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PANNON MANAGEMENT REVIEW

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ZOLTÁN VERES
**EDITORIAL:
CULTURAL VALUES IN NONBUSINESS MARKETING**

**SELECTED PAPERS OF THE 22ND INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON
PUBLIC AND NONPROFIT MARKETING
University of Pannonia, Veszprem, Hungary
5th-7th July 2023**

Dear Reader,

In 2023 the University of Pannonia, Faculty of Business and Economics hosted the international representatives of the nonbusiness – public and nonprofit – marketing research. The 2023 congress on one hand continued the more than 20-year-old tradition of the International Association on Public and Nonprofit Marketing (hereafter: IAPNM), and on the other hand it integrated into the Veszprem-Balaton 2023 European Capital of Culture program series.

Foremost, we want to express our sincere thanks to everyone who contributed to the success of this event. From the presenters and panelists to the audience, their presence and participation made the Congress truly remarkable. We extend our heartfelt appreciation to the professors and scientists who have gathered in-person or online in Veszprem at the University of Pannonia to participate in the 22nd IAPNM Congress.

The congress featured multiple sessions covering research topics on marketing theory and practices in public and nonprofit areas. The participants presented applied methods, discussed solutions to promote the nonbusiness concept, innovation possibilities, stakeholder experience and so on. Together with the representatives of marketing education, marketing research and the marketing profession attending the congress in Veszprem we could make the 22nd IAPNM Congress a successful and memorable event.

This issue of the Pannon Management Review publishes selected papers from the congress. The papers are connected by the nonbusiness dimension of marketing. But under this umbrella the specific research topics are extremely diverse. Among the topics marijuana



consumption related social marketing, ethical aspects of the academic market, nonbusiness dimension of sustainability, transformative services, nonprofit marketing in emerging countries, ecolabelling, rural tourism development, prosocial behavior of generation Z, place marketing, sustainable development and brand management of non-profit cultural venues can be found. This is a truly diverse selection. Enjoy reading, Dear Reader.

Zoltan Veres

Chair of the Organizing Committee

Head of Research Centre

University of Pannonia, Faculty of Business and Economics

Veszprém

NANA AFUA KUMIWAA ASANTE & MARLIZE TERBLANCHE-SMIT

A QUALITATIVE EXPLORATION INTO YOUNG ADULTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD TESTIMONIAL FEAR APPEAL ADVERTISEMENTS TAILORED AGAINST MARIJUANA CONSUMPTION

With the decriminalization of marijuana in South Africa for private recreational use, there is the challenge of its abuse among young adults. Will fear appeal advertisements (ads) help social marketers effectively curb this problem? This qualitative paper is the first phase in an exploratory sequential mixed methods design study which seeks to explore how testimonial fear appeal ads in the form of film and animation, and type of threat would influence behavioural intention with regard to marijuana consumption. In nine focus group discussions conducted among undergraduate students at a university in Cape Town, the behaviours and attitudes of users and non-users of recreational marijuana were explored. Sixteen fear appeal ads were also evaluated to determine the experimental stimuli for Phase 2; a between-subjects post-test only 2 x 2 factorial design. Using an inductive reasoning approach, usage, access, education and advertisement testing were themes discovered across all groups. Findings suggest that university students would prefer messages that depict both the pros and cons of marijuana consumption in order for them to make informed judgements. Nevertheless, findings from Phase 1 will be integrated into Phase 2 whereby the effectiveness of selected ads on behavioural intention would be determined quantitatively.

Keywords: *Social marketing; Fear appeal; Marijuana; Testimonials*

Introduction

Background to the Study

The global wave of legalization of marijuana continues to spark controversy (Lehrer – Rheinstein, 2022). Nevertheless, substantial evidence suggests that early onset of marijuana use poses a challenge to young people, communities and national economies; and as an issue of concern, substance abuse has been listed in the third goal of the 2030 UN Sustainable Development Goals (Mokwena et al., 2021; Wong – Lin, 2019; UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2015).

Moreover, in treatment centres in South Africa, marijuana remains the primary substance of abuse among patients under the age of 20 years across all provinces with the exception of KwaZulu-Natal (Dada et al., 2021). This is a public health issue of interest to social marketers (Truong – Saunders, 2022).

According to Kubacki et al. (2015), social marketing is a framework for solving societal issues which employs key components of commercial marketing. As a result, social marketers seek to find the most effective strategies and interventions to curb the challenge of drug use and its associated consequences. Social marketing has been applied to areas such as anti-smoking campaigns, HIV/AIDS prevention, and road safety campaigns. Theories which have been used, in recent time, in social marketing include the Protection Motivation Theory, the Extended Parallel Process Model (EPPM) and the Revised Protection Motivation Model.

Often, fear appeal ads are used to encourage behavioural change (van Breda et al., 2023). Fear has been conceptualized as a negative emotional reaction to a perceived threat; and different people fear different things (LaTour – Rotfeld, 1997; Popova, 2012). It is oftentimes confused with ‘threat’ which is a depiction of an undesirable outcome of a particular behaviour such as car damage, illness, or cancer from cigarette smoking (LaTour – Rotfeld, 1997). However, it should be noted that not everyone fears the same, as different threats may elicit varied responses in diverse individuals (Lippold, et al., 2020). This may be due to certain factors such as personal traits and idiosyncrasies. Studies on the effectiveness of fear appeals have yielded contradictory findings and experimental studies must be conducted to investigate the influence of types of appeals in behavioural change (McKenzie et al., 2023).

However, while fear has been frequently used in social marketing, its ability to curb marijuana use is unknown. Hence, this paper is part of an exploratory sequential mixed methods design study which seeks to explore the impact that social marketing message format has on behavioural intentions towards marijuana consumption among young adults. Overall, the study is characterized by two phases, Phase 1 and Phase 2, which are a series of focus group discussions and a post-test only between-subjects 2 x 2 factorial experimental design, respectively. Specifically, as the first phase of the study, this paper focuses on the exploration of the behaviour and attitudes of undergraduate students at a university in Cape Town, South Africa. Participants are also tasked with the evaluation and selection of four testimonial fear appeal ads which will be used as experimental stimuli in the experiment.

Problem Statement

A key theory of interest in relation to fear appeal literature is the Extended Parallel Processing Model, proposed by (Witte, 1992). Fundamentally an extension of (Leventhal, 1970; Rogers, 1975) parallel process models and the theory of protection motivation, respectively, Witte (1992) posits that when an individual encounters a fear appeal (consisting of threat and efficacy components), the individual begins to cognitively appraise the two components which will result in either a rejection or acceptance of the desired behaviour. Additionally, it acknowledges the importance of traits of the source of message, the message recipient, the message format and content; culture; level of fear; type of fear; and self-efficacy which have the capacity to affect the effectiveness of a fear appeal message (Lemanski – Villegas, 2019; Chung – Ahn, 2013; Laroche et al., 2001; Witte – Allen, 2000).

Nevertheless, the theoretical underpinnings of this study rely on the Revised Protection Motivation Model (rPMM). Unlike the EPPM which evaluates behavioural change as a cognitive and emotional process in relation to a health-based threat, the rPMM looks at behaviour, as an outcome of aroused fear from a health-based threat, as a rational process (Arthur – Quester, 2004). The rPMM also proposes that the coping appraisal variables of perceived response efficacy and self-efficacy act as moderating factors which may strengthen or weaken the aforementioned relationships. This model has been utilized in a number of areas including smoking prevention and HIV/AIDS prevention (Terblanche-Smit – Terblanche, 2011; Arthur – Quester, 2004).

Yet, the literature pertaining to marijuana usage and fear appeals, using the rPMM, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, is scarce. Based on the aforementioned touch points of the EPPM specifically, message format (appeal and personal testimonials in film or animation), fear type (social or physical), the message source (former marijuana user), the traits of the recipient (age, personality and interpersonal influence) as well as the key components of the theory, this study seeks to identify the type of ad that will appeal to young adults in the quest of marijuana use prevention. This is important to investigate as research will not only contribute to marketing literature, but also enable social marketers to create compelling messages that will bring about a positive change in individual behaviour to empower and facilitate healthier lifestyles.

Research Objectives

The main objective of the research study is to evaluate the influence of social marketing message format pertaining to recreational marijuana use in terms of the impact on attitudes and behavioural intention, and to ascertain specifically whether fear appeals via testimonial advertising (in the form of film or animation) affects the likelihood of adopting appropriate behaviour among young adults.

This notwithstanding, the research objectives of Phase 1 are three-fold. First, to explore the behaviour of young adults in relation to marijuana consumption; to discover the attitudes young adults hold towards testimonial fear appeal ads; and to select the ad perceived as most effective for the target audience which would be used in the second phase of the study.

Research Methodology

The research philosophy adopted in this study was the pragmatist worldview with its corresponding research method, the mixed methods research (Creswell, 2014). These were chosen by virtue of the fact that “pragmatism supports using both qualitative and quantitative methods, places the research question(s) at the centre of inquiry, and links all methodological decisions to the research question(s)” (Tashakorri – Teddlie, 1998). Specifically, the design of the study is in the form of an exploratory sequential mixed method which is characterized by two phases: Phase 1 and Phase 2. Phase 1 was conducted as a focus group discussion, whereas Phase 2 will take place as a post-test only between-subjects 2 x 2 factorial experimental design. Both Phases of the study are conducted via digital platforms, namely Phase 1 via focus groups on MS Teams, and Phase 2 via e-mail invitation and a digital survey. Moreover, the population of interest includes undergraduate students at a university in Cape Town who are aged 18 years and older. Prior to data collection, sixteen fear appeal ads in the form of film and animation were created for the purpose of the study. Further details are presented in the following section.

Creation of Advertisements

Four ad concepts were designed, based on the objectives of the study, by researchers. They include: *Film advertisements indicating social threat and health threat; and Animation advertisement depicting social threat and health threat*. Each of these four concepts was developed and represented by four testimonial ads utilizing four different actors, namely, Lerato, Noah, Msinzi, and Amanda, making a total of sixteen ads.

A professional cinematographer as well as a professional animator were contracted to create eight film ads and eight similar animation ads respectively. It was pertinent that the ads be extremely similar to ensure that research outcomes have occurred because of the treatment and not as a result of extraneous variables. The following process was considered in the creation of these advertisements.

1. **Idea Generation:** The ideas stemmed from research objectives. Further, to ensure diversity in representation and gender, the films were to be acted by two male and two female actors of either white or black descent aligned with the target group.
2. **Character Development:** The ads were centred around the fictional lives of four young adults namely Lerato, Noah, Msinzi and Amanda, who have been negatively impacted by marijuana consumption in terms of health and social consequences.
3. **Development of Scripts:** Testimonial stories based on literature including risk factors facilitating consumption, and both the negative health and social consequences associated with marijuana consumption in young adults were used in developing the scripts (The National Academies of Sciences, Engineering and Medicine; Committee on the Health Effects of Marijuana; Board on Population Health and Public Health Practice; Health and Medicine Division, 2017; Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, 2021; Mokwena et al., 2021; Dykes – Casker, 2021; Sibanda – Batisai, 2021; Lehrer – Rheinstein, 2022). Each character's script contained information with regards to their background, the risk factor, frequency and mode of usage of the drug, its negative health or social effect, and why they decided to seek help (turning point).
4. **Film Creation and Editing:** Filming took place over a period of two days and subsequently edited. All ads created are approximately ninety seconds in length and present a moderate fear appeal level.
5. **Creation of Animation:** To create similar images as the film ads, the animation style chosen was rotoscoping which 'involves tracing live-action images frame-by-frame to create animated characters' (Food and Drug Administration, 2016).

Importantly, components of an advertisement as proposed by Kotler and Armstrong (2014) were taken into consideration. They include message content or advertising appeal (fear appeal), message structure (conclusion to be drawn for audience), advertising execution style (testimonial), message format (film and animation), and messenger (regular people). Additionally, for a fear appeal message to be successful, the audience must perceive the severity of the threat, that they are susceptible to the threat, that the proposed behaviour can mitigate the threat (response efficacy), and that they are capable of engaging in the specified behaviour (self-efficacy) (Witte, 1992). Fear appeal components and their representation in the created advertisements have been summarized in Table 1.

Component	Definition	Study Context
Severity of Threat	A message high in depicted severity describes the negative consequences of not taking action (Tannebaum et. al., 2015).	Depicted in audio visual format throughout the film and included either a negative health or social effect associated with marijuana consumption.
Susceptibility of Threat	A message high in depicted susceptibility emphasizes the message recipient's personal risk for negative consequences (Tannenbaum, et. al., 2015)	Presented at the end of ads depicting either a health or social threat via the text: "Research shows that young adults are more susceptible to the detrimental health (or social) effects caused by marijuana consumption."
Efficacy Component	A statement that assures message recipients that they are capable of performing the fear appeal's recommended actions (self-efficacy) and/or that performing the recommended actions will result in desirable consequences (response-efficacy) (Tannenbaum et. al., 2015).	Presented at the end of the ad via the text: "Pass it up & Dial. If you or someone you know is struggling with substance abuse, call the Centre for Student Counselling and Development on 0218084994."
Recommended Behaviour	The specific directed actions that the priority audience can take to reduce the threat (Tannenbaum et. al., 2015).	Not to use marijuana and to call the CSCD for further assistance in terms of counselling and therapy.
Audience	The Transtheoretical model posits that individuals move through six stages of change: pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, maintenance, and termination (DiClemente, 2007).	Young adults who may be engaging in risky behaviours can be classified as belonging to either of the first three stages and would respond better to fear appeal messages.

Table 1 Fear Appeal Components and their Depiction in the Advertisements

Focus Group Interviews

To recruit participants, a purposive sampling, a non-probability sampling technique, which is the 'intentional selection of informants based on their ability to elucidate a specific theme, concept, or phenomenon' was used (Robinson, 2014). Specifically, a homogenous purposive sampling technique was used to seek the views of users and non-users of marijuana. Of interest were young adults over the age of eighteen who currently live and stay in South Africa and are undergraduate students at a university in Cape Town.

The researcher created an e-flyer, with a link to the online focus group registration, which was sent to prospective participants in order to recruit them. Based on their responses to an anonymous short survey, participants were thereafter grouped into the appropriate group with regards to marijuana user status. Participants were then contacted and given details pertaining to the focus group discussion. 55 emails were sent to students who signed up, yet 22 participants attended the discussions in their assigned groups, with a response rate of 36% (9 males, and 11 females). Due to the nature of the study and the topic of interest, the response rate was not surprising. Informed consent was obtained from interested participants.

For focus group discussions, it is usually advisable to have groups based on similarity; and a minimum of one to two groups with approximately eight to ten participants each (Krueger, 1994; Burrows & Kendall, 1997). It was important for groups to be based on user status where users and ex-users of marijuana would belong to separate groups from non-users of recreational marijuana. Smaller size groups were utilized due to the sensitivity of the topic and approximated duration of the interviews. There were four separate mini groups of users who viewed either a film depicting a social threat or an animation depicting a health threat; and five separate mini groups of non-users who viewed either a film depicting a health threat or an animation showcasing a social threat. All groups were mutually exclusive of the others. These mini groups have been grouped into four main groups based on user status and ad type viewed during the discussion. In Table 2, a representation of focus groups and ads viewed has been shown.

Group Number	Number of Participants	Marijuana User Status	Message Format	Type of Threat
1	5	Users	Film	Social
2	7	Users	Animation	Health
3	4	Non-users	Film	Health
4	4	Non-users	Animation	Social

Table 2 Presentation of focus group participant distribution and advertisements viewed.

Moderation and facilitation of groups were done by one of the researchers. Data collection included virtual meeting recording, note-taking and participant observation (during the interaction). A focus group guide based on the format of a study by (Terblanche-Smit – Terblanche, 2010) was developed to moderate the discussion. Main themes discussed included: knowledge, perceptions, attitudes and behaviours pertaining to recreational marijuana use. Sub-themes such as decriminalization of marijuana, stigmatization, usage history, and ad exposure were utilized to guide the discussion. After viewing the fear appeal ads, discussions pertaining to feelings, attitudes, perceived effectiveness, and fear in relation to the ads were conducted with participants. Participants then individually voted on the ads which they perceived as most effective to influence behavioural intention. The ads which gained the most votes would then be used in the experiments in Phase 2, a between-subjects post-test only 2 x 2 factorial design, as illustrated in Figure 1.

		Type of Threat	
		Health Threat	Social Threat
Message Format	Film	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 3
	Animation	Experimental Group 2	Experimental Group 4

Figure 1 Illustration of Between-Subjects Post-Test Only 2 x 2 Factorial Design

Qualitative Analysis

As previously mentioned, the focus group discussions were conducted via Microsoft Teams. As a virtual meeting platform, MS-Teams has the added features of speech transcription and video recording; and as such, the researchers took advantage of these features. Nevertheless, by simultaneously watching the videos and reading the transcripts multiple times, the researchers were able to clean and edit any errors in the transcripts. Afterwards, the transcripts were uploaded unto Atlas.ti for the subsequent conduction of a thematic analysis.

According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting (themes) within qualitative data”. This systematic analysis provides the researcher with ‘insight into patterns of meaning (themes) across a dataset; which enables the researcher to understand collective meanings and experiences (Braun – Clarke, 2012). Additionally, (Kiger – Varpio, 2020) describe it as a method for describing data which also involves interpretation in the processes of selecting codes and constructing themes. As an exploratory sequential mixed methods design centred around the research philosophy of pragmatism, the choice of thematic analysis is ideal as it is not bound by theoretical commitments (Clarke et al., 2015).

In the present study, thematic analysis was conducted using the guide provided by Braun – Clarke (2006) which suggests six phases namely ‘familiarizing yourself with your data; generating initial codes; searching for themes; reviewing themes; defining and naming themes; and producing the report’.

Findings

Based on the main qualitative themes discussed, namely perceptions, attitude, and behaviour of young adults in relation to marijuana consumption and testimonial fear appeal ads, the following in-depth findings emerged based on sub-themes discussed.

Usage

Benefits and Dangers

On the one hand, most participants in both user and non-user groups expressed a wealth of knowledge about the benefits of marijuana consumption which ranged from physical health benefits, mental health benefits, social benefits, and for productivity while studying. For instance, in relation to physical health benefits participants stated that marijuana consumption aided better sleep, could help with relieving anxiety, pain, stress, symptoms associated with asthma, cancer, and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). A male participant said, *“I do know, like a lot of people also use it to treat like symptoms of ADHD because like I found because Ritalin is it's not for the faint of heart.”* Socially, the use of marijuana for private recreational use and also in the social context, such as at parties, was highlighted. A participant also referred to the fact that he used marijuana to speak better. Last but not least, a female participant highlighted the interpersonal differences pertaining to marijuana use and its effects. She said, *“So I think a lot of people use it, can use it differently, like the same thing differently. Some people use it as a party drug, other people use it for like pain relief or just uumm... You know, some people will take it like when they go out, other people just to like chill at home, you know. And so a lot of people have different... like uses... for the same thing. I guess it depends on how. And for some people it makes them anxious and like, it's really not. I don't enjoy it, so it depends on like how it interacts with your brain and essentially what you want out of the use for it.”*

On the other hand, participants seemed to know, to an extent, the detrimental effects of using marijuana and their responses have been classified under three main groups namely health threats, social threats, and societal threats. Some health threats listed include addiction, psychosis, anxiety, self-neglect, slows down reaction time, and an alteration in perception of reality. Controversy around the health threats of marijuana use was evident with some participants in the user group expressing disagreement with marijuana being labelled as a drug, and also its potential of leading to addiction. This misinformation is dangerous and it is important for measures to be taken by university authorities and policy makers to educate young adults on what marijuana is as well as its merits and demerits.

In some cases, some participants seemed to be confused and in denial about marijuana consumption's role in the development of lung disease and psychosis, respectively. Ironically, one participant in the non-user group, who indicated that she intended to use marijuana someday, admitted that she had no knowledge about the dangers associated with marijuana consumption.

In terms of social threats, participants described marijuana as a gateway drug which could lead users to try other drugs. It was stated that some individuals tended to use marijuana as a poor coping mechanism and could also affect motivation in others and make them skip out on their responsibilities. One female participant elaborated, *"Like I've seen some people, they're like, wake up, wake and bake as they call it, and then like, not go to class at all or just like fall behind in their classes and not take care of themselves."*

Nevertheless, unlike its benefits, most participants failed to relate the negative consequences of marijuana use to themselves. Instead, they talked about others. Three participants referenced people in their lives who had suffered mental illness. For instance, one male participant in the user group shared, *"I, I've got a relative that I've seen excessive use of marijuana or end up in a psych ward actually."* Most participants expressed the negative effects in terms of others and what they had previously heard about.

It was interesting to find out that participants, with the exception of a few who had no knowledge or were misinformed, were knowledgeable about the positive and negative effects associated with marijuana consumption.

Consumption of Marijuana and its Associated Feelings

Out of twenty participants, five participants had never consumed marijuana. Nonetheless, the remaining fifteen consisted of two participants who had tried only once in their lives, one who had used it for pain, an ex-user, and eleven who frequently used it for recreational purposes. Per the discussions, another group, which was labelled as the vulnerable non-user group, was identified as they were currently non-users of marijuana who were willing to do so in the future. According to one participant who had never used marijuana, she was looking forward to try it someday because she had just been diagnosed with anxiety. The ex-user stated: *"I only smoked. But I I'm gonna try. Still try edibles, cause my friend offered me one. Just... just for the experience, even though I've quit, I've quit. But just for the experience because."*

Feelings associated with marijuana use, such as stigmatization, were discussed as well. Personal stigmatization was not evident among participants of the user group. Yet, a few participants talked about how they initially judged users of marijuana but then once they became users that changed. For example, one male participant recounts, *"I think only now I don't. I feel like when I started using it, I stopped judging people. I used to judge people who smoke. I'll be like, hey, you guys are using drugs. OK, but now it's like, OK, we're part of the gang now. So what's up? Probably hope maybe they have some for me. You know, I don't know."*

Also, they shared accounts of how they had personally experienced it from their family, friends and strangers and also witnessed stigmatization toward other people. Some participants were adamant about continuing to keep their user status as a secret from their family members and friends who do not use marijuana. One female participant exclaimed, *"I have very strict traditional African parents. They would disown me with immediate effect!"*

Lastly, with the exception of one female, participants in the non-user group claimed, unlike others, they are not judgemental towards users of marijuana. A female participant shared, *"But then I try not to dwell on that judgment and it's just it's a knee jerk reaction, but I try to work through that, yeah."* Just like the other non-users, feelings held and behaviour towards users included sadness, care for their well-being, avoidance communication difficulties resulting in the formation of cliques among users. Additionally, participants in the non-user group were able to call out stigmatization in others but in terms of themselves, were able to provide other explanations attached to their feelings and treatment of others regarding about marijuana use.

Access

Decriminalization

Until recently, the personal use of marijuana by consenting adults was criminalized. However, it has now been decriminalized, in a ruling by the Western Cape High Court for a number of reasons including the unconstitutionality of its criminalization. Often, the terms 'legalization' and 'decriminalization' are interchanged and it is important for people living in South Africa to understand this, especially in the context of marijuana consumption. While legalization of marijuana refers to the removal of any legal prohibitions against it, decriminalization relates to 'the act of removing criminal sanctions' pertaining to marijuana use (Svrakic, et al., 2012). The implication for the decriminalization of marijuana in South Africa is that even though marijuana is still illegal, individuals would not be prosecuted within the constraints of its use as stipulated within the legal framework.

According to the Cannabis for Private Purposes Bill, 'Any persons who deal in cannabis; smokes or consumes cannabis in public place or in a private or public place but in the presence of a nonconsenting adult or child are guilty of a Class A offense, or Class D offense, respectively.' Whereas 'any person who is convicted of a Class A offense, is liable on conviction to a fine or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding 15 years or both; any person who is convicted of a Class D offense is also liable on conviction to a fine or to imprisonment not exceeding 2 years or both' (Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, 2020).

With the exception of two participants in the user group, it was evident that a majority of participants did not understand the distinction between legalization and decriminalization of marijuana. They believe that marijuana consumption is now legalized in South Africa and can be commercially acquired, and consumed both in private and in public spaces. While some non-users are of the view that decriminalization has brought about an increase in substance abuse among youth, some users (and some non-users) believed that decriminalization facilitated consumption in safer contexts. One male non-user lamented, *"I feel really bad and then it's been decriminalized in South Africa. You know, when our government, our leaders, when they*

take decisions that impact the social structure, the families, the least they can do is to get participation, public participation to say this is the decision because we do not know why did they feel the need to decriminalize it and when they took the decision, our views were never considered. Umm... And now we're dealing with the consequences. When family members end up taking it, we bear the consequences and government cannot help. People become unruly when they use the substance; they can't think straight, they can't... they get messed up, they get lost in the social fabric and government can't do anything. But they took this decision. There was a bill circulation now about entry into private properties and it's circulated for public comments. Why couldn't they give the same with this?"

On the contrary, a female user said, *"I think it's, it's changed definitely because firstly it's a lot more easy, it's easier to get it and it's a lot less like shady because I know like I can now in like I can meet up with a friend and I can get by them instead of having to do like late night with this one guy from the park. So for me, like, it's a lot safer in that regard. And it's also a lot. I feel like a lot of people are open to the idea of using it because it's not because a lot of people don't wanna be disobedient to the law. So now they be like ohh I can use it. So if I want to the option is there and they don't feel like it's illegal."*

The discussion on decriminalization gives an insight into the risky patterns of use as young adults do not seem to care or understand the legal implications of their behaviour in the context of marijuana consumption as it pertains to South Africa.

Source

Although friends were a common source of marijuana acquisition among participants it was intriguing to find out that commercial sources exist despite prohibitions stipulated in the 'Cannabis Bill'. Marijuana may be bought from other people on and near campus, 'shady' vendors on campus, a store near a major mall by the university, and an outsourced farm in the vicinity. Some of these shops were physical stores while others were virtual. In explaining what it means to outsource a farm a participant elaborated, *"So yeah, I'm actually a member at a legal cannabis club just outside of Stellenbosch that if you like, you buy a membership and then it basically like it uses the new laws that you can like grow yourself. So you basically buy a little piece of land where they grow for you and then it's like the whole restaurant... actually kind of a family restaurant. I've seen kids running around in the playground there multiple times. Uh, but then there's like a members' area where they have the THC products."*

A male participant expressed that when his housemate who was his usual source of the drug moved away, he had to go to extra lengths in order to obtain the drug. He narrated, *"...And the friend that I usually contacted was unavailable on the day, so I contacted my friend in Dubai and then I got the details of where he would get it. And so basically, this is just a guy at the taxi rank that just sells the stuff on the side. I'll I think I'm, I'm still a bit paranoid that if I go to someone on campus, they might... like it might be a trap or something. So yeah, the taxi rank guy is definitely not a known thing. It's not like heavily publicized, but yeah."*

The aforementioned sources of acquisition appear to be the norm among young adults and participants do not seem to be aware of or take the consequences of dealing with illegal merchants into consideration.

Education

Anti-Marijuana Education

In South Africa, the Department of Social Development as well as multiple organizations such as the South African National Council on Alcoholism (SANCA), and the Sister's Keeper Movement are noted for organizing campaigns and creating awareness about alcohol, substance abuse and gender-based violence. Frequently, these organizations hold events, exhibitions, and walks to educate the youth about the dangers of drug use and its associated problems. It is, therefore, not surprising that most participants, both users and non-users of marijuana had received some education- whether formal or informal about substance abuse. Usually, these campaigns take place at schools, churches, hospitals and homes and may be informal or informal. Further, the education may be generalized and not necessarily centred on marijuana consumption. A male from the user group recalls, *"Yeah. Yeah, we had, like a lot of substance abuse, substance abusers, talk talks at school, but never specifically on marijuana, just substance in general"*.

Informally, messages pertaining to marijuana consumption are usually based on the negative mental health effects of others. This type of informal education is usually given by parents and elders in the society. Per a male participant in the non-user group *"I've never had formal education on it. It was more like a family thing, like a community thing. When even when I was young, when people were pointed out that the person is like this is because he takes marijuana, he takes, he smokes cigarettes and smokes. Yeah."*

As many young adults and teens spend a lot of their time on social media, it cannot be ignored as a platform for education- whether formal or informal. A male participant recalled seeing a video on TikTok which explained the benefits of using marijuana in moderation: *"If I'm not mistaken, that the person was just explaining some of the benefits of like, not really over overusing. Of like when you do it in in small amounts."* Though this is not exactly a message against marijuana consumption, it teaches about the dangers in overusing.

Yet, it is important to note that one female participant classified as a vulnerable non-user mentioned that she had never received any form of anti-marijuana education.

Anti-Marijuana Education Effectiveness

The effectiveness of anti-marijuana messages was also explored. Across the participant groups, three themes emerged with regards to message effectiveness namely complete effectiveness, ineffectiveness, and partial effectiveness.

As expected, participants in the non-user group who had received anti-marijuana education in the past and were not interested in using marijuana in the future, agreed that these messages had been personally effective. However, one female made the distinction about

personal effectiveness and effectiveness in others as not everyone in her primary school group had abstained from drug use. She also attributed personal factors such as her moral code and religion as factors for not engaging in substance use and abuse: *"So I would say yeah, the that formal in the classroom teaching was somewhat effective for me, but more so it's my moral, my own personal moral positions and beliefs that really like, solidify my position."*

In contrast, past anti-marijuana or substance abuse messages were deemed ineffective by a majority of participants in the user group who have previously been educated about the dangers or marijuana consumption. As one male participant mentioned, *"The messages against the weed. Umm.... I mean, I get it. Well, they... they were not effective. I don't think they were effective well."*

Interestingly though, previous education tailored towards the prevention of substance abuse were perceived as partially effective. In this situation, the messages were effective up to the point at which participants decided to use marijuana. One female participant explains how she began using alcohol in university after being scared to use it as a teenager: *"The education tactics that are currently used when teaching in like high school is particularly... I'll give an example out of it. For example, it's usually scare tactics. I remember in high school they showed us a liver that had the sores and they like. This is what's gonna happen if you drink. And I never touched alcohol till I got to university. So I think if they changed the approach rather and it comes from a more educational point of view from someone who actually does partake in smoking or like taking marijuana themselves, and they can speak from personal experience. Then that will be a much better educational experience than just saying don't smoke because of all the bad reasons and you don't actually mention any good reasons. So I think it's better to leave the kids making informed decision."*

Advertising

At the end of the first part of the focus group discussion, prior to the advertisement testing stage, participants were asked about how exposed they were to ads in general and then specifically, in reference to marijuana ads. It was revealed that participants were exposed to ads multiple times every day on various formats, ranging from television, cellular phones, social media, bill boards and on the radio. According to a female user: *"... So it depends where you are. 'cause if you are in like a city centre right, you find out there're ads at the back of buses, there're ads on walls, there're ads, on billboards everywhere. So you see stuff without actually wanting to see them. And with us that spend so much time on devices, you see ads on YouTube video. Some ads are actually embedded in the actual video. You see ads on Instagram. So like social media in general. So yeah, you are exposed to ads whether you like it or not."*

On the contrary, across all groups, no participant had ever seen an anti-marijuana advertisement. Nonetheless, a female non-user expressed that though she had not seen any anti-marijuana ads in the past, she had seen a promotion ad before: *"I wouldn't. I wouldn't. I don't think so. Unless maybe it was advertising for may be [store] to like selling products basically. But otherwise messages. No, I don't think so."*

Advertisement Testing

During the advertisement testing stage of the focus group discussions, sixteen ads were evaluated by all the participants to determine the testimonial fear appeal ad which was perceived as the most effective. In the end, based on perceived effectiveness, perceived level of fear, and a ranking done by participants, “Noah’s” ads, were ranked as the most effective ads. In Table 3, a summary of participants’ perceptions and attitudes, perceived self-relevance, ad comprehension and behaviour change are presented.

No.	Ad. Type	Attitudes and Feelings	Main message	Self-Relevance	Behavioural Intent
1.	Film with Social Threat (viewed by user group 1).	More than Lerato; Realistic environment; Ad dislike.	Clear message: Negative consequences; Abstinence; Driving while high; Seek help.	Likely; No; Other relevance.	No. Effective for others.
2.	Animation with Social Threat (viewed by non-user group 4).	Regret; Music; Sad; Impact of story harsher than Lerato’s; Ad liking.	Clear message; Abstinence; Don’t get high and drive; Accountability; Be responsible.	Relevant.	Reinforced position on abstaining from marijuana use.
3.	Film with Health Threat (viewed by non-user group 3).	Fear; Powerful; Emotional; Regret; Empathy; Better than Lerato’s ad; Specific effects stated; hopeful; Cinematic; Underlying issues; Consistency in the message.	Clear message; Negative effects of using marijuana; Seek help	Relevant; Likely; No; No, (due to age); No (not experienced that).	Likely; Effective; Reinforced position on abstaining from marijuana use.
4.	Animation with Health Threat (viewed by user group 2).	Better and more scary than Lerato’s; Dramatic music; Realistic; Gateway drug; Underlying issues.	Clear message; Negative effects of marijuana; Abstinence.	Relevant; Likely; Unrelated.	No; Yes.

Table 3 Summary of Evaluation of Noah’s Advertisements

A brief overview of the advertisement testing in reference to Table 3 is presented in the following.

Noah's Film Ad (Social Threat)

Firstly, for participants in Group 1 who viewed Noah's film ad in which he talks about the social threats associated with marijuana use, even though they disliked the ad, they ranked it as better than Lerato's ad. It was also mentioned that the ad seemed to have taken place in a realistic environment which made it potentially relevant for others. Moreover, despite the fact that participants held negative feelings toward the ad, they perceived it as the most effective ad in influencing behavioural change in others. In an explanation, one female participant said, *"I think for like even if like some of them I don't like, it might be because like I know... like I've had other experiences, but I... like for someone maybe who doesn't have the same experiences... [as I do] ... for me. I also think the second one would be quite effective."*

Noah's Animation Ad (Social Threat)

Furthermore, per the evaluation of participants in Group 4, who were non-users of marijuana, Noah's animation ad which highlights the social threats stemming from marijuana consumption, were seen in a favourable light in comparison with the film version. The impact of Noah's story was viewed as harsher than Lerato's ad. While participants felt a sense on regret in Noah as he shared his experience, in addition to the choice of music used, participants were filled with sadness. When asked about feeling held towards the ad, a female participant responded, *"Regret. I feel the regret... the impact on someone else's life that is sad because it didn't affect his life. But he ruined someone else's life."* Lastly, participants mentioned that they could relate with Noah and this reinforced their decision to abstain from consuming marijuana.

Comparing the findings from both film and animation ads which showcased the social threats of marijuana use, the general evaluation in terms of feelings, attitudes, and message comprehension were similar. However, in terms of ad liking and behavioural change, the responses were different. This may be due to the fact that the participant groups were made up of users and non-users.

Noah's Film Ad (Health Threat)

Next, non-user group 3's evaluation of Noah's film ad depicting a health threat is as follows. Just like in the previous groups, this ad was perceived to be better than Lerato's ad. According to participants, this was due to the fact that specific negative side effects were stated by Noah. One female participant said, *"Yeah, this one, this one showed the guy being more specific about the effects of the marijuana had physically on him. So he described how it affected his memory and it described also the nature of his addiction. He said he couldn't go a day without doing it."* The ad also evoked fear in some participants for themselves, as

well as for others and was described as powerful and emotional. In addition, participants were aware of Noah's regret and were filled with empathy towards him: *"I think it invokes a lot of empathy because it's a younger person and also experience you care. But I think towards the end of the message it is quite positive and hopeful and yeah, it's a bit lighter than the last."* The ad drew participant's attention to the fact that for someone to start using marijuana at such a young age, there might have been some underlying issues that led to the behaviour, which must be addressed. Nonetheless, one participant expressed her misgivings about the fact that the ad was quite cinematic and would have preferred to hear a more serious message as opposed to one which had been dramatized. In the end, the ads were perceived as relatable for some participants as well as others; and non-relatable for other participants as a result of age and a lack of experience with the drug. However, in the end, participant views on abstinence from marijuana consumption were reinforced and the ads were perceived to be most likely effective among vulnerable users and non-users of marijuana.

Noah's Animation Ad (Health Threat)

Last but not least was the assessment of Noah's animation ad addressing health threat, similar to the other version in film. In this assessment done by user group 2, the ad was perceived as scarier and more than Lerato's ad. The ad was said to be realistic and the dramatic music aided in evoking fear among participants. Per the earlier discussion, participants had classified marijuana as a gateway drug and as such, when this was alluded to in the ad, they were in agreement with the message. Participants observed that Noah may have been undergoing some challenges as a child, due to the early age of onset of use. As such, in order to prevent the early onset of marijuana use among children, it is important to address the challenges they face which may inevitably lead them to indulging in the behaviour. Consistent with the other groups, while some participants found the ads to be self-relevant (or relatable), other participants thought otherwise. Nevertheless, it was agreed that the ads would be relevant for some other people. Asked whether participants' attitudes toward marijuana had changed, one male participant who seemed to be emotionally impacted by the ad stated, *"It all depends if, if things start. If I see myself trying to rely on it, I might just have to look for help to stop before I, I get any addictions or it gets too bad. You know, and try and look for other ways to, to kind of deal with those stressors instead of like trying to smoke. Or maybe because I, I see some people say you know, 'I smoke to sleep better because I, I can't sleep that well', but smoking OK, not just smoke like even like OK, cause consuming marijuana gives you like these paranoid thoughts and yeah, I struggle a lot with those. So like I'm, I'm, I don't know. I think for me I might be taking it as a... as, as, as a wakeup call. You know, maybe, maybe I'm. I'm a Christian. Maybe God is talking to me in in this in this way. So yes, those are my thoughts."*

Moreover, consistent with the other groups, while some participants did not find the ad to be self-relevant (relatable), it was agreed that the ad would be relevant for some other people. The aforementioned male participant admitted that he would change his behaviour saying, *"Yes, yes it is, because I myself, um... I just changed my behaviour to be honest."*

Finally, in comparing the findings of the evaluation of both film and animation health threat ads, there was some similarity regarding attitudes and feelings toward the ad, the message and self-relevance. Variations existed when it came to behavioural intention. For instance, while there was reinforcement in attitudes and behaviour among non-users, most users did not find the ads to be personally effective. Overall, there was a general agreement into how the ads were perceived with differences in relevance and behavioural change occurring as a factor of user status and age.

In conclusion, as previously stated, the selected ads will be utilized as experimental stimuli for Phase 2 of this study to determine the effects that message format, and type of threat on behavioural intentions toward marijuana consumption among young adults.

Discussion and Conclusion

From the findings, it is evident that fear appeal messages alone are not adequate to help solve the problem of marijuana abuse in young adults. Hence, comprehensive social marketing efforts tailored towards education about marijuana consumption among young adults is much needed. Important areas of education include health, decriminalization, and de-stigmatization. There is also the need for social marketers to undertake research in understanding their target audience. Not only will this help in segmentation, it will also aid in the development of an integrated marketing communication campaign aimed at the prevention of marijuana use and abuse in young people. Brief discussions have been presented in the following.

In line with recommendations by (Popova, et al., 2017), health educational campaigns could be created to educate young adults on the pros and cons of using marijuana, and to dispel myths surrounding the drug which will enable them make informed choices. It is also important for young adults to be informed about strategies which are useful for minimizing the risks associated with marijuana such as the avoidance of frequent marijuana inhalation through joints and the use synthetic cannabinoids which may have increased potency (Sinnatamby et al., 2020). Education should also be aimed at encouraging professional psychological help-seeking in which young adults would be able to get the help they need and to adopt healthy coping mechanisms.

Similar to the findings by (Amroussia et al., 2020), young adults mistaking decriminalization for legalization perceived that decriminalization created 'a context where cannabis use was legally, socially and behaviourally safer than in an illegal context'. Hence, they engaged in risky behaviours such as consuming in public places, and purchasing from vendors without realizing that these behaviours are contrary to the law. Legal education about the Cannabis Bill in South Africa must be given to young adults in order for them to consume marijuana within the framework of the law- should they decide to do so.

Thirdly, being an illicit drug in many countries, marijuana use has been stigmatized for many decades and is especially high in countries with punitive cannabis policy (Skliamis et al., 2022). Hence, for people dealing with substance use disorders, stigmatization has been found to result in the avoidance of services, emotional distress, isolation and loneliness' (Douglass, et

al., 2023). These negative attitudes can be reduced in students through education on the effects of stigmatization, in training in substance use disorders, how to be allies to other young adults who may be struggling with addiction by being empathetic and recommending psychological help seeking.

Lastly, in any marketing strategy segmentation is key to the determination of the target audience. Per the findings and ad responses observed in the discussions, it is important to note that differences may exist as a result of age, gender, family role and marijuana user status (such as users, non-users and vulnerable non-users). Once the target audience is identified, the social marketer must engage in research independently and in collaboration with the target to understand their needs, wants and demands. It is after the gaps have been identified that the social marketer can develop a thorough integrated marketing mix aimed at the prevention of marijuana use.

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AN ETHICAL PERSPECTIVE ON UNIVERSITY MARKETISATION

Increasingly, more universities are active players in the academic market, competing both for domestic and foreign students, as well as for funding. The marketization of universities is associated not only with the quality of academics and curricula, the diversity of programs and services, provided, and the infrastructure but also with its reputation. Ethics is not only an important component of the university's reputation but also a factor influencing students' activity and formation. The paper presents the results of an investigation into students' perceptions of academic ethics at a Romanian university. The questionnaire concerned academic ethical values, academic fraud, and students' ethical behaviour. Overall, the replies indicate students' moderate understanding of and agreement with the academic values and awareness of the university's formal ethical instruments. Nevertheless, the figures indicate that the university's teaching and promoting its ethical academic values, behaviours, and instruments should be enhanced.

Introduction

Following the socioeconomic trends, universities must adapt to the demand and become active players in the academic market. They must compete for students and funds by marketing high-quality, relevant curricula and research, and enhanced customized services. Despite such a competitive approach, trade-offs may be involved, as various factors, such as reputation, availability, variety of programs and services, associated costs, distance, and so on, may influence student orientation. Reputable universities tend to attract higher-quality academics (Zanardello, 2023) and in turn, they rank high in student desirability. However, in recent decades, in Europe included, universities have started taking a more entrepreneurial stance (Kwiek, 2008) to attract financial resources while aiming to balance their programs' relevance, extended relations with the private sector, academic research, and career opportunities for (new) academic fellows.

Universities are usually characterized by hierarchical and elitist values as well as by prizing seniority (Zanardello, 2023). This can lead to organizational narcissism favouring legitimacy over accountability and may enhance academic misconduct and negatively impact well-being (Vargo, 2022). Such phenomena may be enhanced by the marketisation of academia (Lynch, 2006). Furthermore, integrity and credibility may be affected as academic rigor and ethical accountability are under pressure. In addition, abusive supervision, bullying, or

academic mobbing may occur against colleagues who tend to voice ethical concerns (Keashly, 2019; Iloh, 2021). Moreover, the research output is quintessential for academic promotion and reputation. Thus, research misconduct is often justified through the pressure to publish and obtain grants (DuBois et al., 2013; Holtfreter et al., 2019). The staff's unethical behaviour is then transferred to students, who are under constraints imposed by the academic personnel, or to junior researchers by their supervisors (Wagena, 2005).

Considering this framework, the present investigation aims to contribute to the understanding of the way students perceive academic ethics and values and the popularity of formal ethical instruments. Standardized surveys on academic ethics are not easily available and this study attempts to provide a perspective on the topic based on data retrieved during quantitative research. The survey aimed at one of the most dynamic universities in Romania, encompassing students from all specializations within the university, ranging from public administration and management studies to political studies and communication sciences. The investigation helps decision-makers of the university better cope with ethical aspects, better design the educational processes, as well as better design marketing programs for more relevant messages and approaches.

Literature review

Ethics and the marketisation of universities

The latest challenges that universities all over the world are facing in a fast-pacing environment are leading towards a competitive marketplace, forcing them to improve their offer, both from an educational and marketing point of view. This highly competitive marketplace also led to brand development for higher education institutions, for them to gain and maintain a competitive advantage over other educational institutions (Waeraas – Solbakk, 2008). Among other important areas in which universities try to perform to gain this competitive advantage is ethics. Universities have to satisfy the conditions of existence of the social system that comprises its organization since only continuity and the development of the social system will allow organizations to maintain their equilibrium as a long-lasting institution of individuals (Mella – Gazzola, 2015).

When mentioning ethics and marketisation of universities, one has to imply university reputation, defined as the sum of the impressions received by stakeholders from the communication and interaction they have with the university (Rindova et al., 2005). Identical to organizational reputation, a positive reputation needs time to be consolidated, therefore, institutional commitment to excellence in both research and educational processes is needed (Mateus – Acosta, 2022). Alumni are important stakeholders of higher education institutions, those who are committed to acting as advocates and ambassadors by providing positive word-of-mouth (WOM) and increasing the chances of attracting partners and new students (Toledo – Martínez, 2018). Among other subjects, university brand image is a key factor in influencing alumni WOM intentions (Schlesinger et al., 2020).

In particular, public opinion expects scientific research to be in the service of society and certainly not to be a topic of controversy (Taebi et al., 2019). An important indicator for measuring social relevance is the willingness of the industry to invest in research, this investment being marketable and, hence, socially relevant. However, the main issue with ethics is that it is perceived by the students as a marginal requirement to be fulfilled, although it is a central component (Sunderland, 2019). Some studies have shown that despite the amount of research on academic misconduct and plagiarism in HE, academic staff responses to student plagiarism appear to remain varied, inconsistent, and not aligned with the responses expected by their institutions and that the reasons for such inconsistencies and the strategies adopted for addressing this issue remain unclear (de Maio et al., 2019). Studies show that 64 per cent of the articles published in discourse analysis-oriented journals related to human and social sciences as well as to information systems and research health between 2017 and 2020 did not discuss ethical issues (Stommel – de Rijk, 2021).

Ethical behaviour in universities

Student unethical behaviour comprises various actions, such as copying, providing test or assignment answers to other students, plagiarism, and so on. In the latter case, the causes could be diverse: lack of confidence, lack of time, envisaged rewards for high-quality output, or even ignorance in citing sources (Martin et al., 2011). Moreover, it has been stressed that online learning during the Covid-19 pandemic has facilitated students' dishonest academic behaviour and indiscipline (plagiarism, cheating, etc.) in a lack of face-to-face supervision (Muassomah et al., 2022).

Miscellaneous authors have noted an increased propensity for cheating among business students, raising the issue of the university's responsibility for students' ethical development (McCabe et al., 2006; May et al., 2014; Hanson et al., 2017). Consequently, students benefit from an ethical institutional commitment by acquiring a sense of responsibility (McCabe et al., 2006). Hanson and Moore (2013) found that internalized ideals and beliefs, institutional expectations, influential stakeholders, university experiences, and academic context affect students' ethical decision-making. Therefore, universities must design a broad student development plan, engaging them through various aspects of the university experience, from the teaching/learning dimension to social and service ones (tutoring, group projects, community events, etc.), leading up to job opportunities. Like businesses, universities should develop their infrastructure for reinforcing ethical values and behaviours, e.g., training, designated points of contact for ethical advice, and transparent procedures for reporting misconduct (Kelley et al., 2006).

To achieve their ethical education mission and avoid dissonance (Bruhn, 2008) between ethical expectations and perceptions, universities must uphold values such as honesty, integrity, and fairness and promote ethical behaviour and rule enforcement. Observance of ethical values and formalized ethical instruments like rules and policies were deemed valuable by students interviewed by Hanson and Moore (2013) since they facilitate clarity and guide compliance in student behaviour. Moreover, the academic staff's modelling role was highlighted by the

students, who appreciated faculty members' commitment - showing they care - and leading by example and thus promoting high ethical standards themselves.

Hoffman's model of the moral development process starts with raising ethical awareness, which drives the acquisition of ethical reasoning skills, leading to ethical action, and ends with ethical leadership. The latter is confirmed when ethical reasoning is followed by sound ethical decisions (Painter-Morland et al., 2003). It has been highlighted in the literature that ethical values acquired or reinforced during university studies translate into workplace behaviour, and thus (business) students' moral development strongly impacts their work future (Hanson et al., 2017). Universities have, therefore, both an influential role and a responsibility in this respect, as it is conceived that schools are moral education establishments by nature, facilitating moral efficacy and courage (May et al., 2014).

Plante and McCreadie (2019) developed an ethics survey, which they tested in the academic environment (Santa Clara Ethics Scale). Yeung and Keup (2009) surveyed how students' beliefs affect their ethical values and behaviours. The authors found that these learners' perceptions of peer and staff convictions and conduct are informing their ethical decision-making. Thus, universities and academic staff can influence students' moral attitudes, develop and reinforce ethical decision-making skills and practices.

Methodology

A survey was administered online to students from the undergraduate and master programs of a Romanian university between November 2022 and January 2023. The inquiry was part of a project regarding online teaching during the Covid-19 pandemic. 539 students from five faculties (with specialization in management, communication & PR, political sciences, public administration, and international relations) provided answers anonymously. Respondents were asked to express their agreement with eleven statements by employing a Likert scale from 1 to 5, corresponding to the following levels: "strongly agree", "agree", "neutral", "disagree" and "strongly disagree".

The questionnaire concerned the variables grouped into three scales, representing academic ethical values, plagiarism, and academic fraudulent behaviours, which included several items adapted from Plante and McCreadie (2019) and Yeung and Keup (2009). Apart from demographic data (e.g., gender, specialization/faculty, cycle and year of studies, job status/employment), items included knowledge about the university's ethical code of academic research and integrity, taking responsibility for mistakes, ethical/unethical behaviours, plagiarism, and fraudulent behaviours. Table 1 presents the three scales considered.

Scale	Code	Item
Plagiarism	P1 copy	<i>Copying information available online or in printed materials and using it without quotation marks and without indicating the source, constitutes plagiarism and must be punished.</i>
	P2 translation	<i>Using material available online or in printed materials without using quotation marks and without indicating the source constitutes plagiarism, even if it is translated by me.</i>
	P3 self-plagiarism	<i>Reusing the same materials previously used for other projects constitutes self-plagiarism and should be punished.</i>
Academic fraud behaviour	AF1 testing	<i>Fraudulently passing a test, helping a colleague to do so, or including false data in a paper, constitutes cheating and should be punished.</i>
	AF2 integrity	<i>Being honest and maintaining my integrity, even when it might put me at a disadvantage, is important to me.</i>
	AF3 code	<i>I am aware of the university's Code of Ethics provisions regarding research ethics and intellectual correctness.</i>
Ethical values	EV1 responsibility	<i>Being responsible for my actions and admitting when I'm wrong is important to me.</i>
	EV2 respect	<i>Respecting others, even if I don't agree with them, is important to me.</i>
	EV3 lie	<i>Lying to teaching staff in connection with the conduct of university work is not contrary to ethical principles.*</i>
	EV4 academic	<i>Preventing other students from carrying out their university activities is not contrary to ethical principles.*</i>

* reverse scale

Table 1 Academic ethics scales

Source: partially adapted from Plante and McCreadie (2019) and Yeung and Keup (2009).

The retrieved data were analysed using descriptive statistics (i.e., frequency distributions and counts) by utilizing SPSS 20, and Cronbach's alpha was used as an indicator for construct reliability. An overview of the survey items and the corresponding statistical values can be found in Table 2.

	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
Plagiarism	.701	.710	3
Academic fraud	.594	.595	3
Ethical values	.650	.663	4

Table 2 Cronbach's Alpha, %. Reliability Statistics

Table 2 shows the internal reliability of the scales used. In the case of the Plagiarism scale, the internal consistency reliability is 70 per cent. For academic fraud, the reliability is lower, at almost 60 per cent. This is the lowest value, which would improve a little to 65 per cent by extracting the last item from the scale, the familiarity with the Code of Ethics. The ethical values scale revealed a reliability score of 65 per cent.

Findings

Demographics

The sample consists of 539 students from five different main programs at a Romanian university. Both undergraduate and postgraduate students are well represented. Most responding students are women. Half of the respondents are currently unemployed. More details about the sample are available in Table 3.

		Frequency	Percent
Faculty	FM	202	37.5
	FCRP	165	30.6
	FAP	65	12.1
	FSP	99	18.4
	DRIE	8	1.5
Study year	Undergrad 1	62	11.5
	Undergrad 2	165	30.6
	Undergrad 3	128	23.7
	Master 1	88	16.3
	Master 2	96	17.8
Gender	man	126	23.4
	woman	413	76.6
employment	full-time employment	182	33.8
	part-time employment	85	15.8
	unemployed	272	50.5

Table 3 Sample structure

Main results and discussions

Table 4 presents the mean scores for the three scales included in the survey.

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Plagiarism	2.390	1.950	3.017	1.067	1.547	.310	3
Academic fraud	1.980	1.679	2.158	.479	1.285	.069	3
Ethical values	2.105	1.566	2.709	1.143	1.730	.336	4

Table 4 The mean scores for the three scales

For all items scores range from 1 to 5, showing a wide range of attitudes and values, from unethical to very ethical. The lower the score, the more ethical attitude the respondents display. The highest score was detected for item P3 Self-plagiarism (mean = 3.02), followed by EV3 Lie (reverse mean score = 2.71) and EV4 Academic (reverse mean score = 2.49). Interestingly, the score for the declared behaviour shows a higher ethical approach compared to the score for the assumed ethical values.

The mean scores obtained for investigated items are presented in Table 5.

		Mean	Std. Deviation
Plagiarism	P1_copy	1.95	1.351
	P2_translation	2.20	1.366
	P3_selfplagiarism	3.02	1.496
Academic fraud	AF1_testing	2.16	1.355
	AF2_integrity	1.68	1.185
	AF3_code	2.10	1.262
Ethical values	EV1_responsibility	1.57	1.160
	EV2_respect	1.65	1.184
	EV3_lie	2.71	1.608
	EV4_academic	2.49	1.563

Table 5 The mean scores for all items

In general, there are no significant differences between women and men. The exception is registered in the case of P2 Translation. Women prove to be more ethical than men, registering also a lower standard deviation score. The independent sample T-test revealed a significant difference between men ($M = 2.42$, $SD = 1.416$) and women ($M = 2.14$, $SD = 1.345$); $t(537) = 2.039$, $p = .042$. Some differences also were registered concerning the attitude towards P3 Self-plagiarism, with women displaying a better understanding than men. Still, the difference is not statistically validated. The same situation is registered for EV2 Respect. Data shows that women tend to report more ethically than men.

We also aimed to see if there are significant differences in opinions and attitudes of students considering their specialization. One-way ANOVA test shows significant differences in the case of P1 copy, P2 translation, AF1 Testing, EV3 Lie, and EV4 Academic.

Figure 1 presents the means plots for these items.

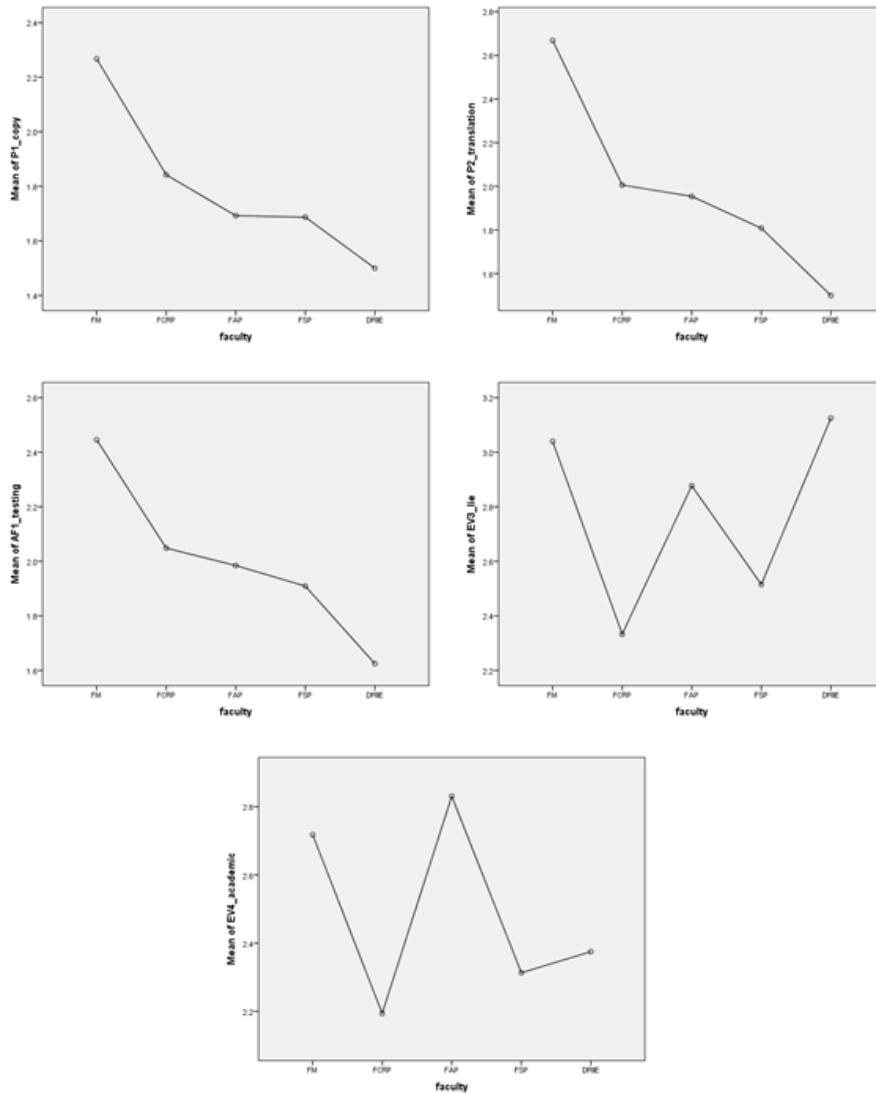


Figure 1 Means plots *Faculty

The post hoc tests show that students in management studies declare less ethical attitudes compared to students in Communication sciences, Political Studies, and Public Administration in the case of P1 copy, P2 translation, and AF1 Testing. In the case of EV3 Lie and EV4 Academic, the differences between students in different faculties are mixed as Image 1 shows. The sample of students from International relations is too small for significant statistics.

In the next step, we checked the differences between respondents, considering the years of academic experience. We supposed that the longer enrolled in academia students would be more attentive to ethical aspects. This expectation partially was confirmed by the One-Way ANOVA tests run. Significant differences have been observed for EV3 Lie, and EV4 Academic, as presented in Figure 2.

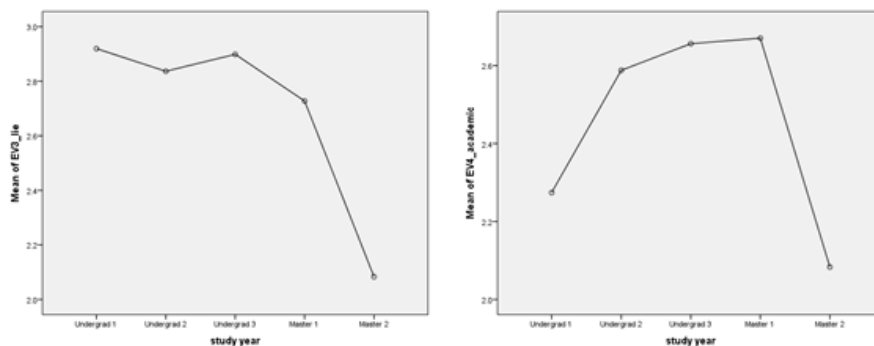


Figure 2 Means plot * Study year

We also mention that in the case of all items associated with the Plagiarism scale the students in the first year of studies systematically reported less ethical opinions, but the differences are not statistically validated. There is no significant differentiation considering the employment status of the respondents.

A Pearson's r test shows various correlations between items, presented in Table 6. This is not surprising considering the internal consistency of the scales. We mention that some correlations are observed also between scales, which show consistency in many cases between declared values, attitudes, and behaviours.

Correlations											
		P1	P2	P3	AF1	AF2	AF3	EV1	EV2	EV3	EV4
P1_ copy	Pearson Correlation	1	.743**	.264**	.574**	.587**	.184**	.626**	.530**	.075	.105*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.080	.015
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539
P2_ translation	Pearson Correlation	.743**	1	.341**	.573**	.503**	.213**	.516**	.428**	.070	.090*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.103	.038
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539
P3_ selfplagi- arism	Pearson Correlation	.264**	.341**	1	.372**	.095*	.184**	.069	.052	-.020	-.073
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.027	.000	.0107	.232	.637	.092
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539
AF1_ testing	Pearson Correlation	.574**	.573**	.372**	1	.488**	.260**	.498**	.421**	.032	.074
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.455	.087
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539
AF2_ integrity	Pearson Correlation	.587**	.503**	.095*	.488*	1	.239**	.912**	.802**	.044	.115**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.027	.000		.000	.000	.000	.303	.007
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539
AF3_ code	Pearson Correlation	.184**	.213**	.184**	.260**	.239**	1	.259**	.257**	-.002	.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.971	.520
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539
EV1_ responsi- bility	Pearson Correlation	.626**	.516**	.069	.498**	.912**	.259**	1	.853**	.043	.139**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.107	.000	.000	.000		.000	.323	.001
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539
EV2_ respect	Pearson Correlation	.531**	.428**	.052	.421**	.802**	.257**	.853**	1	.104*	.173**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.232	.000	.000	.000	.000		.015	.000
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539
EV3_ lie	Pearson Correlation	.075	.070	-.020	.032	.044	-.002	.043	.104*	1	.668**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.080	.103	.637	.455	.303	.971	.323	.015		.000
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539
EV4_ academic	Pearson Correlation	.105*	.090*	-.073	.074	.115**	.028	.139**	.173**	.668**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.038	.092	.087	.007	.520	.001	.000	.000	
	N	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539	539

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 6 Pearsons' r Test

The strongest correlations are between AF2 Integrity and EV1 Responsibility ($r = 0.912$), EV1 Responsibility and EV2 Respect ($r = .853$), AF2 Integrity and EV2 Respect ($r = .802$), P1 Copy and P2 Translation ($r = .743$), as well as between EV3 Lie and EV4 Academic ($r = .668$).

Conclusions

Summary of research

The study describes an overall image of the way students related to ethics, both considering self-reported values and behaviours. Consistent with other studies, the behavioural aspects show a lesser fair situation compared to reported values and attitudes.

The present study confirms other findings (Sunderland, 2019) related to the marginal position of ethics among students. Nevertheless, it reveals rather ethical attitudes, except for the two elements of self-plagiarism and lying. Women are somewhat more ethical than men (but there is not much consistency here - the statistical validation is only for a few items). Findings also validate some previous studies suggesting that business students are more open to unethical approaches (May et al., 2014; Hanson et al., 2017). Also, the study shows that students with more years of schooling are perhaps a bit more ethical.

The findings show no differences between students who work (full- or part-time) and those who do not work. We observe that work experience does not seem to contribute to changing perceptions and behaviours related to ethics, suggesting that workplace environments are not so different from universities in terms of ethical approaches.

Marketing implications

The literature in the field shows some links between ethics in academia and the marketing approaches of higher education institutions. One would expect that ethics is increasingly important, considering an ever more responsible society and business environment, at least according to the public discourse. Ethics is relevant not only when attracting students and contributing to stakeholder management, being mainly connected to reputation and positive WoM.

The present study shows a strong ethical base in the investigated university due to strong values and attitudes in this field. At the same time, it shades a shadow on the behavioural aspects, suggesting that practical benefits tend to be more important than ethical concerns. Therefore, even if ethical approaches might enhance a university's appeal, they would probably not be an important driver for students.

Limitations and future research

Quantitative surveys face several limitations. In most cases, they do not explore in-depth the phenomenon considered, due to the lack of time and disponibility of most respondents. Therefore, researchers struggle between designing an encompassing measurement tool and a brief, still effective, one. The present study considered a relatively reduces scale, to maximize the chances for covering a larger part of the investigated population. Another limitation we mention is that the questionnaire collected self-reported data; therefore, it measures perceptions rather than actual facts. We also stress that the investigation is limited to a specific university, not reflecting the entire landscape, even if it is consistent with other studies.

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LÁSZLÓ DINYA - ANIKÓ KLAUSMANN-DINYA

NON-BUSINESS MARKETING AND AUTONOMY IN THE SUSTAINABLE COMPETITIVENESS

Although competitiveness was traditionally a business issue, today and in the future it is a basic condition to consider its non-business dimension. However, there is no universal solution for achieving sustainable smart competitiveness, because it depends on local conditions. In connection with this, it became justified to examine the implementation of various levels and types of autonomies. After all, these innovations cannot be realized without the autonomous decisions of the actors involved. Where the necessary autonomies are weak or completely absent, non-business marketing (mainly the social marketing), plays an important role in creating them. Its specific tasks can only be defined with the help of a suitable diagnosis. The aim of our research was to find appropriate methodological solutions and to involve databases suitable for international comparison to solve this task. With the help of EU and OECD databases, we investigated Hungary's position in terms of its sustainable smart competitiveness (based on factor- and cluster analysis), and what future tasks this might mean for non-business social marketing. We found that in the Hungarian context, there are serious challenges in the case of various levels of autonomy, the solution of which would require very intensive social marketing.

Keywords: *non-business marketing, autonomy, sustainable and smart competitiveness*

Introduction

We have been dealing with development projects at various levels for a long time, in connection with which we are always faced the challenges of autonomy at a certain point. It may sound unusual, but when solving development tasks at the international, national, regional, local, organizational, community, and even individual level, the first step is necessarily to clarify the space for decisions and actions: how much autonomy (freedom) do the stakeholders have in making rational decisions and in implementing them? Other words: what extent and type of constraints prevent them from doing so? In the case of specific projects (situations, problems), this is not a purely theoretical question, but a specifically practical one. To which the consulting experts must provide theoretically well-founded and practically usable answers.

Our consulting and/or project management work so far has been focusing to many different areas:

- *Social innovations*: in the course of domestic and international projects, we have proven that sustainability based solely on technical and economic innovations is misguided if social innovations related to them are left behind (or delayed). For example, in the case of innovation of formal (legal order) and informal (value order) “rules of the game” (Dinya, 2011, Dinya - Klausmann-Dinya, 2020).
- *International sustainability projects*: as international consortium participant in several EU programs aimed at sustainable development, we have confirmed that the realization of a sustainable economy is a utopia without taking into account the sustainable and autonomous society and natural environment (Dinya et al., 2013).
- *Development and implementation of sectoral concepts*: as the leader of professional civil organizations in Hungary (Conference of College Directors, Higher Education Academic Council, National Bologna Committee), we contributed to the development of the first important law (Act LXXX of 1993) establishing the legal rules of modern higher education after the regime change, especially with regard to the establishment of institutional autonomy. Then as a civil servant (deputy state secretary) in the formulation and introduction of the related decrees. In this context, we worked on the foundation of the unified European higher education system as vice-president of the European Association of Higher Education (EURASHE) and as Hungary’s representative in the International Bologna Committee (Dinya, 1997, Dinya, 1998, Dinya, 2004).
- *Regional and micro-regional development programs*: valuable experience was provided by the “Foundation of the regional development concept of Heves county” project (Dinya, 2014), the lessons of which were partially published (Dinya – Klausmann-Dinya, 2014). Perhaps the most important lesson is that rational regional development is impossible without taking into account the characteristics differentiated by sub-region and without the maximum mobilization of local autonomy (only through the distribution of financial support).
- *Settlement development concepts*: according to our experience, our model of “four capitals”, which serves as the basis for regional development, can also be applied well at the settlement level. All the more so because the development of settlements (cities) separately from their region (neighboring settlements) would be an absurd solution (Dinya et al., 2017, Dinya – Dinya, 2017).
- *Organizational development*: contributing as a consultant to the strategic development of many business and non-business (civil and public service) organizations (including our own company), we were lucky enough to experience first-hand what kind of managerial challenges arise in relation to organizational autonomy and its external and internal limitations (Dinya, 2015, Klausmann- Dinya – Dinya, 2017).
- *Human resource and individual-level managerial competence development*: as a development trainer (coaching), we implemented (and continue to implement)

numerous team and individual development programs. During which we already have clear experience that the development of individual autonomy and awareness of the importance of collective autonomy is one of the most important tasks in both private and workplace decisions (Klausmann-Dinya – Dinya, 2019).

By synthesizing and evaluating these experiences (only mentioning our most typical publications), we formulated our conclusions regarding the importance of different levels of autonomy and their relationship with each other. Some of them have been published before (see, for example, the references above). Other parts of them were formulated in us during the current systematization of the collected experiences and their comparison with the latest literature. We are now publishing these conclusions for the first time.

Autonomy

In public opinion and public discourse, *autonomy*, *sovereignty*, *independence* and many other terms appear as related concepts, even though they have different meanings.

Autonomy means a certain degree of freedom and self-determination of a group or individual. This means that they have the authority to make independent decisions and act within the limits set by external factors. For example, local governments may have autonomy within their own jurisdiction to make decisions about local affairs, but remain subject to the laws and regulations of higher levels of government (Moraes – Wigell, 2022).

The concept of *sovereignty* refers to supreme power and authority within a political entity, such as a nation-state. This means that the government has the right to operate without interference from outside actors and to exercise control over its own territory, citizens and resources. Sovereignty can be absolute, where a government has complete control and authority, or limited, where the government shares power with other entities (Bihari, 2014).

Independence refers to the state of not being dependent on or subject to an external entity in any way. For example, it can refer to political independence, where a nation-state is self-governing and not subject to external control. Or for personal independence, where the individual is free to make decisions and live your life without depending on others (Cantor, 2014).

In summary, *autonomy means self-determination within given limits*, sovereignty means supreme power within a political entity, and independence means that a given actor is not subject to another entity. Therefore, we do not consider independence and sovereignty to be synonymous with autonomy: *autonomy has external and internal limits*, but independence means no limits. In the following, we specifically deal with autonomy, the types of which are distinguished according to Figure 1.

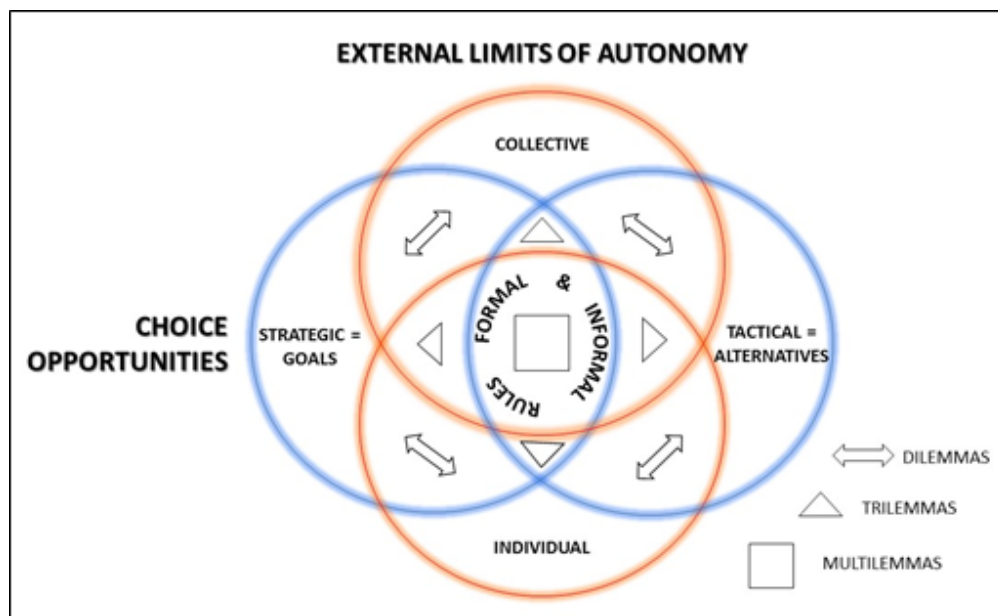


Figure 1 Types of autonomy

Source: own editing based on Moraes – Wigell, 2022

Based on our practical experiences, we significantly supplemented the original classification with the following:

- In practice, the four forms of autonomy (individual / collective and strategic / tactical) appear with a partial overlap, and the real freedom of movement (decisions) is a function of the meeting of the four sets (four types of freedom of movement).
- The external and internal (choice opportunities) limits of the four autonomies determine the real size of the autonomy in the case of every actors in the given situation.
- Limitations can be formal (legislative) and informal (values, culture). In society and the economy, both appear together and prevail together.
- The scope means a choice between alternative possibilities, where the dilemmas require the actors to resolve a conflict between two different forms of autonomy, in the case of a collision of three different scopes, this is called a trilemma, and the coordination of all scopes (i.e. the task occurring in real life) is called a multilemma.

Taking the above into account, we will further analyse the situation of the necessary autonomies to smart sustainable competitiveness studying at the individual, local and global levels in the case of Hungary.

Analysis

Autonomy and the smart sustainable competitiveness at individual level

In the course of our development projects, we were usually faced with the fact that the partners basically focused on financial resources as an almost exclusively important factor. How much money will be needed to implement a concept, from what sources can it be provided, and how quickly will the project result, how much money (or savings) can it bring? After a while (“as a zero step”), we found it necessary for the stakeholders (participants of the project “team”) to go through a kind of socialization, if you like, a “harmonization of values”. The purpose of this was to raise awareness of the importance of human (knowledge) capital, social capital (cooperation) and some other priorities (such as multi-level autonomy). Which go well beyond monetary capital. We assumed that behind these hiatuses lies the value system formed as a result of individual and collective socialization, which we verified through multivariate statistical analyses based on an international database.

It is now widely accepted that the basis of sustainable smart competitiveness is the so-called “co-petition”. “Co-opetition” is cooperating with competitors to achieve a common goal or get ahead (Brandenburger - Nalebuff, 2021). And the role of the autonomy of the stakeholders, i.e. their decision-making space, is crucial in this. The basic level of that one is the individual autonomy, which is closely related to individual values, i.e. cultural socialization. From this point of view we have now highlighted some results related to autonomy at the individual level.

The classic of the comparative study of national cultures, Geert Hofstede, essentially started from individual values and reached defining the types of national and organisational cultures, and finally the development of global value maps (Hofstede et al. 2022). Originally, he was looking for answers to the management challenges that managers at multicultural companies faced during their daily operations (crosscultural management). Today, the survey is carried out in about 140 countries, every three years, with representative questionnaire sampling. Over time, this was also linked to the measurement of countries’ competitiveness, which is now analysed globally. Because in the knowledge economy and knowledge society, society is an inseparable part of competitiveness, and within this, the competitiveness of the national culture (value system). The point is, therefore, that the set of values (cultures) at the individual level represents the value system of a country, and that is closely related to the competitiveness of the given society.

Based on this, we examined the position of Hungary inside our own community, within the EU. (Figure 2) In a first approach, we are now analysing the position of Hungary in relation to the EU average calculated from the data of the other EU member states on the scale of six basic values of the national cultures (defined and measured by the Hofstede-team on the scale between 0...100 points). And we also examine the profile of Hungary compared to the average of the three most competitive EU countries (TOP-3: Sweden, Finland, Denmark)? To interpret this, a short explanation is needed for all six basic values, as well as what we mean by sustainable smart competitiveness:

- “Power distance” (loyalty): in the case of a higher point value, the given society acknowledges (accepts) inequalities (high loyalty that is low autonomy), with a lower value it is more egalitarian.
- “Individualism”: where this score is high, the society is selfish (self-centered), while a lower score is characteristic of a collectivist (we-centered) society.
- “Masculinity” (Compulsion to win): where the value of this is higher, the society is socialized to compete. The problem with this is that the result of a “win/lose” (“macho”) attitude can easily be a “lose/lose” outcome in our increasingly complex world.
- “Risk aversion” (uncertainty avoidance): societies where this value is higher are more afraid of changes. Unfortunately, it is afraid also of innovations, because it involves risks.
- “Long-term orientation”: where this score is lower, the society is less future-oriented and focuses more on traditional short-term values.
- “Indulgency” (need of autonomy): the importance of solving problems independently. Where this is lower, paternalism (solutions expected from above) is preferred.

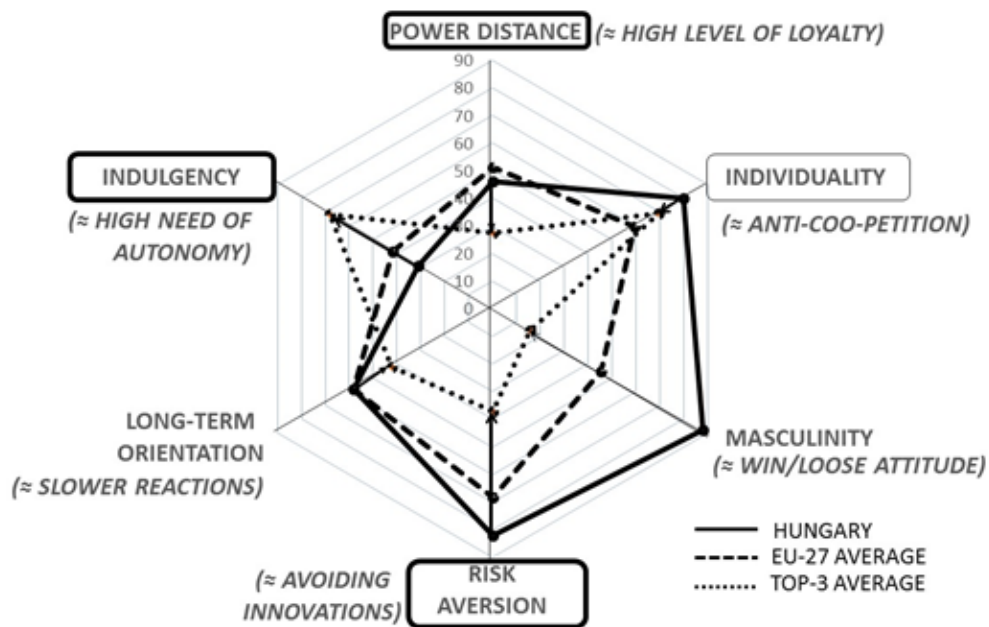


Figure 2 Autonomy in national culture of EU-member countries

Source: own editing based on data from Hofstede 2022

And by competitiveness (more precisely: Global Sustainable Competitiveness Index, GSCI) we mean (based on the overall picture of 131 unique indicators) how big is the competitiveness potential of a country that satisfies both economic, social and environmental requirements. (SolAbility, 2022) This assessment has been completed every year since 2012 and covers around 180 countries. In addition to GDP and many other economic indicators, for example, indicators characterizing the level of governance, human and social capital also play an important role in it.

How closely social values and competitiveness are related was examined using a multivariate statistical analysis (factor analysis). (Table 1)

INDICATORS	Factors	
	F1	F2
Loyalty	-,798	-,020
Individuality	,692	,535
Masculinity	-,176	,550
Risk aversion	-,737	-,079
Long-term focus	-,197	,779
Need of autonomy	,846	-,252
GSCI-2022	,931	,040
INFORMATION %	59,4	12,8

Table 1 Correlation between six indicators of social values and competitiveness (GSCI, 2022) in the 27 EU member states
 Source: own editing

By performing this analysis on the cultural values and smart competitiveness databases of the 27 EU member states, we got a picture of how many independent groups (factors) the 6+1 examined indicators belong to, according to which indicators are related to each other and which are not. The size of the factor weights in the table indicates which indicators have a significant relationship (they change related to each other) and which have a negligible relationship. The two indicator groups (factors) together compress approx. 73% of the total information, the first factor (which is relevant to our focus) approx. 60% of it. This is enough to draw important conclusions. Competitiveness and four of the six basic cultural values (power distance, individuality, risk aversion, need for autonomy) are included in the same factor (F1), i.e. they are closely related. Interestingly, smart competitiveness changes independently of two basic values (masculinity and long-term priority). These two indicators are thus neutral from the point of view of the countries' smart competitiveness, so it is advisable to concentrate on the indicators included in the first factor. That is:

- It can be seen that the higher the need of autonomy and individualism in a society, and the lower the power distance (loyalty) and risk aversion, the higher is the level of smart competitiveness. For the latter, the sign of the factor weight is negative, so the strong correlation with competitiveness is in the opposite direction.
- But it also follows that “normally” (that is, statistically) in the country where individualism is greater, the demand for autonomy is also greater. With the exception of Hungary, that is, our country is an unusual case: our extreme individualism is combining with a much weaker need for autonomy (or in other words: much greater paternalism).

Values of the smart competitiveness index (GSCI): Hungary = 47.7, TOP-3 countries = 59.4, EU average = 53.4. Let's add that, with this value, Hungary is among the last three in the field of 27 EU members, in 25th place (slightly ahead of Bulgaria and Cyprus). (Figure 3)

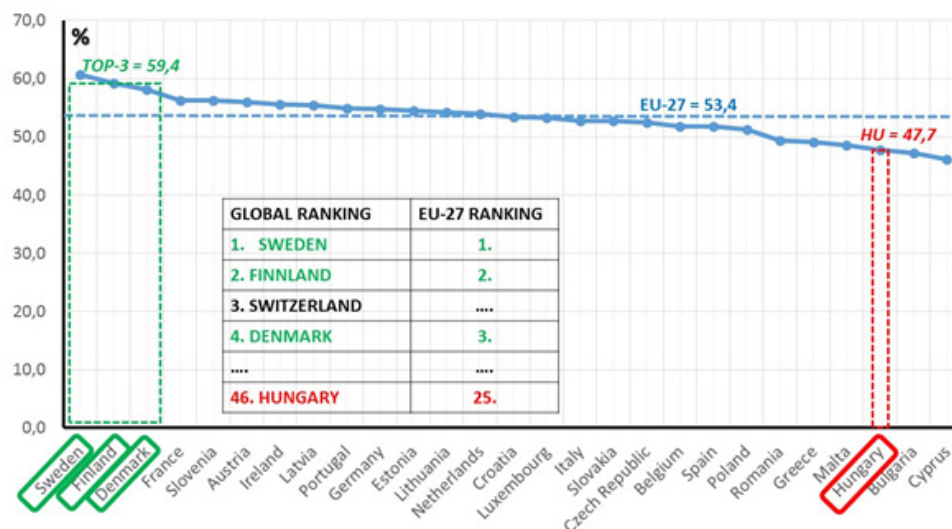


Figure 3 Situation of sustainable smart competitiveness (GSCI) in the EU-27 area in 2022

Source: own editing based on database of SolAbility, 2022

The conclusion is obvious: if Hungary wants to be much more competitive than it is at present, it has significant and untapped reserves in the shaping of social values. Primarily in terms of “boosting” the weak need for autonomy (in other words: radical reduction of overly strong paternalism), “getting used to” risks (changes) as quickly as possible, and a much stronger fight against the acceptance of inequality (for example, a significant strengthening of the rule of law).

And for this, individuals must be mobilized, which is typically not the task of the government, but of local civil societies. However, the government can significantly help this in one way: it catalyses and does not hinder...

Autonomy and the smart sustainable competitiveness at country level

In order to outline the potential tasks of non-business marketing (in a narrower sense: social marketing) to strengthen the demand for autonomy at the individual level, we need to see what macro-level obstacles there are. As we have seen (Figure 3), the situation of the countries in terms of sustainable smart competitiveness in the EU-27 group to which Hungary belongs is not flattering. And this is a serious threat in the 21st century for those being behind. Hungary is not only behind the leaders, but also significantly behind the average of the group. In order to assess the macro-level barriers, it is necessary to analyse further components of smart competitiveness.

The complex indicator of smart competitiveness is calculated as the result of 188 individual indicators, which are classified into six main categories (so-called competitiveness pillars) (SolAbility, 2022). (Figure 4)

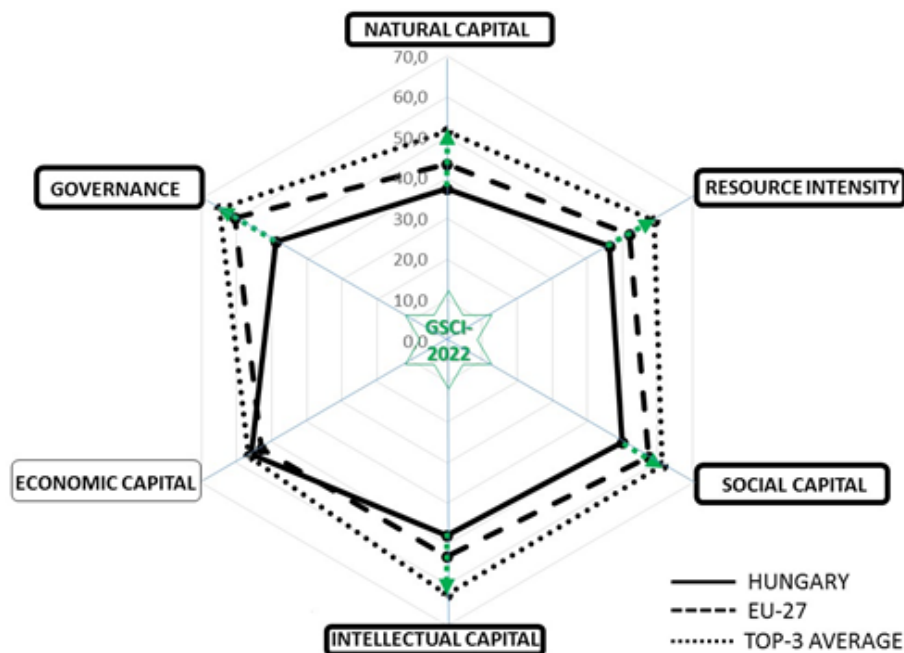


Figure 4 Values of the six pillars of smart competitiveness (EU-27 average, Hungary and the Top-3 EU member countries average)

Source: own editing based on database of SolAbility, 2022

Each pillar takes a value for all countries on a scale between 0...100 by averaging its individual indicators, and averaging the pillars in a similar way gives the final value of the GSCI. From the database of SolAbility available for 135 countries, we made a selection for the 27 member states of the EU and determined Hungary's position for all pillars, comparing it with the average of the EU-27 group, and within that also the average of the Top-3 EU members.

First of all, it is necessary to briefly define the content of the six pillars of competitiveness (for reasons of limited space, we omit the listing *of all individual indicators*):

- *Natural capital*: agriculture, biodiversity, supply of resources, state of the natural environment
- *Resource intensity*: efficiency of energy, water and raw material use relative to GDP
- *Intellectual capital*: education-training, research-development-innovation, high-tech enterprises
- *Social capital*: level of autonomy, healthcare, polarization - equal opportunities, public safety, satisfaction, civil communities
- *Economic capital*: economic indicators, financial markets, competitive economy, business environment
- *Government performance*: infrastructure, corruption, financial stability, public services, legal certainty and rule of law

Some pillars of smart competitiveness are more or less related to each other (an analysis of this is the topic of a separate research). The role of the level of economic capital, which is the main actor in the classic approach to competitiveness - but its role is in sustainable smart competitiveness is peculiar. It can be seen that in this respect the group of the EU-members is practically in the same position, and even Hungary's position is the same as the average of the Top-3. In other words, the role of economic capital is almost indifferent from the point of view of smart competitiveness, at least among the more developed countries.

The fact that the EU-27 group is strongly differentiated according to the GSCI complex indicator is explained by the other five factors (pillars):

- Natural capital can basically be considered a geographical feature, but the level of management of natural resource potential (resource efficiency) is no longer. Therefore, it is possible that the competitiveness of countries with relatively unfavourable natural endowments is better than that of "more fortunate" ones.
- Compared to the most competitive EU member states (Top-3 average), Hungary lags significantly in the other five pillars of competitiveness. Mostly in the area of government performance, resource efficiency and intellectual capital, but also social capital.
- The EU-27 average for these five pillars of competitiveness is between the Top-3 and Hungary's performance. Compared to the EU-27 average, Hungary's disadvantage in terms of government performance, social capital and intellectual capital is strikingly large.

- There are many closed connections between the level of intellectual capital and the level of government performance: the level of education and training, the level of health care, and not least the level of economic policy, which affects the emigration of marketable domestic labour, the marginalization of domestic SMEs, overall the low level of domestic intellectual capital.
- Social capital, i.e. autonomy, the quality of civil communities is also an important component of smart competitiveness at the macro level. And this is linked at many points to the indicators of government performance that influence it, such as the state of legal regulation and the rule of law, or the strengthening of paternalism.

Conclusions from non-business marketing point of view

The analysing showed that the sustainable smart competitiveness of countries is closely related to different levels of autonomy. Greater autonomy goes hand in hand with greater competitiveness and vice versa. The level of individual autonomy is influenced by the individual (social) value range of the citizens of the given country: it is strengthened by their need for autonomy and individualism, and negatively influenced (reduced) by the individuals' loyalty to the government and their risk-avoiding attitude.

Hungary has been an EU member state for almost two decades, so it is advisable to realize the level of sustainable smart competitiveness that is becoming increasingly important in this group. We have shown that Hungary has a significant competitive disadvantage in each of these necessary competitiveness pillars. One of the main elements of this is the dominant social value system at individual level, and the other main element is the macro-level obstacles.

Since the highest possible level of autonomy is an important condition for smart competitiveness, the question arises: how can we expect autonomous communities with individuals who have no need for this? Autonomous communities can only be created from the bottom up - therefore, a multitude of social marketing programs organized at the level of local communities would be necessary. The ultimate goal of these programs would be to form the current social value system into one that supports competitiveness. Local development projects carried out with our own cooperation have confirmed this (cliche) statement in many cases.

At the same time, however, a macro-level coordinated social marketing program is also needed. Because government performance, social capital, intellectual capital and the poor level of efficient utilization of resources that hinder smart competitiveness are obstacles to progress one after the other. In addition, they are obstacles to the organization and implementation of local programs aimed at the justified development of the autonomies.

A broad social awareness of these issues could be the starting step - or we should forget about sustainable smart competitiveness in Hungary.

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IDA ERCSEY

CO-CREATION BEHAVIOURS IN TRANSFORMATIVE SERVICES

Transformative service research (TSR) refers to the research that concentrates on creating ‘uplifting changes’ that aim to enhance the lives of individuals, communities, and society. Our objective is to investigate the relationship between the factors of customers’ co-creation behaviours and their outcomes, including perceived value, subjective quality of life and health. We concentrate on services that have transformational potential in TSR, such as wellness, fitness, and spa services, which have a positive impact on health, but are not accessible through the healthcare system. In 2022, we conducted quantitative research by applying quota sampling as the sampling method. 463 respondents aged between 30 to 60 years constituted the sample size. Based on factor analysis, the factors of customer participation and citizenship behaviour can be distinguished in the co-creation value of health-related services. Our results show that there is a significant relationship between two factors of customer participation behaviour, four factors of customer citizenship behaviour and the perceived value of health-related services. Furthermore, by using path analysis, we found that customer participation and citizenship factors directly and indirectly influence subjective quality of life through perceived health. This study is beneficial for endorsing customer value-creating behaviours in health-related services.

Introduction

Transformative service research (TSR) is focused on creating positive changes that aim to improve the lives of individuals, families, communities, society, and the ecosystem. In TSR, researchers investigate the indicators of increasing and decreasing well-being. Transformative service research focuses on factors that improve the human condition, consumer well-being, and quality of life. Researchers have emphasized assessing various aspects of well-being, such as physical health, mental health, and financial well-being. Some transformative service research is primarily focused on aspects of consumers’ quality of life. The existential, physical, psychological and health-related dimensions of quality of life have been analysed. To measure and identify the ‘uplifting changes’ in respondents’ life conditions, we investigated two important variables: perceived health and satisfaction with life.

The healthcare market is an essential and productive field for research on transformative services. The healthcare market provides products and services that are suitable for safeguarding and restoring people's health. On the supply side of the healthcare market are the products and services that affect people's health primarily and directly. Szántó (2008) distinguishes the other aspect of the healthcare market that positively impacts health. The purpose of marketing activities in the healthcare market is to fulfil the requirements that aim to safeguard and restore health while establishing and sustaining demand. The government and healthcare providers must prioritise prevention, while social marketing should play a more substantial role in fostering health education and cultivating holistic awareness and a health-conscious lifestyle.

Certain services, such as healthcare and education, are aimed at a clear transformative purpose (Ungaro et al., 2022). On the other hand, it may be the case that some services - such as entertainment, hospitality and retailing - while not fulfilling an explicit transformative goal, possess transformational potential as they may impact people's well-being (Rosenbaum et al., 2011). Veres and Liska (2021) developed a model to recognise co-creation expectations, concluding that collaboration is achieved through a blending of adaptation and active client policy - offering an opportunity to boost the quality management of the services in use. This paper focuses on the second type of services, such as research on healthy lifestyle services.

The usefulness of value co-creation was established regarding sport and leisure consumption (Polyakova — Mirza, 2016; Chiu et al., 2019). Health and fitness services exhibit the central features of service-dominant logic as the service is co-created by various actors, customers included. Consumers need to be physically present (Chiu et al., 2015), and they often share the service environment with other consumers. Therefore, value co-creation provides opportunities to shape service offerings and outcomes in a participatory way (Polyakova — Mirza, 2016).

Yi and Gong (2013) discovered that two forms of value co-creation behaviour, customer participation and customer citizenship, have a positive impact on the perceived value. Hau and Thuy (2015) explored the different roles that factors play in driving consumers' co-creation behaviour, in the transformative experience associated with human services. Additionally, Sweeney et al. (2015) emphasised that the quality of life is a result of the patient's efforts while being involved in value creation activities. Regarding medication consumption, the three tiers of co-production lead to symptom reduction, and ultimately contribute to the improvement of patients' wellbeing (Spanjol et al., 2015). Our empirical research examines various factors of co-creation value behaviour and the resulting effects of value co-creation behaviour regarding healthy lifestyle services that have transformative potential. This study aims to address the gap and investigate the effects of in-role and extra-role behaviours on two dimensions of perceived value, i.e., process value and outcome value, for health-related services. From a transformation perspective, it is essential to identify the relevant factors of co-creation behaviour that affect the perception of health and satisfaction with life concerning healthy lifestyle services.

Theoretical background

Firstly, we introduce the health market and its marketing activities. Next, we offer an analysis of the research conducted on value co-creation and consumer participation within the field of Transformative Service Research (TSR).

The healthcare market and healthcare marketing

The health market offers products and services to safeguard and reinstate people's health. Health care products and services that primarily and directly affect health comprise the supply-side of the health market. According to Szántó (2008), the other side of the health market positively influences health. Opting for healthy food and adequate physical exercise is of utmost importance from people's health perspective. These products can originate from the food market, whereas those from the wellness, fitness, spa or active exercise and sports markets can also have a beneficial impact. An analysis of the health market from the demand-side shows it can be divided into two distinct markets, namely, health protection or disease prevention and health restoration or healing (Szántó, 2008).

Marketing activities in the health sector aim to fulfil the demand for health protection and restoration and to create and retain demand. From the outset, the government and service providers should concentrate on prevention. Prevention should be viewed by the government and service providers from a social and economic perspective as it entails lower costs. Social marketing should have a more significant role in this area by promoting health education, enhancing awareness of holistic health, and encouraging healthy lifestyles.

Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) represent one of the primary challenges confronting health systems across the globe in the 21st century. NCDs have been identified as the primary cause of morbidity and mortality throughout the world. The World Health Organization (WHO) projects that, by 2022, these diseases will account for approximately 74% of global mortality. The most recent statistics published by the World Health Organization demonstrates that NCDs cause more than 90% of all deaths in Hungary. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), physical inactivity, unhealthy diet, harmful use of alcohol and tobacco represent the four modifiable behavioural risk factors for NCDs. The importance of health promotion and disease prevention is increasing. Certain health market services, such as wellness, fitness, spa or training, can effectively promote overall health in society. Sport and health services, apart from their role in disease prevention, are essential to ensure a healthy lifestyle. They determine life expectancy, as well as the social, biological, and psychological well-being of people. Furthermore, they provide opportunities for meaningful leisure time. Social marketing frameworks have proved to be effective in public and private healthcare systems. They have been instrumental in enhancing physical activity, promoting healthy eating habits, and curbing alcohol consumption among young adults and adolescents. This paper focuses on the services within the health market that have a positive impact on the health and contribute to people's healthy lifestyles. Due to the specific health risks that NCDs pose to the middle-aged and older people, we have selected this target population for our empirical study.

Transformative service research and value co-creation

Transformative Service Research (TSR) is the study that concentrates on creating ‘uplifting changes’ to enhance the quality of life of individuals, including customers and employees, families, communities, societies, and the ecosystem as a whole (Anderson et al., 2013). Services fundamentally affect people’s lives and wellbeing as individuals, families, employees, and communities. This theory also considers the factors that impact the wellbeing of specific target audiences positively or negatively. Anderson et al. (2013) and Rosenbaum et al. (2011) surveyed previous themes that TSR had addressed. Those studies centred on examining various domains of well-being, including objective and subjective perceptions of physical health, mental health indicators such as burnout, resilience, and stress, financial wellbeing, discrimination, marginalization, literacy, inclusion, and access. Blocker and Barrios (2015) defined transformative value as a “social dimension of value creation that illuminates uplifting changes among individuals and collectives in the marketplace” (p. 265). In the TSR literature, some authors applied quality of life measures and more of them explored dimensions of well-being. In this paper, we discuss research work that contains empirical research.

The TSR in the health market has been researched in several fields, including healthcare and medical technology (Black — Gallan, 2015; Schuster et al., 2015; Anderson et al., 2018) and not-for-profit organisations, such as charities (Mulder et al., 2015). In the healthcare service context, Sweeney et al. (2015) identified three categories of customer effort in value creation activities (EVCA) that positively influence customers’ quality of life, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions. Their study has demonstrated that quality of life is an outcome of the customer’s efforts during involvement in value creation activities. An association between quality of life and transformation can be assumed. The authors have identified the hierarchy of activities that represent different levels of customer effort. Customers’ efforts range from basic requirements such as less effort and easier tasks to extensive decision making requiring more effort and more difficult tasks. Effort-Based Value Co-Creation (EVCA) has been defined as the degree of effort that customers put in to integrate resources through a range of activities of varying levels of perceived difficulty. Empirical research has concentrated on three prevalent chronic disease settings - cancer, heart disease and diabetes. In the context of chronic disease, patients engage in various resources such as complementary therapies, activities with private sources such as family, friends, peers, and even other clients, and self-generated activities such as positive thinking, reframing, and sense-making. Sweeney et al. (2015) have found that customer EVCA has a direct impact on service satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Furthermore, it has been found that customer EVCA has an effect on perceptions of quality of life. The study has emphasized the transformative potential of customer EVCA, as individuals can participate in activities that may improve their quality of life. In their research, Sweeney et al. (2015) expanded upon the work of Chan et al. (2010), McColl-Kennedy et al. (2012), and Gallan et al. (2013) to explore a hierarchy of activities that reflect the efforts of customers in value co-creation activities (EVCA). McColl-Kennedy et al. (2012) highlight that healthcare

customers engage in a range of value co-creation activities aimed at enhancing their health and quality of life. Table 1 illustrates the elements of the methodology and marketing variables relevant to transformative service research.

Spanjol et al. (2015) conducted qualitative interviews with adults with hypertension, mostly from low-income and minority backgrounds, and identified three levels of co-production: regular restricted, intermittent intermediate, and irregular extended co-production. The authors found that their findings are relevant to complex services such as weight loss programmes and personal debt management. Service providers have the opportunity to not only provide task-specific tools to clients, but more importantly, to assist and support consumers in creating and implementing co-productive behaviours (Spanjol et al., 2015). In weight loss and health-related strength training programmes, clients work towards a desired goal, such as a certain amount of weight loss or increased muscle strength. In the context of medication use, compliance does not necessarily lead to a reduction in symptoms, particularly for asymptomatic chronic conditions such as hypertension. Researchers (Spanjol et al., 2015) have chosen the context of medication adherence in chronically ill people and conducted a qualitative study to identify the nature and dynamics of co-production in the client sphere. They paid attention to medication adherence not only as an outcome variable, but also as a dynamic and contextualised process with layered enactments. Table 1. presents the components of this article.

Theoretically, well-being can be divided into objective and subjective categories. Previous studies have focused on the subjective, examining consumer well-being at an individual level. In order to measure and identify the 'uplifting changes' in life conditions discussed, articles used physical, psychological, existential, financial and social dimensions to identify meaningful changes in consumers' lives related to well-being outcomes. It can be concluded that some research on transformative services tends to focus on aspects of consumers' quality of life. The existential, physical, psychological and health-related dimensions of quality of life were analysed.

Author/s	Elements of TSR
Sweeney et al. (2015)	Interviews: 20 Australian individuals, chronically ill Survey: 1.008 Australian respondents, 19-70+ years old Satisfaction with service, Behavioural intentions, EVCA, Quality of life
Spanjol et al. (2015)	Interviews: 30 American individuals, chronically ill (heart disease), Seven male and 23 female, 34-82 years old Medication adherence, Coproduction, Well-being
Hau — Thuy (2015)	Two Surveys: (1) 417 Vietnamese outpatients, and (2) 409 postgraduate students Participation behaviour (information sharing, responsible behaviour, feedback), Perceived value (outcome and process), Satisfaction

Table 1 Several significant studies have been conducted on health services in relation to TSR.

Source: own editing

According to Hau and Thuy (2015), in human transformative services such as higher education and healthcare, the outcome for the customer is improved after consuming the services. In simpler terms, customer operant resources (i.e. physical, mental, and psychological strength in health care service) are expected to be enhanced after the service. This study uses the process-outcome approach to customer perceived value (Grönroos, 1982), which is characterised by process value (or functional value) and outcome value (or technical value). Outcome value denotes the ultimate benefits that a customer recognises after consuming the service, while process value pertains to the affirmative experiences that a customer experiences throughout the co-creation process (Grönroos, 1982). Hau and Thuy (2015) polled patients from the healthcare sector and students from higher education institutions in Vietnam. According to their findings, the active and relevant participation behaviour is crucial for co-creating value. Information sharing, responsible behaviour, and voluntary feedback within the intended responsibilities have different roles in the value of processes and outcomes. In health care services, voluntary feedback within the intended responsibilities is more crucial, whereas responsible behaviour is critical in higher education.

Certain services, such as healthcare and education, are aimed at a clear transformative purpose (Ungaro et al., 2022). However, certain services, including entertainment, hospitality, and retail, lack an explicit transformative intent, but possess the potential for transformation as they could influence people's well-being (Rosenbaum et al., 2011). In recent years, some studies have focused on this latter form of services, such as research into the retail sector (Gardiazabal — Bianchi, 2021; Naveed et al., 2021) or hospitality (Gallan et al., 2021).

The utility of value co-creation was recognized in the context of sport and leisure consumption (Chiu et al., 2019; Polyakova — Mirza, 2016). Health and fitness services demonstrate the fundamental characteristics of a service-dominant logic, where the service is co-created by various actors, including customers (Polyakova — Mirza, 2016). Furthermore, the service experience is characterised by customer participation and interaction (Polyakova — Mirza, 2016; Afthinos et al., 2017; Chiu et al., 2019). Consumers need to be physically present (Chiu et al., 2015), and they often share the service environment with other consumers. Therefore, value co-creation presents opportunities to shape service offerings and outcomes in a participatory manner (Polyakova — Mirza, 2016).

Value co-creation behaviour

Numerous studies have examined the nature and dimensions of customer value co-creation behaviour. According to Yí and Gong (2013), they identified the behaviours of customers in co-creating value and generated a scale to measure them. The firms can utilise this scale to identify the strengths and weaknesses of customer value co-creation behaviour. Yí and Gong (2013) examined the third-order factor through the lens of two theories: customer participation behaviour, related to the concept of in-role behaviours, and customer citizenship behaviour, related to the concept of extra-role behaviours. Customer participation behaviour is a required behaviour essential for successful value co-creation. Customer citizenship behaviour is a voluntary behaviour that provides exceptional value to the firm but is not necessarily required for value co-creation (Bove et al., 2008; Yí et al., 2011). Customer citizenship comprises four dimensions: information seeking, information sharing, responsible behaviour and personal interaction. In addition, customer citizenship behaviour consists of feedback, advocacy, helping and tolerance. Information seeking is important for customers because information reduces uncertainty and helps them to understand and control their co-creation conditions. Information seeking also enables customers to play their role as value co-creators. For successful value co-creation, customers should share information with employees (Lengnick-Hall, 1996). If customers do not share essential information, employees may not be able to start or complete their tasks (Ennew — Bink 1999) and the quality of value co-creation may be poor. The responsible behaviour of customers refers to recognising their roles and responsibilities as co-creators of value. Customers must be cooperative and follow the directions given by employees to achieve successful value co-creation. Personal interaction pertains to the interpersonal relations between customers and employees. The cooperation is vital in producing successful value co-creation. The interaction between customers and employees should include courteousness, friendliness, and respect. Employees and the company can improve the service creation process through customers' feedback (Groth et al., 2004). This feedback provides critical information to help employees, and the firm improve. Customers offer recommendations to employees due to their experience and expertise from the customer's perspective (Bettencourt, 1997). Customer feedback can be valuable and constitutes an example of extra-role behaviour. Advocacy refers to recommending the company or the employee to others such as friends or family. Positive word-of-mouth contributes to the growth

of a positive company reputation, promotion of products and services, higher quality service evaluations, and it indicates customer loyalty (Groth et al., 2004). Advocacy is voluntary and optional in achieving value co-creation. Helping involves the customer's behaviour of directly helping other customers in a service co-creation process. The authors (Rosenbaum — Massiah, 2007) note that customers recall their own experiences in order to help other customers experiencing similar difficulties. Tolerance refers to a customer's willingness to be patient when the service does not meet their expectations of correct services (Lengnick-Hall, 1996).

Methodology

Yí and Gong (2013) discovered that customer participation and citizenship behaviours positively influence the perceived value. Hau and Thuy (2015) investigated the diverse functions of consumers' co-creation behaviour on the process and outcome value of the human transformative services. Furthermore, Sweeney et al. (2015) emphasised that the quality of life resulting from the patient's contribution towards value creation activities. Concerning medication consumption, the three stages of co-production result in the alleviation of symptoms and consequently contribute to enhancing patients' wellbeing (Spanjol et al., 2015). Our empirical research concentrates on the analysis of co-creation behaviour's value and impact in terms of healthy lifestyle services that possess transformative potential. We aim to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: How do customer perceptions of process and outcome value get influenced by factors of value co-creation behaviour?

RQ2: Do the factors of value co-creation behaviour have an impact on consumers' health?

RQ3: Do the factors of value co-creation behaviour impact consumers' evaluation of their satisfaction with life?

To conduct our research, we carried out a survey in October of last year. Non-Communicable Diseases (NCDs) pose health risks, particularly for middle-aged and elderly people. Therefore, we chose these target populations for our empirical research. The target population of our study consisted of individuals aged 30 to 60 who participated in various health-related services. We used quota sampling as our sampling method, with a sample size of 463 respondents. Of these, 54% were female and 46% were male. Our sample composition is as follows: the 31-35 years age category consisted of 23% (106) of the respondents, the 36-40 years age category consisted of 14% (65) of the respondents, the 41-50 age category consisted of 35% (162) of the respondents, and the elderly, aged between 51 and 60 years, consisted of 28% (130) of the respondents. Eleven per cent of our sample population resided in the capital, while 33% lived in county seats, where a wider range of services were available than in other cities (35%) or villages (21%).

Initially, factor analysis was performed using a validated scale to identify the factors that influence customer behaviour in the co-creation value of health-related services. Next, we applied path analysis to determine the relationship between co-creation behaviours and their consequences. For measuring perceived value, perceived health, and satisfaction with life, we adapted variables from existing international research. Initially, to examine our research questions, we used a previous scale (Yi — Gong 2013) to measure the co-creative customers' behaviour. Our decision was supported by the adaptation of the scale in Spain and its results (Revilla-Camacho et al., 2015). Our decision was verified by scaling adaptation in Spain and its outcomes (Revilla-Camacho et al., 2015). We implemented the process-outcome concept to evaluate customer perceived value, based on Hau and Thuy's (2015) investigation. To analyse customers' co-creation behaviour, we requested that the respondents assess their most recent health-related activities, including fitness, wellness, and spa experiences. A remarkable proportion of respondents engaged in fitness or exercise episodes (44%), availed wellness services (20%) or spa treatments (23%), whereas the remainder preferred yoga and water sports. We investigated two important variables, namely perceived health, and satisfaction with life, to measure and identify any positive changes in respondents' life conditions.

Results

This chapter begins by using factor analysis to explore the factors of the value co-creation behaviour. Subsequently, the respondents' opinions and experiences were analysed through path analysis based on the research questions.

Value co-creation behaviour factors

To identify the dimensions of customer participation behaviour, it was measured using a validated scale (Yi — Gong, 2013) consisting of 15 items, each rated on a five-point scale. The study conducted exploratory factor analysis on the customer value co-creation activity items to identify the dimensions of customer participation behaviour. The KMO (0.885 > 0.7) and Bartlett tests (3523.580, $p=0.000$) indicated that the data was suitable for factor analysis (Malhotra, 2009). The Principal components analysis and Varimax rotation method revealed three factors. The cumulative percentage of explained variance by the extracted factors is 64.649 per cent, which is above the expected level of 60 per cent. The initial 15 items are suitable for measuring individuals' roles in service performance. According to the Cronbach analysis, the reliability of the participation behaviour scale was supported ($\alpha=0.848$). Information seeking and information sharing can be distinguished within customer participation behaviour.

Similar to previous research on services, customer participation behaviour can be differentiated into information seeking and information sharing. However, responsible behaviour and personal interaction constitute a single factor. These results conflict with previous research (Yi — Gong 2013; Revilla-Camacho et al., 2015) because English and Spanish respondents differentiated between the factors of personal interaction and responsible

behaviour. Customer responsible behaviour items arise from interactions between personnel and customers and are vital for delivering the service customers expect. This factor, in relation to personal interaction, reflects respondents' attitudes and behaviours towards the personnel and service provider. The results of the factor analysis are summarized in Figure 1.

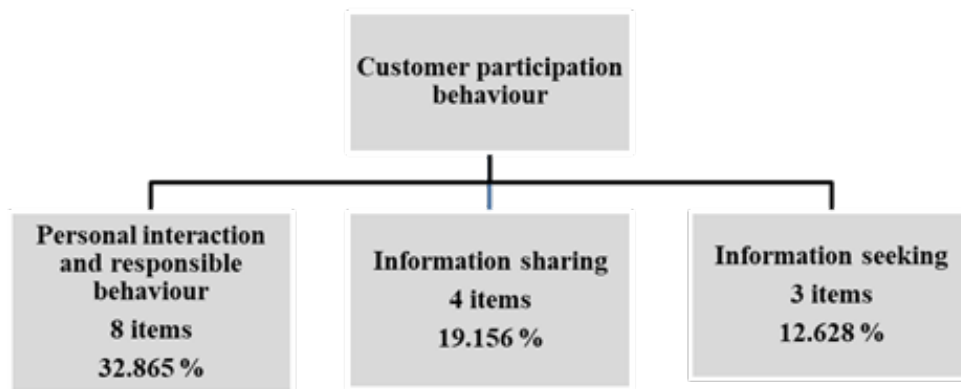


Figure 1 Factors of customer participation behaviour

Source: compiled by the author based on the findings

The order and percentage of the explained variance by the factors reveal that, in service production, the responsible behaviour of the respondents and the quality of personal interaction are more significant factors than information sharing and information seeking. As expected, three distinct dimensions can be observed in customer participation behaviour in co-creation of health-related services, which are information sharing, information seeking, and personal-interaction responsible behaviour dimensions.

To identify the dimensions of customer citizenship behaviour, we measured them using a validated scale (Yi — Gong 2013) consisting of 13 items on a five-point scale. We conducted an exploratory factor analysis of the items related to the co-creation activities of customer value to identify the dimensions of customer participation behaviour. The KMO ($0.848 > 0.7$) and Bartlett ($3117.624, p=0.000$) tests indicate that the data is appropriate for factor analysis (Malhotra, 2009). The Principal Components Analysis and Varimax rotation method found four factors. The total percentage of explained variance by the extracted factors is 74.522%, which is above the expected level of 60%. The 13 original items are suitable to measure individuals' extra roles in performing the service. The reliability of the participation behaviour scale was supported by the Cronbach analysis ($\alpha=0.877$). Previous research on services similarly delineates the distinguishing characteristics of voluntary customer behaviours under helping, advocacy, tolerance, and feedback. Our findings regarding the numbers and names of factors align with previous studies. In the case of active customer behaviour, these factors indicate additional value to the provider. The two recognised factors of tolerance and feedback emerge

in the relationship between the respondents and personnel. The assisting and advocating factors are carried out through transactions between the respondents and other customers. We have outlined the factor analysis findings in Figure 2.

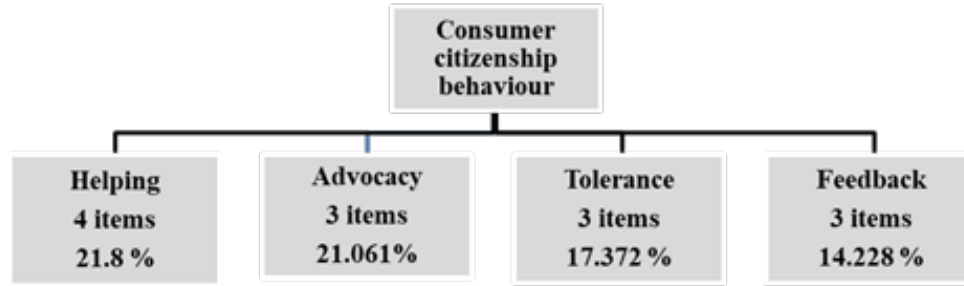


Figure 2 Customer Citizenship Behaviour Factors
Source: compiled by the author based on the findings

The eigenvalues for four factors and the percentage of explained variance by factors demonstrate that, in the service production, respondents' assistance and recommendations for potential customers play a more significant role than the other two factors. The respondents' positive attitude toward personnel through tolerance and feedback is not significant. As anticipated, the customer citizenship behaviour contains helping, advocacy, tolerance, and feedback dimensions. In addition, four behavioural dimensions can be recognised in co-creation of fitness, exercise, wellness and spa services.

The Relationship between Factors of Value Co-creation Behaviour and Customer Perceptions of Process and Outcome Value

To investigate dimensions of value co-creation behaviour, we hypothesise that the factors of participation and citizenship behaviour have positive effects on the assessment of service value. To evaluate the service perceived value by a consumer, we assessed two aspects of the value: process and outcome. The process value was measured by two items, and the outcome value by three items, based on international literature. We performed exploratory factor analyses, focusing on the two sides of perceived customer value, to identify the value dimensions of the services used. We identified two factors by applying the Principal components analysis and the Varimax rotation method: One of them represents process value and the other represents outcome value. Initially, we investigated the correlation between the three participation behaviour factors as independent variables, and the perceived process and outcome values as dependent variables.

The regression analysis reveals that the explanatory power of the two factors (Personal interaction and responsible behaviour, Information seeking) in the outcome value of service used is 28.8% ($R^2=0.288$). From the data in Table 2, we can conclude that Information sharing as a part of the participation behaviour does not significantly affect the overall evaluation of the outcome of services. The estimated impact of Personal interaction and responsible behaviour, as well as Information seeking, on the outcome value was 0.530 and 0.083, respectively. Regarding the impact of the three customer participation behaviour factors on the process value, the estimated values for Personal interaction and responsible behaviour, as well as Information sharing, were 0.515 and 0.091, respectively. As shown in Table 2, the effect of Information seeking on the process value was insignificant.

Antecedents	Consequences	β (Sig.)
Personal interaction and responsible behaviour	process value	0.515 (t=12.941; p=0.000)
	outcome value	0.530 (t=13.456; p=0.000)
Information sharing	process value	0.091 (t=2.282; p=0.023)
	outcome value	0.019 (t=0.489; p=0.625)
Information seeking	process value	0.052 (t=1.297; p=0.195)
	outcome value	0.083 (t=2.112; p=0.035)

Table 2 Regression Analysis: Factors of customer participation behaviour and perceived value

Source: compiled by the author based on the findings

We investigated the relationship between four citizenship behaviour factors, as independent variables, and the out and process values of the service used, as a dependent variable, following the research protocol. The regression analysis results indicate that Advocacy (F5), Tolerance (F6), and Helping (F4), primarily within the voluntary behaviour, explain ($R^2=0.387$) the perceived outcome value of the service used. Table 3 figures demonstrate that Feedback to employees (F7) has no significant impact on the overall evaluation of the services among the citizenship behaviour dimensions. Moreover, these three factors describe the perceived process value of the service used ($R^2=0.339$). The results indicate that advocacy has a greater impact on the evaluation of the outcome and process value, while tolerance and helping have a weaker effect on consumers' evaluation of the outcome and process value of services (Table 3).

Antecedents	Consequences	β (Sig.)
Helping	process value	0.208 (t=5,456; p=0.000)
	outcome value	0.214 (t=5.835; p=0.000)
Advocacy	process value	0.522 (t=13,676; p=0.000)
	outcome value	0.555 (t=15.120; p=0.000)
Tolerance	process value	0.151 (t=3.949; p=0.000)
	outcome value	0.180 (t=4.912; p=0.000)
Feedback	process value	0.028 (t=0.736; p=0.462)
	outcome value	-0.020 (t=-0.549; p=0.583)

Table 3 Regression analysis: Factors of customer citizenship behaviour and perceived value

Source: compiled by the author based on the findings

The Relationship Between Customer Participation, Citizenship Behaviour and Perceived Health

To investigate the role of value co-creation behaviour in improving quality of life, we hypothesize that participation and citizenship behaviour positively influence the evaluation of health when using health-related services. For the purpose of examining RQ2, we performed a multivariate regression analysis using seven co-creation behaviour factors as independent variables, with perceived health as the dependent variable. The results from the regression analysis indicate that all factors of consumer participation behaviour, as well as three factors of consumer citizenship behaviour, are significantly and positively related to the perceived health of respondents (refer to Table 4). The multiple regression analysis results show that the explained variation in perceived health by the factors of consumer participation behaviour is not high, with multiple determination coefficients of $R^2 = 9.3\%$ ($F=15.606$, $p=0.000$), and relatively low by the factors of consumer citizenship behaviour, with multiple determination coefficients of $R^2 = 6.8\%$ ($F=8.289$, $p=0.000$). For the regression results presented in Table 4, the variation in perceived health attributed to the factors Information sharing, Personal interaction, and responsible behaviour is higher (with a value of $\beta=0.199$ and $\beta=0.186$) compared to the factors Information seeking ($\beta=0.134$), Helping ($\beta=0.163$), Tolerance ($\beta=0.145$), and Advocacy ($\beta=0.114$). However, it appears that there is no association between the Feedback factor and the perceived health. Moreover, since the beta coefficient ($\beta=0.266$) is positive, it suggests a positive linear correlation.

Antecedents	Consequences	β (Sig.)
Personal interaction and responsible behaviour	Perceived health	0.186 (t=4.184; p=0.000)
Information sharing	Perceived health	0.199 (t=4.487; p=0.000)
Information seeking	Perceived health	0.134 (t=3.022; p=0.003)
Helping	Perceived health	0.163 (t=3.606; p=0.000)
Advocacy	Perceived health	0.114 (t=2.527; p=0.012)
Tolerance	Perceived health	0.145 (t=3.210; p=0.001)
Feedback	Perceived health	0.084 (t=1.861; p=0.063)

Table 4 The relationship between the factors of customer participation, citizenship behaviour, and perceived health

Source: compiled by the author based on the findings

The Relationship Between the Factors of Customer Participation and Citizenship Behaviour and Satisfaction with Life

To explore the role of value co-creation behaviour in enhancing the quality of life, we hypothesise that the factors of participation and citizenship behaviour positively influence the evaluation of satisfaction with life among users of health-related services. Our findings suggest that the impact of co-creation behaviour factors on satisfaction with life is relatively low. The following data are presented: Regarding consumer behaviour, R² was found to be 10.0% (F=17.062, p= 0.000) for the factors of consumer participation behaviour and 10.2% (F=12.944, p=0.000) for consumer citizenship behaviour factors. However, with respect to consumer behaviour, the primary elements that are more relevant for users are co-creation behaviours, such as personal interaction, responsible behaviour, and advocacy. Our findings demonstrate that personal interaction and responsible behaviour ($\beta=0.251$) and advocacy ($\beta=0.249$) have a significant positive effect on satisfaction with life. Furthermore, the outcomes suggest that information sharing ($\beta=0.186$), helping ($\beta=0.123$), and tolerance ($\beta=0.059$) also positively influence consumers' evaluation towards satisfaction with life (Table 5).

Antecedents	Consequences	β (Sig.)
Personal interaction and responsible behaviour	Satisfaction with life	0.251 (t=5.672; p=0.000)
Information sharing	Satisfaction with life	0.186 (t=4.208; p=0.000)
Information seeking	Satisfaction with life	0.048 (t=1.076; p=0.283)
Helping	Satisfaction with life	0.123 (t=2.772; p=0.006)
Advocacy	Satisfaction with life	0.249 (t=5.597; p=0.000)
Tolerance	Satisfaction with life	0.059 (t=1.323; p=0.186)
Feedback	Satisfaction with life	0.147 (t=3.320; p=0.001)

Table 5 The correlation between customer participation, citizenship behaviour and the satisfaction with life

Source: compiled by the author based on the findings

It is an important question as to whether perceived value and health play a mediator role between co-creation behaviour factors and consumer evaluation of satisfaction with life. Path analysis reveals both direct and indirect relations in the relationship system. This study extends health measurements to two levels (outcome and process) of perceived value as well as seven co-creation value behaviours to examine their impacts in greater detail. Initially, this article illustrates the associations among factors of co-creation value behaviour, perceived value, and satisfaction with life. Subsequently, it investigates the links among factors of co-creation value behaviour, perceived health, and satisfaction with life. It can be stated that there are positive impacts among the latent main components in terms of direct impacts.

The results of path analysis indicate that Advocacy has a greater impact on Satisfaction with Life via Perceived Value than Personal Interaction and Responsible Behaviour. Advocacy has a direct, medium-level impact on Perceived Process Value. Advocacy has both a direct and indirect impact on Satisfaction with Life. The Total Impact is the sum of the Direct Impact ($\beta=0.522$) and the Indirect Impact, which is calculated as the product of the Direct Impact and the impact of Perceived Process Value ($0.522 \times 0.391 = 0.2041$). The Total Impact of Advocacy on Satisfaction with Life (0.7261) is higher than the Direct Impact. Personal interaction and responsible behaviour have both a direct and indirect impact on life satisfaction. The total impact is the sum of the direct impact ($\beta=0.515$) and indirect impact - through perceived process value, which equals $0.391 \times 0.515 = 0.2013$. The total impact of personal interaction and responsible behaviour on life satisfaction (0.7163) is higher than that of direct impact. Helping other consumers has both direct and indirect impacts on life satisfaction, but they are weaker than those mentioned above. The total impact is the sum of the direct impact.

The total impact is calculated as the sum of the direct impact ($\beta=0.208$) and the indirect impact via Perceived Process Value, which is equal to $0.391 * 0.208=0.0813$. The total impact of Helping on Satisfaction with Life is higher (0.2893) when compared to its direct impact. Lastly, we assess the direct and indirect impact of Information Sharing on satisfaction with life. The total impact comprises direct impact ($\beta=0.091$) and indirect impact via Perceived process value, which is equivalent to 0.0837 ($0.091*0.391$), with the latter having a weaker impact (0.1747). Two factors, namely Information seeking and Tolerance, were omitted from the analysis due to the absence of a significant effect. We did not consider the mediator role of outcome value as there was no significant association between perceived outcome value and the variable of satisfaction with life. Table 6 summarises the results.

Antecedents	Consequences	β (Sig.)
Process value	Satisfaction with life	0.391 (t=4.627; p=0.000)
Outcome value		0.003 (t=0.041; p=0.968)
Personal interaction and responsible behaviour → Perceived value → Satisfaction with life		$0.391*0.515 = 0.2013$
Information sharing → Perceived value → Satisfaction with life		$0.091*0.391 = 0.0355$
Helping → Perceived value → Satisfaction with life		$0.208*0.391 = 0.0813$
Advocacy → Perceived value → Satisfaction with life		$0.522*0.391 = 0.2041$

Table 6 Indirect effects via Perceived value on Satisfaction with life

Source: compiled by the author based on the findings

All of these indicate that two factors of consumer participation behaviours and two factors of consumer citizenship behaviours impact satisfaction with life both independently and through other variables, thus the final impact includes the positive effect of the intermediate variable, perceived process value.

As per the findings of the path analysis, we can say that information sharing, personal interaction, and responsible behaviour have a greater impact on satisfaction with life via perceived health than the other four factors. These factors have a direct impact on perceived health, and its level is lower than average. The information sharing with employees has both a direct and indirect impact on satisfaction with life. The total impact is the sum of the direct impact ($\beta=0.199$) and indirect impact – through perceived health, which is $0.199*0.168=0.0334$. The overall effect of information sharing on satisfaction with life (0.2324) is higher than the direct impact. Both personal interaction and responsible behaviour have a direct and indirect impact on satisfaction with life. Total impact represents the sum of the direct impact ($\beta=0.186$) and an indirect impact through perceived health, which is $0.186*0.168 = 0.0312$. The overall effect of personal interaction and responsible behaviour on satisfaction with life (0.2172) is

higher than the direct impact. Helping other consumers has a direct and indirect impact on satisfaction with life, but it is weaker than the ones mentioned above. The total impact is the combination of the direct impact ($\beta=0.163$) and indirect impact through Perceived health, which equals 0.0274 ($0.163*0.168$). The cumulative effect of Helping on Satisfaction with life (0.1904) is greater compared to the individual direct impact. Helping other consumers has both a direct and indirect impact on Satisfaction with life, although it is weaker than the ones mentioned above. The total impact is the combination of the direct impact ($\beta=0.163$) and indirect impact through Perceived health, which equals 0.0274 ($0.163*0.168$). The total effect of helping other consumers on satisfaction with life (0.1904) is higher compared to direct impact. Finally, we found low coefficient values in the case of one factor from consumer participation behaviour and two factors from consumer citizenship behaviour. We considered the total impact of information seeking, which is $0.134+0.134*0.168=0.134+0.0225=0.1565$; tolerance, which has a total impact of $0.145+0.145*0.168=0.145+0.0244=0.1694$; and advocacy, which has a total impact of $0.114+0.114*0.168=0.114+0.0192=0.1332$. One factor, feedback, was excluded from the analysis due to its insignificant effect. Table 7 presents a summary of the findings.

Antecedents	Consequences	β (Sig.)
Perceived health	Satisfaction with life	0.168 ($t=3.072$; $p=0.002$)
Personal interaction and responsible behaviour→Perceived health→Satisfaction with life		$0.186*0.168=0.0312$
Information sharing→Perceived health→Satisfaction with life		$0.199*0.168=0.0334$
Information seeking→Perceived health→Satisfaction with life		$0.134*0.168=0.0225$
Helping→Perceived health→Satisfaction with life		$0.163*0.168=0.0274$
Advocacy→Perceived health→Satisfaction with life		$0.114*0.168=0.0192$
Tolerance→Perceived health→Satisfaction with life		$0.145*0.168=0.0244$

Table 7 Indirect effects through the Perceived health on Satisfaction with life
Source: compiled by the author based on the findings

Our hypothesis can be confirmed as both consumer participation behaviour and citizenship behaviour, through perceived health and value, have a direct and indirect impact on satisfaction with life.

Conclusions

Our outcomes indicate that personal interaction and responsible behaviour are fundamental in assessing healthy lifestyle services, and in perception of health and satisfaction with life. Consumers who contribute to the co-creation of health-related services tend to gain better process and outcome value. A recent study found that active and relevant participation behaviours are crucial for co-creating value. Information sharing and responsible behaviour, as well as voluntary in-role feedback, have different roles in the process and outcome value of human transformative services (Hau — Thuy, 2015).

Our results indicate that the activity and attitude of individuals in performing extra-role behaviour, specifically advocacy, during service interaction is favourable. We conclude that value co-creation not only refers to co-production through company-customer interaction, but also the co-creation of value through customer-to-customer interaction. This advocacy behaviour contributes to enhancing the consumers' quality of life. Previous studies have found similar results, where customer efforts in value creation activities (EVCA) positively influenced customers' quality of life (Sweeney et al., 2015).

Our focus was on health-related services with transformational potential that can enhance people's well-being. Drawing on the research findings, we provide recommendations for the stakeholders in the healthcare sector. Maintaining and improving the value of health-related services plays a significant role in promoting health and preventing illness. A successful organisation prioritises consumer value. Customised services and better service quality may enhance the perceived outcome value. Because the social and competitive environment in the healthcare services industry changes dynamically. As the social and competitive environment of the healthy services industry changes dynamically, service institutions should focus on key factors. Analysing value co-creation behaviour presents a serious challenge in the case of healthy lifestyle services. Whether there is a contractual relationship between the health-related service provider and the consumer is unclear. Participatory behaviours, such as information sharing and voluntary in-role feedback, are essential forms of customer-provider interaction. Customer participation in interaction-based transformative services is useful in the form of information sharing and responsible behaviour. These actions help both the company, and its customers understand their requirements and resources better.

This article makes a notable contribution by expanding the existing literature on TSR to the healthcare market. The research offers significant insights into the direct impact of value co-creation behaviour on perceived value and health, and its direct and indirect impact on life satisfaction in the context of health-related services. The exploration of the consequences of value co-creation behaviour can benefit both the social marketing and health markets.

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MARKETING CHALLENGES FACED BY NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS IN EMERGING COUNTRIES: THE CASE OF TUNISIA

There has been a drastic increase in the number of non-profit organizations (NPOs) worldwide. Not only, do these organizations contribute to economic development but also they foster leadership and engagement to improve the quality of life of others. Hence, their growth is key for local, regional, and national development. Nevertheless, there is a lack of interest in literature regarding the management of NPOs and NGOs, especially in the marketing field. Indeed, the specificity of these organizations is witnessed through their social objectives, volunteering-based workforce, funding particularities and the different challenges they encounter. However, it is important for a non-profit organization not only to implement a marketing strategy, but also to adapt it to the particularities of its social objectives and differentiate it from the objectives of for-profit companies. In order to propose theoretical models adapted to these particularities, it is necessary to understand the challenges encountered by these organizations.

This study aims to identify the major challenges faced by non-profit organizations in emerging countries, focusing on the case of Tunisia. Emerging countries create more complexity for NGOs especially in Tunisia, post revolution context.

The empirical study followed a qualitative methodology using individual-semi-structured interviews in ten associations serving several fields, sizes, and based in different regions in Tunisia.

The results showed that associations faced several marketing and communication challenges that can be associated specifically to the Tunisian context but also to the nature of associations themselves (Who are the targets? What kind of message do NPOs want to deliver? Through which channel?).

Keywords: *Non-profit organization, challenges, marketing, communication*

Introduction

Manji and O’Coill (2002, p. 568) described nonprofit organizations as a prominent part of the ‘development machine’, a vast institutional and disciplinary nexus of official agencies, practitioners, consultants, scholars, and other miscellaneous experts. Furthermore, Hassan and Forhad (2013, p.60) argue that NPOs are supporting the government through engaging in “grass-root-level developmental initiatives”. According to Cullen et al. (2021), specifically in Africa, NPOs have acquired a strong influence at the end of the 20th century and expanded drastically, after playing a significant role in delivering development aid to the continent in the 50s and 60s. Additionally, Manji and O’Coill (2002, p.568) argue that nonprofits support emerging countries, to emancipate themselves from oppression. That was the case in some African countries, including Tunisia amid the democratic transition that started in 2011.

In these countries, voluntary associations are a predominant element in nonprofit sector since they are more oriented towards local governance, and specific regional issues and are directly involved in local communities. Regardless of their type, size, and mission, voluntary associations have played an important role in the promotion of economic growth and prosperity. A massive amount of funds is daily awarded to work on diverse topics including local governance, youth-related issues, advocacy, political change, and so on. Nevertheless, the nonprofit sector in emerging countries, is facing various challenges. They are still struggling to fulfill their role in fostering economic development and maintaining economic stability.

To ensure this role, they have to adopt managerial strategies and good governance, particularly in the marketing field; in order to attract funds, mobilize volunteers, reach beneficiaries...

Despite the role played by voluntary NGOs, few researchers in management were attracted by this field. Indeed, although there are several researches on private companies, there is a lack of research in the management of NGOs, especially in the marketing field. The few researches in this field have especially focused on communication aspects related to the marketing mix. On one hand, distribution and services offered are very different compared to private companies, on the other hand, associations offer free services.

Therefore, researchers should develop marketing communication models that take into account the specificities of voluntary NGOs and associations. Indeed, According to Dacheux (2022), as business management is not adapted to the management of associations (Bernet et al., 2017) and therefore there is a call for “thinking other management models” (Eynaud - Filho, 2020). It has become apparent that a new framework of communication adapted to Social and Solidary Economy Organisations (SSEOs) and NGOs must be developed. In order to establish new approaches, it is important to understand the issues and challenges faced by NGOs. This is precisely the objective of this research work, which aims to respond to the following question: *What are the marketing communication challenges faced by voluntary associations in emerging countries?*

As there is a lack of studies on voluntary associations in literature, our objective is to describe real-life experiences of the associations themselves. This paper will be structured as follows: in the first section, we will present the literature review. After introducing our methodological positioning, we will dive into the data analysis. Finally, we will present the discussion and conclusion.

Literature Review

The Association-NPO Conceptual Dilemma

In order to answer our research question, we will start by defining two concepts: nonprofit organizations (NGO), and voluntary associations in order to understand the difference between them.

According to Barany and Moser (2009, p.37) as: "Although one can find almost as many definitions of civil society as there are discussions of it, the term commonly refers to all voluntary associations that exist below the level of the state, but above the family". Thus, associations are considered subsets of the civil society.

"Association is highly linked with the civil society concept and used to include nonprofit-making groups generally, whether corporations or not" (Chafee, 1930, p.996). Harris (1998) refers to associations as a substantial part or the core of the nonprofit sector that includes local and supralocal groups. On another note, Kilby (2004, p.2) defines NPOs as "self-governing independent bodies, voluntary in nature, and tend to engage both their supporters and constituency on the basis of values or some shared interest or concern".

In this vein, Chang (2005) stated that due to the heavy transformation of civil society, nowadays, there is no fundamental difference between nongovernmental organizations, nonprofit organizations, community-based organizations, national organizations, international organizations, or voluntary associations. In light of the definitions mentioned above for both voluntary associations and NPOs, we conclude that both concepts stem from a voluntaristic act of a local or supralocal group of people that has a common purpose other than profit. This explains why the terms NPO and association are used conversely in the literature (Chang, 2005; Kajimbwa, 2006; Gotz, 2008). In this paper, we will consider nonprofit organizations and voluntary associations as synonymous.

Marketing communication in voluntary associations

Decheux (2022b, p. 68) defined communication in NGOs as "an intentional human relationship of sharing of meaning that is part of a duration (it is not an instantaneous process) and in a given context". Communicating is not imposing a certain image of a brand but it means sharing time and space to invite others to critical reflection. It is about co-constructing a common sense while leaving everyone the freedom to build their own meaning. In a social and philosophical approach, Dacheux (2022a) distinguishes between persuasion, transmission

and connection and argues that social communication must go beyond the transmission of information. It must be persuasive to aspire to change behavior and attitude. An NGO must identify its audience in order to co-construct the message with it. The author proposes to change the approach of marketing communication by giving up awareness-raising and lobbying and developing a sharing of knowledge among the NGO and the beneficiaries.

Malaval et al. (2005) proposed to adapt the communication plan according to the target and the objective of the association. However, they distinguish between two targets: the donors (companies, members, donors...) and the beneficiaries of the activities. Indeed, the content of the message and the tools used will not be the same for one or of the other targets. In order to persuade donors, the authors have studied their motivations and propose to build the message around the pleasure of giving, the construction and media coverage of the “image” that these donors wish to convey to the public. Concerning the beneficiaries, the message depends on the service rendered. In the case of an awareness-raising action, the association reach their target through the organization of media events and maintaining a presence in the media (newspapers, TV, radio ...). Direct communication can be an effective means of persuasion toward both targets (one-to-one visits, emails, phoning campaign, etc.).

Gallopel-Morvan et al. (2019) were interested in advertising campaigns aimed at changing the attitude of beneficiaries. They based their reasoning on the model of hierarchy of effects (Ladvige - Steiner, 1961) and that of Petty et al. (1983) to explain the receiver (beneficiary) process of attitudes' change. In case the beneficiaries are involved in the social cause, they will process the message disseminated by the association in a central way. Thus, they, actively receive information and expect precise, relevant, credible, serious, and detailed message.

However, this model may not be effective if the individual is not involved in the social cause or is more emotional than rational. Indeed, behavioral economics research has clearly demonstrated the irrationality of human behavior. For example, for a campaign against the damage caused by smoking, receiver can adopt a behavior of denial and minimization of risk (“advertising is exaggerating”) or/and rationalization (“one must die one day”).

In order to avoid these challenges, researchers suggest using messages that attract attention through techniques, such as teasing, provocation, bringing up taboos, engaging celebrities that provide the advertising audience with experiences that generate positive emotions: humor, pleasure, joy, sympathy (Holbrook - Hirschmann, 1982). In addition, creating advertisements appreciated by the target through music, pictures, the use of colors, linking messages to scenarios is a good strategy to keep an engaged audience. Indeed, in the case of an audience weakly involved in the social cause, the message will be treated in a peripheral way and the appreciation of the advertisement will relate to its object.

According to Gallopel-Morvan et al. (2019), an advertising campaign aimed to change behavior of the beneficiaries should be based on 5 steps: 1- Target segmentation. 2- Involving members. 3- Identifying motivations and barriers to the behavior. 4- Planning the media campaign and writing a communication brief (context, objective, target, constraints, media planning, message...). 5- Efficiency measure (compare communication objectives to results).

In addition to direct communication and media advertising, nowadays associations are using social media in their communication strategies. They use Facebook, Twitter, Instagram,

Snapchat, YouTube and the list goes long. According to the study of Bazin and Mollet (2014), for associations, social media is becoming a major means of communication in addition to their official websites. Indeed, these social media can be useful to raise awareness about their projects, collect funds, engage the community, modernize the management of the association, and build an attractive image. The choice of these tools depends on their response to the needs and missions of each association (Bazin - Mollet, 2014), in particular the nature of the targets and the objectives. Thus, associations adapt their communication according to the characteristics and functionalities of each social media (Bazin -Mollet, 2014).

For Dolbeau-Bandin et al. (2017), the social media allows the association to create notoriety and visibility. This channel has three functions: 1- Information on the association's agenda (beneficiary, members, and volunteers), 2-Data sharing, 3-Showcasing an event... This sharing aims to co-produce content with the target and improve referencing. Associations do not collect only likes on Facebook: they sometimes invite likers to participate in their publications by commenting, liking or sharing their information. When the hashtag is used, it is unifying since it creates a potential for dissemination and relay (partners, researchers, journalists, and youth). Thus, the digital volunteer by following, liking, tweeting, re-tweeting becomes an ambassador or spokesperson. 3- Create animation for stockholders through polls, comments... Through posts, tweets, retweets, fixed or animated visuals, the receiver can take note of the different actions required by the association and the contexts related to them. It allows creating an important event activity with regular publications of various visuals (videos, photographs, references to campaigns...). Social media also allows communication not only with the target but also with partners and other fellow associations.

However, this tool has limitations. For example, in the case where an association wishes to present detailed information, it should be done on the official website (Dolbeau-Bandin et al., 2017).

Empirical study

Objective of the Study

The objective of this research is to explore the different marketing challenges faced by Tunisian associations. Considering this purpose, the epistemological positioning that fits our study is interpretivism. In fact, we aim to understand and extract meanings from those who are engaged in non-profit activities' opinions, experiences, ideas, and values. These understandings would help us to grasp a social phenomenon, which is in our case the marketing challenges that associations are facing. We believe that the representations shared by respondents are dependent on contextual variants. Therefore, it is important to have multiple interpretations of the phenomenon. Our study aims to analyze the hurdles facing associations while taking into account the specificities of the context. Within this framework, we adopt an inductive reasoning in our research. Looking into facts, real experiences, and raw ideas and opinions, we will be able to assemble a clearer vision of the Tunisian civil society landscape and understand

the different challenges facing Tunisian associations. The research methodology is qualitative using individual, semi-structured interviews as it helps to deepen our understanding of the phenomenon and contextualize the study. It allows digging into real experiences and different perspectives to draw a bigger picture of the associations as nonprofit organizations.

Data collection

The exploratory qualitative study targets associations in Tunisia. The objective is to identify and understand the challenges encountered by associations in a nascent democracy. This research was based on a semi- directed interview guide (see appendix), consisting of 4 themes representing the challenges encountered by NGOs according to the literature.

Theme	Theory associated
Presentation of an association: Objectives, foundation, activities, structure, resources, geographic reach	The general theory of systems (Von Bertalanffy, 1967) affirmed that “the organization is characterized by five elements in interaction: the differentiated elements (the function), the borders of the system with its environment (structure) the environment (stakeholders), the generic objective and the procedures of the regulation (decisions and actions)”.
Association’s functioning: internal and external challenges	
Relationship with stakeholders	Stakeholder theory: Freeman (2001) states that stakeholders’ groups must participate in determining the future direction of the firm... These stakeholders include employees, financiers, customers, management, and communities.
Communication and marketing challenges	Relationship marketing theory (Christopher et al., 1991), acknowledged the importance of collaboration and maintaining a strong relationship with different stakeholders and customers to create an added value. Importance of Marketing communication in NGOs (Dacheux, 2022b).

Table 1 Theoretical Background Association
Source: Own editing

We developed a sample of respondents that have valuable experiences in civil society and hold positions in those associations, whether receiving remunerations or working voluntarily. The associations are based in different regions and work on different development areas. We have conducted ten in-depth interviews (Table 2). The associations represent different regions in Tunisia, where civil society is the most active (Sfax, Tunis, and Sousse) accounting for over 42 per cent of the total number of associations on the national level according to IFEDA (2023). We have interviewed paid and unpaid members holding different positions and responsibilities so that we can have different perspectives regarding the matter. We conducted online interviews, due to COVID-19 related restrictions and when possible face to face interviews. The interviews took an average of 50 minutes and were all recorded.

Association	Region	Interviewee	Position	Gender	Paid / unpaid
Tounes Lina	Sfax	P1	President	Male	Unpaid
We Youth	Sfax	P2	Communication Officer	Male	Paid
Sawty Sousse	Sousse	P3	Media and Communication Manager	Male	Unpaid
OTCS	Tunis	P4	General Secretary	Female	Unpaid
Fondation Jasmin	Tunis	P5	Community Manager	Male	Paid
OST	Tunis	P6	Director	Female	Paid
APE	Tunis	P7	President	Male	Unpaid
Association des anciens de l'ISCAE	Tunis	P8	President	Female	Unpaid
UTIL	Tunis, Gafsa, Kasserine	P9	President	Male	Unpaid
Tabboura	Siliana	P10	Project manager	Male	Paid

Table 2 Sample Details of the First Exploratory Study
 Source: Own editing

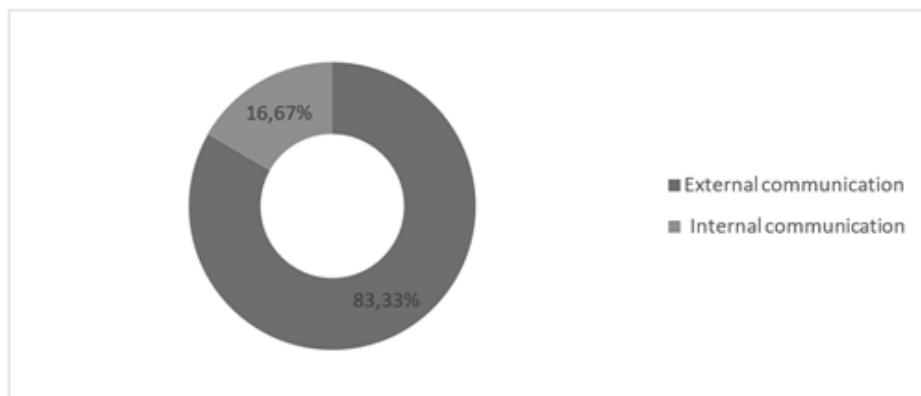
Data analysis

The analysis has shown the existence of two types of communication channels: Internal and external.

The association's internal communication is among members: target members, employees, volunteers, etc. It enfold the exchange of information within the association. It develops a sense of engagement, trust and transparency within members. They need to know everything regarding the financials of the association and the current and future projects and understand the objectives, vision and mission of the organization.

The association's external communication targets stakeholders such as beneficiaries, partners, donors, etc. It is about communicating ideas, activities, objectives and any other element that is not considered as confidential to external members.

The challenges encountered in the external communication seem to be more important for the respondents *"Communication is one of the most significant challenges. Indeed, there are many partners or sponsors, and it is often difficult to satisfy everyone."* (see: Graph 1.).



Graph 1 Occurrence of the communication sub-themes

Source: Own editing

The analysis of interviews reveals the following external communication challenges:

Unfamiliarity with the concept of external communication.

Most of the interviewees do not know what "external communication" is, nor its usefulness. They often confuse internal communication with external communication.

When talking about their external communication strategy, respondents often mentioned transparency in the association, good governance, and accountability *"Internally, there are*

mainly communication problems. This refers to a lack of communication between teams or sometimes a misperception of actions that leads to conflicts". According to respondents, setting up a clear organizational chart and a manual of procedures for good governance, defining the tasks to be accomplished, establishing a system of communication and information transmission internally and setting up a mailing system for transparency and communication between members and the executive board, seems to be one of the very first steps in establishing a communication strategy within an association. They often took as examples emails sent to members, financial and narrative reports sent to members of the executive board... *"We use Outlook for all types of communication internally"*.

Lack of communication plans

According to the results, even though some associations are familiar with external communication, sometimes they do not have a methodology for implementing their communication plan. Some participants agreed that associations *"don't know how to communicate their activities"*. *"For external communication, there was no communication plan in place before."* *"We don't know how to showcase the association, how to sell the association's work, and we neglect self-branding or association branding because we are just implementing the program."* There is also a difficulty in being recognized in the sector. According to the participants, establishing a communication strategy seems to be a hard task when it comes to non-profit organizations. *"Rare are those who know how to communicate well"*.

First, they don't have a clear mission and vision *"Tunisian associations have no vision and mission, because it is not imposed by the law"*.

Second, they don't have clear objectives, or they misunderstand the real objective of an association. Their communication is focused on the association instead of being focused on the social cause. Indeed, their main objective is the awareness about the association, and their communication plan is based around their activities rather than the social values. Indeed, the main objective is to communicate, create change in behavior and attitudes of their target *"We use social media to broadcast our activities."*

Third, associations don't use the proper channels adapted to their target.

According to the participants, they communicate about their activities exclusively through social media platforms, mainly Facebook. *"We use social media, mainly Facebook, to communicate about our activities"*. However, some targets are not digital, such as the elderly or people living in rural areas, and should be targeted through different channels, like face to face communication or traditional mass communication (radio, newspapers, TV...). Other targets such as young people are more exposed to other social networks such as Instagram or TikTok...

Fourth, some associations don't have a graphic charter. And even if they have, they don't respect it in their communication means (including their posters, social networks, business cards, flyers...).

Finally, any change in the target's mindset and behavior needs a continuous presence in the media, over a long period, whereas according to the interviewees, associations communicate occasionally, often when there is an activity or an event *"We need to gain the trust of the people we deal with...But it's not something we should do occasionally, we need to be always present."*

The role of media

Most respondents confirm the importance of media (TV, radio, Newspapers...) in non-profit communication strategies. *"The relationship with the media is rather good, as they are an important channel to communicate about the association's projects."* But the problem is that media is not communicating well about the non-profit sector. *"No relationships with the media."* *"Media coverage is not enough."* *"Civil society has no place in the media"*. Indeed, except for few sections in radio programs, no media devotes a space dedicated to associations' activities. *"Let's see how many programs are interested in the association's work on all the radios! Few"*. This can be due to several causes:

First, the social activities and topics that associations are dealing with are not appealing to the media because they don't generate audience, then they don't attract investors *"Media are attracted by topics that create the buzz"*.

Second, this might be also due to financial problems. Not all associations can afford to pay for ads. Indeed, the creation and diffusion of advertising in media is expensive. Private companies can afford it through the sale of their products, unlike associations which are not allowed to have lucrative activities.

Third, it can be a networking-related problem. To reach the media and publish the message, you need to have a network. While associations generally do not have contacts in this area, unlike private companies which are already connected and work with advertising agencies.

There is also another hypothesis suggesting that this relationship could be enhanced by establishing partnerships.

While dealing with the media seems to be a controversial topic, the nature of the relationship between the government and the associations is even more controversial. *"Some of them show a positive attitude at the beginning and later withdraw the agreement."* *"We have a weak relationship with the government."* *"The Government didn't cherish the efforts made by youth."* The communication government-association tends to be one-sided. *"Many associations are sending positive messages for the government by taking on responsibilities."*

Communication tools

Several communication tools are used by associations, including online media such as websites, social media (especially Facebook) and offline media as regular reports provided to the funders to explain the progress of the projects and to track the budgets, press releases, and traditional media, brochures, reports, annual reports, magazine... But they often use tools that are non-adapted to the target.

A targeted communication

Despite the lack of communication plans, there is an attempt to develop communication tools and messages that fit and stimulate a specific target. Some associations are conscious about the importance of targeting and positioning. *"Each target audience requires its own communication plan. The most important thing is not to establish contact but to maintain that communication, that's the most important thing."* *"The most important thing is to differentiate yourself and position the program differently or on a different segment."*

According to some interviewees, it is essential to identify partners and to know how to communicate with them. *"Everything related to online and offline communication strategy, including the branding of the organization: how we communicate with beneficiaries, institutions..."* They mentioned that it is necessary to consolidate the relationship with the partners by updating them about your activities strategies, validating changes with them, and sending them detailed reports. As for the government, associations need to communicate their output very well, publish detailed reports, and confirm operations regularly.

Therefore, they should have a transparent communication with the public, partners, and stakeholders. This would encourage them to collaborate in future opportunities with the association. As for communicating with the public, associations need to publish their reports in an open source periodically and present them upon request. Keeping an open and continuous communication with partners and the public falls into corporate transparency. It helps in maintaining open lines of communication with external stakeholders.

An association has to be transparent with its members in the first place to gain their loyalty and with the outside world in the second place to show their commitment to their objectives.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study aims to identify the marketing challenges faced by non-profit organizations in emerging countries. We took the case of Tunisia as a reference, being a nascent democracy in the Middle East and North Africa region with the potential of meeting the standards of a developed nation. (Karakoç - Özcan, 2022; Chebab - Zribi, 2012), but also because Tunisia is booming with non-profit organizations, engaged in offering a better day to day life for their communities.

The first results of this study emphasize the challenges faced by associations to develop their marketing and communication campaigns. External communication was the most important challenge even though respondents seemed be confused about it and not sure about the messages to be conveyed. In the same line of thought, Dacheux (2022b) has demonstrated the importance of external communication and the necessity of rethinking it today to adopt new meaningful messages that are open to interpretation by the audience.

Although literature on associations has fostered the importance of the message and the inadequacy of advertising nowadays to attract beneficiaries and donors (Gallopel-Morvan et al., 2019; Holbrook - Hirschmann, 1982), our study shows that associations in Tunisia are still

in an embryonic stage. Not only are they confused about internal and external communication but also they lack methodology and competencies in developing their campaigns.

Interviews with members of Tunisian associations showed that even if the targets of the associations are well identified (beneficiaries, government, public authorities, donors, companies...), they are still facing challenges when it comes to designing and implementing their marketing communication plans. These difficulties prevent them from achieving their objectives properly, especially raising awareness, attracting donors, and changing behavior. Indeed, some associations are unfamiliar with marketing communication. Moreover, most associations do not have clear objectives. They just communicate frequently on their activities, using tools, messages, and channels that are not adapted to the target.

Another problem encountered by associations is the lack of access to traditional mass media (TV, radio, etc.), which prevents them from reaching their audience. Although according to the studies of Bouquillion et al., (2011); Génération Generali, (2013); Bazin, - Mollet, (2014); Digimind, (2015), social media is becoming a major means of communication for associations, in Tunisia traditional media occupy a more important position. Indeed, traditional media (mass media) allows associations to reach a larger audience, especially the targeted beneficiaries: vulnerable population, people with low socio-professional status and intellectual level, and elderly people. Furthermore, their audiovisual characteristics allow associations to better influence behaviors and change public attitudes as in the case of awareness campaigns.

These problems emanate from two causes:

First, there is a lack of literature on the communication models that take into consideration the specificities of NPOs / associations. The essential role played by associations in emerging countries and the importance of establishing marketing communication strategy to achieve their mission, vision, and objectives, should challenge researchers to develop tools adapted to the specificities of NPOs' targets and activities (non-profit, diversity of targets, management by projects, social objectives, etc.).

Second, association managers are not in a position to properly design the marketing strategy given their limited knowledge and competencies in this field. The non-profit workforce does not have the required communication skills. Associations' presidents and top managers should be aware of the meaning and importance of marketing communication and set up capacity-building opportunities for its members to learn about it. Some participants had to learn on their own how to do graphic designs to maintain a continuous communication of the different activities of the association. They should engage professionals to implement communication plans adapted to each target, by answering the following questions: What is the context? What are the communication objectives? What is the object of the communication? What is the form of the communication? What is the message? In what channel? What is the schedule, the duration? What are the constraints (in terms of budget, schedule)? What are the limits of the message (messages of fear...)?

Thirdly, associations often do not have access to mass media preventing them from reaching a large part of the target audience who do not use digital media. Given the role played by associations in emerging countries, governments should encourage the creation of media (TV, radio, newspapers, etc.) whose editorial line is exclusively dedicated to associations.

Moreover, governments can subsidize spaces for messages from associations to be conveyed in media supports.

In conclusion, this study helps to point out the inefficiencies in the marketing and communication campaigns in NGOs. Once the origin of these inefficiencies identified (misunderstanding, lack of competencies, lack of resources...), this would pave the way for a better communication for the association and help it reach its objectives more easily.

One of the main limitations of this study is the difficulty of generalizing the findings and applying them to different contexts. Therefore, we suggest:

- Complementing this paper with a quantitative study on a representative sample to confirm the results.
- Reproducing this qualitative study in other emerging countries in order to be able to confirm the marketing challenges identified in this study.

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APPENDIX

Appendix I. *Interview Guide*

Theme 1. PRESENTATION OF THE ASSOCIATION AND ITS FUNCTIONING

- Presentation of the association (Foundation, objectives, activity, geographic territory, resources, employees...)
- Functioning of the association: What are the projects you are working on now? How does your association function internally? (Orientation, hierarchy, role of volunteers in the decision making...)
- Internal and external challenges: What are the main challenges faced by the association internally and externally? How does the association react to those challenges? Do you know other associations that are dealing with the same challenges? What kind of solutions were developed?

Theme 2. RELATIONSHIP WITH STAKEHOLDERS

How can you describe your relationship with the media/government/donors? How can we improve it? Your prospects for the future regarding associations?

Theme 3. COMMUNICATION AND MARKETING CHALLENGES

Do you have a marketing and communication plan? What's your plan? What are the tools of communication? What are your communication objectives? What difficulties do you encounter?

Theme 4. PROFILE

Name & Last name, position in the association, years of membership, voluntaries, gender, age, contact.

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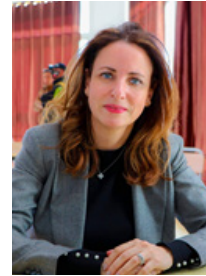


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ÁNGELS GANDIA MORIÓ - MARIA-TERESA SEBASTIÁ-FRASQUET

ASSESSMENT OF THE ECOLABELING IMPACT ON THE RESPONSE OF YOUNG CONSUMERS. DIFFERENTIAL ANALYSIS OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE DEGREE'S STUDENTS

In the current market, we find many ecolabels that are used to identify organic products. When the consumer is faced with an ecolabel, they do not always receive the appropriate message, since the information in these can be part of what experts call greenwashing. In this research, the perceptions of the average consumer are analysed through a survey designed to assess knowledge of ecolabels and their impact on consumption habits. The survey is aimed at a young audience aged between 20 - 25 years. In addition, the differences between students of the Degree in Environmental Sciences who have not yet received specific training in this regard, and the general public are analysed. The results show that most surveyed do not know the terms “ecolabel” and “greenwashing”. In addition, they do not find them completely reliable or visible, with an average of around 3 out of 5, but they do consider that it is more sustainable to buy products with ecolabelling. The most resonant ecolabels among the surveyed are also the most reliable among them, although when compared with other studies, the results do not coincide. An international group is also analysed, where it is found that labels that work very well in some regions, do not work in the same way in others. Thus, in order to solve the problems encountered, a standardized and easy-to-understand label is proposed, of the traffic light type, which would be based on the carbon footprint model.

Introduction

In recent decades, ecolabels have been used as a tool to communicate that a certain product is environmentally friendly (Kabaja et al., 2022). One of the greatest advantages for companies that use them is to distinguish themselves from the competition and demonstrate greater corporate social responsibility. Ecolabeling is characterized by a pre-established graphic form and is proof of compliance with specific standards by a producer. It must be easy to understand, reliable and consistent, and display features that are in line with legal responsibility. In theory, if consumers understand the significance of the superior ecological characteristics of eco-labelled products compared to non-eco-labelled products, they are willing to pay an ecological premium (Chang – Su, 2022). This relationship with the price of the product can be perceived

differently depending on the type of consumer. There are studies that indicate that consumers in developing countries perceive them as “high-priced products” specific to a certain group of consumers with greater purchasing power (Sharaf et al., 2015).

Knowing the impact that ecolabels have on the consumption of products that display them is important, and research shows it is more complex than expected. Some research focuses on how consumers make informed decisions after being exposed to eco-labelled products, while others focus on the factors that determine the attention paid to eco-labels (Kabaja et al., 2022). The impact of having knowledge about green products can affect the use and purchase of those green products. For this reason, consumer attitudes may depend on knowing the meaning of the respective ecolabels and trusting them (Todaro et al., 2019). Therefore, the recognisability of ecolabels is a very important element.

In this study we consider the importance of knowledge of eco-labels in the purchasing behaviour of young consumers (20–25 years old). The behaviour of this sector of the population is one of the least studied in previous research (Kabaja et al., 2022; Sharaf et al., 2015; Song et al., 2019).

The objective of this research is to analyse the perceptions of young consumers (20–25 years old) through a survey designed to evaluate knowledge of ecolabels, and their impact on consumption habits. Furthermore, it is to investigate whether there are differences between students of the bachelor’s degree in environmental sciences who have not received specific training in eco-labelling but who are characterized by having greater knowledge and sensitivity to environmental aspects than the general public, and the young public in general.

Methodology

Study population

To carry out the study and achieve the stated objectives, two surveys were carried out with two different audiences. The “Spanish Public Survey” addressed two groups. The first group was made up of 65 students surveyed from the second and third years of the bachelor’s degree in environmental sciences at the Universitat Politècnica de València (Gandía, Spain) during the 2021–2022 and 2022–2023 academic years. The second group were 59 surveyed who were not environmental sciences students. In total, 124 surveyed. The survey was passed to environmental sciences students in class. For the second group, the survey was disseminated through the social network WhatsApp. The survey was left open for a period of 30 days.

The choice of these two groups was done because it is assumed that the first group, being students of the bachelor’s degree in environmental sciences, are motivated and have interest in these topics, which could favour knowledge of the concepts to be studied. On the other side, the second group is a general, and is supposed to be a more representative sample of society.

Once this survey was completed, the results suggested the expansion of a new line of study focused on knowing the internationalization of the ecolabels studied and the possibility of a standardization proposal. Then, a second survey was created, and it was called “International

Public Survey". In this some questions from the "Spanish Public Survey" were recycled to be passed to a group of undergraduate, master's and doctoral students with knowledge of current environmental problems in different European countries (6 surveyed) and a group from South America (14 surveyed). The dissemination of this new survey was carried out through WhatsApp.

Survey design

The survey was done using the Google Forms program, included in the Google Drive package. The "Spanish Public Survey" consists of 18 questions, 14 closed-ended and four open-ended. It was written in the two official languages of the Valencian Region (Valencian and Spanish), and it was divided into three parts: 1) General sociodemographic data, 2) Questions focused on the research objectives, and 3) Voluntary section to deepen the research.

Each part is presented on a different page, that is, when all the questions in a block are answered and you go to the next page, you cannot go back.

The Environmental Sciences students were given the entire survey, while, for the general young public, completing the third part of the survey was voluntary.

A question was added in the first part to the "International Public Survey" to indicate nationality, and it was translated into English.

The responses were coded using the Excel program, a Microsoft spreadsheet, and the results were analysed using the Excel© and Statgraphics© programs.

The complete surveys can be consulted in the following links:

- "Spanish Public Survey" first and second sections: https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLScScNWdN4ge4_vsNzCW3uGhwPrikJnMqF1UhJRTFDKgdHN8bA/viewform?usp=sf_link.
- "Spanish Public Survey", third section: https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSdGXdLzdJDCCt2DEdAuIPKMu6OqZK4aGFagA0EFQMEgXgkysg/viewform?usp=sf_link
- "International Public Survey" (English): https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLScIDTBEDT-DiFSQcdCpwiND58rXzwLGqMDsO07t_9UexmR1cg/viewform?usp=sf_link
- "International Public Survey" (Spanish): https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSdGXdLzdJDCCt2DEdAuIPKMu6OqZK4aGFagA0EFQMEgXgkysg/viewform?usp=sf_link

Results and discussion

In relation to the number of establishments frequented (supermarkets), 30.43% of those surveyed make their purchases in 3 different establishments.

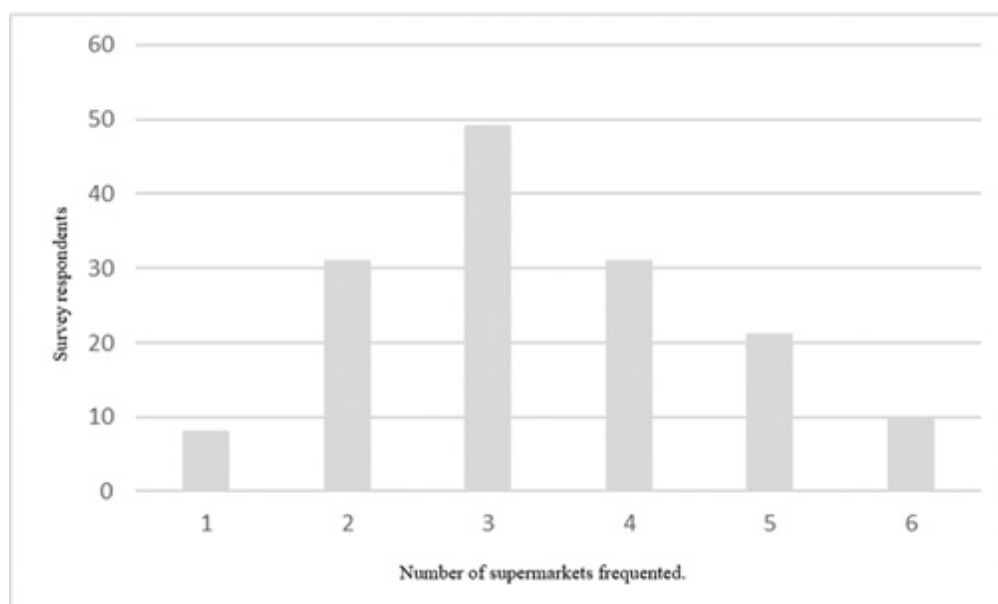


Figure 1 Number of supermarkets frequented by the survey respondents.

Source: own editing.

The approximate average of 3.5 supermarkets suggests that consumers do not mind going to multiple stores to obtain their products, which is why they tend to go to different ones depending on the offer of each one. The most frequented supermarkets are shown in Figure 2.

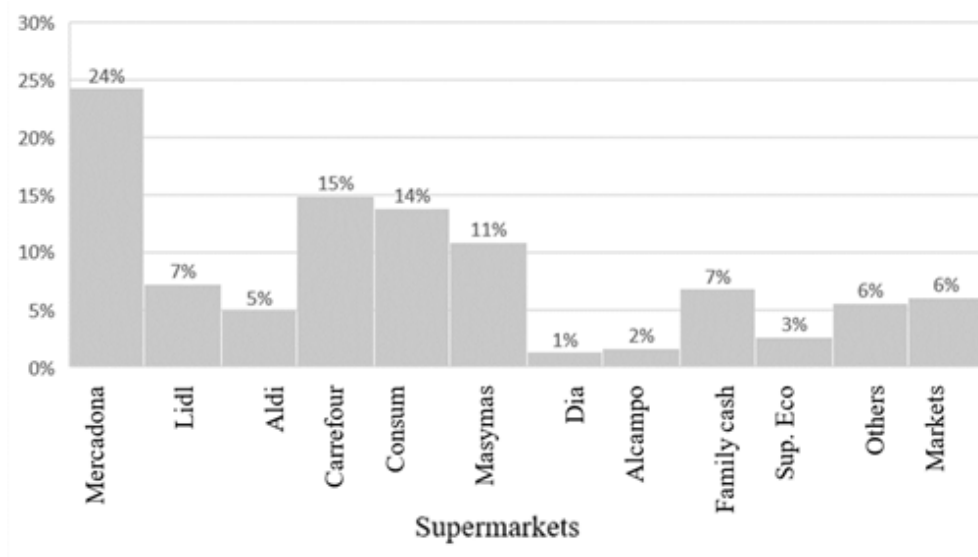


Figure 2 Supermarkets frequented by respondents.

Source: own editing.

In Figure 2. we see that, by far, the most frequented supermarket is Mercadona. This supermarket chain, born in the Valencian Region has a great expansion in the Spanish market. This study was carried out in the Valencian Region, so this result is not surprising. On the other side, we see a wide distribution in the rest of the supermarkets, with even 6% of respondents frequenting other types of stores.

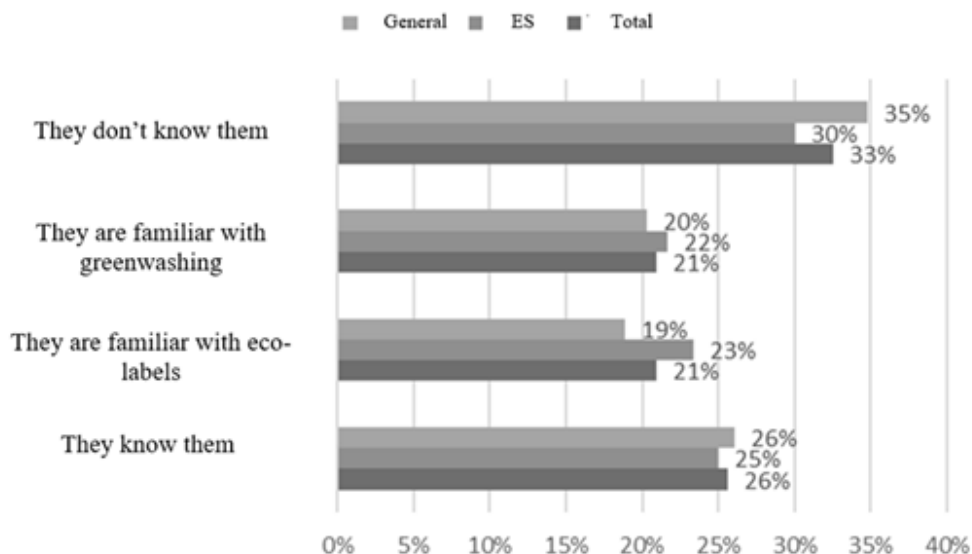
If these results are compared with the classification of supermarkets according to their commitments to stop plastic pollution in 2019 by Greenpeace (Greenpeace, 2019), it can be seen that the two supermarkets most frequented by those surveyed correspond to the two worst rated, with a 3.2 for Mercadona and 2.3 for Carrefour. On the contrary, supermarkets that exceed 5 in this classification and that are in the survey are little frequented by the respondents, such as Lidl, which obtained a 6.5, Alcampo, with a 6.2 and Aldi with a 6.1.

In addition, the Alcampo supermarket, together with the organization Marine Stewardship Council (MSC), has launched a blue seal for tuna, thus betting “on an environmentally friendly offer” (Alcampo and its sustainable tuna, 2022). However, this supermarket, which received a good score in the Greenpeace report and is committed to more sustainable measures, is rarely visited by only 2% of those surveyed.

Although the respondents usually make their purchases in more than one supermarket, sustainability does not seem to be a determining factor, but other factors such as establishment number, proximity, etc., not analysed in this research, could be more relevant.

The survey also asks if they know the concepts of ecolabel and greenwashing. It is observed that most of the respondents are unaware of both concepts. We compare the knowledge about the eco-label concept in the two sampled groups, environmental sciences students, and the general young public. In the first group, we obtain a balance between those surveyed who say they know what it is (48%) and between those that they do not (52%), while in the second group, we obtain a greater difference, since 66% do know what they are, and 34% do not.

Regarding the concept of greenwashing, 59% of the environmental sciences students surveyed claim to know the concept of greenwashing, while only 41% of the general young public do. These results are seen in figure 3. The top row of the blocks in the figure represents



the general, the middle row the ES and the bottom row the total results.

Figure 3 Percentage of knowledge of the eco-label and greenwashing concepts among the surveyed public (ES students with a bachelor's degree in environmental sciences).

Source: own editing.

Figure 4. shows the results of reliability and visibility of the eco-labels, it shows that in reliability a value of "neither very reliable nor unreliable" is attributed to them, while there is a majority opinion that they are visible or very visible. The first column of the blocks indicate the results of reliability and the second column the results of visibility.

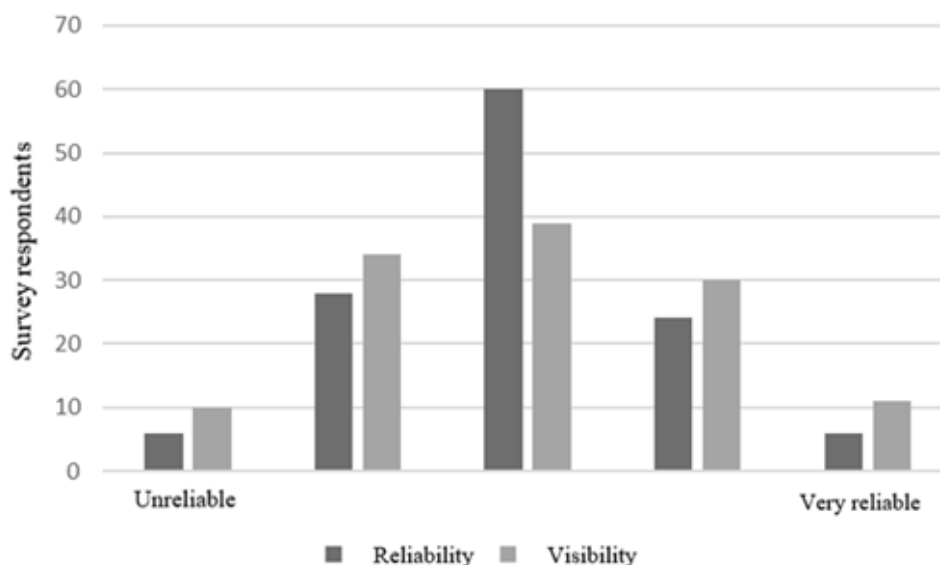


Figure 4 Percentage of surveyed and their opinion on the reliability and visibility of ecolabels.

Source: own editing

According to the Clickoala study (Clickoala, 2022), the trust that Spanish have in environmental certificates has been reduced by 6 points in the last two years, with only 49% of the population trusting them in 2021, while 10% distrust them. On the other hand, according to the OCU study (OCU, Organization of Consumers and Users, 2022a), “43% always or most of the times pay attention to environmental information/labels”. So, they are visible to consumers and fulfil their function. According to our results, most of the young people surveyed do not quite trust the accreditations, but they do not distrust them either. Comparing with the OCU study, a much smaller percentage of surveyed pays attention to ecolabels. Thus, the results obtained in this work and focused on a young audience do not reflect the same results as recent studies carried out in Spain on the general public.

Question 11 asks surveyed if they believe it is more sustainable to buy eco-labelled products and why.

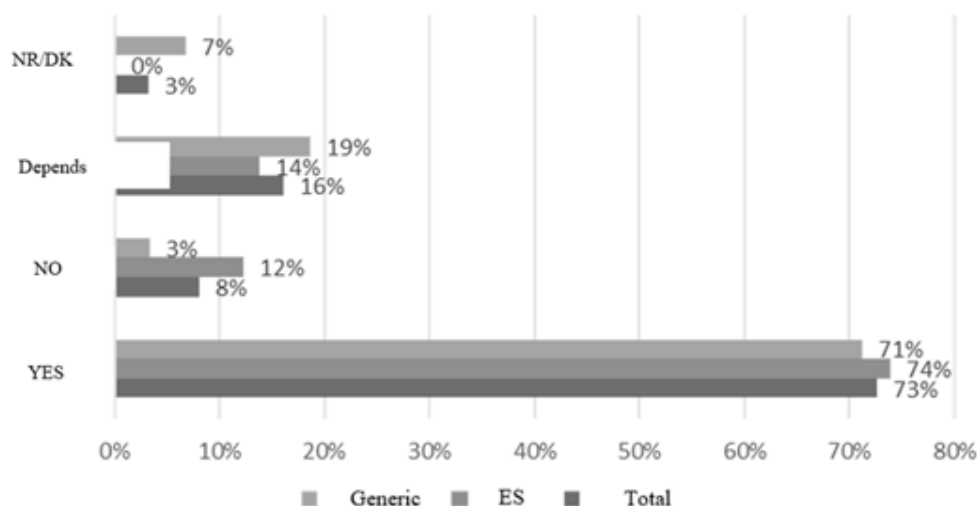


Figure 5 Percentage of surveyed and their opinion on the sustainability of buying eco-labelled products (ES students with a bachelor's degree in environmental sciences).

Source: own editing.

In Figure 5. the top row represents the results of generic, the middle row the ES and the bottom row the total results.

Both groups consider that it is more sustainable to buy products with eco-labels. The main reasons given are:

- Ecolabels mean that production or other life cycle processes have a lower impact on the environment.
- Ecolabels indicate a commitment to the environment.
- The environmental impact is considered.
- They guarantee compliance with established criteria.
- They are a sign of transparency.
- They are verified by an expert.
- There are institutions external to the product that have verified that the product meets the standards.

Even so, we found a clear difference between these two groups, since in the first group, environmental science students, ecolabels generate greater distrust, and 12% of those surveyed consider that they are not more sustainable than other products, while only 3% of other young people distrust them. Surveyed who do not consider them more sustainable believe so because:

- Sometimes it can be misleading.
- They are a greenwashing or marketing system.

- If they only refer to a part of the life cycle, there is no evidence of the impact of the rest.
- The values they request from companies to label are very low and it is an excuse to make them more expensive.

Surveyed believe that being more sustainable than other products depends on:

- It depends on the degree of reliability of the ecolabel and the requirements necessary to obtain it.
- It depends on the criteria and the origin of the product.
- Only because a process is more sustainable does not mean that the entire brand is.

Furthermore, many of those surveyed complain that, despite considering it sustainable, it is not economical, and that many consumers are not able to know them adequately, and, therefore, buy accordingly. Therefore, the lack of information about eco-labels means that they do not consider this aspect when purchasing one or another product.

Question 8 analyses the aspects that the surveyed consider important when making their purchases. In Figure 6, it is observed that the economic aspect is the most important, with the environmental aspect in third place behind health.

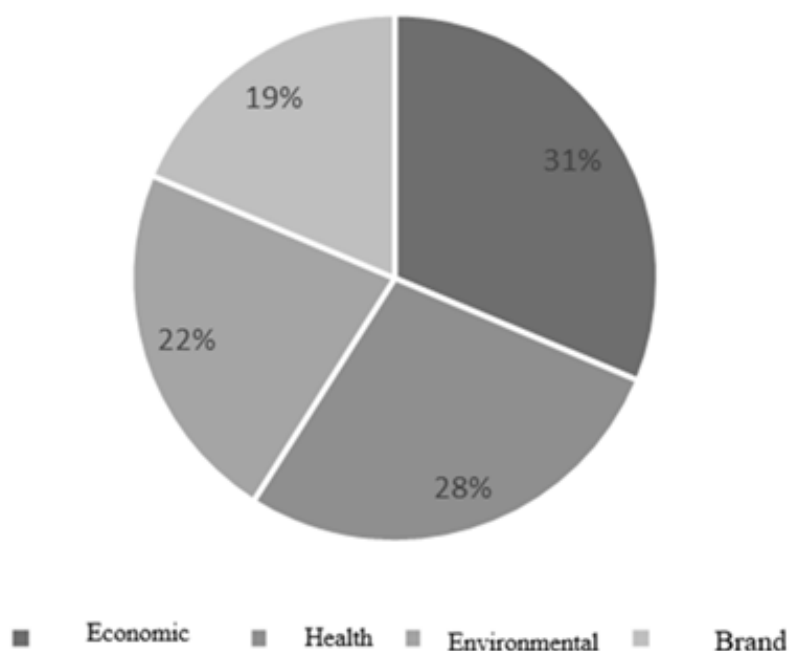


Figure 6 Most valued aspect in the choice of products according to the public surveyed.
Source: own editing.

The results shown in Figure 6. are distributed as follows: Economic (31%), Health (28%), Environmental (22%), Brand (19%).

Figure 7. analyses both groups separately, it shows that regardless of the profile, the young audience gives greater weight to price.

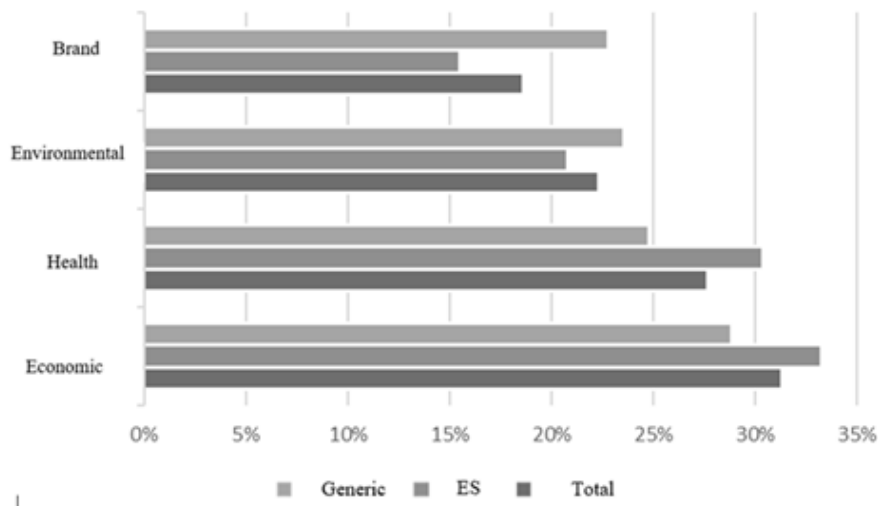


Figure 7 Most valued aspect in the choice of products according to the public surveyed (ES students with a bachelor's degree in environmental sciences).

Source: own editing.

In the blocks of Figure 7. the top row represents the generic, the middle row the ES and the bottom row the total results.

In Figure 8. we analyse which are the most purchased products with eco-labels, and we observe that surveyed buy more organic products in the food sector.

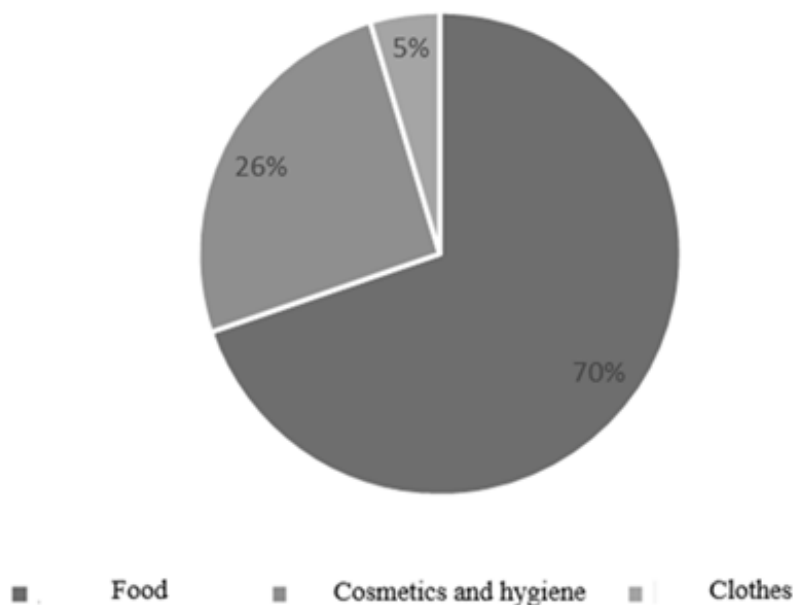


Figure 8 Percentage of eco-labelled products most purchased according to the public surveyed. Source: own editing.

The results shown in Figure 8. are distributed as follows: food (70%), cosmetics and hygiene (26%), clothes (5%).

This is probably because the food sector is where environmental ecolabels are more common. In the textile sector (clothes), the fast fashion is a well established phenomenon, it consists of “a phenomenon through which clothing collections are introduced that follow the latest fashion trends and that have been designed and manufactured in an accelerated and low-cost manner” (Mira, 2018). Therefore, when purchasing, society usually focuses more on price than on quality and environmental impact.

We found a publication from the Universitat Politècnica de València entitled “Pact for sustainable fashion, an initiative contributed to the Future for Fashion event” where the university itself and several companies in the fashion industry participated, where professor Esteban Galán stated that “sustainability is part of the value of fashion brands, with 40% of consumers considering it very important when making a purchase” (Universitat Politècnica de València, 2022). These percentages do not coincide with the results of this work observed in young people.

Question 13 asks surveyed if they regularly and consciously buy organic products, and 59% of respondents do not. This may be because, as abovementioned, the young people surveyed base their purchases on the economic factor, not on the environmental impact that the products generate.

Question 14 asks surveyed if they think that organic products are more expensive, and 90% of those surveyed consider that they are. However, compared to the 41% who do buy organic products regularly and consciously, it can be determined that, despite considering them more expensive, they continue to make the effort to buy organic products. These results can be seen in Figure 9. The first column of the block represents the results of they consider eco-products more expensive, the second column the result of buy eco-friendly products.

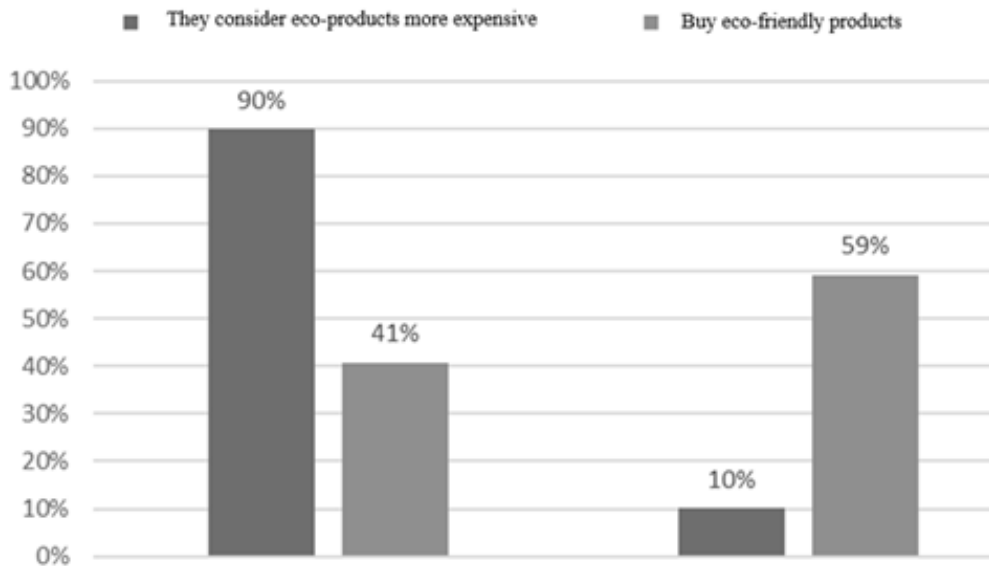


Figure 9 Opinion of the public surveyed on the price of eco-labelled products, and consumption habits of eco-labelled products.

Source: own editing.

The study entitled “Organic products are three times more expensive than white label products” by the Consumer and User Organization carried out in 2021, analysed 24 food and drug products in 17 supermarket chains. The results of this study concluded that “the organic products analysed are, on average, 77% more expensive than leading brand products and 216% more expensive than their white label equivalents” (Redondo, 2021).

This price difference according to this same study is because eco products are handmade, because production is on a low scale, because the raw materials are more expensive and because they are fashionable (Production, 2018). This increase in the cost of organic products can represent a barrier when making purchases, especially relevant in the case of young people.

On the other hand, question 16 also asked if they did not have economic limitations, they would buy more organic products, and compared to the 41% of current consumers of eco-labelled products, this would increase to 97%. These same results can also be observed in the study by Cachero Martínez & García Rodríguez (2022), which conclude that 80.6% of buyers of non-social companies would be willing to make their purchases in these types of companies, and 59 % would try in the future.

Finally, the reliability and visibility of 21 ecolabels was evaluated to know the opinion of the young people surveyed. Previously, they are asked what ecolabels they know if they have answered affirmatively to question 5 (Do you know what ecolabels are?). Figure 10 shows that the ecolabels that respondents are most familiar with are organic farming (12%), followed with 11% by FSC, Ecolabel and BIO products with 10% and recycling with 9%.

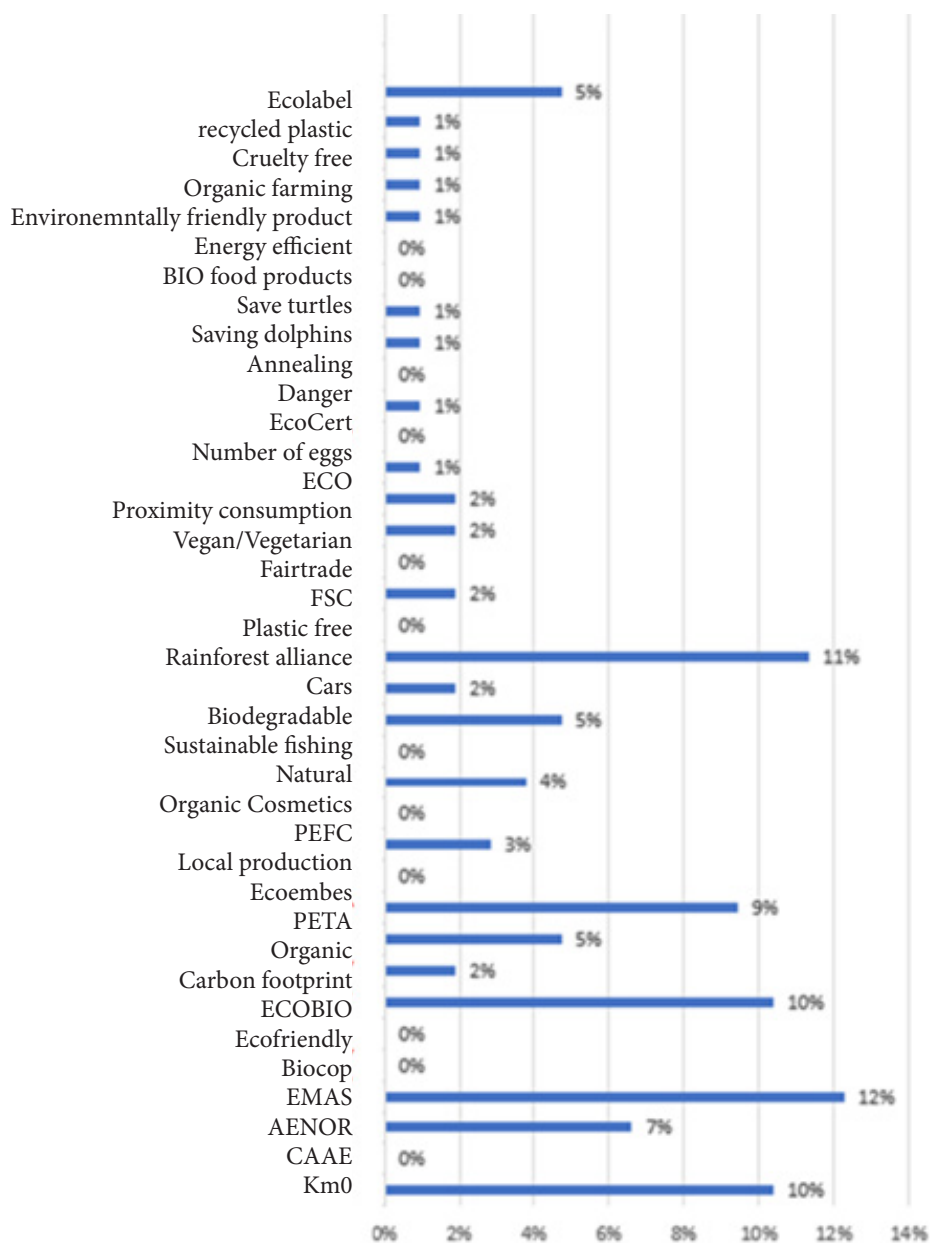


Figure 10 Ecolabels known to the public surveyed.

Source: own editing.

In Figure 11, among the 21 proposed eco-labels, it is observed that the three most visible labels are the label of the US Department of Agriculture, with 14% of the responses, followed by the energy efficiency label with 13% and FSC and non-genetically modified organism with 9% both. In terms of reliability, in first place is the energy efficiency label, followed by the green dot (10%) and the Möbius triangle and cruelty free with 8%.

In the Clickoala study (2022a) we found that the energy efficiency label is the best valued by Spanish with 88% of the votes. In this study, the second most valued by consumers was organic farming (47%), followed by FSC (34%). In the results obtained in this study, these two labels are not very visible to the respondents, although the FSC label is considerably more visible.

On the other hand, in the study carried out by the Organization of Consumers and Users (OCU, Organization of Consumers and Users, 2022a), the ecolabel best known by surveyed is the green dot, known by 90% of users, followed by the biodegradable label. In fifth place is the energy efficiency label, known by 76% of those surveyed. It is observed that the two most visible labels obtained in the present study are not among the 5 best known by those surveyed by the OCU.

The labels that generate the most trust according to the OCU (2022a), we find the claim of “recyclable”, with 63% trust among those who know it, and the claim of energy efficiency with 47%. Furthermore, among those who have seen/recognize it, the “cruelty free” label generates 69% trust, “Oeko-tex” 61% and the Möbius triangle 59%. It is observed that with the exception of the “Oeko-tex” label, the rest are also reliable for those surveyed here. However, “Oeko-tex” arouses more reliability among respondents than is known.

Even so, the OCU (2022a) study affirms that there is a “mismatch between the best-known and most reliable seals” (OCU, Organization of Consumers and Users, 2022a), while in this study there seems to be a relationship between the labels that respondents consider more visible and more trustworthy.

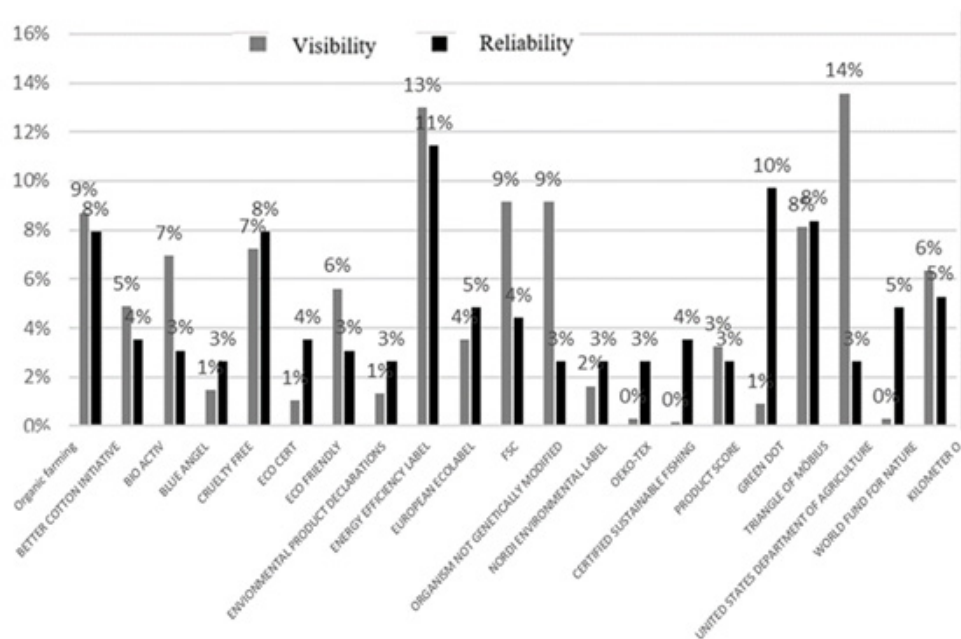


Figure 11 Reliability and visibility of the ecolabels included in the study by the surveyed public.
Source: own editing.

It can also be observed, in this study, and in the OCU's and Clickoala's ones, that the energy efficiency label is one of the most valued, both in terms of reliability and visibility, and when it is valued by the experts. This is due to its "traffic light type" character, which is easy to understand and is also supported by the law. This is the same as with other non-environmental labels, such as Nutriscore, which is a "national labelling system to provide users with clearer nutritional information" (OCU, Nutriscore, a tool to choose better, 2022b). This label works because it is easy to understand according to several studies thanks to the use of colour codes, which is not only understandable, but also allows comparison between foods from the same category.

The question therefore arises as to whether it is easier to modify the labels to make them clearer or to keep them and make the effort to explain them. Therefore, clear legislation is essential that puts an end to the ambiguities of eco-labels and environmental claims, to allow consumers an easy and reliable purchase based on these.

Regarding the international survey, greater knowledge of the ecolabel concept is observed in other countries (Figure 12).

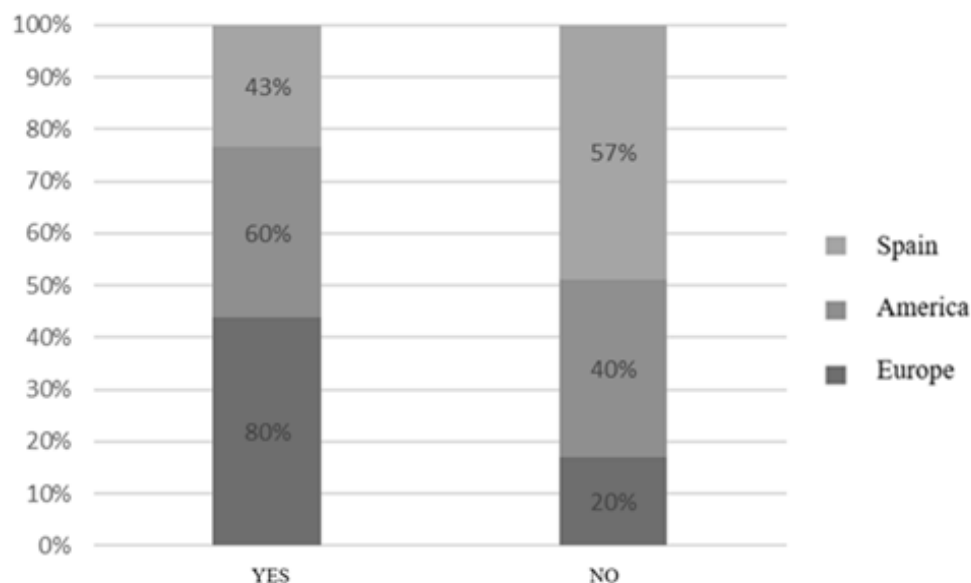


Figure 12 Awareness of the ecolabel concept among the surveyed international public.
 Source: own editing.

In Figure 12. the results at the top represents Spain, in the middle America and Europe at the bottom.

When the international survey asks about known ecolabels, the following are found that have not been named by the young Spanish surveyed:

- Certified sustainable fishing
- UTZ certified (currently incorporated within the Rainforest alliance)
- BioACTIV
- Möbius triangle
- Green Point
- WWF
- Better Cotton Initiative (*BCI)
- Contains pesticides
- Others: organic certifications, good practices, environmental responsibility.

It is noteworthy that these two groups recognize the Möbius triangle and the green dot as ecolabels, while the Spanish group did not.

Regarding reliability, it is observed that eco-labels such as energy efficiency are recognized in the Spanish and European groups, but not in the Latin American group. On the contrary, the ecolabel of the United States Department of Agriculture is known by 5% of American

respondents, but not at all recognized by Europeans and Spanish. In the same way, the OEKO-TEX ecolabel is not recognized in America, and Blue Angel is by far the best known in the European group as it is a German ecolabel.

We must also highlight the notable difference in terms of the visibility of the eco-friendly label between the American group (19%) and the other two (2% in Europe and 5% in Spain). This may be because in the countries of the respondents (Ecuador and Argentina) there is no label specific to the area, and therefore, these are more famous among consumers. In the same way, we find that the Möbius triangle also has a significant difference between the American group (21%) and the other two (both 12%). On the other hand, the green dot label is in a very similar position in the three groups.

Furthermore, it is curious that the organic farming label is slightly better known in the group of Americans than in the other two, despite this label has a European origin.

Regarding the reliability of the ecolabels according to the three groups of surveyed, we can find that the Möbius triangle, in addition to being significantly recognized by the American group, is also reliable, with 18% of those surveyed considering it reliable. Similarly, the United States Department of Agriculture label is more reliable in the American group, and the OEKO-TEX label in the European group. However, it is striking that the Blue Angel label is considered equally reliable by the European group as by the American one. It is also notable that, although the organic farming label is more visible in the American group, it is less reliable for this group than for the other two.

Conclusion

After analysing the results, it has been observed that in the group of young Spanish people surveyed there is a significant lack of knowledge about the concept of eco-label, its implications, and specific eco-labels. Given this situation, it is seen that the main aspect considered by young people when making purchasing decisions is the price of the product. The differences observed between young people in training in the degree in environmental sciences and the rest of the young people are not very significant.

Regarding the internationalization and proposed standardization of ecolabels, it has been observed that there are certain accreditations that work very well in their own country. However, outside of this, they are not even recognized, as is the case with the Blue Angel or the United States Department of Agriculture label. For those products that have an international market, the only option they have if they want to enter the market as “green” products is to comply with the different regulations that exist around the world, paying the fees for each accreditation and making this possible. final price of the product, and, therefore, that consumers ultimately did not buy them because they considered them expensive. Thus, an option to be able to export any product without any problem would be the creation of a new international environmental accreditation, of traffic light type, since this symbology works very well for consumers, due to its easy nature to follow and understand.

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ISTVÁN PISKÓTI - KATALIN NAGY - ANITA MARIEN - ADRIENN PAPP

COOPERATIVE MODEL OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL, SMALL-TOWN DESTINATIONS

The aim of our study is to present the results of four empirical research, examining the specialities of developments in rural environment, involving a social marketing oriented cooperative model of tourism development, and the elaboration and analysis of practices related to concrete small-town (Szikszó) and regional (Abaúj) adaptations. Applying social marketing approach (Piskóti 2016), we have built upon slow philosophy (Osbaldiston 2013; Birkner et al 2017; Pécssek 2017), social innovation and competencies (Veresné-Kosziczky 2017; Sloan-Legrand-Simons-Kaufmann 2014; Máhr 2019), as well as networks and route-based development (Nagy 2013, 2019, 2020; Lourens 2007). The evaluation of the development practices of small-towns – with growing importance – their possibilities, presence of tourism in programs and plans is also highlighted (Piskóti-Marien-Papp-Nagy 2022).

We build upon primary results of (1) small-town research – questionnaire survey among Hungarian small-towns, examining the conformity of reading, targeting and strategic intentions. (2) tourism product development research – among experts, and route managers of Cultural Routes of the Council of Europe, providing results in the fields of route development and cooperation in social value creation. (3) interviews with inhabitants, entrepreneurs and experts helped in strategical planning and modelling. (4) survey in 2021 – to base the Abaúj tourism marketing strategy.

We concentrate on small towns, which have positive opportunities and revaluing role in the transforming settlement system and were quite neglected both in professional and methodological fields. The study has a social marketing approach in supporting the settlement development, its marketing and integration of tourism into the model. Our results are methodological on the one hand, and strategical on the other. We elaborated a slow-philosophical holistic small-town development model, which can give a frame to strategic steps and programs, integrates tourism development or -creation intentions. Furthermore, we present concrete initiations as best practices to similar regions, settlements: tourism creation in Szikszó for small-towns, slow – creative – local product-based route development for regions.

Introduction

Our research area is specific from two points of view: (1) the territory of the former Abaúj county, which can be defined from historical point of view, without the settlements annexed to Slovakia. At the same time, we can define it from touristic point of view, being enclaved between two main destinations ('drawn' by the National Tourism Agency), Tokaj-Nyíregyháza and Mátra-Bükk. (2) This rural area is composed mainly by small villages and a few small towns, right in the neighbourhood of a big city, Miskolc. Small towns can take a leading role in developments of services and certain products, even in branding and marketing the area.

Abaúj – introduction of the strategic area

Abaúj – interesting, exciting target area of excursions, but still a less known tourism destination in Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén county. The so-called historical Abaúj lies in the valley of the Hernád river, from Kosice (Kassa) till Szikszó. The Zemplén mountains are the eastern, the Slovakian border is the northern, and the Cserehát hills are the western borders. Formerly, the Cserehát hills were a separate touristic small region in the county's strategy; the present smaller area (18 settlements as the operation area of the ABA destination management organisation / DMO) considers itself as part of the bigger Zemplén micro-region – this situation is even more interesting as some of these settlements also belong to the Tokaj-Nyíregyháza destination, too (Figure 1).

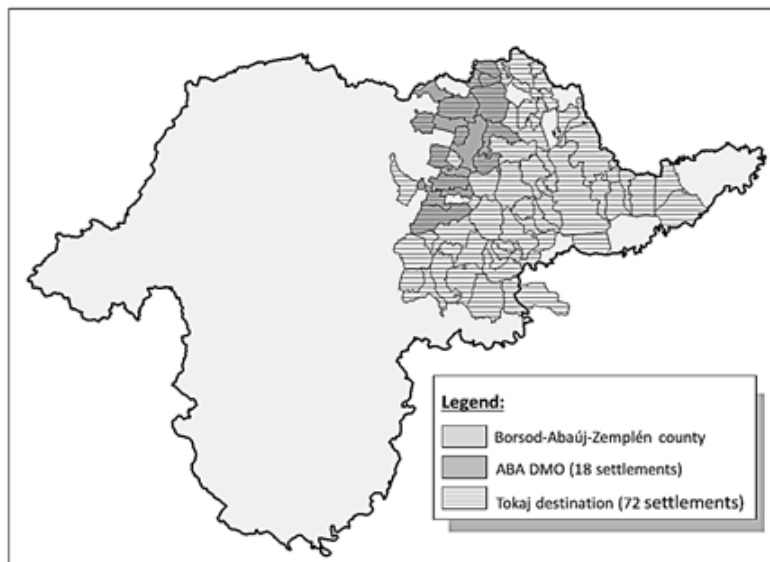


Figure 1 The territory of Abaúj – as tourist destination

Source: own compilation

Vizsoly and Gönc are two outstanding cultural – historical places, the Bible of Vizsoly is recognized as Hungaricum since 2015. Gaspar Károli, who was the reformed pastor of Gönc, made the first Hungarian translation of the whole Bible, which was printed in Vizsoly. These settlements are the targets of pilgrimage of Reformation. Gönc had important role in the wine commerce as well. Today another Hungaricum, the apricot is associated with its name. Apricot is an outstanding local product; with unique product development it can acquire international reputation as well. Abaújszántó is the only one settlement of the area which belongs to the world heritage site, the Tokaj wine district. The forts of Boldogkő, Regéc and Füzér are significant cultural attractions.

The area is very rich in natural values as well. The two main resources are the Zemplén Landscape Protection Area, and the Hernád river, with great potentials of water tourism. In the outskirts of Boldogkőújfalu, we can find the so-called stone-sea, the remains of former volcanic activities. The trails of the National Blue Tour wimple through mountains and valleys, where there are tiny little villages. Telkibánya, also called “with golden buttons”, became famous for the gifts of nature, as there were mines of precious metals in the surroundings. In the List of Values of Abaúj we found 42 elements, mainly cultural and gastronomical items.

Small towns in our viewpoint

Small towns have a special place in the Hungarian settlement system. Towns – they are proud of this status, but, on the other hand, they are “rural” as well, with all its benefits and disadvantages. Hungary has two main features: (1) capital-centred, and (2) full of small villages in the countryside. There are 304 towns in the country, which is only 9,57 % of all the settlements (Poreisz, 2014).

The phenomenon of town is complex. It means a special legal status because of some kind of significance (e.g., cultural, industrial, commercial, etc.), with relatively high population and central administrative functions. They offer services to the inhabitants of the surrounding settlements as well, besides their own residents. Towns are the products of urbanisation; their number is increasing due to the widening of the division of labour and the diversification of the society. Towns have several types, according to their historical character, size, and role. The basic classification of towns is based on their population – though it can be different by countries. In Hungary, the settlements with population between 5 000 and 20 000 are recognized as small towns (terport.hu). There are 180 small towns in the country, which were the targets of our later presented research.

Theoretical background

The following is a brief literature review on the main topics that cover the complex research.

Destination marketing from social marketing viewpoint

Destination marketing, as part of place marketing, is a specific dimension, which can contribute to the basic goals of an area, a town, the well-being of the population through increasing the tourism market competitiveness. The inhabitants' economic, community, cultural, environmental well-being is the requirement of the successful tourism as well, as the tourism offer is partly maintained by the locals' consumption. On the other hand, the locals can also hinder tourism development, without their own well-being. Thus, tourism competitiveness must be understood and managed on destination level as a sector, and on individual level as stakeholders, entrepreneurs and their products and services. The development level of a destination's tourism is not simply the sum of the individual success of the stakeholders, but the result of a common, coordinated activity.

Consequently, from destination management point of view, the basic goal is the optimisation of the positive social-economic effects of tourism competitiveness, as result. The methodological development of modern marketing it is not impossible, however it needs excellent performance and practice, coordination of market – social processes, interests, problem-solving, the combination of social and business marketing approach. Social marketing - according to the most accepted definition – is the planning, organising, executing, and controlling of such marketing strategies and activities, like stakeholder management, which, directly or indirectly, aim at social targets, tasks or problem solving, for the involved organisations, institutions or their collaboration. Nowadays we can also find that, through the legal changes, more and more public services (partly or as a whole) get under “special market” regulations, mechanisms, thus empowering the possibilities of traditional marketing, and “enforce the integration of business and non-business marketing” (Piskóti, 2012).

Towns and areas can be considered as the complex, spatial and temporal field of social issues, problems, where these occur not in isolation, but in “multi-dimensional” context (Piskóti, 2016).

Small towns

The main characteristics of small towns is that they were township seats, traditional little towns, market centres, commercial towns. They were not industrialized; they have typical agricultural past. Today, the country's whole territory is covered by small town zones, but they are open, the inhabitants mainly travel to the county seats for services. The service role is still weak in financial fields. Within this category, the ‘traditional small towns as administrative,

commercial, and service centres with some industry' are the most important; about 10-20 settlements can be classified as agricultural and special role small towns (Beluszky 2003, Poreisz 2014).

Small towns are also the losers of globalisation, as they weakened in their competitiveness and attractivity; the concentration of high-quality labour force is low, there are no groups with multiple economic activities, no diversified industrial and knowledge basis, the number of local consumers is low, and the possibility to connect to global networks is not provided (Bas van Heur, 2010). Moreover, globalisation has decreased the power of local identity, the possibilities of local resources. Then the world changed – locality became stronger along and against globalisation, taking advantage of its negative social and economic effects. Small settlements became familiar with locality, appearing more and more interesting and attractive for the inhabitants of the big cities. The pandemic, war conflict revalued what is near, 'our', accessible. Small towns began to be the integrators of the surrounding villages. They can give a good organisation, lifestyle model for the districts of big cities looking for new directions. At the same time, small towns still have their social-economic problems, trying to consciously form the future, gain back their competitiveness; in these efforts they can less utilise the professional and methodological possibilities of social innovation and social marketing.

Networks and route-based tourism product development

In one of our previous research projects, we have studied the Cultural Routes of the Council of Europe, representing the highest quality in cultural heritage preservation. Routes, in tourism, mean to compose activities and attractions along a certain theme, thus motivating enterprises to offer additional products and services (Meyer et al., 2004, Clarke 2005). In this aspect, route tourism is the market-pull approach of destinations (Lourens 2007). Its basic concept is that attaching activities and attractions in underdeveloped or rural areas can generate collaboration and partnership between the communities and the neighbouring areas, contributing to the economic growth through tourism (Briedenhann - Wickens 2004, Gonda et al., 2016a, Gonda 2016b). Here, partnership refers to gaining competitive advantages through local clusters (Telfer 2001, in Rogerson - Rogerson 2011). In this aspect, it is an effective tool for rural areas.

Also, in our previous research (Nagy 2012, 2013a, 2013b) we found that some kind of stakeholder management-type organisation is needed to operate thematic / cultural routes, as a kind of competence centre, with several different tasks (Figure 2., Nagy – Piskóti, 2013).

There are several and diverse actors in the formation of the tourism experience chain, thus it is important to study the fields of integration, cooperation, and networking. Cooperation is one of the main drivers of tourism innovations, too. The new forms of organisations as innovation type appeared in Schumpeter's works (Schumpeter 1980, Birman 1987), structural innovations are still in focus (Szakály, 2008), often in combination with social innovations (Nagy, 2019).

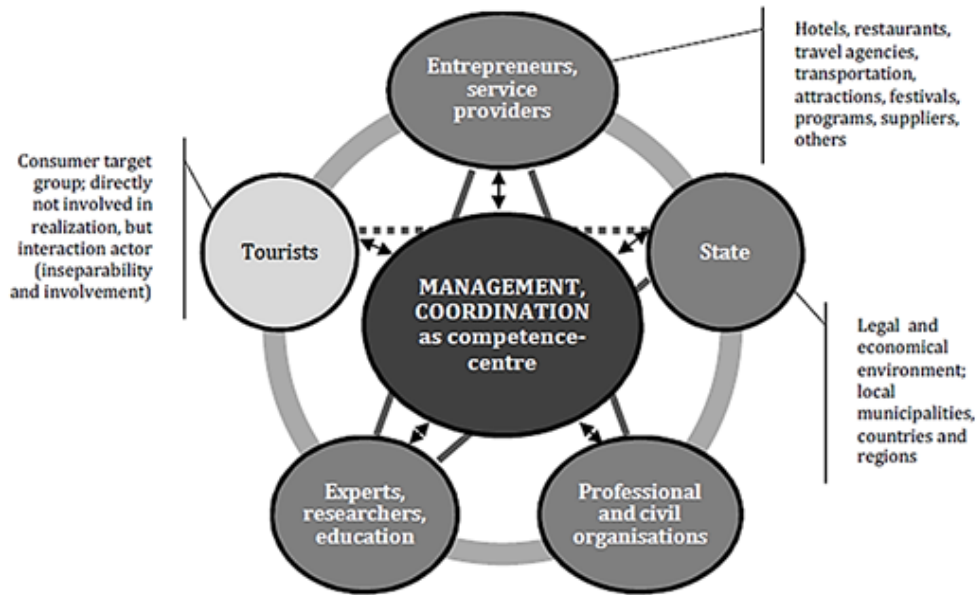


Figure 2 Cooperation model of cultural routes
Source: own compilation

According to Máhr (2019), “tourism itself can be considered as social innovation”. In wider sense, “social innovation is a new approach, paradigm, product, process, practice, resolving social problems and needs, while new values, attitudes, social relations, new structures come into being” (Nemes-Varga, 2015, in Balaton-Varga. 2017). According to the European Commission, social innovation can occur in the following cases and forms (Nemes-Varga, 2015): (1) innovation starting from beneath, with the involvement of civil organisations; (2) social value answer, reaction to community needs; (3) process resulting in the renewal or change of society.

Cultural routes are based on cultural products, which represent values. Their development into tourism products is based on the value co-creation principle. The competitive advantages of the cultural sector can be found in the joint value creation, the adaptation of co-creation on services; based mainly on intangible resources and relations; and the inseparability, as a service feature. Individual experiences are born with the involvement of consumers (Ercsey, 2014), through their activities, with the help of interactive services. In the tourism sector, value co-creation is not only value-creating or innovation tool, but also a tool for enhancement of experience (Marien – Papp, 2022). In cultural tourism, the co-creation of cultural values can later become social values as well.

Methodology and results

Research 1. – tourism marketing strategy for the Abaúj destination

The main directions in the area are history and culture, plus nature (with special regard to the Zemplén Mountains and the Zemplén Landscape Protection Area); gastronomy – local products can also become outstanding, as the apricot is recognised as *Hungaricum*, and there are several small family farms with their own handicraft products. Considering the attractions, 32 % is of local importance, 25 % has regional importance (these are mainly historical monuments), 24 % is of micro-regional importance. The strategy is based on the local and micro-regional attractions, determining the possible target groups as well. Only 15 % of the attractions have national, and 3 % have international importance. At the same time, the forts (Boldogkő, Regéc) can also gain international recognition, especially after renovation, establishment of visitor centres and the development of the service and event offer.

We could identify 119 accommodations, but only 22 % is the member of the Aba Tourism Association. The rate of commercial accommodations is 23 %. Private accommodations represent 77 %, but only 5,5 % has a valid qualification. The facilities have 400 rooms and 1720 beds altogether. Almost 26 000 tourists stayed here in 2019, 80-90 % of them in commercial accommodations. The average stay is 1,85-2,69 nights, the domestic guests stay longer; in private facilities, this number is 2,38-3,37 nights. The reason of this is that the mainly domestic tourists spent their holiday in this area. The rate of foreign guests is only 1-8 %.

We carried out a questionnaire survey to base the strategy; it could not be representative because of the pandemic and the tourism market problems but reflected the real situation quite well. The main associations, which prove the knowledge of the main values, features, were the following:

Nice landscape, underdeveloped area, gypsies, fort of Boldogkő, Forts, beautiful landscape, Vizsoly, Bible, Telkibánya, excursions, Gönc and apricot, small villages, bad infrastructure, part of Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén county, Poverty, Romantic, rural tourism, Development, Peaceful but extinct, Encs, Hernád, Boldogkőváralja, Aranyosi-valley, family excursions. Programmes, Mild downhills, left villages. The spirit, Forró, Fancsal, Szikszó. Close to Slovakia (Felvidék), Hernád-valley, Cserehát, Relatively untouched. Possibility, lies between Borsod and Zemplén, Abaújszántó, special landscape, important Hungarian area, heartbeat, fort of Regéc, Varkoly look-out point (Tóhegy), Dark for the first time! Then one of the most beautiful parts of the world, I have heard about it but I do not exactly where it is, Abaújvár, Christian manufacture, Csobád (while Sárospatak, Tokaj wines, aszú, as mistakes, also appeared)

Boldogkőváralja, Vizsoly, Gönc, Regéc, Telkibánya are the most well-known settlements, where the respondents have already been before. Cultural values, nature, relaxation, excursions are the most frequent aim of the travel. They often mentioned visiting relatives and participating in events, festivals – though these are also connected to the cultural offer, the forts; at the same time, the local products and gastronomy are less recognised. The main competitors are the Bükk and Zemplén mountains, and Lake Tisza.

Most of the respondents decided by the suggestion of friends, internet, and Facebook information; arrived with family or partner. One-day excursions represent 55,3 % of all travels. The classical loyalty index is favourable for the area, as the majority of the visitors (79 %) rated the destination as good or excellent and was satisfied with the travel. More than 60 % would surely suggest others as well to visit the area; almost 70 % would surely return. Thus, the index is:

$$CLI = \frac{2E+A+U}{4} = \frac{2E+A+U}{4} = 4,2$$

In destination marketing, however, we stand for not only ‘simple’ image building, but for the conscious positioning of the product, the concrete destination; thus, the target groups can differentiate it from the competitors and judge it better. Positioning means the building of the destination’s identity, differentiating brand elements, values, advantages, the formation of a positive image. Conscious identity building means the development of the destination into a brand; so, the image of the territory will be defined by those features, values, advantages which were chosen by us; we made it more competitive, we introduced it to our target groups. Identity building thus becomes conscious brand building, image becomes brand-image.

For further methodological grounding, we studied the slow paradigm as well. There is no exact definition of slow tourism in the scientific literature. We can describe the phenomenon through different principles and behaviours, where sustainability is one of the main pillars of slow tourism (Matos, 2004). Slow travel is a specific experience travel, offering a complex experience package with harmonic timetable in a certain micro-environment. ‘Slow down and start living’ is the slogan. Among the international trends we can find slow tourism, philosophy of slow recreation – stop by and notice real values; relax and take in environment, a historical memory, natural beauty, or cultural value, taste the local gastronomy (Pécsek, 2017).

Slow tourism can become the philosophy, organizer principle of the Abauj marketing strategy. In the recipe of slow tourism, the ingredients are culture, nature, local tastes, some physical exercise, harmony in the landscape, spicing with interaction, mixing with slow town development. The power of slow tourism is that it can give a development philosophy for the complex well-being of the inhabitants, the possibility for unique models to small towns. Thus, it can support the coordinated realisation of spatial and tourism development, satisfaction of the locals and tourists, business success, sustainability, and individual well-being.

Results

The Abaúj destination has certain, well-known, and potential individual product brands, which can be identified in tourism. Their portfolio is linked up. If we want to build the destination's future on slow philosophy, slow tourism, strong identity, brand, diverse positive image, its precondition is:

- 1. The slow settlement, slow town idea must be built in their development methodology, with the integration of tourism.*

Practically, an 'Abaúj settlement alliance' should be founded, which can harmonise the settlement development initiations and approaches; accept the 'slow' development methodology through collaboration, join the international cooperation of slow cities, which can – as a side-effect – boost tourism as well. Slow-based town development must be built not on simply occasional interactions, but on conscious, strong, self-confident strategical and (co-) operational practice, system.

- 2. Besides a short-term brand strategical support, there is a need for an enlarged Abaúj brand in mid-term, enlarged both in territory and content. The tourism development (e.g., active, water tourism along the Hernád river) can be connected to the tourism establishment in the town of Szikszó, gate of Abaúj, with the integration of the past initiations in the Cserehát hills.*

The realization of the previous objectives, marketing initiations needs a unified management-marketing approach, and a concrete programme frame for the positioning, brand building and marketing tools. Its starting question is the definition of the destination, i.e., changing the destination's former branding and positioning setting. Besides emphasizing "Abaúj", DMO and its members, the settlements use the geographical name 'Zemplén' and the website www.hellozemplen.hu in their offer, which needs marketing strategical intervention anyway. This has historical, geographical, and practical market reasons, belonging to the Tokaj-Zemplén tourism destination can help in the development intentions, too. On the other hand, the member settlements feel responsibility for Abaúj as an independent destination. Future cooperations, mid-term professional and business interests all need the integration of "Abaúj" into the marketing strategy and programmes.

1. step: Enhancement of the present 'Zemplén' positioning of the ABA tourism association and its members	Enhancement of the message-content of the 'small destinations' using the Zemplén brand, thus the present stakeholders can benefit from the image transfer. At the same time, they should use unique, diversifying positioning – i.e., the small destinations should find some 'phantasy names' parallel to Zemplén (e.g., historical gems at the peaks in Zemplén) – the task is the elaboration of a creative brand content and image.
2. step: Enhancement of the association's professional and area-forming power, integrating role	This needs the expansion into south and west, and collaboration with the Slovakian Abaúj territory. The second step is the integration of such a brand element or sub-brand, where the 'meeting of Zemplén and Abaúj' content can appear. Thus, the two geographical names can be used and identified parallel or together, as the formation, transfer of an image-relationship.
3. step: Formation and enhancement of Abaúj-destination, as the umbrella-brand of more 'small destinations'	It is the result of a long-term development, in case of it is practical and useful with the formation of some emerging small destinations, from Szikszó, through the Cserehát hills till the Rakaca lake. Probably the management tasks will not belong to the ABA tourism association, but, at the same time, they can enhance all the tourism development processes which are the mid-term results of the first two actual brand-building steps.

Table 1 Recommendation for an integrative solution: a three-step strategic model

Source: own editing

Research 2 – small towns with different development needs

The aim of our research was to base the social marketing, practical model, and tool system of the 'small town action area'. During the primary research, we carried out a questionnaire survey among small towns with the population between 5 000 and 20 000. The survey preceded the economic-social-political crisis of the recent years, so its effects still do not appear in the opinions. We got 76 answers from the existing 180 small towns, so the relatively high responding rate (42,2 %) proves the actuality of the themes. The sample is not representative statistically from demographic and geographical distribution point of view. At the same time, that we got answers from each Hungarian county; to assess the situation, positioning and development initiations and processes, possibilities, and problems of the small towns. In this study, we highlight the following questions:

- What are the roles of small towns in the Hungarian settlement system?
- How do they assess their possibilities?
- What are the development directions of the small towns?

Results

The development possibilities, competitiveness, residence attractiveness of small towns is strengthening, they can have special role in the settlement system because of their functions (Cox-Longlands, 2016). This process is a good partner opportunity, either by the bigger cities' development samples based on district identity and communities, or by the integration of the makings of villages.

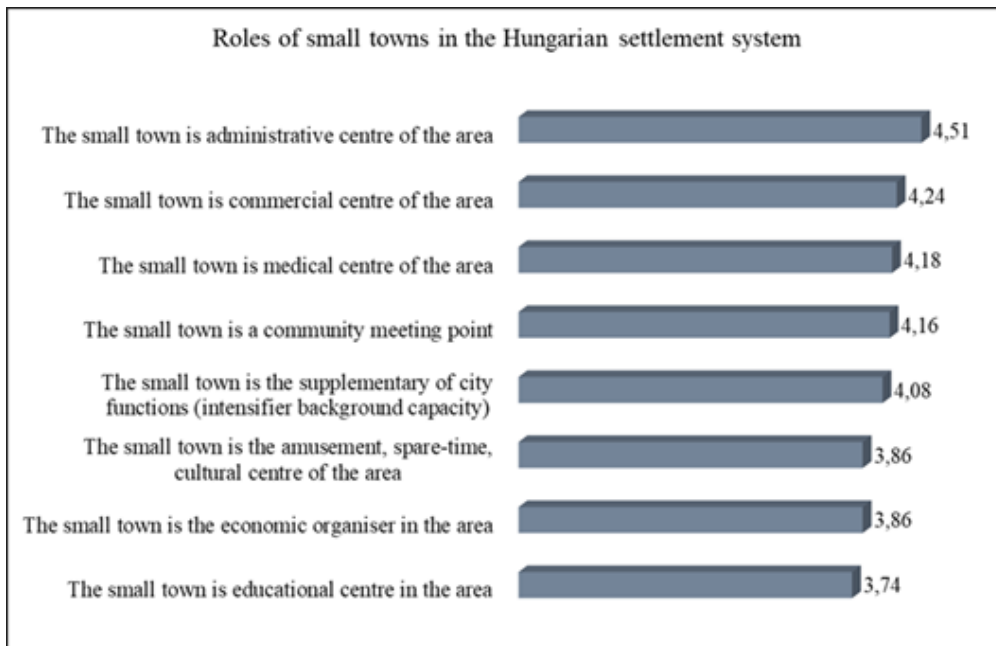


Figure 3 The roles of small towns
Source: own compilation

Mid- and small towns have several attractive features in the settlement system (Kresl – Ietri, 2019):

- situational advantages, they are often close to resources of traditional industrial branches.
- preservation of heritage, cultural values,
- high life quality services,
- possibility for high level 'happiness',
- resources for education and learning,
- high local social capital,
- start-ups' flexibility and innovation sensitiveness.

Despite the preconceptions, the number of populations do not determine its performance in culture and creativity. Mid- and small towns are especially good in the categories of ‘cultural variegation – vibration’ and ‘inspiring sustainable environment’. According to international and national best practices, and the experiences of our own small town development projects, we can state that slow philosophy with the integration of small tourism can give a relevant approach to future.

We studied the different development directions, main points of small towns, too; we asked the respondents to divide 100 points according to the relevance of the certain directions. 75 towns out of 76 marked tourism as an outstanding direction in their plans. (The lowest rate was 3 points, while the highest was 85.)

In Figure 4, tourism is in the first, closeness to nature is in the second place, followed by industrial and agricultural features. Naturally, most of small towns do not focus on only one element, but the combination of several. According to the geographical situation, small towns in western Hungary have higher emphasis on tourism (33,9; $\sigma=25,2$) than in the northern region (20,4; $\sigma=17,7$), but we did not find significant territorial differences.

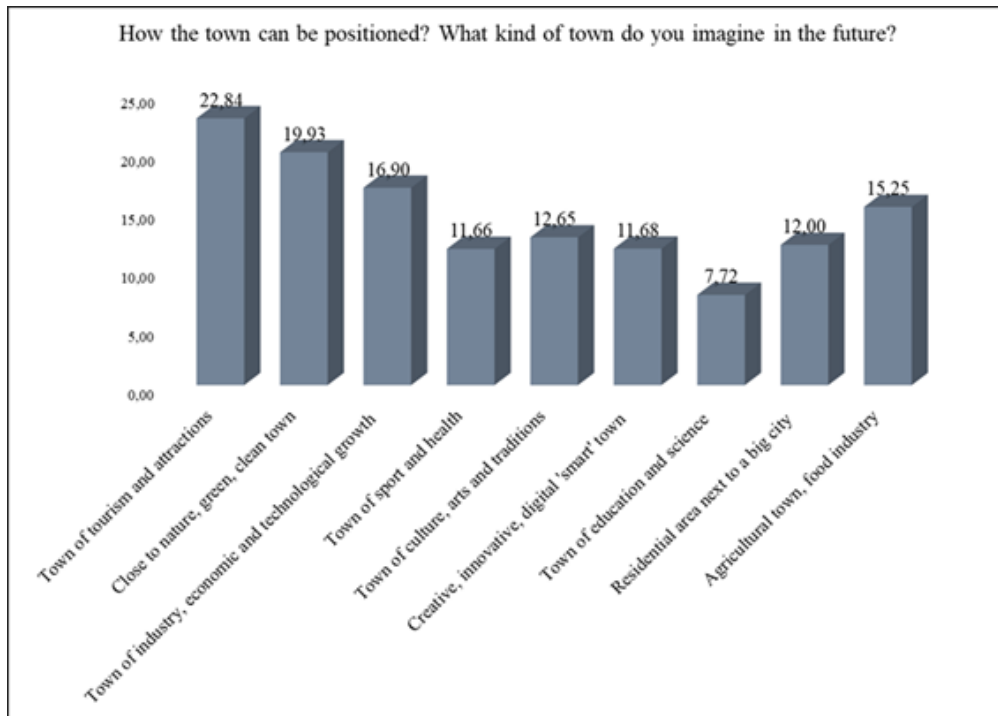


Figure 4 Positioning of small towns

Source: own compilation

According to the self-assessment of the studied small towns, the appearance of tourism as emphasized development and positioning element is a 'natural consequence'. They assessed their makings on a 1 – 6 scale; the towns were rather satisfied with their tourism potentials:

- tourism attractions, possibilities (4; $\sigma=1,47$)
- unique historical buildings memorial places (4,16; $\sigma=1,33$)
- exciting and unique events, which can attract tourists (4,09; $\sigma=1,26$)
- natural environment, protected, green areas (4,93; $\sigma=0,98$)
- artistic and cultural offer (4,21; $\sigma=1,23$)
- outstanding events which contribute to the uniqueness of the town (4,18; $\sigma=1,2$)

Despite pride and satisfaction, there are still a lot of development tasks with these makings. Concerning the main actual development tasks, the improvement of tourism services (accommodations, hospitality) is outstanding (5,11; $\sigma=1,15$). The development of events with tourism importance (4,91; $\sigma=1$), cultural events (4,83; $\sigma=0,94$), downtown (4,811; $\sigma=1,16$), local products (4,75; $\sigma=1,03$), and commercial services (4,55; $\sigma=1,11$) are also highlighted. Though many small towns account on tourism, conscious programmes are missing from the town strategies and conceptions.

Strategical recommendations for a small town in Abaúj

Our concrete example is the town of Szikszó, where the previous principles and methodology have two specific features:

- the elaboration of the small-town development pilot project was made not only with the collaboration of external experts, but also with the active support of the town's leaders;
- the role of tourism development is not a re-positioning one but has a tourism-creating feature.

Even though Szikszó is right next to a big city and there is a worldwide company in the settlement, the development plans intend to consciously keep the small-town features and lifestyle, to 'clean' the former plans, to abolish destructive disproportions, along with sustainability approach. The pilot project can become a best practice in combined development direction, where external resources are welcome, the closeness of a big city and excellent accessibility are benefits, the plans are based on local values and slow philosophy. The future role can be far more than 'simply' a township seat, but also an integrating, wider partnership coordinator actor.

Five main points of the development strategy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • improvement of the number of residents to the former ‘historical scale’ by building new subdivisions, integrating the tourism approach as well, as critical size is a basic ‘demand condition’ of local well-being and operability. • a key question of economic development is how to unite the worldwide company and the investors of the town’s industrial park with the local entrepreneurial community, cluster building on local (agricultural, handicraft) products and services, • the town – with good infrastructure and attractive image – presumes important investments, some elements are on their way, • strengthening the residents’ attachment, loyalty and identity is a core success factor; a town marketing programme was elaborated as a support tool, with a special community building programme named ‘Szia-Szikszo’ [‘Hi Szikszo’] • conscious improvement of the town’s role in the settlement system, as cooperating town, along twin-town programmes (national and international), professional partnerships (CittaSlow or other international collaborations), brand-building Abaúj settlement alliance.
Integrative big projects of tourism creation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • downtown rehabilitation – in protected environment, focusing mainly on cultural tourism, • town park – based on healthy lifestyle and creative tourism, development of infrastructure and services, • cellar village – classical wine and gastronomy offer, also a possible area of ‘hill’ and active tourism, later the water, sport and recreation tourism of the Hernád river can be attached.

Table 2 Strategic points in Szikszo’s development

Source: own editing

Research 3 – route development and cooperation in social value creation

We carried out our research on cultural routes with both quantitative and qualitative methods. 70 Hungarian experts participated in an online questionnaire survey; there were two focus-group interviews, one with the participation of 20 route managers of the Cultural Routes of the Council of Europe, the other with the participation of 25 foreign experts. The survey had three parts: (1) General information – on respondents and thematic routes (experts’ fields, aims of route establishment, possible partners); (2) Route establishment and development – success factors, services; (3) Cooperation and networks – targets and forms of cooperation, inclusion of partners. During the interviews, several questions of the survey was discussed, thus the results could be joined and compared.

Results

Route managers were asked not only about the targets of route development, but also about the rate to which they managed to reach these targets. The elements had to be assessed according to a 1-5 scale. The elements and the rates are summarized in Table 3. The answers are arranged into an importance – success matrix (Figure 5 and Table 4). The axis was defined according to the mean of the rates (3,58 and 3,25), thus the result has four quarters.

	Targets of route establishment and development	To what extent is it important?	To what extent did you reach it?
1.	Raising interest – for less interesting places as well	3,33	4,25
2.	Increase of the destination's reputation	4,67	4
3.	Decreasing perceived distance (as if it was closer...)	2,83	3,17
4.	Development of cooperation	4,67	4
5.	Education and entertainment	3,67	3,5
6.	Attract new markets, new target groups	3,83	3,17
7.	Enlargement of present target groups	4	3,17
8.	Protection of the route's attractions	4	3,5
9.	Possibility of free inspection	3,67	3,8
10.	Development of packages	3	3
11.	Development of the route's attractions	4	3,33
12.	Reduce of costs	2,5	2,67
13.	Correspondence to trends	2,83	3
14.	"Re-packaging" of a destination's existing products and attractions	3	3,33
15.	Development of new tourism product	3,83	3,17
16.	Make it easier to get to know a destination	4	3,5
17.	New workplaces	2,67	2,33
18.	Support of local SMEs, „pro-poor” aspects	2,83	2,25
19.	Innovative, new presentation of a destination's traditions and culture	4,17	3,17
20.	Part/possibility of rejuvenation at the top of a destination's life curve	3,17	2,25
21.	Involve less known places in the tourism market	3,83	3
22.	Improvement of the general opinion of a destination	4,33	3,67
23.	Defining an area's identity	4,5	3,83

Table 3 Elements of route development and its success
 Source: own editing

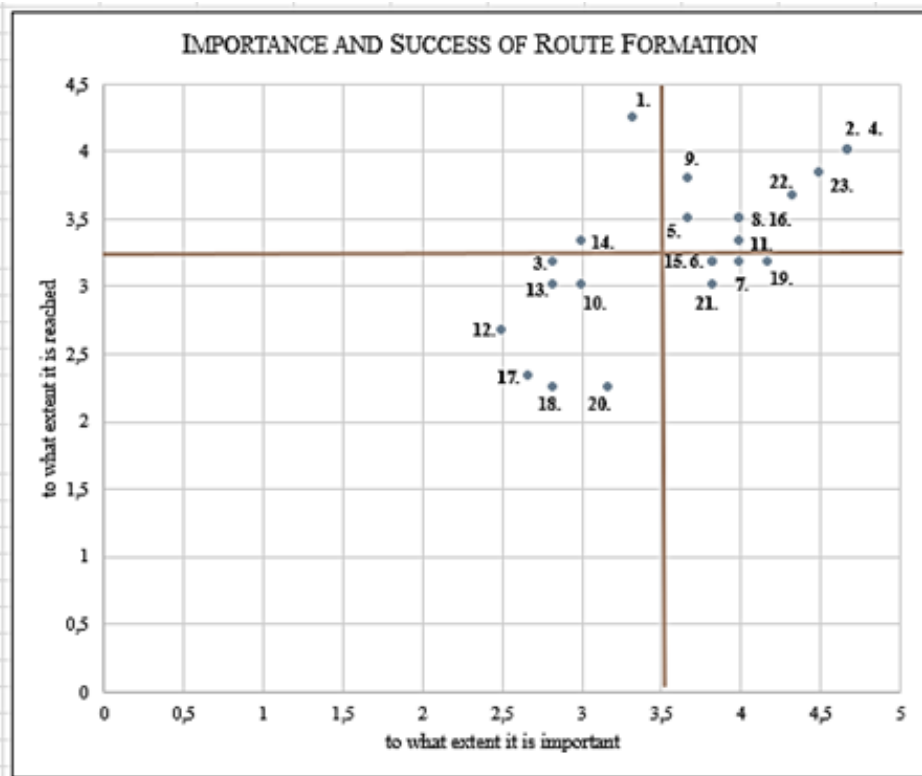


Figure 5 Importance – success matrix of targets

Source: own compilation

Assessment by quarters:

In the I. quarter, there are the elements which are important, and the routes managed to reach these targets. In fact, these are basic expectations of routes.

- In the II. quarter, there are the targets which are important, but the routes could not reach them completely. These elements definitely belong to tourism products and confirm the deficiencies in tourism product development competencies. Regarding these competencies, the most important are networking, cooperation, relevant choice of the collaborating partners.
- The elements in the III. quarter are not considered as really important, and these targets are not really reached. These are tourism and marketing elements on the one hand, and economic features on the other hand. The neglect of entrepreneurial relations and economic factors is also a reason for the product development and cooperation deficit. These partners, however, are very important in tourism product development, in successful market operation.

- In the IV. quarter there are the elements which are not important, though they had success in reaching them. In fact, these features are core, intrinsic issues in cultural routes.

I.	II.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase of the destination's reputation • Development of cooperation • Education and entertainment • Protection of the route's attractions • Possibility of free inspection • Development of the route's attractions • Make it easier to get to know a destination • Improvement of the general opinion of a destination • Defining an area's identity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attract new markets, new target groups • Enlargement of present target groups • Development of new tourism product • Innovative, new presentation of a destination's traditions and culture • Involve less known places in the tourism market
III.	IV.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decreasing perceived distance (as if it was closer...) • Development of packages • Reduce of costs • Correspondence to trends • New workplaces • Support of local SMEs, „pro-poor” aspects • Part/possibility of rejuvenation at the top of a destination's life curve 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raising interest – for less interesting places as well • “Re-packaging” of a destination's existing products and attractions

Table 4 The results of the matrix
 Source: own editing

Routes should focus on the development of the elements in the II. and III. quarters, from the point of view of tourism product development, common value creation, the formation of cultural values into tourism experiences, thus creating social values. In these processes, collaborations leading to innovative new networks are (would be) basic and necessary. Based on the previous results, we can state that besides the stakeholder management competencies, (social) innovation and network competencies should be added to the competence centre of the cooperation model (Figure 2).

Conclusions

We presented three research where we applied different methods, reached different target groups, from different approaches – leading to the same objective. The previous models and concrete examples verify that tourism can not only be developed, but also created in rural, small-town environment. According to present trends, this process can only be carried out along the value co-creation principle. Abaúj, our (present and future) research territory, is a good field for the tourism adaptation of value co-creation, where we can realize tourism development and -creation, where we can integrate the innovation tools of social marketing into place marketing and slow tourism paradigm, along with network competencies. This idea got a new base by the collaboration between the leading settlements, institutions and entrepreneurs of Abaúj, which was established in April, on the initiation of our research team.

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MIRNA LEKO ŠIMIĆ - ANA PAP VORKAPIĆ - KARLA BILANDŽIĆ TANASIĆ

NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATION BRAND AWARENESS: DOES IT IMPACT GENERATION Z PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR?

This research examines how brand familiarity with non-profit organizations (NPOs) affects various prosocial behaviors among generation Z. Respondents who participated in the study were 513 gen Z individuals from Croatia. They were given two surveys with identical sections, but different scenarios on each. The respondents were asked to imagine being reached by two organizations, one well-known (UNICEF) and the other made up (CAREFREE CHILDHOOD), asking them to engage in action against children's hunger by donating goods, money, or volunteering. The theory was tested using statistical methods such as frequency distribution, t-test, linear regression, and univariate and multivariate analysis. The research discovered that the intention to engage in prosocial activities is positively influenced by one's attitude toward nonprofit organizations as a crucial component in resolving social issues. The public did not, however, react more favorably to the non-profit's appeals and actions as a result of their familiarity and acknowledgment. The study also found no statistically significant differences in respondents' intentions to engage in different prosocial activities based on their awareness of NPOs, but it did find that respondents' intentions to volunteer their time rather than their financial resources were positively influenced by their awareness of NPOs.

Keywords: *NPO brand awareness, prosocial behavior, generation Z, Croatia*

Introduction

Increasing competition among non-profit organizations (NPOs) for different resources that enable their activities are forcing them to use different marketing instruments and strategies aiming to attract donors and volunteers. One of the most important elements of creating attention and attraction of the NPO is its brand. Branding is crucial for NPOs recognition, and several studies have confirmed that people are more inclined to donate their time, money or other types of donations to NPO they know and trust (Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2003; Sargeant et al., 2008; Tapp et al., 1999). These positive activities are all elements of prosocial behavior that is defined as „any action that benefits another person or group“ (Dovidio et al., 2017).

The aim of this study is to examine if and how NPO brand familiarity impacts different types of prosocial behavior of Generation Z, often called internet generation, which represents those who are born in 1995 and after (Ozkan, & Solmaz, 2017). They are recognized as realistic, social change-oriented, and self-confident (Hope, 2016). They are highly concerned for the well-being - some 60 percent of Generation Z say they want to change the world for the better (Critical Vision, 2016). The aim of this study follows the identified research opportunity that resulted from bibliometric analysis (Sepulcri, Mainardes, & Belchior, (2020, pp. 664) defined as “analysis of how individuals make decisions about donations under influence of different factors and contexts”.

Regarding brands in general, Generation Z is found to be well educated about brands and the realities behind them. When they are not, they know how to access information and develop a point of view quickly. A robust study of generation Z indicates that 70% of Generation Z tries to purchase products from companies they consider ethical (Francis, & Hoefel, 2018). Witt and Baird (2018) state that generation Z is very politically aware and actively involved in supporting environmental issues, social impact and civil right causes. According to them, Generation Z requires brands to include experiential elements in their market offerings that promote community, provide a feeling of belonging, and allow them to feel connected. In this context we can expect them to be willing to get involved with NPOs they are familiar with.

Penner, Dovidio, and Piliavin (2005) define prosocial behavior as any action performed by an individual when its main goal is to benefit others. However, there are different types of prosocial behavior. In this study we use three types of prosocial behavior: in kind donations (food, clothes, etc.), money donations and volunteering. No intention to engage in prosocial behavior was included as an option. Although all of the offered activities are philanthropic in nature, they differ in the nature of the individual's involvement, and it can be of significant importance for NPOs to identify required response. So, this study goes one step further by looking not only at NPO brand impact on prosocial behavior in general, but at different types of prosocial behavior.

Theoretical framework and hypothesis development

Brand recognition and awareness have been intensively studied, both in business as well as non-business sector. In the non-profit sector, Kylander and Stone (2012) qualitative study presented opinions of several non-profit leaders that strongly support the statement that if one is familiar and has strong associations with a brand, he/she is more likely to support it. Do Paço, Rodrigues and Rodrigues (2014) conclude that brand is the most valuable asset of a non-profit organization, which reinforces the analysis of its effect on the intention to donate. Similar to the commercial world, NPOs who have a significant budget for communications and/or a good marketing team typically receive the most donations as a return (Walker, 2017).

Different elements of brands and branding have been studied in context of NPOs. Ha et al. (2022) recent study examined brand anthropomorphism, brand trust, and brand familiarity and confirmed all of these had significantly positive impacts on charity support intention.

Brand equity of NPOs is an issue intensively studied (Faircloth, 2005; Hou, Du, & Tian, 2009; Laidler-Kylander, & Simonin, 2009; Finchum, 2017). Hou, Du and Tian (2009) research as well as all others have identified three dimensions of NPO brand equity: brand personality, brand image, and brand awareness, while Boenigk and Becker (2016) identify non-profit brand awareness, non-profit brand trust, and non-profit brand commitment as dimensions of non-profit brand equity. All those, according to available studies, have a positive impact on individual giving intention. Some studies concentrate on separate elements of NPO brand equity. Brand personality is one of the most studied issues (Venable et al., 2005; Sargeant et al., 2008; Febriani, & Selamet, 2020; Voeth, & Herbst, 2008). Shehu et al. (2016) claim that brand personality plays an important role in how donors evaluate NPO and consequently their intention to donate to specific NPO. Brand image of NPO has also been studied. According to Michel and Rieunier (2012), it explains up to 31% of intentions to give money and 24% of intentions to give time.

McDougle (2014, p. 190) relates the NPO brand awareness to confidence stating that awareness of non-profits creates “the cognitive basis from which more affective (e.g., confidence) and conative (e.g., volunteering and donating) behaviors occur”. Wymer et al. (2015) however, have identified some issues that result in non-significant impact of brand awareness on prosocial behavior – NPO can be well known, but that association could be for negative reasons (e.g., scandal) or the organization could be well known only among particular stakeholder groups.

In this study we rely on concept of brand awareness. It is defined as the buyer’s ability to identify the brand in sufficient detail to make a purchase (Rossiter, & Percy, 1997). In the non-profit context this definition can be explained as the ability to identify the brand in sufficient detail to engage in prosocial behavior with the particular NPO. According to the same authors, there are three distinct types of brand awareness - brand recognition, defined as ability to recognize the brand name when heard, or the stylized name, pack or logo when seen; category-cued brand-name recall, defined as the ability to recall the brand name – prior to purchase, accurately enough to look for it or order it when given the category cue and brand recall-boosted recognition, which represents the ability to cued-recall the brand.

According to Rovner (2018), Generation Z represents about two percent of overall giving. Now and in the future their giving is likely to reflect their distinctive racial and ethnic diversity, their status as digital natives, and their social cohesiveness. Their major donating priority, at least in the USA, is children’s issues, which was one of the reasons for our option to use child hunger as an issue to test their prosocial behavior in this study. The same study shows that 26% of Generation Z respondents choose volunteering as their priority in making an impact, followed by spreading the word (WOM) about the charity and activities (19%). Prior research on generation Z volunteering in Croatia (Leko Šimić et al., 2021) shows that 44% of respondents have volunteering experience. Moreover, almost 50% of those volunteering, do it through several, usually 2-3 different activities.

Based on the literature review which identified brand awareness in the non-profit context, different aspects of prosocial behavior, and Generation Z characteristics, we propose the following hypothesis:

H1: Positive attitudes toward NPOs and their role in addressing social issues has a positive influence on generation Z intention to behave pro-socially.

H2: NPO brand awareness has a positive influence on Generation Z's intention to behave pro-socially.

H3: Higher NPO brand awareness has a positive, but different influence on intention to engage in different types of prosocial behavior.

In the context of this study, this means that Generation Z will exhibit higher involvement in prosocial behavior if their attitudes toward NPOs and their role in addressing social issues are positive and their awareness of NPOs brand is higher.

Research

Methodology

This study examines the impact of NPO brand awareness on different types of prosocial behavior of Generation Z. Experiment was used to test the hypothesis. Altogether 513 respondents belonging to Generation Z from Croatia participated in the experiment.

Research design

Two different group of participants were given two types of questionnaires which consists of two identical parts (attitudes toward prosocial behavior and NPOs and their brand awareness and their actual prosocial behavior in the last year as well as socio-demographic information (standard of living, gender, age, education, religious status). Questionnaires differed in scenario part: respondents were asked to imagine that they were approached by the NPO: in the first case one well known (UNICEF) and one fictional (CAREFREE CHILDHOOD) in the second. Both organizations were shortly introduced, and both were addressing children hunger and inviting them to engage in different types of prosocial behavior (to make in kind donations such as food, clothes, toys, to donate money or to volunteer). They also had an option of not intending to engage in any of offered activities.

Brand awareness, except for the fact that fictional NPO couldn't be recognized, was checked additionally by brand recall, asking participants (before the scenario) to identify NPOs active in children's issues (top-of-mind awareness, i.e. recall without the use of memory aids). It is considered to be the most stringent measure of awareness (Aaker, 1996). In further analysis NPO brand awareness was evaluated as high when respondents named the existing NPO in top three recalled NPOs, low awareness was evaluated for respondents who could not recall UNICEF as NPO involved in children's issues and no awareness was ascribed to all respondents who were exposed to fictional NPO advertisement.

Attitudes toward NPO and their role in solving social issues in general and perceived importance of NPO brand awareness for involvement in prosocial behavior were measured by

Likert-type format with a five-point scale to capture the extent to which respondents agreed or disagreed with the statements.

Results

The information obtained was analyzed using the statistical software package SPSS version 26.0. Statistical techniques of univariate analysis (frequency distribution, central tendency measures) and multivariate analysis (reliability analysis, linear regression) were used. Table 1 shows sample description. All participants belong to age group from 18 to 26 years old (Generation Z).

		N	%
Gender	M	154	30
	F	359	70
Level of study	Undergraduate	337	65.1
	Graduate	177	34.5
	Postgraduate	2	0.4
Monthly available allowance (after rent, loan and utilities expenses are covered)	< 100 euros	201	39.2
	101 – 200 euros	147	28.7
	201 – 300 euros	78	15.2
	301 – 400 euros	33	6.4
	401 – 500 euros	16	3.1
	501 – 600 euros	7	1.4
	601 – 700 euros	3	0.6
	701 – 800 euros	3	0.6
	> 800 euros	25	3.1

Table 1 Sample structure

Source: authors

Table 2. depicts the results of descriptive analysis for the group of respondents who were exposed to UNICEF advertisement.

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Prosocial behavior intention	I will make in kind donation.	142	40.0%	53.4%
	I will donate money.	116	32.7%	43.6%
	I will engage as a volunteer.	51	14.4%	19.2%
	I will not engage in any way.	46	13.0%	13.0%
Total		355	100.0%	129.2%

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

Table 2 Intention to engage in prosocial activities (UNICEF group)

Source: authors

As shown in table 2., most of the respondents (40%) are willing to make in kind donations like food, clothing and toys. 32.7% of them are willing to donate money, 14.4% of them are willing to engage as a volunteer, and 13% of the respondents do not intend to engage in any way.

Table 3. shows the results of descriptive analysis for the group of respondents who were exposed to the advertisement of the fictional, i.e. unknown NPO (Carefree Childhood).

		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Prosocial behavior intention	I will make in kind donation.	138	41.6%	55.9%
	I will donate money.	94	28.3%	38.1%
	I will engage as a volunteer.	55	16.6%	22.3%
	I will not engage in any way.	45	13.6%	13.6%
Total		332	100.0%	129.2%

a. Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

Table 3 Intention to engage in prosocial activities (CAREFREE CHILDHOOD group)

Source: authors

As it can be seen in Table 3. the percentages are quite similar. Respondents are more likely to donate possessions (41.6%) than money (28.3%) and the smallest percentage of respondents (16.6%) are willing to volunteer in both cases. About 13% of respondents does not intend to engage in any way in both cases.

Hypothesis testing

To test the first hypothesis, linear regression was performed. The dependent variable Intention to engage in prosocial activity after being exposed to a specific advertisement consisted of three possible outcomes: not to engage in any way, to donate possessions and money, and to volunteer. Two independent variables were included in the analysis: *Non-profit organizations are an important factor in solving social problems* and *The familiarity and recognition of the non-profit organization leads people to respond better to its appeals and actions*.

Descriptive analysis for independent variables is presented in Table 4.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Non-profit organizations are an important factor in solving social problems.	3.83	.975	513
The familiarity and recognition of the non-profit leads people to respond better to its appeals and actions.	4.09	.925	513

Table 4 Descriptive analysis for independent variables
 Source: authors

Results of linear regression are presented in Tables 5. and 6.

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.852	2	2.426	6.554	.002 ^b
	Residual	188.766	510	.370		
	Total	193.618	512			

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to engage in prosocial activities

b. Predictors: (Constant), Non-profit organizations are an important factor in solving social problems., The familiarity and recognition of the non-profit leads people to respond better to its appeals and actions.

Table 5 ANOVA (the influence of attitudes on the intention to engage in prosocial activities)
Source: authors

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.621	.133		12.201	.000
	Non-profit organizations are an important factor in solving social problems.	.094	.032	.149	2.949	.003
	The familiarity and recognition of the non-profit leads people to respond better to its appeals and actions.	.011	.034	.017	.326	.744

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to engage in prosocial activities

Table 6 Regression coefficients (the influence of attitudes on the intention to engage in prosocial activities)
Source: authors

The results of linear regression have shown that an attitude about non-profit organizations as an important factor in solving social problems has a positive influence on the intention to engage in prosocial activities (sig=0.003, B=0.094), while the attitude that the familiarity and recognition of the non-profit leads people to respond better to its appeals and actions does not (sig=0.744. B=0.011), which confirms the non-existing differences in the structure of prosocial behaviors in both NPOs (Tables 2. and 3.).

To test whether brand awareness influences intention to engage in prosocial activities, a T-test was conducted. Participants were asked to recall three NPOs that address children's issues before they saw the advertisement. In the analysis, participants were divided into different groups: respondents who recalled UNICEF as one of the top three NPOs that address children's issues and respondents who did not. In addition, respondents were divided in the analysis according to whether they had seen the advertisement from UNICEF or the advertisement from the fictitious NPO Carefree Childhood.

After seeing the advertisement, participants were asked to indicate which activities they would engage in (in kind donations like food, clothing or toys, donating money, volunteering, or not engaging at all). Participants had multiple choices of responses. Participants who answered that they would donate money were asked to indicate how much money they would donate (less than 10 euros, 11 - 25 euros, 26 - 50 euros, more than 50 euros), and participants who answered that they would volunteer were asked to estimate how much time they would be willing to volunteer (only once for a specific project, several hours per month, or several hours per week).

The T-test compared two groups: Respondents who had seen advertisement from UNICEF and who recalled UNICEF as one of the top three non-profit organizations addressing children's issues, and respondents who had seen advertisements from a fictional NPO Carefree Childhood. The dependent variables were intentions to engage in varying degrees of prosocial behavior after seeing the advertisement (in kind donating, donating money, volunteering) or not to engage at all. The descriptive analysis is shown in Table 7, and the results of the T-test are shown in Table 8.

	Known/ fictional	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I will make in kind donation (food, clothing, toys...).	Known	107	.50	.502	.049
	Fictional	247	.56	.498	.032
I will donate money.	Known	107	.48	.502	.049
	Fictional	247	.38	.487	.031
I will engage by volunteering.	Known	107	.17	.376	.036
	Fictional	247	.22	.417	.027
I will not engage.	Known	107	.20	.399	.039
	Fictional	247	.18	.387	.025

Table 7 Descriptive analysis
 Source: authors

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
I will make in kind donation (food, clothing, toys...).	Equal variances assumed	1.464	.227	-1.097	352	.273
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.093	199.702	.276
I will donate money.	Equal variances assumed	5.852	.016	1.690	352	.092
	Equal variances not assumed			1.669	195.905	.097
I will engage by volunteering.	Equal variances assumed	5.856	.016	-1.162	352	.246
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.210	221.946	.227
I will not engage.	Equal variances assumed	.381	.537	.311	352	.756
	Equal variances not assumed			.308	195.862	.759

Table 8 T-test results

Source: authors

As it can be seen in Table 8., the T-test showed that there are no statistically significant differences in the intention to engage in various prosocial activities based on NPO brand awareness (all p-values are above the 0.05 value). In other words, participants that have recalled UNICEF as one of their top three NPO brands did not show significantly stronger intentions to engage in any form of suggested prosocial behavior (in kind donating, donating money or volunteering).

To deepen the analysis, we tested whether brand awareness has an impact on the amount of money respondents intend to donate and the amount of time they are willing to volunteer.

Regression analysis showed that NPO brand awareness does not have a statistically significant influence on the amount of money respondents intend to donate (sig= 0.086). However, when testing the influence of brand awareness on the amount of time respondents are willing to volunteer, statistically significant influence was found. The results are presented in Tables 9 and 10.

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	5.852	1	5.852	5.007	.026 ^b
Residual	301.514	258	1.169		
Total	307.365	259			

a. Dependent Variable: Volunteering time

b. Predictors: (Constant), Brand awareness

Table 9 ANOVA (the influence of brand awareness on the amount of time respondents intend to volunteer)

Source: authors

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
(Constant)	.259	.213		1.214	.226
Brand awareness	.204	.091	.138	2.238	.026

Table 10 Regression coefficients (the influence of brand awareness on the amount of time respondents intend to volunteer)

Source: authors

As it can be seen in tables 9 and 10, NPO brand awareness has a positive influence on the amount of time respondents intend to volunteer ($\beta=0.138$, sig=0.026). This means that respondents who recalled UNICEF as their top three NPO were willing to spend a significantly higher amount of time volunteering than those who did not.

Discussion

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) theory of planned behavior has demonstrated the usefulness of attitudes as predictors of consumer behavior in general, but also toward helping others (McIntyre et al., 1986), as well as toward charitable organizations (Harvey, 1990). Favorable attitudes toward the role of NPOs in society are important antecedents of volunteer activities and other behaviors beneficial to a society (Webb, Green, & Brashear 2000). Results for our study reveal the same importance of attitudes toward NPOs and their role in the society and its positive influence on the intention to engage in prosocial activities, which leads to the confirmation of our first hypothesis (H1).

Many studies have indicated the brand awareness significantly increase non-profit brand equity and consequently positively impact prosocial behavior (Cato, 1993; Churchill, & Iakobucci, 2002 and others). Several findings in the literature state that donors may be more likely to accept the portrayal of need when it comes from familiar and credible charities and that brand familiarity has significant positive impacts on charity support intention (Bendapudi, Singh, & Bendapudi, 1996; Ha, Pham, & Le, 2022), which, however, has not been confirmed in our study. Another more recent study (Sherwani, Bates, & Grijalva, 2021) found something very specific: message recipients showed favorable attitudes toward unfamiliar charities dealing with unfamiliar issues. However, the issue of children hunger cannot be classified as unfamiliar issue. Faircloth (2005) study reported mixed significance of brand awareness in case of NPO – first recall did not influence the response of resource providers and brand familiarity had significant negative influence, which was explained as possible negative perceptions on the NPO studied. However, UNICEF as the chosen NPO, to our best knowledge, has no track of scandals and issues that could induce negative perceptions with our respondents, so this risk does not exist.

Opposite of previous findings, our results show no significance of NPO brand awareness for prosocial behavior intention, at least among generation Z and in specific context of children hunger. It corresponds to the attitude of our respondents that clearly shows they do not generally consider NPO brand familiarity and awareness important for enhancing prosocial behavior. This result calls for our second hypothesis (H2) rejection. On the other hand, it is contradictory with findings about generation Z as highly brand aware, at least in the for-profit sector (Wood, 2013; Kim et al., 2020). Yet, some studies show that they are less brand loyal and less confident in brands (Kitchen, & Proctor, 2015).

The only significant difference found in this study regarding NPO brand awareness and intention to engage in prosocial behavior was found in respondents' intention to engage more in volunteering, but not in amount of money donations. The same results for money donations, but opposite for volunteering, was found in a study by do Paço, Rodrigues and Rodrigues (2014) which found that familiarity with the NPO does not contribute to the intention of donating money and time. This makes our third hypothesis partially accepted.

Nevertheless, the building of brand awareness should not be dismissed. But for Generation Z, it has to be done through different channels and strategies. According to Backlund and Martin (2019), when communicating to Generation Z, social media communication channels possess high potential for building brand awareness.

Conclusions

The aim of this study was to examine the impact of NPO brand awareness on different types of prosocial behavior (donation of things one already possesses, money donations, volunteering or no involvement) of generation Z. Taking into account increasing competition for resources in the non-profit sector, it is important to get a deeper insight in importance of non-profit brand management and possibilities to increase its awareness as a way to influence public opinion and increase positive public response to NPO activities. The study focuses on Generation Z as the emerging cohort that will in couple of years be a dominant segment in supporting non-profit sector.

The research results based on experiment with altogether 513 respondents indicate that positive attitudes toward NPOs and their role in addressing social issues has a positive influence on Generation Z intention to behave pro-socially. On the other hand, somewhat surprisingly, the research shows that the familiarity and recognition of NPOs have no influence on the response to communication messages, i.e. intention to engage in prosocial behavior. As both groups shared almost equal communication messages and visuals, it seems that Generation Z focuses more on what is being communicated than who is communicating it. When considering that Generation Z is specific in that they are less loyal to brands than the generations before them, the results are not so surprising. It is not a problem for them to switch from brand to brand and get involved in the activities of those they have not heard of. When it comes to the relationship between brand awareness and types of prosocial behavior, the existence of brand awareness generally shows no influence on respondents' involvement in any type of prosocial behavior, except for amount of volunteering time. When respondents were more aware of the brand, they intended to volunteer more. Given that the donation of one's time is something that requires the closest contact and involvement with NPO, it is not unusual that brand awareness is important to them.

Like most of the previous research focusing on Generation Z, it was determined that this generation is more unusual in the marketing context than the previous generations that have been in the focus of research so far. Generation Z has been proven to interact with organizations in a somewhat different way than previous generations, therefore marketing communication and advertising appeals need to reflect this difference. Research has shown that brand awareness and brand loyalty are not that significant to this generation.

Limitations and further research

There are some limitations of this study that need to be acknowledged. Firstly, the study uses experiment to investigate the impact of NPO brand awareness on different types of prosocial behavior of generation Z. Although experimental research allows cause and effect to be determined, there are often issues regarding external validity, i.e. the applicability of the findings in other situations. It means that generation Z prosocial behavior intentions in case of children hunger issues might be different in, for example, environmental issues, which could limit the generalizability of our findings. To find out if our findings are valid in other settings for prosocial behavior further research should extend the scope and analyze other forms of non-profit services. Another limitation is the use of intention to engage in prosocial behavior, with the possibility of social desirability bias.

Further research in this area also should investigate the reasons why brand awareness has no effect on Generation Z's intention to engage in prosocial behavior. With deeper insights into those reasons, NPO marketing strategies could be improved.

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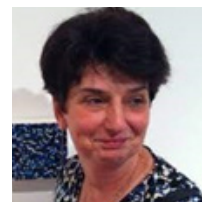
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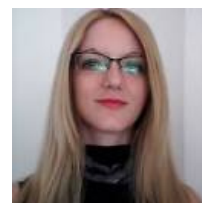
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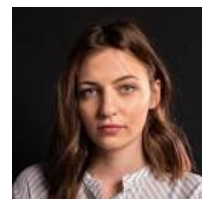
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HELEN O'SULLIVAN - CHRIS CHAPLEO - FIONA COWNIE

LOCATION, VOCATION, EDUCATION: PLACE MARKETING IN THE CONTEXT OF ENGLISH 'NEW' UNIVERSITIES.

The focus of this research was to explore interpretations of brand success in the context of a selection of comparable newer UK universities. A total of twenty-four interviews were undertaken. The data analysis applied a systematic process of analysis (recursive abstraction).

Location was identified as being a fundamental antecedent of brand success. Without the heritage and history of older institutions, newer universities have needed to find a way to appeal to their audiences, who often expect them to be offering something unique. These universities have focussed on incorporating location into their branding and marketing communications to ensure their uniqueness of message. The data also demonstrates that where a university doesn't have a sustained heritage of its own, it draws upon the heritage of the destination in which it resides. Moreover, the extent to which a university engages with its local community was also identified as important. Universities that were embedded into the fabric of their local community were seen in a more favourable light as a result.

Furthermore, this research suggests how brand identity can be combined with location to create a brand personality that will be aligned to the location's operational features as well as its emotional benefits. Of particular interest also, this research reinforces literature which asserts that consumers choose to connect with locations that best enable them to create and express their own desired identity (Kemp et al., 2012). Finally, the data shows that students consider their university choice in the context of staying in or near their university location after graduating. Therefore, the type of employment, cultural and social opportunities a town or city offers is an important factor. The cost of living bore a close relationship to the overall image of the location, with different motivations from students influencing whether they were looking for somewhere they could keep their costs down or pay a premium for a more culturally rounded experience in a large city, for example.

This research has important managerial implications in developing and executing branding strategies in the HE context as it suggests that the various attributes of the university location (whether based on the heritage, culture or the surrounding natural environment), can be used to create distinctive brand images which enable an opportunity for differentiation from competitors, which is fundamental in such a competitive marketplace as HE.

Keywords: *Location, Place branding, Identity, Higher education marketing, Local culture values.*

Introduction

Significant contributions to university branding scholarship have taken place, including international branding (Gray et al., 2003), brand architecture (Baker - Balmer 1997), brand equity (Pinar et al., 2014) and brand identity (Lowrie, 2007), but empirical research related to assessing brand success are scarce, despite the growing importance of this subject (Hemsley-Brown - Goonawardana 2007). Whilst research into successful branding has been conducted in numerous commercial settings, research into defining brand success in the Higher Education (HE) context is still needed (Melewar - Akel 2005). de Chernatony (1999) argued that defining brand success is essential for understanding how effective a brand is and improving on it. Leadership support, a clear vision and employee buy-in as well as effective communication have all been listed in the literature as being required for a successful brand (Hatch - Schultz, 2001; Melewar - Karaosmanoglu 2006).

The issues and challenges of 21st century Higher Education are significant. HE has its complexities, and insight into how to achieve a successful brand effectively and efficiently is important. “Universities operate in an increasingly uncertain environment, with macro forces moving with speed, complexity and risk” (Chapleo - O’Sullivan, 2017, p159). The global increase in demand for HE, an escalation in student consumerism and an increased focus on the ‘end product’ in a revenue generating market has led to a shift in the HE landscape and a corresponding marketisation of the way universities operate.

While branding is arguably a relatively new development in the sector, as highlighted by (Dholakia - Acciardo 2014), it has quickly become a consideration for all non-profit organisations (NPOs), including universities. “Even the more traditional universities whose promotional activities and selection criteria which were centred on the reputation of their academic excellence and pedagogic ability have had to adopt a more managerial culture.” (Boyett, 1996, p.24). Palmer et al. (2016) state that “Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) are conceptualised as brands,” (p. 3033) who due to the complex and competitive nature of the HE landscape, which sees UK institutions “grapple with strategies to improve National Student Survey (NSS) scores, and address Teaching Excellence Framework (TEF) requirements” (Cownie, 2017, p.290), along with other performance benchmarking criteria, universities have needed to respond by developing new marketing strategies to increase brand engagement (Farhat et al., 2020).

A good brand can help the university to establish a strong position in the marketplace, as well as protecting it from competition and improving overall performance (Ali-Choudhury et al., 2009). Furthermore, the literature suggests that a strong university brand may enhance student interest, and aid recruitment figures. Laidler-Kylander and Stone (2012) suggested that organisations with a strong brand attract partners and collaborators; particularly relevant to HE who rely on co-creation for knowledge transfer and funding. Chapleo (2011) and Mazzarol et al. (2000) argue that branding can also help to give universities a competitive advantage by creating a consistent image and message.

The focus of this research was to explore interpretations of brand success in the context of a selection of comparable newer English universities, from a sample of key stakeholder. This work builds on existing literature in the domain of branding, specifically building on the works of Chapleo (2007, 2010, 2015), Hemsley-Brown et al. (2006, 2007), and Maringe and Gibbs (2009), who identify that more understanding of brand success is needed. Investigating the benefits of branding in higher education institutions is crucial in developing a strong educational sector (de Heer - Tandoh-Offin 2015).

Location was identified as being a fundamental antecedent of brand success. Without the heritage and history of older institutions, newer universities have needed to find a way to appeal to their audiences, who often expect them to be offering something unique. These universities have focussed on incorporating location into their branding and marketing communications to ensure their uniqueness of message.

HEIs are appreciating the importance of utilising their brands "to improve their performance and build deep relationships with their customers." (Hariff - Rowley, 2011, p.348). Those who advocate branding in HE draw attention to benefits such as establishing legitimacy and building prestige (Chapleo, 2011; Waeraas - Solbakk, 2008), communicating shared values as a way to secure support from stakeholders (Sargeant et al., 2008a; Sargeant et al., 2008b), and reducing the element of risk by expressing quality (Chapleo, 2011). It is therefore logical for HEIs to use their location within their marketing materials as a way to demonstrate the 'uniqueness' of the HEI brand (Winter - Thompson-Whiteside, 2017). HEIs engage in place marketing by providing location information.

The key contribution of this paper is to present why location is being considered as an antecedent of brand success in English post-1992 universities, and how this is being embedded into HEI marketing strategies. The theoretical framework underlying the exploration of the data utilises place marketing.

Theoretical Framework

Place marketing and branding

Historically, scholars have suggested the purpose of branding is to increase sales, sustain brand loyalty, and attract more customers. Furthermore, objectives of branding are to inform and educate the market, offer differentiate from competitors, and improve promotion efficiency (Jennifer, 1997). However, its form has evolved considerably (Mercer, 2010). Definitions of brand that focus purely on the name, or logo, intended to identify a product or service are frequently criticised in the literature (Arnold, 1992; Crainer, 1995). A more contemporary approach to view branding is presented by Veloutsou and Delgado-Ballester, (2018, p. 256) who define the brand as "an evolving mental collection of actual (offer related) and emotional (human-like) characteristics and associations which convey benefits of an offer identified through a symbol, or a collection of symbols, and differentiates this offer from the rest of the marketplace."

Brands provide functional and symbolic value and help in the development of long-lasting relationships (Merz et al., 2009). Clearly, brands have evolved from being transactional tools to experience agents (Veloutsou - Ruiz-Mafé, 2020). The modern-day brand includes places, people, experiences, events, and information. Ideas are also brands and should be equally concerned with branding decisions Veloutsou and Guzmán (2017). The relevance of the brand is highlighted by Kapferer (2012) who stated that all organisations are brands with “a name, with a personality, the power and influence, being driven by values, and a source of innovations that give birth to a community” (p.51).

The literature demonstrates how destinations can be branded (Sevin, 2014) which focus on ‘experiential marketing’ to provide experiences whilst building emotional relationships and connections with consumers (Hudson - Ritchie 2009), as well as create a sense of attachment with potential students and their families (Colomb – Kalandides, 2010).

The field of place marketing and branding is experiencing rapid growth and continues to attract attention from both academics and practitioners. The goal, to create a positive image and reputation for a location in order to attract people and investments. Involving a range of activities such as developing a brand identity, creating a slogan or tagline, designing a suit of visual communications, and marketing campaigns, the branding focus is on highlighting the strengths and unique features of the location. Often this draws upon the natural beauty, cultural heritage, and economic opportunities. Place marketing can offer a variety of benefits. It can help attract more tourists, boosting the economic climate by creating jobs and generating revenue for local businesses. Furthermore, it can also attract investors, as a positive image and reputation can make a location more attractive to businesses looking to grow into a new market. Additionally, and fundamentally, place marketing can help to build a sense of community, pride, and belonging.

Place marketing in Higher Education

Pringle and Fritz (2019, p. 19) argue “a strong, successful university brand will evoke emotions, positive images, and associations”. Place marketing in higher education is becoming an increasingly important marketing strategy to achieve such feelings, as universities compete for students, faculty staff and research funding.

There can be little doubt, that newer universities especially, are using their location as a way to compete in a crowded marketplace and respond to the threat of substitution (Hanna - Rowley, 2013). The literature suggests that the various attributes of the city or town the HEI resides (whether based on the heritage, culture or the surrounding natural environment), is being drawn upon to create distinctive brand images which enable an opportunity for differentiation from competitors (Kemp et al., 2012) similar course offerings (Rutter et al., 2017). Concepts such as place marketing, stakeholder marketing and societal marketing are now common in the HE literature (Chapleo - O’Sullivan, 2017).

HEIs are complex organisations which has adopted marketing and branding strategies to differentiate themselves in the marketplace. University marketing collateral clearly places emphasis its location. The branding and aesthetics used in marketing have a strong ability to

influence consumer attitudes and perceptions towards a brand. According to Poole et al. (2018), prospective students and their parents now consider university marketing communication to be crucial in making higher education decisions. Brakus et al. (2009) argue that marketing visuals have the power to shape consumers' thoughts, feelings, and senses in a particular way, which in turn can impact their behaviour.

Brands are used as a means of differentiation, or an attempt to gain a competitive position (Bélanger, Syed – Mount, 2007; Dholakia – Acciardo, 2014) and this is certainly true for HE brands. With such increased global competition, universities search for a unique definition of what they are to differentiate themselves and attract students (Chapleo, 2007; Hemsley-Brown – Goonawardana, 2007). This research validates suggestions in the literature that the institution's location can "offer a route to building a distinct identity" (Winter - Thompson-Whiteside, 2017).

University brand differentiation can be achieved by creating a genuinely distinct higher education service (Story, 2021). De Heer and Tandoh-Offin (2015) underline that HE branding is about finding a unique position and definition to provide differentiation, and attract students, academic staff and financial support. According to Curtis et al. (2009) those universities who do position their brand appropriately achieve a competitive edge in the marketplace. Kapferer defines this process as "emphasising the distinctive characteristics which make it different from its competitors, and appealing to the public" (Kapferer 2012, p.152).

Universities are looking for unique ways to define what they offer so that they stand out from their rivals when it comes to attracting students (Hemsley-Brown – Goonawardana, 2007). However, as this research demonstrates, HEIs struggle to pinpoint their differentiation, due to essentially all making the same promises with similar product offerings, referred to as a "sea of brand sameness" (Rutter, et al., 2017).

Brand heritage

Brand heritage is recurring terminology in the place marketing literature. Urde et al., (2007) define brand heritage as "a dimension of a brand's identity found in its track record, longevity, core values, use of symbols and particularly in the organisational belief that its history is important" (p. 4).

A brand's heritage is an important aspect of its identity and can influence how it is perceived. Brand heritage has triggered much interest in the domain of place marketing with an increasing amount of exploratory research emerging (Balmer – Burghausen, 2015; Hudson – John, 2013). Aaker (2004) suggests that heritage is important as it adds authenticity and differentiation. Wiedmann et al. (2011) reinforce this and adds that the trustworthiness of a brand is heavily influenced by brand heritage, with consumers likely to place more trust in a heritage brand and associate less risk with it due to its track record of quality.

The literature suggests that brand heritage creates and strengthens the consumer brand bond (Wiedmann et al., 2011). It is also used to create brand communities (Kessous - Roux, 2008). Indeed, the literature complements this suggestion by noting that a good reputation

signifies historical success (Yoon et al., 1993). Furthermore, studies have found that a strong brand heritage can lead to increased customer satisfaction, trustworthiness, brand attachment, and ultimately, brand loyalty (Merchant - Rose, 2013; Wiedmann et al., 2011).

Brands need to be cultivated to be consistent in delivering on their promises, driven through their core values Urde et al. (2007), which will then lead to the “accumulation of credibility and trust” (p.12). Brands are important assets that need to be maintained over the long term (Wood, 2000) as a brand’s history is formed by the accumulation of experiences that will ultimately shape and influence consumer perceptions of the brand. Accordingly, heritage plays a role in brand storytelling. Brands use their story and traditions to create compelling narratives that resonate with its consumers. Merchant and Ford (2008) identify this nostalgia as extremely powerful for both non-profit and profit making brands.

However, heritage can also present challenges for university brands. As stakeholders’ preferences evolve, HEI brands need to adapt to remain relevant. Balancing the preservation of heritage with the need to innovate and stay competitive can be a delicate juggling act. Scholars such as Schofield et al (2013) argue that newer universities need to attract students differently to more traditional institutions in the absence of an established heritage. The literature suggests however, that it may be more challenging for post-1992 universities to present a distinctive offering, denied as they are the history and heritage of their longer-established rivals as such, they are more likely to rely on modern campus spaces to entice students, which offer the opportunity to show distinctions to their competitors (Kemp et al., 2012).

Research Approach and Method

This paper reports on a mono-method research study considering primary data collection supported by secondary research. As an exploratory piece of work, the study is qualitative in nature. A case study method was adopted as the most appropriate mechanism to provide a solid foundation for theory construction. Specifically, a multiple case study approach of three newer (post-1992), broadly comparable English HEIs (Bournemouth University, Manchester Metropolitan University, and University of Portsmouth) was used following direction from Yin (2009), who asserts that multiple case studies are more robust than single case study design. By adopting an exploratory approach, this research has enabled rich and descriptive data (Boeije, 2009) to ultimately develop strong theory building research.

Primary data collection

This study collected data based upon the views and opinions of participants. purposeful sampling was undertaken, selecting individuals for research due to their understanding and experience of the research problem (Creswell, 2009). The collection of the primary data utilised semi structured face-to-face interviews. A total of twenty-four interviews were undertaken

with the research aim to understand perspectives from stakeholders who will offer perceptions of brand success from their own institution in order to demonstrate how branding efforts are received and understood" (Leijerholt et al., 2019, p.152).

The research population were: final year undergraduate business, management and marketing students, academics who have been identified as embodying the HEI brand; and the HEI brand manager (or equivalent). This population were selected because it has a solid understanding of the brand through experience and interactions and are therefore aware of the values of the HEI brand under discussion.

Data analysis

The data analysis followed a six-step systematic process of analysis which distils text down so that key themes can be identified (Polkinghorne, 2019). This qualitative analysis method is called recursive abstraction. The ability to demonstrate that a rigorous analysis process (Gephart Jr, 2004) has been undertaken in qualitative research is enforced by many in the literature. Recursive abstraction is a trusted form of analysis that has been applied in a wide variety of research areas (Rodriguez et al., 2020) and is pertinent to the fields of tourism, management, and marketing (Polkinghorne et al., 2019). Unlike other thematic analysis techniques, recursive abstraction uses a series of repeatable steps in an iterative manner (Polkinghorne, 2019) A key focus is identifying high-level themes and subsequently paraphrasing and coding the data.

Case	Data source	Coding of Respondent
Bournemouth University (BU)	Brand-Aligned Academic x3 Head of Brand/Marketing Manager x2 Final year undergraduate Business, Management/Marketing student x3	BUA1, BUA2, BUA3 BUHoB/MM1, BUHoB/MM2 BUS1, BUS2, BUS3
Manchester Metropolitan University (MMU)	Brand-Aligned Academic x3 Head of Brand/Marketing Manager x2 Final year undergraduate Business, Management/Marketing student x3	MMUA1, MMUA2, MMUA3 MMUHOB/MM1, MMUHOB/MM2 MMUS1, MMUS2, MMUS3
University of Portsmouth (UoP)	Brand-Aligned Academic x3 Head of Brand/Marketing Manager x2 Final year undergraduate Business, Management/Marketing student x3	UoPA1, UoPA2, UoPA3 UoPHOB/MM1, UoPHOB/MM2 UoPS1, UoPS2, UoPS3

Table 1 Coding of respondents

Findings and Discussion

Location – an antecedent of HEI brand success

Clearly, all participants considered the “location and heritage to be a big part of who we are” (MMUA1) and “probably one of the main antecedents of a university’s brand success for students.” (UoPS2) Interviewees suggested that the location is “undoubtedly connected to the brand success of a university.” (UoPA2) These newer universities were inherently linked with their geographical location, whether that was the seaside town of Bournemouth, the port city of Portsmouth famous for its maritime heritage, or the northern powerhouse of Manchester. Location was considered especially important by respondents from MMU, who noted that the way the university had intertwined its messaging with its location; the vibrancy and buzz of Manchester as a northern powerhouse, demonstrated a distinctive and unique offering. The data highlights that drawing upon MMU’s ‘northern roots’ is a fundamental characteristic of the institution’s identity, which offers an opportunity for advantage in a complex and competitive marketplace. MMUA1 presented examples of how this narrative is presented at various touchpoints to “stand out from the crowd.” “We are northern. This is really important to our identity and differentiation. Because we are such a big university, we are a northern powerhouse. If anyone is in the north, they will understand the importance of a northern powerhouse and a northern location, so we use this to our advantage.” (MMUA1)

The data further suggests the location of the university is an integral consideration for not only the applicant but also their parents and other influencers. “The geographic location of the university is crucial for brand success. I always talk about our location being near the sea as well as near to London when I go to recruitment events. People care about where they live and where their kids live.” (UoPA3) As well as the location of UoP helping to “make the HEI more recognisable,” (UoPA1) participants noted that location “will be more connected to some people than others, and not necessarily for a host of sensible reasons.” (UoPHoB/MM2)

The natural environment of the institution was considered an important consideration of the university’s location: “The surrounding environment of a university is so important. I like nature, so for me, being this close to an ocean was something what drew me here” (UoPS3).

In addition to the aesthetics of the environment, considerations such as the location’s cost of living was deemed a “big focus for our students” (UoPA3) perhaps more relevant for post-1992 institutions. Working with local councils to offer incentives for students was therefore considered an important activity which UoP engaged in as “offering discounts and schemes for local attractions is important as it shows how the university is associated with other local brands and attractions in the area.” (UoPA1) Furthermore, interviewees considered working in partnership with the local community a key activity for universities, as the activity is mutually beneficial as “the university can help the city and the city can help the university” (UoPHoB/MM2).

The extent to which a university engages with the local community was identified as important by the data. Staff and students both considered it to be important that a university is part of a community, not a community all of its own. Universities that were embedded into

the fabric of their local community were seen in a more favourable light as a result. The data provides evidence of stakeholders wanting to feel a belonging to the local community and not "existing in a university vacuum" (BUS3) suggesting that "working with local councils on location awareness is important as students look for the location first and then look to see what universities are in that city." (UoPS3) The literature reinforces this by suggesting that HEIs who link their brand to other brands will actually shape stakeholders' perception (Hanna - Rowley, 2015) and could actually enhance brand equity (Hanna and Rowley 2013).

As well as the theme of affordability raised by students, considerations such as independence were also raised from the UoP sample in so much as being "far enough away from home that I could have my own life, away from home and have my independence. But it wasn't too far away that I couldn't jump on a train and get home in a day." (UoPS2) 203 Interviewees felt that "when cities are invested in that can be a positive thing for the university." (UoPHoB/MM2) The data also shows that students may consider their university choice in the context of staying in or near their university town after graduating. Therefore, the type of employment and social opportunities a town or city offers will be an important factor. This also extends to part-time work while studying.

The cost of living was also identified as important, with students looking for value for money in all areas, not just accommodation or tuition fees. The cost of living in a university town bore a close relationship to the overall image of the town, with different motivations from students influencing whether they were looking for somewhere they could keep their costs down or pay a premium for a more culturally rounded experience in a large city, for example.

All these factors combine to deliver points of differentiation for the location the university is set in, many of which will be the largest points of differentiation considered by students when it comes to their choice. In this way, all three case studies suggested that location is a key element of determining whether a university brand can succeed or not. By leveraging their location as a point of differentiation, universities can attract and retain students who are interested in specific fields or experiences. This can help HEIs stand out from their competitors and builds a strong competitive brand.

Location/identity congruence

The data showed that the location runs deeper and is more influential than just being about the city or town facilities. The ethos of the locality and how it matches the ethos of the student, seems to be an important viable for choosing a university. This is consistent with the literature which suggest that developing a distinct brand identity could help target audiences perceive a self-brand fit (Kemp et al., 2012).

The university location is also "an important consideration for the lifestyle of the student." (UoPA1) Of particular interest, this research reinforces literature which asserts that consumers chose to connect with locations that best enable them to create and express their own desired identity (Kemp et al., 2012). This perception of fit with the personality of the HEI's location may therefore attract applicants and enable them to explore their desired identities (Winter - Thompson-Whiteside, 2017).

The case studies asserted that there needs to be a synergy of personalities between the location and the institution. Warnaby and Medway, (2013) refer to this as a 'place offer'. For example, Manchester's status as a northern powerhouse had an impact on how students considered the university as an extension of the city. This was also an important consideration for staff when it came to considering a university's brand – they would think of the kind of work/life balance on offer, and how they could spend their free time. A coastal university like Bournemouth, for example, would be more appealing to someone who enjoyed windsurfing than an urban university like Manchester would be. Students and staff alike constantly referred to the location of their institution as being an integral element of the overall feel and identity of the university.

The data demonstrates as well as having a marketing strategy that communicates the right message in the right channels at the right time to reach a target audience, these case studies have introduced a strong brand story focussed on their location, in order to attract attention and gain awareness. All Marketing Services interviewees reinforced this insight by acknowledging they use a very specific location narrative in their marketing communications.

The research shows that HEI target audiences are very aware of the sophisticated marketing around institutional locations taking place in the marketing collateral to entice applications: "The university marketing team made me aware that not only was it by the sea, it is also practical and affordable." (UoPS2) The research demonstrates how location and identity congruence are important for university students because they can enhance their sense of belonging, academic performance, social support, and diversity and inclusion. By prioritising these factors universities can create a more supporting and inclusive learning environment.

Synergising location and the place offer

All three case studies talked of their efforts to create synergies between the location they reside, and the HEI campus by assembling a place offer (Warnaby - Medway, 2013). The data demonstrates how post-1992 institutions are very aware they are unable to replicate the grandeur of universities considered as grand seats of learning, where lecture theatres and university buildings may date back centuries and have played host to truly historical moments. Instead, the towns and cities that are home to post-1992 universities have seen the concrete efficiency of the 1960s and 70s replaced at breakneck speed by sprawling glass and steel cathedrals to learning. These modern-day monuments now impose themselves not only on the horizons of their hometowns, but also on the minds of those who live there.

In an era where many provincial towns and cities have seen little capital investment in new buildings and architecture, post-19992 universities have stepped in to fill the breach in construction that was previously filled by mills, factories, office blocks and retail malls. This research shows that as newer universities are focusing on their innovative, modern approaches to education, their buildings are more than bricks and mortar – or in many cases, metal and tempered glass. Instead, they serve as visual representations of the university brand, communicating the values held by the organisations they house before a visitor has even set a foot through the door. The data demonstrates how newer universities place offering draws

upon its location and heritage and identifies synergy with their brand values and project them at various touchpoints across campus. For example, one student described Manchester as “trendy and has loads of heritage” (MMUS2) and recognised that these characteristics are echoed in the MMU servicescape as its “friendly nature resembles Manchester. It’s inclusive, like Manchester is. It’s a laid back and chilled environment.” (MMUS2)

The research demonstrates these universities have invested into new buildings as being reflective of their brand values and demonstrating ongoing investment. By showing prospective students the new buildings and facilities that they would have access to as part of their studies, the universities are able to demonstrate something specific and unique to them through its place offering. The characteristics of the location combined with the place offering of the university itself to provide a physical manifestation of the brand, contributed significantly towards a brand identity. The data clearly highlights the importance of the “physical representation of the brand” (BUS1) in its place offering. In these newer universities, there was an expectation that the place offering should be modern and something that is continually being invested in and improved upon.

Buildings, amenities, and green space were all considered crucial factors for HEI brand success. The research demonstrates that the servicescape of the institution plays a significant role in the university brand personality, which as the literature suggest may influence decision making. (Kaplan et al., 2010). The data also demonstrates that staff and students alike expect to see their HEI being progressive and innovative (MMUA2) in terms of facilities and buildings. Investment in the servicescape, both financially and emotionally, must be ongoing, and not seen as a one-off expense. Interestingly, there was significant focus placed on the green space of campus life. The need for open green areas was noted by all universities, despite their varied locations and settings. Spaces where tranquillity and an opportunity to engage with nature were deemed crucial. Furthermore, respondents also noted that reflecting the university’s surroundings was also important, and artwork from local artists helped to grow a sense of belonging and pride of the vicinity. This was evidenced by a student who moved to Bournemouth saying: “reinforcing the location in the campus helped me to make Bournemouth my home and not feel like I was merely a visitor” (BUS1). This reinforces the literature which asserts universities use their campus attributes as a way to create a sense of attachment with potential audiences (Colomb - Kalandides, 2010).

This research demonstrates that by synergising the location and place offer, post-1992 universities can create a physical environment that aligns with the services and experiences they offer to students as well as representing local culture and traditions. This can enhance the overall experience of students and staff on campus, foster a sense of community and belonging, and contributes to the reputation and success of the institution.

Conclusion

The findings in this research contribute to the existing theory in the domains of HE branding by using a fresh approach to considering brand success. Through exploring the various interpretations and implications of brand success in the context of a selection of comparable newer English universities, this research has validated much discussion in the literature. Location was identified as a key antecedent of brand success for the post-1992 case studies. The core contribution of this paper, therefore, draws on the place marketing literature and data collected through semi-structured interviews, to understand how place marketing is being optimised in marketing strategies as a means of showcasing differentiation.

The strategic branding of HEIs has been a key focus in the university landscape for over a decade (Hashim et al., 2020; Yao et al., 2019; Rutter et al., 2017; Poole et al., 2018). Branding has contributed a significant role in what has been called the ‘market turn’ in higher education (Chapleo, 2015). de Chernatony et al. (1999) stated that university branding makes a promise to consumers about the service they can expect, as well as helping institutions to build strong images and reputation to attract stakeholders. To attract students, an institution needs to stand out. This is achieved through successful branding; a process which highlights the institution’s distinguishing features (AliChoudhury – Bennett, 2009). Branding has become a critical ingredient for universities to increase their market share and as suggested by de Heer and Tandoh-Offin (2015), the motivation for HEIs to commit to branding may become stronger when the benefits are made clear.

Brands now have a fundamental role to play for private and public organisations alike (Dholakia – Acciardo, 2014; Gromark – Melin, 2013); indeed, Temporal (2002) argues that branding activity in a public sector organisation is no longer a ‘nice to have’ but a ‘must have’. This research shows that the HE brand is far from being a lifeless artefact, reinforcing the literature which refers to the brand as “a living entity, with a personality with which we can form a relationship and that can change and evolve over time.” (Hanby 1999, p.8).

This research corroborates with scholars such as Naude and Ivy, (1999) who suggest that assets such as the geographical location of the post-1992 is heavily depended on for marketing purposes due to a lack of longstanding recognisable heritage. Accordingly, this research suggests that in the absence of institutional heritage, the university may instead draw upon the heritage of the location in which it resides. BU staff recognised this as a marketing tactic they employ throughout their marketing communications. This research suggests that without the heritage and history of older institutions, newer universities have needed to find a way to appeal to their audiences, who often expect them to be offering something unique. These universities have therefore focussed on incorporating location into their branding strategy to ensure their uniqueness of message is communicated effectively.

This research corroborates the literature to suggest that without the heritage and history of older institutions, newer universities have needed to find a way to appeal to their audiences, who often expect them to be offering something unique. These universities have focussed on incorporating location, their place offer, local networks and partnerships to ensure their

uniqueness of message. By focussing on contemporary issues and what the university is doing today and planning for the future, post-92s remove the requirement for them to communicate their heritage (or lack thereof) as part of their brand proposition.

Furthermore, Naude and Ivy propose the marketing activities of older universities are not as aggressive as post-1992 HEIs, due to Russell Groups relying on "their traditional strengths of faculty, teaching, and research standing" (Naude - Ivy, 1999, p.132), whereas the new universities attempt to reach out to prospective students earlier in their decision-making process (Naude - Ivy, 1999) with innovative marketing strategies such as place marketing. The research reinforces the literature that location is a fundamental element of an institution's brand (Ali-Choudhury – Bennett, 2009; Chapleo, 2010) and is known to be a strong influence for student choice of study destination (Angulo et al., 2010; Veloutsou et al., 2004). This is consistent with Wala (2018) who argues that intertwining interesting stories in the brand narrative can set a brand apart from others, attract customers' attention and offer emotional added brand value. The three case studies in this research have all strengthened their brand by searching for a uniqueness of message, through showcasing their location.

The theme of place image bearing significant relevance to university choice was discussed during data collection by students in relation to study location. Staff discussed place image as an important factor for their own employability, as well being a desirable city to live in. Staff and students alike recognised that their location is a favourable location to study, and therefore "there is a big emphasis on the city, and this influences why people study here." (MMUHoB/MM1)

This research also complements the literature by demonstrating how brand identity can be combined with location to create a brand personality that will be aligned to the location's operational features as well as its emotional benefits (Morgan et al., 2003).

Interestingly, scholars suggest that marketers may even try to engage consumers on an emotional level by embellishing an existing heritage or creating a completely fictitious one (Beverland et al., 2008) This may be because longer-established brands transport consumers to their own past, making them feel part of the community that shared those brands in the past (Brown et al., 2003). This longing for experiences or products of the past invokes a feeling of sentimentality for times gone by (Hudson – John, 2013). The data validates this theory by demonstrating that where a HEI doesn't have a sustained heritage of its own, it draws upon the heritage of the destination in which it resides.

This research has important managerial implications in developing and executing branding strategies in the HE context as it suggests that the various attributes of the university location (whether based on the heritage, culture or the surrounding natural environment), can be used to create distinctive brand images which enable an opportunity for differentiation from competitors, which is fundamental in such a competitive marketplace as HE.

Limitations and future research

The research conducted in this study focused on three post-1992 universities in England and can be classified as a multiple case study. As a result, the findings provide an indication of possible trends, through the use of applying recursive abstraction. However, these patterns cannot be considered definitive, and caution must be exercised when attempting to apply them to other universities. Moreover, due to the sample size and cultural specificity, as it pertains solely to English post-1992 universities, the results are limited in scope. Therefore, the authors suggest that further exploration is necessary to determine if the conclusions reached in this study can be replicated in other countries and cultures

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SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: FROM ITS ANTECEDENTS TO THE MDGs, SDGs AND GLGs

This paper analyses documentary sources on the formal antecedents of the concept of sustainable development as proposed by the United Nations in the document “Our Common Future” or Brundtland Report and its evolution towards the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and Good Life Goals (GLGs) to establish a chronology of the relevant events determining the policies and actions that are currently carried out, as well as to get an adequate referential framework for future research on this topic.

The analysis of the compiled information indicates that the formal antecedents of the concept date back to 1965, when the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) was established by merging the pre-existing Extended Programme of Technical Assistance (from 1949) and Special Fund (from 1958). Later on, the first formal use of the term occurred in an official document from 1969 promoted by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN).

The chronological presentation of relevant events makes it possible to highlight the leadership of the United Nations, its agencies or departments in this area –before and after the appearance of the concept–, together with the also relevant role of other organisations, namely different European instances.

Introduction

When referring to the concept of sustainable development, the definition from the report *Our Common Future* is often cited. This report was prepared in 1987 for the United Nations by a commission chaired by former Norwegian Prime Minister Gro Harlem Brundtland, thus being also known as the Brundtland Report. This proposal conceives sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (United Nations, 1987, p. 41).

Such approach has been criticized as utopian, idealistic, or visionary (Liberti, 2018) –a character that has even been advocated as necessary (Ríos y Valles-Boyselle, 2021)– and includes two key ideas, also specified in the report: i) the concept of “needs”, particularly

the essential needs of the world's poor, which are of absolute priority, and ii) the concept of "limitations" in meeting these needs, imposed both by the state of technology and social organization, and by the capacity of the environment (natural resources) to meet those needs.

This proposal represented a substantial change, as the ecological dimension continued to have a relevant but no longer exclusive position in the new conception (Jiménez-Herrero, 2000). Instead, it aimed to design and implement a model capable of integrating or articulating economic development and social equity with environmental protection. In other words, it is a system that places people at the center and seeks to adopt educational values of justice, equity, and inclusion (Simón et al., 2019). This emphasis on people-centered values was underscored at the Second Earth Summit, when establishing economic progress, social justice, and environmental preservation as the three pillars of sustainable development (Carbal-Herrera et al., 2017). Thus, talking about sustainable development means talking about development that is equitable, liveable (acceptable), and viable at the same time (Figure 1).

However, the widespread acceptance of the United Nations' concept as a reference point has not prevented further debates and controversies (Mebratu, 1998), namely concerning the necessary balance among the aforementioned three dimensions. Thus, in many cases, there has been an ongoing emphasis on the environmental dimension, in line with the dominant trend prior to the Brundtland Report (Adams, 2008; Goodland, 1995). On the other hand, other authors have sought to prioritize the economic dimension, following the criteria outlined after the First and Second Industrial Revolutions (Cervelló-Royo et al., 2020).



Figure 1 The triple dimension or pillars of sustainable development
Source: Diemer, 2019. p. 12.

There have also been contributions that advocate for prioritizing the social dimension (Dempsey et al., 2011), in line with the progress made in this area, which has been a subject of attention since the 19th century in response to the consequences that the strict and exclusive application of economic principles had on people, particularly workers and their families. This gave rise to various social movements (such as labour unions and charitable organizations) and advancements in the field of occupational health and hygiene (García-Miguélez, 2010).

For this reason, it is relevant to contextualize the concept of sustainable development from the Brundtland Report by examining its antecedents. It is equally important to provide a concise chronology of relevant and determining events in current policies and actions, including the successive establishment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and Good Living Goals (GLGs). All of this is necessary to have an appropriate reference framework for future research in this field.

Main background of the concept of sustainable development in the Brundtland Report

Although it is often stated that the concept of sustainable development was first introduced in the Brundtland Report (Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean – ECLAC–, n.d.), its formal antecedents can be traced back to the establishment of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1965. The UNDP resulted from the merger of the previous Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance, established in 1949, and the Special Fund, established in 1958, both of which being set up after the signing of the United Nations Charter in 1945. The Charter aimed to achieve international cooperation to address economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian challenges without distinction based on race, gender, language, or religion.

Following this path, in 1968, the Club of Rome was formed, bringing together prominent figures (economists, politicians, heads of state, among others), experts in their respective fields, and holding significant positions in their respective countries. Their common goal was to lay the groundwork for stable and sustainable economic growth for all of humanity. The Club of Rome commissioned the report *The Limits to Growth* (Meadows, 1972) to a group of researchers from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT).

The report included various computer-simulated scenarios that projected the potential effects of human population growth and the subsequent exploitation of natural resources on the planet, with projections up to the year 2100. It concluded that it was impossible to indefinitely maintain the focus solely on economic outcomes and unlimited growth. As an inevitable consequence, there would be a drastic reduction in the population size at some point due to scarcity of cultivable land for food, lack of energy resources to meet basic needs and production, or other factors related to human health, such as pollution or pandemics. These findings laid the groundwork for proponents of economic degrowth from a bio-economic perspective (Georgescu-Roegen, 2003) and as open and direct criticism of development models (Latouche, 2008), even from seemingly unrelated fields like marketing. Regarding this field,

Philip Kotler (2022), reinforcing arguments advocated fifty years before (Kotler - Zaltman, 1971), openly advocates the antagonism between the so called “commercial” marketing, which focuses on meeting customers’ needs without passing judgment on their legitimacy, and “social” marketing, concerned not only with satisfying those needs but also with reorienting or modifying individual consumption patterns when such satisfaction –beyond short-term selfish evaluations– proves detrimental to individuals themselves, third parties, communities, or society as a whole. Hence, to preserve the planet and its resources, social marketing must also include degrowth among its emerging objectives.

Three years before the Club of Rome report, the term “sustainable development” had already appeared formally in an official document in 1969, signed by several African countries and sponsored by the International Union for Conservation of Nature –IUCN– (De Vicentis, 2012). The term was also mentioned, although not as explicitly, in the United States through the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969, which led to the establishment of the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). This Act emphasized the need to promote and maintain appropriate conditions for the coexistence of humans and nature in productive harmony, making it possible to meet present and future social, economic, and other requirements.

Returning to 1972, during the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm, in the context of the global energy crisis caused by fossil fuels, environmental concerns were highlighted in the *Stockholm Declaration* and the *Action Plan for the Human Environment* (Cuadrado-Ruiz, 2010). The declaration included 26 principles, calling for dialogue between industrialized and developing countries on common concerns, such as air, water, and ocean pollution, and overall global well-being. The Action Plan included three general types of actions, broken down into 109 recommendations: i) the global environmental assessment program (or world monitoring program); ii) activities for managing the human environment; and iii) auxiliary international measures for the international assessment and management of environmental issues. Another outcome of the conference was the establishment of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), focused on protection and sustainability (preservation) objectives in the environmental field from an interdisciplinary perspective and promoter of various legal agreements and initiatives in this regard (Brusco, 2010).

Nearly a decade later, in 1980, IUCN published a report titled *World Conservation Strategy*, which listed contributing factors to habitat destruction (with a clear emphasis on environmental concerns) such as population pressure, poverty, social inequality, and certain aspects of international trade (clear references to the social and economic dimensions of sustainable development). In the same year, the *Global 2000 Report* by the US Council on Environmental Quality included in its conclusions the fundamental importance of biodiversity for the proper functioning of the planet and, consequently, advocated active efforts to prevent species extinction and the disappearance of ecosystems.

In the same vein, the *United Nations World Charter for Nature*, adopted in 1982, established the principle of the need to respect all forms of life –not only human life– and called for the essential understanding between the utilization of natural resources and the control of their exploitation to prevent depletion. Also, in 1982, the World Resources Institute (WRI) was established in the United States with the aim of guiding humanity toward patterns and ways

of life that would make environmental protection compatible with the Earth's capacity to meet the needs and aspirations of present and future generations, a mention that represents a clear terminological antecedent for the definition in the Brundtland Report. Soon after, in 1983, the United Nations General Assembly established the World Commission on Environment and Development, with Gro Harlem Brundtland as its first chairperson and the mission to establish a "global agenda for change", with its first meeting taking place in 1984.

Based on the aforementioned antecedents, the work of this Commission would include the elaboration of the *Our Common Future* or Brundtland Report, in 1987. As indicated, this report formally introduced the notion of sustainable development, emphasizing the triple dimension or the three basic pillars on which it would be based from then until the present.

As a summary of this section, Table 1 synthesizes the antecedents of the concept of sustainable development that have been discussed, highlighting the particularly significant role of the United Nations in this entire development.

Year	Antecedent	Institution/Organism
1965	Establishment of United Nations Development Programme	United Nations
1968	Establishment of Club of Rome	Club of Rome
1969	First formal mention of the term in an official document sponsored by the International Union for Conservation of Nature	IUCN
1969	Mention to the content of sustainable development in the National Environmental Protection Act and establishment of the Environmental Protection Agency	USA Government
1972	Preparation of the report <i>The Limits to Growth</i>	Club of Rome
1972	United Nations Conference on the Human Environment in Stockholm, <i>Stockholm Declaration</i> and <i>Action Plan for the Human Environment</i> , and establishment of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)	United Nations
1980	Preparation of the report <i>World Conservation Strategy</i>	IUCN
1980	Preparation of the <i>Global 200 Report</i>	USA Congress
1982	Promulgation of the <i>United Nations World Charter for Nature</i>	United Nations
1982	Establishment of the World Resources Institute	WRI
1983	Establishment of the World Commission on Environment and Development	United Nations
1987	Preparation of the report <i>Our Common Future</i> or Brundtland Report	United Nations

Table 1 Main background of the concept of sustainable development in the Brundtland Report
 Source: own editing

Some facts of particular relevance regarding sustainable development after the Brundtland Report

The Brundtland Report did not mark an endpoint but rather served as a catalyst for advancing sustainable development. Between June 3rd and 14th, 1992, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), also known as the Earth Summit, took place in Rio de Janeiro. During this summit, the *Agenda 21* was established, and several important agreements were adopted, including the *United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change* (UNFCCC) –adopted a month earlier in New York and now open for signature, leading to subsequent conferences on the matter– and the *United Nations Convention on Biological Diversity*, the *Rio Declaration on Environment and Development*, and the *Statement of Principles for the Sustainable Management of Forests*.

To be precise, five years after the Earth Summit, the notion of sustainable development from the Brundtland Report began to spread, emphasizing in awareness and dissemination efforts the transition from a focus solely on preserving the natural environment and using natural resources prudently to reconciling this objective with economic progress and social justice.

In December of the same year (1992), the Commission on Sustainable Development was established as an exceptional forum for public officials and representatives of civil society to analyze and recommend solutions in favour of sustainable development. It aimed to continue the historical conference, implementing a mechanism to monitor and report on progress in implementing the agreements and setting guidelines for future actions. In line with this, it was agreed in 1997, according to Resolution A/RES/S-19/2, that the General Assembly, convening in special sessions, would conduct a review of the progress made on the Earth Summit every five years.

One year later, in 1993, the European Union developed its *Fifth Environmental Action Programme*, with the suggestive addition to its title “*Towards Sustainable Development*”. This way EU demonstrated its commitment to sustainable development principles, transforming its growth model and assuming a co-leadership role with the United Nations. The program provided guidelines and orientations for designing and implementing actions within a new community environmental strategy, with the firm purpose of achieving sustainable development, considering the time frame from then until the year 2000.

Following the same trend, the First Conference on Sustainable European Cities was held in Aalborg (Denmark) in 1994, resulting in the Aalborg Charter, which embraced sustainability in urban development. The Second Conference took place in 1996, in Lisbon, resulting in the *Lisbon Action Plan: from the Charter to Action*, with a clear title indicating the intention to implement previously established goals, avoiding the risk of being limited to mere statements of intent. Among subsequent regional conferences, the Euro-Mediterranean Conference held in Seville in 1999 –which resulted in the *Seville Declaration*–, the Third European Conference on Sustainable Cities held in Hanover in 2000 –resulting in the *Hannover Declaration of Municipal Leaders on the Threshold of the 21st Century*–, and the Aalborg+10 Conference in 2004 –which, in turn, produced the *Aalborg+10 Declaration: Inspiration for the Future*– stood

out. This conference concluded with a call to local and regional authorities at the European level to subscribe to commitments defined ten years earlier and to actively contribute to promoting the European Campaign for Sustainable Cities and Towns (Madrid City Council, 2005). It was apparent that various challenges and problems related to sustainable development, traditionally attributed to developing countries, were not exclusive to them but were also evident in developed countries or specific areas within them (evidenced, for instance, in cases of depopulation and the reduction of services or social regression for their inhabitants).

For the United Nations, the *Kyoto Protocol* of 1997 was an addition to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change to implement the adopted agreements and commit industrialized countries to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions. It came into force in 2005 and has since been the subject of numerous controversies regarding its effective implementation and results (Depledge, 2022).

Given the changes in the international context and a growing awareness of the urgent need to address the rapid climate and environmental deterioration of the planet, the Bali Climate Change Conference of 2007 aimed to redefine the outdated and ineffective *Kyoto Protocol* to adapt it to the new situation (United Nations, 2007). While the agreements were endorsed by a vast majority, there was some disappointment when comparing the results with the expectations generated (Muñoz, 2008). Subsequently, the *Paris Agreement* of 2015 aimed to be much more binding while seeking citizen collaboration by pressuring public opinion to identify and shame non-compliant parties (Tingley - Tomz, 2021).

In 1999, the first report of results from the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development was published, followed by a second in 2001 and subsequent ones. In 2000, on June 29th, the *Earth Charter* was approved, resulting from a lengthy process initiated in 1987 with the Brundtland Commission's call for a "new charter" with "new rules" to guide the transition to sustainable development. The Earth Charter comprises 16 principles that form an ethical framework for building a more just, sustainable, and peaceful global society in the 21st century. Three months later, the Millennium Summit in New York from September 6th to 8th led to the adoption of the *Millennium Declaration*, which established the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) as a concrete framework to guide collective action globally (Figure 2.). The 8 MDGs included 21 specific targets and deadlines to measure progress in reducing hunger and poverty, improving health, education, living conditions, gender equality, and environmental sustainability.



Figure 2 The Millennium Declaration Goals (MDGs) of United Nations
Source: MDG Monitor n.d.

Shortly after, in 2001, the *Sixth Environmental Action Programme*, titled “*Environment 2010: Our Future, Our Choice*” defined priorities for the policies of European Union member states in environmental matters and established objectives to achieve and measures to adopt to implement the community strategy for sustainable development until and after 2010. Among others, the *Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament on a Thematic Strategy for the Urban Environment*, dated January 11th, 2006, was presented as one of the seven strategies of this *Sixth Programme*. Its goal was “contributing to a better quality of life through an integrated approach [...] and to contribute to a high level of quality of life and social well-being for citizens by providing an environment where the level of pollution does not give rise to harmful effects on human health and the environment and by encouraging sustainable urban development”.

A new World Summit on Sustainable Development, the Rio+10 or Johannesburg Summit, held between August 26th and September 4th, 2002, reaffirmed the role of sustainable development as a key element to achieve globally. It resulted in a new treaty reflecting a joint stance on preserving natural resources and biodiversity, adopting a *Political Declaration and an Implementation Plan* that included provisions on global action measures to combat poverty and promote equitable and environmentally respectful development (United Nations, 2002).

The approval of the *Culture 21 Agenda* by United Cities and Local Governments (UCLG) –the largest organization of local and regional governments worldwide– in 2004 contributed to linking the sustainable development principles contained in the United Nations *Agenda 21* with cultural policies. This emphasis on the social dimension of sustainable development led to the declaration of the Culture Agenda as the “fourth pillar of sustainable development” at the Third World Congress in Mexico in 2010.

Another United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development, the Rio+20 Conference of 2012, reaffirmed in its final document *The Future We Want* the need for a global commitment to sustainable development based on its three pillars, with a particular emphasis on eradicating poverty. The conference also articulated the Ten-Year Framework of Programmes on Sustainable Consumption and Production (10YFP).

In line with the above, international events continued to be held, including the Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) on Education and Training, held in Kuala Lumpur in 2015. Its Declaration included commitments by signatories regarding financing and the development of specific plans for quality education to foster competencies for achieving sustainable development.

All of this led to the significant milestone of the approval on September 25th, 2015, by the United Nations General Assembly of the 2030 *Agenda for Sustainable Development*, aiming to provide the 193 signing states with a reference guide for simultaneously achieving economic, social, and environmental sustainability through an alternative development approach, a new path to elevate the quality of life for all people without exception, marginalization, or exclusion (United Nations, 2015). The Agenda includes 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and 169 associated targets, more ambitious than their predecessors –the MDGs– both in scope and in the timeline set for achieving them (Figure 3).

Beyond providing a new development approach, the 2030 Agenda aimed to foster the adoption of a new paradigm. In the words of the then Secretary-General of the United Nations, Ban Ki-moon, it represents a “universal, integrated, and transformative vision for a better world” at a “decisive moment in human history”, where “the world’s population has asked us to illuminate a future of promise and opportunity” (RTVE, 2015). Implementing such a massive action plan requires a radical transformation of the economic model, promoting sustainable and equitable economies and societies worldwide, while ensuring greater levels of public participation and intervention as safeguards, and involving citizens in decision-making processes.



Figure 3 The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of United Nations

Source: United Nations n.d.

The ultimate goal of the SDGs is to eradicate poverty and hunger (as emphasized in the 2012 Rio Conference), address inequalities, shape and build peaceful, just, and inclusive societies, protect and promote human rights, ensure gender equality, and secure the long-term protection of the planet's multiple sources and natural resources, thereby guaranteeing humanity's own survival. Additionally, the signatory states of the *2030 Agenda* agreed to promote the necessary conditions for effectively implementing sustainable, inclusive, future-oriented economic growth, prosperity, and shared progress, while providing fair and decent working conditions for all individuals.

However, despite the undoubted good intentions, everything was at risk of remaining on paper –or limited to mere declarations of intent– either due to a lack of willingness to fulfil the commitments made or the limited scope of the results obtained. It took an unforeseen and dramatic event, the global Covid-19 pandemic, to once again highlight the urgent need for effective action (De Sousa, 2020) while empirically demonstrating the environmental benefits of a drastic, albeit temporary, interruption of the prevailing production model.

The feasibility of achieving the SDGs' targets, at least within the planned timelines, has been questioned in events such as the High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development held between July 5 and 15, 2022 –established in 2012 after the Rio+20 Summit– or the Rio+30 Conference –of which only some preliminary events were held due to coinciding with elections in Brazil– between October 17th and 19th, calling for action once again based on the legacy of its predecessors.

In this context, it is worth highlighting the initiative of the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) which, along with other partners, developed the proposal for the global Good Life Goals (GLGs), as part of the GLG-SDGs Project (Hidalgo-Capitán et al., 2018). These are a set of personal actions or lifestyles, alternative and complementary to the SDGs, with the aim of facilitating support from every individual, wherever they are in the world, to contribute to achieving the latter (Figure 4.).

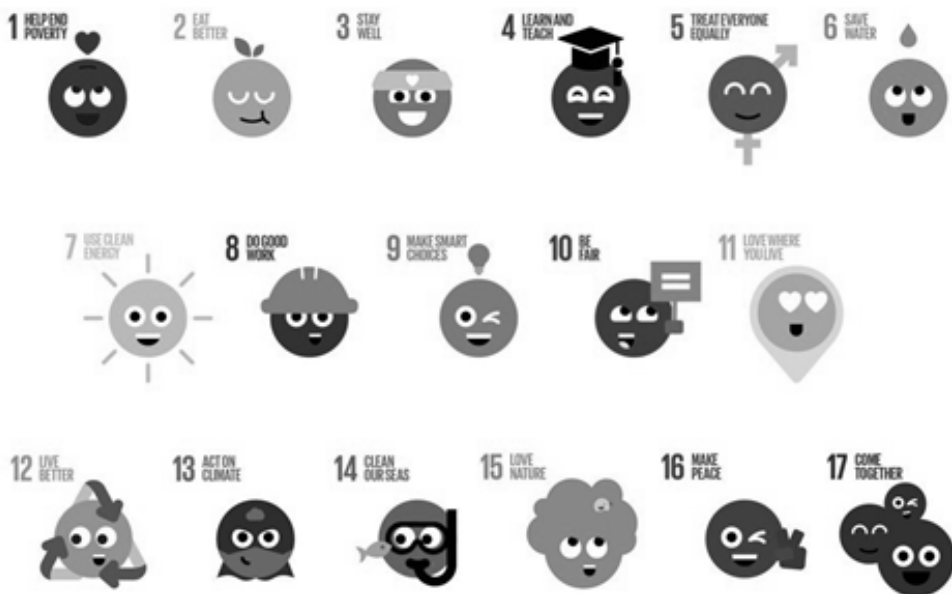


Figure 4 The Good Life Goals (SDGs) of United Nations
 Source: WBCSD n.d.

The basis of the GLGs consists of three fundamental pillars: harmony with all beings of nature, with all human beings, and with oneself. From these pillars, three general objectives of biocentric sustainability, social equity, and personal satisfaction are proposed, each broken down into seven specific objectives.

Specifically, in relation to biocentric sustainability, the specific objectives are the care of ecosystems, the transition to a sustainable economy, the limitation of natural resource extraction, the shift to renewable energy-based systems, the approval of a *Universal Declaration of the Rights of Nature* (with constitutional recognition in each country), the promotion of circular economy systems, and the optimization of habitats.

Regarding the objective of social equity, the specific objectives are the promotion of local production, the achievement of food sovereignty, the establishment of participatory and peaceful democratic systems, progressive taxation, the promotion of alternative economies, market regulation, and affirmative action.

Finally, the specific objectives regarding personal satisfaction are related to the recognition, respect, and promotion of interculturality, diverse identities, contextual education, simple lifestyles, spiritualities, plurinationalities, and holistic health.

As a summary of the section, Table 2 synthesizes the information presented in the previous pages.

Year	Fact/Event	Institution/Organism
1992	Approval of the <i>United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change</i>	United Nations
1992	Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) or Earth Summit, definition of <i>Agenda 21</i> , <i>Convention on Biological Diversity</i> , <i>Rio Declaration on Environment and Development</i> , and <i>Statement of Principles for the Sustainable Management of Forests</i>	United Nations
1992	Establishment of the Commission on Sustainable Development	United Nations
1993	Approval of the <i>Fifth Environmental Action Programme "Towards Sustainable Development"</i>	European Union
1994	First Conference on Sustainable European Cities, <i>Aalborg Charter</i>	European Sustainable Cities
1996	Second Conference on Sustainable European Cities, <i>Lisbon Action Plan: from the Charter to Action</i>	European Sustainable Cities
1997	Approval of the <i>Kyoto Protocol</i> to reduce greenhouse gas emissions	United Nations
1999	Euro-Mediterranean Conference on Sustainable Cities, <i>Seville Declaration</i>	European Sustainable Cities
1999	Preparation of the first report of results from the United Nations Commission for Sustainable Development	United Nations
2000	Third Conference on Sustainable European Cities, <i>Hannover Declaration of Municipal Leaders on the Threshold of the 21st Century</i>	European Sustainable Cities
2000	Approval of the <i>Earth Charter</i>	United Nations
2000	Millennium Summit, <i>Millennium Declaration</i> , and establishment of the Millennium Declaration Goals (MDGs)	United Nations
2001	Approval of the <i>Sixth Environmental Action Programme "Environment 2010: Our Future, Our Choice"</i>	European Union
2002	Approval of the <i>Sixth Environmental Action Programme "Environment 2010: Our Future, Our Choice"</i>	European Union
2002	Conference on Environment and Development "Rio+10", <i>Political Declaration</i> , and <i>Johannesburg Implementation Plan</i>	United Nations

2004	Conference on Sustainable European Cities <i>Aalborg+10, Aalborg+10 Declaration: Inspiration for the Future</i>	European Sustainable Cities
2004	Approval of the <i>Culture 21 Agenda</i>	UCLG
2005	Entry into force of the <i>Kyoto Protocol</i>	United Nations
2006	<i>Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament on a Thematic Strategy for the Urban Environment</i>	European Union
2007	Bali Climate Change Conference	United Nations
2010	<i>Mexico Declaration</i> , defining culture as the “fourth pillar of sustainable development”	UCLG
2012	Conference on Sustainable Development “Rio+20”, final document <i>The Future We Want</i> , and articulation of the Ten-Year Framework of Programmes on Sustainable Consumption and Production (10YFP)	United Nations
2015	Approval of the <i>Paris Agreement</i>	United Nations
2015	Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, <i>Kuala Lumpur Declaration</i>	United Nations (UNESCO)
2015	Approval of the <i>Agenda 2030</i> by the United Nations General Assembly, establishment of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)	United Nations
2018	Proposal of the Good Life Goals (GLGs) as part of the GLG-SDGs Project	United Nations (UNEP)
2022	Annual meeting of the High Level Political Forum on Sustainable Development 2022	United Nations
2022	International Conference on Sustainable and Inclusive Urban Development Rio+30	United Nations

Table 2 Some particularly noteworthy facts regarding sustainable development after the Brundtland Report
 Source: own editing

Conclusions

The analysis of the bibliographic material collected and synthesized in the different sections of this work reveals that, regardless of the most widely used definition of sustainable development proposed by the United Nations in 1987 within the report *Our Common Future* or the Brundtland Report, it is not actually the first proposal of its kind. Formal antecedents of the concept date back to 1965 when the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) was established as a result of the merger between the preexisting Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance (established in 1949) and the Special Fund (in 1958). This temporal perspective indicates a long trajectory that almost traces back to the founding of the United Nations organization itself.

Regarding the first formal use of the term, it also goes back in time to 1969 when it appeared in an official document signed by several African countries and promoted by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN).

Furthermore, the determination and chronological exposition of relevant events highlight the leadership of the United Nations, its agencies, or departments in this matter both before and after the appearance of the concept, along with the significant role of other organizations, including various European instances.

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ANSWIN VILMAR

HOW NON-PROFIT CULTURAL VENUES CAN PROFIT FROM BRAND EXTENSIONS - A CASE STUDY ANALYSIS USING THE EXAMPLE OF THE TONHALLE DUESSELDORF (GERMANY)

Brands bind customers and create loyalty towards the marked offers. In this context, brand extension is a versatile instrument that can be used in the context of growth strategies to release further potential based on strategic brand positioning. This involves defining a brand and then transferring it to new offerings in other categories. In consumer marketing, branding and brand extensions have long been part of the standard repertoire. In the marketing of non-profit cultural offerings, the possibility of brand transfer through brand extension - at least in Germany - does not seem to have been fully exploited yet. However, the advantages of branding and brand extensions are also obvious for those cultural institutions: New cultural offerings benefit from the high level of awareness and the good image of an established brand of the cultural institution (umbrella effect). In addition, there is a high synergy potential (synergy effect). And when introducing new offers, time and costs are saved because no new brand has to be introduced.

The paper deals with the possibility for non-profit cultural venues as organizers of classical music events to bring about a significant increase in experience, customer loyalty and thus ultimately also in results through brand extension. Within the framework of a qualitative study, first, the brands (logos) of the most important concert halls in Germany are categorized according to specific design criteria. Then the potentials that can be realized through corresponding brand extensions are presented. Using the example of the Duesseldorf 'Tonhalle' (German for 'music hall' resp. literally 'tone hall'), one of the main concert halls of the North Rhine-Westphalian state capital Duesseldorf in Germany, it is shown how and to what extent this non-profit cultural event venue has been able to profit from a consistent brand extension of the 'Tonhalle' brand. With an unchanged marketing budget for the Tonhalle Duesseldorf, subscription numbers more than doubled during the reporting period, with free ticket sales remaining unchanged. Many subscribers remained loyal to the Tonhalle even during the COVID pandemic. A transfer of the results to comparable concert halls - and even to other cultural non-profit institutions beyond the music scene - should be possible without major difficulties.

Introduction

The cultural industries are traditionally a cross-sectoral industry that encompasses both production and service sectors and thus a whole range of sub-markets. The economic and employment potential of this sector is often considerably underestimated. In the German cultural industry reports, however, there is – unlike the question of employment in the cultural industries in Europe – no uniform delimitation of the individual sectors (yet). For better differentiation, therefore, a distinction is often made between narrower and broader cultural industry activities, with the former relating to the core area of content production and the latter more to upstream and downstream production and distribution services.

A common method of describing the German cultural industries is to distinguish seven market-based industries (Ertel, 2006, p. 19):

- music industry
- publishing industry
- art market
- film industry
- broadcasting industry
- architecture
- design industry

Compared to other countries in the EU, Germany has the highest gross value added of the culture and creative industries in 2020, totalling 79,630 billion Euros (BMWK, 2023, p. 135). The further potential of the German cultural industries is shown in the current monitoring report of the Federal Government. It indicates that the culture and creative industries grew by around 4.8 % in 2021 compared to 2020, with a total turnover of 175.4 billion Euros. For the most part, the submarkets were able to grow again - but at a significantly lower level than before the COVID pandemic. The gross value added of the culture and creative industries grew by 5.2 % in 2021 compared to 2020 to about 103.7 billion Euros and is thus roughly at the level of mechanical engineering, a traditionally very strong economic sector in Germany. The total number of people employed in the cultural sector remained stable in 2021 at around 1.8 million (BMWK, 2023, pp. 21).

A significant part of the gross value added is generated by public institutions. This is because the performance of cultural tasks is primarily the responsibility of the municipalities. In addition, there is often a certain idealism in the cultural industry, so that numerous non-profit institutions are also involved in culture alongside public institutions.

Germany has a rich musical heritage – and a strong contemporary music scene. Within the cultural sector, the music industry with its 11,462 companies and institutions achieved a turnover volume of around 6.1 billion Euros in 2021 (BMWK, 2023, p. 108). This sub-market was thus only able to recover to a small extent from the declines in the first COVID year. Turnover in the event sector remained significantly below the level before the pandemic. Some sectors of the economy, such as music publishers (-3 per cent), recording studios (-5 per cent)

and the retail trade with sound recordings (-15 per cent) recorded further losses in 2021, while theatre and concert promoters (+5 per cent) as well as German sound recording publishers (=labels, +10 per cent) had rising sales again (BMWK, 2023, p. 22).

Particularly in a long-term comparison, it becomes clear how the entire segment of cultural venues (i.e. the private and public musical, theatre and concert halls) has suffered extremely as a result of the COVID years 2020 and 2021. While the venues in question were still turning over 403 million euros in 2011 and were even able to increase this turnover to 538 million euros up to and including 2019, i.e. before the pandemic reached Western Europe, at the end of the second COVID year in 2021, the total turnover collapsed to only 233 million euros, not even half of the level previously generated (BMWK, 2023, p. 116).

Nevertheless together with theatres and opera houses, concert halls are still central venues for cultural life and life performances. As buildings specifically constructed for concerts and designed accordingly in terms of architecture and technical equipment, particularly concert halls are central venues for musical performances, especially in the field of classical music. They are structurally designed for musical performances or retrofitted for this purpose and usually offer seating capacity for several hundred visitors. They often serve as venues for local and regional orchestras, but are also used for guest performances and festivals (Deutsches Musikinformationszentrum miz, 2023).

However, concert halls, especially if they are operated by cities, municipalities or private foundations, often suffer from financial constraints. In order to promote the cultivation of music from the baroque to the modern and to support the current scene from new music to pop, the federal government participates in the financing of selected institutions, organisations and projects that have achieved significance at home and abroad (Kulturstaatsministerin, 2020, p. 46). In addition, there is further funding, e.g. from the individual federal states, from municipalities or also from private foundations. Nevertheless, the funding is not sufficient to ensure the operation of all concert halls.

This particularly affects non-profit institutions. Many publicly funded municipal facilities such as theatres, conference venues, event buildings or concert halls complain about high costs and empty seats. But instead of complaining about problems, it makes more sense to think about potential solutions. Here, targeted brand management and especially brand extensions and expansions could help to improve their situation without overstressing the financial possibilities.

The aim of brand extensions is to “capitalise on investments in the brand by transferring built-up images and preferences to new products” (Esch, 2014, p. 417), which has become a common method of brand management in consumer goods marketing. However, the extent to which this strategic approach can be applied to cultural markets or cultural goods and institutions, and whether brand extensions or expansions can be promising there, has hardly been analysed so far and will therefore be examined more closely in the following.

The focus of this paper is therefore on the question of whether the brand or marketing budget of publicly funded or non-profit concert halls can be used particularly efficiently through intelligent brand extensions.

For this purpose, three (sub-)questions are to be answered:

1. What should be considered when examining possible brand extensions of non-profit cultural institutions such as concert halls?
2. Which customer segments can be identified for cultural institutions like concert halls that can be addressed in a target group-oriented manner with various brand extensions?
3. To what extent can such brand extensions of non-profit concert halls influence their market success?

In the following, the special situation of concert halls as an important sub-sector of cultural institutions is analysed. In particular, the situation in Germany is considered. A transfer of the findings to other cultural institutions such as museums or other municipal non-profit cultural institutions is basically possible. However, a prerequisite for a successful transfer of the concept of brand extension would be the existence of sufficiently clearly definable and productive target segments (Esch, 2014, p. 412). Possibilities to address new target groups beyond the traditional customer segments are mentioned below in the context of the case study.

Concert Halls in Germany

According to the German Music Information Centre miz (2023), out of a total of well over 100 concert halls, there are 35 non-profit halls that are essentially financed by municipalities or other public donors. Other donors to these institutions are private foundations that are dedicated to culture and especially to supporting music. Consequently, these venues are operated in the legal form of non-profit associations or non-profit companies (gGmbH = gemeinnützige Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung / non-profit limited liability company), as foundations or as municipal enterprises or public law institutions (AöR = Anstalt öffentlichen Rechts / Public Institute). Only two of the houses are run as limited liability companies (GmbH = Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung / limited liability company).

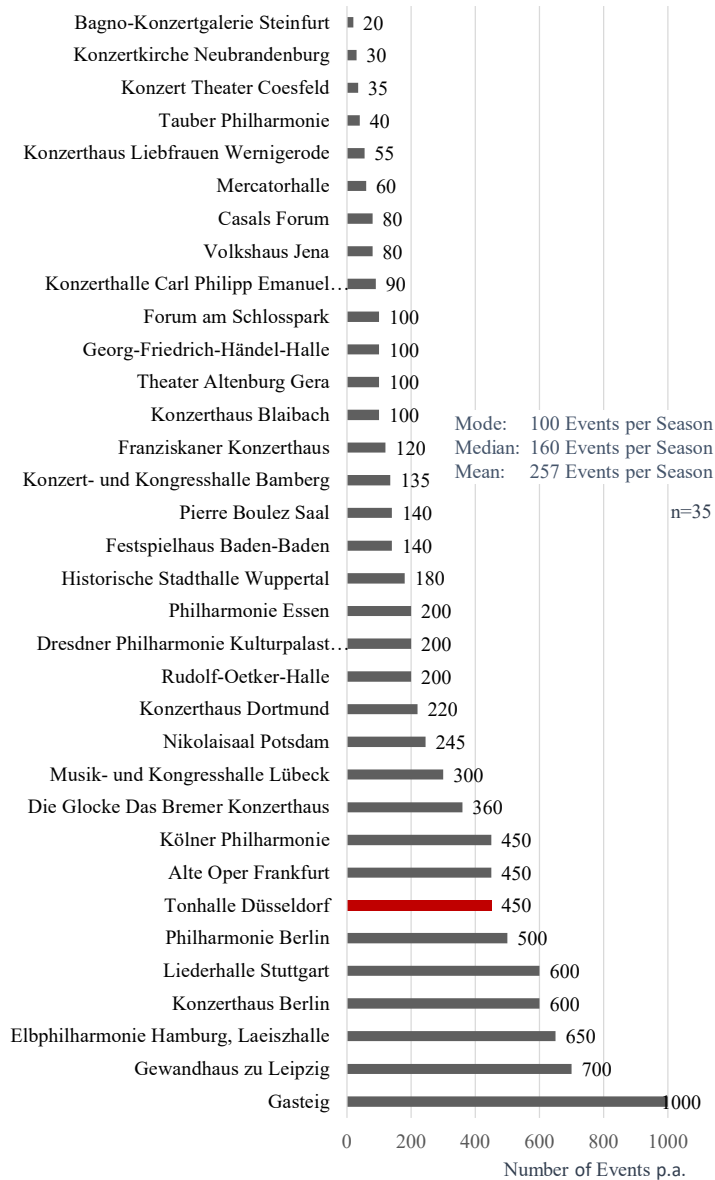


Figure 1 Non-profit concert halls in Germany – Performances per Season/Year (approx.)
 Source: Own description based on miz (2023)

As non-profit institutions, it is vital for the majority of the houses to stand their ground both in competition with each other and with the more commercially positioned houses and cultural multi-purpose halls. The number of events presented by these non-profit institutions ranges from 30 to 1000 per season resp. year. Most houses offer between 100 and 299 performances per year, resp. in average 257 Events per Season (see Fig. 1.).

Although the self-image of these concert halls as venues for music is conveyed through a clearly visible presentation of the seasonal music programme within their internet presences, the branding of the individual halls, however, sometimes seems to be treated rather suboptimally. Yet a differentiated and differentiating branding is the prerequisite for further brand expansion, with the support of which even a more extensive programme of events can be marketed in a well-structured manner and with only a small amount of additional financial effort.

This is because new cultural offerings benefit from the already established level of awareness and the good image of an established brand of the cultural institution (umbrella effect). Furthermore, there is a high synergy potential (synergy effect). And when introducing new offers, time and costs are saved because no new brand has to be introduced.

In addition, well planned branding as an essential component of corporate identity supports identification with the respective concert hall - both internally (staff identification) and externally (customer loyalty).

Brandmark categories

In times of saturated or financially strained markets, brand management plays a key role in marketing. This applies more than ever to the cultural sector with its numerous non-profit sponsors of cultural institutions such as public concert halls, since municipal funds have only very limited financial flexibility due to permanently strained budgetary situations, at least in Germany. In addition, there are now numerous alternatives for music lovers beyond traditional concert attendance to enjoy music, for example, through live-streaming offers or concert recordings that can be accessed online, mostly free of charge. But with brands, the institutions affected by this can improve their marketing efficiency, improve differentiation from competitors, increase the value of the cultural offerings and furthermore strengthen the identification of the employees with the non-profit organization. This is because brands provide orientation and security, create desirability and form images of a product or service.

In this context, a brand can be defined as a name, a designation, a sign, a symbol or design or a combination of these elements that serves to identify the offer. The brand name is the part of a brand that can be verbally reproduced – the pronounceable part (Kotler, 1992, p. 641). But also a brand mark such as a logo, as an essential component of branding, serves to identify a company's goods and/or services and helps to differentiate them from the relevant competition. This applies to profit-oriented companies as well as to non-profit organizations. Furthermore, brand marks can evoke pleasant memories and trigger positive associations.

Brand marks are protectable as signs which can distinguish the goods and/or services of one enterprise from those of other enterprises. These can be, for example, words, letters, numbers, illustrations, but also colours, holograms, multimedia signs and sounds (DPMA, 2023).

In Germany, brand mark protection arises from the registration of an applied-for brand in the register of the German Patent and Trademark Office (DPMA). In addition, brand protection may also arise through reputation because of intensive use of a sign in business transactions or through general awareness.

In the following, the brand marks registered at the DPMA for the 35 non-profit concert halls listed in Table 1. above are evaluated as of the reference date 11 April 2023. However, if the concert halls have registered their brand marks exclusively at the European Union Intellectual Property Office EUIPO in Alicante or via a regional office of the EU in one or more other countries outside Germany and not at the DPMA, these brands are not considered in the further analysis.

Some of the concert halls mentioned have registered only one brand mark, a few have registered two or even three or more brand marks (Fig. 2.). These are essentially word-picture marks protected by registration and only in exceptional cases pure word marks. But most houses do not have registered brandmarks. This wastes a lot of potential. Because targeted branding alone can increase awareness, achieve recognition effects and strengthen customer loyalty. And registered brands are the basic prerequisite for further brand extensions.

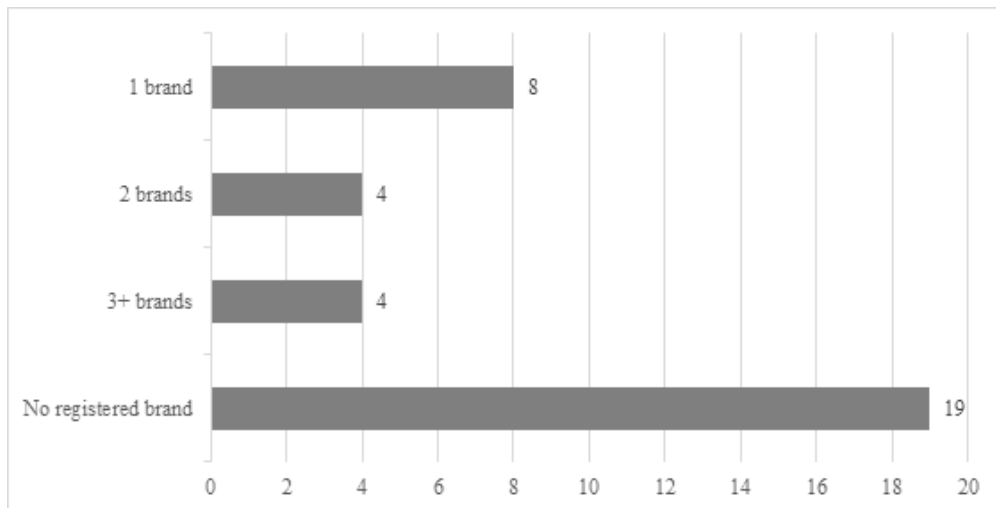


Figure 2 Number of Registered Brands per Concert Hall (n=35)

Source: Own elaboration based on DPMA brand mark registrations (dpma, 2023)

It is striking that in the vast majority of the 35 concert halls investigated, neither the owner nor the operator have registered a brand for their halls and thus they are not protected against imitators or misuse. One possible reason may be the lack of distinctiveness of many concert hall names. However, it is also undeniable that some sponsoring organizations or operators are not aware of the advantages of brand protection or avoid the (relatively low) effort of registering a brand. Occasionally, however, these concert halls use the brand of their house orchestra in their external presentation, such as the Philharmonie Berlin, which uses the brand of the Berliner Philharmoniker (Philharmonic Orchestra of Berlin), the resident orchestra. In addition to the trademark for the German area of application, some concert halls have also registered a Union brand, which ensures Europe-wide protection.

In addition to the protected brands, numerous non-protected brand logos are also used in the communication of the concert halls. Thus, without exception, all the non-profit institutions surveyed identify their concert halls and the associated services with (at least) one protected and/or non-registered logo.

Design variety of the parent (master) brand marks

Within the framework of this qualitative study, the brands (logos) of the concert halls are also categorized according to specific design criteria. Then the potentials that can be realized through corresponding brand extensions are presented.

The following figure gives an overview of the different logos used by the concert halls according to design criteria. Both the registered brands and the brands of selected concert halls that are not listed in the brand register are considered.

Pure word marks, which at best are distinguished by a characteristic font, are represented rather rarely with only three examples (see quadrants in Fig. 3. right and left at the very top). Usually, further graphic elements are added to the names of the concert halls. It is striking that in the case of the brand logos with concrete design elements (quadrant bottom right), mainly architectural aspects of the concert halls have been thematized - be it the shape of the building or the interior design / seating arrangement of the concert hall.

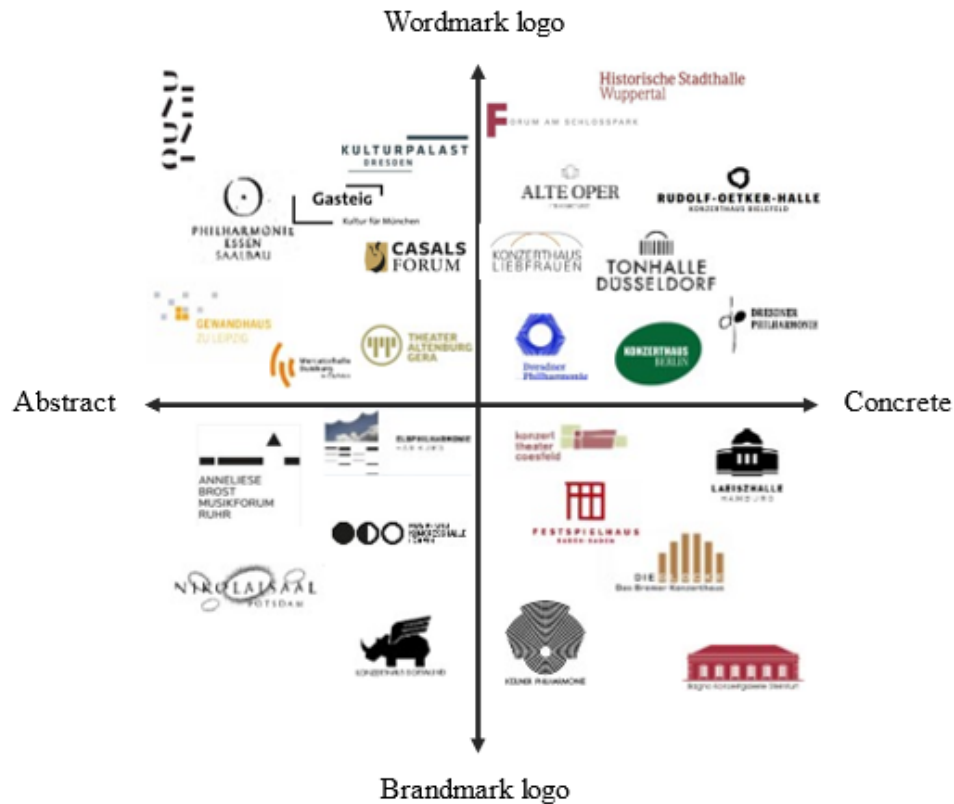


Figure 3 Selected word and brand mark logos according to the degree of abstraction resp. concretization
Source: Own elaboration

Without at this point wanting to evaluate the individual logos in terms of their design or effectiveness, it should only be mentioned here that brand marks should (for the most part) fulfil the following criteria to be perceived as a symbol of the concert hall that creates identity (Tab. 1). This applies not only to concert halls, but also to other cultural institutions in general.

Assessment criteria (selection)	
• Striking and differentiating	• Timeless in formal expression
• Unique in idea and implementation	• High level of craftsmanship
• Part of the creative central idea	• Reflecting brand values
• Simple in idea and implementation	• Flexible in use
• Recognisable / readable	• Reduceable (e.g. for smaller screens)

Table 1 Criteria for the assessment of brand logos
Source: Hensel (2015, p. 120)

Brand extensions

A successful parent brand is characteristic for the image of the concert hall behind it. Furthermore, the core brand can be used for the introduction of new service offerings through brand extension, since a (large) part of the investment has already been made at an earlier point in time. Such brand extension refers to the stretching of an already introduced brand and the transfer of the related associations into a new service category. Ideally, there is not only a goodwill transfer from the parent brand to the extension offer, but at the same time the extension offers positively fertilizes the parent brand (Fig. 4).

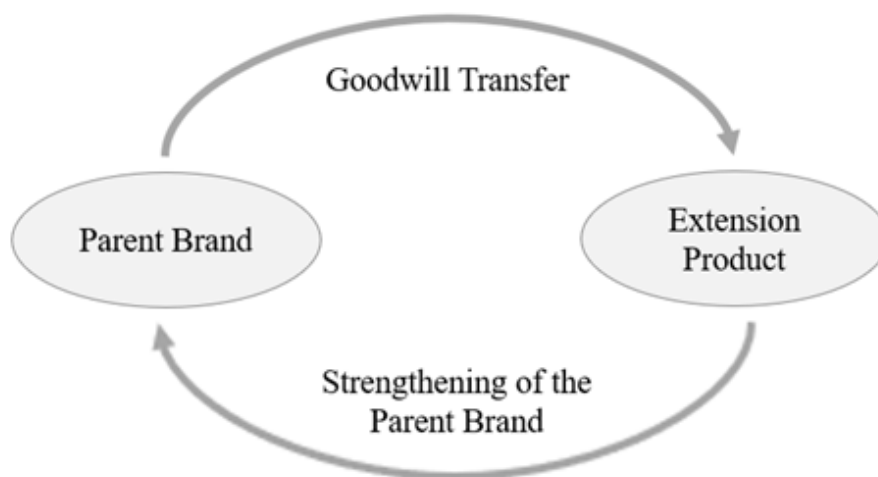


Figure 4 Typical brand extension process
Source: Esch et al. (2001)

What should be taken into account when considering possible brand extensions of non-profit cultural institutions / concert halls?

The key factor for the success of such brand extensions is the so-called ‘fit’, i.e. the perceived similarity between the parent brand and the new range of services. If the similarity is too low, negative spillover effects are to be feared in the worst case.

The following figure illustrates the results of a comprehensive literature review by Deng and Messinger (2022, p. 766) on the relevant variables of brand extension fit (Fig. 5.):

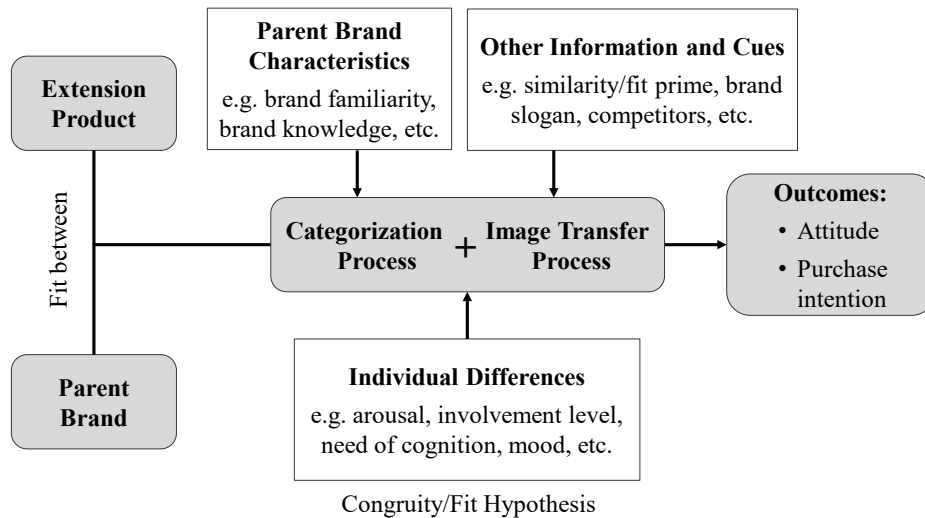


Figure 5 Relevant dimensions of brand extension fit

Source: Simplified illustration based on Deng and Messinger (2022, p. 766)

The strength of the parent brand, especially its perceived quality, adequate marketing support (e.g. in the form of targeted communication measures) and customer experience with the parent brand are also critical to success (Homburg, 2020). According to Keller (2001), four basic prerequisites should be fulfilled so that brand extension leads to a positive assessment by concert hall visitors:

- The parent brand is known to the visitors, and they have positive associations with it.
- At least some of these positive associations should be activated by the brand extension.
- Negative associations should not be transferred from the parent brand.
- No negative associations are created by the brand extension.

Under a broader brand architecture, significantly more and also new events and event series can be included compared to what would be possible with a mono-brand strategy. To ensure success, however, both conceptual and implementation-related aspects must be considered (Fig. 6.).

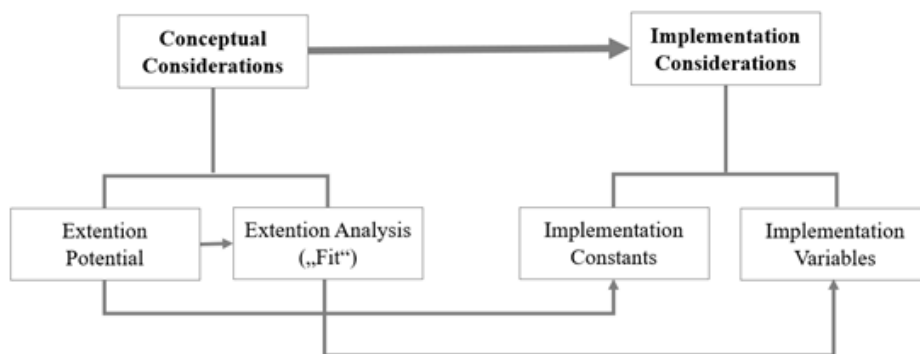


Figure 6 Relationships between conceptual considerations on brand extensions and their implementations

Source: Esch et al. (2001, p. 767)

For the sake of completeness, however, the possible risks of brand extensions should not be concealed at this point. The way in which new brands are integrated into existing brand systems - the strategic brand architecture - is often ad hoc rather than strategically planned, and this means more risk (Fournier - Srinivasan, 2023, p. 48). Downward brand extension can jeopardise the brand image and damage the perceived quality and exclusivity of the parent brand. Brand stretching upwards can create quality expectations that cannot be met by the concert organizer.

On the other hand, linking too large a portfolio of offers to a single brand name and logo in a branded house strategy can also make brands vulnerable to reputational risks. Especially in the music business, not only the concert halls themselves, but also and above all the performing artists and their programme play a decisive role in the decision-making process to buy tickets for a concert. Insofar as sub-brands or brand extensions are linked to the identity and life of individuals (e.g. conductors, soloists, etc.), there is at least the potential risk that such personal brands are less stable in themselves and that human behaviour is less easy to predict and manage than with a product or service brand.

Overall, brand extensions nevertheless represent an excellent opportunity to accompany an expansion of the concert halls' event repertoire with limited financial resources and thus to transfer the positive perception of the parent brand to the new events. The following example of a concert hall run by a non-profit operator shows how this can be achieved in practice.

Case study of the ‘Tonhalle Düsseldorf’ brand

Using the example of the Düsseldorf ‘Tonhalle’ (German for ‘music hall’ resp. literally ‘tone hall’), one of the main concert halls of the North Rhine-Westphalian state capital Duesseldorf in Germany, it is shown how and to what extent this cultural event venue has been able to profit from a consistent brand extension of the ‘Tonhalle’ brand.

Originally built in 1926 as a planetarium, the building was converted into a concert hall in the 1970s. In 2005, the large concert hall was rebuilt once again and the acoustics in particular were adapted to the requirements of modern concert halls by means of a sophisticated sound redirection system. But also visually, thanks to light-emitting diodes and a special lighting concept, the Tonhalle is now once again what it always was: a “planetarium of music”.

More than 450 concerts are offered annually with a total of over 300,000 visitors. For this purpose, the Tonhalle has a large main hall with 1,854 seats, a chamber music hall with 300 seats and a rotunda with 200 to 400 seats. This means that it can seat a total of more than 2,500 people.

The Tonhalle is also the headquarters and thus the musical home of the Duesseldorf Symphony Orchestra. In the 19th century, Duesseldorf was the second German city to found a municipal orchestra. Today, 130 musicians play in the orchestra, which also enjoys an excellent reputation beyond Düsseldorf’s borders as a result of numerous guest performances. (Ingenhoven, 2023).

The starting point for the brand extension was the parent brand with its characteristic brand logo, a stylised representation of the former planetarium, complemented by a word mark (Fig. 7.).



Figure 7 Brand logo of the parent brand ‘Tonhalle Düsseldorf’
Source: Deutsches Patent- und Markenamt (2023)

Which customer segments can be identified for cultural institutions / concert halls to be addressed with various brand extensions in a way that is appropriate for the target group?

In the case of the brand extension ‘Tonhalle Düsseldorf’, a target group analysis of existing visitors was first carried out to answer this question. As in many other concert halls that primarily offer classical music events (e.g. chamber music and symphony concerts), the visitors to the Tonhalle Duesseldorf primarily consisted only of the relatively small segment of older, humanistic educated citizens. Based on this, a consistent expansion of the target group and programme took place. Thus, a unique programme structure was achieved under the motto “Tonhalle 0-100”. “As the first concert hall in Germany, the Tonhalle has thus offered


music for every conceivable age group: from the unborn baby in the “Ultraschall” (English: “Ultrasound”) series, to the youthful generation in the “Ignition” series, to the “Ehring geht ins Konzert” (English: “Ehring goes to Concert”) series for classical music returnees” (Tonhalle, 2023).

Although the further differentiated target groups of the Tonhalle Düsseldorf cannot necessarily be transferred to other venues, at least the diversity of potential customer segments that can be identified for cultural institutions/concert halls and that can be addressed with various brand extensions in a way that is appropriate to the target group is shown.

With regard to the relationships between conceptual considerations for brand extensions and their implementation (cf. Fig. 5.), the following can be determined for the Tonhalle Düsseldorf:

Expansion potential: Starting from the original offer of the ‘Tonhalle’, the expansion potential initially extends from individual special concerts to different series for symphony concerts of the Duesseldorf Symphony Orchestra to all other musical genres (-> umbrella effect). Music is an essential part of the brand essence of the ‘Tonhalle’, which means that art and cultural forms that go beyond it are more theoretical in nature. Nevertheless, certain cultural events beyond music, e.g. readings or stage performances, initially seem conceivable from the viewpoint of further stretching potential.

Stretch analysis (“fit”): Nevertheless, not everything that initially seems conceivable is promising. This requires a precise stretch analysis of the offer. In the case of the brand ‘Tonhalle’ Düsseldorf, the limits of the stretch potential were derived from the age-related, extreme target group spread (cf. system “Tonhalle from 0 - 100”). Although the common denominator remains the affinity to music, a target group description that almost completely eliminates an age restriction is certainly - to put it mildly - extremely ambitious at first glance. Nevertheless, this must be taken into account in the course of a planned brand expansion resp. extension.

Implementation constants: In order to generate synergies in the form of positive image transfers, a constant brand image is required in the implementation. In the case of the brand extension of the ‘Tonhalle’, the logo  is used as the primary visual constant. The logo, which is graphically recognisable as the Tonhalle building, can be varied with other elements - depending on requirements and the series of events (-> synergy effect). In addition, there are other content-related parameters that are important for a concert hall, such as “organically produced music”, “address”, “duration” and “audience participation” as so-called “constant variables”.

Implementation variables: Since the initial events of a concert hall represent its original range of services, a brand extension can only be carried out together with an extension of the range of services.

The variables in the brand appearance correspond to the different target groups and their expectations. Thus, for the target group and brand extension ‘Junge Tonhalle’ (English: Young Concert Hall), a much more youthful appearance is chosen than for the classical New Year’s

concerts of the Klassik Konzert Gesellschaft as organiser. The brand extension is supported by the integration of the concert events into the overall programme, by live communication and by social media activities (especially on Facebook and Twitter).

Overall, the parent brand 'Tonhalle Düsseldorf' was expanded by the brands 'Junge Tonhalle' and 'Kleine Tonhalle' (Small Concert Hall). The various event series were assigned to the three brands (see also Tab. 2).

- Numerous concert and event series are brought together under the parent brand 'Tonhalle Düsseldorf'. These include subscription series with the Duesseldorf Symphony Orchestra as the Tonhalle's house orchestra or other series with chamber music formations as well as individual concert events. In the naming, deliberate references are made to the history of the concert hall as a planetarium: Sternzeichen (Sign of the Zodiac), Sternstunden (Star Hours, means: great moments), Raumstation (Space Station), Fixsterne (Fixed Stars), Supernova, Komet (Comet) etc.
- The 'Junge Tonhalle', on the other hand, marks the range of services offered by the Duesseldorf concert hall for the younger generation. This offer primarily addresses young people - both as concertgoers and as participating musicians. In this context, a special example of lived solidarity between children and young people is a benefit concert with all the young ensembles of the Konzerthaus - the children's orchestra, the U16 orchestra and the youth symphony orchestra of the Tonhalle - which raised 4,000 euros for the music department of the Are grammar school in Bad Neuenahr, a picturesque town 100 km south of Düsseldorf. A natural disaster in the Ahr valley had completely destroyed all of the school's instruments, music storage, stage equipment with lighting and sound technology, specialist and rehearsal rooms. In addition, the concert series '#IGNITION - Junge Tonhalle' and 'Big Bang - Junge Tonhalle' are also offered under this brand.
- Finally, under the 'Kleine Tonhalle' brand, concerts are offered that focus on (younger) children and their families. The events of the Family Weeks are usually sold out within a short time after the beginning of the presale. Behind this brand extension are numerous concert series such as Ultraschall (Ultrasound), Himmelblau (Sky Blue), Sterntaler (Startaler), Plutino, Sternschnuppen (Shooting Stars), Junior-Sternzeichen (Junior Zodiac), Familienmusikfest (Family Music Festival), Tonhalle macht Schule for grades 1-4 and Tonhalle macht Schule for grades 5-12. Many of these concert series are also named after the Tonhalle's origins as a planetarium. A special feature is the Ultraschall (Ultrasound) series of events, designed with music and relaxation for pregnant women and their babies in the womb. Lying or sitting on yoga mats, expectant mothers listen to the music and their child in a soothing atmosphere (Tonhalle, 2023). Ultraschall' thus already picks up the unborn musically. Customer loyalty cannot begin earlier.




Brand (Extensions)	 TONHALLE DÜSSELDORF Einfach fühlen	 JUNGE TONHALLE Einfach fühlen	 KLEINE TONHALLE Einfach fühlen
Series of Events	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sternzeichen • Sternstunden • Raumstation • Fixsterne • Supernova • Das symphonische Palais • Café-Konzert • Heinersdorff Konzerte • Meisterkonzerte Piano Solo • Komet • Ars Music • ... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • #IGNITION – Junge Tonhalle • Big Bang – Junge Tonhalle • ... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ultraschall • Himmelblau • Sterntaler • Plutino • Sternschnuppen • Junior-Sternzeichen • Familienmusikfest • Tonhalle macht Schule für Klassenstufen 1-4 • Tonhalle macht Schule für Klassenstufen 5-12 • ...

Table 2 Brands and event series of the Tonhalle Duesseldorf
Source: Tonhalle (2023)

Both the core brand and the brand extensions are given the addition ‘Einfach fühlen’ (‘Simply Feel’), which is intended to clarify the common claim.

To what extent can such brand extensions of non-profit cultural institutions / concert halls influence their market success?

The example of the Tonhalle Duesseldorf shows that, in addition to adapting the content of the event series and concert programmes, it is particularly due to the extended brand architecture for a concert hall that subscription sales, which are important for longer-term planning, could be continuously increased without this development being at the expense of individual tickets on sale. Regular visitors create the economic basis for exceptional concert experiences.

The long-term development of visitors shows that the multi-brand policy with brand expansion for the different event series and target groups was successful from the beginning. For example, from 2005 to 2014, visitors up to 18 years of age have already increased almost fivefold from 7,100 to 34,980. The total number of visitors increased by 37% from 179,026 to 245,596 in the same period.

The positive development in visitor numbers was accompanied by an increase in the number of events themselves. While the number of concerts and performances by other organisers increased by 43% from 74 to 106, the symphony and special concerts of the Tonhalle/Düsseldorfer Symphoniker increased by as much as 147% from 97 (in 2005) to 240 (in 2014) (Stadt Duesseldorf, 2015). And in the last years before the Corona pandemic, the

number of subscriptions increased again by over 70% from 21,566 (in the 2014/15 season) to 37,408 (in the 2017/18 season). And this with an capacity utilization of 93%, a value that not only other concert halls can often only dream of.

The overall picture confirms that the brand expansion or extension, as pursued by the concert hall 'Tonhalle Düsseldorf', in conjunction with a programme that is well received by the audience, is very successful overall in terms of the relevant KPIs, despite the setbacks caused by the pandemic. It can be stated that with no significant change in the (marketing) budget of the concert hall over the past ten years, there has been a significant increase in the number of subscriptions from 2,100 to 4,700 (+ 124%) with free sales remaining the same (-> customer loyalty).

The average number of visitors to the Zodiac Symphony Concert Series remained constant (1,607 visitors per concert), but the RSS Chamber Music Series saw a significant increase of 32% (1,325 visitors per concert). Attendance at the "shooting star" family concerts also increased, to 1,411 guests per concert (plus 15%).

Certainly, the pleasing figures are not exclusively due to the brand extensions carried out, but would not be conceivable without the attractiveness of the concert programmes as well as the outstanding performances of the artists. Nevertheless, the series of events offered under the brand extensions participate in the glamour of the events held under the parent brand. And the opposite is also true: there is a recognisable image transfer from the offers of the brand extensions back to the parent brand.

After two difficult pandemic years, Tonhalle Duesseldorf gGmbH is currently registering positive economic signals again. As in almost all German opera houses, theatres and concert halls, free ticket sales were still sluggish in the 2022/2023 season. But many subscribers have remained loyal to the Tonhalle. At the same time, new visitors were attracted.

For the 2022/2023 season, 4,700 subscriptions were taken out, which is a significant increase on the previous year's 4,408 subscriptions and not far from the pre-COVID peak of just under 5,000 subscriptions. In the long term, audience numbers have also grown considerably, increasing by 63% since 2002 from 184,000 to around 300,000 visitors in 2022, an average annual increase of 3.2%. And this in an extremely competitive market environment.

It remains to be noted, that with an unchanged marketing budget for the Tonhalle Duesseldorf, subscription numbers more than doubled during the reporting period, with free ticket sales remaining unchanged. Many subscribers remained loyal to the Tonhalle even during the COVID pandemic.

The goal is to use the expanded brand architecture to gradually return to the pre-pandemic capacity utilization figures, which were up to 90 per cent. The number of the Tonhalle's own events will remain constant, only the number of guest events has increased compared to previous seasons, partly due to the need to reschedule (Ingenhoven, 2023). The successfully introduced brand extensions should continue to support the positive perception of the entire range of events at the Tonhalle Duesseldorf in the future and further strengthen visitor loyalty.

Conclusion

Through the preceding considerations and with the case study shown, it was possible to answer all three (partial) questions:

1. What should be considered when examining possible brand extensions of non-profit cultural institutions such as concert halls?
2. Which customer segments can be identified for cultural institutions such as concert halls that can be addressed with various brand extensions in a target group-oriented manner?
3. To what extent can such brand extensions of non-profit concert halls influence their market success?

Using the example of the concert hall and the brand ‘Tonhalle Düsseldorf’, it can be demonstrated how brand extensions contribute to the more efficient utilization of existing marketing budgets not only in typical B2C and B2B markets, but also in highly specialised cultural markets. It may be assumed that the findings can also be transferred to other concert halls (both non-profit and for-profit), and beyond that to theatres or museums, for example, as long as similar conditions exist in such venues and different target group segments can be addressed through different programme offers or series. However, this would have to be empirically verified in a further step.

Nevertheless the overall picture confirms that the brand expansion or extension, as pursued by the concert hall ‘Tonhalle Duesseldorf’, in conjunction with a programme that is well received by the audience, can be very successful overall in terms of the relevant KPIs, despite the setbacks caused by the pandemic.

The prerequisite for such brand extensions, however, is always an initial brand that is strong enough for further extension. In any case, the Tonhalle Duesseldorf and its brand extension can serve as a benchmark and source of inspiration for other public venues and non-profit cultural institutions in the sense of a best practice case. A transfer of the results to comparable concert halls should therefore also be possible without major difficulties.

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