumers what their degree of intention is, such as “thinking about purchasing,” “want to purchase,” and “possibly will purchase” (Zeithaml, 1988). Meanwhile, Green purchase intention is considered as a consumer’s intent or actual purchase of an environmentally friendly product or brand once they are aware of its green attributes (Oliver and Lee, 2010).

Based on the reference to other research, this study describes a concise definition of purchase intention may be as follows: Purchase intention is consumers’ decision-making process before carrying out a purchasing transaction over a particular product needed (Anoraga, 2000) whose

characteristics consistent with the customers' want (Febryan, 2010).

Besides, Green purchase intention is "*a consumer's desire to purchase the product after they are aware it is a green product or green brand*" (Chen and Chang, 2012; Oliver and Lee, 2010; Zeithaml, 1988). Brand purchase intention is the personal action tendencies relating to the brand (Bagozzi and Burnkrant, 1979; Ostrom, 1969); thus, brand purchase intentions are an individual's conscious plan to make efforts to buy a brand (Spears and Singh, 2004).

Conclusion of Chapter 2. Antecedents and Consequences of Brand relationship Quality

To summarize, this chapter consists of three main sections. We focus on the concept of personal values, social values, and cultural values in the first section. Then, we discuss relevant theories of ISR and CSR in the next section. Last, we examine the variables of consumer behavior intention.

More specifically, based on the extant literature review and comprehensive discussion on three types of consumer values (personal values, social values, and cultural values), two branches of social responsibility (ISR and Consumer perceptions of CSR), and consumer behavior intention (WTPP, WOM, Brand purchase intention), this chapter aims to address the shortcomings in the existing literature by providing an integrated conceptual framework for understanding these variables which were considered as the antecedents and consequences variables of BRQ. Besides, these variables' roles in building relationships between consumers and green brands are discussed to synthesize relevant research in the context of green products and green brands, serving as a strong foundation for conceptual framework development.

In order to build the conceptual research model later, we decide the place of each variable to be included in a model - whether it was an antecedent or a consequence of BRQ. To do so, we establish the nature of relationships of chosen variables with a reflection on the cause and effect of BRQ. In the next chapter (Chapter 3), we propose the relationships between antecedents and consequences of the two components of BRQ - Hot and Cold BRQ, through relevant hypotheses. Then, we provide a conceptual model containing all these constructs.

CHAPTER 3 - HYPOTHESES AND RESEARCH MODEL

The previous chapter reviewed the literature on the different concepts within the framework of our research (cf. Chapters 1 and 2), relating to consumer-brand relationships, consumer values, social responsibility, especially BRQ, personal values, social values, cultural values, ISR, and consumer perceptions of CSR. This chapter synthesizes empirical evidence about the key variables identified in Chapters 1 and 2 to generate research hypotheses. This chapter also presents the theoretical framework (Figure 24) and hypotheses derived from this framework to answer the research questions and address the research gaps.

First, we present the framework of the research stages as the basis for the study model and discuss the hypotheses deriving from the framework. More specifically, we introduce the different parts of the model and the underlying hypotheses based on the existing literature review (section 3-1. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development). As such, we mobilize all studied constructs to put forth hypotheses deriving from the framework and to propose a conceptual model that meets our research objectives.

We then expose the choices of measurement scales linked to the various constructs used. Thus, measurement scales operationalized based on published scales with sound psychometric properties will be discussed and selected at the end of this chapter (section 3-2. Measurement Scales).

This chapter will be organized, as described in Figure 10.

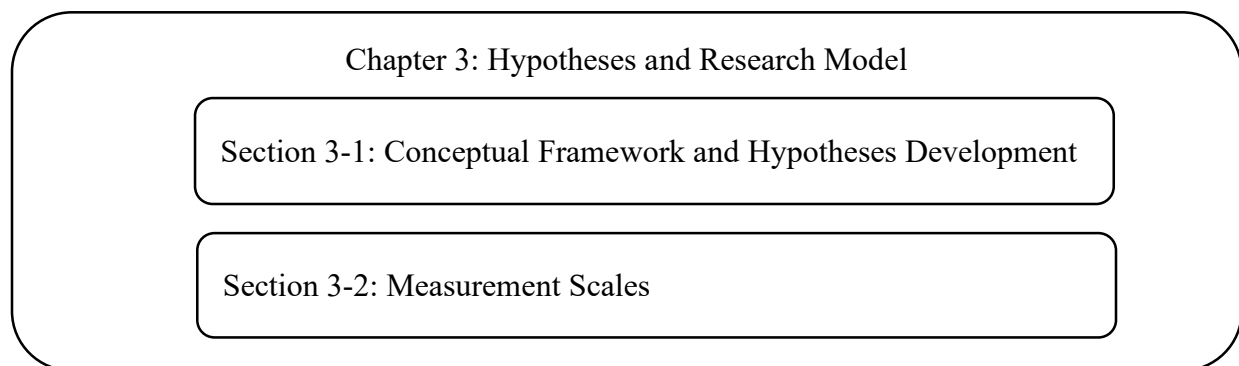


Figure 10. Outline of Chapter 3

Section 3-1. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development

After reviewing the literature related to Values, consumer-brand relationships, especially BRQ, revealing gaps requiring further empirical examination of the links between BRQ and other relational constructs: consumer values, two branches of social responsibility (ISR and consumer perceptions of CSR), and consumer behavior intention. During this section, we describe our proposed research model in order to answer the research questions.

Thus, this section presents the development of hypotheses concerning the antecedents and consequences of two components of BRQ. Hypotheses are tested to examine the relationships between constructs. Specifically, we explore the relationship between Cultural values, Personal values, Social values, ISR, and two components of BRQ; besides, we examine the effects of two components of BRQ (Hot and Cold BRQ) on consequences in terms of WTPP, WOM, and Consumer perceptions of CSR. Finally, we study the impact of these consequences on brand purchase intention.

As presented in the previous section, the conceptual model presentation of this research revolves three different main concepts:

- Antecedent variables
 - Cultural Values - antecedent of Personal Values and Social Values
 - Personal Values
 - Social Values
 - Individual Social Responsibility (ISR)
- Relational variables
 - Hot BRQ
 - Cold BRQ
- Consequences variables
 - Consumer perceptions of CSR (Consumers' perceived CSR)
 - Willingness to pay a premium (WTPP)
 - Word-of-mouth (WOM)
 - Brand Purchase Intention (BPI)

The research hypotheses are devised from the literature review to test the vital relationships between variables, which centers on the construct of BRQ, antecedents and consequences of hot

and cold BRQ. Different research hypotheses follow this order. Moreover, additional hypotheses are presented following the main research hypotheses, if necessary.

1. Antecedents variables

a. Cultural Values - Antecedent of Hot and Cold BRQ

Two first hypotheses relating to the relationships between Cultural Values and antecedents of BRQ (Personal Values and Social Values) are presented.

Hofstede (1980) defines culture as “*the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes one group from another.*” Consistent with the notion of Han and Hwang (2013), culture is described as the integrative mixture of universal characteristics affecting one group’s responses to its general environment. In a similar vein, cultural differences shape each group/members’ thoughts, beliefs, practices, and values that are all embedded within the culture they belong to (Cho et al., 2013; McCarty and Shrum, 1994).

Further, all values recognized across a person's cultures are located on the motivational continuum of values (Cieciuch, Schwartz, and Davidov, 2015), called personal values (Schwartz et al., 2012). Regarding the connections between Schwartz’s ten personal value types and the individualism-collectivism construct, Schwartz (1992) notes that the values of hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction (openness-to-change) reflect individual interests and represent the individualism construct. Conversely, the values of benevolence, universalism (self-transcendence) and conformity, security (conservation) serve collective interests and represent the collectivism construct (Schwartz, 1992; Triandis, 1996). As such, the circular structure of personal values is a matrix culture values (individualism-collectivism) of promoting and transmission (Schwartz et al., 2012) (see Figure 11)

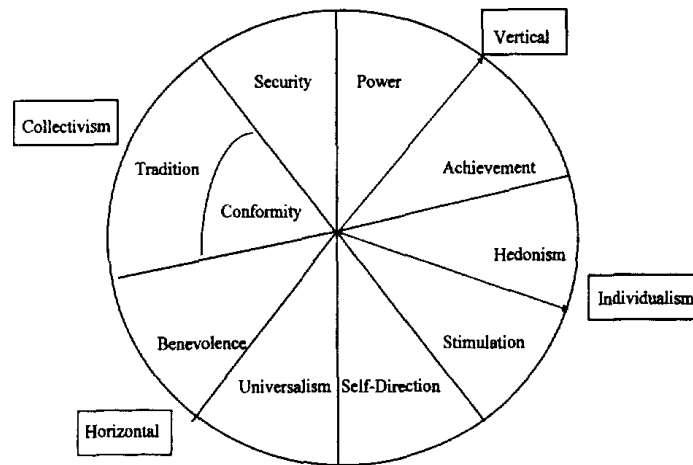


Figure 11. Theoretical links between Schwartz's ten value types and Triandis's two individualism-collectivism dimensions. (Adapted from Schwartz, 1994 and Triandis, 1995)

Moreover, self-identity is also a product of the types of motivation that personal value expresses. Individualists are likely to emphasize self-identity value as a means of their self-identity expression to emphasize themselves and be less concerned about maintaining harmonious relationships among in-group members (Brewer and Chen, 2007).

Thus, terms used to articulate the personal values are products of the culture, and personal values of each individual are likely influenced differently by culture, understood as a shared meaning system (Hofstede, 2000) and indeed related to individualism-collectivism (Oishi et al., 1998). As such, this study hypothesizes that:

H1.1: Cultural Values positively influence Personal Values.

Both individualism and collectivism are strong predictors of consumption values, including social values (Xiao and Kim, 2009). Individualists and collectivists positively predispose to status and conspicuous consumption, reflecting the status and conspicuous value but for different underlying reasons (Xiao and Kim, 2009; Zhang and Nelson, 2016). Individualists are more likely to focus on the identity, fulfil their personal self, and enhance their self-image and self-esteem (Dubois and Ordabayeva, 2015). In contrast, collectivists are keen on social groups, the fulfilment of their social self over personal self, the conformation to their desired group or the acceptance of their in-group, and the demonstration of their position to others (Nabi, Siahtiri and O'Cass, 2019). Therefore, both individualism and collectivism affect the propensity towards consuming specific products/brands for social values, which refers to status or social prestige and wealth (O'Cass and Frost, 2002).

Further, individualism and collectivism across cultures have been identified as distinct preferences to respect a person’s or group’s relationship with others (Triandis, 1989). As such, individualism and collectivism may consist of different ways to engage in environmental behavior (McCarty and Shrum, 2001). Environmentally friendly products may be good for the group and the society, while collectivists prefer group-based benefits over individual motivations, therefore collectivists would be more likely involved in the environment (McCarty and Shrum, 1994).

However, green products may be an inconvenience for individualistic persons who do not prefer self-sacrifice over the gains of the society or group, but green products/green brands benefit their green self-identity (Barbarossa et al., 2017). As a result, the influence of cultural values (individualism and collectivism) on social values refers to the social perceptions of what consumers should look like in society to achieve their goals and behave or classify these perceptions based on individualism and collectivism constructs determined by cultural values. Considering previous arguments, we hypothesize that:

H1.2: Cultural Values positively influence Social Values.

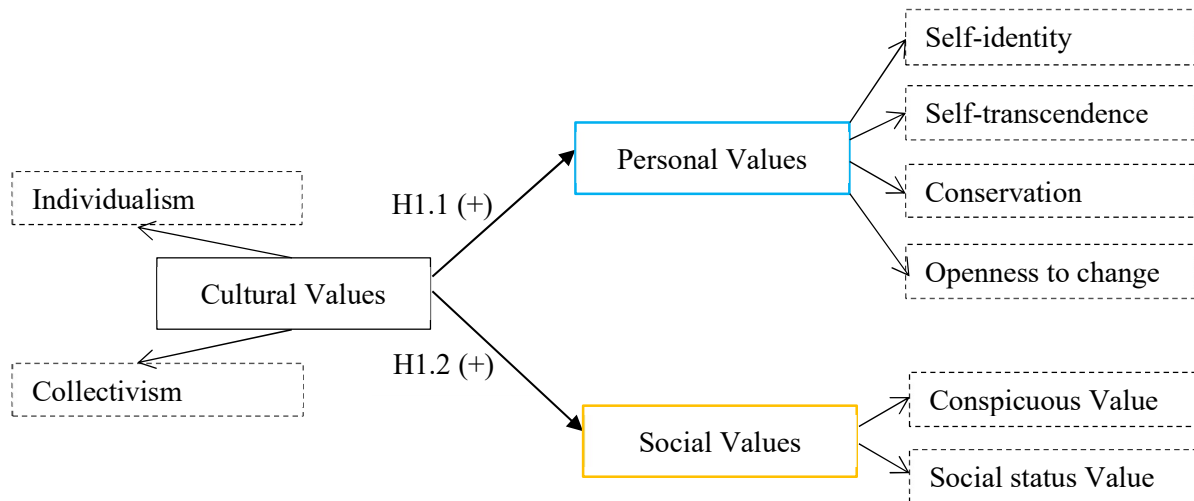


Figure 12. Sub-model of the effects of Cultural values on Personal values and Social values

b. Personal Values

Consumers support green brands that are “*brands with active communication and differentiation from competitors through their environmentally sound attributes*” (Hartmann, Ibanez, and Sainz, 2005, p. 10).

The increasing penetration of green products moves practitioners' focus to these green brands'

products to build healthy and sustainable relationships between a consumer and a green brand that can help establish long-term loyalty (Papista et al., 2018).

As expressions of basic motivations, values are relevant to what people think and feel and how they behave. More recently, scholars acknowledged the impact of personal values on pro-environmental behavior (De Groot and Steg, 2008; Follows and Jobber, 2000; Hansla et al., 2008). Several personal values have been associated with different ethical and eco-friendly behaviors (Barbarossa et al., 2017; Kilbourne and Pickett, 2008). In particular, self-transcendence value, conservation value, openness-to-change value have positively related to pro-environmental attitudes and behavior (Schultz and Zelezny, 1999; Schwartz, 1992). Consumers adhering more to *self-transcendent* motivations can express their behavioral intentions more via environmental concerns with a green product. People who are strongly motivated by *conservation* values may feel the urge to pay attention to environmental products. People with a high openness-to-change score are sensation-seeking and driven by egocentric motivations to express directly in their behavioral intentions regarding green products considered as an innovative proposition. Besides, personal values include *self-identity* posited as a crucial structure that mediates the relationship between values and pro-environmental behavior (Steg et al., 2014). According to Whitmarsh and O'Neill (2010), a green self-identity increases engagement in pro-environmental actions. In other words, people with a green self-identity more often do actions pro-environmentally.

Moreover, the more consumers perceive themselves as green, the more they are willing to express their environmentally friendly consumption (Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons, 2017). As such, personal values refer to a good predictor of environmentally friendly behavior. People act with the aims of attaining, affirming or preserving the goals that their important values express. Also, expressing one's value preferences can influence interpersonal relationships, which help establish relationships.

The above discussions indicate that various personal values domains form a higher-order construct of overall personal values as a significant determinant. In the case of a green brand, consumers may derive pleasure from environmental actions to demonstrate their personal values to impact on cognition and emotion towards a brand. Specifically, a great motivation to act on green consumption behaviors triggered by personal value would arouse positive emotion and cognition to green brands, helping establish relationships with a brand. This argument is consistent with the

notion of Aggarwal (2004), pointing out the relationship is not only a status but also an evolving process of a framework wherein the consumer can behave in conformity with the relationship norms shaped by value standards of consumers in their evaluation of the brand and their actions.

Thus, potential antecedents of consumer-brand relationship quality are diverse. However, in this study, the role of values is thus termed as one of the most critical drivers in predicting the loyalty intentions of consumers (Yeh et al., 2016), and also a crucial determinant in building a strong relationship between consumers and brands through positive feelings and cognition.

As such, this study posits the following:

H2.1: Personal Values positively influence Hot BRQ.

H2.2: Personal Values positively influence Cold BRQ.

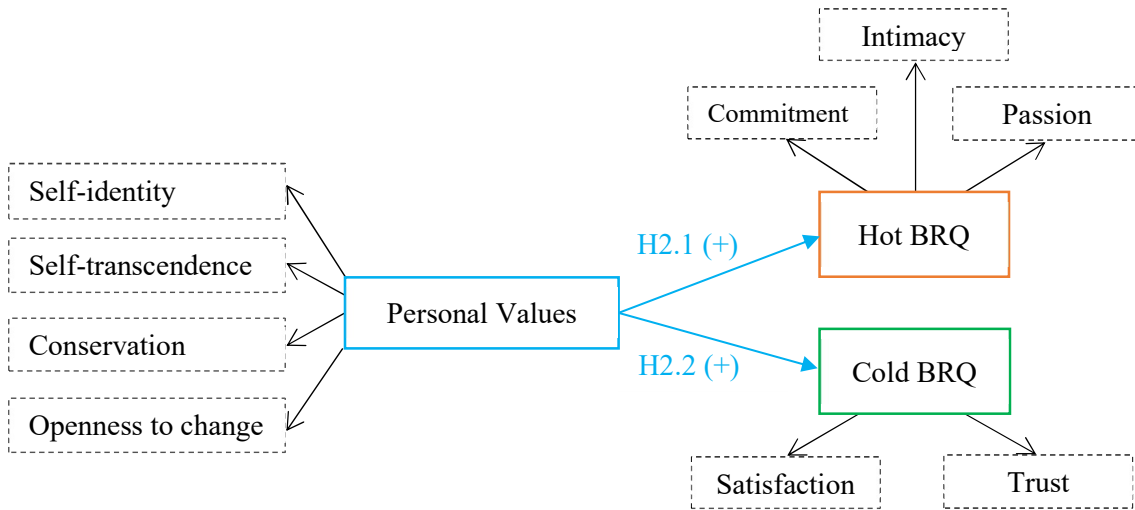


Figure 13. Sub-model of the effects of Personal values on Hot and Cold BRQ

Personal values play an essential role in understanding individuals since the evaluation of values is a fundamental method to understand beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. Roccas and Sagiv (2009) hold that “one of the reasons for the interest in understanding personal values is their effects on behavior, and that personal values have associated with a large variety of behaviors.” Besides, Crilly et al. (2008) found linkages between personal values and moral reasoning, which leads to prosocial behavior among individuals, even though the strength of association between the two depends upon the individual differences amongst people (Lonnqvist et al., 2013).

As discussed in section 2.2, Chapter 2, personal values are categorized in two categories as terminal values (goals) and instrumental values (means, methods) that constitute the requirements

to achieve goals or terminal values; and “being responsible” is listed as one of the instrumental values of Rokeach (1973). Aydın (2014) also defined responsibility as an individual’s tendency to undertake the outcomes of his/her verbal or physical actions or behaviors, which is formed by a person's value systems. Meanwhile, ISR is also closely related to individual responsibility towards social groups. Thus, individuals have responsibilities to society to achieve personal goals, for instance, to become a moral person or express their internal and external moral identity considered as individuals’ perceptions about their role in society, and to undertake their own duties as well as act accordingly.

Based on the discussion above, we hypothesize that:

H2.3: Personal Value positively influence ISR

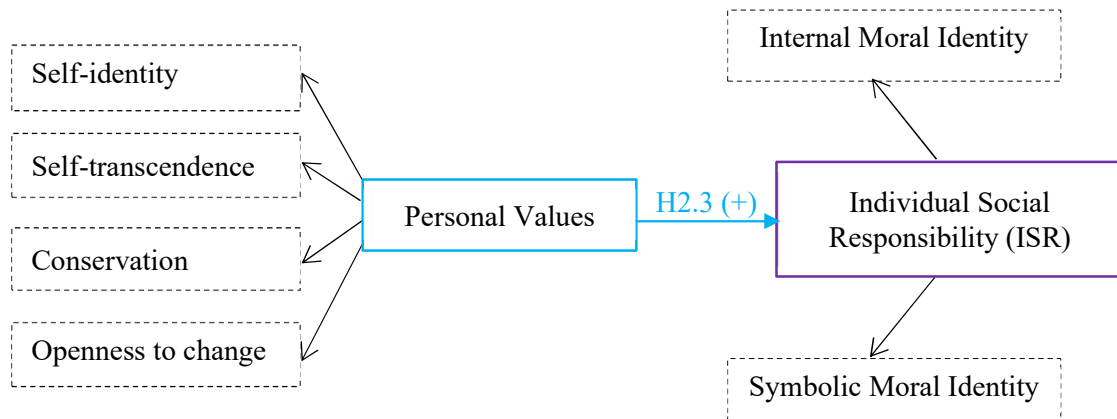


Figure 14. Sub-model of the effects of Personal values on Individual Social Responsibility (ISR)

c. Social Values

As mentioned in Chapter 2, social values reflect “the perceived utility of a product to enhance an individual's social self-concept and association with one or more specific social groups” (Papista et al., 2018). Individuals desire to gain recognition and distinction by spending on specific brands that display their status and prestige to significant others (Ajitha and Sivakumar, 2017; Griskevicius et al., 2010; O’Cass and McEwen, 2004).

In terms of status consumption, consumers are encouraged by internal and external motivations to acquire status (Truong et al., 2009), representing their desire to ensure their social presence through luxury brands or specific brands (Eastman et al., 1999). It signifies the role of social relations in

maintaining status-based consumption and conspicuousness displayed in an individual's actions and behavior. The degree of consumption contributes to improving social relations and the structure of social organizations in the community (Patsiaouras and Fitchett, 2012). In other words, status value motivates consumptions of consumers those who feel valued by others and want to maintain or enhance the status to the extent (Eastman et al., 1999; O' Cass and Frost, 2002).

In line with Batra, Homer and Kahle (2001) research, consumers are often under higher pressure when making decisions to buy products due to a higher need for enhancing their individual symbols, social identity, and in-group conformity. Prosocial individuals are desirable to symbolize their social performance through green consumption and satisfy the need to act in ways expected to achieve personal and professional visibility at not only high social standing but a high level of conspicuousness. Wealthy people expect to buy highly conspicuous goods to present their wealth and higher social status. Conspicuous consumption is the uptake of products based on conspicuous utility, which comes from fulfilling both material needs and social needs (Patsiaouras and Fitchett, 2012). Conspicuous consumers behave such that their actions and behavior are explicit to others; their consumption flows through a pattern to enhance their self-image and value within a reference group. Hence, the rationale for why individuals are willing to pay a premium for a product or undergo a sacrifice solely to signal one's wealth is to present an explicit or implicit statement about themselves and associate with status (Miller, 2011).

Overall, consumers are attracted by specific brands to consume for social performance (Goldsmith, Flynn and Eastman, 1996) since these brands are positioned to communicate users' prestige and their social position (Zinkhan and Preshaw, 1994). In the same vein, green brands can allow consumers at every class level to fit in portraying their desired social images with specific characteristics provided because self-sacrifice for the group benefit of strangers has been shown to increase the self-sacrificer's status in that group (Griskevicius and Tybur, 2010; Hardy and Van Vugt, 2006). Also, clearly labeling green brands implicates that conspicuous consumers desire to consume for social status, appearance, and image at every class level.

Resulting from the above discussions, we can indicate that social status and conspicuousness may form a higher-order construct of consumers' overall social values with the green brand as a significant prerequisite. Consistent with an earlier study of Ajitha and Sivakumar (2017), consumers have become more environmentally conscious with luxury cosmetic brands to enhance

their social values through a pattern of their conspicuousness and status consumption. We propose that social values may trigger consumers' emotions or arouse their feelings and affective states towards a green brand. Besides, social values arise beliefs to a green brand of consumers those who desire to explicit their social performances with outward symbols of status, wealth, and their self-image within a reference group, which they may satisfy from the consumption experience with the green product and taste of more environment products. Thus, we are interested in exploring a significant and positive relation of social values to hot versus cold BRQ.

Based on the above discussion, this research hypothesizes that:

H3.1: Social Values positively influence Hot BRQ.

H3.2: Social Values positively influence Cold BRQ.

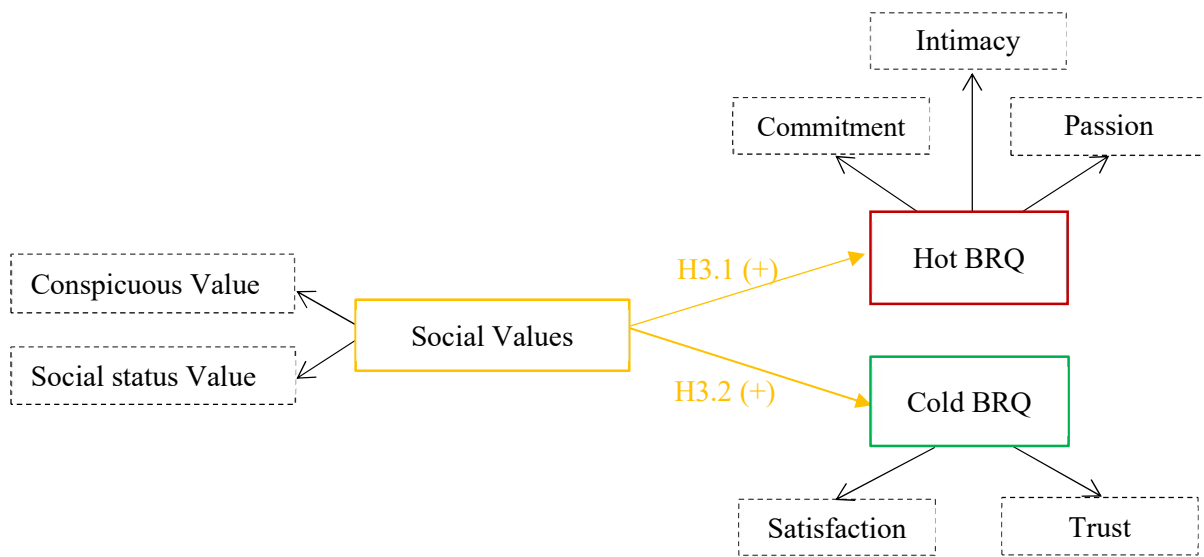


Figure 15. Sub-model of the effects of Social Values on Hot and Cold BRQ

Besides, costly signaling theory (Zahavi and Zahavi, 1999) suggests that consumers will sacrifice product convenience or effectiveness for environmental benefits that are increasingly costly in terms of resources, energy, risk, or time to increase their relative status. A person aspiring to gain status is willing and able to sacrifice specific resources for others (Cole and Chaikin, 1990). Individuals desire to symbolize their conspicuousness through prosocial actions such as consuming green products to benefit society (Griskevicius and Tybur, 2010). Individuals can also be motivated to act moral behaviors because such behaviors describe not only the notion of a private but a public self of individuals' perceptions about their social responsibility, which can enhance

their social status, social position, and level of conspicuousness. This argument gives the impression that an internal and external moral identity may promote explicit individuals' social appearances and self-image within a reference group. Thus, a hypothesis is proposed:

H3.3: Social Values positively influence ISR

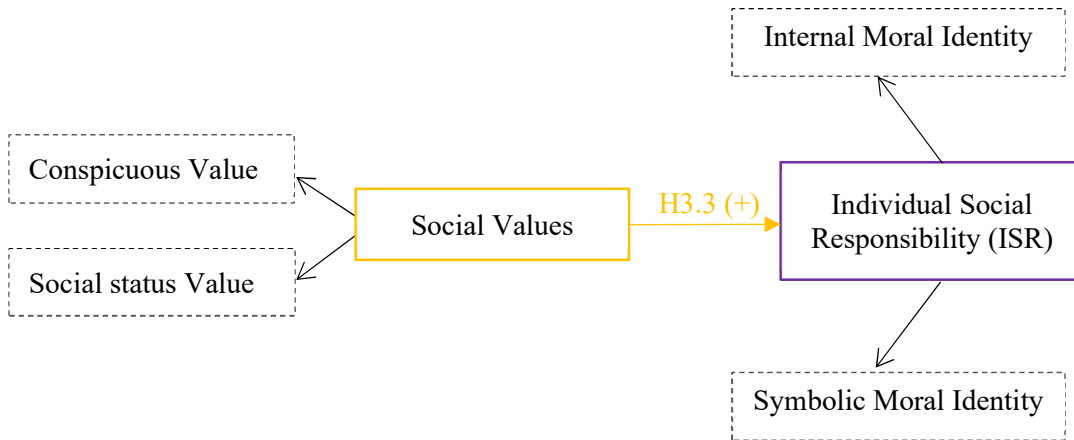


Figure 16. Sub-model of the effects of Social Values on Individual Social Responsibility (ISR)

d. Individual Social Responsibility (ISR)

Within branding, a green brand is defined as “a specific group of brand attributes and benefits related to minimizing the brand’s environmental impact and its perception as environmentally healthy” (Hartmann et al., 2005). Prosocial behavior is likely to occur as a function of moral identity that could be shown in both public and private aspects of the self (Montoro et al., 2006). As such, consumers’ beliefs regarding the brand's good ecological performance can lead to a positive attitude towards that brand. Moral identity was also significantly associated with moral emotions (Jia, Krettenauer, and Lihong, 2019). Thus, we predict that consumers with a higher level of moral identity (including both internal and symbolic moral identity) invest in stronger relations of consumers’ emotion and consumers’ belief to the brand perceived as green. Hence, the following hypothesis is posited:

H4.1: ISR positively influences Hot BRQ

H4.2: ISR positively influences Cold BRQ

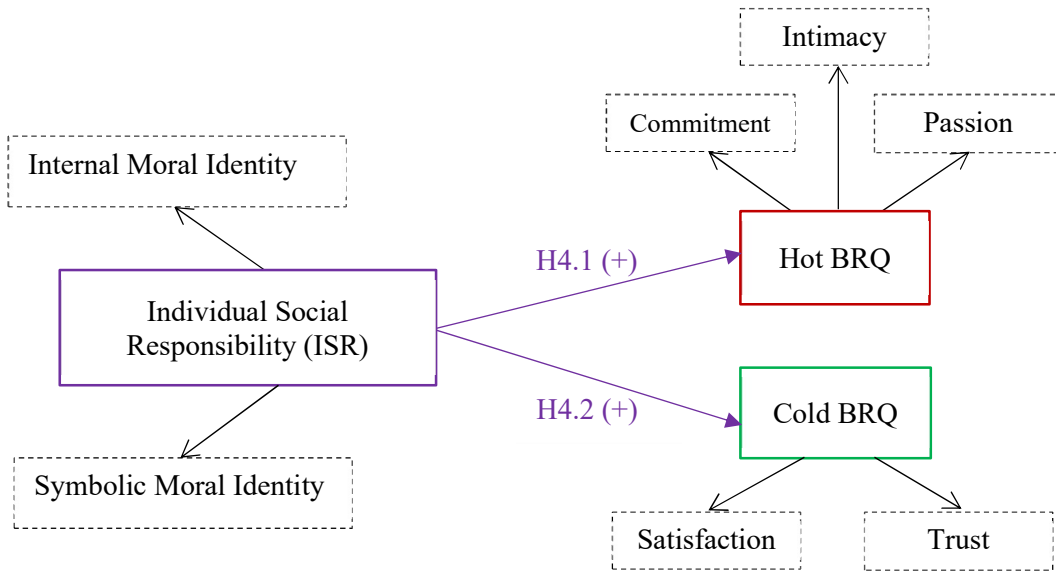


Figure 17. Sub-model of the effects of ISR on Hot and Cold BRQ

Individuals actively engage in responsible behaviors to make society better since such behaviors directly influence the communities outside their immediate groups. Individuals make up organizations, thus, the literature showed that social responsibility at individual level influences the perceptions of CSR (Brown and Mitchell 2010; Shao, Aquino and Freeman 2008). Also, the recent call by Sahoo (2012) to bring down CSR to the individual level of analysis as “*The root [of CSR] is hidden somewhere at the individual level, which may be called individual social responsibility*” (Sahoo, 2012). Consistent with arguments of Ostermeier et al. (2015), ISR is shown to be a significant predictor of perceptions of CSR. It is likely that ISR flourish CSR, hence:

H4.3: ISR positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR.

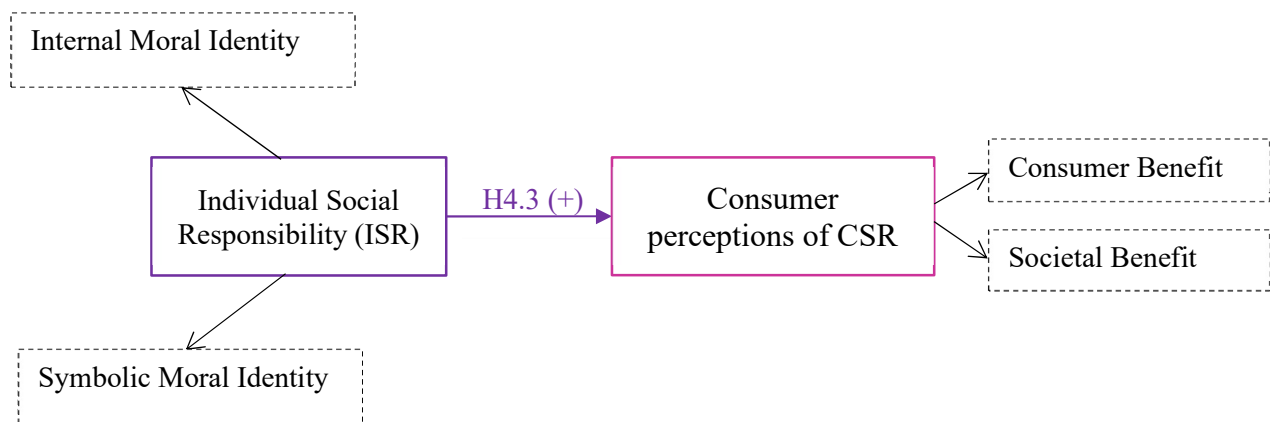


Figure 18. Sub-model of the effects of Individual Social Responsibility (ISR) on Consumer perceptions of CSR

e. Additional hypotheses

Personal values are hypothesized to affect positively Hot BRQ (H2.1) and ISR (H2.3), meanwhile, ISR can also have a positive effect on this dimension of BRQ (4.1). Thus, we propose an additional hypothesis of the mediation effect of Personal values on Hot BRQ by ISR

H5.1: ISR mediates the effect of personal values on hot BRQ

Also, personal values can directly and positively affect ISR (H2.3), and ISR can positively affect Cold BRQ (H4.2). Besides, personal values are predicted to have a direct and positive impact on Cold BRQ (H2.2). It is no doubt to assume that personal values can also have an indirect effect on Cold BRQ, mediated by ISR. Hence, we propose:

H5.2: ISR mediates the effect of personal values on cold BRQ

Similarly, we proposed that Social values directly affect Hot BRQ (H3.1) and ISR (H3.3), and ISR can positively influence Hot BRQ (H4.1). Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H5.3: ISR mediates the effect of social values on Hot BRQ

Likewise, if social values directly and positively effect on ISR (H3.3) and ISR has a positive affect Cold BRQ (H4.2), it is no doubt that social values have both a direct effect on Cold BRQ (H3.2) and an indirect effect on this dimension of BRQ which is mediated by ISR. Hence, we propose:

H5.4: ISR mediates the effect of social values on the Cold BRQ

2. Consequences variables

The research focuses on four outcome variables regarding consumers' responses towards a green product/brand: Consumer perceptions of CSR, willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP), word of mouth (WOM) and brand purchase intention.

a. The effect of BRQ on WTPP

Willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP) is defined as “*the excess price a consumer is willing to pay for a brand over comparable brands*” (Netemeyer et al., 2004). As Ajzen and Driver (1992) explained, WTPP is a behavioral intention arising from a pre-disposition to refer to a positive or negative response upon specific environmental concerns - in our case, the purchase intention of a

green product with environmental attributes. In the marketing literature, scholars have found that consumers expressing a willingness to pay a premium (marginal WTP) for green products also hold behavioral intentions favorable to the natural environment (Kilbourne, Beckmann, and Thelen, 2002; Husted et al., 2014). Thus, consistent with prior theory, this study views WTPP as a behavioral intention activated in part by purchase intention.

A price premium is also paid for the brand's emotional benefits; thus, the emotive value of a brand for consumers may impact their willingness to sacrifice additional financial resources (Thomson, MacInnis, and Whan Park, 2005). Besides, an emotional relationship can lead to an additional value of a brand (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001), promoting investments and sacrifices (Johnson and Rusbult, 1989). Besides, Hot BRQ demonstrates the potential in strongly distinguishing one brand from another in the connected emotional brand benefits perspective (Thomson et al., 2005). Thus, a consumer who has a strong emotional relationship with a brand will tend to make sacrifices to maintain this relationship (Nyffenegger et al., 2015). In other words, the intense emotional congruence to a brand is a significant determinant of consumers' willingness to pay a price premium (Keller, 1993).

Based on the above discussion, this research hypothesizes that:

H6.1: Hot BRQ positively influences WTPP.

Consumers can explicitly express their concerns by purchasing differentiated products that assure them a minimum standard for social and/or environmental stewardship. Consumers are also willing to consider a higher price because of the lower perceived risk and positive experience associated with selecting a familiar and trusted brand (Selnes, 1998), which can consider as an additional value of a brand. This idea is relevant to cold BRQ specified by reliability, trust, and belief in a brand's performance (Nyffenegger et al., 2015). Moreover, consumers are then willing to pay a higher price for this additional value. Similarly, Rio, Vazquez, and Iglesias (2001) stated that the more positive the perception on the guaranteed product is, the more willingness to pay a premium price is. Hence, this study proposes that:

H7.1: Cold BRQ positively influences WTPP.

The emotional profits of brands derived from affective states to the brands play an essential role in consumer behavior than the functional brand attributes (Biel 1993; Sweeney and Soutar 2001).

These emotional benefits reflect the emotional component of BRQ (Nyffenegger, Malär, and Krohmer 2010). While consumers experience cold BRQ with several brands, emotional brand benefits can strongly distinguish one brand from another and experience a higher value from this brand relative to other brands. As a result, consumers with an emotional brand relationship support them to be more willing to invest in and make sacrifices to maintain interactions or develop pro-maintenance acts. Thereby, a consumer who has a strong emotional relationship with a brand should strongly affect WTPP to preserve the corresponding emotional value from that brand (Thomson, MacInnis, and Park 2005), and WTPP, then, is proposed to be a more effectively driven behavior. Hence, consistent with Nyffenegger et al., (2015), this study suggests that:

H8.1: Hot BRQ has a greater and significant positive effect on WTPP than cold BRQ.

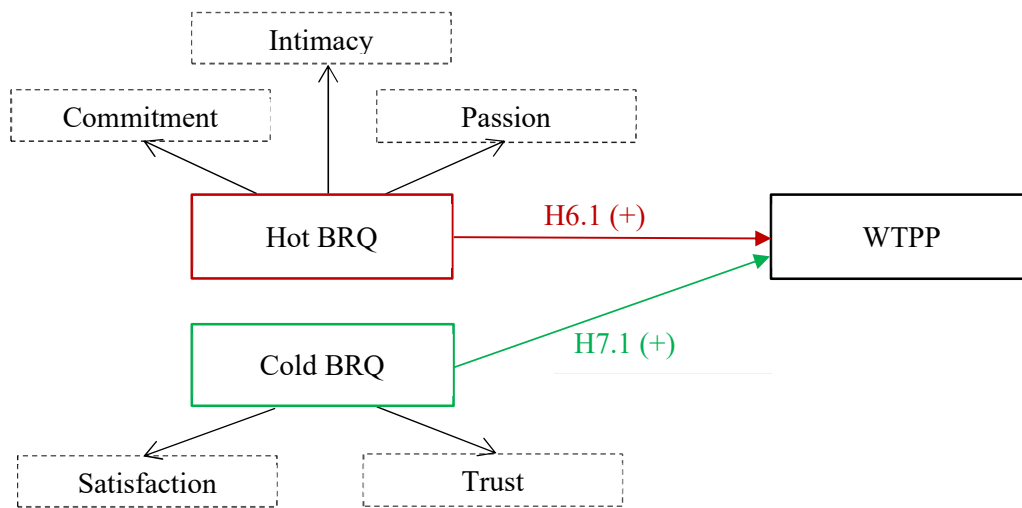


Figure 19. Sub-model of the effects of Hot and Cold BRQ on WTPP

b. The effect of BRQ on WOM

WOM not only influences purchase decisions (De Bruyn and Lilien, 2008; Pin Luarn, Peng Huang, Yu-Ping Chiu, I-Jen Chen, 2015) but also shapes the attitude towards the brand (Park and Lee, 2009). Positive WOM refers to the actions/intentions to recommend the brand to other people and friends, helping consumers decide whether to consume a product/brand (Westbrook, 1987). This study suggests that consumer-brand interactions with a green brand would also influence WOM.

Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) indicated that the feeling of love consumers has toward a brand stimulates WOM and assists in strengthen their identity as well as making a statement about themselves. In other words, love for a brand can promote recommendations or positive word-of-

mouth to that brand. As such, consumers make recommendations or share positive WOM if they feel emotionally attached to a brand (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006). Kim et al. (2001) and Nyffenegger et al. (2015) also show that Hot BRQ positively impacts WOM.

As such, this study hypothesizes that:

H6.2: Hot BRQ has a significant positive effect on WOM.

Besides, consumers are more likely to support a trusted brand (Garbarino and Johnson, 1999) and believe in it after having satisfying experiences in the past (De Matos and Rossi, 2008). Trust and satisfaction are critical factors to promote the intention to spread positive WOM because of consumers' desire to share satisfying experiences (Matos and Rossi, 2008; Nyffenegger et al., 2015). Further, WOM based on trust and satisfaction about a brand can reduce the risk of providing wrong recommendations (Mazzarol, Sweeney and Soutar, 2007); thus, trust and satisfaction play essential roles in spreading positive WOM. Hence, this study proposes that

H7.2: Cold BRQ has a significant positive effect on WOM.

However, recommendations based on emotions often provide consumers with fewer objective arguments /to convince others, since WOM tends to explicitly express the attributes and benefits that brands provide with their products/services (Westbrook, 1987). Besides, de Matos and Rossi (2008) indicated that WOM is more strongly related to cognitive evaluations and cognitively driven behavior. Hence, consistent with Nyffenegger et al. (2015), a hypothesis is suggested:

H8.2: Cold BRQ has a greater and significant positive effect on WOM than hot BRQ.

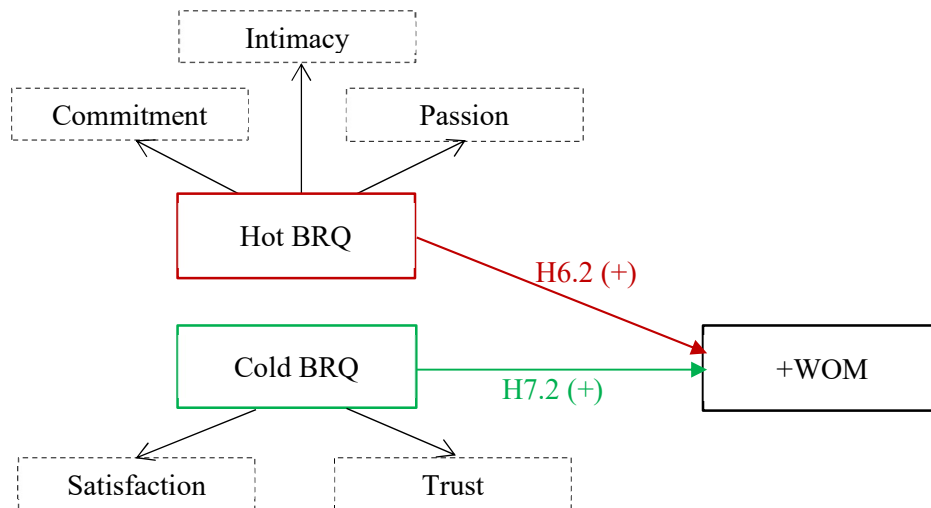


Figure 20. Sub-model of the effects of Hot and Cold BRQ on WOM

c. The effect of BRQ on Consumer perceptions of CSR

While many studies documented an effect of CSR on BRQ, too little is known on how BRQ reacts to consumer perceptions of a company's CSR activities in theory. Regardless of whether it is theoretically plausible to assume that CSR influences perspectives of a brand such as brand loyalty, brand equity, brand trust, consumer-brand relationship..., it is also possible to argue for the reverse causal influence of BRQ on CSR.

The way that customers interact with the perception of CSR today is changing because of two following reasons: First, CSR has become a mandatory requirement for any modern organization. CSR strategies are thus not distinguished because of the copy-paste activities producing the same old solutions, since CSR initiatives are quite prone to copy (Bondy et al., 2012). Second, CSR activities mainly focus on minimizing societal costs but not relating to the firm's core business, leading to suboptimal long-term effects on sustainable benefits for branding (Van Rekom et al., 2013). Corporates do CSR activities unwillingly to reap the reputational benefits, and they stop counting as CSR activities once achieving an end-goal (Rivoli and Waddock, 2011). Consequently, consumer perceptions of a company's CSR activities may be dominated by opportunism rather than by intrinsic motives that are considered as an integral element in CSR (Wood, 1991).

After all, consumer perceptions of a company's CSR activities have not a driver of BRQ in several situations. As discussed above, a strong emotional relationship adds an additional value to a brand (Sweeney and Soutar, 2001); thus, it is questionable whether such a relationship may support to the preferential consumer perceptions of a company's CSR activities. In other words, the stronger emotions/feelings consumers have with a brand, the positive expectations/perceptions of CSR activities of a company are. Hence, this study posits:

H6.3: Hot BRQ positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR

In terms of consumer perspective, consumers prefer to think of themselves as "good people", and then, they are predicted to expect their brands to engage in responsible activities to show their altruistic side. A brand is considered as a relation of the product/service of business and the perception of the customer (Keller et al., 2011) built on the belief of expectations and satisfaction (Low and Johnston, 2006). If consumers have a high level of beliefs towards the brand whose products/services satisfy them, their perceptions of these brands' roles to CSR actions are positive. Thus, we predict that consumers those who have a strong cognitive relationship with a brand

demonstrate positive perceptions of a company’s CSR activities. Hence, this study posits the following:

H7.3: Cold BRQ positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR

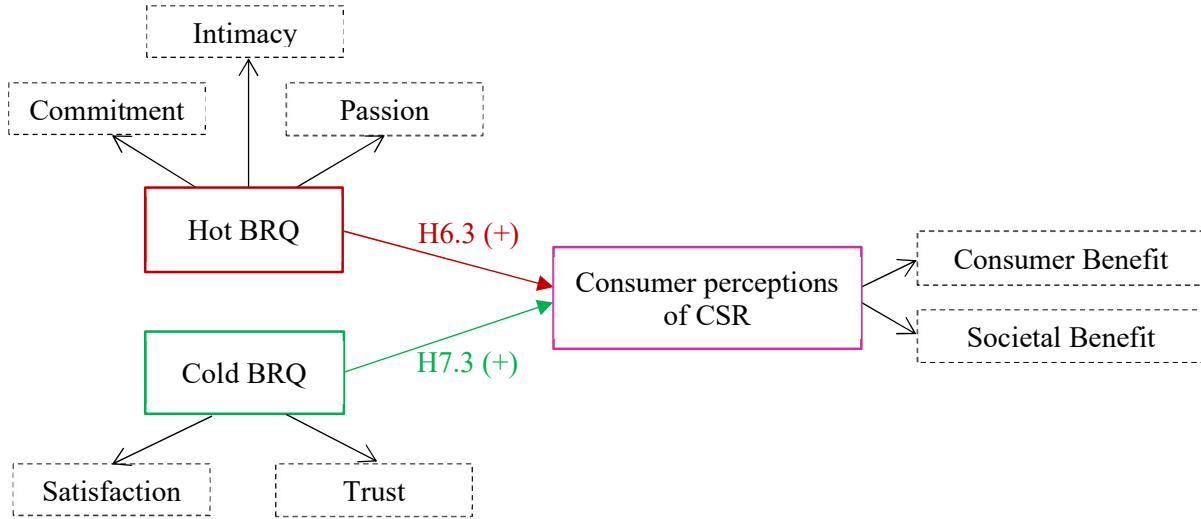


Figure 21. Sub-model of the effects of Hot and Cold BRQ on Consumer perceptions of CSR

d. The Differential Effects of Consequences of BRQ

➤ *The effect of Consumer perceptions of CSR*

Anselmsson et al. (2014) pointed out that not only perceived quality but the positive effect of CSR explains the price premium across different brands. Consumers are like to pay more money on the products of a firm when they determine perceptions of firms’ CSR performances. For a company paying more attention to society and bearing a favorable CSR image, the willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP) for its products is heightened (Nielsen, 2014).

H9.1: A positive consumer perceptions of CSR has a significant positive effect on WTPP.

Besides, companies engaging in CSR activities are supposed to satisfy consumer expectations. Hence, it is likely that the company is positively recommended through consumers’ informal networks and personal communications (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004). Indicating that if a company performs a better CSR, consumers recommend its products or brands to their friends. Some consumers, even though themselves did not consider a company’s CSR initiatives during the purchase decision, they still recommend their friends to purchase socially responsible

company's products or brands (Bhattacharya and Sen 2004). As such, positive WOM is one of the leading behavioral outcomes of CSR activities (Saleh et al., 2015). Hence, the following hypothesis emerges:

H9.2: A positive consumer perceptions of CSR has a significant positive effect on WOM.

CSR initiatives of a company also strengthen its consumer purchase intention, since engaging in CSR activities develops both consumer perceptions and a positive consumer attitude towards the company (Chang, 2009; Huang et al., 2014). Sweetin et al. (2013) noted that consumers tend to have higher purchase intentions for socially responsible companies than socially irresponsible ones. As such, the following hypothesis is posited:

H9.3: A positive consumer perceptions of CSR has a significant positive effect on purchase intentions.

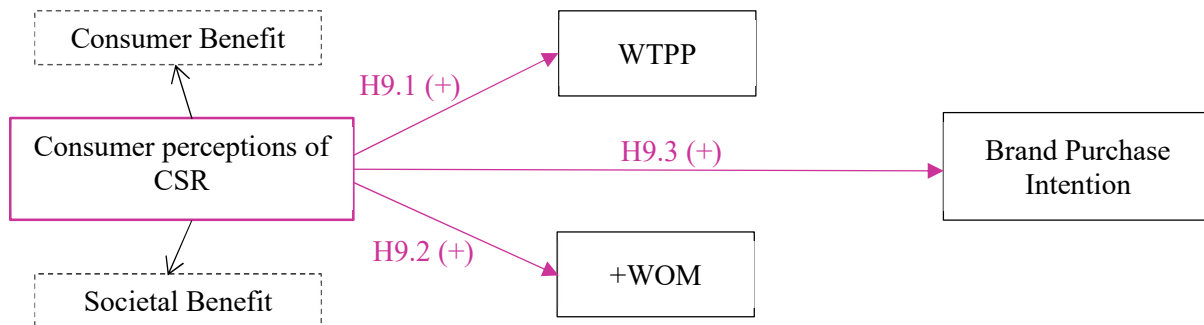


Figure 22. Sub-model of the effects of Consumer perceptions of CSR on WTPP, WOM and Brand Purchase Intention

➤ *The effect of WTPP and WOM on BPI*

This research focuses on purchase intention rather than behavior because of its broader implications and a positive impact on an individual's actions (Valette-Florence, Guizani, and Merunka 2011). A consumer who is willing to pay a price premium for the respective brand may express a strong purchase intention towards the corresponding brand. Furthermore, many researchers contended that the WOM communication process was one of the most powerful forces in the marketplace (Henricks, 1998). Since the informal information from WOM communication has substantial impacts on consumers' evaluation of products and/or sellers and future purchase

decisions (Bolen, 1994). In other words, these informal information help shape consumer attitudes and becomes influential to others' future purchases and behaviors. Consumers often pay greater attention to a recommended brand and form intentions to buy it based on positive recommendations (Baker et al., 2016; Nyffeneger et al., 2015; Shukla et al., 2016). Hence, this study examines the significant positive impacts of WTPP and WOM on brand purchase intentions.

H10.1: WTPP has a significant positive effect on brand purchase intentions.

H10.2: Positive WOM has a significant positive effect on brand purchase intentions.

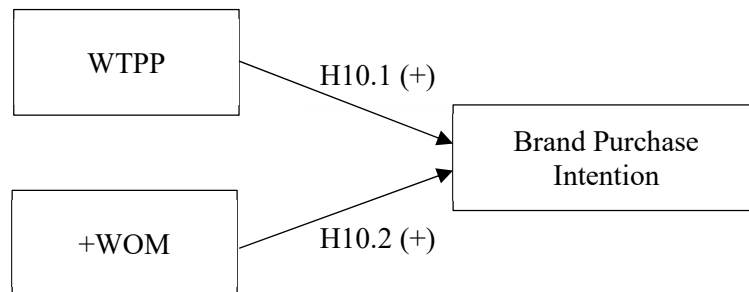


Figure 23. Sub-model of the effects of WTPP and WOM on Brand Purchase Intention

e. Additional hypotheses

If Hot BRQ directly and positively affects consumer perceptions of CSR (H6.3), and consumer perceptions of CSR positively influence WTPP (H9.1). Also, Hot BRQ has a direct and positive impact on WTPP (H6.1). It can assume that Hot BRQ can also have an indirect effect on WTPP, mediated by consumer perceptions of CSR. Hence, we propose:

H11.1: Consumer perceptions of CSR mediates the effect of Hot BRQ on WTPP

Likewise, if Cold BRQ directly and positively effects on consumer perceptions of CSR (H7.3) and consumer perceptions of CSR has a positive effect on WOM (H9.2), it can be said that Cold BRQ has not only a direct effect on WOM (7.2) but also an indirect effect on WOM which is mediated by consumer perceptions of CSR. Thus, a hypothesis is proposed:

H11.2: Consumer perceptions of CSR mediates the effect of Cold BRQ on WOM

To summarize, this section proposes thirty hypotheses about the relationships between the following constructs: BRQ, consumer values (cultural values, personal values, social values), ISR, Consumer perceptions of CSR, and consumer behavior intention (WTPP, WOM, and brand

purchase intention). Table 12 below provides a summary of all hypotheses that have been presented in the discussions and arguments so far.

Table 12. Summary of Research Hypotheses

Submodel	Research Hypotheses
Antecedents of Hot and Cold BRQ	
The different effects of Cultural Values on antecedents of BRQ	H1.1: Cultural Values positively influence Personal Values
	H1.2: Cultural Values positively influence Social Values
The effect of Personal Values	H2.1: Personal Values positively influence Hot BRQ
	H2.2: Personal Values positively influence Cold BRQ
	H2.3: Personal Values positively influence ISR
The effect of Social Values	H3.1: Social Values positively influence Hot BRQ
	H3.2: Social Values positively influence Cold BRQ
	H3.3: Social Values positively influence ISR
The effect of ISR	H4.1: ISR positively influences Hot BRQ
	H4.2: ISR positively influences Cold BRQ
	H4.3: ISR positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR
Additional hypotheses	H5.1: ISR mediates the effect of Personal values on Hot BRQ
	H5.2: ISR mediates the effect of Personal values on Cold BRQ
	H5.3: ISR mediates the effect of Social values on Hot BRQ
	H5.4: ISR mediates the effect of Social values on Cold BRQ
Consequences of Hot and Cold BRQ	
The effect of Hot BRQ	H6.1: Hot BRQ positively influences WTPP
	H6.2: Hot BRQ positively influences WOM
	H6.3: Hot BRQ positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR

The effect of Cold BRQ	H7.1: Cold BRQ positively influences WTPP
	H7.2: Cold BRQ positively influences WOM
	H7.3: Cold BRQ positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR
Additional hypotheses	H8.1: Hot BRQ has a greater and significant positive effect on WTPP than cold BRQ
	H8.2: Cold BRQ has a greater and significant positive effect on WOM than hot BRQ
The Differential Effects of Consequences of BRQ	H9.1: A positive consumer perceptions of CSR has a significant positive effect on WTPP
	H9.2: A positive consumer perceptions of CSR has a significant positive effect on WOM
	H9.3: A positive consumer perceptions of CSR has a significant positive effect on brand purchase intentions
	H10.1: WTPP has a significant positive effect on brand purchase intentions
	H10.2: Positive WOM has a significant positive effect on brand purchase intentions
Additional hypotheses	H11.1: Consumer perceptions of CSR mediates the effect of Hot BRQ on WTPP
	H11.2: Consumer perceptions of CSR mediates the effect of Cold BRQ on WOM

Based on the sub-models presented in this section, an integrative conceptual model could be proposed, which includes (1) Antecedents of BRQ (Cultural values, Personal values, Social values and ISR) (2) BRQ (3) Consequences of BRQ (WTPP, WOM, Customer perceptions of CSR and BPI). Figure 24 shows all the relationships mentioned in the sub-models.

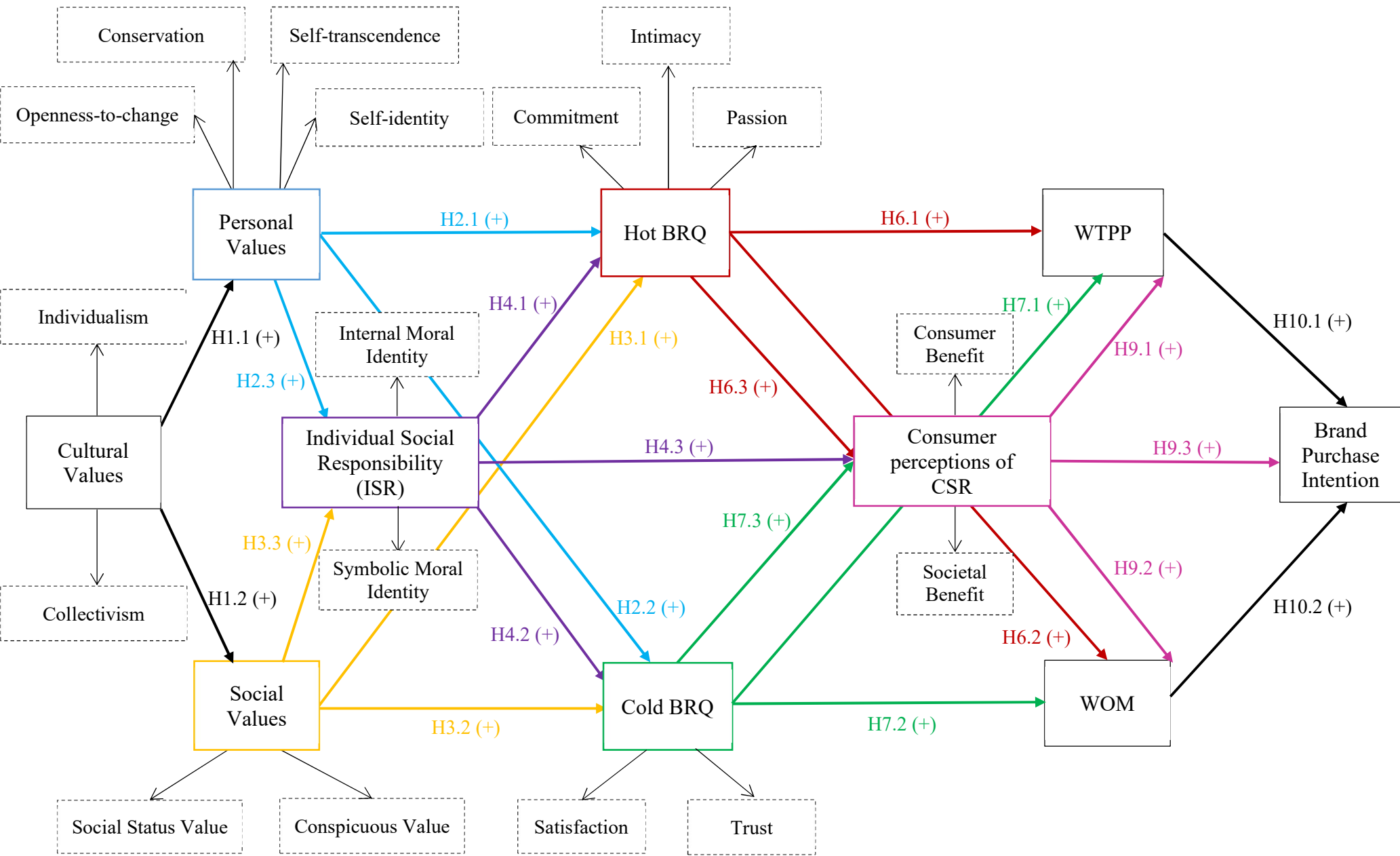


Figure 24. Theoretical framework developed

Section 3-2. Measurement Scales

Proper measurement is essential for any research and a vital component in the quantitative study. Measurement refers to "*grouping objects according to their score on a measurement scale*" (Turk, 2011) with the degree of complexity associated varies significantly, specifically in cases of measuring people's feelings and perceptions because of these variables' intangible.

In this section, based on the concepts studied in the previous chapters (see Chapters 1 and 2), all variables used in the research model are listed. First, we identify the primary variables to explain consumer values, including Cultural Values, Personal Values, and Social Values. Second, we expose a central concept, namely the Brand Relationship Quality (BRQ). Two branches of social responsibility, including ISR and Consumer perceptions of CSR are then presented. Finally, we discuss the variables concerning consumer responses, namely, Willingness to pay a premium (WTPP) and Word-of-mouth (WOM). Brand purchase intention is also be incorporated into the model as a dependent variable since it is considered an essential consequence of the relationships.

The questionnaire contains intangible variables accounting for most of the questionnaire; thus by, these variables must be conceptualized and operationalized to ensure appropriate measurement of the constructs. On the contrary, few tangible variables (e.g. demographic questions) are straightforwardly measured with simple questions.

All measures were operationalized based on published scales with sound psychometric properties. All scale items were translated into Vietnamese by the author, then edited by an English teacher at the University of Foreign Language Studies, The University of Da Nang, Vietnam.

1. Cultural values

To measure cultural values, we developed a ten-item scale that relied on an adaptation of scales by Triandis and Gelfand (1998); Brewer and Chen (2007); Sivadas et al., (2008). We measured Cultural values with ten items consisted of two dimensions: Individualism and Collectivism; five items represented Individualism and five items represented Collectivism. Cultural Values were measured with 6-point Likert-type scales (1-strongly disagree to 6-strongly agree). The measurement items are shown in Table 13.

Table 13. Measurement Scale of Cultural Values

	Dimensions	Items
Cultural Values	<p>Individualism</p> <p>Adopted from Brewer and Chen, 2007; Sivadas, Bruvold, and Nelson, 2008</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many ways. 2. I often do “my own thing.” 3. I am a unique individual. 4. One should live one’s life independent of others as much as possible. 5. The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy.
	<p>Collectivism</p> <p>Adopted from Sivadas, Bruvold, and Nelson, 2008; Triandis and Gelfand, 1998</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. People should be aware that if they are going to be part of a group, they sometimes will have to do things they don’t want to do. 2. I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in. 3. It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group. 4. If the group is slowing me down, it is better to leave it and work alone. 5. I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I’m not happy with the group.

2. Personal values

In this study, the measurement scale of personal values came from prior literature of The Portrait Value Questionnaire (Schwartz 2003). Because of PVQ’s broad conception, it has been validated by different scientific disciplines internationally in a large range of settings including in predicting individual behavior and attitudes, even in different social behaviors (Realo et al, 2002; Kurman and Ronen-Ellon, 2004; Goodwin et al, 2004; Alkire, 2005).

In order to encourage researchers to integrate measures of values into their studies, brief and ultra-brief instruments were developed to recapture the ten values measured by the 40-item Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ; Schwartz, 2003). Then, Sandy et al., (2017) composed of short verbal portraits of personal values associated with the original PVQ, called Twenty Item Values Inventory (TwIVI) and Ten Item Values Inventory (TIVI). TwIVI and TIVI are 20- and 10-item measures of Schwartz’s ten personal values, adapted from Schwartz’s PVQ-40.

As mentioned in the literature review section, these ten personal values were organized in four value domains: self-transcendence, self-enhancement, conservation, and openness-to-change, but self-enhancement domain was not investigated in this research. Each domain reflects the breadth of its conceptual definition with two portraits for all portraits benevolence and universalism (self-transcendence); security and conformity (conservation), self-direction, stimulation and hedonism (openness-to-change). Thus, we measured Self-transcendence with four items, Conservation with four items and Openness-to-change with six items. These items were adapted from Sandy et al. (2017) and Fotopoulos et al. (2011). For each portrait, respondents were asked: “How much like you is this person?” to express how similar or dissimilar they are to the person being portrayed. Respondents paid attention to similarity judgment only to personality portrayed value-relevant aspects so that they rated on a scale from 1 (“not at all like me”) to 6 (“very much like me”), with the aims of comparing the portrait to themselves rather than themselves to the portrait. Besides, the Self-identity dimension was measured by three items adapted from Sparks and Shepherd (2002) and Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons (2017). This dimension used Likert’s scale 6 points with endpoints of (1) “strongly disagree” to (6) “strongly agree”. A total of 17 items was used to measure Personal Values. The measurement items are shown in Table 14.

Table 14. Measurement Scale of Personal Values

	Dimensions	Items
Personal Values	Self-identity Sparks and Shepherd, 2002; Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons, 2017	1. I think of myself as someone who is concerned about environmental issues 2. I think of myself as a "green" consumer 3. I would describe myself as an ecologically conscious consumer
	Self-transcendence Sandy, Gosling, Schwartz, and Koelkebeck, 2017; Fotopoulos, Krystallis, and Anastasios, 2011	Benevolence 1. It's very important to me to help the people around me. I want to care for their well-being. 2. It is important to me to respond to the needs of others. I try to support those I know. Universalism 1. I think it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. I believe everyone should have equal opportunities in life. 2. I believe all the world's people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is important to me.
	Conservation Sandy, Gosling, Schwartz, and Koelkebeck, 2017; Fotopoulos, Krystallis, and Anastasios, 2011	Security 1. It is important to me that things be organized and clean. I really do not like things to be a mess. 2. Having a stable government is important to me. I am concerned that the social order be protected Conformity 1. It is important to me always to behave properly. I want to avoid doing anything people would say is wrong 2. I believe I should always show respect to my parents and to older people. It is important to me to be obedient
	Openness-to-change Sandy, Gosling, Schwartz, and Koelkebeck, 2017; Fotopoulos, Krystallis, and Anastasios, 2011	Self-direction 1. Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to me. I like to do things in my own original way. 2. I think it's important to be interested in things. I like to be curious and to try to understand all sorts of things. Stimulation 1. I think it is important to do lots of different things in life. I always look for new things to try. 2. I like to take risks. I am always looking for adventures. Hedonism 1. I seek every chance I can to have fun. It is important to me to do things that give me pleasure. 2. I really want to enjoy life. Having a good time is very important to me.

3. Social values

It appears that conspicuous consumption focuses on the visual display the usage of products in the presence of others; however, social status consumption is more a matter of consumers’ desires to gain prestige from the acquisition of status-laden products and brands (Eastman et al. (1999). In this study, we measured Social Values with Conspicuous value (four items adapted from O’cass and McEwen, 2004) and Social status value (eight items adapted from O’cass and McEwen, 2004; Wiedmann et al., 2009). All 12 items were measured with 6-point Likert-type scales anchored by (1) “strongly disagree” and (6) “strongly agree”.

Table 15. Measurement Scale of Social Values

	Dimensions	Items
Social Values	Conspicuous value O’Cass and McEwen, 2004	1. I feel that those who use green brand are easily noticed by others. 2. Using green brand helps to show my presence to others. 3. Using green brand gains the respect I receive from others. 4. Using green brand helps to show who I am
	Social status value O’Cass and McEwen, 2004; Wiedmann, Hennigs, and Siebels, 2009	1. Using green brand helps to show my symbol of success 2. Using green brand helps to show my symbols of prestige. 3. Using green brand indicates my wealth 4. Using green brand indicates my achievement 5. I feel that those who use green brand are interested in status 6. Social status is important to me 7. Using green brand enhances my image 8. Social standing is an important motivator for my consumption.

4. Individual Social Responsibility

Hertz and Krettenauer (2016) noted that the majority of moral identity research is based on the Self-Importance of Moral Identity Questionnaire (SMI-Q) (Aquino and Reed, 2002). Unsurprisingly, in this study, we used this questionnaire. Regardless of whether a person’s moral identity called ISR in this study was defined as a self-identity or a social identity, values and virtues often constitute significant parts of people’s moral identity, such as being kind, compassionate,

caring, helpful, generous, and friendly. We, therefore, measured ISR with the widely used SMI-Q developed by Aquino and Reed (2002), who listed six values (out of nine overall) to identify a highly moral person which belong to the benevolence value domain, according to Schwartz' circumplex model (Schwartz et al., 2012). After considering six characteristics listed that describe a person, respondents were asked to imagine how the person with these characteristics would think, feel, and act. Respondents responded by indicating how strongly they agree or disagree with the statement with the Likert's scale 6 points with endpoints of (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree". Two different scales, labeled internalization and symbolization, differ based on how the participants either internalize or outwardly express their moral identity with five items for each dimension, are presented in the table below.

Table 16. Measurement Scale of Individual Social Responsibility

	Dimensions	Items
Individual Social Responsibility (ISR)	Internal Moral Identity Aquino and Reed (2002)	1. It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics. 2. Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am. 3. I would be ashamed to be a person who has these characteristics. 4. Having these characteristics is not really important to me. 5. I strongly desire to have these characteristics.
	Symbolic Moral Identity Aquino and Reed (2002)	1. I often wear clothes that identify me as having these characteristics. 2. The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics. 3. The kinds of books and magazines that I read identify me as having these characteristics. 4. The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations. 5. I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics.

5. Brand Relationship Quality

The BRQ scale was adopted to measure the relationship between green brands and consumers. The original scale consisted of 39 items split into seven sub-scales. BRQ consists of the following aspects: partner quality, love, intimacy, self-concept connection, nostalgic connection, personal commitment, and passionate attachment. These facets are the determinants of a strong relationship between consumers and brands (Fournier, 1994).

Consistent with Nyffenegger et al. 2015, this study divided BRQ into two main groups: hot BRQ (passion, intimacy, and commitment) and cold BRQ (trust and satisfaction). The items of BRQ used in this study were taken from the original scale of Fournier (1994). Besides, new items added were extracted from Aaker et al., (2004); Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) and Oliver (1993) to improve the convergent and discriminant validity of the BRQ dimensions.

The final measurement scale of BRQ used the indicators from 16 items grouped into two components with five dimensions. We measure the first component - hot BRQ with Commitment (four items), Intimacy (two items) and Passion (three items) adapted from Fournier (1994). Meanwhile, the second component - Cold BRQ was measured by Satisfaction (four items adapted from Aaker et al., 2004; Oliver, 1993) and Trust (three items from Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Likert's scale 6 points with endpoints of (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree" is used.

Table 17. Measurement Scale of BRQ

	Dimensions	Items
Brand Relationship Quality (BRQ)	Hot BRQ	<p>Commitment</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I feel very loyal to X 2. X can count on me to always be there 3. I will stay with X through good times and bad 4. I am willing to make small sacrifices in order to keep using X <p>Intimacy</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Compared to other non-green cosmetic brands, I feel strongly connected to X 2. I feel emotionally attached to X <p>Passion</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I would be very upset if I couldn't find X when I wanted it 2. There are times when I really long to use with X again
	Fournier 1994	

		3. I feel like something missing when I haven't used with X for a while
	Cold BRQ Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel, 2004; Oliver 1993; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001	Satisfaction 1. I am completely satisfied with X 2. I am completely pleased with X 3. X is turning out better than I expected 4. X is exactly what I need Trust 1. I rely on X 2. X is an honest brand 3. X is safe

Note: X is replaced by brand names*

6. Consumer perceptions of CSR (Consumers' perceived CSR)

To measure CSR, we employed two dimensions of the Turker (2009) and adopted the scales of Droms Hatch et al. (2015). CSR scale deals with how the general public perceives the company. Precisely, the original scale consists of measures of four dimensions, two of which illustrates the general public and external corporate stakeholders and examine how individuals feel organizations should benefit society, and how they should benefit the consumer. The other two dimensions examine how the organization presents itself to all stakeholders such as internal (their employees) and governmental stakeholders (Turker, 2009). Based on the objective of this study that is to determine consumers' perceptions of CSR, we used two dimensions representing the view the general public would have of an organization. These scale questions ask participants to respond with "how strongly they agree or disagree with statements about how companies should act to benefit consumer and society". More precisely, we measured two components of consumer perceptions of CSR, called Consumer Benefit and Societal Benefit by three and five items respectively, on a 6-point Likert scale with endpoints of (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree". Consumer perceptions of CSR were measured using an eight-item scale adapted from Turker (2009) and Droms Hatch et al. (2015).

Table 18. Measurement Scale of Consumer perceptions of CSR

	Dimensions	Items
Consumer perceptions of CSR	Consumer Benefit Turker 2009; Droms Hatch et al., 2015	1. X respects consumer rights beyond the legal requirements. 2. X provides full and accurate information about its products to its customers. 3. Customer satisfaction is highly important for X
	Societal Benefit Turker 2009; Droms Hatch et al., 2015	1. X anticipates in activities which aim to protect and improve the quality of the natural environment. 2. X makes investment to create a better life for future generations. 3. X implements special programs to minimize its negative impact on the natural environment. 4. X targets sustainable growth which considers future generations. 5. X contributes to campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society

7. Willingness to pay a premium price

In general, WTPP is based on the extent a consumer associates value with a brand, which emerges from the consumer’s experience with the service brand (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004). We measured the dependent variables WTPP with three items adapted from Anselmsson et al. (2014). Two items were measured with 6-point Likert-type scales anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree”.

Table 19. Measurement Scale of WTPP

		Items
WTPP	Anselmsson, Vestman Bondesson, and Johansson, 2014	1. The price of X would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to another non-green cosmetic brand. 2. I am willing to pay a higher price for products of X than for other non-green cosmetic brands.

Note: X is replaced by brand names*

8. Word-of-mouth

Many studies considered WOM as an essential consequence of marketing relationship since consumers tend to recommend the company, the product or the brand to other potential customers (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2001; Palmatier et al., 2006; Reynolds and Beatty, 1999). Distinguish scales of WOM have been developed, and in this study, we measured WOM with five items previously used from Carroll and Ahuvia (2006); Maxham (2001); and Nyffenegger, Krohmer, Hoyer, and Malaer (2015). These five items were measured on 6-point Likert scale, possible responses being (1) “strongly disagree” to (6) “strongly agree”. The measurement scale is presented below.

Table 20. Measurement Scale of WOM

		Items
+WOM	Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Maxham 2001; Nyffenegger et al., 2015	1. I have recommended X to lots of people 2. I “talk up” X to my friends 3. I try to spread the good word about X 4. I give X tons of positive word-of-mouth advertising 5. If my friends are looking for cosmetics, I would tell them to try X

Note: X is replaced by brand names*

9. Brand purchase intention

We focus on purchase intention because it can be more predictive of consumer behavior (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Purchase intention is also one of the key variables in consumer behavior study, thus, measured by various researchers with various scales ranging from the product or service to a specific category of the product. Regarding our research, we are particularly interested in the purchase intention of a green product or a green brand, specifically green cosmetic brands. We measured brand purchase intention with five items adapted from Liñán and Chen (2009) and Jeger et al., (2014) (see Table 21) to study the intention of consumers to engage in green brand purchase intention.

Table 21. Measurement Scale of Brand Purchase Intention

		Items
Brand Purchase Intention (BPI)	Liñán and Chen, 2009 ; Jeger et al., 2014	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I am willing to go out of my way to obtain X 2. My personal goal is to consume as much X as possible 3. I will make every effort to purchase X 4. I have seriously thought of buying more X 5. I have a firm intention to buy X in the future.

Note: X is replaced by brand names*

Conclusion of Chapter 3. Hypotheses and Research Model

The main objectives of this chapter are to generate research hypotheses and to propose a conceptual model. This research follows the traditional scheme; thus, we defined the different concepts relating to our research questions and objectives in the first part (Chapters 1 and 2). We developed the hypotheses and presented our proposed research model based on the theoretical framework. This chapter also discussed and presented measurement scales of each construct that were operationalized based on published scales with sound psychometric properties.

We introduced a theoretical research model based on different concepts:

➤ *Antecedents of BRQ*

The hypotheses about the variables most upstream of our model were developed to investigate the theoretical relationships between cultural values, personal values, social values, and ISR. We also assumed that these different concepts could promote the emotional and cognitive relationship quality between a consumer and a brand. In other words, the hypotheses of the relationships between the antecedents and two components of BRQ were presented. Based on the hypotheses of the relationships between the chosen constructs, this part of our research model allows us to answer two sub-research objectives (Sub-objective 1a: Examining the impacts of consumer values on Hot and Cold BRQ in the context of green brands; Sub-objective 1b: Determining the role of ISR on Hot and Cold BRQ in the context of green brands)

➤ *Consequences of BRQ*

The most downstream part of our research model was dedicated to the consequences of BRQ. This part of our model highlighted the impact of two different components of BRQ on consumer behavior intention. Thus, the hypotheses in this part were issued to study the effects of hot and cold BRQ on some variables of our concept (WTPP, WOM, consumer perceptions of CSR, and brand purchase intention).

To summarize, this chapter proposed an integrated model encompassing different concepts and posited research hypotheses relating to two components of BRQ, its antecedents and consequences. It was considered as a fundamentally theoretical ground to justify the choice of research methodology, the research structure and statistical analyses in the next steps. Based on the research questions and practical considerations, Chapter 4 justifies the choice of research

methodology, the detailed descriptions of research designs with the specific procedures, techniques to collect and analyze empirical data for each study. For instance, Chapter 4 includes the structure of the in-depth interview, the questionnaire design and statistical analyses of quantitative research, with the aims of testing our research hypotheses and confirming our research model in support of the results of qualitative and quantitative studies. This research provides both theoretical and managerial contributions. It also proposes future research to fill the gaps observed in the literature at the end of this research.

**PART TWO - BRAND RELATIONSHIP QUALITY.
ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF BRAND
RELATIONSHIP QUALITY. AN EMPIRICAL APPROACH**

The literature review enables us to find a conceptual framework of the process of influence of antecedents on consumer-brand relationship quality, mainly through the concept of consumer values and through ISR. Besides, the first part presents the outcomes of BRQ in terms of consumer perceptions of CSR and consumer behavior intention. It offers theoretical answers to the issue of hypotheses.

The second part, in its turn, focuses on the empirical approach. First, it describes the used methodological approaches, including qualitative and quantitative methods. Second, this covers explanations of ten constructs and measures adopted in the research as the measurement scales of personal values, social values, cultural values, ISR, two components of BRQ: hot and cold BRQ, consumer perceptions of CSR, WTPP, WOM, and brand purchase intention. Third, this part presents results from in-depth interviews, as they relate to specific aspects of considered constructs and confirm the relevance of constructs as well as the hypothesized framework. Fourth, this part is dedicated to addressing the reliability and validity of the measurement scales, then discuss the results and the adjustment of the integrated model. Fifth, quantitative data collection is analyzed to test hypotheses presented in the first part. Last, this part ends with the main findings, implications, limitations, and avenues of future research.

The second part of the research includes three chapters:

Chapter 4 deals with the methods used for the research and the measurement scales. This chapter also presents the results of the qualitative phase.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the data analysis.

Chapter 6 shows the general conclusion, including discussions, contributions, limitations of the research, and future research perspectives.

Figure 25 below illustrates part 2 progress.

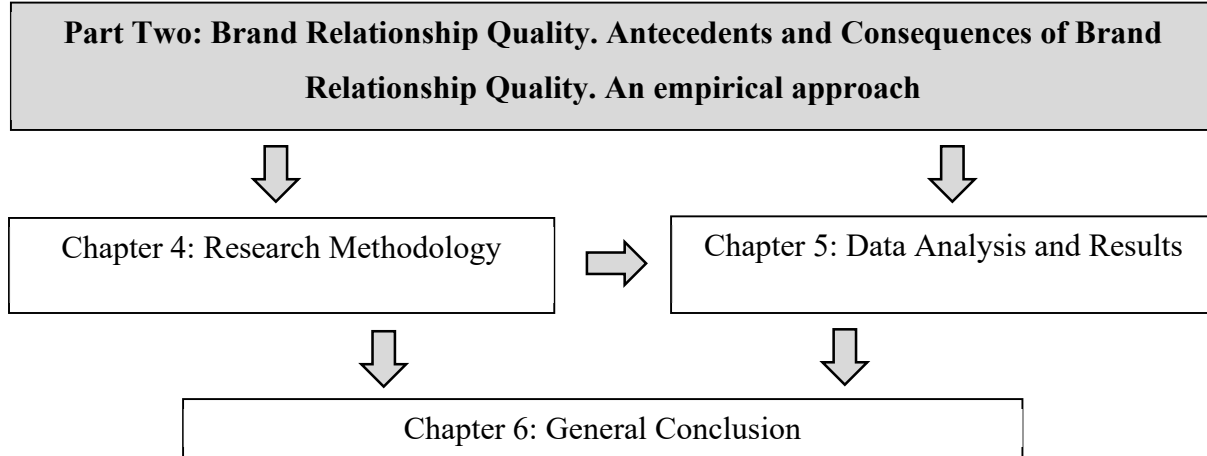


Figure 25. Part 2 framework

In this part, an empirical approach will be presented to validate the integrated causal research model and test hypotheses to answer research questions. A general discussion of research findings in conjunction with previous studies, theoretical contributions, and managerial implications are presented. Finally, this part concludes with a summary of key findings, limitations, and useful suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 4 - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 presents a brief review of the related literature and develops the main hypotheses. After the thorough literature review, where extensive knowledge regarding the subject matter was acquired and has developed a comprehensive model of the antecedents and consequences of BRQ, as well as a set of hypotheses, a methodological chapter will follow. Thus, Chapter 4 discusses the methodology used to conduct the research.

This chapter begins with the epistemology of the research (Section 4-1: Justification of Research Paradigm and Research Design). A description of the research design is given, including the objectives of each approach used in the research. A methodological section of research is also an instrumental part of a study, aiming to provide a clear portrayal of the research choices.

We then adopt a mixed-methods research that we expose in this chapter by describing the qualitative and quantitative studies, the choice of the category, and the choice of the scales.

We explain how the qualitative stage is carried out to set the boundary for analysis in the second section. This section also describes the characteristics of participants and presents results from in-depth interviews as they relate to specific aspects of consumer-brand relationship quality (Section 4-2: Qualitative Phase). This chapter summarizes the findings from the qualitative data, confirming the relevance of constructs and the hypothesized framework in Vietnam.

We also discuss aspects of the quantitative stage in the third section (Section 4-3: Quantitative Phase). This section covers explanations of the stages adopted in the quantitative research, including instrument design, product categories, target population, sample and sample size, data collection, and data processing analysis. The questionnaire used in the quantitative study to test the relationships of studied constructs will be presented in this section.

This chapter will be organized, as described in Figure 26.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology Section

Section 4-1: Justification of Research Paradigm and Research Design

Section 4-2: Qualitative Phase

Section 4-3: Quantitative Phase

Figure 26. Outline of Chapter 4

Section 4-1. Justification of Research Paradigm and Research Design

This section aims to provide an overview of the research format and the choice of methodological paradigms. This section entails the research purpose, research design, sampling method, and data collection methods. Afterwards, specific considerations and preparations, made prior to the analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data, respectively, will be outlined.

1. Introduction and Research paradigm

This section evidences the process taken to address Research Question 1: How is consumer-brand relationship quality built and developed in the green brand context?; and Research Question 2: How does consumer-brand relationship quality encourage supportive consumer behavior intention towards the green brands?

To clarify the research approach, the objectives of the study must be considered. This research investigates the antecedents and consequences of two components of BRQ in the green brand context. An integrated model was built to present the relationships between, or the effects of consumer values (cultural values, personal values, social values) and ISR on hot and cold BRQ; and the significant impacts of BRQ on consumer perceptions of CSR and behavior intention (WTPP, WOM and brand purchase intention). Thus, it must be a typical structural equation modeling to interpret as a cause and effect analysis. Such a structural model and the original model are altered through validation testing and purification, and the exploratory research should be dealt (Bollen, 1989).

In order to understand BRQ, types of consumer values, dimensions, and relationships with other vital variables in marketing already discussed in details in the literature review section, this research selected a sequential exploratory mixed methods approach to provide a “richer detail than either method can generate alone” because of its advantages which would be laid out as follows:

A sequential exploratory mixed methods research is an approach to combining qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis in a sequence of phases (Creswell and Clark, 2017), whereby a quantitative study explores the initial qualitative findings (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). This approach is appropriate to explore a new field, of which little is known.

Qualitative research aims to explore why or how a phenomenon occurs, to develop a theory, and to describe the nature of an individual’s experience, whereas quantitative research answers

questions about causality, generalizability, or magnitude of effect (Fetters, Curry, and Creswell 2013). A qualitative study allows to examine the things in the natural settings, make sense of, or interpret, phenomena for making the meanings of the particular settings. Qualitative data are in-depth descriptions of circumstances, people, interactions, observed behaviors, events, attitudes, thoughts and beliefs, and direct quotes from people who have experienced or experienced the phenomenon (Patton, 2014). The qualitative study has the strengths of generating rich and detailed understandings of human experiences, emotions, beliefs, behaviors depending on the original contexts. Moreover, it attains an in-depth analysis of complex human, family systems, and cultural experiences. Therefore, the qualitative approach responds to the social conditions, local settings, and the needs of the stakeholders.

Quantitative approach investigates a single “truth” objectively verifiable and independent. It believes in the replicability, generalizability of findings and is interested in future predictions. This approach assumes the statistical hypothesis demanded by the research questions and uses instruments such as tests or surveys to collect data and reliance on probability theory. It claims the strengths of accurate operationalization and measurement of a specific construct. It conducts group comparisons, checks the strengths of associations between variables of interest, and specifies the model through testing of research hypotheses (Castro, Kellison, Boyd and Kopak, 2010). The research results are relatively independent, statistically significant, less time consuming, and produces higher credibility (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2004).

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2008) argue that mixed methods research referring to the *“third methodological orientation”* gives the opportunity of mixing the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods. Onwuegbuzie and Combs (2010) concurred that *“mixed analyses involve the use of at least one qualitative analysis and at least one quantitative analysis - meaning that both analysis types are needed to conduct a mixed analysis.”* Instead of approaching a research question using the binary lens of quantitative or qualitative research, the mixed methods research can advance the scholarly conversation by drawing on the strengths of both methodologies. Using the mixed methods research provides a deeper understanding of a phenomenon of interest than either a quantitative or qualitative approach separately, especially when the phenomenon such as consumer behavior is complex.

According to Creswell and Clark (2017), both qualitative and quantitative data to investigate a

research area of interest in single research are collected, analyzed separately and integrated either concurrently or sequentially to address the research questions.

In the exploratory approach, qualitative data is first collected and analyzed. Themes are used to drive the development of a quantitative instrument to explore further the research problem (Creswell and Clark 2017). Besides, such use of the results from a qualitative study to inform a survey is said to enhance the sensitivity and accuracy of the survey questions (Jones-Harris, 2010). In this study, a sequential exploratory mixed methods approach was selected to broadly explore and understand consumer values, BRQ, two branches of social responsibility (ISR and consumer perceptions of CSR), consumer behavior intention in the green brand context; since a sequential exploratory design better fits the purposes of the research and increases the theoretical and practical contributions.

Section 4-2. Qualitative phase

In this section, we explore the different perceptions of individuals to BRQ, consumer values, and social responsibility. Besides, we attempt to investigate individuals' reactions to their behavior intention to a green brand. This section presents sampling, procedures, interview process and the main results of qualitative phase. It mainly focuses on the idea of the extent to which aspects of BRQ - from which the frameworks in the previous hypothesized research model were construed - are associated with opinions of participants.

1. Procedures and Sampling

This section presents the exploratory study. The first phase of the sequential exploratory mixed methods approach is a qualitative study. The qualitative study is conducted by qualitative interviews to define the theoretical concepts and to refine the conceptual model before the formalization as well as the theoretical model testing. This phase incorporates defining the concepts found in the literature and refining the conceptual model. This exploratory qualitative study is to improve the understandings of concepts developed in the literature. The qualitative study is an essential step before testing the hypotheses because it may make explicit and allow designing a framework as well as the correspondent. This step also defines the more relevant brands for the research topic to meet the requirement of the consumer-brand relationship model.

There is no fixed rule to establish an appropriate sample size in qualitative research. The sample size in qualitative studies depends on the purpose of the study and practical factors. Also, qualitative study is not to be representative of the population but the validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated with the provided information richness by the selected respondents and the analytical qualities of the researcher than with the sample size. Besides, when no new information is forthcoming from new sampled units, qualitative researchers stop collecting the redundancy criterion.

Following, we detail the objectives, the method, and the analysis of the qualitative study.

Table 22. The qualitative study description

Study	Description and Objectives	Sample
Qualitative study	Semi-structured in-depth interviews to explore the general understanding of Consumer Values, BRQ, ISR; to understand the consumers' perceived CSR; and to identify causality relations of variables.	20 participants

The qualitative study aimed to yield in-depth consumer responses about their experiences, opinions, feelings, and knowledge concerning consumer values, emotion, cognition with a brand, and perceptions of social responsibility. This qualitative phase adopted structured interviews using open-ended questions. This approach provided a greater understanding of consumer perceptions of studied factors and attempted to understand them from consumers' perspective. Through the literature, we stated that consumer values affect consumer-brand relationship quality. In the first part of the interview, we explored what kind of consumer values were considered as one of the drives to promote the relationship between a customer and a brand, and how these values could affect. In the second part, we investigated consumer perceptions of social responsibility at two levels of individual and organization, and their causality relationships with BRQ. In the last part, we discovered the consumer responses in terms of WTPP, +WOM, and brand purchase intention in a specific green brand context (green cosmetic brands). The in-depth interviews were stopped when the answers mostly overlapped and converged the constructs in the framework.

The qualitative study happened on a convenient sample with 20 semi-directive face-to-face interviews with consumers/acquaintances who obtained a variety of relationships with brands and of shopping experiences, in order to evaluate consumer perceptions on BRQ, consumer values, social responsibility, and green consumption. An equal number of male and female participants of 20 semi-directive interviews were targeted with a maximum of participants from any career and education area. In particular, the sample for the in-depth interviews was made up of ten male participants and ten female participants in various levels of education such as high school, associate degree, bachelor, master, doctor. Besides, this diversified sample with 20 people met the following criteria: (1) age ranged from 18 to 50, (2) Vietnamese, (3) live in Da Nang city, and (4) have purchased at least one green brand/green cosmetic brand. Also, we made sure that the respondents had different profiles so that diverse results were explored. Table 23 presents the sample demographics of participants.

Table 23. Participant characteristics in in-depth interviews

Participants *	Gender	Age	Career	Education
A	Male	30	Administrative Assistant	Master
B	Female	22	Student	Bachelor
C	Female	37	Accountant	Bachelor
D	Male	46	Director	Doctor
E	Male	25	Marketing staff	Bachelor
F	Male	40	Dentist	Master
G	Female	33	Sales Representative	Master
H	Female	38	Lecturer	Doctor
I	Female	31	Teacher	Master
J	Male	41	Data engineer	Bachelor
K	Female	20	Student	Non-degree
L	Male	44	Software Developer	Master
M	Male	28	Worker	Non-degree
N	Female	34	Lecturer	Doctor
O	Female	24	Import-Export Staff	Bachelor
P	Male	29	Architect	Bachelor
Q	Female	27	Interpreter	Master
R	Female	45	Pharmacist	Bachelor
S	Male	23	Waiter	Bachelor
T	Male	49	Professor	Doctor

*Note: * Participants' name removed in compliance with ethical requirements*

2. Research design

As mentioned above, a mixture of qualitative and quantitative method was chosen. Firstly, the interviews explored consumer perceptions by investigating and understanding how consumers viewed and related to brands. Furthermore, it attempted to explore how interested consumers were in relational behavior with brands and their reactions to relationship offers. It also exposed how consumer perceptions of the role corporations or Consumer perceptions of CSR were, and its impact on consumer behavior. All were explored in a particular context of the green brands/green cosmetic brands, which was mentioned earlier as a relatively new theme in the marketing literature. Consequently, further exploration is necessary to understand the study under investigation.

Nonetheless, while the interviews are explorative of nature, they fulfill two roles. Firstly, they act as an exploration into the subject to expand knowledge to the area of investigation in order to offer vital information to define the theoretical concepts and to refine the conceptual model with relevant aspects. Secondly, they are applied to support the quantitative findings to strengthen the research results. Qualitative data was collected and analyzed in the initial stage, followed by the analysis of the quantitative data. Both of the two qualitative studies were conducted in Vietnam.

2. The Interview process

In-depth interviewing is a qualitative research technique involving conducting intensive individual interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a program, an idea or a situation. In psychology, it is an investigative technique focusing on the motivations/reasons of a person's behavior (Giannelloni and Vernet, 2001). Consistent with Minichiello, Aroni, and Hays (2008), in-depth interviewing, also known as unstructured interviewing, is a type of interview used to elicit information with the aims of achieving a holistic understanding of the interviewees' point of view or situation; it can also be used to explore exciting areas for further investigation. This type of interview involves asking informants open-ended questions and probing wherever necessary to obtain data deemed useful by the researcher. As in-depth interviewing often involves qualitative data, it is also called qualitative interviewing. We carried out 20 individual semi-structured interviews. Brounéus (2011) suggested four basic approaches to conducting qualitative interviewing.

(1) - Introduction

The atmosphere established during the interview is vital to the success of the interview. Thus, it is necessary to create a friendly climate by establishing rapport as well as helping interviewees feel comfortable with the interviewer and the situation. This approach will aid the interviewees in providing the kind of information which the interviewer needs to carry out a successful interview. Besides, it deals with the concerns and favorite subjects of interviewees to prevent them from evading answering questions during the interview (Giannelloni and Vernet, 2001). For example, in this step, we introduced ourselves and explained the overall purpose of the interview. We also clarified that no identifying information, such as name or address, would be recorded. Besides, we informed that the interviews would be recorded to serve the transcripts used as a primary source of data in analyzing qualitative interviews. We took note/text for only analyzing because it is beneficial for making sure that we have not missed any information.

Moreover, we interviewed Vietnamese respondents whose fear of being wrong with “wrong answers” is one of the most challenging hurdles to overcome. Indeed, Vietnamese often fear being criticized by others due to Vietnamese culture, which leads to a desire to be drawn as a good person. As such, we committed respondents to give no judgment about and staying strictly anonymous to their provided information. Hence, we tried to offer a natural interaction and to

control the interview so that the content would not drift away from the topic.

(2) - Initial questions

Questions on the background (age, marital status, children, religion, ethnicity, occupation, etc) are useful for warming up. It is essential to begin with comfortable and factual questions in order to make interviewees feel confident. The beginning of the interview is crucial because it is here, the tone is set, a comfortable setting is created, and confidence starts to be built; thereby, the interviewee of interest is reassured by listening respectfully and openly without judgment.

(3) - Mid-interview

During this step, the real subject of the study is addressed. This part is the heart of the in-depth interview. We used questions requiring judgment or opinion and avoided questions where answers could be interpreted as right or wrong (Yes/No questions). We questioned the opinion of interviewees regarding BRQ, Values, and Social Responsibility. Each participant was asked to think of brands they were willing to share further to visualize his/her story, judgment, thoughts, and feeling. After being immersed in our research theme, we asked follow-up questions about the behavior intention of the individual to the green brand.

(4) - Closing the interview

After collecting all the opinion likely to inform us about the individual perspectives, towards the end of the interview, we closed the interview by evoking the experience provided by the green brand consumption. Comments and suggestions of interviewees were also raised at the end of the interview.

The duration of an interview was forty-five minutes to one hour. All interviews were recorded with a mobile phone to ensure that full attention was given during the interview. The interviews were conducted in the native language of respondents (Vietnamese) before transcribed and translated directly into written text. We also made a summary of what we had discussed and summarized some main points the interviewees had raised. Participants then reviewed the script and affirmed it was a report of their opinions, thoughts, and feelings. Finally, we asked the interviewees if there were anything else he/she would like to clarify or share with us before ending the interview.

3. Qualitative phases results

This part addresses the qualitative data collection stage by evidencing the interview questions asked of participants, alongside justification for the inclusion of each factor based on the literature review (Chapters 1 and 2). Thus, this part presents the results of the in-depth interview. More specifically, this section gives ideas of the extent to which aspects of BRQ, consumer values, two levels of social responsibility, and consumer behavior intention, from which the constructs in the proposed model of this research are associated with responses of participants and then confirmed. We present the results of each construct. Appendix 1 provides a summary of the interview questions.

➤ *Consumer Values*

Chapter 1, section 1-2, discussed values and their essential roles in shaping the characteristics of individuals, groups, and societies. Also, values can serve as predictors of behavior because values are a primary construct guiding principles in the lives of people. In this study, cultural values, personal values, and social values were used to measure the consumer values pattern. It is noted that the relationships of three types of consumer values and consumer behavior are clearly stated in order to indicate the roles of these values in shedding light on the attitudes and behavior of individuals.

The majority of participants indicated that ***Values*** are principals, beliefs, desirable goals that can guide their behaviors. Values can be described as a fundamental construct to understand and reach individuals.

“I can say that value is a central concept of my life because it can be a scale to evaluate every aspect of a problem. Based on it, I have guiding principles to behave.” (Participant C)

“When mentioning value, I perceive that it affects and directs my behavior. I believe value is the heart of my life that can explain the motivational bases of my attitudes.” (Participant S)

“Your value, as well as your principal, invisibly adjust your behavior. Indeed, I can feel that value has a gradual effect on me.” (Participant H)

“I think that the definition of “Value” comprises of 2 dimensions: Quality and Worthiness.

The first one is easily understandable, but the 2nd one, the last dimension, is about many explicit factors regarding life purpose. So, value plays a crucial role in shaping my characteristics and even characteristics of groups or societies.” (Participant E)

“In my opinion, a value of a person relates to his/her standards and norms, which form distinguish one’s actions and decisions since people can base on these norms or standards to behave in specific situations. Despite stable constructs, values may change over time to keep up with social changes, I think so.” (Participant K)

“Values influence almost 99% of my lifestyle and my behavior as they include beliefs and norms, significantly affecting my thoughts and my characteristics.” (Participant O)

Besides, two participants discussed the value provided by using a product/service.

“Value is visible or invisible things we receive when we purchase a product or use a service. It can be regarded as the benefits that a product can provide.” (Participant G)

“Value is the worth you evaluate somethings; it can be monetized or unmonetized. When consuming a product, value may come after a product, assessed in many ways depending on the product and concepts.” (Participant R)

➤ *Cultural values*

A two-thirds majority of interviewees indicated that **cultural values** make differences in how they feel, think, and behave. They consider cultural values as beliefs, values, norms of a specific group to help them distinguish from others/other groups.

“Cultural values are the ones that make us unique, distinguishing, and different from the rest.” (Participant D)

“To me, cultural values can be the “good” or the “bad” depending on the perceiving person or perspective. People look at them and know them is about us, not something/someone else.” (Participant L)

“Cultural values can correctly solve many things and problems, so they are essential for myself. Whenever problems occur, they always take my considerations, and then I estimate

the next action towards those things whether they are necessary or not. And, I decide what action to take next eventually.” (Participant A)

“Culture is a broad concept; cultural values are good values with more spiritual meaning than material.” (Participant F)

Moreover, participants characterized and examined cultural values pertaining to the individual relationship with others that are different from countries or the groups to which they belong, which include in two aspects of cultural values: ***individualism and collectivism***.

“As you know, many Asian countries such as Vietnam, China and South Korea are significantly affected by collectivism, so people often care about maintaining their relationship with others and prioritize groups’ goals over their goals. Whereas, in most Western cultures, like the United States, individuals are more independent, freedom, and self-confidence. It can be easy to recognize in countries with a high score in individualism, they are individualistic societies.” (Participant S)

“I think cultural differences in the basic unit of analyses, for instance, individualists focus on personal and independence, collectivists, in turn, oriented toward in-groups. China and the UK are examples.” (Participant T)

“I love my family; I desire to stay with my relatives forever. You see, I am a family-oriented person because I live in a collectivist society, Vietnam.” (Participant G)

“I often consider the goals/benefits of other people before making a decision. It can be said that I respect my social group rather than my personal benefits. I think that is a characteristic of collectivism that I belong to.” (Participant C)

“In my opinion, individualism and collectivism are facets of cultural values. Within individualistic, individuals must take individual responsibility for their actions; besides, individual achievement is not group achievement. Collectivistic culture is the opposite; Vietnam is an example.” (Participant B)

➤ *Personal values*

Most participants indicated that ***personal values*** are essential constructs and goals serving as a

guiding principle in the life of a person. Indeed, personal values can be beliefs, motivational constructs differing from individuals in the psychosocial concepts to be considered central to predicting attitudes and behaviors (Schwartz, 1992).

*“In my opinion, personal values are **a central part** of who you are and who you want to be. You can use them as a guide to make your choice in different situations since they are important factors in your life. For instance, Self-development is my primary purpose of life. Correctly solving many things and problems myself as much as possible is my bio. I always prefer things with high quality and things that are essential for myself.”*
(Participant D)

“We all have personal values, whether we are aware of them or not, because they are invisible. Personal values can be observed in the way we live, study, and work. When we feel that something is important, our value that over something else, and this reflects in our decisions.” (Participant I)

*“Personal Values are **an abstract concept**. They matter because you are likely to feel better if you are living according to your personal values and to feel worse if you do not. I believe that this applies both to day-to-day decisions and to broader life choices.”* (Participant H)

*“Personal values are the things that are important to me. They shape the characteristics and behaviors that **motivate me and guide my decisions**. For example, I value honesty. I believe in being honest wherever possible, and I think it is important to say what I really think. When I do not speak my mind, I probably feel disappointed in myself.”* (Participant P)

*“When talking about my personal values, I want to say I try to live by integrity. The word “integrity” embodies all of the spiritual principles to me. Those **principles** include doing what is right, being honest with myself and others, having compassion and empathy, faith, hope, humility, commitment, self-discipline, gratitude, responsibility, and positive thoughts. There are even more.”* (Participant J)

“Using one word to describe my personal values is “Quality” which is considered as the most crucial factor I perceive. I bias things with high quality, and those things are related to many aspects such as life condition, self-development, well functional tools. The high-

quality things decide the fact that everything works effectively, and they establish a strong base for “development”.” (Participant A)

“I think that what makes you feel good is those help you start when figuring out what your values are. They are personal values.” (Participant G)

“The individual is a minority, but if there is no minority, how can there be a majority, so the value of the individual is very important.” (Participant C)

*“From the point of my view, personal values are **judged through a person's behavior, attitude** to people around him/her, contributions, and living purposes.”* (Participant O)

*“A personal value is **a belief a person holds**. Maybe not a belief, exclusively, but perhaps a way of life or doing things. Or all of the above. It is how a person conducts their life.”* (Participant B)

Moreover, there were cases exhibited the factors personal values depended.

“The concept of personal value is complicated to explain, conditional on many factors such as personality, skills, achievements, social contributions that gather to form an overall personal value.” (Participant Q)

“Personal values are my personal beliefs that depend on my age, education, experience, values, and perhaps desires.” (Participant L)

“Personal values can change over time due to any things, but generally, they do not. They are your values you believe in or find important about.” (Participant E)

“Personal values are concepts and objects that we value such as our morals, ethics, and opinions.” (Participant K)

➤ *Social values*

A majority of participants thought of **Social values** that are commonly accepted and embraced by society. They are norms, standards explaining how social processes operate in a given society. Also, they provide the general guidelines for conduct for the stability of the social order.

“Social values are something thought of value by someone in a social context. They are

what one person does, react, contribute to the community and society.” (Participant A)

*“I think Social values are **the most important driven to remain a member of society** in which we live. They are about doing things complying with the rules of that society and contributing to that society stabilization and development (if possible).” (Participant F)*

“Social values are those values that enable us to live with our neighbors while simultaneously ensuring our security.” (Participant R)

“Social values are an essential part of society. They are the social sources of patterned interaction. They provide not only the general guidelines for social conduct and behavior but also establish the norms in society.” (Participant H)

*“In my opinion, social values are **the most important aspects of a social system** which play a predominant role in running and maintaining the social order. Although they are abstract and invisible, they guide social conduct. For example, honesty is the most appreciated behavior of an individual in a social system, so people expect honesty from others.” (Participant D)*

A female aged 38 exhibited the changing of social values over time.

“Social values are norms or beliefs that belong to a particular group or society. They can change over the years, along with the lifestyle that people think they should accept. For example, concerning gender equality, in the past time, girls and women were generally expected to stay at home, to take care of the housework and children, and not to go to school. In modern life, they are expected to proceed to college, have equal opportunities in the labor market and success in society.” (Participant H)

There were cases expressed social values are those which individuals expect to be recognized by a social group, for example, **status and wealthy signals**.

“To me, social values give rules by which a person feels recognized in the respect afforded by others. They relate to one’s success and status achieved.” (Participant L)

“Not everyone may care about having an impressive job title or a big and a fancy house, but all human beings desire a high level of social status. In my opinion, social values involve a position one holds in a society or group.” (Participant S)

“Many social values are about being kind to others, and the one that drives all others is a relative social position within a group. Status is important to me, so I must protect and enhance it.” (Participant Q)

“Everyone cares about status whether they are aware of it or not, but I think wealthy signals are fundamental marks to be more recognized. So, wealth will help express my social values.” (Participant N)

➤ *Brand Relationship Quality (BRQ)*

As discussed in Chapter 1, BRQ involves in two components: Hot BRQ (based on emotions) and Cold BRQ (based on objective-relevant beliefs), which portrays the lasting type of relationship between consumers and brands (Coulter, Bruhn, Schoenmueller, and Schäfer 2012).

Most participants showed their **emotional connections** with products/brands. It refers to an extension of feelings of connections and closeness of consumers toward a brand (Swaminathan, Stilley, and Ahluwalia 2009). It has been the intensity of feelings that might imply their **love/passion** to a brand. Some respondents exhibited emotional interdependence with brands.

“I love the brand [Yves Rocher] so much, I have been with for ten years after trying several brands. Since finding it out, I do not want to use others. It makes me feel familiar like a close friend, especially my favorite color of packaging - green. I do not know reasons; just love based on my emotion.” (Participant I)

“Be wonderful. I feel crazy about Adidas. The logo of 3 stripes gives us a feeling of high strength. That logo looks phenomenally sporty, and it is suitable for the design of the Adidas costumes in general and Adidas shoes in particular.” (Participant L)

There was a case where the participant exhibited connections with her brand. A female participant aged 34 talked about his relationship with a brand as a close connection friendship.

“I am quite interested in its concept (Yves Rocher); another highlight of this brand is its main ingredient is mineral water, which is moisturizing and mild for all types of skin. It brings me feelings of connection as I love nature.” (Participant S)

In some cases, passion suggests being highly interactive with intimacy (Park et al., 2006).

Participants also exhibited some *intimacy* with or understanding of their brands.

“The brand (Vichy) is very famous for its products in its category. I have feelings of closeness to it. Well, its brand name is easy to remember. For example, at first, I thought that Vichy is a Vietnamese brand combined with two leaders’ names-Vi and Chi, which are two popular names of persons in Vietnam. I realized my misunderstanding about the origin of this product before searching for information about this brand. So now, I know clearly about the characteristics of this European brand.” (Participant Q)

“I have known NEM for three years, and I can affirm that I know it well about its history, development, and extinction. I used to think that it seemed to be an imported brand, not a Vietnamese brand because of its high price. After understanding and wearing its product, I am kind of addicted to the brand.” (Participant H)

“I am absolutely satisfied. The name of the brand, Nike, you see, is easily pronounced and simply delicate, from my point of view. I love their name, their logo, and their products.” (Participant E)

Moreover, some exhibited affection for their brands in the hypothetical situation that these brands were no longer available or criticized.

“The quality is guaranteed, and the product is effective. Also, the brand (Yves Rocher) is officially imported in Vietnam and has official stores. Therefore, I can easily find without worrying about imitations. I guess I will feel terrible if they are unavailable or disappeared. That will make me spend a bit more time to find information on alternatives and to choose.” (Participant K)

“I get used to wearing it (Nike) for a long time. Without its products, I feel something missing. Sometimes we have to change, but I will be sad because my favorite brand is no longer available; then, it takes me time to search for another new brand.” (Participant E)

“I will feel sad even I will cry if Zara shuts down. I have been bought Zara’s clothes for more than ten years. It can be said that Zara considers 90% of my clothes. If any brands no longer exist, perhaps I feel nothing, but I will cry for Zara. Zara is the brand I want to spend for. I realize that Zara can make me feel dependent on it.” (Participant G)

“Indeed, I will feel bad and sorry for the brand (Sony) if it is criticized. This brand has been established for years with one mindset until now, which I do appreciate. Besides, it will be more difficult for me when looking for a product in those categories since I got acquainted with its products.” (Participant F)

There were also cases implying high levels of **intimacy and commitment** to a brand which characterized successful brand relationships:

“I understand what Amazon does business. Perhaps I am a student in the major of International Business, so I feel intimacy with Amazon because of the business lessons I can learn from it. It is a reference when it comes to business decisions. So, I have become a loyal customer of Amazon for around nine years. I do not find any conveniences if I live without it.” (Participant B)

“I am very loyal to Dell. I used Dell computers for all of every work since I graduated from university. I cannot imagine my working without it and how I start with other computer brands.” (Participant J)

Interestingly, Vietnamese people sometimes describe relationships with their partners with food-related metaphors (Linh and Harris 2009), these foods are “rice” and “noodle”. A wife is “rice”, that is, the staple they eat every day, and an extramarital lover is “noodle”, that is an alternative dish. Using interpersonal relationship metaphors in the case of brands implies a type of relationship between customers and brands in which the relevance of BRQ is an essential characteristic of this relationship (Coulter et al. 2012):

“I think that I understand The Body Shop very well, and somehow The Body Shop understands me. Sometimes I try alternatives called noodles, but every day I need rice-The Body Shop.” (Participant C)

There were also participants being interested in **satisfaction** with a brand, which likely shows the relation of brand’s performance and their expectations (Aaker et al, 2004).

“I am delighted when using their product (L’Oreal). First, this is pharmacy cosmetics with the main ingredient is mineral water, which is super suitable for all types of skin. Even if this is a mild product, it works well on my skin. I can feel the differences before and after using them. Another thing is that it is affordable.” (Participant R)

“I am happy to own the product (Innisfree) because it meets my needs just as it gives me a sense of satisfaction. The packaging is made from transparent glass, which makes me feel so natural and fresh.” (Participant O)

Trust refers to feelings of confidence in a brand’s reliability based on the cognitive beliefs about the brand (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán 2005). Also, beliefs in the brand’s performances, presenting with a level of trust and knowledge, are fundamentally a cognitive phenomenon. The majority of participants implied feelings of trust. Examples of successful brand relationships reveal as following:

“I do trust The Body Shop, before and after buying a product. I usually search for recommendations and reviews on the Internet before using a cosmetic product since it directly applies to my skin. I realized that most of the feedback is positive, and the way the brand reply to all the comments – both negative and positive give me confidence in this brand. After using the product, my faith is even more assured. There is no doubt to express my trust in The Body Shop.” (Participant C)

“In my perception, Yves Rocher promises me that it is safe for my skin because they are laboratory products with less harmful chemicals. After trying, I feel my skin is soft and more moisture. My skin is sensitive, and Yves Rocher makes my skin better. So, I recognize that Yves Rocher keeps its promise. It is reliable.” (Participant N)

Participants also expressed their beliefs about brand's drive from perceived quality. One explicitly referred to the reliability of the brand:

“If you ask me whether I trust Adidas, I will say: Totally Yes. It is the German brand having a long history and an annual update. My very first pair of shoes is also from that brand. Furthermore, it makes me feel safe, soft, and confident when wearing. That is all I expect from a pair of shoes. Moreover, I like German things as their culture, their explicit rules, and skills. I can understand the products clearly during the long time I use the brand. I strongly believe in the quality of products of Adidas.” (Participant L)

Several participants showed that their connections with products/brands served their self-definitional goals. More precisely, participants indicated their satisfaction/trust derived from their images with brands, with social status, and with wealthy signals. This indicates the connection

with brands servicing self-definitional needs:

“When I use a bag of Louis Vuitton – a high-end fashion brand, I feel that I belong to a certain level in society. People know its value, and I feel more confident when I wear a nice bag to go out. I believe that LV helps me display my wealth.” (Participant T)

“A businessman needs a “branded” car that shows his class, so I can say Mazda makes me satisfied to present my particular class and social status as well. When I use it, I can show my social signal.” (Participant D)

“Although the products of Yves Saint Laurent are highly-priced, I still use them. I like their unique and trendy packaging. As a result, I am different from others when owning them.” (Participant N).

Participants also presented their feelings and satisfaction/trust with brand benefits for the environment, which likely precede their showing **self-concept value**. This is consistent with the discussion in Chapter 3 on the impact of personal values on Hot and Cold BRQ.

One participant wanted to express and enhance her own self.

“I feel satisfied with The Body Shop. When I use products from this brand, I do an ethical action for the environment. Also, I am appreciated to be a good person. The green cosmetic is for a high social responsibility person, not for a low level of environmental awareness people.” (Participant C)

Of note is that this perception was concerned with the environment, the animal welfare, and the interests of others. One participant talked about the safety of the green product.

“I realize that Innisfree meets my need, I feel so happy. I concern about animal welfare, so does Innisfree. Innisfree does not test on animals because Innisfree believes that people and animals should be equal to live together. Besides, Innisfree uses natural ingredients that are safe for my health. As such, I strongly believe in Innisfree.” (Participant O)

Another participant indicated that it was her goal to have an **“openness-to-change”** image:

“A modern person should use green products to show a high of “openness” with innovation instead of traditional products. I feel interested in acting environmentally. So, I like Yves Rocher.” (Participant I)

One participant emphasized his role in social systems by *labeling self-identity* as a green consumer.

“My father always consumes green products to protect the environment as a way to take social responsibility. People around him admire him, and so do I. Thus, I looked to my father using green brands and wanted to look like him. I would like to become a green consumer to idealize myself.” (Participant P)

Consistent with the effects of social values on Hot and Cold BRQ discussed in Chapter 3, most participants desire to demonstrate their identification with a *social identity* by green brands, such as an affiliation with or a sense of belonging to *a class or a profession*.

A female participant, aged 37, exhibited some social connections with brands. It is understandable since females at this age are conscious of their social performance and often seek cosmetic products to rejuvenate their looks and to enhance their social image.

“I would like to show to the community that I am professional. Lipstick of The Body Shop priced 900.000VND (45\$), it is a relatively high price for a lipstick to Vietnamese. I think that using green cosmetics shows not my environmental awareness but a conspicuous green label to imply my social status. So, when I need to buy green cosmetics, I think of Yves Rocher immediately.” (Participant C)

A participant exhibited a distinctive sense of self when he revealed he was more passionate about his *conspicuous consumption* than the brands themselves:

“I feel special when I use green cosmetics, which are more expensive than non-green cosmetics in Vietnam. Significantly, through the conspicuous consumption of green cosmetics, I can gain recognition and distinction through my income spent on products.” (Participant A)

Most participants demonstrated their emotions to brands as love, intimacy, and commitment. Participants also indicated satisfaction of their needs by the brands as their affection for the brands. The views of respondents also indicated their beliefs to brands. They noted that they believed in brands because their brands were reliable, delivered promises, never failed to keep promises, or suited them. Besides, participants affirmed that green products and green cosmetic brands might help them show their self-concept values and social performances.

➤ *Social responsibility*

Chapter 3 described how moral principles form an individual's benchmark and guide moral behavior, leading to a positive attitude towards brands in terms of feelings and cognitive beliefs. A moral person engages in responsible actions to make society better, which can upgrade to a higher level as corporate. CSR was also discussed in Chapter 3 as an extent of perception, based on emotional/relational connections and trust. Besides, it was noted that ***two branches of the socially responsible*** term were affirmed as ISR and consumer perceptions of CSR.

One of the participants replied as follows when we discussed their awareness on responsible for society.

“In my opinion, social responsibility should be an obligation of not only corporations but all people in the community. It is an essential behavior of an individual. It will strengthen the stability of a society and contribute to the prosperity of that society”. (Participant M)

Another participant indicated that awareness of protecting the environment and social welfare were built through education.

“Social responsibility is an essential criterion to be bare in mind of each civilian. We are educated to be aware of social issues since being a child. Thus, social responsibility means that individuals and companies have to act in the best interests of their environment and society.” (Participant B)

To briefly ***describe a responsible person***, characteristics of a responsible person, such as caring, principled, collective, calm, active, enthusiastic, generous, helpful, principled, and collective, were listed in interviews. These characteristics were seriously discussed to visualize a clear image in respondents' mind about the kind of people those who are considered as socially responsible persons. This finding is consistent with six characteristics listed by Aquino and Reed (2002) whose scale was used to measure ISR in this study.

“If talking about characteristics of a socially responsible person, I think of calm, active, enthusiastic in social activities such as volunteer tasks, creative in coming up with an idea as a social activist.” (Participant G)

“A socially responsible person can involve in volunteering activities, be a part of the NGO, reduce the burden on fuel and electricity, reduce wastage, and pollution to the

environment. They are helpful and principled. They always follow the standard rules of the society they live in, and they are very collective.” (Participant A)

“In my opinion, the characteristics of a socially responsible person are: Taking care of the planet (it means to reduce the energy and water consumption, reuse plastic and recycle the waste) and consuming responsibly (It means researching for the origin of the products: where they are made, from which ingredients, find out about companies’ practices with their employees and the environment). Moreover, when making any decisions, this person will consider the effects on the community.” (Participant D)

“They are caring for others, think about social benefits in every single task they do. Always ease their eagles and appear to be a good listener in communication.” (Participant H)

“A responsible person is principled. He/she always follows the rules in the society he is living in and tries to avoid the personal desire of breaking it. Nothing can impact his perspective but himself.” (Participant T)

Most respondents acknowledged sincerity when we discussed **socially responsible brands**. In expressing perceptions about CSR, most participants implied their respect for **social benefits** a brand provided, and several explicitly referred to a green brand.

“A socially responsible brand has a good fame in society, and it is worthy of being perceived as a good organization. These organizations often respect the environment, so they focus on balancing business profits and the environment. Honestly, I appreciate these brands and always respect them.” (Participant Q)

“With the slogan “One for one”, Toms donates one pair of shoes for every pair they sell to children in need. Besides, TOMS represent a socially responsible brand that creates job opportunities in developing countries and uses the profits to help visually impaired people. Toms have efforts to benefit society to play their role in CSR.” (Participant P)

“The famous England brand of cosmetics – The Body Shop – is a social responsibility brand. They do actions promoting environmental sustainability. One of them is to control their supply chain to lower their carbon emission and deforestation.” (Participant C)

“To me, green brands respect the environment they are living in and respect other people. They focus on minimizing the effect of their business on another person, on the community, and the living environment.” (Participant O)

One participant indicated that socially responsible companies should consider efforts to societal well-being and **obligations to their customers**.

“The big corporates which currently run the world should see to it that they adhere to the norms. I know all the ingredients used in the products (Yves Rocher) because they are introduced in the package of products. In my opinion, providing full information about products is an action of CSR which demonstrates the respect of companies to their customers. I also know that Yves Rocher allocates a certain amount of its profit to the development of society in encouraging to plant trees.” (Participant K)

A surprising finding revealed through this in-depth interview was that fourteen of twenty respondents presented the effects of their relationships to a brand on **their perceptions of CSR** or the role played by corporations. They were contrary views about **the role of CSR on BRQ** studied in the literature on branding. However, they were consistent with the arguments we discussed in Chapter 3. Respondents strongly agreed that their perceptions of company's CSR activities are derived from the feelings with and beliefs in a brand. Such activities are supposed to contribute to socially responsible projects/campaigns to promote responsibilities to the environment, well-being, and future generations.

“My loyal brand (Yves Rocher) often shows a severe attitude toward sustainable development by showing clear information on ingredients and actions or campaigns transparently. Also, they are more environmentally friendly by using more natural substances and paying their employees more.” (Participant I)

“Sony is a famous company in the technology section with a long history of development, so I believe that Sony anticipates lots of activities to help the communities and improve the quality of life because Sony exists for a long time and have many loyal customers like me.” (Participant F)

“A socially responsible brand has been going to attract more customers. I expect my brand to demonstrate their social responsibility to the environment and future generations.”

(Participant L).

“My brand loyalty products (The Body Shop) are not tested on animals. Besides, the brand uses natural ingredients and packaging from recycled materials. That is my expectation and my perceptions of CSR of The Body Shop.” (Participant C)

“I would like to say that Toto Vietnam Co., Ltd, where I am working for, runs many community activities every year and usually appeal to all of the Company staff to contribute together. For instance, they organize School Construction for Children in Remote Areas and Northern Mountainous Province. To do so, they explain the meaning of this activity and appeal to their staff's willingness to contribute. Then, they collect money in a group. After finishing construction, an internal press will be released for everyone to follow up with the result. I probably appreciate these activities because I love my company before becoming its staff, so, my perceived CSR seem extremely biased, I guess.” (Participant M)

“My loyal brand is Adidas only. It is a German company belonging to the sporty outfit sector, and I have never cared about what they did to demonstrate their social responsibility. I do perceive that they will launch many campaigns promoting young people globally to live energetic within a conscious of protecting nature. Honestly, I have that feeling.” (Participant L)

“My brand (Dell) should be socially responsible. It is worthy of being perceived as a good organization because of helping poor people with finance and aid when disasters took place. I will always prioritize the products of this brand.” (Participant J).

➤ *Behavior intention*

Different participants expressed various degrees of behavior intention toward their brands. Respondents admitted the drive of CSR and BRQ on their behavior intention. They expressed their affections (belief, satisfaction, commitment, passion) with the brand influencing their ***purchase intention***. For example, some participants exhibited a very distinct level of BRQ, revealing a ***willingness to pay a premium*** for a brand and ***recommending*** it socially:

“I am willing to pay extra for this brand (Honda) because of its superior quality. Also, after-sales services or services associated with the product are well guaranteed to make

good brand images. Finally, extra payment is worthy of my favorite brand.” (Participant A)

“My loyalty to Nike is mostly based on the fact that its products are qualified at excellent prices. I am satisfied with their quality and design, but mostly the driving factor is that Nike demonstrates the best of its considerable output on social. Besides, I can pay more for Nike.” (Participant E)

“I will try their products (Toms). If it has a good quality, I will introduce it to my friends and family for sure. I also joined some groups on Facebook about Living Minimalism and Green Environment. I will share my experience with them so everyone can get to know more about this brand.” (Participant P)

“I feel satisfied with it [Amazon]. It makes me upset and changes my thought on a business brand. I believe that it will launch a campaign promoting young people globally to live energetic within a conscious of protecting nature. I continue buying its products.” (Participant B)

“I would not say it is any kind of strong loyalty. I just buy many of this brand (Adidas) like I used to. I do not know how to explain why I feel happy with Adidas, but I know it works great. So, I will purchase Adidas more in the future.” (Participant L)

“I am highly loyal to Sony, and I would buy no matter what. If they keep on coming up with interesting new products, I keep on being invested in them. For example, all electronic equipment in my house is from Sony.” (Participant F)

“Of course, I want to continue using their products (Innisfree) and support their business so that I can keep buying their products in the future. I would probably be loyal to this brand.” (Participant O)

When asked about their **reactions towards socially responsible brands**, different participants expressed various degrees of intention; however, all participants responded in positive ways. They tended to purchase, to recommend to other people, and to spend more on these brands.

“I am very interested in socially responsible brands that have great actions, for example, my favorite brand - L’Oreal. L’Oreal launches into expensive social campaigns. I definitely

support them. I will continuously buy its products, and if someone asks me for a recommendation, I would like to say that L'Oreal is a right choice.” (Participant R)

“I pay more attention to NEM because I believe that NEM is a good corporate citizen. I am keen on NEM as well.” (Participant H)

“Everyone should protect the environment. I put effort into making the environment better. There is no doubt that I will advise my friends, my family to protect or reserve the environment by using green brands, especially The Body Shop. This brand also did many social activities for the community. It should be appreciated.” (Participant C)

“Because I am a responsible person, I will support the green brands which often take socially responsible for society and the planet. I always consider well-being before making a decision.” (Participant Q)

“A socially responsible person should save the environment and buy products of the company allocating its profit to the development of society.” (Participant J)

Participants who showed a **high level of involvement or trust** in the brand previously indicated a positive attitude towards their brands or green brands. They also expressed their intentions.

“Based on the value of the product and my perceptions of CSR of the brand (Vinamilk), I strongly recommend to my family and best friends who always understand and trust my taste. I believe using the products of this brand is good for them.” (Participant M)

“To some degree, I guess I feel closer to some brands than I do to others. So, I may have some preferences for my family towards these brands. In general, I would say that I will recommend my trusted brands to my relatives.” (Participant N)

“I will recommend the products of this brand (Vichy) for my family and friends. I think about writing my review and feedback about these products on my social networks like Instagram or Facebook.” (Participant Q)

Participants expressed various degrees of purchase intention towards brands. It was noted that they tended to buy green brands. Participants exhibited the expensive tag attached to green products that might imply **status and conspicuous wealth** as one of the key drivers of purchasing green products. The following cases excerpts confirm extrinsic motivations as significant factors promoting the purchase of green products/green brands:

“I regard myself as a price-sensitive consumer, so price plays a big role in my purchase decisions. Honestly, I am not prepared to pay the higher price. Nevertheless, in some cases, there is no doubt that of Yves Rocher—for example, it is often more expensive than that of non-green brands.” (Participant K)

“I do not have any complaints regarding the quality of The Body Shop, but green products are expensive and purchased by wealthy people, so I want to buy them. It helps me to present my wealthy signal to the public. I do not mind spending more money to own them.” (Participant C)

“In terms of price, I think green products of brands/green brands (for example, Innisfree) are relatively expensive because of producing cost and material. However, I always believe that green brands are doing an excellent job for my health, for the environment, and for people. Thus, I am preparing to pay the price, even pay extra for Innisfree.” (Participant O)

“The truth is that the quality of green products is better than that of non-green products. They benefit the environment and society. I will gain social prestige if using a green product, so I do not mind consuming.” (Participant D)

It was seen from these comments that the outcomes of BRQ included consumers' perceived CSR, WTPP, positive recommendation, and brand purchase intention. Moreover, participants expressed different perceptions of CSR of brands based on emotion and cognitive beliefs, which could influence their behavior intentions. Participants also noted that their connections with products/brands might serve their self-definitional goals, such as self-concept value and social performance. In other words, values (both personal and social values) differed in their impact on BRQ. Thus, they stated the ongoing satisfaction of their needs by the brands through their purchasing intentions.

All in all, following the analysis of in-depth interviews, we found a match between the exploratory research and literature review presented in Chapters 1, 2, and 3. Thereby, it leads to the main conclusions concerning the previously proposed model. First, all constructs derived from the literature review could be applied in Vietnam and were exhibited in participants' thoughts and

feelings about brands. Second, the interview results were consistent with all discussions of the hypotheses, including the reverse causality of consumer perceptions of CSR and BRQ. Therefore, modifying the proposed research model and the hypotheses being relevant to the relations is not necessary.

Section 4-3. Quantitative phase

During the qualitative phase, it is to determine how consumers relate to brands and whether research constructs are applicable in the emerging market of Vietnam. As mentioned earlier, qualitative research is to test the theoretical framework and hypotheses relating to the relational constructs. Thus, this qualitative study examines the relationships between consumers' perceptions evolved from motivational aspects such as their own values, perceptions of a company's CSR activities, their moral identity, and BRQ. In this section, we describe the design of the questionnaire, the data collection process, the analysis, and finally, discuss the main results.

1. Questionnaire design

➤ Questionnaire for selecting green cosmetic brands

Before the main survey, we carried out an additional survey about the green cosmetic brands known in the Vietnam market. We asked a group of 40 participants to aim at choosing the most popular green cosmetic brand based on their familiarity and at meeting the requirements of the BRQ model. We used purposive sampling (Emmel 2013) called judgmental sampling (Zikmund, Carr and Griffin, 2013) because of in-depth information demand in qualitative research. This method is described as a selection technique in which participants are chosen by judgments about the appropriate characteristics they will. As a result, we selected participants who were likely to be green cosmetic brands. They were consumers in shopping malls or supermarkets in which a wide variety of cosmetic brands was available. We approached participants after their relevant purchase in 8 malls and supermarkets in Da Nang city located in the center of Vietnam with any groups of age. We invited them to participate in the study, and if they agreed, they were asked to list 5-7 green cosmetic brands they have known or used to use or been familiar with after we had explained about the definition and characteristics of green cosmetics in order to ensure that participants had a comprehensive picture of green cosmetic brands. Table 24 presents the result of this additional survey.

Table 24. The top 10 green cosmetic brands known by customers

	Brand	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yves Rocher (France)	27	67.5%
2	The Body Shop (UK)	27	67.5%
3	Innisfree (Korean)	23	55.5%
4	DHC (Japan)	19	47.5%
5	The Face Shop (Korean)	18	45%
6	Sao Thái Dương (Vietnam)	15	37.5%
7	L'Occitane en Provence (France)	13	32.5%
8	Kiehl's (USA)	10	25%
9	Lush (UK)	8	20%
10	Mẹ Ken (Vietnam)	5	12.5%

Almost popular green cosmetic brands in Vietnam are original from foreign countries such as Korean, Japan, UK, USA, France... We decided to choose two green cosmetics brands because of the same popularity. As a result, the top two brands included in the questionnaire were: The Body Shop and Yves Rocher.

➤ *Survey Questionnaire*

The questionnaire was composed of five parts: The first part containing two Filter questions to ensure that respondents belong to the target. In particular, the first question is: "Have you ever bought cosmetic products of The Body Shop or Yves Rocher (such as skincare, shampoo, shower gel, make-up, perfume...)?". The second question is: "Which one do you prefer or feel most familiar with?", used to ask respondents to choose the green cosmetic brand they were most familiar with to navigate to a suitable survey section. Thereby, each respondent answered one related green brand. Then, the second group of questions referred to consumer values. In the third part, participants answered questions about their perceptions of social responsibility at two levels of individual and organization. The fourth group of items presented concepts of BRQ in green

brand context, especially green cosmetic brands. Finally, participants answered the dependent variable measures questions (WTTP, +WOM, Brand purchase intention) and demographic questions in the last part of the questionnaire. Questions related to measurement scales used a Likert Scale of six levels, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The respondents expressed their opinion on each statement that would allow us to assess the total items found in the literature review and generated from qualitative studies. Appendix 2 presents a summary of the questionnaire.

2. Data collection process

a. Target Sample

The survey participants were aged 15 or over in Vietnam. As the research focused on BRQ, consumers would form relationships and identify with chosen brands. Online distribution of questionnaires enables all of the target population to have an opportunity to participate. For an individual to be included in the analysis, an individual is required to be ever purchased a green cosmetic product among either one of the two chosen brands or not left too many items unanswered.

b. Procedure

Questionnaires were distributed online, in-person via social media such as Facebook, Instagram, Zalo with SurveyMonkey, and via the email to provide maximum coverage and awareness. As such, barriers to the online questionnaire approach around access to technology or competence in using technology did not offer concern. Focus now moved to the benefits and limitations of each of these methods of distribution.

People receive a high volume of requests for participation in surveys, which has led to survey fatigue, whereby people feel so inundated by requests to participate in research surveys. Moreover, people often get suspicious email or link spams claiming to be from Facebook that may be malicious script or malware on the computer. This inconvenience causes unwillingness to click any link or attachment; thus, people start to ignore all such requests. This research partly addressed this barrier through sending an initial link/email (July 2018), a follow-up link (mid of August 2018), and a final link (October 2018), with the hope of engaging a further segment of the target

population with each iteration.

Furthermore, the opportunity for the researcher to distribute paper-based questionnaires during university lectures and high school provided access to more respondents, with the likelihood of improved response rates in comparison to online surveys of these target audiences. However, this approach required permission from lecturers and teachers to have access to their students during class time and was considerably more time-consuming to the researcher than sending out an online link. The researcher thus targeted lecture slots during mid of August and September 2018. This time slot avoided rushed semester examinations because it was at the beginning of a school year. Our appearance in-person to request the students to complete the questionnaire with an attending student lecture around $n=25$. Paper-based surveys also had to be inputted manually to enable the statistical analysis to be conducted. A limitation here was the distribution of questionnaires only to participants actively engaged in considering green products. However, it was essential to reflect the green cosmetics consumers, and the online link ensured that all the target population had an opportunity to participate in this study.

In the quantitative study, as a general rule, the desirable sample size is determined by the expected variation in the data: the more varied the data are, the larger the sample size needs to attain the same level of accuracy. Specifically, in multivariate research (including multiple regression analyses), the sample size should be several times (preferably ten times or more) as large as the number of variables in the study of Sekaran (2003). This study has a total of 85 variables; thus, it requires a sample size of at least 850.

At the beginning of the survey, all participants read a short definition of a green brand and green cosmetics. Questionnaires were filled out for approximately 15 minutes. Each question was based on empirically validated scales mostly adapted from previous literature. After conducting a pre-test with 20 respondents, the final questionnaire was refined to ensure that questions reflected accurate information. This pre-test also guaranteed that the questionnaire was answered without any problems caused by the misinterpretation of concepts and ambiguity of words to make sure the objectivity of data collection. Thereby, some items were revised and reformulated so that participants could understand the questionnaire easier. As an incentive to increase the motivation for participation, after completing the survey, target respondents would receive a set of 20 PowerPoint theme templates and be awarded a The Body shop/ Yves Rocher gift set if they win a

random lottery.

3. Quantitative data preparation

All items were measured with 6-point Likert-type scales to give the higher trend of discrimination, reliability values and to reduce the risks of the deviation of personal decision making instead of 5-point Likert scales (Chomeya, 2010). Besides, Dolnicar et al. (2011) indicate that 7-point Likert scales are less stable than binary answer formats. Thus, Likert's scale 6-points is appropriate in this study with endpoints of (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree" (or (1) "not like me at all" to (6) "very much like me" for three dimensions of personal values).

All measures were operationalized based on published scales with sound psychometric properties. Cultural values were measured with two dimensions: Individualism (5 items) and Collectivism (5 items). These items were adapted from Triandis and Gelfand (1998); Brewer and Chen (2007); Sivadas et al. (2008). Personal values were scaled in four dimensions: Self-identity (3 items adapted from Sparks and Shepherd, 2002; and Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons, 2017), Self-transcendence (4 items), Conservation (4 items), and Openness-to-change (6 items). These rests of items were adapted from Sandy et al. (2017) and Fotopoulos et al. (2011). Social Values were measured with: Conspicuous value (4 items adapted from O'cass and McEwen, 2004) and Social status value (8 items adapted from O'cass and McEwen, 2004; and Wiedmann et al., 2009). ISR was measured with two dimensions: Internal Moral Identity (5 items) and Symbolic Moral Identity (5 items), adopted from Aquino and Reed (2002).

Hot BRQ was scaled in Commitment (4 items), Intimacy (2 items), Passion (3 items) adapted from Fournier (1994). Cold BRQ was measured by Satisfaction (4 items adapted from Aaker et al., 2004; Oliver, 1993) and Trust (3 items adapted from Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001).

Consumer perceptions of CSR was scaled in Consumer Benefit (3 items) and Societal Benefit (5 items) adopted from Turker (2009) and Droms Hatch et al. (2015). Turning to consumer behavior intention, consumers' responses variables were measured: WTPP (2 items adapted from Anselmsson et al., (2014), Positive WOM (5 items from Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Maxham 2001; and Nyffenegger et al., 2015). Brand purchase intention was measured by five items adapted from Liñán and Chen (2009) and Jeger et al., (2014).

After collecting data and deleting the uncompleted questionnaire, we coded and entered data into variables. Table 25 presents all items coding of the questionnaire.

Table 25. Summary of Scales for Constructs

	Code	Items
Gender	GEN	
Age	AGE	
Education level	EDU	
Monthly income	MTI	
Cultural Values	<i>Individualism</i>	
	CVI1	1. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many ways.
	CVI2	2. I often do “my own thing.”
	CVI3	3. I am a unique individual.
	CVI4	4. One should live one’s life independent of others as much as possible.
	CVI5	5. The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy.
	<i>Collectivism</i>	
	CVC1	6. People should be aware that if they are going to be part of a group, they sometimes will have to do things they don’t want to do.
	CVC2	7. I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.
	CVC3	8. It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.
CVC4	9. If the group is slowing me down, it is better to leave it and work alone.	
CVC5	10. I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I’m not happy with the group.	

Personal Values	<i>Self-identity</i>	
	PVI1	1. I think of myself as someone who is concerned about environmental issues
	PVI2	2. I think of myself as a "green" consumer
	PVI3	3. I would describe myself as an ecologically conscious consumer
	<i>Self-transcendence</i>	
	PVT1	4. It's very important to me to help the people around me. I want to care for their well-being.
	PVT2	5. It is important to me to respond to the needs of others. I try to support those I know.
	PVT3	6. I think it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. I believe everyone should have equal opportunities in life.
	PVT4	7. I believe all the world's people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is important to me.
	<i>Conservation</i>	
	PVC1	8. It is important to me that things be organized and clean. I really do not like things to be a mess.
	PVC2	9. Having a stable government is important to me. I am concerned that the social order be protected
	PVC3	10. It is important to me always to behave properly. I want to avoid doing anything people would say is wrong
	PVC4	11. I believe I should always show respect to my parents and to older people. It is important to me to be obedient
	<i>Openness-to-change</i>	
	PVO1	12. Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to me. I like to do things in my own original way.
PVO2	13. I think it's important to be interested in things. I like to be curious and to try to understand all sorts of things.	

	PVO3	14. I think it is important to do lots of different things in life. I always look for new things to try.
	PVO4	15. I like to take risks. I am always looking for adventures.
	PVO5	16. I seek every chance I can to have fun. It is important to me to do things that give me pleasure.
	PVO6	17. I really want to enjoy life. Having a good time is very important to me.
Social Values	<i>Conspicuous value</i>	
	SVC1	1. I feel that those who use green brand are easily noticed by others.
	SVC2	2. Using green brand helps to show my presence to others.
	SVC3	3. Using green brand gains the respect I receive from others.
	SVC4	4. Using green brand helps to show who I am
	<i>Social status value</i>	
	SVS1	5. Using green brand helps to show my symbol of success
	SVS2	6. Using green brand helps to show my symbols of prestige.
	SVS3	7. Using green brand indicates my wealth
	SVS4	8. Using green brand indicates my achievement
	SVS5	9. I feel that those who use green brand are interested in status
	SVS6	10. Social status is important to me
	SVS7	11. Using green brand enhances my image
SVS8	12. Social standing is an important motivator for my consumption.	
	<i>Internal Moral Identity</i>	
	ISRI1	1. It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics.
	ISRI2	2. Being someone who has these characteristics is an

Individual Social Responsibility (ISR)		important part of who I am.
	ISRI3	3. I would be ashamed to be a person who has these characteristics.
	ISRI4	4. Having these characteristics is not really important to me.
	ISRI5	5. I strongly desire to have these characteristics.
	<i>Symbolic Moral Identity</i>	
	ISRS1	6. I often wear clothes that identify me as having these characteristics.
	ISRS2	7. The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics.
	ISRS3	8. The kinds of books and magazines that I read identify me as having these characteristics.
	ISRS4	9. The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations.
	ISRS5	10. I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics.
Consumer perceptions of CSR (Consumers' perceived CSR)	<i>Consumer Benefit</i>	
	CSRC1	1. X respects consumer rights beyond the legal requirements.
	CSRC2	2. X provides full and accurate information about its products to its customers.
	CSRC3	3. Customer satisfaction is highly important for X
	<i>Societal Benefit</i>	
	CSRS1	4. X anticipates in activities which aim to protect and improve the quality of the natural environment.
	CSRS2	5. X makes investment to create a better life for future generations.
	CSRS3	6. X implements special programs to minimize its negative impact on the natural environment.
	CSRS4	7. X targets sustainable growth which considers future generations.

	CSRS5	8. X contributes to campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society.
Brand Relationship Quality (BRQ)	<i>Hot BRQ</i>	
	HBRQ1	1. I feel very loyal to X
	HBRQ2	2. X can count on me to always be there
	HBRQ3.	3. I will stay with X through good times and bad
	HBRQ4	4. I am willing to make small sacrifices in order to keep using X
	HBRQ5	5. Compared to other non-green cosmetic brands, I feel strongly connected to X
	HBRQ6	6. I feel emotional attached to X
	HBRQ7	7. I would be very upset if I couldn't find X when I wanted it
	HBRQ8	8. There are times when I really long to use with X again
	HBRQ9	9. I feel like something's missing when I haven't used with X for a while
	<i>Cold BRQ</i>	
	CBRQ1	10. I am completely satisfied with X.
	CBRQ2	11. I am completely pleased with X.
	CBRQ3	12. X is turning out better than I expected.
	CBRQ4	13. X is exactly what I need.
	CBRQ5	14. I rely on X.
CBRQ6	15. X is an honest brand.	
CBRQ7	16. X is safe.	
Willingness to pay a premium price (WTPP)	WTPP1	1. The price of X would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to another non-green cosmetic brand.
	WTPP2	2. I am willing to pay a higher price for products of X than for other non-green cosmetic brands.

Word-of-mouth (WOM)	WOM1	1. I have recommended X to lots of people
	WOM2	2. I “talk up” X to my friends
	WOM3	3. I try to spread the good word about X
	WOM4	4. I give X tons of positive word-of-mouth advertising
	WOM5	5. If my friends are looking for cosmetics, I would tell them to try X
Brand Purchase Intention (BPI)	BPI1	1. I am willing to go out of my way to obtain X.
	BPI2	2. My personal goal is to consume as much X as possible.
	BPI3	3. I will make every effort to purchase X.
	BPI4	4. I have seriously thought of buying more X.
	BPI5	5. I have a firm intention to buy X in the future.

Conclusion of Chapter 4. Research Methodology

This chapter discussed and analyzed the epistemology of the research, research design, and used methodology. It also showed analyses of the selected techniques and procedures of the qualitative and quantitative studies, such as in-depth interviews and surveys. A mixed-methods design combining qualitative and quantitative approaches was used, with the latter the dominant approach.

In terms of qualitative research, using in-depth interviews is pertinent to addressing the research questions and achieving the research objectives. The results of the in-depth interviews could lead to two main conclusions concerning the proposed model. First, all constructs derived from the literature could be applied in the context of green products, specifically green cosmetics in the emerging market - Vietnam, and all were exhibited in participants' feelings about, commonalities with brands, the perceptions of consumer values, and social responsibility (ISR and consumer perceptions of CSR). Second, the results of in-depth interviews in the qualitative phase were consistent with hypotheses, including the reverse causality of consumer perceptions of CSR and BRQ in Chapter 3. As such, there was no need to modify the hypotheses, and the research suggests that BRQ could be considered as an alternative approach to differentiate brands. Hence, it was relevant to investigate the antecedents and consequences of two components of BRQ (Hot and Cold BRQ), as in the hypothesized model.

Regarding quantitative research, the chapter described the questionnaire design, the actual data collection procedure, and the variable measurement of each construct. On this basis, the next chapter will present the results of the quantitative phase, along with the questionnaire, and specifically, outline the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) before showing the rationale and justification for the choice of the partial least squares (PLS) path modeling as the preferred approach.

CHAPTER 5 - DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Chapter 4 presents the research methodology used in this research, including the selected techniques and procedures of the quantitative study. This chapter is dedicated to a detailed analysis of its results. The first part of this chapter describes the data collection (section 5-1), followed by validating the accuracy of the measurement scales, more precisely, evaluating the validity and reliability of each scale used in the research (section 5-2). Next, this chapter presents the quality of the research model and the main results of the testing of hypotheses presented in Chapter 3 (section 5-3). More precisely, some descriptive statistics on the summated constructs and the assessment of the theoretical model are presented and followed by the results of the hypothesis testing. It allows us to propose implications based on the empirical results in the next chapter. This chapter ends with a summary of the validation process and results. Figure 27 below illustrates the progress of the current chapter.

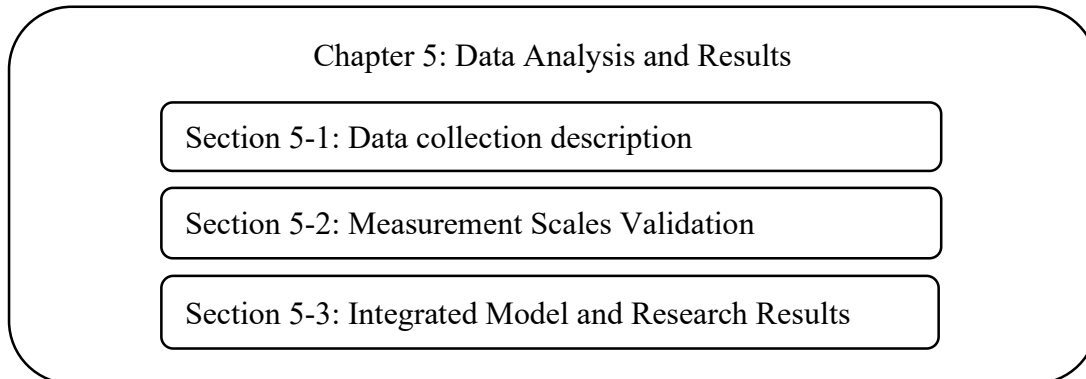


Figure 27. Outline of Chapter 5

Section 5-1. Data collection description

This section provides an overview of the quantitative results five hundred and twenty-five (n=525) respondents completed the questionnaire from total participants of eight hundred and thirty-nine (n=839), representing a response rate of 62.57%. Response rates for online data collection (416/628, 66.24%) were higher than for paper-based data collection (109/211, 51.65%), as expected based on guidance from the literature discussed in Chapter 4. Thus, response rates for paper-based data collection (109/525, 20.76%) were considerably lower than for online data collection (405/525, 79.24%). A probability-based offered 5% margin of error and 95% confidence in the results.

Table 26 presents the characteristics of the collected sample. As mentioned above, the survey collected a total of 525 questionnaires.

Table 26. Participant Characteristics (n=525)

Characteristics		Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	213	40.6
	Female	312	59.4
Age	Under 20	33	6.3
	21-30	293	55.8
	31-40	185	35.2
	Over 41	14	2.7
Education Level	Graduated	337	64.2
	Post-graduated	188	35.8
Monthly Income	Low (0 – 4 million VND*)	70	13.3
	Medium (4 – 8 million VND)	168	32
	High (8 – 10 million VND)	120	22.9
	Very high (over 10 million VND)	167	31.8

Note: 1 million VND approximately 40 EURO*

A convenience sample of 525 consumers responded to the questionnaire as part of this study. Age, gender, and education were considered representative of the population. Distribution of the age of respondents revealed that: 6.3% under 20 years old, 55.8% were aged 21-30 years old, 35.2% were aged 31-40 years old, and 2.7% over 41 years old. This distribution is similar to the age distribution

within the general populace. The gender split was 59.4% females and 41.6% males. Around two-thirds of the sample indicated having graduate (64.2%) and the rest having completed a postgraduate study (35.8%). Besides, their monthly incomes were distributed across low (under 4 million VND; 13.3%), medium (4 – 8 million VND; 32%), high (8 – 10 million VND; 22.9%), and very high (over 10 million VND; 31.8%) income brackets. The demographic information obtained from respondents allowed showing a diverse profile of collected data, which presented the generalizability of the results. Thus, the sample was deemed adequate for further analysis.

Section 5-2. Measurement scale validation

The purpose of this section is to guarantee the accuracy of measurement within the research framework. We used all well-known scales proven their validity and reliability in many different contexts to ensure that the measurement scales were not done randomly (see Chapter 3, section 3-2). Besides, the survey was conducted in Vietnam, hence, the measurement scales had to be applicable in this cultural context.

We began these analyses by presenting the one-dimensional scales to be interested in the multi-dimensional measures after that. In this section, we also introduced the uni-dimensional and multi-dimensional scales. Unless otherwise noted, all items were evaluated on Likert-scale ranging from 1 to 6, with higher scores indicating endorsement (1= “Strongly disagree” to 6 = “Strongly agree”). Thereby, we facilitated the comprehension of respondents to the questionnaire and made smooth the controlling answering the questionnaire. Regarding modeling, the statistical analyses followed the partial least squares method (PLS) with supports of the XLSTAT software and a PLS-SEM approach, with a bootstrap procedure of 500 iterations (Tenenhaus et al., 2005).

It is noteworthy that the structural model of this research is complex and includes many constructs, indicators as well as model relationships. Besides, the theoretical extension of established theories concerning the antecedents and consequences of BRQ to understand increasing complexity better is one of the leading research objectives. Hence, PLS-SEM is an effective method for exploring and analyzing this study.

PLS-SEM also solves problems concerning small sample sizes when research models consist of many constructs and items (Hair et al., 2017). PLS-SEM can deal with smaller samples, yet, the nature of the population determines situations in which small sample sizes are acceptable (Rigdon, 2016). Thus, PLS-SEM is an appreciated method for this study because of the limited sample.

In terms of distributional assumptions, the advantage of using PLS-SEM in social science studies relies on non-normal data. The absence of distributional assumptions is indicated to be the main reason for choosing PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2012) because PLS-SEM can shows higher robustness in the situations of the limited size of the data than CB-SEM (Sarstedt et al., 2016). Although the data of this study is non-normal, we did not consider distributional assumptions as the key reason to choose PLS-SEM, as non-normal data in a limited number of situations can affect PLS-SEM results (Sarstedt et al., 2017). Moreover, the above reasons provide an advantage in combination

to consider that PLS-SEM is a distinct method for this study.

In summary, using PLS was justified since the research model employed higher-order reflective latent variables. It is rather complicated in terms of the number of latent variables whose scores are used in subsequent analyses, limited sample size, uses non-normal data, and yet remains exploratory in essence.

Before analyzing the data, it is essential to ensure the accuracy of all measurements in the context of research. We analyzed the reliability and validity of the measurement scales we used in our questionnaire with some indicators. We present, below, the structure of the multi-dimensional constructs we adopted.

1. Reliability and Validity of First-Order Constructs

In terms of measurement validation, the reliability and validity of constructs were evaluated by Joreskog's ρ and average variance extracted (AVE) in support of PLS. First, Joreskog's ρ is used to test the composite reliability that has the advantage of being less sensitive to items' number and more suitable to the structural equation method than Cronbach's alpha. Besides, Cronbach's alpha reliability is less precise because of the unweighted items (Hair et al., 2019). In contrast, the items of composite reliability are weighted by the construct indicators' individual loadings, leading to being more accurate reliability than Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is too conservative, whereas the composite reliability is too liberal. Also, the actual reliability of the construct is typical viewed as within two extreme values. Hence, in this study, to validate reliability, we used composite reliability (Joreskog's ρ) which represents a good compromise if one assumes the factor model is right.

Moreover, higher values commonly manifest higher levels of reliability. For instance, reliability values between 0.60 and 0.70 are considered "acceptable in exploratory research", values between 0.70 and 0.90 range from "satisfactory to good". Thus, an acceptable Joreskog's ρ in this study is 0.7 or higher (Wetzels, Odekerken-Schröder, and Van Oppen, 2009).

In terms of convergent validity, it is evaluated by the variance shared between each variable (or factor in second-order structure or more). Convergent validity is "*the extent to which the construct converges to explain the variance of items.*" The average variance extracted (AVE) for all items on each construct is used to evaluate the convergent validity. AVE is calculated by squaring the

loading of each indicator on a construct and then computing the mean value. An acceptable value of AVE is 0.50 or higher, intimating that the construct can explain at least 50% of the variance of its items (Wetzels et al., 2009).

As shown in Table 27, all measurement scales of this study have AVEs higher than (or close to) 0.5, and a Joreskog's ρ_A greater than 0.7 for all. Therefore, we can confirm that the reliability and convergent validity are achieved for all first-order measurement scales

Table 27. Reliability and Convergent Validity of first-order structures

Latent Variables		Reliability ρ_A (Joreskog's ρ_A)	Convergent validity (AVE)
First-order variable	Individualism	0.823	0.537
	Collectivism	0.802	0.504
	Self-identity	0.873	0.697
	Self-transcendence	0.849	0.584
	Conservation	0.793	0.562
	Openness-to-change	0.882	0.557
	Conspicuous value	0.932	0.774
	Social status value	0.954	0.723
	Internal Moral Identity	0.869	0.689
	Symbolic Moral Identity	0.879	0.595
	Consumer Benefit	0.837	0.632
	Societal Benefit	0.902	0.647
	Hot BRQ	0.956	0.709
	Cold BRQ	0.929	0.651
	WTPP	0.834	0.636
	WOM	0.918	0.692
BPI	0.922	0.704	

Moreover, it is essential to ensure a weak link with other constructs of each used scale interested in the discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is adequately demonstrated with a low between construct intercorrelations. Thereby, AVE is verified to be greater than the square of correlations between construct (A table presenting these results are given in Appendix 4). Thus, the used

measurement scales are strongly correlated with the constructs they are supposed to measure, and the discriminant validity is also satisfied.

2. Reliability and Validity of Second-Order Constructs

Regarding the measurement scale of the second-order structures, based on the factor loadings from PLS (called path coefficients), we evaluated the reliability and convergent validity measures. We also used Joreskog's Rhô to estimate the reliability and AVE to evaluate convergent validity. Reliability and convergent validity of second-order structures are confirmed in Table 28, with all AVE greater than 0.50 and Joreskog's rho higher than (or close to) 0.80 (Wetzels et al., 2009). These results indicate that both reliability and convergent validity are achieved for all the encompassed latent variables.

Table 28. Reliability and convergent validity of second-order structures

Latent Variables		Reliability ρ_A (Joreskog's $\rho\hat{h}$)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Second-order variable	Cultural Values	0.831	0.732
	Personal Values	0.911	0.653
	Social Values	0.965	0.927
	Individual Social Responsibility	0.892	0.793
	Consumer perceptions of CSR	0.905	0.826

Similarly, we evaluated the discriminant validity of second-order scales, which were all satisfied since AVE is higher than the squared correlations between constructs (see appendix 4). Hence, we make sure that all scales of this study only measure what they are supposed to measure.

Section 5-3. Integrated model and research results

While Section 5-2 validated our measurement scales, this section is devoted to the model as a whole. In the first step, before proceeding to analyze the results, we examine the adjustment of the global model. The research hypotheses are then tested in the second step.

1. *Global Model Adjustment*

As a reminder, for our final data collection, we conducted an online survey and a paper-based questionnaire, which resulted in a total of 525 Vietnamese respondents.

Because of the complexity of our research model with different multi-dimensional variables (for example, personal values, social values, BRQ, Consumer perceptions of CSR...), which was presented in the previous section (Chapter 5, section 5-2), the analyzing results were obtained under the partial least squares (PLS) preferred to the LISREL. While LISREL model is based on the Covariance Structure Analysis (CSA), the PLS approach is based on the average variance extracted (AVE); hence, PLS is more suitable for complex models that stand out for their complicated relationships and the inclusion of several multi-dimensional mediator variables. Under the view of our integrated model, LISREL software such as AMOS or SAS, for example, seems impossible in this case. Besides, PLS approach allows testing moderator variables through the multi-group analysis with the permutation test (Chin and Dibbern 2010; Eberl 2010). Besides, the PLS approach is not sensitive to problems of multi-collinearity and does not require the independence of the variables (Chin, 2010).

Turning to model adjustment, Tenenhaus et al. (2005) proposed a global adjustment indicator available via PLS. The Goodness of Fit (GoF) corresponds to the geometric mean of commonalities and regression coefficient mean (Duarte and Raposo 2010):

$$GoF = \sqrt{\overline{Communality} \times \overline{R^2}}$$

Thus, turning to model adjustment, goodness-of-fit (GoF) is used to measure the validity of the model. This global adjustment indicator allows us to judge the overall quality of the model, both at the level of the measurement model and the structural model. It provides information on the predictive performance of the model and displays a value between 0 and 1. To our knowledge, the

literature has not mentioned an acceptance threshold for a model relating to GoF to identify whether the model should be accepted or rejected. However, based on its construction, the more GoF is close to 1, the more efficient and predictive the model is.

Table 29 relates GoF values, the absolute and relative GoF for our research model (internal and external models). This table also shows the GoF values after bootstrap with the confidence intervals (as a reminder, the bootstrap was performed on 500 samples).

Table 29. Model adjustment indicators

	GoF	GoF (Bootstrap)	Standard Error	Critical Ratio (CR)
Absolute	0.617	0.618	0.020	30.458

Values of the absolute GoF before and after bootstrapping (.617, .618 respectively) are almost equivalent, which indicates a stable data collection. Keeping with recent advice from Henseler, Hubona, and Ray (2016), we provide, in addition to the GoF value, the SRMR, which equals .078, in line with the recommended cut-off value suggested by Hu and Bentler (2009). Thus, global fit measures indicate that the empirical data acceptably fit model research.

2. Structural relationships and hypotheses testing

After indicating that our theoretical research model was satisfied, we present the test results of our research hypotheses previously proposed (See Part 1, Chapter 3, Section 3-1). In order to accept or reject a research hypothesis, we based on the significant relationships provided by PLS, which is described by the significant structural links (path coefficients) at 5%.

We organized this subsection in the same path as for the model presentation. We proposed an interpretation of each of the sub-models before suggesting a cross reading of results. In particular, the hypotheses relating to the variables most upstream (antecedents) of our model were tested first, ordered by relational variables - Hot and Cold BRQ, then, hypotheses of consequences of BRQ, in turn, were studied.

Hence, this part was organized as follows:

- Antecedent variables
 - Cultural Values

- Personal Values
- Social Values
- Individual Social Responsibility (ISR)
- Relational variables
 - Hot BRQ
 - Cold BRQ
- Consequences variables
 - Consumer perception of CSR (Consumers' perceived CSR)
 - Willingness to pay a premium (WTPP)
 - Word-of-mouth (WOM)
 - Brand Purchase Intention (BPI)

a. Antecedent variables of BRQ

We investigated the antecedents of BRQ as consumer values and ISR. We tested the research hypotheses concerning personal values, social values, cultural values, and ISR.

➤ *Cultural Values - antecedent of Personal Values and Social Values*

First, we focused on the first upstream variable in our model - cultural values - supposed to have a positive impact on personal values and social values, discussed in our research hypotheses.

Table 30. Structural coefficient and significance tests concerning the effects of Cultural values on Personal values

Latent variable	Path coefficient	Bootstrapped Paths	P-value (Pr > t)	R ²	Hypotheses test
Cultural values	0.639	0.639	0.000	0.409	H1.1 accepted

The test of this relationship using XLSTAT discloses a significant relationship between cultural values and personal values because the significance test is less than five percent ($p < 5\%$). The path coefficient is positive (+0.639), which demonstrates a positive effect of cultural values on personal values. Thus, we accept the hypothesis H1.1. The stronger cultural values are embedded within their culture; the stronger the individual's values are shaped. Concerning the R², Cohen and Cohen

(1983) revealed R^2 values of 0.25 as large, 0.09 as medium, and 0.01 as small and argue that these figures are “*broadly appropriate [to] the behavior sciences*” (Cohen and Cohen 1983, p.160). Hence, it is also noted that cultural values explain 40.9% of personal values.

As we mentioned in the literature section, a similar effect exists between cultural values and social values.

Table 31. Structural coefficient and significance tests concerning the effects of Cultural values on Social values

Latent variable	Path coefficient	Bootstrapped Paths	P-value (Pr > t)	R^2	Hypotheses test
Cultural values	0.479	0.480	0.000	0.229	H1.2 accepted

The XLSTAT test reveals that this relationship is significant at 5%. The path coefficient is significant and positive (+0.479), reflecting a positive relationship between cultural values and social values. Thus, we accept H1.2. The stronger cultural values shape consumer’s perceptions, the stronger their social perceptions are determined to behave. The cultural values explain 22.9% of social values ($R^2=0.229$)

Thus, our results are consistent with Ciecuch, Schwartz, and Davidov (2015) and Xiao and Kim (2009), cultural values have a significant and positive influence on the two variables personal values and social values, but clearly, the levels of influence and importance are different based on Path coefficient and the contribution to R^2 .

We can synthesize the significant relationships discussed above in the sub-model presented below

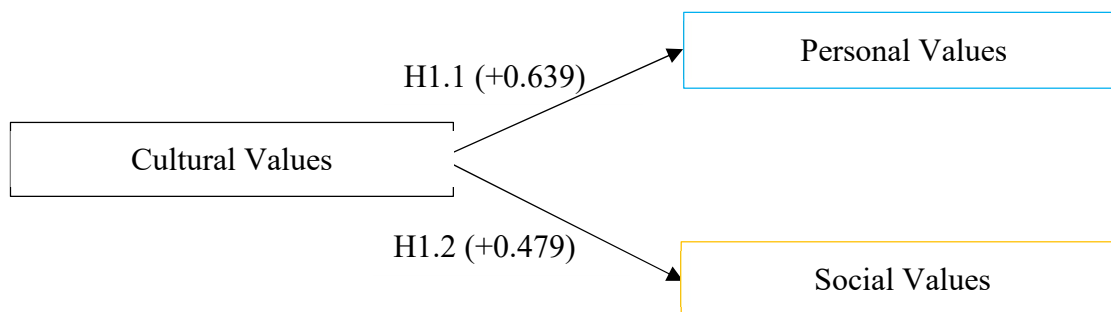


Figure 28. Significant relationships of the sub-model of the effects of Cultural values on Personal values and Social values

➤ *Personal values, Social values - antecedents of ISR*

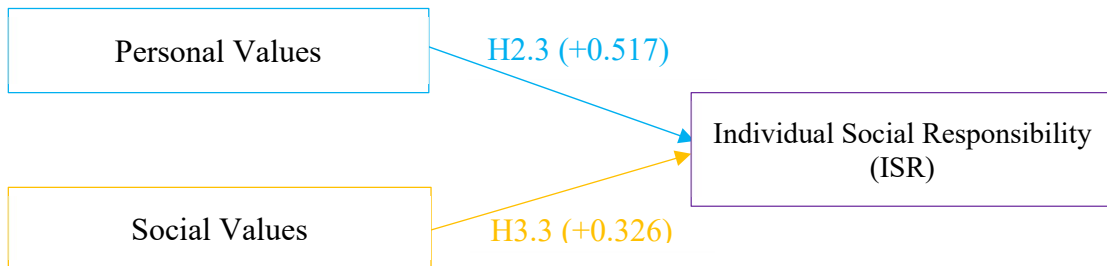
As discussed in section 3-1, Chapter 3, we hypothesized that both Personal values and Social values are antecedents of ISR.

Table 32. Structural coefficient and significance tests concerning the effects of Personal values and Social values on ISR

Latent variable	Path coefficient	Bootstrapped Paths	P-value (Pr > t)	Contribution to R ²	Hypotheses test
Personal values	0.517	0.519	0.000	64.117	H2.3 accepted
Social values	0.326	0.323	0.000	35.883	H3.3 accepted

Table 32 shows that ISR has two antecedents: personal values and social values. The path coefficients are positive (+0.517, +0.326), demonstrating the positive effects of personal values and social values on ISR. Thus, the stronger personal values identify, the more moral identity a person expresses (H2.3 accepted). Meanwhile, the greater the perceived importance of social values (status and conspicuousness) is, the stronger moral identity a person desires to be formed (H3.3 accepted).

Personal values and Social values, combined, explain 57.2% of ISR. Personal values contribute 64.117% of ISR, while Social values explain 35.883% of ISR. We summarize these significant



relationships in Figure 29 below.

Figure 29. Significant relationships of the sub-model of the effects of Personal values and Social values on ISR

b. Relational variables (BRQ)

In this sub-section, we study the relationships of two components of BRQ with their antecedents, which are in our model: Personal Values, Social Values, and ISR. For that reason, we study the hypotheses relating to the links between Hot, Cold BRQ and Personal Values, Social Values, ISR.

➤ *Hot BRQ*

The emotional aspect of BRQ is one of the principal concepts studied in this research. Our research has revealed three direct antecedents of Hot BRQ: Personal values, Social values, and ISR.

Table 33. Structural coefficient and significance tests concerning the effects of Personal values, Social values, and ISR on Hot BRQ

Latent variable	Path coefficient	Bootstrapped Paths	P-value (Pr > t)	Contribution to R ²	Hypotheses test
Personal values	0.171	0.169	0.000	18.057	H2.1 accepted
Social values	0.526	0.525	0.000	69.075	H3.1 accepted
ISR	0.120	0.125	0.009	12.868	H4.1 accepted

Based on the Path coefficients, we observed that all three influence our concept in the same way. All three hypotheses, relating the direct and positive effects on Hot BRQ, have been tested and all accepted since path coefficients are positive for these three relationships.

Two hypotheses about direct and positive links between two types of Values (personal values and Social values) and Hot BRQ are accepted (H2.1 and H3.1). In other words, the results show that personal values and social values have positive influences on Hot BRQ. From the other side, ISR has a positive effect on Hot BRQ (H4.1 is accepted).

All the Path coefficients are significant and positive, reflecting positive relationships between Hot BRQ and its antecedents. Social values have the most significant influence on Hot BRQ (Path coefficient = 0.526). Personal values come in second place with a path coefficient of 0.171, and ISR comes in third place with a path coefficient of 0.120.

Therefore, the more consumers aspire to enhance their social values in the community, the more they are attracted to develop emotions in the relationship with the brand. Further, the more consumers demonstrate personal identity shaped by personal values, the more they build an

emotional relationship with a specific brand. Likewise, the more moral identity consumer is, the stronger the emotional relationship with the brand is built.

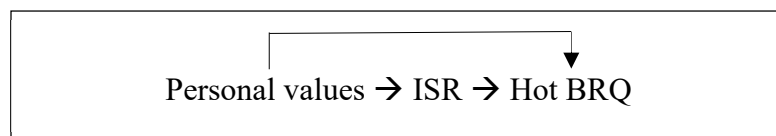
Turning to R^2 of Hot BRQ, based on the data analysis results from Table 33, it is equal to 0.535, which means that personal values, social values, and ISR explain 53.5% of Hot BRQ. When we look at the contribution to R^2 , social values have the highest contribution, with a percentage of 69.075%. Personal values come in second place and explain only 18.057% of the R^2 ; and ISR explains the rest (12.868%).

However, the development of an emotional relationship with the brand is affected by both these direct influences and indirect ones. As mentioned in the hypotheses development section, we had posed several additional hypotheses relating to the mediational effects of ISR.

Table 34. Tests concerning the indirect effect of Personal values on Hot BRQ, mediated by ISR

	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Personal values → ISR	0.517		
ISR → Hot BRQ	0.120		
Personal values → Hot BRQ	0.171	0.062	0.233
Direct effect # 0			
Total effect > Direct effect (0.233 > 0.171)			

Table 34 presents a partial mediation relationship of ISR on personal values and Hot BRQ, which leads to accepting hypothesis H5.1. Thus, the stronger personal values identify, the more consumers perceive moral identity as their social responsibility role, the stronger the emotional relationships with the green brand are developed. Further, an observation of the path coefficient of these different relationships can conclude that the direct relationship between personal values and Hot BRQ (0.171) is greater than the indirect relationship mediated by ISR (0.062).

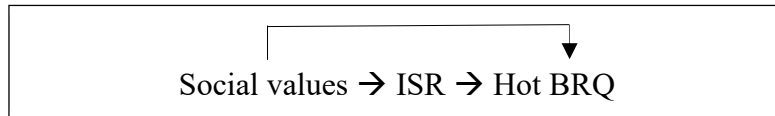


Similarly, social values directly and indirectly influence Hot BRQ. The results presented below can show such a partial mediation relationship.

Table 35. Tests concerning the indirect effect of Social values on Hot BRQ, mediated by ISR

	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Social values → ISR	0.326		
ISR → Hot BRQ	0.120		
Social values → Hot BRQ	0.526	0.039	0.565
Direct effect ≠ 0			
Total effect > Direct effect (0.565 > 0.526)			

Social values directly influence ISR (H3.3), and ISR has a positive impact on Hot BRQ (H4.1); thus, it can be said that there is an indirect relationship between social values and cold BRQ, mediated by ISR. In other words, ISR mediates the effect of social values on Hot BRQ. We, therefore, accept hypothesis H5.3. Hence, the more consumers desire to enhance their social values, the more they aspire to express ISR, the stronger a cognitive relationship with a brand is built. Besides, the path coefficient of relationships shows that the direct relationship between social values and Hot BRQ (0.526) is stronger than the indirect relationship mediated by ISR (0.039).



As such, it appears that the most significant antecedent of Hot BRQ is Social values (path coefficient of total effect +0.565, when that of personal values is +0.233 and that of ISR is +0.120). Also, ISR mediates the impact of personal values and social values on Hot BRQ.

We conclude the significant relationships, including direct and indirect links between Hot BRQ and its antecedents in the Figure 30 below.

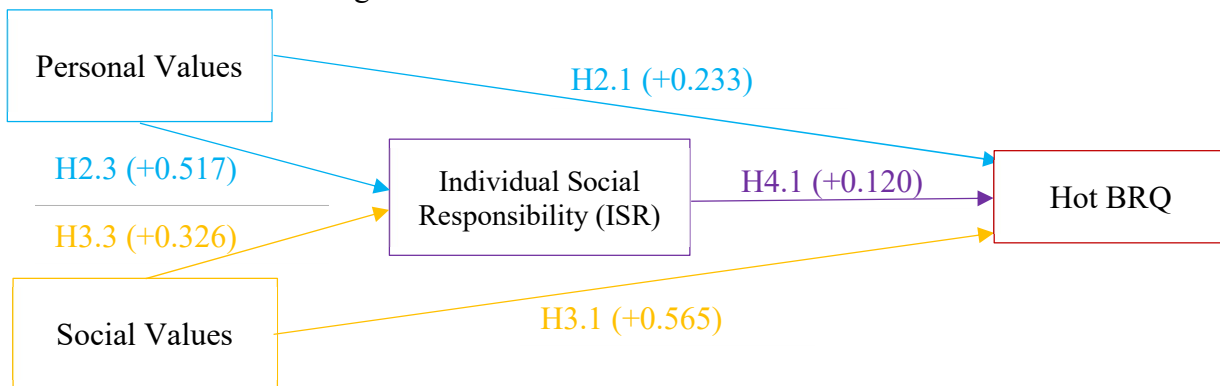


Figure 30. Significant relationships of the sub-model of the effects of Personal values,

Social values, and ISR on Hot BRQ

➤ *Cold BRQ*

In this subsection, we study the relationships of Cold BRQ with its antecedents in our model. For that reason, we study the hypotheses concerning the links between Personal values, Social values, ISR, and Cold BRQ.

Table 36. Structural coefficient and significance tests concerning the effects of Personal values, Social values, and ISR on Cold BRQ

Latent variable	Path coefficient	Bootstrapped Paths	P-value (Pr > t)	Contribution to R ²	Hypotheses test
Personal values	0.170	0.170	0.001	21.610	H2.2 accepted
Social values	0.375	0.372	0.000	53.829	H3.2 accepted
ISR	0.186	0.192	0.000	24.561	H4.2 accepted

Table 36 reveals the existence of three antecedents for Cold BRQ, namely personal values, social values, and ISR. All the Path coefficients are significant and positive, which reflect positive relationships between Cold BRQ and its antecedents.

Thus, personal values directly affect Cold BRQ (path coefficient=+0.170), leading to an acceptance of H2.2. We can confirm that the stronger individuals express personal values, the greater a cognitive relationship with a specific brand is developed.

The direct relationship between social values and Cold BRQ is significant at 5% (+0.375, Pr> |t| = 0.000), which leads to accept H3.2. Thus, the more consumers symbolize their social performance (status and conspicuousness) in society, the stronger a cognitive relationship with a specific brand is developed.

Finally, ISR also shows a direct and significant impact on Cold BRQ (+0.186, p=0, H4.2 accepted). Therefore, the greater moral identity consumers are, the stronger a cognitive relationship with a specific brand is built.

Three antecedents, together, explain 41.3% of Cold BRQ ($R^2 = 0.413$). Social values largely contribute to 53.829% of R², while personal values explain 24.561%. On the other hand, ISR has a contribution to R² of 21.610%.

The results show the direct impact of personal values on ISR, and ISR also has a direct and

significant impact on Cold BRQ (H4.2 validated).

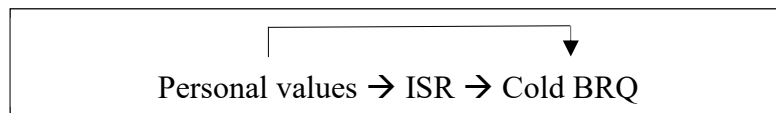
Table 37. Tests concerning the indirect effect of Personal values on Cold BRQ, mediated by ISR

	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Personal values → ISR	0.517		
ISR → Cold BRQ	0.186		
Personal values → Cold BRQ	0.170	0.096	0.267
Direct effect ≠ 0			
Total effect > Direct effect (0.267 > 0.170)			

Personal values directly influence ISR (H2.2), and ISR has a positive impact on Cold BRQ (H4.2); thus, it can be said that there is an indirect relationship between personal values and cold BRQ, mediated by ISR.

As can see from the result, it is useful to confirm a significant indirect effect of personal values on Cold BRQ mediated by ISR. Thus, a partial mediation relationship of ISR on personal values and Cold BRQ exists, which allows us to accept hypothesis H5.2. We can therefore indicate that the more consumers express their personal values to identify themselves, the more they do socially responsible actions as moral people, and the more they develop a cognitive relationship with a specific brand.

Besides, an observation of the path coefficient of these different relationships can conclude that the direct relationship between personal values and Cold BRQ (0.170) is greater than the indirect relationship mediated by ISR (0.096).



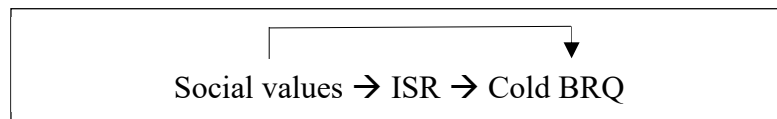
Finally, the indirect effect of social values on Cold BRQ is also studied.

Table 38. Tests concerning the indirect effect of Social values on Cold BRQ mediated by ISR

	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Social values → ISR	0.326		
ISR → Cold BRQ	0.186		
Social values → Cold BRQ	0.375	0.061	0.436

Direct effect # 0 Total effect > Direct effect (0.436 > 0.375)

As discussed above, social values directly influence ISR (H3.2), and ISR has a positive impact on Cold BRQ (H4.2); hence, there is an indirect relationship between social values and cold BRQ, mediated by ISR. The results presented in Table 38 confirm an indirect effect of social values on Cold BRQ. Hypothesis H5.4 is therefore accepted. Thus, the more consumers enhance their social performance (status and conspicuousness), the more they act as a moral person, the more a cognitive relationship with a specific brand is developed. Based on the path coefficient of these different relationships, we can conclude that the direct relationship between social values and Cold BRQ (+0.375) is stronger than the indirect relationship mediated by ISR (+0.061).



Hence, the major antecedent of Cold BRQ is Social values with a path coefficient of total effect +0.436, when that of personal values is +0.267, and that of ISR is +0.186. ISR, thus, mediates the impact of personal values and social values on Cold BRQ.

The significant relationships between Cold BRQ and its antecedents are presented in Figure 31 below.

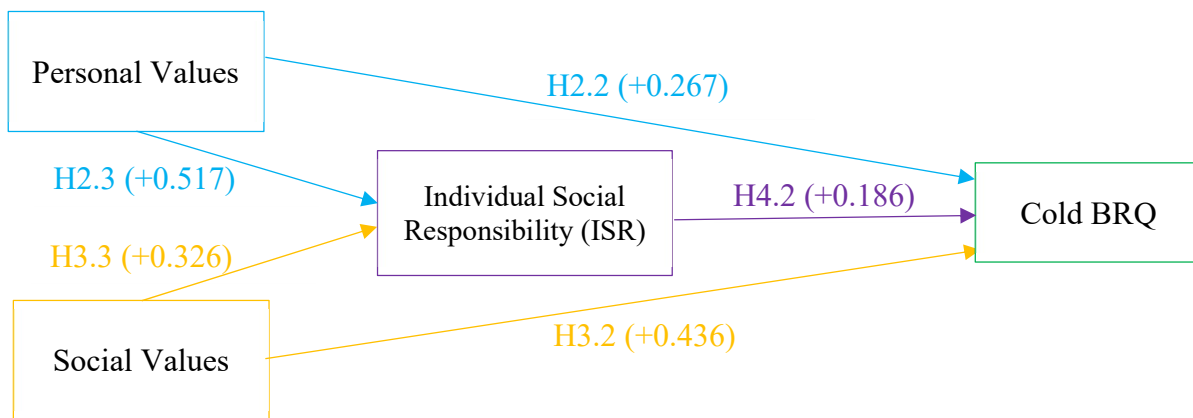


Figure 31. Significant relationships of the sub-model of the effects of Personal values, Social values, and ISR on Cold BRQ

c. Consequences of Brand Relationship Quality and Brand Purchase Intention

In this part, we examine the effects of two components of BRQ (hot BRQ and cold BRQ) on its four consequences (consumer perceptions of CSR, WTPP, WOM, and Brand purchase intention).

➤ *Consumer perceptions of CSR*

Table 39. Structural coefficient and significance tests concerning the effects of Hot BRQ, Cold BRQ, and ISR on Consumer perceptions of CSR

Latent variable	Path coefficient	Bootstrapped Paths	P-value (Pr > t)	Contribution to R ²	Hypotheses test
Hot BRQ	-0.099	-0.098	0.129	10.065	H6.3 rejected
Cold BRQ	0.473	0.472	0.000	57.677	H7.3 accepted
ISR	0.294	0.294	0.000	32.258	H4.3 accepted

Our results reveal that cold BRQ positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR, thus, there is no doubt that cognitive consumer-brand relationship quality contributes CSR in terms of consumer perspective. The hypothesis relating the direct and positive link between Cold BRQ and Consumer perceptions of CSR is accepted (path coefficient = 0.473, p=0) (H7.3). Thus, the stronger the cognitive relationship with a brand is, the more positive consumer perceptions of a company's CSR activities are.

Likewise, ISR has a significant positive effect on Consumer perceptions of CSR (path coefficient = 0.294, p=0), which leads to an acceptance of H4.3. The stronger moral identity consumers are, the greater consumer perceptions of CSR activities of a brand are.

However, there is no relationship between Hot BRQ and consumers' perceived CSR as path coefficient = -0.099, p=0.129 > 0.5, H6.3 is rejected.

Turning to R², Cold BRQ and ISR, together, explain 36.1% of the consumer perceptions of CSR (R² = 0.361). Cold BRQ largely contributes to 57.677% of R², while ISR explains 32.258%.

The significant relationships between Consumer perceptions of CSR and its antecedents are presented in Figure 32 below.

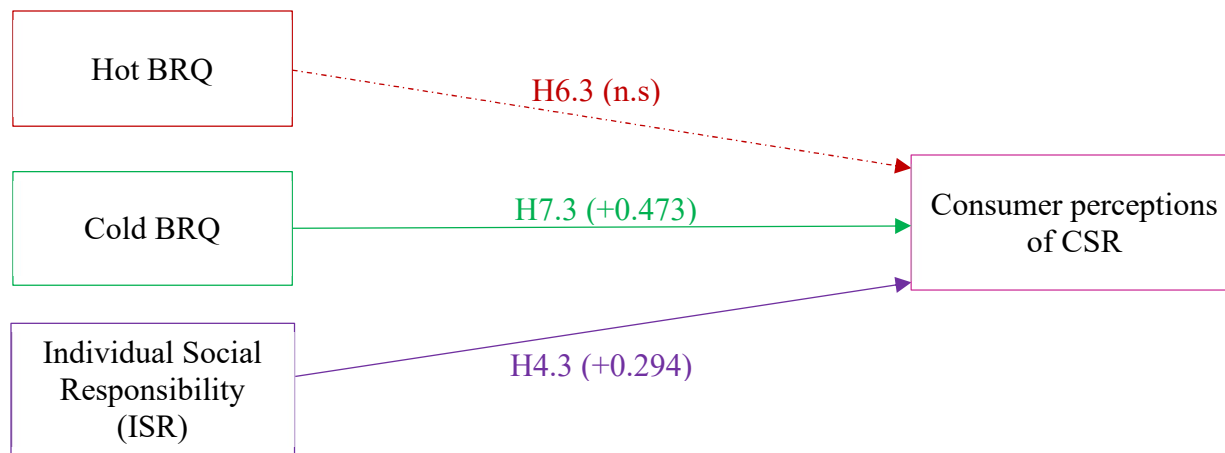


Figure 32. Significant relationships of the sub-model relating to the consequence variable - Consumer perceptions of CSR

➤ *Willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP)*

Next, we move on the below sub-model that shows the relationships of WTPP with its antecedents (Hot BRQ, Cold BRQ, and consumers' perceived CSR).

Table 40. Structural coefficient and significance tests concerning the effects of Hot BRQ, Cold BRQ, and consumers' perceived CSR on WTPP

Latent variable	Path coefficient	Bootstrapped Paths	P-value (Pr > t)	Contribution to R ²	Hypotheses test
Hot BRQ	0.548	0.545	0.000	88.940	H6.1 accepted
Cold BRQ	0.034	0.038	0.602	4.801	H7.1 rejected
Consumers' perceived CSR	0.069	0.068	0.097	6.259	H9.1 rejected

Hot BRQ presents a direct and significant impact on WTPP (path coefficient = 0.548); hence, H6.1 is accepted: the stronger the emotional relationship between consumers and the brand is, the more they are willing to pay a premium price for the brand.

Based on the path coefficients in Table 40, cold BRQ has a path coefficient = 0.034 (p-value=0.602 > 0.5), leading to a rejection of H7.1. There is no direct relationship between Cold BRQ and WTPP.

Therefore, hot BRQ (path coefficient = 0.548) has a significantly stronger positive effect on WTPP than cold BRQ (H8.1 accepted).

Furthermore, the result reveals that there is no effect of consumers' perceived CSR on WTPP (path coefficient=.069; $p= 0.097 > .05$). Thus, consumers' perceived CSR does not affect WTPP that leads to a rejection of H9.1.

When we look at its R^2 , we conclude that these three variables explain 35.7% of WTPP. A reading of the contribution to R^2 , Hot BRQ contributes to 88.94% of the R^2 . The result reveals that WTPP is directly affected by only Hot BRQ in this study. Hence, there is not an indirect effect of Hot BRQ on WTPP mediated by consumers' perceived CSR, leading to a rejection of H11.1.

The relationships between WTPP and its antecedents are presented in Figure 33 below.

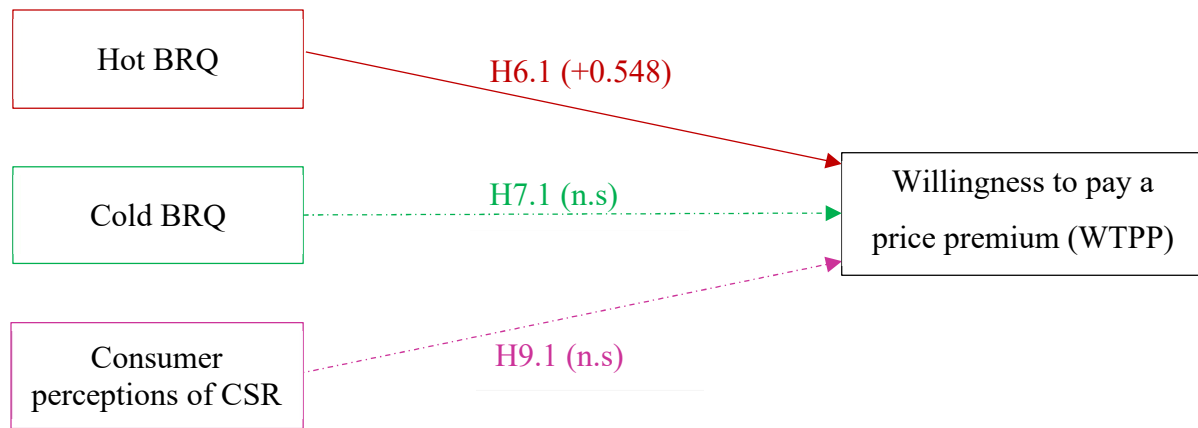


Figure 33. Significant relationships of the sub-model relating to the consequence variable - Willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP)

➤ *Word-of-mouth (WOM)*

Here, in this subsection, we study the relationships between WOM and its antecedents. All the proposed antecedents have effects on WOM.

Table 41. Structural coefficient and significance tests concerning the effects of Hot BRQ, Cold BRQ and Consumers' perceived CSR on WOM

Latent variable	Path coefficient	Bootstrapped Paths	P-value (Pr > t)	Contribution to R^2	Hypotheses test
Hot BRQ	0.352	0.350	0.000	41.698	H6.2 accepted
Cold BRQ	0.379	0.380	0.000	45.924	H7.2 accepted
Consumers' perceived CSR	0.148	0.148	0.000	12.377	H9.2 accepted

The group of variables, containing Hot BRQ, Cold BRQ, Consumers' perceived CSR, have positive effects on WOM. Three hypotheses have been tested in this subsection. Based on the path coefficients in Table 41, we can accept all these three hypotheses. Thus, the intention to positive WOM is the consequence of a high level of Cold BRQ, Hot BRQ, and consumers' perceived CSR.

This result affirms the existence of a direct relationship between the Hot BRQ and positive WOM (H 6.2 is accepted): the greater emotional relationships between consumers and the brand is, the more consumers spread positive WOM. Likewise, Cold BRQ has, in our research context, a direct and significant impact on positive WOM (H7.2 accepted). The stronger consumers have a cognitive relationship with the brand, the more they tend to spread positive WOM/recommendations to other people.

Both Hot and Cold BRQ positively affect WOM. To arrive at a complete picture, cold BRQ has a greater effect on WOM (path coefficient=0.379) than hot BRQ (path coefficient=0.352). Therefore, H8.2 is accepted.

In the same vein, consumers' perceived CSR positively affects WOM (path coefficient=0.148; p=0.000), which leads to accepting H9.2. The more positive consumer perceptions of a company's CSR activities is, the more they intend to spread positive WOM/recommendations to other people.

Finally, when we look at its R^2 , we conclude that these three variables explain 62.1% of positive WOM. A reading of the contribution to R^2 , we can rank Cold BRQ in first place with a contribution of 45.924%. Hot BRQ comes in second and contributes to 41.698% of R^2 . Consumer perceptions of CSR comes last with the smallest contribution (12.377%).

Nyffeneger et al. (2015) showed a direct and significant link between Cold BRQ and the intention to spread positive WOM. We used this result to assume the existence of a direct relationship between Cold BRQ and WOM (H7.2).

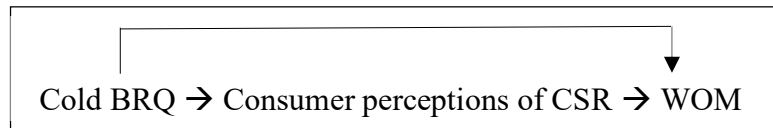
As discussed above, Cold BRQ directly influences consumers' perceived CSR (H7.3). Meanwhile, consumers' perceived CSR has a positive impact on WOM (H9.2). We, thus, hypothesized a mediation of consumers' perceived CSR between Cold BRQ and WOM (H11.2).

Table 42. Tests concerning the indirect effect of Cold BRQ on WOM mediated by ISR

	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Cold BRQ → Consumer perceptions of CSR	0.473		
Consumer perceptions of CSR → WOM	0.148		
Cold BRQ → WOM	0.379	0.070	0.449
Direct effect ≠ 0			
Total effect > Direct effect (0.449 > 0.379)			

Based on the result presented above, it can be said that Cold BRQ has both a direct and indirect impact on positive WOM. We, therefore, accept hypothesis H11.2: Consumer perceptions of CSR mediates the effect of Cold BRQ on WOM.

Finally, the result reveals that the direct effect of Cold BRQ on WOM (0.379) is stronger than the indirect effect mediated by Consumer perceptions of CSR (0.070).



Thus, the major antecedent of WOM is Cold BR (path coefficient of total effect +0.449, when that of Hot BRQ is +0.352 and that of Consumer perceptions of CSR is +0.148. Consumer perceptions of CSR mediates the impact of Cold BRQ on WOM.

We summarize these significant relationships in Figure 34 below.

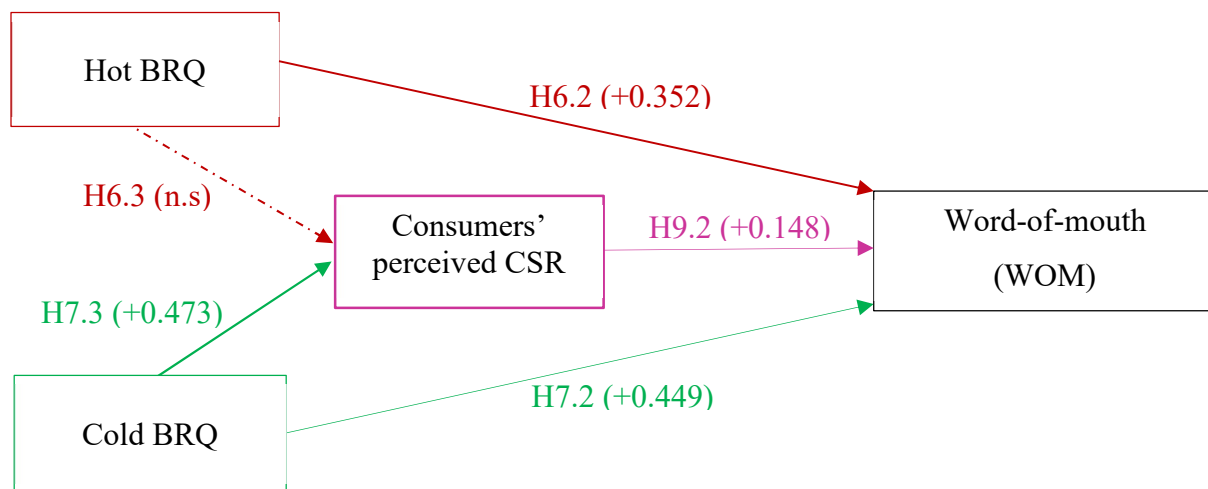


Figure 34. Significant relationships of the sub-model relating to the consequence variable -WOM

➤ *Brand purchase intention*

In this subsection, we study the antecedents of brand purchase intention, which is the last downstream variable of our model. In our conceptual model, we hypothesized that WTPP, WOM and Consumer perceptions of CSR affect brand purchase intention. Thus, we examine these relationships to test the related hypotheses.

Table 43. Structural coefficient and significance tests concerning the effects of WTPP, WOM, and Consumer perceptions of CSR on Brand purchase intention

Latent variable	Path coefficient	Bootstrapped Paths	P-value (Pr > t)	Contribution to R ²	Hypotheses test
WTPP	0.341	0.340	0.000	34.408	H10.1 accepted
WOM	0.481	0.481	0.000	55.365	H10.2 accepted
Consumers' perceived CSR	0.131	0.132	0.000	10.227	H9.3 accepted

Based on the results presented on Table 43, we can clearly say that brand purchase intention is strongly driven by WTPP (path coefficient=0.341), which leads to the acceptance of H10.1. Hence, the more consumers are willing to pay a price premium for a brand, the more they intend to buy products of the corresponding brand.

Besides, WOM significantly influences brand purchase intention (path coefficient = 0.481) (H10.2 accepted); hence, the more consumers spread positive WOM about a brand, the more they tend to buy a product of this brand.

Finally, a high level of consumer perceptions of CSR also stimulates brand purchase intention (path coefficient=0.131, H9.3 accepted). The more positive consumers' perceived CSR is, the more consumers tend to purchase a product of the brand.

Thus, the major antecedent of BPI is WOM (+0.481), when that of WTPP is +0.341, and that of consumers' perceived CSR is +0.131. Furthermore, a more detailed study of these results shows that these three variables explain 63.5% of brand purchase intention (R²=0.635). The contribution to R² allows us to conclude that positive WOM is the most explanatory variable of brand purchase intention (55.365%), followed by WTPP (34.408%) and, finally, consumers' perceived CSR (10.227%).

We summarize these significant relationships in Figure 35 below.

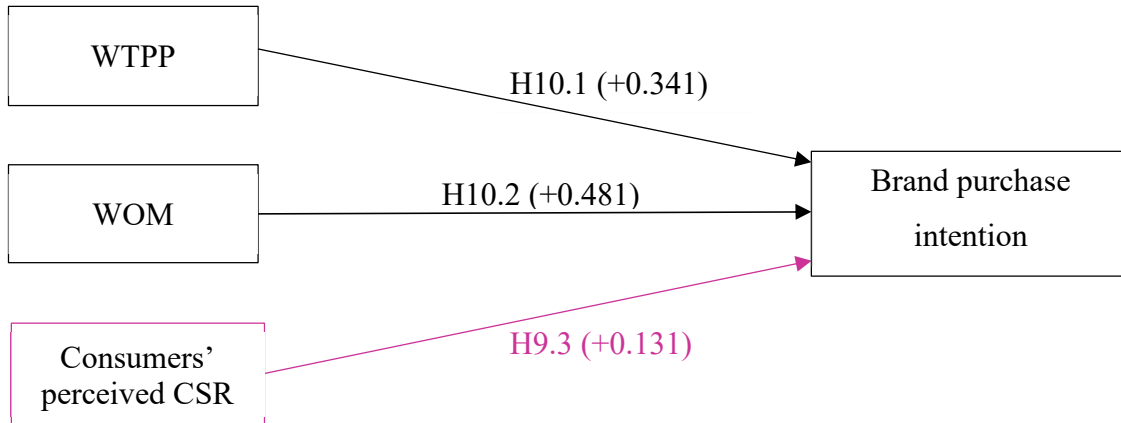


Figure 35. Significant relationships of the sub-model relating to the consequence variable - Brand purchase intention

The relationships between the different constructs were studied to accept or reject the research hypotheses previously proposed (see part 1, Chapter 3, section 3-1). We presented all the research hypotheses with research results for each (see Table 44). Also, the graph obtained from PLS (see Figure 36) is showed to represent the significant relationships and their structural coefficients.

Table 44. Testing hypotheses results

Sub-model	Research Hypotheses	Testing Hypotheses
Antecedents of Hot and Cold BRQ		
The different effects of Cultural Values on antecedents of BRQ	H1.1: Cultural Values positively influence Personal Values	Accepted
	H1.2: Cultural Values positively influence Social Values	Accepted
The effect of Personal Values	H2.1: Personal Values positively influence Hot BRQ	Accepted
	H2.2: Personal Values positively influence Cold BRQ	Accepted
	H2.3: Personal Values positively influence ISR	Accepted
The effect of Social Values	H3.1: Social Values positively influence Hot BRQ	Accepted
	H3.2: Social Values positively influence Cold BRQ	Accepted
	H3.3: Social Values positively influence ISR	Accepted
The effect of ISR	H4.1: ISR positively influences Hot BRQ	Accepted
	H4.2: ISR positively influences Cold BRQ	Accepted
	H4.3: ISR positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR	Accepted
Additional hypotheses	H5.1: ISR mediates the effect of Personal values on Hot BRQ	Accepted
	H5.2: ISR mediates the effect of Personal values on Cold BRQ	Accepted
	H5.3: ISR mediates the effect of Social values on Hot BRQ	Accepted
	H5.4: ISR mediates the effect of Social values on Cold BRQ	Accepted

Consequences of Hot and Cold BRQ		
The effect of Hot BRQ	H6.1: Hot BRQ positively influences WTPP	Accepted
	H6.2: Hot BRQ positively influences WOM	Accepted
	H6.3: Hot BRQ positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR	Rejected
The effect of Cold BRQ	H7.1: Cold BRQ positively influences WTPP	Rejected
	H7.2: Cold BRQ positively influences WOM	Accepted
	H7.3: Cold BRQ positively influences Consumer perceptions of CSR	Accepted
Additional hypotheses	H8.1: Hot BRQ has a greater and significant positive effect on WTPP than cold BRQ	Accepted
	H8.2: Cold BRQ has a greater and significant positive effect on WOM than hot BRQ	Accepted
The Differential Effects of Consequences of BRQ	H9.1: A positive consumer perceptions of CSR has a significant positive effect on WTPP	Rejected
	H9.2: A positive consumer perceptions of CSR has a significant positive effect on WOM	Accepted
	H9.3: A positive consumer perceptions of CSR has a significant positive effect on brand purchase intentions	Accepted
	H10.1: WTPP has a significant positive effect on brand purchase intentions	Accepted
	H10.2: Positive WOM has a significant positive effect on brand purchase intentions	Accepted
Additional hypotheses	H11.1: Consumer perceptions of CSR mediates the effect of Hot BRQ on WTPP	Rejected
	H11.2: Consumer perceptions of CSR mediates the effect of Cold BRQ on WOM	Accepted

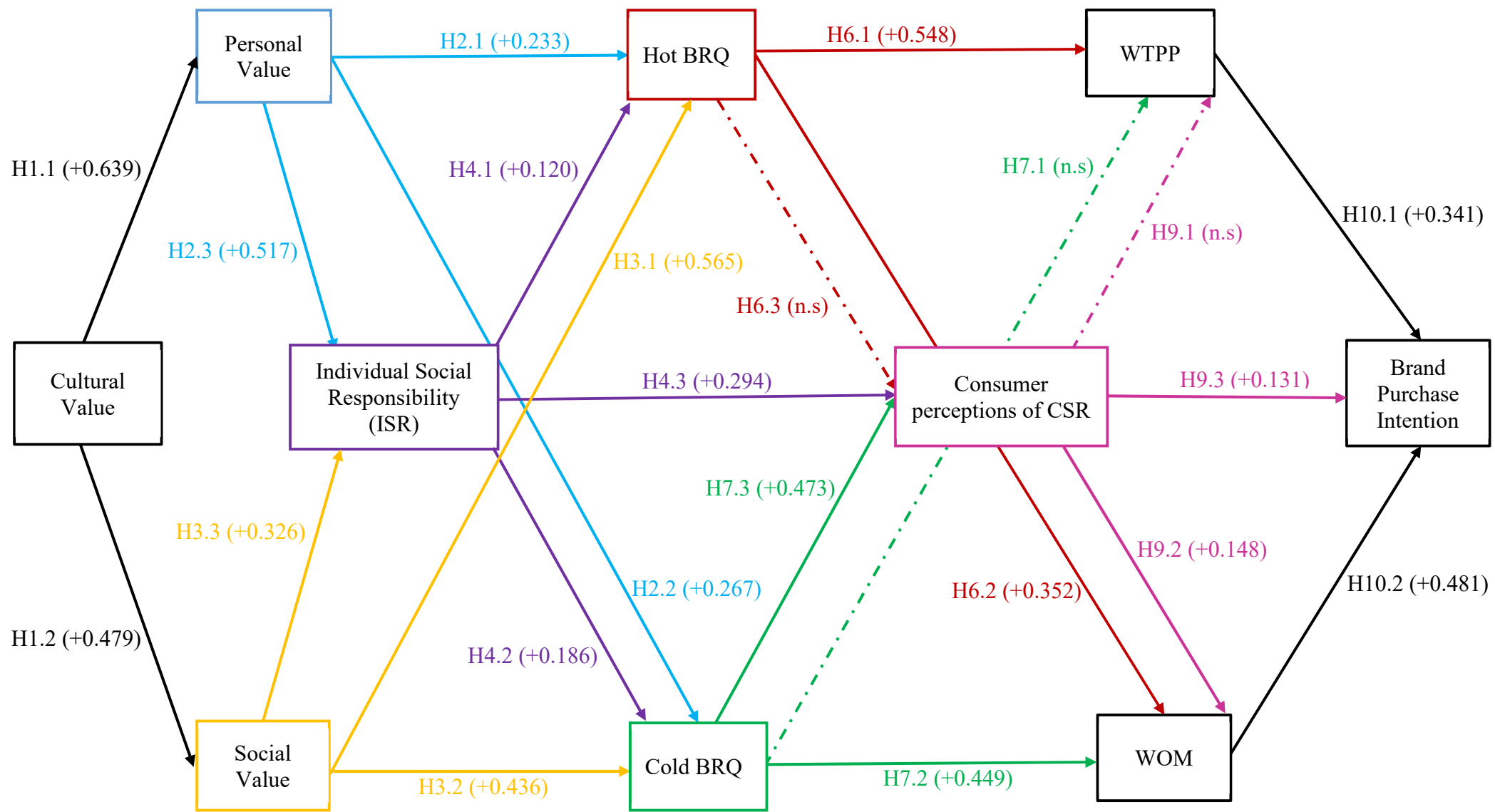


Figure 36. PLS Structural Model with Significant Relationship

Conclusion of Chapter 5. Data Analysis and Results

This chapter focused on analyzing the results of the quantitative study. After assuring the reliability and validity of the measurements, we studied the quality adjustment of our model that was satisfied. We then demonstrated major research findings based on the quantitative analyses of the data collected in the survey. The results provided empirical evidence supporting or rejecting the hypothesized relationships developed in Chapter 3.

A substantial data collection (N = 525) allowed us to model our relationships via XLSTAT. This also allowed us to verify the existence of relationships between our constructs and to test our research hypotheses. 26 hypotheses out of 30 proposed hypotheses were thus validated. The key findings of this chapter were summarized in Table 44. Chapter 6 draws on these findings to discuss further and reach the conclusions on theoretical contributions, methodological contributions, and managerial implications. Besides, Chapter 6 ends by looking at avenues of future research.

CHAPTER 6 - GENERAL CONCLUSION

This study has provided insight into examining empirically the relevance of various antecedents and consequences of BRQ involving two components: hot BRQ and cold BRQ, in the context of green products/green brands and the emerging market in Vietnam.

After reviewing the relevant literature relating to consumer-brand relationships, BRQ (hot BRQ and cold BRQ), its antecedents and consequences, an integrated conceptual model and hypotheses were developed. A mixed-methods design combining qualitative and quantitative approaches was formulated that included 20 in-depth interviews and a questionnaire survey to collect data from a sample of 525 respondents. Before proceeding to analyze data, the reliability and validity of the measurement scales were evaluated to ensure the accuracy of all measurements in the context of research; meanwhile, the adjustment of the global model was examined to indicate the acceptable fit of the empirical data and research model. Then, the proposed hypotheses were tested.

In this concluding and final chapter, the main findings of this research are summarized and discussed (section 6-1), followed by a discussion about theoretical contributions, methodological contributions, and managerial implications presented in section 6-2. Section 6-3 outlines the limitations of this research, including both theoretical and methodological limitations. Avenues for future research are suggested in the last section.

This chapter will be organized, as described in Figure 6-1.

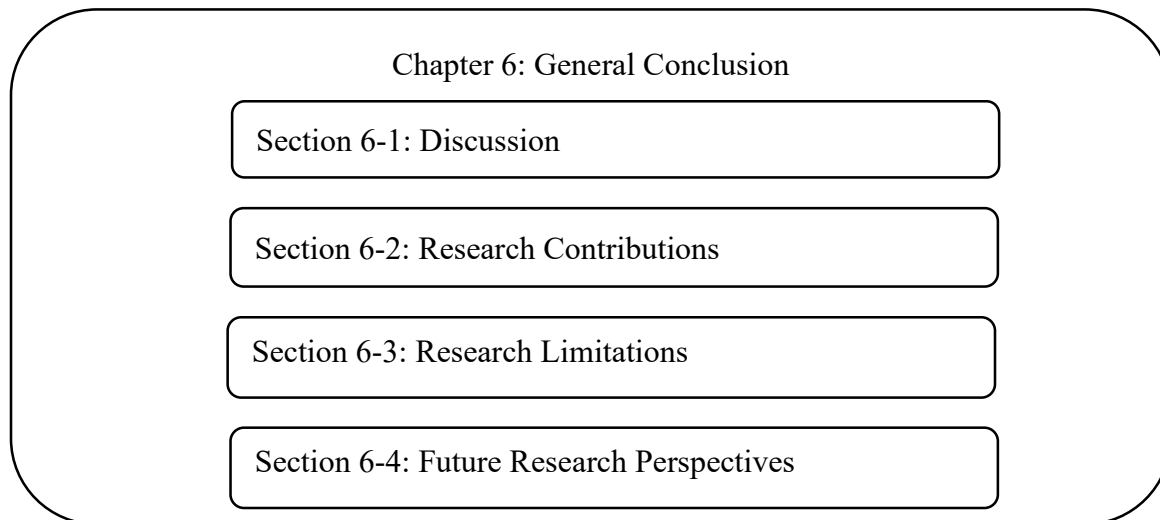


Figure 37. Outline of Chapter 6

Section 6-1. Discussion

This part is an in-depth analysis of the results, one of the most critical stages in this research. This section highlights different theoretical and managerial implications in providing useful insights for managers and marketers.

We organize this subsection into separate parts. We will first discuss the antecedents of BRQ and then move on to our concept's consequences to achieve our objectives.

1. Antecedents of hot and cold BRQ

As stated at the start of this dissertation, our first objective is to investigate the antecedents of two components of BRQ in the green brand context. In other words, this research aims to answer the research question: "How are consumer-brand relationships built and developed in the green brand context?"

To answer this question, we explored what the effects are, if any, of antecedents of BRQ in the context of green brands. We examined the relationships between a set of three consumer values and two components of BRQ. We reviewed previous studies to explore variables that might appear as antecedents of BRQ. We, then, assumed consumer values and developed hypotheses to show the positive impacts of personal values and social values on hot and cold BRQ. Besides, based on the literature review, we examined the relationships of ISR and the two components of BRQ. Finally, we explored the vital role of cultural values on personal values and social values, which could also be considered one of the antecedents of BRQ in this study.

a. Cultural values

Cultural values were chosen for study since cultural values are essential factors guiding consumer behavior. They are defined as "*a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of action*" (Kluckhohn, 1951). Consistent with the previous work of De Mooij (2015), Schwartz, S. H. (2011), cultural orientations exert a significant impact on a large range of consumer behavior such as beliefs, purchase intention, consumption symbols, brand choice, etc. In other words, cultural values are capable of shaping a person's thoughts as are an individual's embedded values. Also, prior work suggests that cultural dimensions exert a significant influence on a wide range of consumer responses such as self-concepts, product beliefs, attitudes, purchase

intention, brand choice, consumption symbols (Aaker, Benet-Martinez, and Garolera, 2001, De Mooij, 2015). Particularly, the stronger cultural values are embedded within their culture; the stronger the individual's values are shaped. In this study, we found that cultural values displayed significant impacts on a person's values and social values. Cultural values explain 40.9% of personal values (path coefficient=0.639). Similarly, cultural values explain 22.9% of social values (path coefficient=0.479).

The results indicated that values (both personal and social values) differ in their impacts on hot versus cold BRQ, with cultural values acting as an antecedent of the two sets of values. This finding has strong relevance to Triandis's (1989) work indicating in terms of collectivism/individualism; the cultural difference is a complex phenomenon regarding its possible relationship with consumer behavior. Specifically, consumers in more collectivistic countries tend to assign more value to consumed products to enhance the integration of the group they belong to and pay more attention to group norms than those in individualistic countries (Song et al., 2018). In contrast, consumers in individualist cultures tend to look for more variety of a product to appropriate the self-identity of themselves and less consideration in developing social relationships with products (Erdem et al., 2006; Song et al., 2018). However, in the context of green brands, both collectivism and individualism do not dampen the relevant effects of collectivists or individualists on consumer responses because they have their own meanings in consuming a green product. Thus, people with a high level of collectivism or individualism are more attracted by a strong relationship with a green brand.

b. Personal values

Consistent with Barbarossa et al. (2017), both personal and social values are drivers of hot and cold BRQ. Personal values are considered "*a desirable trans-situational goal varying in importance, which serve as a guiding principle in the life of a person or other social entity*" (Schwartz, 1994). There is no doubt that the relationship between personal values and BRQ exists. The positive and significant path coefficients supposed that personal values directly and significantly affect hot BRQ (+0.171) and cold BRQ (+0.170). The more consumers perceive themselves as green, shaped by personal values with a high level of "openness-to-change, self-transcendence, and conservation", the stronger the emotional and cognitive relationships with green brands.

Besides, personal values indirectly affect two components of BRQ, which is mediated by ISR. However, the direct relationship between personal values and hot BRQ is stronger than the indirect relationships (0.171 vs 0.062). Similarly, the direct relationship between personal values and cold BRQ (0.170) is greater than the indirect relationship mediated by ISR (0.096).

In conclusion, personal values have both direct and indirect impacts on BRQ. As a result, the more consumers desire to express personal values, the more they intend to develop healthy emotional and cognitive relationships with the brand. In particular, openness-to-change, self-transcendence, and conservation enable consumers to overcome the inconvenience of green products and motivate them to consume eco-friendly products because of their benefits to the environment and society. Green self-identity is also a positive predictor and a perceived identification with the green consumer's role, which is considered a primary motivation to encourage pro-environmental behaviors. People with high scores of personal values (openness-to-change, self-transcendence, conservation, and green self-identity) are willing to consume green products and build strong relationships with green brands.

c. Social values

Social values are the third and last type of consumer value chosen as an antecedent for our model. Social values reflect *"the perceived utility of a product to enhance an individual's social self-concept and association with one or more specific social groups."* (Papista et al., 2018). The direct impact of social values on BRQ is relatively high, with contributions to R² of 69.075% for hot BRQ and 53.829% for cold BRQ. The more consumers desire to symbolize their social performance through a pattern of their conspicuousness and status consumption, the more they are interested in building strong relationships with green brands. Also, there exists an indirect relationship between social values and BRQ mediated by ISR; and the direct effect is stronger than the indirect one. We can conclude that social values have both direct and indirect impacts on BRQ.

Based on the results, social values (conspicuousness and social status) significantly influence hot and cold BRQ; thus, individuals who become more environmentally conscious with a brand to enhance their social status and wealth are more likely to be loyal to the green brand. The more consumers aspire to enhance their social performances, the more they are attracted to build emotion and cognition into their relationships with the brand. This finding is consistent with the costly signaling theory (Zahavi and Zahavi, 1999) and the study of Griskevicius et al. (2012). Costly

signaling theory indicates that consumers engage in self-sacrificing behaviors, including their resources, risk, and time to compete for status and to signal their ability even though it may incur certain inconveniences for a given cause. In other words, the more sensitive to socially visible performances consumers are, the stronger the motivation for consumers to purchase and use products from green brands in daily situations. We followed suggestions of Griskevicius et al. (2012), who successfully applied costly signaling theory in the sustainable consumption context, in which a manager should focus on green marketing efforts to make consumers that engage in self-sacrificing activities feel confident to be socially visible, as a way to encourage their green consumption with the aims of drawing attention to their relative status. Specifically, when consumers have a high awareness of social performances and conspicuousness, the environmental benefits of a product may compromise overall product effectiveness; consumers, in this instance, are more likely to be attracted by green brands because of its desirable signals.

d. Individual Social Responsibility

The last antecedent we studied is social responsibility at an individual level. ISR serves as "*an individual's benchmark and guide of moral behavior*" (Aquino et al., 2009). As we supposed, ISR shows positive impacts on two components of BRQ and explains 12.868% of hot BRQ and 24.561% of cold BRQ. In terms of path coefficients, its effect is more strongly positive on cold BRQ than on hot BRQ ($p=0.120$ vs $p=0.186$). These findings have been theorized to be a more thorough understanding of the predictive power of moral identity internalization and symbolization for BRQ and how consumers have established a self-image as a moral person in relation to a green brand. As such, individuals who have a high ISR score may believe that they are the "sort of person" who acts in a prosocial way and captures self-presentational motivation both in the drive to appear moral to others and to convey the moral self to the outside world (Jennings et al., 2015; Gotowiec and van Mastrigt, 2019), which in turn builds a strong consumer-brand relationship. The more consumers perceive moral identity as their social responsibility role, the stronger the emotional and cognitive relationships with the green brand are developed.

Further, there are mediational effects of ISR on cold BRQ and personal values and social values. More precisely, there are indirect relationships between personal values, social values, and cold BRQ, mediated by ISR. The findings relating to ISR's effects further reinforce the importance of a business strategy that uses both dimensions of moral identity to develop strong consumer-brand

relationships and promote consumer brand loyalty.

2. Consequences of hot and cold BRQ

The second objective of this research is to investigate the consequences of the two components of BRQ in the green brand context. Concerning this objective, a research question needs to be answered: "How do consumer-brand relationships encourage supportive consumer behavior intention towards the green brands?".

To answer this question, we investigated what the effects are, if any, of BRQ on behavioral intentions towards green brands. A further important finding concerns the varying effects of hot and cold BRQ components on a green brand's consumer responses. We reviewed the existing literature and launched qualitative and quantitative studies to respond to this question. A deeper understanding of the outcomes of BRQ was explored in a green brand context. We considered four different consequences of BRQ to examine: consumers' perceived CSR, WTPP, WOM, and brand purchase intention.

a. Consumer perceptions of CSR

Consumer perceptions of CSR or consumers' perceived CSR are the first consequence variable studied in our research. Although many studies documented that CSR affects brand's perspectives such as brand loyalty, brand equity, and consumer-brand relationship, surprisingly, our finding is contrary to most previous research about the relationship between CSR and BRQ. Indeed, our study reveals that cold BRQ and ISR have positive influences on consumer perceptions of CSR, but not hot BRQ. Thus, cold BRQ has a more significant effect on consumers' perceived CSR than hot BRQ ($p=0.473$). Consumers' perceived CSR has an R^2 equal to 0.361, which means that cold BRQ and ISR together explain 36.1% of consumers' perceived CSR. As such, individuals with strong emotional and cognitive relationships with green brands show positive perceptions of the corporate benefits for customers, society, and welfare through CSR activities. From a practical perspective, cold BRQ and ISR will augment consumer perceptions of CSR, which may, in turn, encourage positive consumer responses. As such, a company can improve and maintain hot and cold BRQ to leverage competitive advantages.

b. Willingness to pay a price premium

Willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP) is the second BRQ variable studied. WTPP refers to *"the excess price a consumer is willing to pay for a brand over comparable products"* (Netemeyer et al. 2004, p.209). Our results showed that the emotional dimension of BRQ (hot BRQ) does have a direct and significant impact on WTPP ($p=0.548$), whereas the cognitive dimension of BRQ (cold BRQ) has no direct impact. This result is contrary to that of Nyffenegger et al. (2015). Also, consumer perceived CSR does not affect WTPP. Thus, in our context, WTPP is the consequence of hot BRQ only. Hot BRQ shows a more substantial relationship to WTPP than cold BRQ. This finding reveals the vital role of emotions for brand performance and supports the notion of Nyffenegger et al. (2015), positing that *"satisfaction and trust alone are not enough to improve brand performance."* There is no doubt that an affective relationship between consumer and a brand has been prioritized according to WTPP, which can be a result of the reduction of the perceived purchase risk. This finding also supports the study of Thomson, MacInnis, and Park (2005), which suggested that emotions/feelings of consumers with a brand should promote their willingness to make financial sacrifices (i.e., to pay a price premium) to satisfy emotional benefits. This result also indicates that the positive emotions associated with the brand can be an additional value added to a brand's product. Therefore, companies need to consider how to extend their consumers' emotions so that their attachment to the brand increases. Thereby, the consumer's willingness to pay a higher price is more likely.

c. WOM

Meanwhile, the results of the study also demonstrate the importance of cognition for green brand performance. WOM is defined as *"an informal, person-to-person communication between a perceived non-commercial communicator and a receiver concerning a brand, a product, an organization"* (Anderson 1998, p.5). Based on the result, WOM has an R^2 equal to 62.1, which means that three variables (customer perceptions of CSR, hot BRQ, and cold BRQ) together explain around 62.1% of WOM, in which cold BRQ is leading with a contribution of 45.924%, followed by hot BRQ at 41.698% and finally consumer perceptions of CSR at 12.377%. Besides, cold BRQ (path coefficient=0.449) has a more significant positive effect on WOM than hot BRQ (path coefficient=0.352). Similarly, consumers' perceived CSR also has direct effects on WOM (path coefficient=0.148). Finally, consumers' perceived CSR mediates the impact of cold BRQ on

WOM.

Based on the results, there is little doubt that a strong perception of cognitive and emotional relationships by consumers encouraged greater engagement in WOM activities, consistent with previous research (De Matos and Rossi, 2008). WOM is one of the most powerful forces and is considered as the most effective means of communication in marketing since WOM provides informal information to individuals. As such, WOM has a substantial impact on consumer evaluations of products/brands and their decision-making process. Moreover, the influence of cold BRQ on WOM is greater than hot BRQ, which is consistent with the idea of WOM's greater reliance on rational facts and functional benefits than emotional relations with a brand (Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Westbrook, 1987). Indeed, recommendations based on cognition often provide consumers with more objective arguments to convince others, and consumers prefer to spread WOM about the brands they trust (Gremler, Gwinner, and Brown, 2001).

d. Brand purchase intention

This study also provides empirical evidence of the factors influencing purchase intentions of green brands and managerial implications. The results reveal that consumers' perceived CSR, WTPP, and WOM exhibit significant positive effects on green brand purchase intention, but WOM has the most decisive impact on brand purchase intention ($p=0.481$) (55.365% of the contribution to R^2), followed by WTPP ($p=0.341$) (34.408%) and consumers' perceived CSR ($p=0.131$) (10.227%). Because WOM strongly affects brand purchase intention, positive WOM from existing consumers could attract new customers to purchase green brands. When consumers are often unfamiliar with product attributes and benefits, or the product information is less available or less reliable (Erdem, Swait, and Valenzuela, 2006), they may believe in brands recommended by relatives.

Section 6-2. Research contributions

1. Theoretical contributions

The present research contributes to the existing literature on the antecedents and consequences of BRQ in important ways.

First, the study broadens and deepens our understandings of how consumer values (especially cultural values, personal values, and social values) influence hot and cold BRQ concerning green products/green brands. In the current literature, the research streams on sustainable consumption have mostly advanced, but relatively little is known about the interactions of the two components of BRQ and consumer values regarding green brands, mainly green cosmetics brands.

Second, to our knowledge, this is the first study to address the roles of internalization and symbolization for prosocial behavior and to investigate whether their effects differ across the branding management domain. Indeed, this study indicates ISR's role in building brand loyalty because ISR showed positive impacts on the two components of BRQ, which, in turn, strongly suggests ISR is a vital cue impacting consumer-brand relationships. Further, we explored the mediational effects of ISR on BRQ and personal values and social values, which have been little investigated by the branding research field. As such, our findings highlighted the importance of ISR in developing BRQ.

Third, by analyzing the interrelationships of BRQ and social responsibility at the individual and corporation level, we uncovered the effects of ISR on BRQ and consumers' perceived CSR. Indeed, ISR is one of the most effective antecedents of hot and cold BRQ. Meanwhile, we discovered that personal values and social values affect ISR in a favorable way that shines new light on ISR's moderating role on BRQ in these relationships.

Fourth, most studies of the relationships between BRQ and CSR have been centered on CSR's organizational perspective as the company's commitments to manage its operations' social, environmental, and economic effects. It is questionable how consumers evaluate companies' CSR activities if these activities are relatively internal to stakeholders; and how consumers transfer relevant knowledge collected from multiple sources to comprehend a company's CSR strategies better and react to a brand's products afterward. Hence, we extended this research area by focusing on the consumer perspective as consumer perceptions of CSR. Moreover, our results documented

the role of consumers' perceived CSR on building consumer-brand relationships and, thus, illuminated tenable explanations for its surprising effects on BRQ and consumer behavior, which has not yet been investigated within green marketing.

Fifth, on the moderating roles of consumer perceptions of CSR between BRQ and consumer responses, it offers new insights for green product research. In particular, the findings demonstrate how BRQ strengthens the positive effects of consumer perceptions of CSR on consumer responses. On the one hand, in line with existing literature, we confirmed the findings of prior studies that emphasized the positive effects of consumer perceptions of CSR on consumer intention to be WTPP, the spread of positive WOM, and buying green products. The more consumer perceptions of CSR are positive; the more reluctant consumers tend to have positive responses to a brand, for instance, paying more for products of a particular brand, promotion via word-of-mouth, and intent to buy a product. On the other hand, and perhaps more importantly, we uncover the positive moderating effect of consumers' perceived CSR on BRQ and consumer responses.

Sixth, we documented consumers' responses in terms of WTPP; positive WOM is significantly affected by hot and cold BRQ. The result of this study reveals that hot BRQ has a more significant influence on WTPP than cold BRQ, whereas WOM is driven by cold rather than hot BRQ.

Seventh, we empirically examined green brand purchase intentions with a new causal research model that can provide different business strategies to increase organizational growth.

Hence, in terms of the antecedents of BRQ, the present research complements a body of literature on the effect of consumer values (cultural values, personal values, and social values) and ISR in green products/green brands. In terms of consequences of BRQ, the researchers obtained a more in-depth view into consumer responses to green products, including consumers' perceived CSR, WTPP, positive WOM, and brand purchase intention. Our findings provide support for the central roles of these aspects in green products, which implicate a suitable plan to gain consumers' attention as well as positive responses by mechanisms predicted to influence consumers' perceptions and behavioral responses.

2. Methodological contributions

Our proposed model of consumer-brand relationship quality had the ability to connect several uni-

dimensional and multi-dimensional concepts (see table 45). A PLS approach was therefore used to implement complex modeling. Thus, our causal model's ability to reflect the complex relationships between different concepts represented a significant methodological contribution. Our research has also been able to validate and adapt several scales for the first time in Vietnamese context.

Table 45. Adopted measurement scales structure

Scale	Author	Structure
Cultural values	Brewer and Chen (2007) Sivadas, Bruvold, and Nelson (2008)	Bi-dimensional – 10 items
Personal values	Sparks and Shepherd (2002); Barbarossa, De Pelsmacker, and Moons (2017); Sandy, Gosling, Schwartz, and Koelkebeck (2017); Fotopoulos, Krystallis, and Anastasios (2011)	Multi-dimensional – 17 items
Social values	O'Cass and McEwen (2004) Wiedmann, Hennigs, and Siebels (2009).	Bi-dimensional – 12 items
Individual social responsibility (ISR)	Aquino and Reed (2002)	Bi-dimensional – 10 items
Hot BRQ	Fournier (1994)	Tri-dimensional – 9 items
Cold BRQ	Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel (2004) Oliver (1993) Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001)	Bi-dimensional – 7 items
Consumer perceptions of CSR	Turker (2009) Droms Hatch et al. (2015)	Bi-dimensional – 8 items
Willingness to pay a price premium (WTPP)	Anselmsson, Vestman Bondesson, and Johansson (2014)	Uni-dimensional – 2 items
Word-of-mouth (WOM)	Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) Maxham (2001) Nyffenegger et al., (2015)	Uni-dimensional – 5 items
Brand purchase intention (BPI)	Liñán and Chen (2009) Jeger et al., (2014).	Uni-dimensional – 5 items

3. Managerial implications

This study provides useful insights to point out potential managerial implications and improve consumer-brand relationships.

First, the results indicated that people with a high level of collectivism and individualism are attracted to build a strong relationship quality with a green brand. From a managerial perspective, marketers can also choose how to communicate green products' environmental benefits by highlighting the group norms and the core of self-definition that can make consumers respond to green consumption more favorably. It should portray how an individual makes self-definition with others in specific communities to which an individual belongs. Thereby, this marketing communication customization can help consumers in their decision-making processes, and brands can build consumer brand loyalty.

Second, personal values strongly affect two components of BRQ. In terms of managerial implications, this finding provides recommendations regarding which types of information about eco-friendly benefits should be communicated to consumers to trigger more positive consumer responses to green brands. It should be information about the complementary nature of eco-friendly products and green brand attributes, including environmental and societal benefits, encouraging consumers to act on green consumption behaviors and be attracted by green brands. Thus, advertising functional features of products should be referred to as "the match" between consumers' desired expectations and their perceptions of how a brand helps them to be perceived along with the same features. Moreover, consumers prefer brands that are compatible with their self-identity. Hence, to improve this relationship, firms should invest in identifying their target consumers' self-concepts and promote brands that clearly align with their customers. For example, some firms in Vietnam promote green products as a way to "save the planet," "preserve the environment," or "become an aware consumer" to increase consumers' awareness of environmental and climate change problems. Firms also crafted advertising messages to emphasize their products' "green self-identity" and "green consumer" credentials to their consumers. These campaigns can persuade customers to buy green products and green brands to fulfill their needs.

Third, understanding the potent effects of social values on BRQ enables a brand to establish long-term customer-brand relationships better. Marketing managers can create green brand symbolic meanings relevant to their status-conscious target market to satisfy consumers' social need for

status and prestige rather than only paying attention to communicating their practical functions. Brand owners and managers can also create a distinct green brand image that aligns with their market's self-image for social performance. The green brand also tends to be of high personal relevance for consumer value and is therefore perceived as superior to non-green brands. The importance of the social performance of status and conspicuousness and personal values is emphasized, suggesting that green brand personalities should be an essential determinant of consumers' perceived quality of brands. As a result, managers should have a comprehensive understanding of which personality of green brands relate to these consumer values to induce better quality and stability for the consumer-brand relationships when brands consider the consumer as a partner in the relationships. Furthermore, knowing that consumer values play a significant role in building a strong relationship quality between consumer and brand, business needs to create distinctive brand characteristics to communicate that a green brand is considered to be an inherent part of the consumer's life.

Fourth, managers should consider two dimensions of ISR: internalization and symbolization to delve more profoundly into an individual's motivation to be a moral person. People that have established a self-image as a moral person are more likely to choose a green brand. For instance, internalization may describe an individual's self-concept and intrinsic motivation. In contrast, symbolization may measure not only a desire to appear moral to observers but also a wish to feel like a moral person (Schaumberg and Wiltermuth, 2014) through public and private prosocial activities. Thus, a green product should be visibly designed and packaged by eco-friendly materials. Also, companies need to introduce moral campaigns to resonate with the consumer's desire to become an honest person. For instance, several Vietnamese companies use recyclable materials for environmentally-friendly packaging instead of plastic. This innovation is communicated to attract customers whose desire to express themselves as a moral person who builds an individual socially responsible identity by purchasing green products. These companies also label such consumers as "green consumers" or "moral consumers" to encourage their green consumptions and present a positive attitude towards green brands.

Fifth, in terms of consequences, hot BRQ is a more robust overall predictor of WTPP, in which managers should place more emphasis on the emotional components of BRQ to support the call for emotional branding as a cornerstone of differentiation and sustainable competitive advantage (Atkin 2004). It is also worthwhile to improve consumers' satisfaction and trust since consumers

indicate higher WOM if the cognitive relationships between them and a brand increase.

Sixth, WOM is one of the most important forces in communication and has a strong influence on the evaluation of brands. Thus, managers should pay more attention to existing customers who offer great opportunities for delivering recommendations about products/brands if they have a high level of customer satisfaction and trust in companies. Besides, businesses need to improve the quality of their product to build consumer trust. The introduction of loyalty programs that reward customer purchases will likewise encourage both brand loyalty and customer recommendations. As a result, companies can not only increase revenue from existing customers by fostering relationships with the individuals, but also save business costs associated with acquiring new customers.

Seventh, firms should prioritize supporting CSR activities to increase consumers' perceived CSR, increasing a tendency to pay more for a product/brand, purchase a product, and give a recommendation to others. Indeed, CSR activities should be a part of the brand's long-term strategic mission, especially a green brand. CSR activities are more likely to lead to positive effects if they are considered trustworthy by consumers and be useful to improve consumer perception of a brand's CSR. In other words, CSR activity is a crucial factor in finding a viable lead and market difference; thus, managers still need to heavily invest in improving consumers' perceived CSR to achieve sustainable competitive advantages. Also, managers should implement CSR as an intangible resource to help provide a competitive advantage.

Eight, our results show that WOM strongly drives brand purchase intention. Indeed, positive WOM from existing consumers could attract new customers to purchase green brands. If consumers are often unfamiliar with product attributes and benefits (Batra, 1997) and the product information is less available or less reliable (Erdem, Swait, and Valenzuela, 2006), they may believe in brands recommended by relatives. To benefit from this finding, viral marketing campaigns based on consumer reviews should form a significant part of marketing strategies. Meanwhile, cognitive evaluations of satisfaction and trust should be more focused on building up cold BRQ. Thus, product quality and reliability of a brand's products are upheld, encouraging existing consumers to recommend them and spread positive WOM.

Nine, WTPP also has a positive impact on brand purchase intention and is solely influenced by hot BRQ. This insight can suggest businesses revisit their pricing policies and compare them with

rivals. Instead of offering a lower price, green brands should establish strong emotional connections with customers based on aspects of conspicuousness and social values, which enhances the competitive position in consumers' minds and promotes a willingness to pay higher prices than the competition; since wealthy people expect to buy highly conspicuous goods to present their wealth and higher social status, which comes from fulfilling both material needs and social needs (Patsiaouras and Fitchett, 2012). This outcome is consistent with the findings of Nyffenegger et al. (2015) that a strong emotional connection might successfully act to improve willingness to pay and thus the price. This finding is perhaps consistent within the context of Vietnam. Furthermore, if a consumer uses a product under the presence of others (a publicly consumed product), the product will be associated with social cues for his/her social performances (signaling status and wealth) (Griskevicius et al., 2010). As a result of "the importance of face" in Vietnamese culture, individuals desire green brands as social status symbols as their purchase could strengthen an individual's status, self-identity, and wealthiness perceptions by others, especially when such products are relatively expensive.

Overall, both hot and cold BRQ, ISR, and consumers' perceived CSR, WTPP, and WOM play important roles in a business's success. Therefore, managers should cultivate hot and cold BRQ to grow revenues through greater consumer perception of CSR, higher WTPP, and expanding the positive WOM activities of existing customers. Antecedents of hot and cold BRQ (personal and social values) also suggest interesting managerial implications in marketing communication. Managers should satisfy consumers' expectations of becoming an environmentally-friendly consumer by connecting customers to green brands. Individuals engage in environmental behaviors to symbolize their social status, prestige, and to satisfy the need to act in ways that help their personal values and social visibility.

Furthermore, a product's packaging should incorporate eco-friendly features and be visible enough to be easily recognized by others in order to create a social symbol. Advertisements should highlight individuals' cultural values, a sense of prestige, and social status when using a green brand. Besides, advertisements can emphasize hierarchy and status values that may also appeal more to some cultures, since societies which tolerate hierarchy are also characterized by advertising where there are status differences between advertisements characters (Shavitt et al., 2006). Also, advertising appeals are culturally influenced by some cultures more likely to use certain ad appeals than other cultures. Specifically, green product marketing could be linked to

celebrity endorsements, influencer affiliations through social media networks, and awareness campaigns at prestigious events.

This study has contributed to a nuanced understanding of the predictors for consuming a specific green brand in Vietnam, and generalizability would be limited to this product category (cosmetics) only. Nevertheless, useful findings will be interesting to local green cosmetic company' managers keen on prospective green purchasers' underlying behavior to gain market competitiveness. Consequently, foreign cosmetics companies aiming to penetrate the Vietnamese market or an emerging market will benefit from this understanding of the local culture within an Asian country and can consider the findings within their communications strategy.

To summarize, these results suggest managerial implications. Hot and cold BRQ are essential predictors of consumers' responses, which, in turn, managers should emphasize both the emotional and cognitive aspects of their brands to establish and uphold strong consumer-brand relationships. WTPP is strongly positively associated with hot BRQ, and WOM is a significant consequence of cold BRQ. In turn, to improve BRQ outcomes, marketing managers should try to influence both hot and cold BRQ positively.

Section 6-3. Research limitations

An essential aspect of rigorous academic research is to acknowledge limitations. In this subsection, we identify weaknesses in our work, flaws which, we believe, warrant future research. These limitations are presented in two groups: theoretical limitations and methodological limitations. The first limitation is the weaknesses associated with concepts and theories chosen as part of our research called theoretical limitations. In contrast, methodological limitations relate to our research data collection, such as the sample, sample size, and analysis methods.

1. Theoretical limitations

The first identified limitation concerns the choice of product on which to study the antecedents and consequences of BRQ. We deduced the impact of consumer value and ISR on a brand based on evaluating a green product (but not the effect of a brand on consumer behavior). Indeed, respondents' answers paid attention to green cosmetics in the evaluation of green brands. However, this limitation often exists in branding research; it could undermine the external validity of this research.

The second theoretical limitation focuses on concepts and their definitions applied in this research. These were extracted from previous literature and could not be tested prudently in the survey. The rationale behind this is to obtain high-quality research data, and therefore participants need to pay attention throughout our questionnaire. Thus, we have tried to identify and choose some of the specified dimensions and statements to avoid the need for long questionnaires.

The third limitation relates to the choice of antecedents of BRQ. Potential precursors of hot and cold BRQ are limited to only three values involving cultural values, personal values, and social values. We should, in that case, identify different antecedents of BRQ relating to the brand-related association and customer characteristics variables such as the brand's territory of origin, brand experience, brand personality, brand trust, consumers' personality, customer satisfaction, and customer-company identification. For instance, the brand experience was indicated as an important driver of hot BRQ and had higher relevance in growing cold BRQ (Nyffenegger et al. 2015); and a consumer's personality was a relevant antecedent of the hot and cold BRQ because of its effect on relationship quality (Asendorpf and Wilpers, 1998).

Furthermore, in the same vein, we limited the number of consequences encompassed: consumer

perception of CSR, WTPP, WOM, and brand purchase intention. We could consider many consequences of BRQ, for instance, the wallet share, spending, and consumer experience. However, to avoid respondent fatigue, we decided to choose some of the identified antecedents and consequences to obtain a simple causal model.

Finally, limitations relating to the measurement scales exist. Scale modifications were employed to improve the fit indices at the expense of deleting some indicators, namely cultural values, personal values, ISR, and consumer perceptions of CSR. While the remaining items for each construct were capable of capturing aspects of that construct, this should be acknowledged as a limitation of this research.

2. *Methodological limitations*

This study examines the antecedents and consequences of BRQ on green cosmetics from the viewpoint of Vietnamese consumers. Cosmetics reviews may have a relevant connection to perceived quality, safety, packaging, celebrity, but most of the antecedents in this study are values.

Further, foreign brands continue to dominate the Vietnamese market; thereby, the two chosen green cosmetics brands are based in foreign countries. This raises the question of the generalization of these results for all cosmetics brands in Vietnam. The external validity of our results is, therefore, open to question.

Moreover, we focus only on one product category - green cosmetics. Although analyzing this research based on extensive data collection, it may also be advisable to further examine the number of different categories to extend the findings to a larger domain. It is questionable whether our results can achieve external validity to apply to other product categories.

Judgments of consumer value depend on different criteria in various cultures, and what one person or group perceives as social responsibility might be perceived quite differently by others. Our test, conducted in one country-Vietnam, is considered a methodological limitation of this study; thus, it should be extended to other consumers in various countries. Furthermore, Vietnam is an emerging and transitional market; our findings may not be generalized to other transitional countries. Hence, the research model should be considered carefully in the specific context of the developing and developed countries to which the model is applied in future research.

Data collection has also brought some methodological limitations. Although the method of collecting data benefited from several advantages such as the speed of collection, low cost, reduction of the error when entering data, reduction of misunderstanding, bias, etc. (Gingras and Belleau, 2015), it still contained weaknesses. First, the lack of control of the atmosphere wherein the respondents completed their questionnaires. For instance, in a classroom or a public area may lead to biased results. In particular, respondents on occasion discussed the questionnaire before answering the survey, while respondents in a classroom were relatively well-behaved and tended to give more honest answers. Others often avoided participating in the survey. Most of the participants who completed the questionnaires were volunteers; thus, we were unable to avoid these limitations.

The sample size is also one of the methodological limitations of this study. It is documented that sample size is related to differences in analysis methods. For example, some methods such as ANOVA do not require a massive sample size, whereas SEM requires at least 200 samples to generate robust results. We applied PLS-SEM; thus, the samples could have been split into two sets, and one of the sets used to validate the results. Because of the apparent shortcomings that appeared from a randomly relevant sample, there was no validation sample collected; thus, this study should be deemed more exploratory than strictly confirmatory. Also, split-half methods could not be provided since a large sample size is required to ensure result robustness.

Processing data with PLS by XLSTAT is also an additional methodological limit. Indeed, this analysis method only allows us to analyze the GoF (Tenenhaus et al., 2005) to consider the validation of the model and the acceptance of empirical data. An analysis method based on covariance analysis, for example, would provide a more comprehensive and reliable fit index.

Finally, the methodological limitation can be raised by using the Likert scale. The use of a six-point Likert scale instead of a seven-point Likert scale reduces participant bias but relies on participants to self-report accurate levels of agreement or disagreement because of no neutral option. The respondents were volunteer participants who might not realize the research objectives; thus, they may be distorted. Due to time-limits and budget constraints, we were unable to purify the experiment setting. This is recognized as an inherent disadvantage of field experiments.

Section 6-4: Future research perspectives

This present research should be interpreted in light of several limitations that could be addressed in future research avenues. In addition, the findings of this research open up a set of new questions for future research. Therefore, this subsection is dedicated to discussing some future research perspectives that we consider relevant to our research.

First, potential antecedents of hot and cold BRQ in this study are limited to only three values. Future research can employ alternative values as antecedents to BRQ. For example, they could be extracted from the theory of consumption values: functional value, conditional value, emotional value, and epistemic value; since a decision across various disciplines (economics, sociology, marketing, and consumer behavior) may be affected by any or all these consumption values (Sheth, Newman, and Gross, 1991). They may be important drivers of hot and cold BRQ, specifically emotional value could have a more substantial effect on hot BRQ, whereas epistemic value may have higher relevance in strengthening cold BRQ, considering the results derived from this study.

Second, future research could include other variables in the causal model to create an integrated model containing more antecedents and consequences. Instead of consumer values, social responsibility, word-of-mouth, willingness to pay a price premium, it will be interesting to consider other variables that could influence hot and cold BRQ; or concepts flowing from the consequences of hot and cold BRQ. As such, we can understand better how hot and cold BRQ functions and what are their relationships with other variables.

Third, a longitudinal study design should be considered in future work to make inferences about causal relationships between constructs (Judd and Kenny 1981). Thereby, knowledge of how consumer-brand relationships evolve and develop could be advanced. It would also be interesting to consider the moderating impact of consumer characteristics such as gender, age, income, etc. on the different stages of BRQ. The results of this research would have greater validity because such a study provides practitioners with consumer segmentation according to their sensitivity to consumer-brand relationships.

Fourth, the current research is based on only one product category - green cosmetics. Future work could enhance the findings' external validity across other green product categories such as automobiles, electrical appliances, and organic food. Various product domains could also be tested, for instance, private versus public goods, inexpensive versus luxury goods to test our

hypotheses with some degree of generalizability.

Fifth, we chose two green cosmetics brands from foreign countries to study in Vietnam, which may lead to biased results because consumers in emerging markets may believe that products made in developed countries have superior quality than their domestic equivalents. Therefore, it is questionable whether applying this research to domestic brands in the same market will have different results. Moreover, examining the effects of the origin of goods in a green brand context would be an intriguing research avenue.

Sixth, this study was carried out in a single country - Vietnam. Consumer values and perceptions of social responsibility may vary from country to country. Alternatively, results could be useful for cross-cultural marketing communications or brand awareness building. Thus, further corroboration of findings requires replication in different countries and other cultures to explore how consumers from other cultural orientations respond to a green brand. Further investigations should involve samples from other Asian emerging economies. It would, therefore, be beneficial to test our model in different cultures to verify findings that will allow the generalization of our results.

Finally, alternative value frameworks could be used, such as the Hofstede (2011) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner frameworks (2012), to examine the effect of values based on various dimensions. Additionally, Carroll's (1979) social responsibility pyramid dimensions and the pillars of sustainable development (economic, social, and environmental) could also be examined to measure CSR instead of stakeholder perspectives. Therefore, future research should consider this possibility in both theoretical and empirical approaches.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. In-depth Interview Questions

Appendix 1 evidences the interview questions asked of participants.

Today's topic is about consumer-brand relationship and green products/green cosmetics. What are your general opinions about them?

Values

1. Explain, in your own words, what is a definition of Value?
2. What value(s) do you perceive as (an) important factor(s)/a central concept in your life? How?
3. How would you describe your cultural values?
4. What comes to your mind when you think about personal values?
5. In your opinion, what is meant by social values?
6. Do you think how Value shapes your behavior?

Brand

1. When looking for a product (for example: cosmetics), what company(s) or brand(s) first comes to your mind?
2. Why did you think of brand(s)? How is the brand [brand name] special to you?
3. Image that you are with/bought the brand(s) [brand name]. Could you describe your feeling/emotion with the brand [brand name]?
4. Image that you consumed the product of the brand(s) [brand name]. Would you describe your evaluative judgment with the brand [brand name]? Possible probe as follows
 - Are you satisfied with the brand [brand name]? Why/Why not? How?
 - Do you trust the brand [brand name] (i.e., beliefs in the reliability, safety, and honesty...)? Why/Why not? How?
6. How do you feel if the brand [brand name] is criticized? /does not exist anymore?

Social responsibility

1. What does the term social responsibility mean to you?
2. In your opinion, what are the characteristics of a socially responsible person?
3. In your opinion, what does a socially responsible person do?
4. Do you know any socially responsible brand/business? How do they do social responsibility?
5. How would you expect your loyalty brands or brands you have a good relationship with to demonstrate their responsible of society?
6. What do you do with a socially responsible brand?

Behavior intention

1. Do you think you will be willing to pay extra for the brand [brand name]? Why?
2. Would you repurchase/purchase the brand [brand name] as your brand in future? Why?
3. How do you think that you will recommend the brand [brand name] to your family *and* friend?

Appendix 2. Survey questionnaire (English)



Dear prospective participants,

We are conducting an academic study under the supervision of University of Grenoble Alpes, France about “Consumer-green brand relationships”. The purpose of this research is to extend the existing consumer-brand relationship quality literature to green brands in the context of Vietnam.

We would like to invite you to participate (it is supposed to take approximately 10-15 minutes to fill up all the questions). There are no “right” or “wrong” answers to any of the questions, they only describe your thoughts.

Participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study anytime. To ensure strict confidentiality, all questionnaire scripts will be shredded after a storage period of fifteen years.

All your answers collected will be reported as data only and kept in strict confidentiality. No personal information will be released to public or other organizations.

Your participation is greatly appreciated.

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Part 1: Survey on Values

Question 1: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about YOUR VALUE. Choose a number from 1 to 6 that best represents your level of agreement with the propositions (1- “Strongly disagree” to 6 - “Strongly agree”).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I enjoy being unique and different from others in many ways						
2. I often do “my own thing.”						
3. I am a unique individual.						
4. One should live one’s life independent of others as much as possible.						
5. The most important thing in my life is to make myself happy.						
6. People should be aware that if they are going to be part of a group, they sometimes will have to do things they don’t want to do.						
7. I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.						
8. It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.						
9. If the group is slowing me down, it is better to leave it and work alone.						
10. I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I’m not happy with the group.						

Question 2: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about YOUR IDENTITY. Choose a number from 1 to 6 that best represents your level of agreement with the propositions (1- “Strongly disagree” to 6- “Strongly agree”).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I think of myself as someone who is concerned about environmental issues.						
2. I think of myself as a "green" consumer.						
3. I would describe myself as an ecologically conscious consumer.						

Question 3: HOW MUCH LIKE YOU IS THIS PERSON?

Here we briefly describe some people. Please read each description and think about how much each person is or is not like you. Choose a number from 1 to 6 that best shows how similar the person is to you (“1- not like me at all” to “6 - very much like me”).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. It's very important to me to help the people around me. I want to care for their well-being.						
2. It is important to me to respond to the needs of others. I try to support those I know.						
3. I think it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. I believe everyone should have equal opportunities in life.						
4. I believe all the world's people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is important to me.						
5. It is important to me that things be organized and clean. I really do not like things to be a mess.						
6. Having a stable government is important to me. I am concerned that the social order be protected						
7. It is important to me always to behave properly. I want to avoid doing anything people would say is wrong						
8. I believe I should always show respect to my parents and to older people. It is important to me to be obedient						
9. Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to me. I like to do things in my own original way.						
10. I think it's important to be interested in things. I like to be curious and to try to understand all sorts of things.						
11. I think it is important to do lots of different things in life. I always look for new things to try.						
12. I like to take risks. I am always looking for adventures.						
13. I seek every chance I can to have						

fun. It is important to me to do things that give me pleasure.						
14. I really want to enjoy life. Having a good time is very important to me.						

Question 4: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Choose a number from 1 to 6 that best represents your level of agreement with the propositions (1- “Strongly disagree” to 6- “Strongly agree”).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I feel that those who use green brand are easily noticed by others.						
2. Using green brand helps to show my presence to others.						
3. Using green brand gains the respect I receive from others.						
4. Using green brand helps to show who I am						
5. Using green brand helps to show my symbol of success						
6. Using green brand helps to show my symbols of prestige.						
7. Using green brand indicates my wealth						
8. Using green brand indicates my achievement						
9. I feel that those who use green brand are interested in status						
10. Social status is important to me						
11. Using green brand enhances my image						
12. Social standing is an important motivator for my consumption.						

Question 5: Listed below are some characteristics that may describe a person:

<i>caring</i>	<i>compassionate</i>	<i>fair</i>
<i>friendly</i>	<i>generous</i>	<i>helpful</i>
<i>hardworking</i>	<i>honest</i>	<i>kind</i>

The person with these characteristics could be you or it could be someone else. For a moment, visualize in your mind the kind of person who has these characteristics. Imagine how that person

would think, feel, and act. When you have a clear image of what this person would be like, choose a number from 1 to 6 that best represents your level of agreement with the propositions (1- “Strongly disagree” to 6- “Strongly agree”).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics.						
2. Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am.						
3. I would be ashamed to be a person who has these characteristics.						
4. Having these characteristics is not really important to me.						
5. I strongly desire to have these characteristics.						
6. I often wear clothes that identify me as having these characteristics.						
7. The types of things I do in my spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics.						
8. The kinds of books and magazines that I read identify me as having these characteristics.						
9. The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations.						
10. I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics.						

Part 2: Survey on Green brands (A case of Green cosmetic brands)

Green cosmetics can be used to describe products using environmentally friendly recipes, production practices or packaging methods. They contain natural ingredients extracted from natural plants and minerals such as aloe vera gel, turmeric, green tea, fruits, fresh milk, honey....

Green cosmetics does not contain any artificial ingredients, synthetic, that could be hazardous to human health such as Methyl, Propyl, Butyl and Ethyl Paraben, petroleum, synthetic colors, aluminum, flavorings, foaming, synthetic colors, silicone, formaldehyde, hydroquinone...

They may also have to incorporate strategies of recycling, recycled content, reduced packaging or using fewer toxic materials. Green cosmetics are not tested on animals and substitute methods will replace it that use technology to prove in purpose of bringing human values and to contribute to protect environment.

Green cosmetics include skincare, shampoo, shower gel, cream, lotion (body and face), make-up, perfume, eau de toilette...

Question 6: How do you think/feel/have with this brand?

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I feel very loyal to this brand.						
2. This brand can count on me to always be there.						
3. I will stay with this brand through good times and bad.						
4. I am willing to make small sacrifices in order to keep using this brand.						
5. Compared to other non-green cosmetics brands, I feel strongly connected to this brand.						
6. I feel emotionally attached to this brand.						
7. I would be very upset if I couldn't find this brand when I wanted it.						
8. There are times when I really long to use with this brand again.						
9. I feel like something's missing when I haven't used with this brand for a while.						
10. I am completely satisfied with this brand.						
11. I am completely pleased with this						

brand.						
12. This brand is turning out better than I expected.						
13. This brand is exactly what I need.						
14. I rely on.						
15. This brand is an honest brand.						
16. This brand is safe.						

Question 7: How strongly you agree or disagree with statements about how this brand should act. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Choose a number from 1 to 6 that best represents your level of agreement with the propositions (1- “Strongly disagree” to 6- “Strongly agree”).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. This brand respects consumer rights beyond the legal requirements.						
2. This brand provides full and accurate information about its products to its customers.						
3. Customer satisfaction is highly important for this brand						
4. This brand anticipates in activities which aim to protect and improve the quality of the natural environment.						
5. This brand makes investment to create a better life for future generations.						
6. This brand implements special programs to minimize its negative impact on the natural environment.						
7. This brand targets sustainable growth which considers future generations.						
8. This brand contributes to campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society.						

Question 8: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Choose a number from 1 to 6 that best represents your level of agreement with the propositions (1- “Strongly disagree” to 6- “Strongly agree”).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. The price of this brand would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to another non-green cosmetics brand.						
2. I am willing to pay a higher price for green cosmetic products of this brand than for other non-green cosmetics brands.						
3. I have recommended this brand to lots of people.						
4. I “talk up” this brand to my friends.						
5. I try to spread the good word about this brand.						
6. I give this brand tons of positive word-of-mouth advertising.						
7. If my friends are looking for green cosmetics, I would tell them to try this brand.						

Question 9: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. Choose a number from 1 to 6 that best represents your level of agreement with the propositions (1- “Strongly disagree” to 6- “Strongly agree”).

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I am willing to go out of my way to obtain this brand.						
2. My personal goal is to consume as much this brand as possible.						
3. I will make every effort to purchase this brand.						
4. I have seriously thought of buying more this brand.						
5. I have a firm intention to buy this brand in the future.						

Personal information

Question 10: Your year of birth

Question 11: Your gender

- *Male*
- *Female*

Question 12: Your education

- *Lower than High School*
- *High School*
- *College*
- *Bachelor*
- *Masters*
- *Doctoral*

Question 13: Your monthly income (includes your part-time jobs) after taxes

- *Less than €1,000*
- *From €1,000 to under €1,500*
- *From €1,500 to under €2,000*
- *From €2,000 to under €2,500*
- *From €2,500 to under €3,000*
- *More €3,000*

Appendix 3. Survey questionnaire (Vietnamese)



Xin chào các bạn,

Chúng tôi đang tiến hành một nghiên cứu khoa học mang tính chất học thuật dưới sự giám sát của trường Đại học Grenoble Alpes, Pháp về “Mối quan hệ giữa thương hiệu xanh và người tiêu dùng”. Mục đích của nghiên cứu này là mở rộng lý thuyết chất lượng mối quan hệ giữa thương hiệu và người tiêu dùng đối với thương hiệu xanh.

Chúng tôi rất hân hạnh được mời bạn thực hiện bảng khảo sát (chỉ mất từ 10 đến 15 phút để hoàn thành đầy đủ). Không có câu trả lời nào là "đúng" hoặc "sai", nó chỉ là ý kiến của chính bạn.

Việc tham gia là tự nguyện và bạn có thể tự do rút khỏi khảo sát bất cứ lúc nào. Để đảm bảo bí mật nghiêm ngặt, tất cả các bản câu hỏi sẽ được hủy bỏ sau một thời gian lưu trữ là mười lăm năm.

Tất cả các câu trả lời chỉ sử dụng cho mục đích nghiên cứu. Các thông tin cá nhân bạn cung cấp sẽ được đảm bảo bí mật.

Chúng tôi chân thành cảm ơn và đánh giá rất cao đối với sự tham gia nhiệt tình của bạn.

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Phần 1: Khảo sát về các Giá trị

Câu hỏi 1: Bạn vui lòng cho biết mức độ đồng ý hoặc không đồng ý với các câu sau đây. Chọn từ 1 đến 6 miêu tả tốt nhất mức độ đồng ý của bạn (1-"hoàn toàn không đồng ý" đến 6-"hoàn toàn đồng ý").

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tôi thích được độc đáo và khác biệt so với người khác trên nhiều phương diện						
2. Tôi thường tự làm những việc của riêng mình						
3. Tôi là một cá thể độc nhất thế gian						
4. Theo tôi, mỗi người nên sống cuộc sống độc lập càng nhiều càng tốt.						
5. Điều quan trọng nhất trong cuộc đời tôi chính là làm bản thân mình hạnh phúc						
6. Mọi người nên nhận thức rằng nếu họ muốn là một thành viên của một nhóm, đôi khi họ phải làm việc mà họ không hề muốn						
7. Tôi thường hi sinh sở thích cá nhân cho lợi ích nhóm của mình						
8. Tôi thấy việc tôn trọng quyết định của nhóm là quan trọng						
9. Nếu nhóm làm tốc độ của tôi chậm lại, thì tốt nhất là nên rời nhóm và làm việc một mình						
10. Tôi sẽ ở lại nếu nhóm cần, thậm chí nếu việc ở lại không làm tôi vui						

Câu hỏi 2: Bạn vui lòng cho biết mức độ đồng ý hoặc không đồng ý với các câu sau đây. Chọn từ 1 đến 6 miêu tả tốt nhất mức độ đồng ý của bạn (1-"hoàn toàn không đồng ý" đến 6-"hoàn toàn đồng ý")

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tôi nghĩ mình là người quan tâm đến vấn đề môi trường						
2. Tôi nghĩ mình là một người tiêu dùng "xanh"						
3. Tôi sẽ mô tả bản thân mình như một người tiêu dùng có ý thức sinh thái						

Câu hỏi 3: Người này giống bạn mức độ nào?

Ở đây chúng tôi miêu tả ngắn gọn một số người. Bạn hãy đọc mô tả và suy nghĩ về việc người này giống hay không giống bạn, và ở mức độ như thế nào. Chọn từ “1-Hoàn toàn không giống tôi” đến “6-Cực kì giống tôi” miêu tả sự tương đồng giữa bạn và người này

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tôi thấy việc giúp đỡ mọi người xung quanh mình là quan trọng. Tôi quan tâm đến cuộc sống của họ						
2. Tôi thấy việc phản hồi yêu cầu của người khác là quan trọng. Tôi cố gắng giúp đỡ những ai tôi biết						
3. Tôi nghĩ điều quan trọng là mọi người trên thế giới nên được đối xử công bằng. Tôi tin rằng ai ai cũng đều nên có cơ hội bình đẳng trong cuộc sống						
4. Tôi nghĩ mọi người trên thế giới nên sống trong sự hòa hợp. Thúc đẩy hòa bình giữa các dân tộc trên thế giới là quan trọng với tôi.						
5. Việc mọi thứ được sắp xếp và ngăn nắp là quan trọng với tôi. Tôi thực sự không thích sự bừa bộn						
6. Có một chính phủ ổn định là quan trọng. Tôi muốn trật tự xã hội được bảo vệ						
7. Tôi luôn cư xử đúng mực. Tôi muốn tránh những điều mà mọi người cho là sai						
8. Tôi tin là tôi nên luôn tôn trọng bố mẹ và người lớn tuổi. Việc vâng lời là quan trọng đối với tôi						
9. Nghĩ những ý tưởng mới và sáng tạo là quan trọng với tôi. Tôi thích làm việc theo cách riêng của mình						
10. Tôi nghĩ rằng việc hứng thú với mọi thứ là quan trọng. Tôi thích tò mò và cố gắng để hiểu mọi điều						
11. Tôi nghĩ được làm nhiều thứ khác nhau trong đời là quan trọng. Tôi luôn tìm kiếm những thứ mới mẻ để thử						
12. Tôi thích mạo hiểm. Tôi luôn tìm kiếm những sự mạo hiểm cho mình						
13. Tôi tìm mọi cơ hội để có niềm vui. Làm những việc mang đến hứng khởi						

cho tôi là điều quan trọng						
14. Tôi thật sự muốn tận hưởng cuộc sống. Đối với tôi có thời gian vui vẻ là rất quan trọng						

Câu hỏi 4: Bạn vui lòng cho biết mức độ đồng ý hoặc không đồng ý với các câu sau đây. Chọn từ 1 đến 6 miêu tả tốt nhất mức độ đồng ý của bạn (1-"hoàn toàn không đồng ý" đến 6 - "hoàn toàn đồng ý")

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tôi nghĩ rằng những người dùng thương hiệu xanh thì rất dễ được người khác chú ý						
2. Việc sử dụng thương hiệu xanh giúp tôi chứng tỏ được sự hiện diện của mình với người khác						
3. Sử dụng thương hiệu xanh làm tăng sự tôn trọng mà tôi nhận được từ người khác						
4. Sử dụng thương hiệu xanh giúp thể hiện tôi là ai						
5. Sử dụng thương hiệu xanh giúp tôi thể hiện đặc trưng của sự thành công						
6. Sử dụng thương hiệu xanh giúp tôi thể hiện đặc trưng của sự uy tín						
7. Sử dụng thương hiệu xanh thể hiện sự giàu có của tôi						
8. Sử dụng thương hiệu xanh thể hiện những thành tựu của tôi						
9. Tôi thấy những người sử dụng thương hiệu xanh quan tâm đến vị trí/địa vị của họ						
10. Địa vị xã hội là quan trọng với tôi						
11. Sử dụng thương hiệu xanh nâng cao hình ảnh của tôi						
12. Địa vị xã hội là động lực quan trọng cho sự tiêu dùng thương hiệu xanh của tôi						

Câu hỏi 5: Dưới đây là một số đặc điểm mô tả một người:

<i>Thích quan tâm</i>	<i>Độ lượng</i>	<i>Sòng phẳng</i>
<i>Thân thiện</i>	<i>Hào phóng</i>	<i>Hữu ích</i>
<i>Chăm chỉ</i>	<i>Thật thà</i>	<i>Tốt bụng</i>

Người có những đặc điểm này có thể là bạn hoặc có thể là người khác. Bạn hãy hình dung trong tâm trí mình là người có những đặc điểm này. Hãy tưởng tượng cách người đó nghĩ, cảm thấy, và hành động. Khi bạn đã có một hình ảnh rõ ràng về người này sẽ như thế nào, hãy chọn từ 1-"hoàn toàn không đồng ý" đến 6-"hoàn toàn đồng ý" để miêu tả mức độ đồng ý của bạn.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tôi cảm thấy tốt khi tôi là người có những đặc tính này						
2. Trở thành người có những đặc tính này là một phần quan trọng của con người tôi						
3. Trở thành người có những đặc tính này làm tôi hổ thẹn						
4. Có những đặc tính này thì không thực sự quan trọng đối với tôi.						
5. Tôi rất mong muốn có những đặc tính này						
6. Tôi thường mặc áo quần thể hiện mình có những đặc tính này						
7. Những việc tôi làm khi rảnh (sở thích chẳng hạn) thể hiện rõ là tôi có những đặc tính này						
8. Loại sách và tạp chí tôi đọc thể hiện tôi có những đặc tính này						
9. Việc tôi có những đặc tính này được thể hiện với người khác thông qua mối quan hệ trong tổ chức						
10. Tôi thích tham gia các hoạt động mà được giao tiếp với những người có những đặc tính này						

Phần 2: Khảo sát về thương hiệu xanh (Trường hợp thương hiệu mỹ phẩm xanh)

Mỹ phẩm xanh có thể được mô tả như là các sản phẩm sử dụng nguyên liệu, phương pháp sản xuất và đóng gói theo cách thức thân thiện với môi trường. Chúng có chứa các thành phần chiết xuất từ thực vật thiên nhiên và khoáng chất như nha đam, nghệ, trà xanh, các loại thảo mộc, hoa quả, mật ong...

Mỹ phẩm xanh không chứa bất kỳ thành phần nhân tạo nào có thể nguy hại đến sức khỏe con người như Methyl, Propyl, Butyl, Ethyl Paraben, dầu (có thể gây ra dị ứng da), nhôm, hương liệu, tạo bọt, màu tổng hợp, silicone, formaldehyde (có thể gây kích ứng da và thậm chí cả ung thư), hydroquinone (có thể gây ra các bệnh da nghiêm trọng, thậm chí biến dạng da)...

Mỹ phẩm xanh cũng có thể được kết hợp với các hoạt động tái chế, đóng gói hoặc sử dụng vật liệu ít độc hại. Mỹ phẩm xanh không thử nghiệm trên động vật mà sẽ sử dụng phương pháp thay thế với mục đích mang lại giá trị con người và góp phần bảo vệ môi trường.

Mỹ phẩm xanh ở đây bao gồm các sản phẩm chăm sóc da, dầu gội đầu, sữa tắm, kem dưỡng (cơ thể và mặt), sản phẩm trang điểm, nước hoa...

Câu hỏi 6: Bạn suy nghĩ/cảm thấy như thế nào với thương hiệu xanh này?

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tôi trung thành với thương hiệu xanh này						
2. Thương hiệu xanh này có thể tin rằng tôi luôn đồng hành cùng nó						
3. Tôi sẽ ở bên cạnh thương hiệu xanh này mọi lúc						
4. Tôi sẵn sàng hi sinh đôi chút để tiếp tục sử dụng sản phẩm của thương hiệu xanh này						
5. So với các thương hiệu không phải là mỹ phẩm xanh, tôi cảm thấy có sự gắn kết chặt chẽ với thương hiệu xanh này						
6. Tôi cảm thấy cảm xúc gắn liền với thương hiệu xanh này						
7. Tôi sẽ rất buồn nếu không tìm được thương hiệu xanh này khi tôi muốn						
8. Đã có lần tôi cực kì mong muốn sử dụng sản phẩm thương hiệu xanh này lần nữa						
9. Tôi cảm thấy thiếu gì đó nếu một thời gian không sử dụng thương hiệu xanh						

này						
10. Tôi hoàn toàn thỏa mãn với thương hiệu xanh này						
11. Tôi hoàn toàn hài lòng với thương hiệu xanh này						
12. Thương hiệu xanh này đáp ứng hơn cả kì vọng của tôi						
13. Thương hiệu xanh này là chính xác cái tôi cần						
14. Tôi đặt niềm tin vào thương hiệu xanh này						
15. Thương hiệu xanh này là một thương hiệu trung thực						
16. Thương hiệu xanh này rất an toàn						

Câu hỏi 7: Bạn đồng ý hay không đồng ý với các nhận định về những việc mà thương hiệu xanh NÊN làm. Chọn từ 1 đến 6 miêu tả tốt nhất mức độ đồng ý của bạn (1-"hoàn toàn không đồng ý" đến 6-"hoàn toàn đồng ý").

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Thương hiệu xanh nên tôn trọng quyền lợi người tiêu dùng hơn cả luật quy định						
2. Thương hiệu xanh nên cung cấp đầy đủ và chính xác về thông tin sản phẩm cho khách hàng						
3. Sự hài lòng của khách hàng là rất quan trọng với thương hiệu xanh						
4. Thương hiệu xanh nên tham gia các hoạt động nhằm bảo vệ và cải thiện chất lượng môi trường tự nhiên						
5. Thương hiệu xanh nên đầu tư nhằm tạo ra một cuộc sống tốt đẹp hơn cho thế hệ sau						
6. Thương hiệu xanh nên thực hiện các chương trình đặc biệt nhằm giảm thiểu tác động xấu đến môi trường tự nhiên						
7. Thương hiệu xanh nên nhắm đến sự phát triển bền vững cho thế hệ tương lai						
8. Thương hiệu xanh nên đóng góp vào các chiến dịch và dự án cho sự phát triển hạnh phúc của xã hội						

Câu hỏi 8: Bạn vui lòng cho biết mức độ đồng ý hoặc không đồng ý với các câu sau đây. Chọn từ 1 đến 6 miêu tả tốt nhất mức độ đồng ý của bạn (1-"hoàn toàn không đồng ý" đến 6 - "hoàn toàn đồng ý").

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Giá cả sản phẩm của thương hiệu xanh này nên tăng lên một ít trước khi tôi muốn chuyển sang một thương hiệu khác không phải là thương hiệu xanh						
2. Tôi sẵn sàng trả giá cao hơn cho sản phẩm của thương hiệu xanh này so với các thương hiệu không phải là thương hiệu mỹ phẩm xanh.						
4. Tôi giới thiệu thương hiệu xanh này tới nhiều người						
5. Tôi thường nhắc đến thương hiệu xanh này với bạn bè						
6. Tôi luôn nói tốt về thương hiệu xanh này						
7. Tôi truyền miệng với những ngôn từ rất tốt cho thương hiệu xanh này						
8. Nếu bạn bè tôi đang tìm mua mỹ phẩm, tôi sẽ giới thiệu thương hiệu xanh này						

Câu hỏi 9: Bạn vui lòng cho biết mức độ đồng ý hoặc không đồng ý với các câu sau đây. Chọn từ 1 đến 6 miêu tả tốt nhất mức độ đồng ý của bạn (1-"hoàn toàn không đồng ý" đến 6 - "hoàn toàn đồng ý").

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tôi sẵn sàng từ bỏ thói quen/suy nghĩ của mình để sử dụng thương hiệu xanh này						
2. Mục tiêu cá nhân của tôi là tiêu dùng sản phẩm thương hiệu xanh này càng nhiều càng tốt						
3. Tôi sẽ làm mọi điều có thể để mua được sản phẩm thương hiệu xanh này						
4. Tôi nghiêm túc nghĩ về việc mua thêm sản phẩm thương hiệu xanh này						
5. Tôi có ý định chắc chắn sẽ mua thương hiệu xanh này trong tương lai						

Phần thông tin cá nhân

Câu hỏi 10: Năm sinh của bạn

Câu hỏi 11: Giới tính của bạn

- Nam
- Nữ

Câu hỏi 12: Trình độ học vấn

- Dưới Trung học phổ thông
- Trung học phổ thông
- Cao đẳng
- Đại học
- Thạc sĩ
- Tiến sĩ

Câu 13: Thu nhập sau thuế hàng tháng của bạn (kể cả những công việc thời vụ)

- Dưới 2,000,000 VNĐ
- Từ 2,000,000 đến dưới 4,000,000 VNĐ
- Từ 4,000,000 đến dưới 6,000,000 VNĐ
- Từ 6,000,000 đến dưới 8,000,000 VNĐ
- Từ 8,000,000 đến dưới 15,000,000 VNĐ
- Trên 15,000,000 VNĐ

Appendix 4 Reliability and convergent validity

1. Reliability and validity of first-order structures

a. Reliability and convergent validity of first-order measurement scales

Items	Loading	Reliability (Joreskog's rho)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Hot BRQ Fournier (1994)			
I feel very loyal to X	0,845	0.956	0.709
X can count on me to always be there	0,858		
I will stay with X through good times and bad	0,877		
I am willing to make small sacrifices in order to keep using X	0,858		
Compared to other non-green cosmetic brands, I feel strongly connected to X	0,828		
I feel emotional attached to X	0,869		
I would be very upset if I couldn't find X when I wanted it	0,815		
There are times when I really long to use with X again	0,755		
I feel like something's missing when I haven't used with X for a while	0,864		
Cold BRQ Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel (2004); Oliver (1993);			
I am completely satisfied with X.	0,829	0.929	0.651
I am completely pleased with X.	0,811		
X is turning out better than I expected.	0,840		
X is exactly what I need.	0,834		
I rely on X.	0,839		
X is an honest brand.	0,754		
X is safe.	0,732		

Items	Loading	Reliability (Joreskog's rho)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Willingness to pay a premium price (WTPP) Anselmsson, Vestman Bondesson, and Johansson (2014)			
The price of X would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to another non-green cosmetic brand.	0,910	0.834	0.636
I am willing to pay a higher price for products of X than for other non-green cosmetic brands.	0,920		

Items	Loading	Reliability (Joreskog's rho)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Word-of-mouth (WOM) Carroll and Ahuvia (2006); Maxham (2001); Nyffenegger et al., (2015)			
I have recommended X to lots of people	0,801	0.918	0.692
I "talk up" X to my friends	0,862		
I try to spread the good word about X	0,817		
I give X tons of positive word-of-mouth advertising	0,838		
If my friends are looking for cosmetics, I would tell them to try X	0,841		

Items	Loading	Reliability (Joreskog's rho)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Brand Purchase Intention (BPI) Liñán and Chen (2009) ; Jeger et al., (2014)			
I am willing to go out of my way to obtain X.	0,853	0.922	0.704
My personal goal is to consume as much X as possible.	0,851		
I will make every effort to purchase X.	0,871		
I have seriously thought of buying more X.	0,826		
I have a firm intention to buy X in the future.	0,792		

b. Discriminant Validity of first order measurement scales

		Cultural Values		Personal Values			Social Values		ISR		Hot BRQ	Cold BRQ	CSR		WTPP	WOM	Brand Purchase Intention	
		Individualism	Collectivism	Self-identity	Self-transcendence	Conservation	Openness-to-change	Conspicuous	Social status	Internal Moral Identity			Symbolic Moral Ident	Consumer benefit				Societal benefit
Cultural Values	Individualism	1																
	Collectivism	0,218	1															
Personal Values	Self-identity	0,256	0,238	1														
	Self-transcendence	0,209	0,216	0,292	1													
	Conservation	0,127	0,192	0,195	0,375	1												
	Openness-to-change	0,232	0,128	0,236	0,426	0,266	1											
Social Values	Conspicuous	0,141	0,161	0,191	0,248	0,208	0,252	1										
	Social status	0,134	0,176	0,176	0,194	0,184	0,257	0,749	1									
Individual Social Responsibility	Internal Moral Identity	0,122	0,149	0,185	0,344	0,273	0,154	0,153	0,130	1								
	Symbolic Moral Identity	0,180	0,174	0,245	0,335	0,308	0,316	0,353	0,450	0,370	1							
	Hot BRQ	0,136	0,169	0,177	0,214	0,212	0,232	0,461	0,463	0,112	0,373	1						
	Cold BRQ	0,124	0,148	0,169	0,190	0,175	0,186	0,339	0,324	0,132	0,311	0,686	1					
Consumers' perceived CSR	Consumer benefit	0,145	0,161	0,172	0,167	0,163	0,145	0,169	0,146	0,147	0,209	0,183	0,259	1				
	Societal benefit	0,128	0,165	0,215	0,192	0,157	0,139	0,139	0,101	0,171	0,142	0,166	0,243	0,452	1			
	WTPP	0,094	0,110	0,113	0,116	0,109	0,123	0,318	0,332	0,070	0,222	0,370	0,277	0,087	0,097	1		
	WOM	0,093	0,113	0,139	0,171	0,165	0,153	0,305	0,271	0,121	0,272	0,540	0,566	0,230	0,215	0,284	1	
	Brand Purchase Intention	0,109	0,145	0,153	0,162	0,161	0,163	0,418	0,389	0,100	0,297	0,637	0,581	0,195	0,204	0,412	0,534	1
	AVE	0,537	0,504	0,697	0,584	0,553	0,616	0,774	0,723	0,689	0,595	0,709	0,651	0,632	0,647	0,837	0,692	0,704

Discriminant validity of the first-order measurement scales is satisfied since the AVE (Average Variance Extracted) is greater than the square of correlations between constructs.

2. *Reliability and validity of second order structures*

a. *Reliability and convergent validity of second-order measurement scales*

Items	Loading	Second-order factor	Reliability (Joreskog's rho)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Cultural Values				
I enjoy being unique and different from others in many ways.	0,658	Individualism Adopted from Brewer and Chen (2007); Sivadas, Bruvold, and Nelson (2008)	0.831	0.732
I often do "my own thing."	0,644			
I am a unique individual.	0,570			
One should live one's life independent of others as much as possible	0,657			
People should be aware that if they are going to be part of a group, they sometimes will have to do things they don't want to do.	0,585	Collectivism Adopted from Sivadas, Bruvold, and Nelson (2008); Triandis and Gelfand (1998)		
I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in.	0,663			
It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group.	0,562			
I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I'm not happy with the group.	0,592			

Items	Loading	Second-order factor	Reliability (Joreskog's rho)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Personal Values				
I think of myself as someone who is concerned about environmental issues	0,537	Self-identity Sparks and Shepherd (2002); Barbarossa at al., (2017)	0.911	0.653
I think of myself as a "green" consumer	0,669			
I would describe myself as an ecologically conscious consumer	0,633			
It's very important to me to help the people around me. I want to care for their well-being.	0,755	Self-transcendence		

It is important to me to respond to the needs of others. I try to support those I know.	0,672	Sandy et al., (2017); Fotopoulos, Krystallis, and Anastasios (2011)		
I think it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. I believe everyone should have equal opportunities in life.	0,577			
I believe all the world's people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is important to me.	0,643			
It is important to me that things be organized and clean. I really do not like things to be a mess.	0,529	Conservation Sandy et al., (2017); Fotopoulos, Krystallis, and Anastasios (2011)		
It is important to me always to behave properly. I want to avoid doing anything people would say is wrong	0,582			
I believe I should always show respect to my parents and to older people. It is important to me to be obedient	0,554			
Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to me. I like to do things in my own original way.	0,643	Openness-to-change Sandy et al., (2017); Fotopoulos, Krystallis, and Anastasios (2011)		
I think it's important to be interested in things. I like to be curious and to try to understand all sorts of things.	0,709			
I think it is important to do lots of different things in life. I always look for new things to try.	0,709			
I like to take risks. I am always looking for adventures.	0,673			
I seek every chance I can to have fun. It is important to me to do things that give me pleasure.	0,664			

Items	Loading	Second-order factor	Reliability (Joreskog's rho)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Social Values				
I feel that those who use green brand are easily noticed by others.	0,793	<i>Conspicuous value</i> O'Cass and McEwen (2004)	0.965	0.927
Using green brand helps to show my presence to others.	0,853			
Using green brand gains the respect I receive from others.	0,802			
Using green brand helps to show who I am	0,861			
Using green brand helps to show my symbol of success	0,874	<i>Social status Values</i> O'Cass and McEwen (2004); Wiedmann, Hennigs, and Siebels (2009)		
Using green brand helps to show my symbols of prestige.	0,848			
Using green brand indicates my wealth	0,853			
Using green brand indicates my achievement	0,889			
I feel that those who use green brand are interested in status	0,820			
Social status is important to me	0,706			
Using green brand enhances my image	0,854			
Social standing is an important motivator for my consumption.	0,836			

Items	Loading	Second-order factor	Reliability (Joreskog's rho)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Individual Social Responsibility				
It would make me feel good to be a person who has these characteristics.	0,665	<i>Internal Moral Identity</i> Aquino and Reed (2002)	0.892	0.793
Being someone who has these characteristics is an important part of who I am.	0,749			
I strongly desire to have these characteristics.	0,627			
I often wear clothes that identify me as having these characteristics.	0,739			
The types of things I do in my	0,796			

spare time (e.g., hobbies) clearly identify me as having these characteristics.		<i>Symbolic Moral Identity</i> Aquino and Reed (2002)		
The kinds of books and magazines that I read identify me as having these characteristics.	0,701			
The fact that I have these characteristics is communicated to others by my membership in certain organizations.	0,745			
I am actively involved in activities that communicate to others that I have these characteristics.	0,675			

Items	Loading	Second-order factor	Reliability (Joreskog's rho)	Convergent validity (AVE)
Consumer perceptions of CSR				
X respects consumer rights beyond the legal requirements.	0,669	<i>Consumer Benefit</i> Turker (2009); Droms Hatch et al. (2015)	0.905	0.826
X provides full and accurate information about its products to its customers.	0,687			
Customer satisfaction is highly important for X	0,702			
X anticipates in activities which aim to protect and improve the quality of the natural environment.	0,790	<i>Societal Benefit</i> Turker (2009); Droms Hatch et al. (2015)		
X makes investment to create a better life for future generations.	0,755			
X implements special programs to minimize its negative impact on the natural environment.	0,746			
X targets sustainable growth which considers future generations.	0,749			
X contributes to campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society.	0,791			

b. Discriminant Validity of the second order measurement scales

	Cultural Values	Personal Values	Social Values	Individual Social Responsibility	Customer perceptions of CSR
Cultural Values	1				
Personal Values	0,409	1			
Social Values	0,229	0,347	1		
Individual Social Responsibility	0,278	0,503	0,398	1	
Customer perceptions of CSR	0,244	0,302	0,170	0,245	1
AVE	0.732	0.653	0.927	0.793	0.826

Discriminant validity of the second-order measurement scales is satisfied since the AVE (Average Variance Extracted) is greater than the square of correlations between constructs.

RESUME EN FRANÇAIS

1. Pertinence de l'étude

La prise de conscience croissante de la santé humaine et des défis environnementaux mondiaux, y compris le réchauffement climatique, la sécurité énergétique et la rareté des ressources, met l'accent sur la réduction de l'empreinte écologique humaine en passant à une consommation plus durable ainsi que sur l'espoir de développer une tendance du marché vert (Kotler, 2011; Žabkar et al., 2018). Le marché actuel qui a considérablement affecté la croissance des flux de revenus pour les entreprises est le soutien des consommateurs aux produits verts promus comme respectueux de l'environnement et la consommation des consommateurs dans ces marques vertes (Lin et al., 2017a; Papista et Dimitriadis, 2019). Les marques vertes offrent une valeur spécifique à leurs clients et fournissent un ensemble de motivations issues de la conception environnementale, des performances et de la nature altruiste, qui vise à renforcer le comportement de soutien des consommateurs envers la marque verte (Ahmad et Thyagaraj, 2015).

En effet la popularité croissante des produits verts est récemment devenue une tendance significative et devrait être un développement substantiel de la consommation. Leonidou et Skarmeas (2017) ont soutenu que la valeur du marché vert mondial a considérablement augmenté en quatre ans seulement, passant de 209 milliards de dollars en 2011 à 845 milliards de dollars en 2015. Ce marché est estimé à plus de 36 milliards de dollars en 2015. 2019 et devrait atteindre 54 milliards de dollars d'ici 2027 (Future Market Insights, 2018). L'enquête menée par Accenture en 2019 auprès de plus de 6000 consommateurs dans 11 pays d'Amérique du Nord, d'Europe et d'Asie a révélé que 72% des répondants ont actuellement acheté des produits plus respectueux de l'environnement qu'il y a cinq ans. En outre, la demande de produits écologiques qui profitent à l'environnement en réduisant les déchets, en réduisant la consommation d'eau et en réduisant la consommation d'énergie a augmenté, car 81% des répondants prévoient d'acheter plus de produits écologiques au cours des cinq prochaines années.

Pendant ce temps, la demande de cosmétiques naturels a également considérablement augmenté. La valeur marchande mondiale des cosmétiques naturels devrait augmenter de près de 34,5 milliards de dollars en 2018 à environ 54,5 milliards de dollars en 2027. De plus, la taille du marché des produits cosmétiques naturels a le potentiel de croître de 3,2 milliards de dollars en

2020-2024. Alors que l'Europe a dominé le marché des cosmétiques naturels en 2018 avec une valeur marchande de 13,06 milliards de dollars et devrait continuer à dominer au cours des prochaines années, l'Asie-Pacifique, en raison de la croissance de la population millénaire, de l'exposition et de la demande accrues de produits de beauté naturels, est également devrait stimuler la demande mondiale au cours de la période prévue. Certains pays asiatiques tels que la Chine, le Japon et la Corée étaient les principaux marchés des cosmétiques, suivis par le Vietnam qui rattrapait rapidement son retard. Au sein de la région Asie (ASIA), le Vietnam est un marché sain avec un taux de croissance élevé. Avec l'augmentation de la demande des consommateurs, le Vietnam est devenu un marché prometteur et hautement compétitif pour les fabricants de cosmétiques et abrite désormais le plus grand nombre de détaillants spécialisés dans la beauté par rapport à l'ASIA.

Il y a un changement croissant vers les produits verts et les cosmétiques verts qui stimulent la croissance du marché puisque ces produits fournissent des alternatives biologiques contenant des ingrédients naturels. La prise de conscience croissante des avantages de la consommation de produits verts est également le facteur clé de la demande croissante de produits verts/cosmétiques verts. Des niveaux plus élevés de sensibilisation poussent les personnes soucieuses de leur santé à accorder une plus grande attention à leurs choix d'achat. Les consommateurs sont progressivement passés des cosmétiques conventionnels aux cosmétiques naturels qui sont déclarés exempts de produits chimiques synthétiques ou de substances potentiellement nocives qui affectent la santé humaine. De plus, les consommateurs sont de plus en plus conscients des problèmes environnementaux et du développement durable dans leur vie. La tendance des produits verts résulte de changements globaux et d'une nouvelle forme de consommation, basée sur les principes de la conscience des consommateurs et du souci des personnes et de la planète. En outre, la croissance de cette tendance du marché a un impact positif sur les perceptions mondiales de l'industrie de la beauté sur les questions environnementales et le bien-être des consommateurs puisque les produits verts bénéficient à l'environnement et au développement durable. De plus, la nouvelle focalisation de la population sur la conscience sociale augmente. L'achat de ces produits verts est plus répandu que jamais auparavant, d'autant plus que la sensibilisation à l'environnement est de plus en plus courante parmi la génération Z et la jeune génération. Ainsi, les produits verts/cosmétiques verts motivent les consommateurs à devenir plus socialement conscients.

Les produits verts étaient auparavant remis en question ou rejetés; cependant, les

consommateurs sont de plus en plus curieux des avantages potentiels des produits verts. La préférence croissante pour les cosmétiques verts est un facteur important contribuant à la croissance du marché mondial des cosmétiques verts. En raison de la tendance continue vers les produits verts, l'industrie des cosmétiques a investi beaucoup plus dans la recherche, le développement pour stimuler ces produits et répondre aux préférences changeantes des consommateurs. Ainsi, les entreprises ont de plus en plus tenté de réagir en investissant des ressources importantes pour développer produits respectueux de l'environnement (Olsen et al., 2014) et en soulignant la pertinence de la recherche pour donner un aperçu des motivations internes des consommateurs pour l'intention d'achat écologique.

Les chercheurs et les praticiens du marketing reconnaissent de plus en plus le rôle des marques comme l'une des ressources les plus précieuses et les plus stratégiques des entreprises (Keller et Lehmann 2006); ainsi, l'image de marque est devenue une priorité de la direction. Le marketing relationnel domine la théorie du marketing contemporain (Sheth et Parvatiyar, 2000), dans laquelle la marque est un intermédiaire pour construire des relations durables avec les consommateurs. En outre, en observant ces spécificités essentielles du marché vert, cette recherche s'est concentrée sur l'intention de comportement du consommateur et la qualité de la relation client-marque dans le contexte spécifique des marques de cosmétiques verts. Comme une meilleure qualité des relations conduit à des intentions d'achat des clients plus fortes (De Cannière et al., 2010), les intentions de comportement vert sont le résultat implicite de relations consommateur-marque saines qui peuvent conduire à une plus grande fidélité aux marques vertes (Wieseke, Geigenmuller et Kraus, 2012).

2. Justification de l'étude et lacunes de la recherche

Il ne fait aucun doute que la demande de produits de beauté est de plus en plus élevée, associée à la sensibilisation croissante aux produits respectueux de l'environnement et aux effets nocifs des produits chimiques de synthèse, devrait stimuler la croissance. En outre, la croissance de la compréhension des consommateurs des effets secondaires des ingrédients contenus dans les cosmétiques sur la santé humaine et l'environnement oblige les fabricants à introduire des cosmétiques verts. La croissance de la demande de produits naturels et biologiques encourage de nouveaux fabricants à entrer sur le marché. En réponse, divers fabricants reconnaissent les préoccupations variées et pertinentes des consommateurs en se concentrant sur les lancements de

cosmétiques naturels pour gagner des parts de marché plus importantes.

Les cosmétiques verts sont fabriqués à partir d'ingrédients agricoles sans pesticides, engrais synthétiques, boues d'épuration, organismes génétiquement modifiés ou rayonnements ionisants (Ghazali et al., 2017), ou ingrédients dérivés d'animaux morts (Salo et al., 2014). Ils sont fabriqués avec des méthodes approuvées intégrant des pratiques culturelles, biologiques et mécaniques. En outre, ces méthodes favorisent le recyclage des ressources, favorisent l'équilibre écologique et préservent la biodiversité (Salo et al., 2014). Les cosmétiques verts comprennent une grande variété de soins de la peau, de produits de maquillage, de parfums composés de shampoings, de gel douche, de lotions pour le corps, de rouges à lèvres et d'huiles essentielles et d'autres.

Le développement de la relation consommateur-marque verte est une commission ardue en raison de la complexité du secteur vert (Papista et Dimitriadis, 2019). Les consommateurs sont empêchés d'acheter des produits verts en raison des barrières liées à l'augmentation des prix, de passer du temps à évaluer et à rechercher le produit (Gleim et al., 2013), ce qui conduit étroitement à l'inaction (Johnstone et Tan, 2015). Les consommateurs sont sceptiques quant à la motivation des entreprises pour l'écologisation et à la performance environnementale des produits, ce qui les dissuade d'achats verts nouveaux ou répétés (Leonidou et Skarmeas, 2017). Ces spécificités du contexte génèrent la nécessité d'identifier les facteurs qui peuvent affecter la consommation verte et présentent un cadre général pour la consommation verte (Groening et al., 2018). La croissance du marché des produits verts s'est déplacée pour se concentrer sur la construction d'une relation durable et robuste entre le consommateur et la marque verte qui nécessite un passage du concept de produit vert à la marque verte, impliquant un ensemble spécifique d'attributs et avantages liés à la réduction de l'impact environnemental du produit (Hartmann et al., 2005; Lin et al., 2017b).

Les travaux scientifiques sur les comportements pro-environnementaux ont principalement étudié les aspects conscients (conscience de la santé, cognition environnementale) et les attitudes au niveau abstrait (attitudes envers l'environnement) (Choi et Johnson, 2019; Hsu, Chang et Lin, 2016). Cependant, *il y a un manque d'études empiriques et théoriques sur la façon dont les relations consommateur-marque affectent les intentions d'achat et de plaidoyer des consommateurs pour une marque verte* (Papista, Chrysochou, Krystallis et Dimitriadis., 2018). Depuis l'introduction précoce de la relation consommateur-marque faisant référence aux interactions entre le consommateur et la marque a été présentée par Fournier (1994), cette relation

multiforme a donné de profondes suggestions pour comprendre les comportements des consommateurs chez les universitaires et les praticiens (Chaudhuri et Holbrook 2001). Une relation de marque est une partie essentielle de la vie des consommateurs puisque les relations de marque impliquent et traversent plusieurs attentes et évoluent au fil d'une série d'interactions et de changements contextuels (Fournier 1994, 1998). De plus, le contexte théorique réussi d'une relation de marque permet aux chercheurs de conceptualiser et d'examiner les liens entre les consommateurs et les marques, puis d'améliorer les connaissances sur les interactions des marques avec les comportements des consommateurs pour éclairer comment les spécialistes du marketing peuvent encourager et maintenir une relation de marque forte ainsi que garantir un développement durable, avantages compétitifs (Gummesson 2011). En outre, les spécialistes du marketing ont également souligné la nécessité d'établir une relation solide entre les consommateurs et les marques de leur choix en raison de son rôle essentiel dans la rentabilité d'une entreprise (Aaker, Fournier et Brasel, 2004; Woodside et Walser, 2007); basé sur le modèle complet de qualité de la relation de marque (BRQ) de Fournier (1998).

De plus, l'une des théories les plus influentes répondant aux différences de motivation lors d'un achat est la théorie de la valeur de consommation développée par Sheth et Parvatiyar (1995), centrée sur les valeurs de consommation qui expliquent "pourquoi les consommateurs choisissent d'acheter ou de ne pas acheter (ou d'utiliser ou ne pas utiliser) un produit spécifique". De même, les valeurs peuvent influencer différemment la fidélité des clients à une marque en exprimant "pourquoi ils choisissent cette marque plutôt qu'une autre". Le rôle des valeurs dans le développement des comportements environnementaux doit être pris en compte car les valeurs sont un facteur extrêmement important qui guide le comportement du consommateur dans le contexte du comportement environnemental (Kilbourne et Pickett, 2008).

Les relations consommateur-marque sont compliquées, ce qui entraîne des défis pour la gestion des relations de marque. En outre, la littérature existante sur la mesure de la relation de marque révèle des lacunes importantes qui existent encore dans les approches conceptuelles et empiriques (Fournier 1994). Alors que des études antérieures ont examiné divers antécédents du BRQ tels que le capital de marque, la qualité perçue de la marque et les extensions de marque (Japutra, Ekinci, Simkin et Nguyen, 2018; K. Kim, Park et J. Kim, 2014) , Yeh, Wang et Yieh (2016) ont montré un impact positif des valeurs des consommateurs et de l'identification de la marque sur la fidélité à la marque, où les consommateurs ayant de fortes valeurs émotionnelles, des attributs fonctionnels

et sociaux, ainsi qu'une identification positive de la marque, peuvent développer la fidélité à la marque. Les valeurs sont généralement comprises comme des constructions stables qui ne sont pas facilement modifiées, même si des efforts considérables sont investis (Schwartz, 2012). En conséquence, les valeurs peuvent servir de meilleurs prédicteurs du comportement; et les valeurs sont des constructions fondamentales pour comprendre et atteindre les consommateurs.

Papista et al. (2018) ont indiqué que les valeurs des consommateurs affectent directement la qualité des relations et la fidélité à la marque verte. La question relative au lien entre les valeurs du consommateur et la qualité de la relation consommateur-marque dans le contexte de la marque verte reste sans réponse. Par conséquent, cette recherche examine divers aspects de la qualité de la relation de marque dans le contexte des marques vertes en ce qui concerne les valeurs implicites des consommateurs transcendant des situations spécifiques et guidant les évaluations de comportement dans la formation des préférences et des jugements évaluatifs (Schwartz et Bilsky, 1987).

Au cours des deux dernières décennies, les demandes de la société d'être plus socialement responsables deviennent de plus en plus pertinentes, ce qui se traduit par un réchauffement climatique attribué aux activités de fabrication industrielle et à la vie humaine quotidienne (Chen, 2011). En réponse à ces demandes, dans les pays en développement et les économies émergentes, sont devenues progressivement plus conscientes des problèmes de consommation non durable et de bien-être social conduisant à la préservation des comportements de durabilité environnementale. Par conséquent, le phénomène du comportement vert a été prédominant en tant que perceptions de la responsabilité sociale qui mettent l'accent sur l'effort des individus et des entreprises (Carroll et Shabana, 2010; Malik, 2015). En outre, des recherches antérieures ont également présenté la responsabilité sociale impliquant deux branches: la responsabilité sociale individuelle (RSI) et la responsabilité sociale des entreprises (RSE) (Galaskiewicz 1991; Drom 2015), chacune se concentrant sur son propre créneau. Les individus adoptent des comportements socialement responsables pour reconnaître leurs perceptions de ce qu'ils devraient faire pour bénéficier au bien-être de la société, tandis que les entreprises se fondent sur les perceptions individuelles de leurs rôles dans la société dans son ensemble. RSI concerne les individus moraux qui souhaitent s'engager dans la responsabilité sociale dans leurs actions et faire de la société un endroit meilleur. Ainsi, les RSI peuvent conduire à une attitude positive envers les marques vertes. Alors que la RSE dans cette étude est considérée comme "les perceptions des consommateurs de

la RSE” et les “perceptions individuelles du rôle des entreprises”. Les consommateurs préfèrent se considérer comme un consommateur vert, puis associer la RSE à un produit vert/une marque verte.

De plus, les pressions croissantes exercées par une variété de parties prenantes sur l'humanité et l'environnement naturel ont persuadé les entreprises de changer leurs habitudes et de s'impliquer davantage dans des questions socialement responsables. Les entreprises doivent donc tenir compte à la fois de leur bien-être financier et de l'impact de leurs pratiques commerciales sur l'environnement (Elkington 1997). La littérature met en fin de compte l'accent sur l'importance de la responsabilité sociale des entreprises, mais il faut accorder un peu d'attention à l'aide de la recherche sur la responsabilité sociale au niveau individuel pour parvenir à une croissance à long terme et profiter de la durabilité de l'entreprise. Cet écart a été noté par Aguilera, Rupp, Williams et Ganapathi (2007); de plus, Aguinis & Glavas (2012) ont fait une revue de la RSE via une méta-analyse et ils n'ont trouvé que 4% des articles portés sur l'analyse au niveau individuel.

Un consensus fort est également documenté dans l'influence de la responsabilité sociale sur le comportement des consommateurs dans le contexte des produits verts. Cependant, *peu d'attention est accordée à la relation entre le RSI, les perceptions des consommateurs de la RSE et le BRQ*; ainsi, ces deux facettes de la responsabilité sociale sont intéressantes dans cette étude.

Bien que de nombreuses études aient documenté l'effet de la RSE sur le BRQ, on connaît *très peu de choses sur la façon dont BRQ réagit aux perceptions des consommateurs de la RSE en théorie*. En effet, les interactions des clients avec la perception de la RSE aujourd'hui ont changé en raison des soupçons sur les motivations des entreprises à faire des activités de RSE (Bondy et al., 2012). Par conséquent, il est également possible de plaider en faveur de l'effet causal inverse du BRQ sur la perception de la RSE par les clients, qui a été négligé jusqu'à présent.

En outre, des études existantes ont montré que BRQ joue également un rôle essentiel dans le succès commercial car il stimule les réponses des consommateurs à une marque en termes de volonté de payer un prix élevé (WTPP) ainsi que de bouche-à-oreille (WOM) (Nyffenegger et al., 2015) et l'intention d'achat. Un corpus distinct mais croissant de littérature a mis en évidence le rôle essentiel d'une forte qualité de relation avec la marque dans la rentabilité. Cette recherche examine *les influences du BRQ sur les réponses des consommateurs à une marque verte, qui a jusqu'à présent été largement ignorée*. Dans la mesure où les intentions de comportement vert sont le résultat implicite de relations saines entre les consommateurs et les marques, les consommateurs

peuvent démontrer une plus grande fidélité aux marques vertes (Wieseke, Geigenmuller et Kraus, 2012).

3. L'objectifs de la recherche et questions de recherche

L'importance de la recherche et les lacunes identifiées dans les études existantes offrent ensemble l'occasion d'étudier la qualité de la relation consommateur-marque dans le contexte de la marque verte. Ceci est essentiel pour établir une forte relation entre les clients et une marque verte, puis en déduire des facteurs d'intention d'achat vert des consommateurs plus significatifs.

L'objectif général de la recherche est d'étendre la littérature existante sur la qualité des relations consommateur-marque au contexte de la marque verte en développant et en examinant empiriquement un modèle causal spécifique composé d'antécédents, de médiateurs et de conséquences de la qualité de la relation consommateur-marque verte. Plus précisément, cette étude contribue à la connaissance de la qualité de la relation consommateur-marque existante à travers la pertinence de différents antécédents et les conséquences de deux composantes de BRQ (le Hot et le Cold BRQ) dans le contexte des marques vertes.

Cette recherche se concentre sur deux objectifs principaux:

Objectif 1: Étudier les antécédents de deux composantes de BRQ dans le contexte de la marque verte.

Le premier objectif est de définir certaines variables qui affectent la qualité de la relation de marque vers les marques vertes. Sur la base des arguments discutés ci-dessus, la recherche aborde la question critique des valeurs du consommateur et de la responsabilité sociale individuelle dans le contexte de la marque verte; ainsi, deux sous-objectifs sont proposés:

Sous-objectif 1a: Examiner les impacts des valeurs des consommateurs sur le hot et le cold BRQ dans le contexte des marques vertes.

Sous-objectif 1b: Déterminer le rôle des RSI sur le hot et le cold BRQ dans le cadre des marques vertes.

Objectif 2: Étudier les conséquences de deux composantes de BRQ dans le contexte de la marque verte.

Le deuxième objectif est d'étudier les relations de BRQ avec ses conséquences, telles que les perceptions des consommateurs de la RSE et l'intention de comportement des consommateurs en termes de WTPP, de WOM et d'intention d'achat de marque. Significativement, cette recherche propose un cadre de qualité de relation intégrative pour mesurer l'intention de comportement du consommateur. Par conséquent, deux autres sous-objectifs sont proposés:

Sous-objectif 2a: Déterminer le rôle de la qualité de la relation consommateur-marque sur la perception des consommateurs de la RSE dans le contexte des marques vertes

Sous-objectif 2b: Examiner les impacts de la qualité de la relation consommateur-marque sur le comportement relationnel vert du consommateur.

Sur la base de ces objectifs, les questions de recherche suivantes sont formulées:

Q1: Comment les relations consommateur-marque sont-elles construites et développées dans le contexte de la marque verte?

Q2: Comment les relations consommateur-marque encouragent-elles l'intention de comportement favorable des consommateurs envers les marques vertes?

4. Revue de littérature

*a. **La qualité de la relation à la marque (BRQ)***

BRQ est décrit comme “à la base, les relations ont un but: elles ajoutent et structurent le sens, dans la vie d'une personne” (Blackston et Lebar, 2015; Fournier 1994, 1998; Giovanis, 2017). Nyffenegger et al. (2015) montrent que les deux composants cognitive et affective de la relation à la marque (le hot/cold BRQ) sont issues d'antécédents différents et ont des conséquences différentes.

Le hot BRQ a été défini comme “a force et l'intensité des liens personnels et de la proximité du consommateur avec une marque, fondés sur les sentiments positifs que le consommateur développe pour cette marque” et reflète la dimension affective de la relation à la marque qui centre sur les émotions (Nyffenegger et al., 2015). Le hot BRQ issues de trois facettes de la théorie triangulaire de l'amour (Sternberg, 1986): la passion, l'intimité et l'engagement. La passion exprime un désir intense et un sentiment d'être incomplet si le consommateur est séparé de sa marque (Fournier,

1994). L'intimité reflète une meilleure compréhension entre le consommateur et la marque et fait référence aux sentiments de proximité, de connexion et de lien dans les relations amoureuses (Sternberg, 1986). L'engagement fait référence à une volonté de rester dans une relation durable avec la marque qui se manifeste par une *“fidélité à la marque à travers une période de bons et de mauvais moments”* (Nyffenegger et al., 2015).

Le cold BRQ reflète la dimension cognitive de la relation à la marque, reflète les croyances issues de l'évaluation de la marque, et été défini comme *“la force et la profondeur des croyances du consommateur et de ses évaluations de la performance des marques de services”* (Nyffenegger et al. 2015). Le cold BRQ est construit par des croyances pertinentes aux objets, une évaluation cognitive et des pensées sur une relation avec deux dimensions considérées: la confiance et la satisfaction. La confiance naît d'une *“connaissance accumulée”* (Johnson et Grayson, 2005) et illustre les croyances des consommateurs ainsi que les attributions d'une marque sur sa fiabilité, sa sécurité et son honnêteté (Chaudhuri et Holbrook, 2001). La satisfaction découle d'une *“évaluation cumulative”* et reflète *“une satisfaction constante à l'égard de la décision de consommer le service ou le produit sous-jacent de la marque”* (Nyffenegger et al., 2015).

b. Valeurs des consommateurs

La valeur personnelle est définie comme *“un objectif trans-situationnel souhaitable de plus ou moins grande importance, qui sert de principe directeur dans la vie d'une personne ou d'une autre entité sociale”* (Schwartz, 1994), a organisé un ensemble de dix valeurs personnelles en quatre domaines de valeurs, qui distinguent les types d'objectifs de motivation, y compris l'auto-transcendance, l'auto-amélioration, la conservation et l'ouverture au changement.

Les valeurs d'auto-transcendance font référence à l'égalité, au souci d'autrui ainsi qu'au bien-être de ceux qui l'entourent (la bienveillance), mettant l'accent sur la tolérance envers tous, un sentiment d'unité avec la nature et l'environnement (l'universalisme). Les valeurs l'auto-amélioration affichent les objectifs de l'intérêt personnel en contrôlant les personnes et les ressources (le pouvoir) ou en faisant preuve d'ambition et de réussite socialement reconnue (la réussite) (Schwartz, 1994).

Les valeurs du conservatisme démontrent des motivations pour préserver les croyances et coutumes traditionnelles (la tradition), pour observer les règles et les attentes des autres (la conformité), pour assurer la sûreté et la stabilité (la sécurité). Les valeurs d'ouverture au

changement expriment des motivations pour les pensées et les actions (l'auto-direction), la nouveauté et l'empressement (la stimulation), l'intégration de l'ouverture au changement et la valorisation de soi (l'hédonisme).

Les valeurs personnelles guident également le comportement d'un individu basé sur l'identité de soi (Sparks et Shepherd, 2002), qui mettent l'accent sur la façon dont les individus perçoivent leurs rôles dans les systèmes sociaux et les façons uniques dont ils se perçoivent dans cet ensemble de significations (Barbarossa et al., 2017).

➤ **Valeur sociale**

Les valeurs sociales sont *“l'utilité perçue d'un produit en fonction de sa capacité à améliorer son bien-être social”* (Kim et Ko, 2012). Les individus préfèrent consommer des produits verts pour démontrer leur statut et leur richesse, ce qui démontre qu'une plus grande importance perçue du statut et de la visibilité augmente la volonté d'acheter des produits qui préservent l'environnement. (Griskevicius et al., 2010).

Les individus consomment des produits spécifiques pour gagner un statut ou un prestige social (O'cass et Frost, 2002). La consommation de statut implique l'achat et l'utilisation de produits (et de marques) pour accroître le statut d'une personne, perçue ou non (Goldsmith et al., 1996). Intrinsèquement, *“le processus de motivation par lequel les individus s'efforcent d'améliorer leur statut social par la consommation ostentatoire de produits de consommation qui confèrent ou symbolisent un statut à la fois à l'individu et aux autres”* (O'cass et McEwen, 2004).

La consommation ostentatoire est la dépense du client pour un produit ou un service à prix élevé non pas pour afficher sa richesse, mais sa classe sociale (Wooliscroft et al., 2012). La consommation ostentatoire repose sur le postulat que ceux qui souhaitent démontrer leur richesse par des preuves reçoivent un traitement social préférentiel dont les effets dépendent de l'opportunité de comparer la signalisation par le prix, la quantité ou la qualité (Bagwell et Bernheim, 1996).

➤ **Valeur culturelle**

Les valeurs culturelles sont définies comme *“une conception, explicite ou implicite, distinctive d'un individu ou caractéristique d'un groupe, du désirable qui influence la sélection parmi les modes, moyens et fins d'action disponibles”* (Kluckhohn, 1951).

Les valeurs culturelles dans cette étude sont considérées selon deux dimensions: l'individualisme et le collectivisme. L'individualisme peut être largement présenté comme *“la tendance à valoriser l'individu par rapport au groupe et à donner la priorité aux objectifs personnels par rapport aux objectifs du groupe”* (McCarty et Shrum, 2001). Alors que l'individualisme donne la priorité aux objectifs personnels, le collectivisme met l'accent sur les objectifs de groupe sur les objectifs personnels. Il met l'accent sur la conformité, l'harmonie au sein du groupe, le partage, les devoirs, les obligations et décrit la relation de soi avec un groupe (Triandis, 1998).

c. Responsabilité sociale individuelle (RSI)

RSI peut être illustrée par une construction psychologique appelée identité morale qui est décrite comme *“une conception de soi organisée autour d'un ensemble de traits moraux”* (Skubinn et Herzog, 2016), serve de *“référence et de guide pour l'individu en matière de comportement moral”* (Aquino et al, 2009). RSI ont formé comme étant façonnés par différents mécanismes de motivation: l'identité morale interne et l'identité morale symbolique (Winterich et al., 2013). L'identité morale interne décrit le degré auquel les traits moraux sont au cœur du concept de soi (la notion d'un côté public), alors que l'identité morale symbolique sont exprimés publiquement à l'extérieur par les actions d'une personne dans le monde (la notion d'un côté privé) (Reynolds et Ceranic, 2007).

d. Perceptions des consommateurs de la responsabilité sociale des entreprises (RSE)

RSE est décrite comme *“RSE perçue par les consommateurs”* qu'aurait une organisation, mais elle ne saurait pas comment une organisation se présente à ses parties prenantes internes et gouvernementales. Basé sur le point de vue des parties prenantes et en se concentrant sur les consommateurs en tant que principal acteur à étudier, RSE est comprise comme la gestion stratégique de l'entreprise orientée vers les perceptions des consommateurs de la RSE. Dans cette approche, RSE est considérée comme *“les perceptions individuelles du rôle des entreprises”* comprenant deux dimensions distinctes: l'avantage pour le consommateur et l'avantage social (Droms Hatch et Stephen, 2015). L'avantage pour le consommateur fait référence au bénéfice perçu que les principaux intervenants/consommateurs tirent des produits/services de l'entreprise et d'information concernant les risques et les avantages d'un produit. Le bénéfice social exprime l'effet positif des activités d'une entreprise sur l'environnement, le bien-être de la communauté et

le développement durable (Turker, 2009a).

e. L'intention de comportement

Le WTPP est défini comme le prix excédentaire qu'un consommateur est prêt à payer pour une marque par rapport à des services / marques comparables” (Netemeyer et al., 2004). Le WTPP fait référence au montant d'argent qu'une personne est prête à payer pour obtenir une amélioration du bien-être (Aguilar et Vlosky, 2007)

Le WOM fait référence à la propagation d'informations de façon informelle entre particuliers, liée à l'évaluation de produits ou de services (Westbrook, 1987) avec moins de scepticisme que les efforts promotionnels initiés par l'entreprise (Herr et al., 1991).

L'intention d'achat écologique est “le désir d'un consommateur d'acheter le produit après avoir pris conscience qu'il s'agit d'un produit vert ou d'une marque verte” (Chen et Chang, 2012). L'intention d'achat est une tendance d'action personnelle liées à la marque (Bagozzi et Burnkrant, 1979), ainsi, les intentions d'achat de marque sont un plan conscient de l'individu pour faire un effort pour acheter une marque (Spears et Singh, 2004).

5. Méthodologie

Une approche exploratoire séquentielle combinant recherche qualitative et recherche quantitative, cette dernière étant l'approche dominante, est utilisée.

- Etude qualitative exploratoire: 20 entretiens approfondis. Pour explorer une meilleure compréhension des perceptions des consommateurs des facteurs étudiés et tenter de les comprendre du point de vue des consommateurs. Pour offrir des informations vitales pour définir les concepts théoriques et affiner le modèle conceptuel avec des aspects pertinents.

- Etude quantitative exploratoire: Enquête par questionnaire auprès de 525 participants avec deux marques de cosmétiques vertes. Utiliser PLS-SEM pour tester le cadre conceptuel et les hypothèses.

6. Résultats

a. Les variables antécédentes de la qualité de la relation à la marque

Les valeurs culturelles ont des impacts significatifs et positives sur les deux variables: les valeurs personnelles et les valeurs sociales d'une personne. Les valeurs culturelles expliquent

40,9% des valeurs personnelles (+0,639) et 22,9% des valeurs sociales (+0,479).

Les valeurs personnelles affectent directement et de manière significative le hot BRQ (+0.171) et le cold BRQ (+0.170). Elles affectent également indirectement deux composants de BRQ, qui est médiatisé par RSI. Cependant, la relation directe entre les valeurs personnelles et le hot BRQ est plus forte que la relation indirecte (+0,171 vs +0,062). De même, la relation directe entre les valeurs personnelles et le cold BRQ (+0,170) est supérieure à la relation indirecte médiée par ISR (+0,096).

Les valeurs personnelles et les valeurs sociales expliquent 57,2% de RSI. Les valeurs personnelles contribuent pour 64,117% de RSI, tandis que les valeurs sociales expliquent 35,883% de RSI.

Les valeurs sociales (ostentatoire et statut social) influencent significativement le hot et cold BRQ, affichant des contributions au R² de 69,075% pour le hot BRQ et de 53,829% pour le cold BRQ. De plus, il existe une relation indirecte entre les valeurs sociales et BRQ médiatisé par RSI; et l'effet direct est plus fort que l'effet indirect.

RSI montre des impacts positifs sur deux composants de BRQ et explique 12,868% de le hot BRQ et 24,561% de le cold BRQ. Son effet est plus positif sur le cold BRQ que sur le hot BRQ (+0,120 vs +0,186). De plus, il existe des relations indirectes entre valeurs personnelles, valeurs sociales et le cold BRQ, médiatisées par RSI. Les résultats relatifs aux effets du RSI renforcent l'importance d'une stratégie commerciale qui utilise les deux dimensions de l'identité morale pour développer de solides relations consommateur-marque et promouvoir la fidélité des consommateurs à la marque.

En ce qui concerne R² de le hot BRQ, les valeurs sociales ont la contribution la plus élevée (69,075%). Les valeurs personnelles viennent en deuxième position et expliquent 18,057% du R²; RSI explique le reste (12,868%). L'antécédent majeur de le cold BRQ est les valeurs sociales avec path coefficient=0,436, lorsque celui des valeurs personnelles est+0,267, et celui de RSI est +0,186.

b. Les variables conséquences de la qualité de la relation à la marque

Le Cold BRQ et RSI ont des influences positives sur la perception des consommateurs de la RSE, mais pas Hot BRQ. Plus précisément, Cold BRQ et RSI expliquent 36,1% des perceptions

des consommateurs de la RSE ($R^2 = 0,361$). Le BRQ froid a un effet plus important sur la RSE perçue par les consommateurs que le hot BRQ ($p = 0,473$). Le cold BRQ contribue largement à 57,677% de R^2 , tandis que le RSI expliquent 32,258%.

Le Hot BRQ a un impact direct et significatif sur WTPP ($p = 0,548$), alors que le Cold BRQ n'a pas d'impact direct. Les émotions/sentiments des consommateurs avec une marque devraient promouvoir leur volonté de faire des sacrifices financiers pour satisfaire les avantages émotionnels. Trois variables (perceptions clients de RSE, le hot BRQ et le cold BRQ) expliquent ensemble environ 62,1% de WOM, dans lequel le cold BRQ est en premier lieu avec une contribution de 45,924%, suivi par le hot BRQ (41,698%) et enfin les perceptions des consommateurs de la RSE (12,377%). Ainsi, l'antécédent majeur de WOM est le cold BRQ (path coefficient=+0,449), celui de Hot BRQ est +0,352 et celui des perceptions des consommateurs de la RSE est +0,148.

Le RSE, WTPP et WOM perçus par les consommateurs présentent des effets positifs significatifs sur l'intention d'achat de la marque verte, mais le WOM a le plus fort impact sur l'intention d'achat de la marque ($p = 0,481$) (55,365% de la contribution à R^2), suivi du WTPP ($p = 0,341$) (34,408%) et enfin RSE perçue par les consommateurs ($p = 0,131$) (10,227%).

7. Discussion des résultats

Les valeurs personnelles et sociales diffèrent dans leurs impacts sur le hot et le cold BRQ, les valeurs culturelles agissant comme un antécédent de ces deux ensembles de valeurs. Plus précisément, les consommateurs des pays plus collectivistes ont tendance à attribuer plus de valeur aux produits consommés afin de renforcer l'intégration du groupe auquel ils appartiennent et d'accorder plus d'attention aux normes de groupe que ceux des pays individualistes (Song et al., 2018). En revanche, les consommateurs des cultures individualistes ont tendance à rechercher une plus grande variété de produits pour s'approprier leur identité personnelle et moins de considération dans le développement de relations sociales avec les produits (Erdem et al., 2006). Cependant, dans le contexte des marques vertes, le collectivisme et l'individualisme n'atténuent pas les effets pertinents des collectivistes ou des individualistes sur les réponses car ils ont leur propre signification dans la consommation d'un produit vert. Ainsi, les personnes ayant un haut niveau de collectivisme ou d'individualisme sont plus attirées par une relation forte avec une marque verte.

Les valeurs personnelles ont des impacts directs et indirects sur BRQ. En conséquence, plus

les consommateurs souhaitent exprimer des valeurs personnelles, plus ils développent des relations émotionnelles et cognitives saines avec la marque. En particulier, l'ouverture au changement, l'auto-transcendance et la conservation permettent aux consommateurs de surmonter les inconvénients des produits verts et de les motiver à consommer des produits respectueux de l'environnement en raison de leurs avantages pour l'environnement et la société. L'identité verte est également un prédicteur positif et une identification perçue avec le rôle du consommateur vert, considérée comme une motivation première pour encourager les comportements pro-environnementaux. Les personnes ayant des valeurs personnelles élevées sont prêtes à consommer des produits verts et à établir des relations solides avec des marques vertes.

Les valeurs sociales influencent considérablement le hot et cold BRQ. Ainsi, plus les consommateurs désirent symboliser leur performance sociale à travers un modèle de visibilité et de statut de consommation, plus ils sont intéressés à construire des relations fortes avec des marques vertes. Ainsi, les individus qui deviennent plus conscients de l'environnement avec une marque pour améliorer leur statut social et leur richesse sont plus susceptibles d'être fidèles à la marque verte.

Le RSI montre des impacts positifs sur le hot et cold BRQ. Plus les consommateurs perçoivent l'identité morale comme leur rôle dans la responsabilité sociale, plus les relations émotionnelles et cognitives avec la marque verte sont développées. Les résultats renforcent encore l'importance d'une stratégie commerciale qui utilise les deux dimensions de l'identité morale pour développer de solides relations consommateur-marque et promouvoir la fidélité des consommateurs à la marque.

Le cold BRQ influence positivement la perception des consommateurs de la RSE. Les personnes ayant de solides relations émotionnelles et cognitives avec les marques vertes montrent une perception positive des avantages que l'entreprise apporte aux clients, à la société et au bien-être grâce à ses activités de RSE. Le cold BRQ et RSI augmenteront RSE, ce qui peut, à son tour, encourager les réponses positives des consommateurs. En tant que tel, une entreprise peut améliorer et maintenir le hot et cold BRQ pour profiter d'avantages concurrentiels.

Le hot BRQ montre une relation plus forte avec le WTPP que le cold BRQ. Ce résultat indique également que les émotions positives associées à la marque peuvent être une valeur ajoutée supplémentaire au produit d'une marque. Les entreprises doivent donc envisager l'extension des

émotions des consommateurs pour s'améliorer, de sorte que leur attachement à la marque augmente, de sorte que leur volonté de payer un prix plus élevé est plus indiquée.

Il ne fait aucun doute qu'une forte perception des relations cognitives et émotionnelles avec les consommateurs a encouragé un plus grand engagement du WOM. L'influence du cold BRQ sur WOM est plus grande que celle du hot BRQ, ce qui indique que les recommandations basées sur la cognition fournissent souvent aux consommateurs des arguments plus objectifs pour convaincre les autres, et les consommateurs préfèrent diffuser WOM sur les marques en lesquelles ils font confiance (Gremler, Gwinner et Brown, 2001).

WOM affecte fortement l'intention d'achat de la marque, WOM positif des consommateurs existants pourrait attirer de nouveaux clients pour acheter des marques vertes. Lorsque les consommateurs ne connaissent souvent pas les attributs et les avantages du produit, ou que les informations sur le produit sont moins disponibles ou moins fiables (Erdem, Swait et Valenzuela, 2006), ils peuvent croire aux marques recommandées par des proches.

8. Apports de la recherche

a. Apports théoriques

Sur le plan théorique, cette recherche contribue d'abord à la connaissance en enrichissant la littérature sur la qualité des relations avec les marques. Il alimente les travaux de marketing relationnel de marque en élargissant la compréhension du renforcement des relations. Cette recherche contribue également à la littérature sur la mesure des rôles de BRQ en identifiant et en examinant deux dimensions – le hot et cold BRQ dans l'établissement de relations.

L'étude des motivations à développer des relations consommateur-marque fait appel à la recherche sur le comportement des consommateurs. En d'autres termes, la connaissance de la relation consommateur-marque permet de mieux comprendre les relations entre les marques et les consommateurs afin de clarifier l'influence de la relation consommateur-marque sur le comportement relationnel des consommateurs.

Une autre contribution théorique est l'étude de la relation à la catégorie spécifique de produit-produits verts, cosmétiques verts et marques vertes, car la présence d'une relation de marque positive avec les produits verts et son impact sur la décision d'achat de cosmétiques verts n'a pas

été largement étudié dans le domaine du marketing vert. Cette étude contribue à intégrer la littérature existante sur la qualité de la relation consommateur-marque au contexte de la marque verte.

La thèse propose un modèle de facteurs affectant les relations durables entre les consommateurs et les marques vertes, qui fournirait aux universitaires une vision plus différenciée sur les différents antécédents de deux composantes de la qualité de la relation de marque (le hot et cold BRQ); précisément les valeurs du client et le RSI.

La recherche approfondit la compréhension des conséquences des deux composants BRQ sur les réponses des consommateurs aux produits verts. Il précise notamment les différents effets relatifs du hot et cold BRQ sur les indicateurs de la RSE perçue par les consommateurs et de l'intention de comportement des consommateurs dans le contexte des marques vertes.

Enfin, cette thèse contribue à examiner empiriquement les intentions d'achat de marques vertes avec un nouveau modèle de recherche causale représentant la croissance organisationnelle à travers différentes stratégies commerciales.

b. *Apports managériaux*

Concernant la pratique, cette thèse fournit quelques lignes directrices sur la construction et le renforcement du lien entre les consommateurs et les marques vertes.

Tout d'abord, cette étude fournit des réponses rigoureuses sur la mesure dans laquelle les entreprises gèrent de solides relations de marque avec leurs clients, sur la base des résultats de l'examen des effets des antécédents de hot et cold BRQ sur l'intention d'achat de marque verte dans un marché émergent. En d'autres termes, cette étude permet aux spécialistes du marketing de déterminer sur quels aspects de la force de la relation avec la marque les entreprises devraient se concentrer pour établir de solides relations consommateur-marque et, en fin de compte, un comportement positif envers la marque. Plus précisément, cette recherche offre au gestionnaire des informations sur la manière dont les valeurs des consommateurs et les RSI interagissent avec les marques vertes. Les résultats fournissent aux entreprises des informations sur la mise en œuvre du développement de la relation consommateur-marque et le maintien de bonnes relations.

Cette thèse fait progresser la compréhension de la façon dont une forte qualité de la relation consommateur-marque encourage la RSE perçue par les consommateurs et l'intention de

comportement des consommateurs envers les marques vertes. Les résultats aident les entreprises à mieux comprendre les réponses et les comportements d'achat complexes des consommateurs aux marques vertes et servent de référence formuler des politiques alternatives.

9. Limites de la recherche

Les antécédents potentiels et les conséquences du hot et cold BRQ sont limités à seulement trois types de valeurs, la responsabilité sociale, la volonté de payer une prime de prix, le bouche-à-oreille et l'intention d'achat de la marque.

Les concepts et leurs définitions appliqués dans cette recherche ont été extraits de la littérature précédente et n'ont pas pu être testés avec prudence dans l'enquête.

Cette thèse se concentre uniquement sur une catégorie de produits (le cosmétique vert). Il est douteux que les résultats puissent éventuellement appliquer la validité externe à d'autres catégories de produits.

Cette étude est réalisée dans un seul pays - le Vietnam - un marché émergent et en transition, notre constat ne peut être tenté de généraliser à d'autres marchés émergents ou en transition.

Les méthodes de collecte des données restent encore quelques limites méthodologiques telles que le manque de maîtrise de l'atmosphère, les malentendus des questionnaires, les biais, la taille de l'échantillon, ce qui entraîne des difficultés pour obtenir des données de recherche de haute qualité.

10. Perspectives et voies futures de recherches

Les recherches futures peuvent utiliser des valeurs alternatives comme antécédents de BRQ. Elles pourraient être extraites de la théorie des valeurs de consommation: valeur fonctionnelle, valeur conditionnelle, valeur émotionnelle et valeur épistémique; car une décision dans diverses disciplines (économie, sociologie, marketing et comportement du consommateur) peut être affectée par l'une ou l'ensemble de ces valeurs de consommation (Sheth, Newman et Gross, 1991).

Il sera intéressant de considérer d'autres variables qui pourraient influencer le hot et cold BRQ; ou des concepts découlant des conséquences du hot et cold BRQ. En tant que tel, il peut mieux

comprendre comment les fonctionnes du BRQ et quelles sont leurs relations avec d'autres variables.

Les travaux futurs pourraient améliorer la validité externe des résultats dans d'autres catégories de produits écologiques tels que les automobiles, les appareils électriques et les aliments biologiques. Divers domaines de produits pourraient également être testés, par exemple, les biens privés par rapport aux biens publics, les produits bon marché par rapport aux produits de luxe pour tester nos hypothèses avec un certain degré de généralisable.

D'autres investigations devraient porter sur des échantillons d'autres économies émergentes d'Asie. Il serait donc intéressant de tester notre modèle dans différentes cultures pour vérifier les résultats qui permettront la généralisation de nos résultats.

D'autres cadres de valeurs pourraient être utilisés, tels que les cadres de Hofstede (2011) et Trompenaars et Hampden-Turner (2012), pour examiner l'effet des valeurs basées sur diverses dimensions. En outre, les dimensions pyramidales de la responsabilité sociale de Carroll (1979) et les piliers du développement durable (économique, social et environnemental) pourraient également être examinés pour mesurer la RSE plutôt que la perspective des parties prenantes.