

Doctoral Thesis

Brand management in the fast food industry: a cultural perspective of the branding strategies of firms, and the behaviour of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana

Brand management v průmyslu rychlého občerstvení: kulturní perspektiva brandingových strategií firem a chování spotřebitelů v České republice a Ghaně

Author	Ing. Emmanuel Selase Asamoah
Study programme	P 6208 Economics and Management
Supervisor	doc. Ing. Miloslava Chovancová, CSc.
Date of defence	June 2012

© Ing. Emmanuel Selase Asamoah

Published by Tomas Bata University in Zlín in 2012.

Key words: brand, marketing mix, culture, fast food, consumer behaviour, branding strategies

Klíčová slova: značka, marketingový mix, kultura, rychlé občerstvení, chování spotřebitele, brandingové strategie

The full version of the Doctoral Thesis may be found at the Central Library TBU in Zlín.

The electronic version of the Doctoral Thesis Summary may be found at www.utb.cz.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation was written for the PhD program in Economics and Management at the Tomas Bata University in Zlin. Writing this dissertation has given me the chance to explore and develop my skill within the field of business and marketing in the global environment, which could not have been possible without the assistance of a lot of people.

First of all, my gratitude goes to THE ALMIGHTY GOD for his protection and guidance throughout my study period. I hereby wish to express my appreciation and gratitude to the instructor of my dissertation, doc. Ing. Miloslava Chovancová, CSc. for her immense contribution and advice, without it, the completion of this work will not have been possible. Her constructive criticism was very helpful.

My warmest appreciation also goes to my Auntie Mrs Grace S. Fleischer. Thanks for your support, advice and prayers. To my brother, Godwin Kwasi Awuah, you were really helpful. To Victoria Akegie, thanks for your help and encouragement. The list is endless, but for those whose names have not been mentioned here, thank you very much, I appreciate all your help and support.

Emmanuel Selase Asamoah
June, 2012

ABSTRACT

Cultural values are important aspects of the self of consumers. As businesses have become more and more global, the cultural differences among consumers play an important role in the development of effective marketing and branding strategies. The main objective of this research is to create a model for cross cultural branding strategy in the fast food industry. Also, the research explores the different branding strategies used by fast food enterprises in the Czech Republic and Ghana. Furthermore, it examines the behaviour of consumers towards fast food brands and outlets in the two countries. In this research, both the qualitative and quantitative methods were adopted and primary and secondary data collection methods were used in gathering information.

The finding from this research does not only add to theory, but also, it will help managers to understand the intricacies involved in managing fast food brands in different cultural settings. The managerial implication is that, the competitive ability of a company is directly related to its ability to understand the significant role individual preferences as well as culture plays in consumer decisions making. Thus, for a fast food firm to be successful in consumer markets, they do not have to concentrate only on their internal activities, but also, they must understand and inculcate specific cultural variables into their marketing and branding activities.

ABSTRAKT

Kulturní hodnoty jsou důležitými aspekty osobnosti spotřebitelů. Poněvadž se podniky stávají stále více a více globálními, kulturní rozdíly mezi spotřebiteli hrají v rozvoji účinných marketingových a brandingových strategií významnou roli. Hlavním cílem této disertační práce je vytvoření modelu strategie budování značky v průmyslu rychlého občerstvení napříč kulturami. Výzkum se rovněž zabývá různými brandingovými strategiemi používanými podniky průmyslu rychlého občerstvení v České republice a Ghaně. Dále je zkoumáno chování spotřebitelů obou zemí vůči značkám a restauracím rychlého občerstvení. Ve výzkumu jsou použity jak kvalitativní, tak kvantitativní metody; pro získání dat byl proveden primární výzkum a bylo rovněž využito sekundárních zdrojů dat.

Nalezená zjištění tohoto výzkumu nejsou přínosná jenom pro teorii, ale pomohou manažerům porozumět složitostem spojeným s řízením značek rychlého občerstvení v rozdílně uspořádaných kulturách. Manažerské implikace spočívají v tom, že konkurenceschopnost podniku souvisí přímo se schopností podniku porozumět významné roli, kterou v rozhodování spotřebitele hrají jeho individuální preference i jeho kultura. Aby společnost rychlého občerstvení dosáhla úspěchu na spotřebitelském trhu, neměla by se soustředit pouze na své interní činnosti, ale musí také chápat, a svým marketingovým a brandingovým aktivitám vštěpovat specifické kulturní proměnné.

TABLE OF CONTENT	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	3
ABSTRACT	4
ABSTRAKT	4
EXTENDED ABSTRACT.....	8
ROZŠÍŘENÝ ABSTRAKT.....	10
LIST OF FIGURES	12
LIST OF TABLES	13
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	14
1. INTRODUCTION	15
1.1 Research background	15
1.2 Statement of the problem	16
1.3 Delimitations	18
1.4 Fast food and the fast food industry.....	18
2. CROSS CULTURAL BRAND MANAGEMENT	21
2.1 Culture and its relevance in the management of brands	21
2.2 The concept of branding in perspective	23
2.3 Relevance of brand and branding strategy in consumer markets	27
3. CROSS CULTURAL CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR	30
3.1 Culture and consumer behaviour	30
3.1.1 The concept of self.....	31
3.1.2 Personality	32
3.2 Cultural influences on consumer behaviour	32
3.3 Consumer behaviour and fast food marketing patterns	39
3.4 Consumer purchasing dynamics in fast food marketing.....	42
3.5 Factors Related to Consumers' Preferences of Fast Food Products	46
4. INTERNATIONAL FAST FOOD OPERATIONS	48
4.1 The emergence of fast food industry.....	48
4.2 Franchising in the fast food industry	52
4.3 Standardization and adaptation in the fast food industry.....	54
4.4 Mass customisation in the fast food industry.....	59
4.5 The emergence of fast food industry in the Czech Republic.....	65
4.6 Competitive environment in the Czech Republic	66
4.7 The emergence of fast food industry in Ghana.....	67
4.8 Competitive environment in Ghana	69
5. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	71
5.1 Theoretical foundations.....	71

5.2 The marketing mix concept.....	71
5.2.1 Price	72
5.2.2 Product	73
5.2.3 Place (distribution channels)	74
5.2.4 Promotion	75
5.2.5 People.....	77
5.2.6 Process	77
5.2.7 Physical Evidence	78
5.3 Cross cultural theory	79
5.3.1 Individualism vs. collectivism.....	83
5.3.2 Power distance	84
5.3.3 Uncertainty avoidance	85
5.3.4 Masculinity vs. Femininity	86
5.3.5 Long term orientation	86
6. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY.....	87
6.1 Research objectives.....	87
6.2 Research design.....	89
6.3 Research approach	89
6.4 Research setting	90
6.5 Target population	91
6.6 Data collection methods.....	91
6.6.1 Primary data.....	91
6.6.2 Questionnaire and interviews	92
6.6.3 Pre-testing	93
6.6.4 Response format	93
6.7 Secondary data	94
6.8 Sampling method and sample	94
6.9 Research procedure	96
6.10 Coding of responses	96
7. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	97
7.1 Analysis of data from respondents.....	97
7.1.1 Descriptive information.....	97
7.2 Objective 1	100
7.2.1 Behaviour of consumers in the Czech Republic.....	100
7.2.2 Behaviour of consumers in Ghana.....	101
7.3 Objective 2	104
7.3.1 Micro and small firms.....	104
7.3.2 Medium and large firms	108
7.4 Objective 3	116
7.5 Objective 4	120
7.6 Objective 5	123
7.7 Objective 6	134

7.8 Objective 7	136
7.9 Objective 8	140
7.10 Objective 9	143
7.11 Objective 10	149
8. RELEVANCE FOR SCIENCE AND PRACTICAL MANAGEMENT	153
8.1 Gains for scientific knowledge	153
8.2 Gains for practical and managerial knowledge.....	154
9. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	157
9.1 Summary of findings.....	157
9.2 Conclusions	160
9.3 Suggestions for future research.....	161
BIBLIOGRAPHY	163
LIST OF PUBLICATIONS.....	186
CURRICULUM VITAE	188
APPENDICES	190

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The internationalization, expansions and operations by fast food firms into different geographical areas has reiterated the problem associated with consumer behaviour. In the fast food industry, managers come into contact with different consumers from different places with varied taste, preferences and response to the variables of the firms branding decisions. The basic premise of this research is that, brands in the global environment constantly come into contact with various cultures. These cross-cultural variations tend to implicitly or explicitly affect the branding strategies that companies adopt. This research blends the cultural dimensions developed by Geert Hofstede and elaborated by Mariake de Mooij and the marketing mix theory. These concepts are used to explain how consumers behave towards fast food brands in the Czech Republic and Ghana.

The main objective of this research is to create a model for cross cultural branding strategy in the global fast food industry. Also, the research examines the branding strategies of firms in the fast food industry with reference to the dimensions of the marketing mix and the behaviour of consumers towards fast food in the Czech Republic and Ghana and the major marketing variables that determine their preferences for fast food brands. The sub-objectives are: (a) To analyse the cultural orientation (cultural dimensions) of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana with reference to the different age groups and sex. (b) To determine the extent of relationship between consumers (age and sex) in the Czech Republic and Ghana and their response to the marketing mix variables. (c) To examine the relationship between sex, age and income and the frequency of purchase of fast food among respondents in the Czech Republic and Ghana. (c) To determine the preference patterns of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana and perception of firms with respect to the standardization or customization of fast food product or services. (d) To examine the perception of consumer on the role of internet in the customization of fast food products and trends in the use of the internet in fast food operations. (e) To examine the preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms on the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes. (f) To analyse the market structure of the fast food industry and strategies for competitive advantage.

A total of 1253 respondents were selected from the Czech Republic and Ghana. There were 460 respondents from the Czech Republic and 793 respondents from Ghana. Out of a total of 793 respondents selected from Ghana, 421 were females and 372 were males, whereas 236 females and 224 males representing a total of 460 respondents were selected from the Czech Republic. The fast food firms were categorized into micro, small, medium-sized and large fast food firms. For each category, 2 fast food firms were allocated. Hence, 8 fast food firms were selected for each country.

The findings revealed that there are differences between the preferences and perceptions of consumers for fast food in the two countries. Attributes such as price, product quality, politeness of staff, promotion and cleanliness are considered

important in buying fast foods among consumers in both countries. There were also country specific preferences. Consumers in Ghana considered the sense of belongingness as relevant in their buying decisions whiles convenience, nutrition and desire for change was the main attribute Czech consumers found to be valuable in determining their decision to buy. There were also differences between the aspects of the demographic variables and the marketing mix variables, cultural dimensions, frequency of purchases and other attributes in the research questions among respondents on the two countries.

In this research, a comprehensive model for cross cultural brand management was developed for the global fast food industry. The model was based on the factors and variables that were found to be relevant in determining the competitiveness of firms and the behaviour of consumers. The model provides a practical approach for managers to manage their brands to ensure their competitiveness in the vibrant global fast food industry given the dynamics in the behaviour of consumers as determined by their cultural orientations.

The research found that, although medium-sized and large fast food firms possess adequate resources for effective branding strategy development and implementation, micro and small fast food firms possess some advantages that make them competitive if they are built upon. Micro and small fast food firms are better placed to satisfy low end consumers. The monopolistic market structure that characterized the fast food industry is an indication that there is room for profit for any firm irrespective of their size. Hence, management of fast food firms must assess where their strengths and weaknesses are in the market and exploit it fully to their advantage. In the monopolistic market, the building of strong brand is critical for the long term profitability, profitability and survival of the fast food firm.

The research concludes that, managers in the fast food industry need to have a global approach to marketing and business practices. In doing that, they must take notice of the local orientation of the countries they operate as determined by the consumer's socio-cultural values. Based on the differences in the frequency of fast food purchases by consumers of different age, sex and income level in both countries, the study recommends the use of market segmentation and target marketing for fast food firms. Furthermore, the competitive ability of fast food firms in the global marketplace is directly related to their ability to adequately understand the role individual preferences and the relevance of consumer cultural orientation play in their decision making process. Hence, the firm that wants to be successful in their branding strategies and marketing activities do not only have to concentrate on their internal business practices, but also, they must endeavour to understand and inculcate specific consumer preferences and the prevailing cultural orientations into their marketing and branding strategies. This should be done with cognisance of the trends and dynamics in technology and its role in production and service delivery.

ROZŠÍŘENÝ ABSTRAKT

Internacionalizace, expanze a působení firem rychlého občerstvení v různých zeměpisných oblastech zopakovala problémy spojené s chováním spotřebitelů. Základním předpokladem výzkumu této disertační práce je skutečnost, že v průmyslu rychlého občerstvení manažeři značek přicházejí v globálním podnikatelském prostředí do neustálého styku s různými zákazníky z různých zemí, kteří mají rozdílné chuti, rozdílné preference a rozdílné reakce na odlišnosti brandingovém rozhodování firem. Tyto rozdílnosti v kulturách mají tendenci implicitně nebo explicitně ovlivňovat brandingové strategie, které společnosti přijímají. Tento výzkum spojuje kulturní dimenze vytvořené Geertem Hofstedem a rozpracované Marieke de Mooijovou s teorií marketingového mixu. Tyto koncepty jsou využity pro vysvětlení, jaké je chování spotřebitelů vůči značkám rychlého občerstvení v České republice a Ghaně.

Hlavním cílem této disertační práce je vytvořit model strategie budování značky napříč rozdílnými kulturami v globálním průmyslu rychlého občerstvení. Dále je výzkum zaměřen na brandingové strategie firem v průmyslu rychlého občerstvení s ohledem na dimenze marketingového mixu a chování spotřebitelů vůči rychlému občerstvení v České republice a Ghaně a hlavním marketingovým proměnným, které určují preference spotřebitelů při výběru značek v průmyslu rychlého občerstvení. Vedle hlavního cíle byly stanoveny dílčí cíle: (a) analyzovat kulturní orientaci (kulturní dimenze) spotřebitelů v České republice a Ghaně s ohledem na různé věkové skupiny a pohlaví; (b) určit vztah mezi spotřebiteli (věk a pohlaví) v České republice a Ghaně a jejich reakce na proměnné marketingového mixu; (c) zkoumat vztah mezi pohlavími, věkovými skupinami, výší příjmu a četností nákupu rychlého občerstvení mezi respondenty v České republice a Ghaně; (d) stanovit vzorce preferencí spotřebitelů v České republice a Ghaně a představy firem s ohledem na tvorbu norem či přizpůsobení výrobků nebo služeb rychlého občerstvení; (e) provést výzkum, jak spotřebitelé vnímají roli internetu v kustomizaci produktů rychlého občerstvení a trendy využívání internetu v obsluze rychlého občerstvení; (f) provést výzkum vzorců preferencí spotřebitelů a představ firem o zařazení místních/tradičních složek výrobků a služeb rychlého občerstvení pro účely adaptace či tvorby norem; (g) analyzovat strukturu trhu průmyslu rychlého občerstvení a strategie pro dosažení konkurenční výhody.

V České republice a Ghaně bylo vybráno celkem 1253 respondentů, z toho 460 respondentů z České republiky a 793 respondentů z Ghany. Z celkového počtu 793 respondentů vybraných v Ghaně bylo 421 žen a 372 mužů, zatímco 236 žen a 224 mužů představovalo celkem 460 respondentů z České republiky. Podniky rychlého občerstvení byly rozděleny na mikropodniky, malé, střední a velké podniky. Každá kategorie byla zastoupena 2 podniky rychlého občerstvení; proto bylo vybráno 8 podniků rychlého občerstvení pro každou zemi.

Výsledky ukazují, že v obou zemích existují rozdíly mezi preferencemi a vnímáním spotřebitelů rychlého občerstvení. Atributy, jako jsou cena, kvalita výrobků, zdvořilost zaměstnanců, propagace a čistota, jsou spotřebiteli v obou

zemích při nákupu rychlého občerstvení považovány za důležité. V zemích se ale vyskytly specifické preference. Spotřebitelé v Ghaně považovali během rozhodování o koupi, za relevantní smysl pro vzájemnou sounáležitost, přičemž pro české spotřebitele bylo hlavním atributem pohodlí, výživa a touha po změně. U respondentů z obou zemí byly patrné také rozdíly mezi aspekty demografických proměnných a proměnných marketingového mixu, kulturní dimenze, četnosti nákupů rychlého občerstvení a další atributy obsažené ve výzkumných otázkách.

V rámci této disertační práce byl vytvořen komplexní cross-kulturní model pro management značky globálního průmyslu rychlého občerstvení. Tento model byl založen na faktorech a proměnných, jež byly shledány jako relevantní pro stanovení konkurenceschopnosti firem a chování spotřebitelů. Model poskytuje praktický návod pro manažery, jaký řídit své značky, aby v globálním prostředí průmyslu rychlého občerstvení, zajistili konkurenceschopnost značek, a to s ohledem na dynamiku chování spotřebitelů, která je dána jejich kulturní orientací.

Výzkum ukázal, že ačkoliv mají střední a velké podniky rychlého občerstvení dostatečné zdroje pro efektivní rozvoj a zavádění brandingových strategií, mikropodniky a malé podniky rychlého občerstvení disponují řadou výhod (např. flexibilní výrobní procesy a osobní kontakt se zákazníky), které je činí, pokud tyto výhody využívají, konkurenceschopnými. Mikro a malé podniky rychlého občerstvení jsou schopny lépe uspokojit potřeby nenáročných spotřebitelů. Monopolistická struktura trhu, která charakterizuje průmysl rychlého občerstvení, je známkou toho, že je zde prostor pro zisk pro všechny firmy bez ohledu na jejich velikost. Proto je důležité, aby vedení podniků rychlého občerstvení posoudilo své silné a slabé stránky na trhu a využilo je ve svůj prospěch. V rámci monopolistické struktury trhu je budování silné značky u podniků rychlého občerstvení rozhodující pro dlouhodobou výnosnost, konkurenceschopnost a jejich přežití.

Závěr výzkumu této disertační práce uvádí, že je nezbytné, aby měli manažeři v oblasti průmyslu rychlého občerstvení globální postoj k marketingovým a obchodním praktikám. Přitom firmy, podle toho kde působí, musí brát na vědomí lokální orientaci zemí, která je určována sociálně-kulturními hodnotami zákazníka. Na základě rozdílů v četnosti nákupů rychlého občerstvení ze strany spotřebitelů různého věku, pohlaví a úrovně příjmu v obou zemích, doporučuje studie podnikům rychlého občerstvení používat segmentace trhu a cílový marketing. Kromě toho konkurenceschopnost podniků rychlého občerstvení na globálním trhu, přímo souvisí s jejich schopností porozumět úloze individuálních preferencí a významu úlohy kulturní orientace spotřebitele v rozhodovacím procesu. Proto společnost, která chce být úspěšná v brandingových strategiích a marketingových aktivitách, by se neměla soustředit pouze na své interní činnosti, ale musí také chápat, a svým marketingovým a brandingovým aktivitám vštěpovat specifické kulturní proměnné. To by mělo být provedeno na základě znalosti trendů a dynamiky v oblasti technologie a její úlohy při produkci a dodávání služeb.

LIST OF FIGURES	PAGE
Figure 1: The brand equity pyramid.....	26
Figure 2: Cross Cultural Consumer Behaviour Framework.....	36
Figure 3: Empirical model of the link between standardization/adaptation of international marketing strategy and company performance.....	57
Figure 4: Comparison of Hofstede's cultural framework with other models	81
Figure 5: A conceptual framework of the interrelationship between culture and marketing mix and the age and sex of consumers.....	88
Figure 6: Sample from each country (in percentages).....	97
Figure 7: Sex of respondents.....	98
Figure 8: Age distribution of respondents.....	98
Figure 9: Income distribution of respondents (in Euros).....	99
Figure 10: The short-run position of the fast food firm.....	144
Figure 11: Shifts in AR and MR as a result of the new entrants.....	145
Figure 12: Normal profit position of the firm.....	145
Figure 13: The long-run position of the fast food firm.....	146
Figure 14: A proposed model for cross cultural branding strategy in the fast food industry.....	151

LIST OF TABLES	PAGE
Table 1: Projected urban population.....	49
Table 2: Projected urban population growth rate.....	50
Table 3: Internal and External factor group indicators.....	58
Table 4: Organizational and customers perspective of the marketing mix.....	72
Table 5: Headcount categorization of enterprises.....	96
Table 6: Research questions for assessing the cultural dimensions.....	116
Table 7: Summary of the significance level between sex and cultural dimension in the Czech Republic and Ghana.....	117
Table 8: Summary of the significance level between age and cultural dimension in the Czech Republic and Ghana.....	118
Table 9: Summary of the significance level between sex and the marketing mix in the Czech Republic and Ghana.....	121
Table 10: Summary of the significance level between age and the marketing mix in the Czech Republic and Ghana.....	122
Table 11: Sex and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Czech Republic)...	124
Table 12: Age and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Czech Republic)...	125
Table 13: Income distribution and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Czech Republic).....	127
Table 14: Sex and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Ghana).....	129
Table 15: Age and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Ghana).....	130
Table 16: Income and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Ghana).....	132
Table 17: Summary of statistical test (standardization or customization).....	134
Table 18: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in the Czech Republic (standardization or customization).....	134
Table 19: Summary of statistical test (standardization or customization).....	135
Table 20: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in Ghana (standardization or customization).....	135
Table 21: Summary of statistical test (role of internet)	137
Table 22: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in the Czech Republic (role of internet).....	137
Table 23: Summary of statistical test (role of internet)	138
Table 24: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in Ghana (role of internet).....	138
Table 25: Summary of statistical test (local/traditional ingredients)	140
Table 26: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in the Czech Republic (local/traditional ingredients).....	140
Table 27: Summary of statistical test (local/traditional ingredients)	141
Table 28: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in Ghana (local/traditional ingredients).....	142

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EIU	Economist Intelligence Unit
QSR	Quick Service Restaurants
FAFH	Food Away from Home
IT	Information Technology
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
PR	Public Relations
AMA	American Marketing Association
CIM	Chartered Institute of Marketing
ELM	Elaboration Likelihood Model
CBBE	Customer Based Brand Equity
R&I	Restaurant & Institutions
IDV/COL	Individualism/Collectivism
PDI	Power Distance Index
UAI	Uncertainty Avoidance Index
MAS/FEM	Masculinity/Femininity
LTO	Long-term Orientation
UACN	United African Company of Nigeria Plc
CIP	Consumer Intervention Point
KFC	Kentucky Fried Chicken
GHC	Ghana Cedi
EUR	EURO
CZK	Czech Koruna

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research background

In this current age of globalization where businesses are spreading across different countries, culture plays a significant role in the management and operations of enterprises. Among the diverse elements of culture, food is one of the most sensitive and the preferences and behaviour of consumers towards food consumption are widely visible across countries (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011a). Lately, fast food has become a global phenomenon and consumption of fast food forms part of the daily meals of inhabitants of many countries, irrespective of their level of development. This trend has shaped eating habits of consumers irrespective of their sex, age or economic background as many fast food enterprises of different sizes are seen in cities and towns all over the world. Consequently, the marketing practices of firms in the fast food industry have been influenced by consumer demographic characteristics and/or national cultures.

Consumers worldwide are not the same, and the difference in consumer behaviour between countries has intensified over the years. Because all features of consumer behaviour are culture-bound, and are not susceptible simply to factors in the environment but integrated in all the forms of human behaviour, there is an increased need to discover and understand this integration and its impact on brand management (De Mooij, 2010). The culture and behaviour of consumers explains the myths that surround branding activities in different countries, hence, it calls for not only the supplying of the same products and services in every market but also the implementation of different branding strategies based on the cultural orientation of consumers in the market of interest. Furthermore, the concept of culture in providing explanations for consumer behaviour also extends to the various psychological and sociological components of human behaviour (De Mooij, 2003). Research into different cultures provides empirical evidence of the convergence and divergence in the behaviour of consumer (De Mooij, 2003). Hence, the culture of consumers has tremendous impact on the marketing and branding strategies of enterprises operating in the fast food industry.

The basic premise of this research is that, brands in the global business landscape continually come into contact with consumers from various cultures. The variation in culture, as reflected in the behaviour of consumers often has an implicit or explicit effect on the branding strategies that are adopted by firms. Furthermore, because of the interaction between the elements of brand positioning and the various variables of culture, there is a need for a comprehensive brand management model with reference to the culture in which firms operate. If the branding strategy has to be in context and in tune with the culture, then there must be an interaction and adaptation of the brand positioning elements with the cultural variables and consumer values, characteristics, preferences and expectations.

According to De Mooij (2004), in order for marketing practitioners to understand the behaviour of consumers' in different countries, it is essential that they make a

comparison of the national cultures to determine how they are different from, or similar to, each other before they implement their marketing strategies. This is because cross-cultural phenomenon occurs as a result of the diverse cultural components that exist among consumers and it is a significant factor that influences buying behaviour in consumer markets. The cultural differences lead to the differences or similarities in the response of consumers, and these differences and similarities are reflected in terms of their age, sex and income level (Herrmann and Heitmann, 2006). In spite of how a firm sells products or offers its services in another country; the branding strategy will be influenced by the cultural setting of the country and/or region of interest. Accordingly, there are suggestions among practitioners that, managers of firms should adequately understand the differences in culture before deciding on the kind of products or service to put out in the market and the marketing activities and branding strategies that are developed to support such products and services (Herrmann and Heitmann, 2006).

Recently, there has been a number of studies into the comparison of cultures and cultural differences in different sectors and industries (Kim, Forsythe and Gu, 2002; Sokling, 2004). Some of these studies made comparisons between the differences in culture and its effect on the values, preferences, wants, needs and buying behaviour of consumers. Kim, et al. (2002), asserted that, the cultural values, needs and behaviour of consumers in different cultural environments tends to influence their decision to choose brands, which eventually determine their level of brand loyalty. The research by Kim, et al. (2002) did not investigate how a company should implement the branding strategy of a specific brand according to the cultural values and characteristics of consumers. Also, their study included two countries from the Asian region where the cultural contexts are similar in some extent. This research compares two countries that are different to a large extent in its geographical location, consumer characteristics and culture. Furthermore, although various researchers have developed models that defines and explains culture and marketing strategy, not many of these models focus on branding strategy implementation in specific industries in different cultural environments. Hence, this research explores the cultural influences on brand management and how firms can develop and implement their branding strategies in a multicultural environment, with emphasise on the fast food industry.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The significant role of culture in international marketing, paves way for managerial skills and competencies that transcends across countries. As firms explore more opportunities in different countries, more consumers from different countries are being integrated into the world markets; hence, it requires an understanding of culture as a multidimensional phenomenon that goes beyond just nationality (Srnka, 2004). In today's business world, the differences that exist between countries tend to influence the marketing practices of multinational enterprises. Also, the influence of culture on consumers makes them perceive

external stimulus from a different perspective. Hence, it has become necessary for enterprises to consider the impact of culture in the development of branding and marketing strategies to influence the consumption and purchasing habits of consumers.

In the past, some international marketing practitioners envisaged the convergence of different cultures into a “*one world culture*” that would aid in the global standardization of marketing activities (Levitt, 1983). However, this prediction has been an illusion due to the existence of many hard factors (such as age, sex and income level) and cultural soft factors (values, perceptions) that continue to be a hindrance on international marketing and are continuously dealt with, using various adaptation or localization strategies (Hermeking, 2005). According to De Mooij (2005) “*Markets are people, not products. There may be global products, but there are no global people.*” This assertion explains that it is impossible to develop the same strategies for different markets. Even in terms of standardization, there has been a shift although very gradual, from the regular standardization for specific countries and cultures to mass customization, where products are designed to meet the needs of consumers in the same country and culture.

In developing branding strategies, it must be emphasized that some factors impact on some elements of the brand more than others. Also, some categories of brands are more susceptible to particular factors than others. However, the effect may vary in accordance with the consumer segments, markets and culture. The dilemma that managers of brands face is how they can effectively unravel the various elements of factors and convert such knowledge into policies or strategies that will fully enhance the viability of their brand in a particular market as well as across multiple markets simultaneously. Such an initiative requires the development of a common model that takes into consideration the salient factors (internal and external of the firm) that affects the brand efficacy and can be manipulated by the firm across markets in order to maximize the potential of the brand.

Past research indicates that, there is a strong influence by culture on the perceptions, actions and values of the consumers (Chaplin and John, 2005; Escalas and Bettman, 2005; Muñiz and O’Guinn, 2001; Chow, Deng and Ho, 2000). Some other research also indicates that, culture can influence marketing and advertising strategies of the firm and consumer buying habits (Simester, Hauser, Wernerfelt and Rust, 2000; Green, 1999; Grier and Brumbaugh, 1999). Specifically, the values of culture affect decisions with regards to product development, pricing, distributions and communications (Lam and Lee, 2005).

In the fast food industry, marketing managers come into contact with different consumers from different places with varied taste, preferences and response to the variables of the firms branding decisions. Consequently, marketers are constantly involved in taking decisions on either to standardize or adapt their branding strategies. The aggregate of consumer’s response to branding decisions of firms can be very similar or it may differ from consumer to consumer in the same country depending on the extent of influence of culture. Some countries can also be very

similar or different in other cultural dimensions or consumers indicators from that of the home country of the firm.

Various studies have found strong differences in the behaviour of consumers with respect to their ages, sex and income levels. For instance, Asamoah (2010); Chovancová, Asamoah, De Alwis, Samarakoon and Guo (2010) found that loyalty to brands and the evaluation of brands is influenced strongly by the ages and sex of consumers. Also, Asamoah, Chovancová, De Alwis, Samarakoon and Guo (2011) found strong differences between motivation to buy branded items and sex and age of consumers. Furthermore, risk aversion and social demonstrance varied significantly among consumers of different ages and sex in different cultural orientations in Africa, Europe and Asia (Asamoah, et al., 2011). In spite of the fact that consumers patronize similar products and services, their motivation for buying vary largely depending on the extent of influence and differences in personalities as determined by a person's cultural orientation as well as their age, sex and income level (Chovancová, et al, 2010).

Therefore, a comparative study into the role of culture in the global fast food industry as well as the behaviour of consumers is relevant. As already indicated, the fast food industry is used because, among the various elements of culture, food is the most sensitive. Moreover, the popularity and consumption of fast food among people in countries all over the world and its global phenomenon justifies the use of the fast food industry. This dissertation provides a comprehensive study into the behaviour consumer and the branding strategies of firms in the fast food industry using the Czech Republic and Ghana as a comparative case study. Further, it explores how culture influences consumer behaviour and how firms can develop branding strategies and adequately manage them to increase their competitiveness in the global marketplace.

1.3 Delimitations

This research examines fast food enterprises operating in the Czech Republic and Ghana. Therefore, the selection of firms delimits this research to only investigating enterprises in the respective countries. It does not distinguish between their origin. Once the fast food firm is found in the jurisdiction of the country, it is qualified to be included in the research. Also, because the research specifies the countries involved, only the citizens in the respective countries are selected. This research therefore excludes foreign nationals residing in the respective countries. This ensures the assessment of consumer behaviour and the cultural dimensions of the countries from the point of view of citizens. It further adds to the validity, reliability and generalisability of the results and conclusions to the rest of the population.

1.4 Fast food and the fast food industry

The term "*Fast food*" was known to have been used for the first time in a dictionary by Merriam–Webster dictionary in 1951 (Merriam–Webster, 2011). Merriam–Webster (2011) defines fast food as "*a term given to food that can be*

prepared and served very quickly.” In as much as any meal with low preparation time can be regarded as fast food, the term usually refers to food items that are sold in outlets with low preparation time and also offered to customers in a packaged form for take-out or take-away. *Fast foods are mostly designed for ready availability, use, or consumption and with little consideration given to quality or significance* (Merriam - Webster (2011)). Fast food differs from convenient ready-to-eat-on-the-go confectionary or bakery items like cakes, biscuits or bread; and snack items such as candies, peas or fruits. Lately, fast food outlets are known as Quick Service Restaurants (QSR’s) perhaps to avoid the greasy, unhealthy, cheap stigma that is associated with the “*fast food*” label. Also, they are often known as “*Food Away from Home*” (FAFH) (Islam, Ullah and Abu Nasim, 2010).

According to Park (2004), fast food is an “*inexpensive food prepared and served quickly*”. The food provided by fast food firms is convenient, quick, and usually reasonably priced. Park (2004) further explains that, fast food differs from other kind of food outside the home in the sense that it is fast and easy to prepare, providing a common and consistent product and with less cooking time. The products and services provided by fast food firms are sometimes standardized or customized. There is also the option of “*self-service*” where consumers are able to choose the contents of the products at the premises of the fast food outlet. In some developed countries, as part of the marketing strategies of firms and their quest for quicker delivery of service, they have capitalized on the advances in Information Technology (IT), to enable consumers chose the contents of their food orders online and have it delivered to them at home or they get to pick it up on the premises of the outlet. This tends to complement the regularly brick and mortar service delivery.

Furthermore, Bender and Bender (1993) defined fast food as a ‘*general term used for a limited menu of foods that lend themselves to production-line techniques; suppliers tend to specialize in products such as hamburgers, pizzas, chicken, or sandwiches.*’” According to Jekanowski, Binkley and Eales (2001) ‘*A major distinguishing factor of fast food from other types of food away from home is that, it is indeed a fast-near immediate service, which provides a consistent and popular product*’. Usually, due to the standardization of menu and consistency in quality, just a minimal time is needed to obtain information about food items (Jekanowski, Binkley and Eales, 2001). Hence, consumers are able to eat and at the same time engage themselves in some activities like shopping, work or travelling (Jekanowski, Binkley and Eales, 1997).

There are other characteristics that describe the fast food industry in whole or partially. The fast food industry is made up of enterprises that sell meals that are ready to eat immediately. The food items are usually packaged in takeaway containers. Often there are no table services involved (that is to say that, the food may be eaten on the premises but there are no waiters or waitresses (Emerson, 1990; Park, 2004). Today, fast food enterprises come in the form of either kiosks or large elaborate quick service outlets. It is common to see small fast food outlets on stands or kiosks, which may not provide shelter or seating (a characteristic of QSR’s).

However, large fast food franchises do have seating area to accommodate customers who may want to eat their food on the premises.

The food that are provided by fast food enterprises are highly processed and are usually prepared in an industrial manner. Generally, the food is prepared with standardized ingredients and the standardized method of cooking and production are used. The final products are usually delivered in cartons or bags and without cutlery, in a speedy manner so as to minimize cost. Due to the convenience of products from fast food firms, the industry is very popular and commercially successful in many modern societies. Some fast food outlets provide “*drive-through*” service which allows customers to make their orders and pick them up without coming out of their vehicles. The nature of fast food products are such that they are eaten “*on the go.*”

Popular global fast food franchises provide high volume products and services at relatively low cost/price and high speed. Therefore, the defining characteristics of fast food outlets are described in four major elements, namely the cost, convenience, price and speed with which the food is prepared and served. Usually, in order to provide quick service delivery, fast food meals are prepared before the customer comes into the outlet. However, at many outlets and drive-ins, it is possible for customers to see the food been prepared or the final product been packaged before it is delivered. This is usually done to confirm the firms advertising message that flaunt their hygienic standards. Although there are thousands of enterprises of various sizes and forms in the fast food industry across the globe, McDonald’s, Wendy’s, Arby’s, Subway, KFC and Burger King are some of the leading global brands.

2. CROSS CULTURAL BRAND MANAGEMENT

2.1 Culture and its relevance in the management of brands

Globalization brings to businesses a lot of opportunities for the creation of multinational companies that transcends across different nations. These opportunities do not come without challenges. The challenges that cultural differences bring are quite enormous and managers find it difficult to grapple with them. According to the Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) (2008), the effective management of brands across multiple markets or cultures continue to be a significant challenge for firms that enter new markets. In the survey by the Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU), more than half of 145 senior executives from around the world indicated that, it is increasingly becoming difficult to maintain the consistency of brands. It was revealed from the study that, the major challenge in managing brands are cultural barriers (64%) and language and translation issues (44%). However, over 66% of the respondents were of the view that an essential component for the success of a brand is the ability of the firm to localize its marketing and branding efforts. In addition, it was revealed that translation and adaptation to culture had a positive effect on sales.

According to Doole and Lowe (2008), “*culture is defined as the sum total of learned beliefs, values and customs that serve to direct consumer behaviour in a particular country market*”. Culture is made up of beliefs, values and customs that are usually embedded in a society and have noticeable differences among countries (Doole and Lowe, 2008). Furthermore, Hofstede (1991) provides a very common set of models for international cultures. According to Hofstede (1991) “*culture is the collective programming of the human mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from those of another.*” Hofstede (1984) also indicated that ‘*culture in this sense is a system of collectively held values.*’ An individual’s cultural orientation makes them either to be similar to some people or differ to the vast majority. Culture enables us to describe the things that are common to people within a group. This means that culture provides the framework for differentiating between in-group and out-group.

Also, the concept of culture could be seen from two perspectives. Firstly, culture can be seen as a system of shared meaning and it has to do with groups with shared identity. The basic essence of a group is to be able to communicate at the superficial level (with ordinary language) and at a deeper level of meaning. The deeper level of meaning in communication has to do with the use of words, actions and things that has special and specific meaning for the group. Secondly, culture can be seen as behavioural rules that underline the individual’s day to day activities. Hence, culture is a way of living which members of a group have developed over a period of time and passed on from one generation to another.

The frame of reference of culture can be analyzed from a country, religion, value, ethical, language and/or many other areas of study. Also, culture has to do with ideas, beliefs, rituals, skills, arts, ceremonies codes, institutions, tools, techniques,

customs, taboos and works of art and symbols, the ways of relating to the world, habits of thinking and behaving among others. That is to say that, every society has its own way of life and thinking process exclusive to only those who belong to it. Culture plays a vital role in the evolution of human beings and it makes it possible for them to adapt to the environment and to their own principles rather than to be dependent only on natural selection to achieve adaptive success. In general terms, culture can be seen as consisting of three main elements:

- Values – these are the ideas that inform individuals in the society about what in life is considered important.
- Norms – refers to the behaviours that are expected from people in different situations.
- Artifacts – these are the things or material culture, and they portray the culture's values and norms. However, they are tangible and manufactured by humans.

A combination of these elements provides a picture of the behaviour and attitude expected of members of a society. Asamoah, et al. (2011) explain that “*the cultural orientation of an individual has an impact on what products and services they will buy, how much money they are prepared to spend on a product or service and how they respond to advertisement.*” For a business enterprise, an understanding of the elements of culture will enable them to choose the elements of their brand, such as logo, name, slogan etc, and effectively communicate the brand to consumers.

The socialization process in the society makes it possible for a person to learn about the rudiments of the culture they find themselves. That is to say that, culture can be learnt by growing up in a society and can also be taught or imitated. The instruction of culture can come from the various agents of socialization. For instance, a person can learn not only from parents, but also by imitating peers in schools and persons in the media and social environment. Culture is evident in aspects of society such as politics, everyday food eating habits, language and religion, and these indicators varies considerable across countries. From this, it can be seen that the understanding of different cultures is important in international branding and marketing.

Cross-cultural skills are a key decisive factor for success in brand management in the global business environment. As a result of the increased uncertainties in the global business arena and the intensity of the competition in the marketplace, it is clear that firms have to do a lot to improve their business models in order to attract, satisfy, and form a formidable and sustainable relationship with customers. Consequently, marketers in the international business environment must understand the cultural variables of the countries they intend to enter as this will help them to predict and anticipate the behavioural patterns when interacting cross-culturally (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b). Furthermore, the cultural variables enable firms to develop brands that are of relevance to the consumers' motives for buying products and services and their cultural orientations.

Sociologists who study cultures explain that, individual behaviour is dictated by the culture into which they are born or within which they grow up. The differences in culture are significant in consumer behaviour; hence, it is an obvious hazard for firms operating or intending to expand into markets with a culture that is significantly different from their home country. Besides, the proneness of consumers to buying and sticking with specific products and brand is largely influenced by their cultural values. Regarding the publicity and promoting of the brands of a company, the understanding of cultures aids multinational companies in the development of the necessary communication mix for promoting their brands in diverse cultural groupings across the globe (Al-Wequain, 1998). Furthermore, it offers a wide range of communication and collaborative technologies that enables firms to manage their brand experience in several cultural channels and geographical areas (Al-Wequain, 1998).

There are two main processes that influence individual responses and interpretation of stimuli. They are mental and social processes. The mental processes determine how individuals behave. Mental processes are mostly internal and it borders on the way people think, learn, perceive, categorise and process information from the external environment. On the other hand, social processes relates with the way individuals relate with others, including their motivation and emotions. The two processes tend to affect interpersonal and mass communication, which also affects the style and appeal of marketing communication. In researching into how marketing communication and branding strategies work across cultures, all the various elements must be taken into consideration. Cultural models aids in the analysis of culture's consequences for the self and personality as well as the mental and social processes, and how they influence the global communication strategy of multinational companies. The models on culture tend to classify patterns of fundamental problems that have implications for the functioning of individuals and groups (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2011). There are two main ways in which culture affects brands. They are:

- The unexpected meanings and interpretation of brands in many cultural contexts. This is due to factors such as the aesthetics of the brand, historical, social, political and local realities.
- The psychological patterns of consumers are not the same in different cultures; hence, standard branding models are not applicable in some markets.

2.2 The concept of branding in perspective

The concept of branding is a vital aspect of the marketing strategy of most firms. Brands, especially those that are strong aid in the establishment of a firm's identity in the market place, and it eventually leads to the development of a solid customer franchise (Aaker, 1996; Keller and Aaker, 1998). The increasingly trend of most fast food firms to go global has resulted in the need to brand products and services to make them different from that of other firms. Kotler and Pfoertsch (2007) assert that, brands are gradually becoming more essential for firms in all industries because

customers constantly come into contact with different suppliers. This assertion emphasizes the need for local and international fast food firms' enterprises to brand their products.

Czinkota and Ronkainen (2004) emphasize the significance of a brand by suggesting that they "*shape customers decisions and ultimately, create economic value.*" Branding is definitely not everything which underlines a successful business, that is to say that, branding is not all that marketing is about; the reality is that, it is just an aspect of marketing. However, for a business, the role that branding performs cannot be ignored throughout the existence of a company. Therefore, when the firms gets the branding strategies right, it is likely that all the other components of the marketing mix will work appropriately to the firms advantage. As indicated by Aaker (1996), "*A brand is a distinguishing name and/or symbol (such as logo, trademark, or package design) intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods or services from those of competitors. A brand thus signals to the customer the source of the product, and protects both the customer and the producer.*"

The American Marketing Association (AMA) define a brand as a "*name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competition.*" Technically, anytime marketers create a new name, logo, or symbol for a new product or service, they have created a brand. Over a period of time, that brand image is associated with a level of credibility, quality, and satisfaction in the minds of consumer's in the target market. Consequently, Hollenson (2007) indicates that, the basic purpose of a brand is universal and therefore transcends internationally. The purposes are:

- To distinguish a company's offering and differentiate one particular product from its competitors.
- To help with the promotion of the product.
- To guarantee a certain level of quality and satisfaction.
- To create identification and brand awareness.

Furthermore, Hollenson (2007) states that these purposes functions to create new sales opportunities and thus command a higher market share. It also contributes to the creation of consumer loyalty by creating demand through repetitive sales. In the view of Yu and Boggs (2006) the meaning of the concept of branding is more than just putting a name on a product. They explain that brands are as a result of marketing segmentation and product differentiation. As explained by Bradley (2002), a brand:

- Offers consumer a reference point, during the process of purchasing and afterwards.
- Is a product or services that gives functional benefits and added values that some consumers value sufficiently to buy.
- The value arises from the consumer experiences that are gained from using them, thus, familiarity, reliability and risk reduction.

- Provides information as a sophisticated form of value added. This value added provision varies from market to market and from time to time
- That is successful results from the balance between functional benefits and discriminating benefits.

The brand is a symbolic personification of the relevant information that is connected to the firm's product or service. In most cases, the brand is made up of an explicit logo, fonts, colour schemes, symbols and sound which are further expanded to signify implicit values, ideas, and even personality. The main objective of branding is to create a relationship of trust between the brand and the customers. The recognition of a brand as well as the reactions from consumers is formed by the accumulation of consumer experiences with the product or service. Consumer experiences may be as a result of the actual use of the product or service or it may be from the influence of advertising and other elements of the communication mix.

The purpose of creating a brand is not to satisfy the needs of a customer, but also, it is meant to achieve the goals and objectives of an enterprise. Researchers and practitioners in marketing focus their attention on the creation of brand portfolio for segments of the market as a basis for successful strategic management. Sherry (1998) emphasized that "*when several companies market a similar product, it is important that the brand name be clearly visible on the packaging and easily recognizable.*" When competition is intense, enterprises tend to invest a lot of money and effort into making their brand name into a household name.

Due to the intensity of global brand competition and consumer expectations of brands, various researches on brand equity have developed different kinds of brand equity dimension. In the Customer Based Brand Equity (CBBE) model, brand equity is seen from the point of view of consumers. The focus of the CBBE model is the development and management of the brand in such way as to create customer capital in the long term. This is based on the assumption that, brand management decision in the global market must be customer oriented. The CBBE model is the most comprehensive denominator for brand equity analysis. The model explains that, brand development and extensions is largely dependent on customers. Therefore, the resources allocated to the brand development process will be more efficient if customers are prominent in the process.

According to Aaker (1996), the CBBE is "*a set of assets (liabilities) linked to a brand's name and symbol that adds to (or subtracts from) the value provided by a product/service to the customer*". The relevance of the CBBE model lies in the fact that, it focuses on how consumers perceive brand equity. Consumers tend to perceive brand equity as the "*value added*" to the product. Hence, they associate that value with the brand name. Although the "*value added*" is a function of multiple facets, the "*core*" facets are the primary predictors of the willingness or intension of the consumer to purchase the brand and the eventually behaviour that goes with it. From the point of view of Keller (2001), the CBBE is "*the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand*". Also, Keller (2001) indicates that, the CBBE occurs "*when the consumer is familiar*

with the brand and holds some favourable, strong, and unique brand associations in memory” (Keller, 2001). Figure 1 provides details of the brand equity pyramid, relevant questions at each stage of the brand equity development process and the branding objectives at each stage.

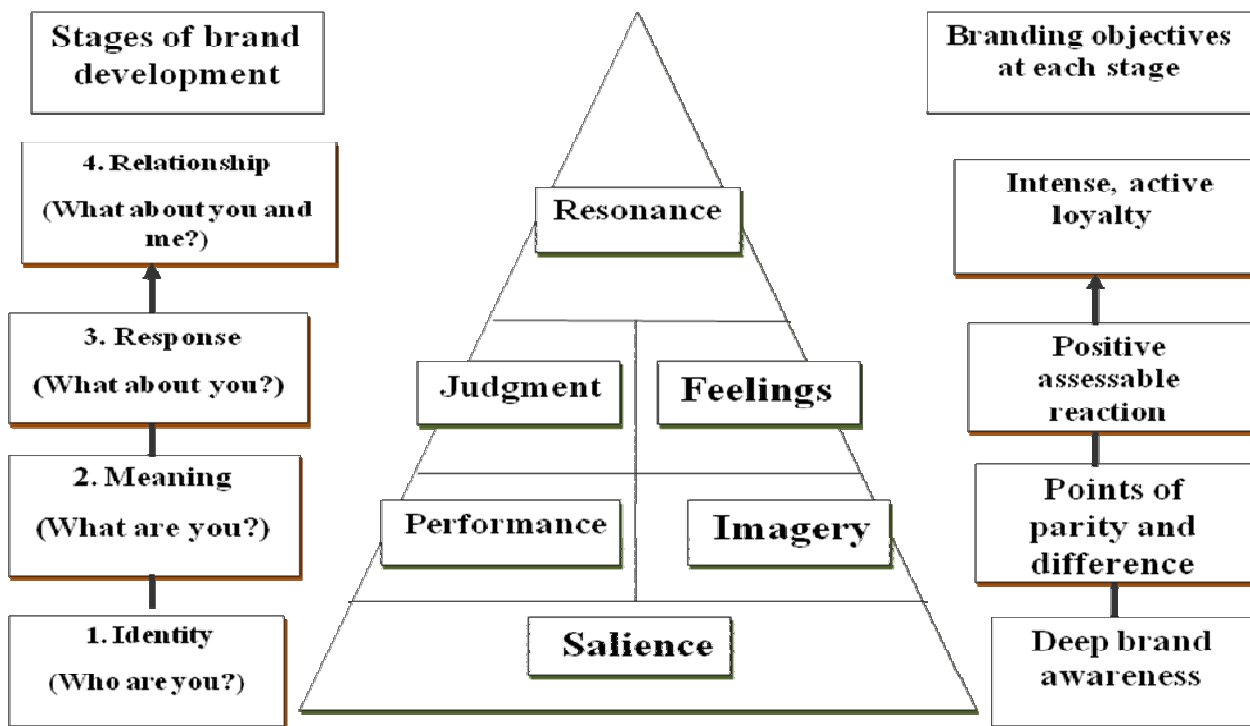


Figure 1: The brand equity pyramid
 Source: Keller (2001)

In global marketing, in order for a brand to be strong, it must exhibit certain functional and emotional associations as well as richness with the customers in the market. That is to say that, the brand must have different associations at every level of contact with consumers from salience to resonance. In general, when there are multiple brand elements, then the image is strengthened. In the international fast food industry, an adequate understanding of the brand equity elements of the firm and that of its competitors is necessary for building an effective brand, managing as well as evaluation of the performance of the brand. The brand equity pyramid is significant because it contributes to the competitiveness of the firm by making the consumer the focal point of branding activities. It takes into account, the identity, meaning, response and relationship of the brand with consumers. This is critical because, all the aspects of the brand equity generally involve uncertainties which are often difficult to predict and quantify.

However, there are some obvious indicators (specifically cultural dynamics) of the target market which makes it possible for the firm to have a fair idea of the important elements for building brand equity. The essence of cross cultural brand management is to build a formidable brand equity that resonates with consumers in

different international markets. Firstly, having a strong brand equity provides leverage for the firm to launch new products and also for franchising and licensing purposes. This is especially relevant for large global fast food chains which operate on the franchise principles. Strong brand equity provides a platform for strategic brand extension in the global business environment. Secondly, strong brand equity insulates firms and makes them resilient to market crisis and changes in consumer tastes. Therefore, building formidable brand equity provides the firm with the ability to survive turbulent times, especially in this era of global business which is characterized by uncertainties. Thirdly, a strong brand ensures that the product and services of the firm is resistance to attacks from competitors if not repel competitors altogether.

2.3 Relevance of brand and branding strategy in consumer markets

When brands are created, they must be managed on a consistent basis throughout their existence in order for the firm to gain optimum benefits. Ryder (2003) defines brands management as *“the application of marketing techniques to a specific product, product line or brand. It seeks to increase the product's perceived value to the customer and thereby increase brand franchise and brand equity.”* The essence of brand management is to develop a comprehensive brand strategy that will ensure that the products and services that comes with the brand name are competitive enough to gain and attract consumers as well as increase the market share of an enterprise. Although branding strategy is very essential for the competitiveness of a firm, it is also one of the most fraught areas of marketing. The key point is that, it is not possible to have a branding strategy without a clear objective.

A brand cannot function without a strategy and the function of brand management is to implement the brand strategy (Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM), 2003). Mayers (2003) explain that, *“the brand strategy includes brand image, brand identity, brand promise, employer brand, brand equity, brand naming, brand vision, brand mission, brand value, brand attribute, brand personality, brand relationship, brand living and brand experiences.”* According to Arnold (1992), *“branding strategy is the process whereby the offer is positioned in the consumer's mind to produce a perception of advantage.”* The consumers who make up the market are the judge of this advantage. Arnold (1992) further states that, the objective of strategy is a sustainable competitive advantage, which may come from any part of the organization's operation. In the view of Keller (2001), brand strategy *“is a product, but one that adds other dimensions that differentiate it in some ways from other products designed to satisfy the same need.”* There are two aspects of a brand. They are the tangible brand part which is what can be seen, touched, smell, taste and intangible part which is what can be felt.

Because fast food firms strive to create value, the strategies they develop and implement should be oriented towards the creation of a positive image of their brand in the minds of consumers and make the brand attractive to potential buyers. Hence, all the activities that the firm engages in must be aligned with this orientation. The

development of a brand strategy could be a difficult step in the marketing planning process. However, it is often the biggest challenge to most businesses, although it is a critical step in creating the identity of the firm. Throughout the existence of a firm, the brand identity will be communicated repeatedly in several ways with frequency and consistency. It is therefore essential for the firm to develop a comprehensive branding strategy that will ensure that the brand identity is communicated effectively. When the brand strategy is effective, it creates a unique identity that will differentiate an enterprise from the competition in the market (Aaker, 1996).

Brands that are strong authenticate the source of the products and services they represent. The brand also serves as a promise of the value of goods that are sold by the firm. When consumers buy branded items, there is a promise of value by the firm to them. The promise is manifested in the purchase decision process, in that, the risk-to-reward ratio of buying a product with a strong brand is higher compared to that of buying a similar product that is not branded. A brand name that has existed over a period of time is seen as reputable in the minds of consumers. Generally, products of such brands attract customers and develop consumer loyalty. This is because; consumers tend to buy the brand named product mainly because they trust the firm. According to Erdem, Swait and Valenzuela (2006), branding offers consumers an important signal of quality that reduces the perceived risk. Due to the difficulty in assessing product attributes and quality with experience and credence goods, buyers may perceive high risks in product decisions. An important avenue for consumers to handle these risks is by buying brands that are well-known, particularly those with which consumers have had positive past experiences (Aaker, 1991; Levy, 1959; Mitchell and McGoldrick, 1996). Findings from gender-related research by Byrnes, Miller and Schafer (1999) reveals that, women are more risk averse than men. Past studies on consumer behaviour indicates that risk aversion increases with age (Mittal and Kamakura, 2001).

According to Chovancová, et al. (2010), brands serve as a source of guarantee of trust in the expected performance of the product and provide continuity in the predictability of the benefits of the product. This is because they raise mean perceptions about quality and lower their variance. It follows that, brands perform a risk reduction function and it is expected that risk reduction is an important determinant of consumer decision making (Chovancová, et al., 2010). When customers buy branded items, they are convinced that the quality of the product is good, and they will not have problems receiving refund or replacement if for some reason the product is damaged or otherwise unacceptable. This generates consumer preference and loyalty for the brand. The benefits that accrue to the firm from building customer loyalty include lower vulnerability, higher profit levels, and larger market share.

Furthermore, as indicated by Levy (1959), brand serves as a symbolic tool that makes consumers project their self-image to their peers. In consumer markets, brands serves as an expression of intrinsic values (self-expression) or extrinsic values (prestige) to buyers. However, the level of expression is largely dependent on

how involved the individual is, in communicating with themselves or with their social environment (Grubb and Grathwohl, 1967). Also, the self of an individual develops within a multifaceted process of social interaction (Grubb and Grathwohl, 1967). The theories of self-congruity by Sirgy (1982) and self-enhancement by Shrauger (1975) provides explanations as to why buyers look out for the symbolic benefits of brands. For instance, Shrauger (1975) explains that, by purchasing products of specific brands, buyers preserve and augment their self-concept. Bradford (2008) explains that, in markets where the buyer puts in his or her ego in purchasing a particular brand, the brand meaning can be priceless.

Studies have shown that, when people buy brands, they do so because they want to communicate to others the kind of person they are or they would like to be (Belk, 1988). It follows that, buyer's use brand as a symbol of their status and as a means of signalling their membership of certain kinds of groups. The visibility the brand commands in the product category makes it the most preferred symbol for expressing one's social status. Furthermore, young people focus on the development of their professional and "*social*" careers. They are likely to be interested in portraying their progress in life and personal achievements (Chovancová, et. al, 2010). Therefore, they are likely to value the social effect of brands higher than older consumers. Also, the value of brands as a signal to other consumers may be high for both male and female consumers.

Consequently, it is very essential for fast food firms to manage their brand in local and global market to perceive the changes in consumer behaviour and their motivation to accept global brands. An understanding of this fact is necessary because it helps the fast food firm in their attempt to change customer preferences in favour of their brands. Global fast food brands do not only compete among themselves, but also they compete with regional and local brands. Fast food enterprises that operate on the national or local level and does not belong to the group of global brands endeavour to strengthen their presence by developing their branding strategy using advantages in the local markets and abilities to satisfy the taste and preferences of customers. However, fast food enterprises, whether local or global equally face several challenges and threats because the behaviour of consumers change continuously.

Many companies build their brand through the product they offer to the market. Products that succeed in the market are created through the blending of multiple features. These features are positioned and distinguished by way of some special offering and then it is eventually established as a brand. When a customer is loyal to particular brand, it implies that, the product has fulfilled the expectations and requirements of the customer. Satisfying a customer translates the brand into a pivotal product to give the organization a competitive advantage in the market or industry it operates (Chovancová, et al., 2010). However, it must be noted that consumers who are loyal to a brand have the power to make or break the image of that brand by word of mouth communication. Such consumers could break the brand when they lose confidence in the product quality.

3. CROSS CULTURAL CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

3.1 Culture and consumer behaviour

Consumer behaviour refers to the processes that people engage in when they want to select, purchase, use, or dispose products or services, ideas or experiences in order to satisfy their needs and desires (Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard and Hogg, 2006). Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) define consumer behaviour as “*the behaviour that consumers display in searching for purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of products, services and ideas.*” Further, Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) explain that consumer behaviour studies how people decide on how to spend their available resources, thus, money, time, effort on consumption-related items.

Consumers are dynamic in their taste and preferences of food, hence, fast food firms must strive to understand the behaviour of consumers so as to develop strategies to effectively respond to them. There are a number of factors; both internal and external, that influence consumer behaviour. These factors span from short to long-term emotional concerns (Hirschman, 1985; Hoch and Loewenstein, 1991). In order for firms to analyze the impact or performance of a given product in a specific market, they must understand the process involved in reaching a purchase decision by consumers. In the fast food industry, such an understanding is relevant because the behaviour of consumers tends to affect the cost, profit and revenue of the firm. When marketers understand the decision making process and the attributes that dominate the buying behaviour of consumers, they can effectively develop strategies that will predict the trends in consumer buying behaviour in the marketplace.

Consumer behaviour is defined as “*a complex process involving the activities people engage in when seeking for, choosing, buying, using, evaluating and disposing of products and services with the goal of satisfying needs, wants and desires*” (Belch and Belch, 2004). Kotler and Armstrong (2010) points out that, the forces that influence consumer purchases are:

- Cultural: This is made up of the perceptions, values, wants and behaviours that the individual learns by being a member of a society.
- Social: The influences of social factors like the relationship of the consumer to small reference groups, family and social roles.
- Individual: The attributes of the individual like their sex, age, income level and occupation.
- Psychological: The consumers’ perception, motivation and beliefs and attitudes.

Over the years, the influence of culture on consumers has been intense and it has permeated through the fields of marketing. Researchers in the past have studied the impact of culture on different aspects of consumer behaviour. The interest has bordered around the persuasiveness of advertising appeals, the attractiveness of product options and the evaluation of brand extensions (Han and Shavitt, 1994; Briley, Morris and Simonson, 2000; Aaker and Lee, 2001). According to Foscht,

Maloles, Swoboda, Morschett and Sinha (2008), consumers across cultures tend to associate different brand personalities to one and the same brand. Therefore, some global brands have been marketed with a constant brand identity, although buyers associate different personalities to the brand (Foscht, et al., 2008). A cross-cultural brand value study by De Mooij (2010) revealed that, an attribute of a brand such as *'friendly'* is usually associated with strong global brands in cultures with low power distance and high uncertainty avoidance. On the other hand, the *'Prestigious'* attribute tends to be associated with global brands in high power distance cultures, while *'trustworthy'* is often associated with strong brands in high uncertainty avoidance cultures. In cultures that demonstrate low power distance and low uncertainty avoidance, people associated *'innovative'* and *'different'* to these brands (De Mooij, 2010).

Furthermore, the concepts of self, personality, identity and image developed by Mariake de Mooij, that have emanated from the worldview of individualism by Geert Hofstede are been applied in consumer behaviour studies and the development of branding strategy. The availability of knowledge from cross-cultural psychology has helped in the understanding of the basic differences that exist between the concepts of self and personality in different cultures. The concept of self and personality are explained as follows.

3.1.1 The concept of self

Taylor (2007) views cultural values as an integral aspect of the self of the consumer and not as a factor in the environmental. Hence, in order for a firm to develop an effective branding strategy, the consumer must be central. Cultural values tend to define the self and personality of consumers. In the individualistic world, the concepts of self and personality of a person, is made up of an autonomous entity which possesses a distinct set of attributes, qualities or processes. The composition of these internal attributes or processes causes behaviour (Taylor, 2007). The attributes and processes of an individual should be consistently expressed in behaviour in different situations. This is because; a behaviour that changes with a given situation is hypocritical or pathological. In collectivistic cultures, the self cannot be disconnected from others and the society. In collectivist societies, the self is an interdependent entity that forms part of an encompassing social relationship.

Moreover, the behaviour of an individual varies from one situation to another and from time to time (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). Tardiff, Fletcher, Liang, Zhang, Kaciroti and Marchman (2008) mentioned that, in China, the first words of a little child are people-related, while a child in the United States start to talk about objects. The state of feeling good is associated with interpersonal situations such as feeling friendly in collective societies like Japan, unlike the United States where it is associated with interpersonal distance, such as feeling superior or proud. In Greece good feelings are negatively associated with a sense of independence, while

feelings of happiness are positively related to a sense of independence in the United Kingdom (Nezlek, Kafetsios and Smith, 2008).

In individualistic cultures, young people develop identities that make them function independently in different social groups aside their family. The inability to do so can result in an identity crisis. On the other hand, the development of young people in collectivist societies are based on the encouragement of dependency needs in complex familial hierarchical relationships, and the ideal situation in the group is dependent on trying to be like others, rather than being different (Triandis, 1995). There are relations of masculinity and femininity to variation of the self-concept. In feminine cultures, modesty and relations are vital characteristics, whereas in masculine cultures the enhancement of the self leads to self-esteem. The relationship orientations, such as family values, are not just specific to collectivistic cultures but also, they are visible in cultures that are individualistic and are also feminine.

3.1.2 Personality

According to De Mooij and Hofstede (2011) “*personality refers to the unique and cross-situationally consistent and is usually described in terms of traits such as autonomy or sociability.*” The ideal characteristic of people in collectivistic cultures tends to vary by their role in society, and their behaviour is influenced by contextual factors. Norenzayan, Choi and Nisbett (2002) explains that easterners affirm the continuous shaping of personality traits by situational influences, whereas those from the west form the habit of describing themselves and others in terms of abstract characteristics. The practice where consumers attach personalities to brands is peculiar to individualistic cultures. There are studies that have found brand personality factors that are culture specific (Aaker, Benet-Martínez, Garolera, 2001). It is observed that, in the international business environment, there are firms that strive to be consistent in their brand messages to their target market; however, consumers tend to attribute personalities to such brands in a way that fit their own cultural values, and not the values of the producer of the brand.

3.2 Cultural influences on consumer behaviour

The desire to be consistent forms the basis for the preference for the strategy of standardisation rather than adaptation by many global fast food firms (Duncan and Ramaprasad, 1995). It is mentioned by Taylor (2002) that the preoccupation with whether the firms marketing strategies should be standardised is detrimental to the pragmatic execution of strategies across several markets. There are several assumptions that drives the need for consistency, they include, the assumption that, having a uniform brand image plays a vital role in the building of brands in the global business environment as well as the questions on the role of the standardised marketing communications in building a uniform brand image (Taylor, 2005, 2007).

The other variable of consistency has to do with the attitude–behaviour relationship. Consumers in individualistic cultures usually want consistency between their attitudes, feelings and behaviours. Therefore, it is possible to predict the

behaviour of consumers on products, services or brands based on their attitude. The predictions of consumers purchasing habits can be derived from a positive attitude. On the other hand, there is not a constant relationship between the attitude of consumers and their future behavioural patterns in collectivist cultures. There is a possibility of observing a reverse behavioural patterns, thus, behaviour (product usage) may occur first and then define the consumers attitude (Chang and Chieng 2006). The implication is that, the measurement of the effectiveness of advertising using a person's attitude towards advertisement will not work in collectivistic cultures like it does in individualistic cultures.

“*Social pressure*” which is commonly found in collectivist societies (Lee and Green, 1991) tends to have a relatively weak influence on people from individualistic cultures. In individualistic cultures, people make reference to their personal attitudes as been the dominant factors in influencing their buying decisions. This is not the same in collectivistic cultures where the norm is for people to live up to the standards expected of their social position, in order to save “*face*”. The saving of face in collectivist cultures has to do with behaving in accordance with the social position a person occupies. Therefore, when a person acts or behaves in a way contrary to expectations of the social position the person occupies, “*a shadow is cast over the person's moral integrity*” (Malhotra and McCort, 2001).

The assumption of universal emotions and consumer motives are basic to issues on standardisation, however, the two concepts are culture-bound. The understanding of the variations in the variables that motivate people is essential for brand positioning and for the development of advertising appeals in different markets. Many of the motives of consumers, like status motives for luxurious brands, are category-bound, however, the strength of these motives tend to vary across cultures (De Mooij 2004, 2010). In high power distance and collectivist cultures, emotions are more subdued (Kagitçibasi, 1997). Whiles in individualistic cultures, people are more interested in the concrete features of a product than in abstract brands.

Moreover, because they are less used to conceptual thinking, people from individualistic cultures hold the view that brands are created by adding values or abstract personality traits to products (De Mooij, 2010). In collectivistic cultures where context and situation are of significance, the concept of branding tends to be abstract, therefore they are not discussed in ways that consumer's in individualistic cultures do. Also, the categorization of people and objects varies according to individualism and collectivism. People in collectivist societies focus their attention on the relationships between objects, whiles people from individualistic society's group objects according to rules and properties (Choi, Nisbett, Smith, 1997). Brand extension for different product categories in individualistic cultures is seen as not fitting with the parent brand, but in collectivist cultures, the parent brand is viewed in terms of the general reputation or trust in the firm. Hence, in collectivist cultures there is a perception that a higher degree of brand extension fit for extensions in product categories compared to brand extensions associated with the parent brand in

individualistic societies (Unsworth, Sears and Pexman, 2005; Monga and Roedder, 2007).

The manner in which people obtain information varies with power distance and individualism/collectivism. In cultures that are considered to be collectivist and/or high in terms of power distance, information is acquired by people mostly through implicit, interpersonal communication. In such cultures, the buying decisions of consumers are based on feelings and trust in the firm. However, in individualistic cultures or cultures with low power distance, there is an active acquisition of information through the media and friends, and that is what provides the basis for purchasing by consumers. According to (De Mooij, 2010) there are recurrent social interactions which results in an automatic flow of communication between people. Hence, people tend to acquire knowledge unconsciously. In a study in China by Cho, Kwon, Gentry, Jun and Kropp (1999), it was revealed that, consumers rely on word-of-mouth communication because of the high contact rate among members of a group. Another consumer survey by Eurostat (2002) with 14 countries in Europe on the degree to which people consider themselves as well-informed consumers revealed that, the answers on 'well-informed' correlated with low power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, and individualism and individualism alone explains 61% of variance.

There are differences in the way marketing communication works across cultures. It is important to understand the differences in culture in order to communicate the advertising message. There are clear distinctions between high-context and low-context communication of collectivistic and individualistic cultures. In cultures that are highly individualistic, communication is more or less synonymous with information, whereas communication varies with roles and relationships in collectivistic cultures, and there is a concern for belonging and occupying a person's proper place in the society (Singelis and Brown, 1995; Miyahara, 2004). There are different interpersonal communications styles shown in advertising styles across cultures. This distinction is in relation to people's expectations of the role, purpose and effect of communication.

According to Miracle (1987), advertising in individualistic cultures must persuade, while the purpose of advertising in collectivistic cultures is to build relationships and trust between a seller of a commodity and buyer. In collectivist societies such as Japan, the focus of advertising is to induce positive feelings rather than the provision of information. Miracle, Taylor and Chang (1992) explain that, the different purposes are shown in the variations in timing and frequency of verbal or visual declarations of the name of the brand of a product in television commercials. It is reported that in collectivist cultures such as China and Japan, television commercial and brand acknowledgement and identification, company name, or product shows up later than in typical United States television commercials (Zhou, Zhou and Xue, 2005).

The models of advertising created in developed countries pre-suppose that consumers seek to be informed, actively gather information and to solve problems.

This kind of model is suitable for individualistic and low power distance cultures. The focus on information is reflected in the assertion by Stern and Resnik (1991) that informational cues are important in assisting buyers in making an intelligent choice from among alternatives in the same category. Although in some cultures, there is not a conscious search for information by people, it must be emphasized that, the information that are seen as relevant to members of one culture may not be relevant to members of another culture.

Information that is contained in marketing communication is a tool for persuasion. The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) developed by Petty and Cacioppo (1986) distinguishes between the peripheral route and the central route of persuasion. The “*central route*” is where the audience considers an idea logically, while the “*peripheral route*,” has to do with a situation where the audience are persuaded by pre-existing ideas and superficial qualities. Theoretically, the peripheral route is generally made up of visual cues like the pictures, package, catchy slogans or the context of the message while the central route requires a great deal of thought to carefully scrutinize the persuasive communication. The central route dominates in situations where the conditions demand the promotion of high elaboration of the communication information. The peripheral route is embedded in the advertising practices of developed societies, where pictures are used as illustration of words. Empirical studies conducted by Aaker and Maheswaran (1997) indicate that, the two routes in the model works across cultures but there are differences in evaluation between individualistic and collectivistic cultures.

Other researchers proposed alternative models for explaining cross cultural consumer behaviour. One of such is the framework provided by Manrai and Manrai (1996) and adapted by De Mooij (2011) in her book “*Consumer Behaviour and Culture: Consequences for Global Marketing and Advertising.*” The model explains the attributes that are of importance to consumers and the processes they undertake in order to satisfy these attributes. These attributes, income and processes are explained to bring out the interrelationship between them and the various consumer behaviour domains as well as the consumer, the person, values and culture. The framework is shown in the figure 2:

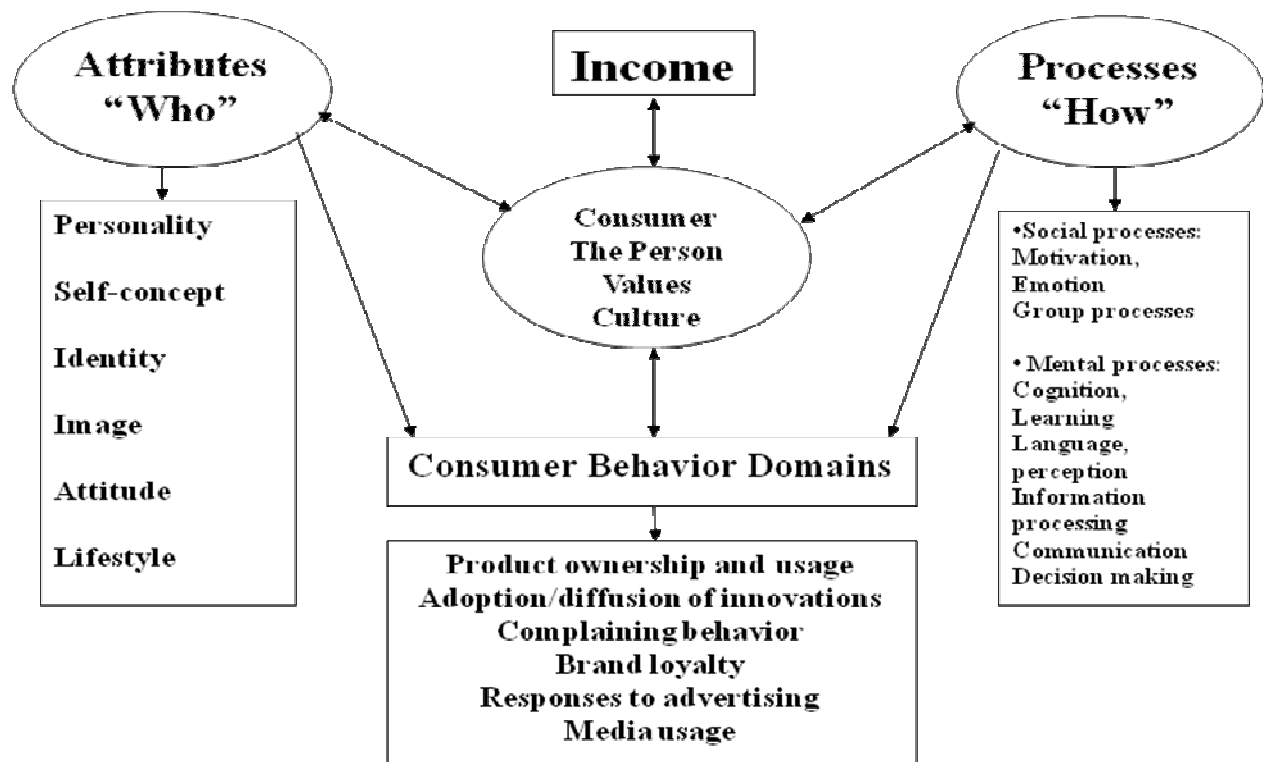


Figure 2: Cross Cultural Consumer Behaviour Framework

Source: Manrai and Manrai (1996) (Retrieved from De Mooij, 2011)

Researches based on content analysis showed that Hofstede’s cultural dimensions can be used to explain culture-specific appeals in advertising (Zandpour, et al., 1994). Studies in China and Korea which are largely collectivistic societies revealed that, advertisements that focus on in-group benefits, harmony and family tend to be more effective. On the other hand, in individualistic cultures such as the United States, advertisements that are appealing to the benefits and preferences of the individual, personal success and independence are more effective (Han and Shavitt, 1994).

Most often than not, the style of communication adopted and used by firms has an impact on consumers’ acceptance of the message that is been communicated. For example, the direct style of communication that has proven to be successful in individualistic cultures may be offensive to audiences in collectivistic cultures. A study by Taylor and Okazaki (2006) concludes that, firms in individualistic cultures are more inclined to standardise their marketing communication in order to create a uniform brand image than firms in collectivist cultures. The extent to which the brand image is customized by firms varies considerable with cultural dimensions such as individualism and uncertainty avoidance (Roth, 1995).

The level of individualism and collectivism of a society influences the shopping behaviour of consumers. There is a likelihood for consumers from collectivist societies to be motivated by norms and duties that are imposed by the collective group. In such cases, people give priority to the goals of the collective group. They

focus on creating and strengthening their connectedness to the collective group. On the other hand, those from individualist cultures are likely to be induced by their individual preferences, needs and rights. In such cultures, priority is placed on the individuals personal goals and emphasis is laid on uniqueness and distinction from others (Triandis, 1995). In a study by Aaker and Schmitt (2001), it was revealed that in individualistic cultures like the US, people have positive attitudes toward brands with differentiation associations. That is to say that, they appreciate brands that set one apart as an individual. On the contrary, in collectivist societies like China, there are positive attitudes toward brands that foster group assimilation, associations or brands that demonstrate a person's connection to others (Aaker and Schmitt, 2001).

There are differences in the self-concept of an individual constructed and reinforced in social institutions such as workplaces, schools and families (Kim, Triandis, Kagitçibasi, Choi, Yoon, 1994). In as much as the purchase decisions of consumers in both individualist and collectivist cultures are expected to be evaluated by other people, the effect of such interpersonal influence differs considerably among consumers in each of the cultural groups. In general, it has been found that, normative social influences tend to strongly impact on the purchasing intentions of consumers in collectivist cultures compared to individualist cultures (Lee and Green, 1991; Bagozzi, Wong, Abe and Bergami, 2000). Additionally, there may be differences in the forms of social influence between people from collectivist and individualist cultures.

Kelman (1961) identified three processes of social influence, namely compliance, identification and internalization. According to Kelman (1961) compliance refers to the situation where an individual accepts the influences from other people to achieve a favourable reaction, thus either to gain rewards or to avoid some sort of punishments. He further defined identification as the process where an individual accepts influences from another to satisfy a self-defining relationship with others, thus, to establish or maintain a relationship that forms part of the person's self-image. He indicated that the process where an individual accepts influences from another person because it is in line with the individual's value system is referred to as internalization. Internalization is when the behaviour is a useful solution, or beneficial to the individual's own values. Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel (1989) conclude that utilitarian social influence is based on the process of compliance while value-expressive social influence is based on the process of identification. However, informational social influence is based on the process of internalization.

Two separate researches found differences in influences for people from individualistic as against collectivist cultures. Bagozzi and Lee (2002) researched into social influence in friendship groups by examining the decision making process of participants with regards to where to eat lunch with friends. It was revealed that, participants from a more collectivist culture (Korea) were influenced strongly by identification processes (thus, value-expressive influence), whereas participants from more individualistic culture (USA) were influenced strongly by internalization processes (thus, informational influence). The other study by Murali, LaRoche and

Pons (2005) found that people from collectivist culture (French Canadians) were inclined to both utilitarian and value-expressive social influence unlike people from a more individualist culture (English Canadians). However, Mourali, et al. (2005) did not find any difference in the susceptibility of people from collectivists' and individualists' with regards to informational influence.

There are different forms in which the normative social influences are likely to take among people from individualist and collectivist cultures. Firstly, consumers from collectivist cultures may be more prone to value-expressive social influence, where a person adopts behaviour in order to satisfy a self-defining relationship with other important people. This kind of social influence is not the same as pleasing another person (as in compliance), but rather to be like the other person (Kelman, 1961). Consequently, the individual adopts the opinions and actions of the other person into their self-concept. Hence, it can be said that it is likely for friends and family of people from more collectivist cultures to provide diagnostic information for the self-concept of the consumer compared to the information received from friends and family of an individualist. Friends or family members are social groupings that the collectivists belong, and they are not simply a standard of comparison but a means through which they define themselves. When information is provided by a friend or family member to a collectivist consumer during the time of purchase, the information is likely to be more congruent with the self-concept of the consumer and they are also better aligned with the preferences of the consumer.

Secondly, consumers in cultures that are individualistic are likely to be prone to informational influence. This form of social influence is based on the internalization process where people do not typically accept full recommendations, but rather they engage in modification to suit their needs (Kelman, 1961). For example, the acceptance of the opinions of experts is dependent on the relevance of such opinions to specific situations as well as its congruence with the values of an individual (Kelman, 1961). It can be said that, the information that are provided by family and friends for people in individualist cultures are less diagnostic for the self-concept of the consumer compared to information that the collectivist receives from family and friends.

The self-concept of the individualists is not as strongly defined by their associations with significant others compared to the self-concept of the collectivists. In individualistic societies, people have independent opinions and attitudes and they see themselves as distinct from others (Triandis, 1994), hence there may be a likelihood for them to *“regard the self as a separate entity and experience social influence more in terms of interpersonal pressure, thus, compliance of oneself as an entity in response to social approval/disapproval from another person as a separate entity; and internalization, thus, an acceptance of a decision as a result of comparison or assimilation of another's values or goals with one's own values or goals”* (Bagozzi and Lee, 2002, p. 234). For a consumer in an individualistic society, information about a firm's products and services that are provided by

friends and family during purchases will have less diagnostic value than a consumer with collectivist tendencies.

The differences in the way the self-concept of consumers are construed between the individualists and collectivist's leads to differences in the impact of social influence on their purchasing behaviour. Also, it tends to have an impact on the extent of consumers post-purchase satisfaction when shopping with family and friends. Some researchers have indicated that post-purchase evaluations as reflected by the assessment of the performance of a product occur from a comparison of pre-purchase expectations with the actual performance of the product (Zeithaml, Berry, Parasuraman, 1993; Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins, 1987). However, the availability of information on which to base pre-purchase expectations is limited for impulse purchases. During times of purchasing, the discussions that a consumer engages in with a friend or family member helps them to reduce the level of uncertainty that may be associated with the product performance (Asamoah, et al., 2011). Consumers engage in such consultations to reduce the level of aggravation from the non-performance of a product or the risk of buying an unwanted product (Asamoah, et al., 2011).

Furthermore, according to Hofstede (1984) a high uncertainty avoidance culture is an embodiment of strict control systems, risk avoidance, predictability, resistance to change, stability and discomfort with the unknown while low uncertainty avoidance cultures exhibit tolerance to innovation and new ways of think, risk-taking, willingness to change and adjust, easiness with the unknown and optimism about the future. Also, Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) indicate that individuals from high uncertainty avoidance cultures are more hesitant to try new products and assimilate new information. In such cultures, the general perception is that "*what is different is dangerous*" (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005) and this is credo of xenophobia which guides the behaviour of consumers. Also, in such cultures the impact of advertising and promotion tend to be slower compared to low uncertainty avoidance cultures. In cultures that are high in uncertainty avoidance, consumers are less likely to be inclined to be loyal to brands. High uncertainty avoidance indicates a tendency to take risk which is translated as an unwillingness to switch brands. People in high uncertainty avoidance cultures tend to avoid uncertainty by attaching themselves with brands with which they are comfortable. Such people may have developed loyalty to the brand as a result of prolonged usage over a period of time or as a result of recommendation from friends or relation who may also have used the brand over a period of time.

3.3 Consumer behaviour and fast food marketing patterns

In the last two decades, the global fast-food market has grown faster than the other sections of away-from-home foods (Jekanowski, 1999). It has been observed that the marketing and promotional strategies of the fast industry highlight the convenience, taste, and low cost of fast food (Jekanowski, 1999). Lately, the products of fast food have been reformulated to provide more convenient packaging,

shapes, and sizes. Some researchers assert that, the creation of ease of access for consumers which consequently increases fast food distribution is also a key marketing strategy of fast food enterprises (Jekanowski, 1999).

Fast food outlets are found in fuel stations, department stores, zoos, schools, and other non-traditional outlets, which make it possible for consumers to eat conveniently while performing other activities. It has also been observed that, the promotion feature of fast food, particularly advertising and in-store promotions, are vital aspects of fast food marketing (Gallo, 1999). Furthermore, Smith (2003) explains that, the use of price promotions in fast food marketing is vital because, it creates awareness of specific menu items and provides incentives for buyers and develops repeated purchases among frequent buyers. For example, in the early 1990s, the use of value menu became a popular price-promotion strategy among some fast food outlets to attract customers and to raise profit margins, and many fast food outlets depended on price discounts to propel consumer patronage (Smith 2003). Some fast food outlets promote tiered pricing to persuade consumers to think in terms of odd-price endings, such as say \$0.99 menu (Wilkie 1994).

Fast food outlets have been seen as eating “*home away from home for breakfast, lunch and dinner*” among consumers of all ages, mainly because they fulfil the desires of consumers for tasty, convenient, and inexpensive food (Kara, Kaynak, and Kucukemiroglu 1995). The marketing strategies of fast food firms are targeted heavily at children, adolescents and young independent adults (Nestle, 2002; Schlosser, 1999). In a study by Outley and Taddese (2006), it was found that 36% of advertisements during children’s programming were for fast food. Other studies also indicate that, fast food marketing tends to influence the food preferences of children and what they continually request their parents to buy for them (Hastings, et al., 2003). As a result of the purchase request from children, the marketing strategies implemented by fast food firms for their products and services also indirectly reaches parents (Hastings, et al., 2003).

In a study conducted in the United States, it was found that one third of parents regularly eat takeout food (Gardyn, 2002). However, it is also revealed that, fast food contributes more than 12% of the caloric intake of adults (Guthrie, Lin and Frazão, 2002). A survey by (Barbour, 2004) revealed that 24% of adults indicated they ate fast food meals or snacks with children younger than 12 years. Gardyn (2002) explains that, fast food is especially attractive to single or busy parents. If a parent like a particular fast food product, it becomes a primary influence on children’s preferences (Moore, Wilkie and Lutz, 2002).

However, parents are only one of numerous influences on the consumption of children, together with peers and the media (Story, Neumark-Sztainer, and French, 2002). Nevertheless, parents are seen as the primary socialization agent, the keepers of the food supply of the family, and significant role models for the eating behaviours of children, especially for young children (Golan and Crow, 2004). Parents tend to influence the eating habits of their children through the use of implicit and explicit modelling of behaviour in respect to food consumption (Fisher

and Birch, 1995). For example, when parents consume a lot of fruits and vegetables, it is likely that their children will do the same (Nicklas, Baranowski, Baranowski, Cullen, Rittenberry and Olvera, 2001). Similarly, children from parents who patronize and consume food from fast food outlets may also do the same.

Research shows that different cultural groups are exposed to different levels of fast food marketing. Therefore, it can be concluded that, the beliefs related to fast food in general and the consumption of fast food might also differ among consumers of various cultural groups (Grier, Mensinger, Huang, Kumanyika and Stettler, 2007). According to Grier, et al. (2007) consumer behaviour arises from attitudes and social norms which are belief mechanisms. These belief mechanisms are the basis through which the activities of marketing influence the consumption patterns of individuals with regards to fast food. Attitudes refer to the degree to which an individual has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of an item or behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) while social norms refers to the shared beliefs about behaviour and are intended to capture the social influence that a consumer perceives regarding consumption behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

There are two types of social norms, namely subjective and descriptive social norms. The subjective norms are made up of the individual's perceptions of what is an appropriate behaviour and it reflects their beliefs that those who they consider important to them believe that they should perform a particular behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). On the other hand, the descriptive norms relates to people's perceptions of the behaviour of people important to them (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1980). When there is a high prevalence of behaviour or a perception of approval of the behaviour among important reference groups, it tends to influence a person's performance of that behaviour (Bagozzi, et al. 2000; Cialdini, Kallgren and Reno, 1991). Therefore, it is essential for fast food firms to engage in activities that are aimed at creating positive attitudes so as to influence social norms in a way that will increase the consumption of their products. Marketing in the fast food industry contributes to consumers' beliefs through the persuasiveness with which the strategies communicate specific benefits while at the same time reinforcing existing behavioural patterns. For example, price promotions can increase the preference of consumers for a promoted product and encourage repeat purchases (Hoek and Gendall, 2006).

In both the Czech Republic and Ghana, many adolescents are becoming increasingly more westernized (Asamoah, 2010). Consequently, they have realized that there is greater convenience from eating out. Conversely, the preference of older generation for fast food is different than younger generation (Asamoah, 2010). Research indicates that, in Ghana the older generation especially employed household head mostly prefer to visit fast food outlets that use traditional Ghanaian delicacies or ingredients in making food items on their menu such as sliced meat products and kebab, but the younger generation who are mostly high school and university students prefer Americanized type of fast food such as KFC and PAPAYE (Asamoah, 2010). Also, in the fast food industry in most countries, fast

food outlets are not only located in efficient and economic eating environment but also as an exotic places where people meet regularly for social interaction and entertainment (Park, 2004). Considering the numerous challenges that the fast food industry faces in the global arena, increasing the market share of fast food enterprises could be done by increasing the demand for fast food through the opening of new market segments.

3.4 Consumer purchasing dynamics in fast food marketing

The perception of consumers on the operations and marketing practices of fast food firms tend to vary considerably. The perceptions of consumers are formed from contact with the promotional activities of fast food outlets, word-of-mouth communication, past personal experience among others. It is essential for fast food firms to evaluate and understand the perceptions of consumers in order to formulate effective marketing strategies. Also, if there are differences in the perceptions and preferences of consumers in countries or cultures then marketing communications must also be adapted to specific countries or cultures.

Researchers in the past who have studied trends in food away from home industry found that they are mainly patronised by educated, younger consumers with higher-paying jobs and household incomes (Hiemstra and Kim, 1995; Park, 2004; Byrne, Capps and Saha, 1998; Ekelund and Watson, 1991; Fanning, Marsh, and Stiegert, 2002; Jekanowski, Binkley and Eales, 2001; Stewart, Blisard, Bhuyan and Nayga, 2004). Although this view from literature is generally satisfactory for food away from home as a whole, it is rather limited in the specific case of fast food. This is because presently, fast food is consumed by low-end segments in consumer markets with little disposable income due to the available of small scale fast food enterprises as well as the desire by large scale franchises to consolidate their position in markets in different countries.

A recent study indicates that, one of every two-and-a-half meals is eaten away from home (Richards and Padilla, 2009) which reveals a significant growth in meals consumed outside the home. The trend is significantly dependent on certain demographic variables and changes in lifestyle. Consequently, many of the food items produced by fast food firms reflect a marketing-oriented approach that focuses on the wholesomeness and variety of menu. In most cases, firms are redesigning their menu items to meet the demands of consumers for nutritional quality (such as low-calorie or fat-free foods) and variety (Asamoah, 2010). Consumer attitude indicate that they prefer to eat food only when it is easy, convenient and it tastes good (Park, 2004; Byrne, et al., 1998). Generally, consumers are more concern with issues of their health, but other factors like easy preparation, taste and appeal dominate the buying decisions of children in particular (Byrne, et al., 1998).

Some other researchers (McCracken and Brandt, 1987; Byrne, et al., 1998) have mentioned that, household income, household size and composition are significant predictors of the total expenditures by households on full scale restaurants, fast food outlets and other food-away-from-home outlets. In an empirical study by Ekelund

and Watson (1991) it was found that, the consumption of fast food varied with the opportunity costs of the household. Some other studies that has been conducted in the fast food industry are the relationship between the characteristics of households and the frequencies of eating at full service and fast food outlets (Nayga and Capps, 1994), the effect of price, income and sex on fast food consumption (Jekanowski, et al., 2001) and the socio-economic determinants of the likelihood of consuming fast food using the logit model (Fanning, et al., 2002).

Furthermore, Park (2004) on the other hand studied the relationship between consumer values of eating-out and the importance of the attributes of fast food outlets in Korea. Park (2004) found that consumers opted for fast food outlets more for hedonic reason, not utilitarian values of eating-out. Law, Hui, and Zhao (2004) revealed that, employee attitude, quality and variety of food and environment significantly affect customer satisfaction in fast food outlets. Also, Pettijohn, Pettijohn and Luke (1997) indicate that, the three most important attributes of fast food outlets to consumers are quality, cleanliness and value, while ambience and menu variety were relatively unimportant. Consequently, when consumers consider the convenience and price of an outlet, the utilitarian value of eating- out has an important role in the evaluation and selection of the outlet (Johns and Pine, 2002; Park, 2004).

Researchers have found that household that earn higher incomes and have higher education spend more on fast food than household with lower-income and less educated (Mihalpoulos and Demoussis, 2001; Angulo, Gill and Mur, 2002; Nayga and Capps, 1994). Additionally, the total number of adults and children in a household may also influence their consumption of fast food. For instance, a household with more members may prefer to prepare food at home because it more economical (McCracken and Brandt, 1987; Fanning, et al., 2002; Mihalpoulos and Demoussis, 2001). As studies point out, younger members of households tend to consume more fast food than households with older people (Mihalpoulos and Demoussis, 2001). There is also evidence from previous research that when there are more married women in the labour force, more of fast food will be consumed as opposite to eating at home (McCracken and Brandt, 1987; Shin, 1998). The attitude and knowledge of consumers to price, health concern, child preferences and environment are important factors that affect the consumption preferences of fast food by consumers (Law, et al., 2004; Gilbert, Veloutsou, Goode and Mountinho, 2004; Park, 2004; Schroder and McEachern, 2005; Davies and Smith, 2004).

In a study by Akbay, Tiryaki and Gul (2007), it was revealed that frequencies of consuming fast food are significantly affected by factors such as the price of fast food, consumer's health concern, the preferences of children, and restaurant atmosphere. The research by Akbay, et al. (2007) further showed that individuals who perceive price as a key factor when eating are unlikely to consume fast food. In their study, it was shown that the estimated coefficient on price was negative and statistically significant at the 99% level of confidence. This result was found to be consistent with the findings of Johns and Pine (2002) and Park (2004). In both

studies, it was found that the price of food items in an eating-place and the utilitarian value of eating out contribute significantly to the evaluation of fast food outlets and fast food consumption.

Furthermore, the issue of health is also a key determinant of the consumption trends in the fast food industry. For example, when there is news in the media about diseases such as ecoli virus, brucellosis and mad cow disease, it affects the sales of fast food enterprises that use these ingredients in their food, both domestically and internationally. Akbay, et al. (2007) explain that, it was not surprising that when there is a considerable amount of publicity with regards to the negative health effect of fast food products, the marketing strategy of the firms are geared towards gaining trust and confidence in the market so as to increase the firm's market share. Consumers who are concern about issues on food safety were less likely to consume fast food products (Akbay, et al., 2007).

Hanson (2002) assert that, the shortened lunch hours and the fast pace of life has resulted in forcing people to find alternative meal solutions that are quicker and less time consuming. Likewise, in the study by Park (2004), it was found that people eat outside because they want to save time, satisfy their hunger, for pleasure, to transform their moods and for purposes of social interaction. In a study by Anita (2007) in India which is a collectivist society, it was found that, Indian consumers were passionate about eating in fast food outlets mainly because they offer fun and change. Anita (2007) identified three important dimensions which has a significant influence on consumers. They are product, service delivery and quality. However, consumers consider variables such as taste and quality, followed by hygiene and ambience as dominant.

Also, in Agnes, Law and Hui (2004) study, food quality, waiting time, staff attitude and variety were found to be variables that significantly affect and influences the level of customer satisfaction. Akbay, et al., (2007) found in their study that the factors that has significant impact on the frequency of consuming fast food include health issues, the price of the fast food, preference of kids, and other demographic variables, like income, age and size of the household. On the other hand, Schroder and McEachern (2005) in their research identified four factors that influence the purchase behaviour of consumers in the fast food industry. They include brand value, nutritional value, ethical value and food quality. Furthermore, Tassalina and Badrie (2007) found that the choice of fast food was influenced by health or nutritional benefits (60.8%), safety or sanitation (60.0%), and the price of menu (55.8%). However, it was found that, the most popular reason for eating out was for the purposes of celebrating a special occasion (60.8%).

A study by Marai (1994) in the collectivist culture of China shown that, Chinese consumers preferred American fast food brands because of their taste, packaging and speed of service. But the American fast foods brands lacked variety and the appeals of their advertising campaigns were not effective. The study revealed that Chinese consumers are usually introduced by their family and friends and they tend to trust recommendations from such close relations. Auty (1992) found that food

type and food quality are the major reasons that determines the choice of consumers for a particular outlet. The study by Auty (1992) also revealed that the style and atmosphere in a restaurant attract customers.

When there are changes in taste and preferences of consumers with changing times, age plays a major role in the preference for fast food items. Also, fast food products are conveniently located and are served at a faster pace. Hence, for individuals with a busy working lifestyle, fast food outlets have become alternatives that cater for their hunger requirements. Studies have revealed that, people above the age of 35 years tend to be more conscious of their health due to the fact that they carry more responsibilities than youngsters (Chavadi and Kokatnur, 2008). Chavadi and Kokatnur (2008) further explain that, people above 35 years rather prefer to eat with friends and family members preferably at full-service restaurants rather than fast food outlets.

In the early years of people, their eating habits are formed and they are mostly unchanged in life (Wesslen, Sepp and Fjellstrom, 2002). The family of young children orientate them with food choices taking into consideration factors such as nutrition, money, taste, age, status, convenience, speed, environment of the store among others (Ekstrom, 1995). According to Ekstrom (1995) these factors influence the decision making process of the entire family. Mattsson and Helmersson (2007) made inscriptions about the difference in attitudes between male and female students. They indicate that, female students tend to consider fast food from the context of the broad food outlets while male students focus on fast eating and satiety. Kruger, Blanck and Gillespie (2008) made an assessment of the combined behaviour of adults that, eating low calorie food and physical activity are connected with weight loss maintenance. Also, Kruger, et al. (2008) analysed the eating-out behaviour and the ability of individuals to participate in physical activity and the confidence to actively engage in various activities lead to weight loss or maintenance of weight. The study by Kruger, et al. (2008) indicated that, for adults with the desire to lose or maintain their weight, their eating behaviour was not affected by factors like quality of food, price, payment method and atmosphere of food outlets.

Researchers have shown that, not all consumers have sufficient understanding of food-safety to protect themselves from consuming risky food items (Röhr, Lüddecke, Drusch, Müller and Alvensleben, 2005; McCarthy, Brennan, Kelly, Ritson and Thompson, 2007). Some other studies show that, those consumers who possess knowledge on food-safety did not actually put them into practice (Wilcock, Pun, Khanona, and Aung, 2004). Nonetheless, Yarrow, Remig, and Higgins (2009) and Wilcock, et al. (2004) argue that, food safety attitudes, beliefs, knowledge and practices of consumers can be changed with the use of various educational interventions. They explain that, consumers must be divided into segments for effecting communication of food-safety issues. Olumakaiye and Ajayi (2008) assert that quality and nutrition level of food are vital for food choices.

3.5 Factors Related to Consumers' Preferences of Fast Food Products

Studies have shown that when young girls and women from African and South Asian origin in the UK do not have enough time to prepare their “*traditional*” meals, they usually have a preference for a variety of fast food products (Lawrence, et al., 2007). The same study showed that consumers take into consideration time, price, health and availability when making food purchases. Richards and Padilla (2009) in their study considered some measurable attributes of fast food, such as nutritional profiles, vendor identity and distance from the home of consumers. However, the study suggested that there are more perceptual attributes that influence consumer's decisions and demand. Some factors such as taste, consumer self-esteem, the reputation of the fast food outlet as well as other non-measurable factors might be relevant in developing an attribute-based fast food model. The evidence by Clark and Wood (1998) indicate that food quality and value are the most significant attributes of a fast food outlet. On the other hand, Lewis (1981) identified five important factors namely: menu variety, atmosphere, food quality, price and convenience. Of the five factors indicated by Lewis (1981), food quality was found to be the most important attribute that influences the selection of restaurants by customers.

Furthermore, Auty (1992) conducted a study on the perception of consumers of restaurants and the way that they select a place for eating. It was found that, regardless of the occasion for eating out, the type and quality of food were the variables that were cited frequently. However, the image and atmosphere or style were crucial in their final choice from restaurants that serve food of similar quality and type. Alternatively, Carey and Genevieve (1995) identified food quality to be the most essential variable in the choice of fast food restaurant. There were other factors that were prominent in the ranks of respondents. They are (1) range of food; (2) quality of food; (3) price of food; (4) atmosphere; and (5) speed of service. However, the key determinant of the choice of restaurant as well as loyalty of consumers was the quality and types of food.

Generally, it can be deduced from the evidence from all these studies that, the factors that are more concrete tend to play important roles in the choice of outlet by consumers when they want to eat out. Apart from the factors that are related to restaurant, the socio-cultural background of consumers also influence consumer's behaviour of eating away from home. For instance, factors such as family influences, social class, attitudes, social values, group influences and cultural orientation are very vital in determining the choices of consumers (Bareham, 1995). During the past decades, the physical environment of the hospitality and retail environments has also emerged as an important area, and researchers are beginning to explore its influence on the behaviour of consumers (Turley and Milliman, 2000).

Islam, et al. (2010) identified some factors from a pilot study which may be related to the consumer's preferences of fast food products. The factors include:

- a. Time factors (time of delivery, management of queues etc.)
- b. Cost factors (the price of the products etc.)

- c. Hygiene factors (clean packaging, clean environment, displayed hygiene records etc.)
- d. Convenience factors (accessibility, location proximity etc.)
- e. Taste factors (Uniqueness, less variability of taste)
- f. Brand factors
- g. Group influence factors (friends, family etc.)
- h. Nutrition factors
- i. Environmental factors of the restaurant (personnel, decoration of shop, ambience etc.).

The study by Islam, et al. (2010) in Bangladesh found that brand reputation is the most important factor for consumers when selecting a fast food outlet followed by closeness and accessibility, similar taste of fast food, cost and quality relationship, discount and taste, clean and hygiene, salesmanship and decoration, fat and cholesterol, and self-service in that order. Factor analyses conducted identified nine factors that determine the preferences of students when selecting fast food restaurants in Bangladesh. The results of the preferences of students were similar to the aggregate of consumers in the market.

4. INTERNATIONAL FAST FOOD OPERATIONS

4.1 The emergence of fast food industry

The rapid expansion of the fast food industry can be partly attributed to the franchising phenomenon. The modern franchising system in the fast food started with the desire of fast food firms from United States to expand into other international markets. Generally, the amount of capital required to open a fast food outlet is relatively low depending on whether one wants to start a new outlet under a new brand name or buy into a franchise. The franchising system has made it possible for fast food firms to establish restaurant chains that offer standardized meals in different countries. The large scale fast food firms sometimes provide drive-through services in their outlets. The market structure of the fast industry means that it is possible for firms with low capital to enter the market (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011a). The small scale outlets cater for the needs of local consumers and sometimes the younger generation and adults with very tight work schedules.

The development of fast food industry and increasing consumption of fast food is as a result of the many eating moments per day that forms part of modern lifestyle. Furthermore, the rapid development of fast food industry has been partly attributed to the faster pace of life in most modern cities that has generated interest in the finding quicker meal solutions for consumers short lunch hours (Hanson, 2002). According to Park (2004) when consumers eat out, it gives them the opportunity to satisfy their hunger at their convenience and pleasure. It serves the function of social interaction, entertainment, time saving and the transformation of the consumer's mood. Also, consumers tend to have an exciting experience, pleasure and a sense of personal well-being when they visit fast food outlets (Park, 2004).

The changing lifestyles of consumers has accounted for the increase in the consumption of convenience foods in many countries (Belasco and Scranton, 2002). The living and patterns of eating were drastically changed by economic affluence. In many countries the strict traditional working hours of many people has led to the preference for quick meals due to its convenience. Consequently, the consumption of food (including take-out and fast food) purchased outside of the home, has increased drastically due to the fact that many people view fast food as 'quick fix' meals (Guthrie, Biing-Hwan and Frazao, 2002).

Fast food as it is known today has resulted from the evolutionary process in the eating habits of people. During the pre-historical times, there were hunter-gatherers who went into the forest and bushes to look for preys which eventually became their food. The evolution and modernization of human life has led to specialization of human activities resulting in a situation where human beings no longer have to go hunting in the fields but rather depend on outdoor markets and supermarkets to do the "hunting" for us and we do not only expect people to cook for us, but we also want the food prepared and delivered to us within the shortest possible time at our convenience. Often fast food are associated with the traditional American fast food firms that offers food items like hamburgers, chicken, chips and fries. However,

there are other forms of fast food that are popular in many other countries. For instance, Asian fast food and takeaways/takeout restaurants are predominant in some countries.

The fast pace of life brought about as a result of the dual forces of globalization and modernization also affects food supplies and food consumption behaviour. Today the world has become more competitive. Firms do not only compete within local geographic areas but also from an international coliseum. This fast pace of life also affects the consumption patterns of individuals and their buying behaviour as they are constantly coming into contact with different products and services which were otherwise not available to them. The fast food industry is a typical example of the result of globalization. The food services provided by fast food firms make it possible for busy workers to save time and concentrate on their job in an efficient and effective way. Though the fast food concept was initially associated with western and more developed countries, it has rapidly permeated into the social fabric of countries in other parts of the world as a result of globalization.

The popularity of fast food consumption can also be seen in a social context. Unlike before, there has been an increase in the number of families with both parents working (Stamoulis, Pingali and Shetty, 2004). As a result, there is less time for families to cook traditional meals and eat at home. Furthermore, there is an increase in the social life and social activities. People need to socialize with their friends and relations as well as immediate neighbours either for pleasure and business purposes over some food away from home. Also, a lot of families prefer to hold gathering programs such as anniversaries, birthdays, and other special occasions out of home. Fast food outlets have become important meeting places for such functions due to convenience and privacy or other reasons.

The increasing popularity and consumption of fast food can also be attributed to urbanization and trends in globalization. It is estimated that, a significant proportion of the population of the world between 2015 and 2030 will be located in urban areas. Also, it is estimated that, the world's population in urban areas which stood at about 3.5 billion in 2010 will increase to about 4.9 billion by 2030. In the 1960s, there were about 32% of the population in developing countries in urban areas. However, by the year 2000, it had increased to almost 46% and the expectation is that it will further increase to 59% by 2030.

Table 1: Projected urban population

Year	Urban population (thousands)	Percentage urban (%)
2010	3 494 607	50.6
2015	3 844 664	52.7
2020	4 209 669	54.9
2025	4 584 233	57.2
2030	4 965 081	59.7

Source: Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, World Urbanization Prospects: The 2007 Revision

Table 2: Projected urban population growth rate

Year	Urban annual growth rate (%)	Annual rate of change of percentage urban (%)
2010-2015	1.91	0.81
2015-2020	1.81	0.82
2020-2025	1.70	0.83
2025-2030	1.60	0.84
2030-2035	1.46	0.82

Source: Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, World Urbanization Prospects: The 2007 Revision

The increase in urbanization comes with changes in the habitual dietary practices and consumption patterns of society. Some other factors that drive the differences in the diets of rural and urban dwellers are the higher average wages and opportunity cost of time in urban areas. The determining factors of the diet structure of urban dwellers include demographic factors, the organization of food markets and the relatively low prices of processed foods. These factors tends to induce consumers to move away from the traditional time-consuming food preparation to food that are pre-cooked, fast food, snacks and other forms of food outside the home.

Although there are concerns over the health implications of fast food items from the media and health groups, the popularity of traditional fast food still persist. Lately, fast food firms have introduced healthier ingredients like salads and white meat into their food preparation and menu. Some fast food outlets have also adjusted their menu to appeal to a larger audience. Others have further streamlined their marketing campaigns to communicate their commitment towards promoting healthy living by providing food items that are relatively healthier to the market.

There is fierce competition among fast food firms of different sizes globally in terms of price, location, diversity of menu and consistency of food products. Fast food firms do not only compete among themselves but also they compete with full service restaurants and other forms of food delivery service firms. Competition in the fast food industry has increased the innovativeness of firms and a number of new concepts are constantly developed and introduced into the market either to respond to market demands or socio cultural differences in markets. Also, prominent is the conformity of menu items to religious beliefs, taboos and consumer values.

The consciousness of consumers towards consuming healthy food has made firms pay particular attention to the negative implications of bad media reportage on their corporate brand image. This makes quality control and assurance vital to firms. Corporate and brand reputations are essential to the competitiveness of firms, hence, fast food firms endeavour to guard against practices that could negatively impact on their brand image. The firms brand reputation and perceived value among consumers is an asset that cannot be compromised. In the fast food industry, a decline in the firms brand's reputation can lead to a rapid decline in the firms' sales both in the short and long-term, and can even threaten the firms existence.

Some of the other reasons that have been given for the emergence, popularity and consumption of fast food include:

- **Gender Roles:** The change in gender roles that has resulted in the many females working outside the home is a contributing factor to the increase consumption of fast food. Previously, women were mostly domesticated while men were at work. Lately, many women are taken up jobs which were previously male dominated. Therefore, they have little time to cook.
- **Customer sophistication:** The advances in technology exposed consumers to a wide range of goods and services and they have become more sophisticated. They have become influenced by different ways of life which they usually prefer or want to experience. Consumers do not want to spend time and energy to prepare food or engage in household activities.
- **Double Income Group:** The disposable income of consumers in different countries has increased unlike in time past. This gives them the opportunity to spend on food outside the home including fast foods.
- **Working Women and paucity of time:** The arrangement of the corporate world does not give women time for cooking. Even if they have time, they are mostly tired to cook due to the intensity and long hours they have spent working. They mostly want to move out of the traditionally defined gender roles of household work and children upbringing often associated with women. Not only women but also most people do not like to cook, rather they prefer to spend time on entertainment, work or enjoy with their family.
- **Increase in population:** The increase in populations has created large markets not only for fast foods, but also for other products and services. Hence, the need for food by people has increased culminating into the entry of a large number of fast food firms.
- **Relaxation in rules and regulations:** Many fast food firms now find it relatively easy and lucrative to expand to countries which hitherto were not accessible or friendly to business because of the stiff rules and regulations.
- **Menu diversification:** Some people patronize fast food for a change due to the diversity of food items that are served at these outlets. The desire to try food from different parts of the world also contributes to the increased fast food patronage and consumption.

In this 21st Century, the advocacy for limiting the approaches to fast food preparation is increasingly gaining recognition. These agitations have led to a Slow Food reaction to preserve local cuisines and ingredients. There has been a call for richer, varied food that incorporates the nourishing tastes of fresh local ingredients into food production. Although some of the fast food chains have started to incorporate healthier alternatives in their food production like salads and fresh fruit, some see it as a mere tokenistic and commercial measure, rather than a genuine reaction to the concerns of the human ecology and the health of consumers.

4.2 Franchising in the fast food industry

In the late 1940's at the end of the Second World War, there was the largest expansion of franchising when many veterans returned with the desire to start their own businesses. In the 1950's the main fast food chains such as McDonald's and Burger King began to emerge. From the 1960's, various fast food chains from the US started spreading into international markets. Currently, these American fast food chains are found in countries all over the world. In the fast food industry, the established brands provides a unique avenue for people to own fast food outlets or restaurant, by joining forces with a tried and tested, established franchise company's. The franchising systems operated by these established fast food brands ensures that, the franchisee operates as efficiently and productively as possible.

A franchise is a business arrangement where a franchisor, or owner of the franchise, grants a right to a franchisee to use the trademark, brand and system of operating of the franchise in exchange for an initial fee. The franchising concept refers to an agreement between organizations where a producer of a product or service grants the right to independent entrepreneurs (franchisees) to use the business concept of another business (franchisor) to conduct business in a specified way, in a designated place and at a certain time period at a fee (Valente, 2000). The type of franchising that is commonly used in the fast food industry today is the "*business format franchising*" or "*package franchising*." This type of franchising is where the franchisor provides the franchisee with more than just the rights to use the product, service and trademark. Here, the franchisee also receives the whole business plan including the standardized marketing strategy, quality control, operating and training manuals, regular support from the franchising firm, store layout, among others (Preble, 1992).

Alternatively, there is also the original version of franchising known as "Product and Brand," which was used at the beginning of the twentieth century. This form of franchising is when a brand of a particular product or service is re-sold by another. The product and brand franchising are applicable in the beverage industry, gas stations and car dealerships (Preble, 1992). According to Preble (1992) the business format franchising strategy has some advantages for the franchiser. The advantages includes: economies of scale, cost sharing, rapid penetration of markets at a relatively lower cost compared to the establishment of one's own systems of distribution and a motivated workforce. On the other hand, the advantages that accrue to the franchisee include the ability to buy into and start a business with an established and proven standardized product or service at a low cost, as well as the continuous support that is received for the brand concept from the franchiser.

Also, it is important to emphasize the significance of culture in fast food franchise operating in the international business. It is vital to inculcate cultural variations into the franchising activities of fast food firms, although it is difficult to quantify the costs of adapting franchising strategies to the culture in which the company is operating. It is also difficult to determine the formula and strategy to use to culturally adapt a franchise to a market without jeopardizing the standard operation

format and essence of the brand. In a study conducted by Hopkins (1996) to shed more light on this dilemma, it was revealed that there is a feeling among franchisers that the differences in culture do affect the demand for their product or service; nevertheless, franchisers prefer to keep their business concept standardized rather than to engage in too much adaptation to different cultures. Further, Hopkins (1996) found that most of the changes that are made for successful franchising operations were mostly in the areas of promotion and advertising, characteristics of product or service, pricing, and financial requirements. Also, it was revealed that when the franchisers realize that the market they are entering into has extreme cultural differences, there is a small inclination for them to make more changes. However, firms that adapt their products and services excessively tended to be less successful.

A major advantage of expanding business through franchising is that, it ensures and guarantees the standardization of the brand, product and format that is provided to the franchisee. However, although it is an advantage, it generates a dilemma when expanding into international markets. It is particularly challenging to reach a balance when the host country is geographically remote and different in terms of culture. The questions that often arise are the extent to which the firms must adapt their franchise to the new cultural environment without losing or compromising on the familiar format as well as the brand image. Referring to the significance of the element of culture in international fast food franchising, Huszagh, Huszagh and McIntyre (1992) assert that, the concept of franchising together with its systems of management are usually extensions of the cultural orientations of the home country of the franchisers. Aydin and Kacker (1990) argue that, the extent of transferability of the business concept and management system is a function of the cultural distance that exists between the foreign and the domestic cultures. There are some benefits of franchise standardization and adaptation. They are as follows:

- a. Standardization: The benefits of standardization that accrue to firms include reduction in costs, improvement in the coordination of the operations of franchisee firms, and a unified brand image. Theoretically, when the firm presents a unified brand image, it is likely to increase customer loyalty in the face of changing circumstances and competition.
- b. Adaptation: Depending on the type of franchise, it may be argued by those supporting adaptation that, it is naive to assume that customers will continue to be loyal to a particular brand. The adaptation approach enables the franchise to adjust to subtle changes in the demands of customers as well as changes in other circumstances. Also, adaptation enables franchises to make adjustments more easily to changes in legal and regulatory requirements that affect businesses.

The major strength of the franchise format (thus, its standardization) makes the successful adoption and replication in international markets difficult. Confronted with changing trends, thus, concerns of marketplaces and the environment, it is important for franchises to decide on whether to continually adapt or standardize

their brands and business practices with the hope of keeping their customers loyal so as to increase their market share and margins in the face of these changes.

4.3 Standardization and adaptation in the fast food industry

The study of culture in international business which brings about the global - local dilemma in global marketing has appeared in the development of strategies by multinational business enterprises. In international marketing, when firms decide to market their products and services abroad, a fundamental strategic decision that they are confronted with is whether to standardize their marketing mix (promotion, physical evidence, product, price, people, place, process) and adopt a distinct marketing strategy for all countries or whether to adjust the marketing mix and marketing strategies to suite the dynamics of each local market.

Recent studies show that that the strategy of adapting to local demands and characteristics of the market is more effective (Okazaki and Mueller, 2007; Calantone, Kim, Schmidt, Cavusgil, 2006; Wong and Merrilees 2007; Dow 2005). Some researchers advocate that the key for survival in the global marketplace is for firms to standardize their products and services based on the assumption that markets are becoming more similar and increasingly more global. Some other researchers anticipate difficulties in the use of standardization; hence, they support tailoring of the firms operations to suite the dynamics of the local conditions and market adaptation. However, evidence from practical literature indicates that firms usually make contingency choices, which are often related to some key determinants in each given situation.

The standardization or adaptation concepts can be defined from two main perspectives, namely the process (process oriented standardization or adaptation) and program (program oriented standardization or adaptation). The program perspective definition of standardization or adaptation refers to the extent to which the elements of the marketing mix are standardized or adopted by the firm in the international market. In reference to the process oriented scenario of the home-host market, the standardization of the separate marketing mix elements is considered as the extent to which there are differences in the marketing mix elements from what pertains in the home and host markets (Lages, Abrantes and Lages, 2008).

Some researchers identify some internal and external factors that determines the adoption of either standardization or adaptation approach (Özsomer, Bodur and Cavusgil, 1991; Theodosiou and Leonidou, 2003; Cavusgil and Zou, 1994). On the basis of the paradigm of strategic fit (which is the notion that the performance of the firm may be improved through the internal co-alignment of the decisions on standardization and adaptation as well as the environmental context within which the strategy is been implemented), some other authors (Katsikeas, Samiee and Theodosiou, 2006), emphasize that external factors (macro and micro environment) are the most significant in determining the strategy to adopt.

In order for firms to operate efficiently in foreign markets, it is crucial to foresee the various conditions, when and the extent to which it must standardize or adapt the

individual elements of its marketing strategy (Alimienè and Kuvykaite, 2008). The factors that determines the decision making process of standardization and adaption of international marketing strategy are of different levels. They include the aspects of the product, company, industry branch, market and macro environment. The most crucial source of constraints to multinational firms which is also difficult to measure is the differences in culture rooted in history, values and attitudes, education, customs, religion, manners and aesthetics as well as differences in consumers taste, needs, preferences and wants, economics and legal systems of countries (Vrontis, 2003). It is essential for multinational firms to find out how they have to adjust their entire marketing strategy; how they sell and distribute their products to meet the new demands of the market. The alterations and adjustments that are made in the elements of the marketing mix and the firms marketing strategy are necessary and vital to meet local tastes, suit the needs of special market and the un-identical requirements of consumers (Harris and Attour, 2003; Koudelova and Whitelock, 2001; Cho and Cheon, 2005).

According to Vrontis and Vignali (1999), the debate on standardisation or adaptation became a topic of discussion as early as 1961, with Elinder (1961) considering the idea of standardisation or adaptation in relation to worldwide advertising. Buzzell (1968) explains that, standardisation or adaptation does not only encompass just advertising, but also, it covers the entire elements of the marketing mix. Therefore, adapting to local conditions is applicable to not only the product but also, the other elements of the marketing mix can be streamlined to suite the local or traditional preferences of consumers. According to Buzzell (1968) in past times, the dissimilarities that existed among countries led to the design of marketing plans by multinational companies strictly in accordance with the prevailing local problem. For instance, some fast food firms include local and traditional ingredients to meet the taste and preferences of consumers or the specific culture or religion. This is reference to the fact that certain food items are considered a taboo or sacred in some cultures (Asamoah, 2010).

In the view of Brown (1923) humanity possess some common attributes, therefore allowing for standardization. On the other hand, the view of Propson (1923) was that in order to appeal to divergent local markets, it was essential to use adaptation. The subsequent evidence among executives of advertising agencies showed that, there was a wide perception that adaptation was vital to achieving global success (Theophilopoulos, 1979), although others saw the use of standardization as the most appropriate approach (Ettinger, 1969; Fatt, 1967; Deschampsneufs, 1967).

Currently, the experiences of a growing number of firms indicate that there are real potential gains available for firms to take into consideration when deciding to standardize the marketing mix elements. Researchers who support the use of standardization argue that, the needs, wants and requirements of consumers does not vary across the various markets and countries. Further, they indicate that, the world is increasingly becoming similar in terms of customer and environmental requirements; therefore, irrespective of where the customer is located, they are likely

to have the same demands. Hence, standardization of the elements of the marketing mix and the creation of a single strategy for all markets assures the firm of lower costs of operations and brand consistency with customers.

As indicated by Levitt (1983) well-managed enterprises have shifted emphasis from customizing items to providing globally standardized products and services that are more advanced, functional, reliable and of low prices. Also, he argues that it is only those global companies that concentrate on the wants of everyone rather than bothering about the details of what people think they might like that eventually achieve long-term success. According to Levitt (1983) *“with the realities of globalization of markets, multinational firms operates with resolute constancy – at low relative cost – as if the entire world was a single entity; it sells the same things in the same way everywhere.”* If this is anything to go by, then international adaptation by firms and the adjusting of the products and practices in different market all over the world – at a relatively higher costs nears its end.

However, there are some other researchers who oppose the ideologies of the advocates of standardization in international business. The supporters of international adaptation argue that globalization is rather an overstatement, an ideology and an analytical concept (Ruigrok and van Tulder, 1995). In the view of Lipman (1988) the theory of standardization of marketing in itself is inadequate because not only are there evidence of cultural and other differences, but also marketing a single product in a specific or single way in all places can scare off customers, isolate employees, and blind the firm to the needs of its customers. The basis of the adaptation school of thought is that firms are subject to new set of macro environmental factors as well as different limitations like language, climate, race, topography, occupations, education, taste, and to recurrent conflicts that result from different laws, cultures, and societies (Czinkota and Ronkainen, 1998). Moreover, people from different countries speak different languages and there are differences in rules and regulations across national borders. Additionally, there are differences in factors like climate, topography, political stability, conditions in the economy, race and occupations.

The schools of thought of adaptation and standardization are sensible, logical and coherent and they highlight the advantages and benefits that accrue to multinational firms when they adopt such as an approach. However, it must be indicated that, it is impractical to extremely use either approach. The impracticality lies in the fact that the two polarized positions co-exist. It is often argued that, the two positions are not an all-or nothing proposition but rather, it is a matter of degree. The degree of heterogeneity that exists among different countries does not allow for the adoption and implementation of standardization in an absolute power (Zou and Cavusgil, 2002). On the other hand, the enormous costs involved in the adoption of the adaptation approach coupled with the benefits of standardization does not allow the extensive use of adaptation, as theoretically suggested (Vrontis, 2003). Researchers such as Vrontis (2003), Samiee, Jeong, Pae and Tai (2003) and Kanso and Nelson (2002) indicate that, there is no need for such complex views and one strategy is not

superior over another. Rather they highlight the significance and necessity of both standardization and adaptation and support the argument that both concepts should be used simultaneously depending on the prevailing market conditions.

In a study by Kanwar (1993), it was revealed that, there were differences in perceived risk across countries, therefore indicating a need for the adaptation of products and advertising. Also, Aaker, et al. (2001) study revealed there were differences in the dimensions of brand personality across countries, hence suggesting the need to adapt elements of the marketing strategy of companies. With the disparity of consumer response that are revealed in these studies, it appears that there will be contradictions in the empirical evidence of the argument for homogeneity of markets, thus violating the central assumption by Levitt's (1983) and casting doubt on the value of the standardization approach (Shoham, 1995). However, if it is assumed that the research on the homogeneity of markets is credible and supportive of the similarity of market, as some studies portray in favour of specific universals (Dawar and Parker, 1994), potentially signifying homogeneity with respect to some elements that influences international marketing strategy.

Virvilaite, Seinauskiene and Sestokiene (2011), conducted an empirical study into the relationship between standardization/adaptation of international marketing strategy and company performance. From their study, they proposed an empirical model of the relationship. The model is shown in figure 3:

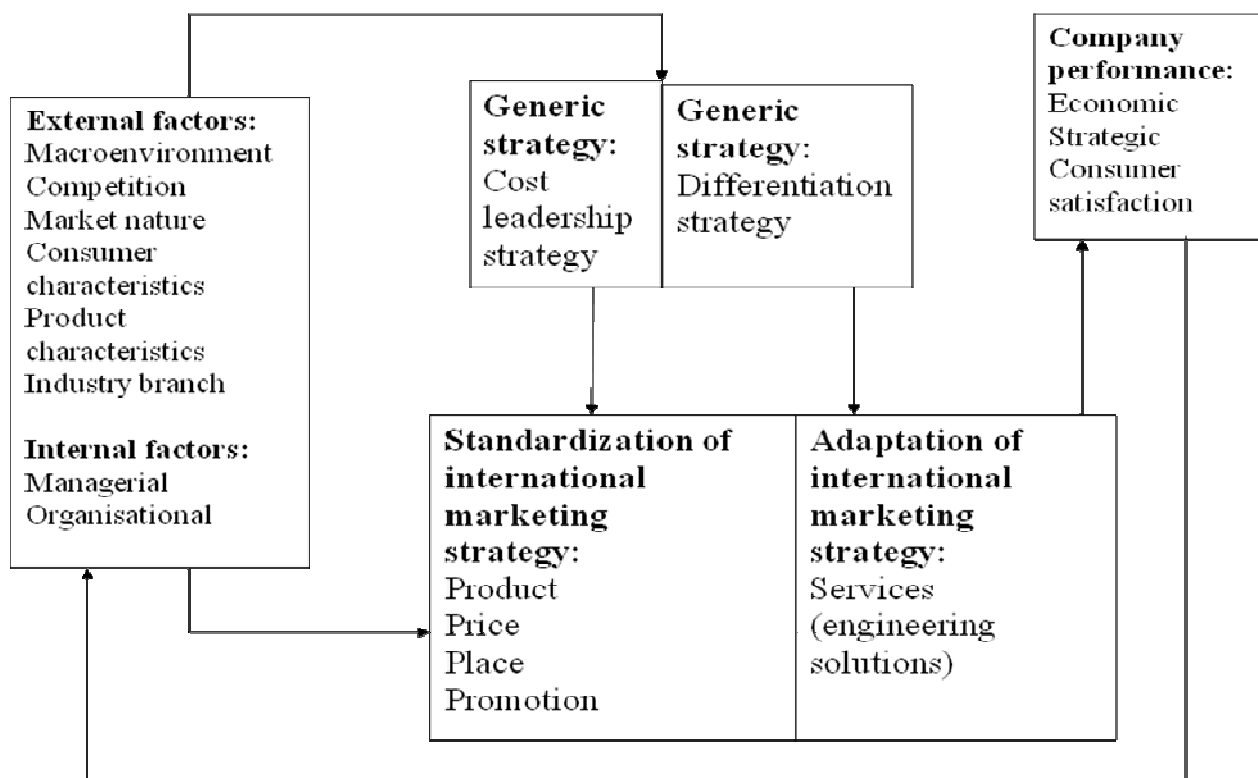


Figure 3: Empirical model of the link between standardization/adaptation of international marketing strategy and company performance

Source: Virvilaite, Seinauskiene and Sestokiene (2011)

The indicators of the internal and external factor groups in figure 3 are as follows:

Table 3: Internal and External factor group indicators

	Factor group	Detailed factors
External	Macro environment	Economic Political-legal Technological Cultural
	Competition	Intensity of competition
	Nature of the market	Marketing infrastructure (accessibility of communication and distribution channels) Occupied market share Business-to-business market Business-to-consumer market
	Consumer characteristics	Consumer behaviour Consumer purchasing power
	Product characteristics	Product type (industrial or consumer goods) Product lifecycle stage Product homogeneity level
	Industry branch	Technological intensity and progress
Internal	Managerial factors	Managerial orientation (ethnocentric, polycentric, regiocentric, geocentric) Level of coordination (level of centralisation of decision-making) Experience of the company Knowledge of the company
	Organisational factors	Size of the company Level of globalisation of the company

Source: Source: Virvilaite, Seinauskiene and Sestokiene (2011)

The theories on standardization versus adaptation borders around the perception of the homogeneity of consumers and/or the shift toward homogeneity (Samiee and Roth, 1992; Hu and Griffith, 1997; Levitt, 1983; Shoham, 1995). It is often argued that, the standardization of international marketing strategy reduces average costs because the initial cost covers a large number of markets. Theoretically, it is concluded that, the lowering of cost achieved through the standardization approach increase “*effectiveness*”. Although many researchers do not often make arguments on the basis of cost reduction of the standardization approach, the theoretical foundation of economies of scale (derived from literature on economics), question the capability of translating the notion of cost saving into effectiveness (within the context of marketing strategy domain and the performance standards conceptualization).

Many fast food firms use the standardization production and marketing strategies in their operations. However, there are menu items that are prepared not only to suit local tastes and preferences but also to offer consumers more variety to enable them make a choice. Globally, large fast food franchises have menu items that are written in two or more different languages at their outlets to facilitate quick understanding of tourist. Some menu items and drinks that are offered in one country may not available another country though the fast food brand is the same. Strong Islamic nations do not eat pork hence; it is inappropriate to use such ingredients in fast food preparation. Burgers in India are prepared with mutton to make them more acceptable to consumer's cultural and religious orientations. In Hong Kong, soups' are offered in fast food operations. The sizes of cups for drinks in Mc Donald's outlets are much smaller in countries in Asia and there is no opportunity for refill. The differentiation in products is to suit the needs of consumers.

If the standardization of marketing strategy does not yield value to the target market, there will be a less likelihood of an increment in sales. Furthermore, if the marketing strategy is not able to increase sales (or achieve a desired response, which is usually to stimulate sales though there may be an existence of other alternatives), the investment that are made into the standardized marketing strategy inefficiently uses the valuable resources of firm. Alternatively, those who are in support of the adaptation approach argue that international marketing strategy that meets the needs, preferences and wants of the local consumer tends to be more effective (James and Hill, 1991; Harvey, 1993).

4.4 Mass customisation in the fast food industry

One of the foremost proponents of the concept of mass customization is Pine (1993), who referred to it as "*the production and distribution of customized goods and services on a mass basis.*" Pine (1993) described the changes that occur in consumer markets as turbulent, often characterized by product consciousness, heterogeneous desires, unstable levels of demand, increased buyer power, and the intensity of competition. The concept of mass production has dominated the field of industrial production since World War II. Mass production was the driving force of the industrial revolution and it has been behind the growth of many economies in the twentieth century. Mass customization is a hybrid technique that enables firms to bring out products or services in a typical assembly-line fashion and at the same time adding unique features to individual orders (Falkenberg, 1998). In order for it to work effectively, the manufacturing system must be flexible to anticipate a wide range of options that meet consumers' needs.

Pine (1993) explained that "*the concept of mass customization of foods is when food menus are assembled from a wide range of available mass-produced, pre-fabricated components in order to satisfy the particular needs of individual customers.*" The individual aspects that are considered in mass customization include: the importance of the sensory and functional properties as two distinct drivers; the involvement of the consumers in the designing of the final product;

mass customization drivers (example differences in individual tastes and preferences, individual health needs) that are relevant in the food industry; mass customization of food for health reasons and the management of body weight; and development of point of sale for individualized foods to cater for the health needs and sensory preferences of convenience food.

Within the context of mass customization in the food service industry is what is commonly known as “*made-for-me*” concept. According to the Restaurant & Institutions (R&I) (2008) in the U.S, it was reported by fast food service operators that, 51% of consumers were more interested in “*create-your-own*” or “*have-it-your-way*” and “*mix-and-match*” menus, than they were some years ago. Mass customization as a business strategy encourages customers to play an active role in determining their experiences which creates a valuable dialogue between consumers and the firm. The dialogue is valuable in the sense that, it provides feedback that is necessary for developing viable marketing strategies.

Lately, due to the shift in the demographics and changing taste and preferences of consumer, the use of mass production for markets is not enough to keep businesses running effectively. Presently, firms all over the world are facing tremendous pressure from consumers and rival firms to change in order to stay ahead in the competitive business environment. Business enterprises that are able to respond quickly and properly to changing trends are those that succeed in mastering and dominating new frontiers in business competition. Such firms are able to find that not only can higher quality yield lower costs, but also, it can achieve greater variety. Pine (1993) indicated that: “*Customers can no longer be lumped together in a huge homogeneous market, but are individuals whose individual wants and needs can be ascertained and fulfilled. Reducing life-cycles and fragmenting demand can yield powerful advantages. Leading companies have created processes for low-cost, volume production of great variety, and even for individually customized goods and services. They have discovered the new frontier in business competition: Mass Customization*” (p.6-7).

The use of mass customization is neither an easy strategy for firms to implement or adopt organizationally and operationally, nor is it a simplified concept to grasp. Hart (1995) categorized the concept of mass customization into two. The categories are done in terms of the vision and practice orientation of the firm:

- Visionary definition: This has to do with the ability of the firm to offer customers with whatever they want profitably, anytime, anywhere and anyway they want it.
- Practical definition: This is when the firm uses flexible processes and organizational structures to produce various and usually individually customized products and services at the low cost of a standardized and a mass production system.

According to Hart (1995), the aim of the visionary definition is rarely achieved by firms because it is considered to be transcendent and an absolute idea that exists only as an ideal but not a real occurrence. The goal of the practical definition is not

the promise of “*anything-at-any-time*” given by the visionary definition (Hart, 1995). Rather, it has to do with “*ascertaining, from the perspective of the customer, the range within which a product or service can be customized (i.e. differentiated) meaningfully, and then to facilitate the customer's choice of options from within that range*” (Hart, 1995). Further, Hart (1995) indicates that the goal of producing fully or partially tailor-made products and services in accordance with the desires of the customer, with very short cycle times and mass production efficiencies, is realizable than what the visionary definition offers.

The immense differences in the taste and preferences of consumers can make mass customization produce unnecessary cost and operational complexities. Hence, it is important for managers to thoroughly examine the kind of customization that is valuable not only to their customers but also to the firm as a whole before they adopt this strategy. Mass Customization strategy gives marketers the opportunity to build a strong relationship with customers, which may be translated into customer satisfaction, increase in transactions, and higher profits and market share in the long-run. The disadvantage of mass customization has to do with the changes and interruptions in production (reconfiguring production equipments) and new investment in productions systems that may be required (The Economist, 2001). There may also be disruptions in existing channel relationships and, like other direct marketing arrangements, there may be delays between customer ordering, delivery and consumption. Agrawal, Kumaresh and Mercer (2001) caution that, mass customization may not be feasible for all products, and it requires such massive changes and investment that the risk may not be worth it.

Mass customization is all about personalization and making customers *feel* special. Visiting a fast food outlet with the knowledge that someone is making a dish especially for the customer creates a special feeling. With multiple menu options to make a choice, customers will not only get what they want, but also it is unlikely that they will get bored with the menu. From the firm’s perspective, a delighted customer is likely to repeat purchase and become loyal to the brand. This is what increases the firm’s profits and market share. It also sets the firm apart and makes them different from their competitors. Mass customization in the fast food industry focuses on the creation by individuals, thus what is known as “*have-it-your-way*” rather than standardized products or mass production approach (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b). Mass customization was first introduced into the fast food delivery process by Burger King in the United States. Burger King first embraced the principles of mass customization with the advertising slogan “*Have it your way!*” and “*Sometimes you've gotta break the rules!*” This recent interest and consideration of mass customization in the fast food industry has proven that fast food, does not necessarily have to be produced on a mass basis. The website of Burger King makes it possible for customers to customize their fast food products and they pick up the final product either at the premises of the outlet or have it delivered to them. An example of a customized food from the website of Burger

King indicating the total number of calories, the nutritional content and the allergies is shown in appendix K.

The need for customization in the fast food industry was driven by three main factors. These are:

- *The distinctiveness of the individual in an increasingly crowded world:* This driver of consumer behaviour is increasingly recognised in a number of consumer products. Customers want a wide variety of ingredients in order to make their preferred choice of food items. For example, in the fast food industry, emphasis is placed on the empowerment of the office worker to save time by offering them with food with less preparation and waiting time at convenient locations.
- *Individual taste and experiential preferences:* In the same culture, an individual may opt for more or less of one particular ingredient on his or her meal. It usually occurs at both the micro and macro level. At the macro level, consumers are able to choose the ingredients that suite their taste and preference and at the micro level, consumers are offered with different sets of food items that are made from various ingredients and they are able to select one food option that meets their taste and preference (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b). The food preference of consumers varies considerably, hence, it is necessary for fast food firms to customize their menu items to suite the demands of consumers and satisfy them accordingly (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b).
- *Individual health needs:* Finally, there has been increasing awareness in the consumption of healthy food. Emphasis has been laid on the interaction between the consumption of different food products and health. Many consumers are interested in the effect of consuming fast food on their health (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b). They are mostly interested in reducing the amount of calories in food. Mass production strategy of fast food may not be suitable for firms that operate in markets where consumers place a high priority on their health. For health reasons, such consumers would rather prefer food items that are customized.

The customisation of food has been widespread, although not widely recognised in many cultures. Mass customization has been seen in the fast food industry for products such as pizzas, sandwiches and hamburgers. In all these cases, the ingredients are assembled in accordance with the individual preference of the consumer to make their selection. The strategy is aimed at providing consumers with products that meet their varied taste and preferences. Some mass customization methods that are used in the fast food industry cannot be described as true mass customisation although they are similar to mass customization practices. True mass customization in the fast food industry has to do more with individual creation of food items than with a designed production approach. The most important aspect the philosophy of mass customisation is the involvement of the customer in the pre-production of the final product.

The decision by fast food firms to pursue mass customization strategy is determined by certain factors. The decisive factors according to Hart (1995) are:

- Customer sensitivity. The degree of customer sensitivity determines whether any marketing strategy will be viable or not. The firm must find out if their customers care whether they offer more customized products or not. If the answer to this is no, then the potential advantages that the firm stands to reap from its implementation will be limited.
- Process amenability. This is a multifaceted area. It requires the firm's ability to access its operational or production processes to know the areas that allow for the customization of products or services. The process aspect demands an extensive or limited overhaul of the firm's operations to incorporate all technology or material and financial resources that are needed for the implementation of the customization strategy. An additional aspect of the process amenability is in the area of marketing. Because the goal of mass customization is to bring out products or services tailored to individual customers, it is important for the firm to access its marketing department to know their level of knowledge regarding customer needs and their capacity to analyze such information. Also, the firm has to access its ability to translate customers' needs into actual specifications at the product design stage. Finally, it is essential for the firm to consider production and distribution systems. This depends on the form and nature of product or service as well as the flexibility of the production system.
- Competitive environment. In assessing the competitive environment, it is important to focus on the competitive forces in the market that would augment or detract the advantage the firm can gain from the implementation of mass customization. In doing this, the firm must take certain factors into consideration. Firstly, the firm needs to analyze whether they will be the first in the market with a mass-customized product. Secondly, the firm must predict the duration it will take for competitors to react. Finally, the firm must take into consideration the reaction of not just their customers, but also the reaction of competitors' customers.
- Organizational readiness. This is an honest assessment by the enterprise on their preparedness for customization of food products given their corporate culture and resources. Here, it is important for the firm to assess if they are ready to take advantage of the opportunity inherent in mass customization. A change in the business process of any organization demands an enlightened leadership, open-minded management, and financial resources. Therefore, mass customization strategy is unique to any firm that develops and implements it. In the development and implementation of mass customization, firms must be aware that, the strategy that works for one firm may not work for another company. Sometimes, it might work for a firm in a particular country, but may not work in a foreign country due to the cultural orientations of consumers in the market.

In a study by Gilmore and Pine (1997), they identified four distinct forms to mass customization. They are collaborative, adaptive, cosmetic, and transparent. They indicated that a firm must choose an appropriate mix from the four approaches to design or redesign their product, process, or business unit. The four approaches to mass customization are:

- Collaborative customization: There are three steps that are followed in this approach. Firstly, the firm must conduct a dialogue with individual customers to enable them articulate their needs. Secondly, the firm must precisely identify the offer that fulfils and delights customers. Thirdly, the firm must proceed to produce the customized products for them. The collaborative approach to customization is mostly suitable for enterprises whose customers are not able to easily articulate their want and become frustrated when they are forced to choose from an abundance of options. Collaborative customization changes the product and some aspect of its presentation.
- Adaptive customization: In the adaptive form of customization, the firm offers one standard, but customizable, product that is designed in a way that those who use them can modify it themselves. The firm can also modify the products at the request of the customers. This customization approach is suitable for firms with customers who want products that perform in diverse ways on different occasions. This approach is not suitable for the fast food industry. It is applicable to technology products that give room for customers to customize the product on their own.
- Cosmetic customization: Here, a standard product is marketed differently to different customers. This approach is suitable in cases when customers utilize a product in similar ways but differ only in how they want it presented. In this case the firm offers a standard product but packaged differently for each customer.
- Transparent customization: The transparent customization is used when it is easy to predict and deduce customers' needs. It is especially applicable in situations where customers do not want to repeatedly state their needs. The products that are offered are customized and placed in a standard package for each customer. Here, marketers provide consumers with unique products, although the consumers may not be aware that the product has been customized for them.

What is commonly observed in the global fast food industry is the mass production systems, which are built by firms on the belief that, consumers prefer and accept homogeneous products. Such an acceptance tends to facilitate market growth and reduces prices through economies of scale. This eventually results in a greater price gap between mass-produced goods and that of customized goods. Just like other mass producers in other industries, there is a gradual shift in the fast food industry from the old paradigm of mass production (Royle, 1995). The adoption of mass customization demands radical changes that requires paradigm shift in output variety, rapid development and adaptation of production cycles, process innovations,

flexibility, autonomy, and the adoption of a true customer focus approach to operations of the enterprise (Crawford-Welch, 1994; Pine, 1993).

4.5 The emergence of fast food industry in the Czech Republic

The fall of communism saw an unimaginable appearance of variety of food and drink on the shelves of many shops and restaurants in the Czech Republic. The end of communism made it possible for people to buy and consume food items from different countries due to the liberalization of the business environment and the consequent entrance of firms from other countries into the Czech market. Lately, due to the increasing trends in the entrance of Western fast food culture, the consumption of fast food has increased rapidly. Nowadays, a number of reputable international fast food chains have sprung up in many cities in the country. The fast food industries have turned into an independent market as part of the economic system of the Czech Republic.

The proliferation of western lifestyle - including the fast-food culture – has increased as branches of international fast food brands continue to spring up. Some analyst of the fast food industry in the Czech Republic have predicted a further expansion of international fast food chains and local firms, with some new entrants and already existing firm's expanding to other cities within the country. Consumers in the Czech Republic have shown an increase demand for high quality food services. They mostly spend more of their food budget on out-of-home food. The increase in spending of consumers on fast food has been partly attributed to the special lunch menus offered at advantageous prices and discount meal vouchers and coupons.

In the year 2001, it was reported that 4.7% of disposable income are spent on gastronomic service and the figure increased to 6.5 % in 2010. A major factor that has resulted in this increasing trend is the acceleration of the pace of life as more and more people work more intensively, hence, having less time to eat let alone to prepare their own food. Today, the consumption of fast food has become part of the eating habits of many Czech people and it has become indispensable and a necessity for many. The irony is that, in a few years back, eating away from home was considered by many Czech people as a senseless waste of money.

The fast food industry in Czech Republic has shown resilience in many turbulent times. In a country briefing by Euromonitor international in September 2010, it was stated that in the Czech Republic *“fast food restaurants were successful in showing sales growth under the unstable economic situation and weaker purchasing power of Czech consumers. With their quick meal items and wider choices of healthy meals for good prices, they enticed away some consumers from full-service restaurants.”* Most of the fast food firms respond to economic recession by introducing meals that are relatively cheaper to meet consumers' income levels. Some of them introduced snack-size menu items to meet the demands of consumers who want to save.

In a report by Euromonitor International in September 2010 on the trends in the fast food industry in the Czech Republic between period of 2004 and 2009, it was revealed that:

- a. There was an increase in the trends towards health and wellness as fast food outlets included more vegetables in food, more salads, fruit meals, juices, decaffeinated coffee and sandwiches and other healthy food supplements.
- b. Most of the leading fast food players in the market introduced breakfast menu while others like KFC and McDonalds increased the food items on their menu.
- c. Fast food firms especially KFC and McDonalds laid a lot of emphasis on children by building playing grounds for children and including menu items especially for children.

4.6 Competitive environment in the Czech Republic

The foreign fast food brands in the Czech Republic usually establish their outlets on franchising basis. This franchising concept is practical because consumers (both local and expatriates) have preference for these foreign brands. The sufficient returns that accrue to both the franchise and franchisee have made other players to start implementing this form of business arrangement. For example, Ceske Drahy (thus Czech Railways), have started renovating its foodservice at train stations on the franchising principle.

There is competition observed among different categories of fast food firms in the Czech Republic. There are a lot of fast food outlets in the Czech Republic operating under different brand names. Currently, there are various fast food outlets of domestic and foreign origins and with domestic or foreign capital with different sizes operating in the fast food industry. However, a substantial part of the industry players are small independent entrepreneurs owning outlets with up to 20 employees. The two main global franchise brands that dominate the fast food industry are McDonald's owned by McDonald's CR sro and KFC owned by AmRest sro. AmRest sro are franchisees and they also operate other brands like Burger King and Starbucks. Burger King entered the market in 2008 and encountered strong competitive forces, mainly from McDonald's. McDonald's is the largest fast food brand followed by KFC. Both brands command a large share of the fast food industry in the Czech Republic and they continue to increase the number of outlets yearly. There is also medium-sized fast food outlets usually selling food items associated with their country of origin.

Other domestic bakery products like Paneria which is operated by Eureka Shops also has some gains in the market. In 2009, Eureka Shops opened 5 new outlets on a franchise basis. Eureka Shops offers healthy snacks and lunch food for a reasonable price and they target low-end customers. As a domestic firm, Eureka Shops has plans to expand to towns with population above 20 000 inhabitants until 2014. There are other bakery fast food chains like Subway, Bageterie Boulevard and Express Sandwich in the Czech market. With 10 outlets all over Czech Republic as at 2009,

Subway actively engages in several promotional activities because the prices of its products are relatively high for the average Czech customer. Also, in 2008 French fast food chain-The Paul opened its first outlet in Prague and it has plans to expand to other areas in the Czech Republic. There is a tendency for The Paul to be successful because Czech customers like the concept of French food. The same can be said of the healthy food concept offered by German fast food chain Mr. Clou, which provides healthy meals at moderate prices.

The domestic Czech Bilbo fast food is also found in some cities in the Czech Republic together with other small fast food outlet which are often operated by individuals and families. Such outlets do not mostly have a proper business concept. There are also fast food brands from the Asian region operating in the Czech market. Some of the brand names are Wok Food with 12 outlets, Panda with 13 outlets and Gold Chicken with 2 outlets. Also, there are fast food courts in various shopping centres. Some of them are Fontana Food Court and the Oasa Food Court. There are fast food firm associated with different countries such as Slovakia, China, Mexico, Greece, India and many others.

There are some predictions on the future prospects of the Czech fast food industry. According to Euromonitor International, the fast food industry is expected to show the following indicators:

- a. The Czech fast food industry is expected to develop at a constant rate of 4% CAGR (Compound Annual Growth Rate).
- b. Fast food chains are expected to continue to grow and perform well, but independent fast foods firms will face challenges due to lack of investment.
- c. The demands for healthy food items by consumers will continue and fast food outlets will respond by providing more vegetables and fruit in their menus.
- d. Some bakery fast food products that focus on healthy conscious customers will continue to grow rapidly. Already established companies such as Subway, Bageterie Boulevard, Paneria, The Paul, Express Sandwich have announced plans for expanding their brand through franchising.
- e. It is expected that the concept of fast food will adjust to local conditions by developing meals to suite the traditions and customs of Czech consumers.
- f. Chicken fast food will reach some point of saturation and will face competition from other fast food types. The only chicken fast food chain KFC will retain its position and make it difficult for other competitors to enter the market.
- g. New fast food firms are expected to enter the Czech market. Currently, Australian Sunshine Kebab and Polish Pizza Apetita are planning to start their franchise concepts in the Czech Republic.

4.7 The emergence of fast food industry in Ghana

The last few decades has seen a rapid expansion of the fast food industry in Ghana. This is largely as a result of the rapid increase in population in urban areas with low and middle-income levels. The fast food industry provides different

inexpensive foods for low-income households and the industry also provides job opportunities for many urban residents. In Ghana, road-side food stands have sprung along larger cities providing ready-to-eat food items. However, eating at home is still ingrained in the Ghanaian traditional culture. The increase in consumption of fast food is partly attributed to the growth in nuclear families, especially in urban Ghana. Also, the exposure to international media and foreign cuisines as well as the increase in the number of women in the labour force and the busy life schedule of young adults has all contributed to the preference for fast food.

Undoubtedly, the consumption of fast food is an urban phenomenon in Ghana. Even though about 60 % of Ghanaians are still located in the rural areas, the rate of urbanization is increasing at an alarming rate. The “*foreign*” fast food phenomenon is popular in the main capital cities of the regions with most of them in Accra the capital of Ghana, while the traditional fast food crosses the rural-urban divide. Most of the major fast food outlets in Ghana have their headquarters in Accra, and all the foreign entrants started their operations from Accra. In fact most of them are only located in Accra and they do have branches in the other parts of the country. Some food service outlets operate as fast food joints and regular restaurants. The traditional fast foods are usually prepared with local ingredients to meet the local taste, while the “*foreign*” fast food models are more diversified. The consumers in the urban areas are inclined towards the consumption of fast food similar to the Western ones due to its quick availability, accessibility and the desire of mostly the youth to fit into the emerging trend (Ajewole and Omonona 2006; Olarinde and Kuponiyi, 2005).

The “*Oxford Street*” at Osu, a suburb of Accra, Ghana is a popular location where most of the popular fast food outlets are located. During the last 3 decades, both sides of the stretch of the road were bordered by family compound houses and some middle class residential homes. The Oxford Street was popular for its night food market. The major food items that were sold were ‘*kenkey*’ and fried fish with hot ground red and black pepper, and ‘*kelewele*’ which is fried chunks of ripe plantain seasoned with a ground mixture of pepper, onions, ginger and salt. Today, Oxford Street is where most of the major fast food enterprises in Ghana are located. The street also has shops, offices and hotels, local and continental restaurants of varied sizes.

The consumption of fast food is a longstanding and well-established mode of consumption in Ghana. Fast food has emerged as an unmistakable pattern of food consumption in Ghana. Lately, there is an upsurge of different fast food restaurants of different brands and different sizes of both local and foreign origin in Ghana. These fast food brands are so conspicuous that it is easy to find their ‘colourful edifices and billboards’ on some major streets in Ghana.

Fast food in Ghana is divided into two main categories. Aside the regular fast food brands that mostly sell foreign delicacies such as hot dogs and hamburgers, there are those indigenous/traditional ranges of fast food items that are provided by some local entrepreneurs. They include food items such as “*akara*” (fried bean

cakes), “*kelewele*”, roasted plantain, roasted corn, boiled and roasted yam, fried plantain among others. However, it is difficult to describe these local food items as fast food due to the processes used in preparations although it shares most of the features of modern day fast food definition. The indigenous fast foods are sold by roving sellers who usually move about with trays on their heads, either from stalls in the local markets, or by the wayside in small rural towns and urban centres. The habit of eating out is therefore not new or strange to Ghanaians. This attitude is probably what has accounted for the success of “*foreign*” fast food outlets in Ghana as they can easily permeate into the already existing patterns of consumption. In Ghana, fast food is popularly known as “*check-check*.” The origin of this term is unclear.

In Ghana, the design of fast food outlets is such that, it is possible for people to either eat at the location within a relatively short period of time or “*take away*”, to anywhere of their choice. Some of the food items that are found on the menus of fast food outlets in Ghana include pies, chicken of all sorts, fried rice, jollof rice, doughnuts, salads, hot dogs, fish rolls, amongst other foreign delicacies. Lately, some foreign fast food brands have started introducing local dishes and ingredients into their menu to satisfy those consumers who may wish to have a flavour of their traditional delicacies.

Usually, fast food purchases are high during festive seasons such as Valentine’s Day, Christmas and any other public holiday. The usual practice is that, as soon as a fast food outlet opens, it is accompanied by aggressive advertisement both at the outlet and on the mass media and mouth-watering promotions are rolled out with the intention of attracting customers into their outlets. Offers like “*free meals for the first 50 customers*”, “*buy one-get-one-free*”, “*buy a specific quantity and get a raffle ticket or discount*” or “*buy and win an instant prizes*” are usually common marketing practices. During festive seasons like Christmas, valentine and public holidays, promotions and advertisements of fast food brands are very popular.

4.8 Competitive environment in Ghana

The competition in the fast food industry in Ghana just like anywhere else is keen. The entrance of many global brands and the continuous emergence of local brands have intensified the level of competition among the brands. With the competition, strong brands capitalize on the weaknesses of others. Players in the fast food industry capitalize on every opportunity to capture the market. There are some prominent international fast food brands that have made incursions into the Ghanaian market. They include Chicken Lickin, Frankies, PAPAYE, Chicken Republic, Mr. Bigg's among others. The latest addition to the fast food industry in Ghana is KFC.

The modern fast food concept in Ghana is modelled after global brands like McDonald's although some of the products that are offered differ. The colourful edifices, especially for the large and medium-sized firms and rapid spread make it easy to identify them in major cities of the country. The “*foreign*” fast food brands

are mainly popular in the urban areas because they are concentrated in these areas. In Ghana, it is common to see several fast food brands of various sizes concentrated in particular location, especially in commercial areas where a lot of people are located. There is a high level of localization of industry and economies of scale observed in the fast food industry in Ghana, and firms usually associate themselves with such economic arrangement to benefit from the advantages that comes with it.

There are prospects of further growth beyond what is currently been observed in the country. Due to the macroeconomic stability of Ghana, it is expected that many more global brands will enter into the country and more local operations are also expected to take up a share of the market. The macroeconomic indicators that the country is experiencing make it a suitable hub for the establishment of fast food enterprises of different sizes and different forms. Not only is it expected to see a lot of foreign entrants in the industry, but also, local fast food outlets are expected to take-off. This does not only apply to the fast food industry as other sectors of the economy are experiencing similar growth trends.

5. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

5.1 Theoretical foundations

The conceptual framework for this research is made up of two relevant theories, and hypotheses are formulated based on the framework. The conceptual framework examines the interrelationship between the marketing mix theory and the categorization of culture of countries as developed by Geert Hofstede and elaborated by Mariake de Mooij. These theories are put together to form an analytical framework in relation to consumers (with respect to age and sex) for the purposes of hypothesis testing. The theoretical concepts were used to explain how consumers behave towards fast food brands in both the Czech Republic and Ghana.

Although the theory of Hofstede was used in a work-related context and the framework was initially applied to human resources management, it has been used extensively in studies in other business and marketing disciplines (Sondergaard, 1994; Sivakumar and Nakata, 2001; Engel, et al., 1995; Dawer, Parker and Price, 1996; Milner, Fodness and Speece, 1993). The dimensions of culture by Hofstede have been used as a conceptual framework to support hypothesis for comparing cultures. The consumer behaviour are analysed with the cultural dimensions and the marketing mix concepts of price, place, promotion, product, process, people and physical evidence. The marketing mix provides the building blocks around which branding revolves and it forms the basis for the development of appropriate strategies for branding in any business sector or industry (Kotler, 2011) and the fast food industry is not an exception.

5.2 The marketing mix concept

The first part of the theoretical framework examines the marketing mix concept. Kotler (2001) mentioned that social-culture would influence the choice of marketing mix from many aspects. Different components of culture, such as values, languages and buyer behaviours impacts on the marketing decision of multinational companies in different ways. Equally, the marketing mix concepts can have a direct influence on the behaviour of consumers. According to Kotler (2001) "*The marketing mix represent the sellers view of the marketing tools available for influencing buyers, and each marketing tool is designed to deliver a customer benefit.*" From the point of view of Kotler (2001), a company which seeks to obtain favourable response in the market should be able to meet customer needs economically, conveniently and with effective communication; and the buying behaviour of consumer's are largely influenced by cultural, social, personal and psychological factors.

Blackwel, Minniard and Engel (2001) provided some factors that must be taken into consideration when analyzing consumer behaviour in international markets. The factors includes determining the relevant motivations in the culture, the characteristic behaviour patterns, and determination of what broad cultural values are relevant to particular product, the characteristic forms of decision making,

evaluating promotion methods appropriate to the culture, and determining appropriate strategies for placing the product in the minds of consumers. The marketing mix serves as an analytical tool, which tends to guide enterprises when taking decisions on the strategic direction in markets they operate.

Furthermore, the marketing mix can be adjusted frequently to meet the changing needs of the market segments of interest, and the other dynamics that prevails in the marketing environment (Barlon, 2006). According to CIM (2009), success in marketing and branding strategies of an enterprise depends on the ability to adequately address a number of key issues. These include: what the firm is going to produce, how much it is going to charge, how it is going to deliver its products or services to customers and how it is going to tell its customers about the products and services (CIM, 2009). Traditionally, the basic marketing mix includes price, product, place and promotion. This is what is commonly referred to as the 4Ps of marketing. However, based on the criticisms of the 4Ps, marketers have made further extensions to include other elements like people, process and physical evidence mainly for service based industries like the fast food industry. The significance of the marketing mix can also be seen from the point of view of customers and organizations. The table below provides the perspectives and meaning of the marketing mix for organizations and customers.

Table 4: Organizational and customers perspective of the marketing mix

Organizations perspective	Customers perspective
Price	Cost
Product	Customer value
Place	Convenience
Promotion	Communication
People	Consideration
Process	Co-ordination/efficiency
Physical evidence	Confirmation/authenticity

Source: Authors compilation (adapted from Kotler, 2011).

The marketing mix is relevant in all form of businesses where the desire to meet the needs of customers is given a priority (Kotler, 2011). The marketing mix is described in the following sections.

5.2.1 Price

Price within the marketing mix refers to the value a customer is prepared to pay in exchange for the ownership of a product, or receiving a service. According to Ackerman and Tellis (2001), there are significantly differences between price sensitivity and the importance of the status of buyers between cultures. McDonald and Sharp (2000) indicates that, consumers may use prices as a reason for choosing a brand. This can be done in two ways; either by going for the lowest price in order to escape financial risk or the highest price in order to achieve product quality. The

price that firms charge for their products are determined by factors such as market share, material costs, competition, product identity and the customer's perceived value of the product.

Söderlund (2000) indicate that, price, place and brand are three factors that consumers consider as important determinant when making decisions to buy everyday product. The worth of a product is determined by what buyers are willing to pay for it. The price that is charged for a product must be competitive enough to continue to attract purchases. However, competitive pricing does not necessarily mean having the cheapest price on the market, but rather been able to offer better value for customer's money. For small businesses especially in the fast food industry, it may also mean adding extra services or relevant details that will offer value in order to compete with large scale businesses (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b). The price that the firm sets for its products and services must also yield some profits to the firm. The price is the only part of the marketing mix that generates revenue to the firm; hence, it is important to the survival of the firm (CIM, 2009). The other aspect of the marketing mix generates cost.

Theoretically, the price is determined by the discovery of what the perception of customers is regarding the value of an item on sale. It is therefore important for firms to understand consumers' opinions about pricing so as to incorporate them in their marketing mix strategies. This is important because, it indicates the value they place on the product or brand and the amount of money consumers want to pay for it. The price a firm charges for its objectives must be consistent with the overall business strategy. Therefore, in setting prices for products and services, the firm may have to consider factors like such as customers, business objectives, competitors and the cost to the firm. There are several pricing strategies that are used by firms. Notable among them are price skimming, price penetration, premium pricing, seasonal pricing among others.

5.2.2 Product

Product refers to the tangible object, or an intangible service, that is customized (mass customization) or mass produced on a large scale with a specific volume of units (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b). For many buyers, the product is the tangible or a physical entity that they see when they are making purchases. However, there are intangible aspects of the product element of the marketing mix. The intangible products refer to those offered by service-based firms. According to Uggla (2001), product quality is an essential part of brand identity. Product development aims at satisfying customer needs and wants. Product development goes together with specific brands. Consequently, most products are associated with a brand – a name, design, sign or symbol that facilitates its differentiation from products offered by competitors. De Mooij (2003) indicates that managers of firms should offer appropriate products in accordance with the values and buying behaviour of consumer as determined by their local culture in a certain market. De

Mooij (2003) indicates that, this is one of the important factors that consumers consider important when making their choice of brand.

Products that are offered by firms can be a useful tool for developing tactical strategies. A firm can expand its product range or extend their brand for tactical reasons, such as, matching existing competition or to curb the risk associated with seasonal fluctuations. The product could also be customized to suite specific needs of individuals as a way of gaining competitive advantage. Alternatively, the firm may reposition its product in order to increase its acceptability among a new group of customers either in the same market or an international market.

An important aspect of the product is the packaging. The packaging refers to the designing of the cover of the product. As indicated by Kotler, Armstrong, Saunder and Wong (1999), packaging acts as a means of advertisement. This is mainly because, it performs a sales duty by making the product attractive to buyers whiles at the same time describing and selling the product in the process. The product element of the marketing mix considers elements such as the product range; the design and quality; the features and the benefits it provides for buyers; sizing and packaging; and other additional guarantees and customer service offerings (Clarity Marketing, 2005).

The products must be customer centred, meaning that, it must be developed with the customer in mind for it to be meaningful and yield the necessary impact in terms of competitiveness, hence, it must be the cardinal point around which the marketing energy of the firm must be directed. The nature of products can be explored in three main categories namely, the *core* product, the *actual* product, and finally the *augmented* product, also known as the 'Three Levels of a Product.' The core product is the most basic and it represents the benefits for buying a product by consumers. The *actual* product has to do with the tangible or the physical product whiles the *augmented* product refers to the non-physical component of the product. The augmented product is made up of the numerous added value benefits for which the customer may or may not pay a premium.

5.2.3 Place (distribution channels)

Distribution is a major business and marketing consideration for enterprises. The distribution channel provides the means through which the firm delivers its products or services to its customers and receives payment in exchange. The participants in the distribution channel include manufacturers, wholesalers (distributors), retailers and the eventual consumers. In the distribution channel, the interconnected intermediaries such as wholesalers, distributors, agents, retailers serve as a link between the manufacturers and the consumers.

The place aspect of the marketing mix refers to the location where a product can be purchased. It is often referred to as the distribution channel and it puts products at outlets that are convenient for consumers. The business dictionary explains that, distribution channel is the “*the path through which goods and services flow in one*

*direction (from vendor to the consumer), and the payments generated by them that flow in the opposite direction (from consumer to the vendor).”*¹

Lin and Chang (2003) indicate that convenience of a brand is an integral aspect of the branding strategy and it significantly affects the response of consumers. It implies that, the ease with which consumers can access a brand/product in a shop or outlet is important when buying low involvement products such as fast foods. Therefore, the choice of such channels is important, as is the variety of channels used by the company. In international business today, most firms use intermediaries (in the form of franchise, license, joint venture etc.) to bring their products or service to the market. In the fast food industry, there are several franchisors' and franchisees' with the latter acting as an intermediary of the former. There are also small firms offering various products and providing services in different location. There are other firms that operate from mobile vans from place to place to reach their customers. Hence, place also involves the all the means of transportation and storage of products and services, and making them accessible for the customer.

5.2.4 Promotion

Within the context of the marketing mix, promotion represents all forms of communication that a marketer may use in the marketplace. The essence of promotion is to convey information about the product or service with the goal of generating a favourable customer response. Having good products sold at attractive prices in the market is not enough to ensure equity in a competitive market. In order to generate sales and profits, the benefits of products have to be communicated to customers, and this can be done through the promotion strategies of the firm. Aaker (1991) stated that *“if advertising, promotion and packaging embrace a regular positioning strategy over a period of time, there is the tendency that the brand will be strong”*. A promotional plan can have tremendous impact on an enterprise. This includes increases in sales, acceptance of new product or services, the creation of brand equity, brand positioning, competitive retaliations, or creation the corporate image of the firm (Kurtz, 2010)

Kotler, et al. (1999) explains that, other people's influences play an important role in the decision making process of consumers. Consumers in especially collectivist cultures have the habit of consulting other people regarding a new product or brand before they make their buying decision. Depending on a consumer's cultural orientation, the advice from other people may affect their buying behaviour. Third party or word of mouth recommendations are secondary gains that arise from successful promotion. However, the extent of such as effect depends on the situation or individual. The main aim of advertisement is to create awareness. Advertisement is a more noticeable form of marketing communication. There are several mediums

¹ The business dictionary. Available at <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/distribution-channel.html>

that can be used in advertising for the purpose of reaching and communication to consumers. They include television, cinema, radio, bill board among others.

Promotion in its simplest term refers to the activities involved in communicating with customers. It provides the relevant information that will assist them in their decision to purchase a product or service. For a firm, the initial cost associated with marketing communication often represents a substantial proportion of the overall cost of producing an item. However, a carefully planned communication increases sales in both the short and long term, hence, the initial cost are spread over a larger output. Although, increased promotional activity in the fast food industry is often a sign of a response to a problem such as competitive activity, it enables an enterprise to develop and build up a succession of messages and can be extremely cost-effective. Usually, promotion as an element of the marketing mix is what often referred to as 'marketing' is. However, there are different promotional techniques, with each having its own strengths. They are divided into four broad categories namely Advertising; Public Relations; Sales Promotions; and Direct Selling, also known as the holistic marketing communication. The holistic marketing communications program of an enterprise is called the promotional mix and it is a blend of advertising, personal selling, sales promotion and public relations tools. These techniques are the main tools that are used by firms to communicate the specific benefits of their products and services to customers.

Promotion can be categorized into two: Above-the-line promotion and Below-the-line promotion. Above-the-line promotion is paid for and it refers to the usual traditional mediums such as television, radio and the press. Such mediums are useful for carrying marketing messages to a large group of audience. On the other hand, below-the-line promotion can take various forms and is usually more under the control of the firm. With the introduction of the internet, direct mails have also been made part of the below-the-line form of promotion. Special events that are organized both within and outside the firm also contributes to the promotion. The most common below the line form of promotion that are used by fast food firms are door-to-door leaflet drops or books of vouchers or discount cards which give customers discounts over a period of time. This promotion technique enables the firm to attract customer's whiles at the same time establishing brand loyalty so the consumer return to buy again. Such leaflets and vouchers do not only allow the firm to communicate directly with and listen to consumers, but also, it enables them to collect important information, for instance, about their taste and preferences, lifestyles and product or service choices. This is used for feedback, research and promotion purposes. Another aspect of the communication mix is Public Relations (PR). Public Relations focus on the development of goodwill and understanding between the firm and the public. Public relations are often associated with the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) initiatives that firms adopt in the market they operate.

5.2.5 People

The impact that employees of a firm can have on branding cannot be underestimated. At its most obvious, the people element covers front line sales and customer service staff that have a direct impact on how the product and services rendered is perceived. The branding of employee forms an integral aspect of internal marketing. Internal marketing involves the knowledge and skills of staff; their motivation and investment in supporting the brand. The elements of the marketing mix to a large extent have an impact on other elements. However, the people element is regarded as an essential part of the way the business is done (Clarity Marketing, 2005).

In the past, the traditionally marketing equation limited to only two parties, *the firm* and *its customer*. Modern approaches to marketing broadens this to include other stakeholders like directors, shareholders, employees, suppliers, partners, the press, independent market analysts and the general public. All these stakeholders must be adequately incorporated in the delivering of a compelling customer experience. This is because, these stakeholders provide an opportunity for the firm to provide a *rich message* that eventually delivers optimum value to customers in the through the provision of an *experience* and not just a product.

An important aspect of the operations of any firm that renders any form of service is the use of appropriate staff and people. This is even more important in the fast food industry considering how delicate food is to a lot of people. The recruiting of right staff and providing them with an appropriate training makes the firm able to deliver a brand experience to customers. Employees are vital in the delivery service and they are also essential if the firm wants to obtain a formidable competitive advantage. Research has shown that consumers tend to make judgments and also form perceptions of the service delivery based on the experience they have with employees they interact with (Delgado-Ballaster and Munuera-Aleman, 2005). If the employees of the firm are constantly engaged, empowered, trained in customer service, responsive to the needs of customers and competent in the tenets of the corporate brand, then it will lead to liking, respect, trust and loyalty to the brand (Delgado-Ballaster and Munuera-Aleman, 2005; De Chernatony and Drury, 2006).

In the fast food industry, it is essential for should have the appropriate employees to have interpersonal skills, attitude, and service and brand knowledge to provide the service that consumers are paying for (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b). Employees are also important when it comes to the provision of customer service. Customer service lays at the heart of modern any modern day service industries and the fast food industry is not an exception. It is likely for customers to be loyal to enterprises that employee's serve them well than they will to enterprises that employees are rude to them (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b).

5.2.6 Process

The process aspect of the marketing mix has to do with being "*easy to do business with*". The more the product is "*high contact*" in nature and intangible, the

more it requires firms to get the processes right (Clarity Marketing, 2005). The process component of the marketing mix has to be seen from the point of view of consumers and not how it seems to the firm (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b). Within the components of the marketing mix, process is not only where and how customers will do business with the company but what added value is provided and how to develop relationships and provide an interactive experience. Process within the marketing mix comes to include not only how to promote and deliver the value created but also how to educate and support customers on an on-going basis.

Processes are closely associated with customer service and it is made up of a number of steps that are involved in making marketing effective in an enterprise. In the fast food industry, it involves all the strategies established for handling customer complaints, processes for identifying customer needs and requirements, processes for handling customer orders among others. The assessment of the process must be seen through the eyes of the consumer and not how it seems to the firm (Chovancová, et al, 2010).

Process includes all the systems that are put in place and are used by the firm to deliver services to its customers. In developing and implementing services within the process aspects of the marketing mix, it is important for the firm to find what added value it can provide and how it can develop relationships and provide an interactive experience with their customers. Hence, process is not only *where* and *how* customers will patronize the services of the firm. The advent of the internet as a means of doing business has led to an explosion and exponential growth in new ways of executing services to customers in many industries and the fast food industry is no exception. The internet has also impacted on the delivery of fast food products and services and it has completed the process aspect of the marketing.

Lately, both online and offline processes have been used to deliver standardized (mass production) and customized (mass customization) products. In order for firms to be successful, they must be abreast with modern trends and interact with customers through different methods. Therefore, process involves how the firm is able to create, promote and deliver value for the customer, provide service and support that yields satisfaction and convenience as well rewarding and educating consumers on an on-going basis to provide them with a compelling experience (Chovancová, et al, 2010).

5.2.7 Physical Evidence

The physical evidence component of the marketing mix refers to the tangible, visible touch points that are encountered by customers before they buy (Clarity Marketing, 2005). Physical evidence has to do with the various elements that are visible to customers before purchasing. It is made up of things such the clothing of employees and the images that are included in the corporate brochure of the firm. When individuals enter fast food outlets, they often expect a clean, friendly environment. Firms that offer tangible goods are able to give customers the opportunity to “*try before they buy*”, or at least see, touch or smell the product on

offer. With services, unless they offer a free trial, the customer will often buy based on trust, and to help them do so the firm needs to provide as much evidence of the quality they will be providing as much as possible. Hence, physical evidence aspect of the marketing mix refers to all the various tangible or visible touch points that are encountered by customers before they buy from the fast food outlet.

Lately, consumers typically come into contact with the preparation of fast food, hence, they expect a high level of presentation of the way food items are prepared. Consumers of fast food products do not only need to easily find their way around the outlet, but also, they often expect good standards of operations and the process of delivery of food. The quality of the physical layout of the firm is important in both product-based and service-based firms. It must be indicated that, the physical layout is not only about the physical outlet of the firm but it also includes the layout and structure of virtual outlets and websites of the firm.

The physical evidence aspect of the marketing mix encompasses the physical environment of the outlet as well as the looks of the product. Fast food firms do not only sell products but also render service in the process. Hence, the physical evidence is relevant in this regard. The physical evidence as one an aspect of the marketing mix is relevant in service marketing and promoting intangible products. Apart from producing food items, fast food firms also render services. The intangible nature of services means that, because customers are unable to feel and see it, the provision of supporting physical evidence is essential in adding a physical or tangible aspect to reinforce the firms' commitment to customers.

Physical evidence makes it possible to provide customers with the ability to make comprehensive judgments on the services provided by the firm. Customers usually expect to see a clean and friendly environment when they walk into a fast food outlet. Physical evidence is an essential ingredient of the service aspect of fast food enterprises. This is because consumers form perceptions based on their sight of the service that is provided and this in turn has an impact on the firms' perceptual plan for delivering the service.

5.3 Cross cultural theory

Doole and Lowe (2008) assert that, the value of culture satisfies the need for societal order, direction and guidance. Culture sets the standards that are shared by significant members of a society which in turn, set the rules for operating by firms in that society and its market. In the view of Doole and Lowe (2008) culture is not something that people get by the mere fact of been citizens of a country, or something inherent in us from birth, rather, it is something individuals learn as they grow in their immediate environment. When there are similarities in the environment, it tends to provide similar experiences and opportunities, which eventually shapes and directs behaviour (Cui and Ting, 2009). The behaviour of consumers' are culture bound in that, the decision to buy a particular product by a consumer is influenced by a number of factors, of which culture is a key factor (Hofstede, 1984).

According to De Mooij (2004) there are three elements of culture. They are values, language and consumer behaviours. The differences that exist among these elements result in the phenomenon of cross-culture (De Mooij, 2004). Some authors argue that, the work of Hofstede (1984) holds a maximum potential as a methodology for cross-cultural analysis (Doole and Lowe, 2001). Hofstede (2001) developed a five cultural dimensional model of national cultures that helps in understanding basic values. Hofstede and Usunier (1999) explain that, national cultural value systems tend to be relatively stable over time. Consequently, the element of national culture can endure for a longer period and can be carried away from generation to generation

Several researchers in the past have discussed appropriate choice of dimensions for the conceptualization and operationalizing of culture (Steenkamp, 2001; Keillor and Hult, 1999; Schwartz, 1994; Smith, Dugan and Trompenaars, 1996; Inkeles and Levinson, 1969; Hofstede, 1984, 1991). Nonetheless, Hofstede's cultural model is the most widely used in various disciplines, for example sociology, management studies and psychology (Steenkamp, 2001; Sondergaard, 1994). The dimensions of culture proposed by Hofstede have also been applied in global marketing, advertising, global branding as well as studies in consumer behaviour (De Mooij, 2004). Hofstede's model has been used in explaining differences in the concepts of self, personality and identity, which consequently explains variations in branding strategy and communications (De Mooij, 2010). Geert Hofstede introduced a five cultural dimension framework and allotted indexes on each to countries. Further, he linked the dimensions with political, economic, geographic, and demographical aspects of a society (Kale and Barnes, 1992), an attribute unparalleled by other cultural models and frameworks. Therefore, the model by Hofstede is considered to be the most conclusive and vigorous in terms of the number of cultures that were sampled and studied (Smith, et al., 1996).

The five dimensions are low/high power distance, individualism/collectivism, low/high uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity and short/long term orientation. In recent times, there has been the development of alternative models for cross-cultural analyses by several researchers (Schwartz, 1994; Maznevski and Di Stefano, 1995; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, Gupta, 2004; Trompenaars, 1993). The original study by Hofstede was mainly descriptive and the main result was a set of cultural scores that describes cultures of nations. A comparison of Hofstede's dimensions of culture with other cultural theories shows a high level of convergence. These other theories tend to emanates from Hofstede original model and have a high level of relationship that tends to supports the conceptual as well as theoretical significance of Hofstede's framework, hence, justifying the use of his dimensions in cross cultural research studies. The comparison is indicated in figure 4. Hofstede's cultural dimensions can explain many differences in consumption and consumer behaviour.

	Masculinity/ Feminity	Individualism/ collectivism	Power distance	Uncertainty avoidance	Long-term orientation	Other
Hofstede (1984)						
Hofstede (1991, 2001)						
Inkeles and Levinson (1969)*	Conceptions of self		Relation to authority	Primary dilemmas or conflicts		
Triandis (1995)						
Chinese Cultural Connection (1987)	Human heartedness	Integration			Confucian work dynamism	Moral discipline
Clark (1990)*	Relations to self		Relation to authority	Relation to risk		
Trompenaars (1997)	Neutral/emotional	Universalism/particularism Individualism/ communitarianism			Attitudes to time	Specific /diffuse Achievement/ascription Attitudes to the environment Paternalism
Dorfman and Howell (1988)						
Schwartz (1994)	Mastery/harmony	Autonomy/conservantism Loyal involvement/ utilitarian involvement	Hierarchy/ egalitarianism Conservantism/ egalitarianism			
Smith et al. (1996)						Discussion of a third dimension 3 deferred
Keillor and Hult (1999)						National heritage/culture homogeneity/belief system/ consumer ethnocentrism
Steenkamp (2001)*		Autonomy/collectivism	Egalitarianism/hierarchy	Uncertainty avoidance	Mastery/ nurturance-	

*Indicates theoretical contributions. The rest are empirical studies.

Figure 4: Comparison of Hofstede's cultural framework with other models

Source: Soares, Farhangmehr and Shoham (2007)

Subsequent studies have applied the model of Hofstede to study the effects diversities in culture have on behaviour related processes in different business areas. For instance, Hofstede models has been applied in studies that focuses on the relations between culture-specific perceptions of justice and its effects on team dynamics (Leung and Morris, 2000; Mueller and Clarke, 1998), cross-cultural perceptions of ethics trust (Kiffin-Petersen and Cordery, 2003), cognitive processes (Abramson, Keating and Lane, 1996), group negotiation styles (Butter and Leung, 1998) satisfaction and commitment (Schippers, Den Hartog, Koopman and Wienk, 2003), decision making behaviour (Chung and Adams, 1997), motivation (Fisher and Yuan, 1998) and leadership styles (Ensari and Murphy, 2003). Later, cultural models that explain differences in culture by researchers such as Schwartz, Trompenaars, Maznevski and Di Stefano were applied in cross-cultural analysis (Singelis, Bond, Sharkey and Lai, 1999; Steenkamp, 2001; Gopalan and Thomson, 2003).

In the view of Christie, Kwon, Stoeberl and Baumhart (2003) *“to facilitate cross-cultural comparisons, one needs to operationalize culture and identify aspects or dimensions common to all cultures, particularly in the area of business”*. The cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede have been validated persistently overtime; hence, the operationalization of cultures by Hofstede is widely accepted and it is the norm used in research and studies in international marketing (Dawar, Parker and Price, 1996; Christie, et al., 2003; Engel, Blackwell and Miniard, 1995; Sivakumar and Nakata, 2001; Sondergaard, 1994). The cultural dimensions of Hofstede are able to provide explanations of the many differences in the consumption patterns of products by consumers.

The main reason for the widespread adoption of the classification of culture by Hofstede is the large number of countries that were measured as well as the simplicity of the dimensions used, which tend to be straightforward and appealing to both academic researchers and practitioners in business. Furthermore, none of the recent cultural models was developed for analysing consumer behaviour, therefore, the manifestations of culture that are relevant for analysing consumer behaviour have to be inferred, selected and interpreted.

The cultural dimensions by Hofstede are relevant in international marketing mainly because it describes national values not only in the context of business but also for the general daily behaviour of people. As companies strive to adapt their products and services to local preferences and habits in international markets, there is a need to understand the specificity of individual markets and Hofstede's cultural dimension provides the framework for such an understanding. Within the context of cultural analysis by Hofstede, De Mooij (2004) further provides an elaboration of the various psychological and sociological variations in human behaviour. They include the concept of self, personality, group influence, motivation, emotion, perception and information processing. According to De Mooij (2004), these aspects of human behaviour are observed in all the five attributes of culture indicated by Hofstede. The cultural dimensions are described as follows:

5.3.1 Individualism vs. collectivism

Individualism/Collectivism (IDV/COL) explains the relationship that exists among individuals in a society. Triandis (1995) defines collectivism as “*a social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as an integral part of one or more collectives, such as family and friends, and individualism as a social pattern that consists of individuals who see themselves as autonomous and independent of collectives.*” These social patterns manifest themselves in a different ways. The differences in individualism and collectivism can be described as “*people looking after themselves and their immediate family only, versus people belonging to in-groups that look after them in exchange for loyalty*” (van Gelder, 2003). In a high individualistic society, there is a large level of individual freedom and a display of loose integration. Low individualism societies show tight integration. Individualism–collectivism describes the relationships individuals have in each culture.

In individualistic societies, people are concern about only themselves and their immediate family whiles in collectivistic cultures, people belong to groups and they tend to look after members of the groups in exchange for loyalty. In recent times, the individualism variable proposed by Hofstede has been further expounded by De Mooij (2004). According to De Mooij (2004), the concept of self is identical to ‘independent’ in individualistic cultures whilst in collectivistic cultures; the self is regarded as interdependence. The concept of “*self*” is vital in the formation and understanding of the behaviour of consumers (Schutte and Ciarlante, 1998). Self-concept in consumer behaviour is a psychological process. Self-concept is made up of all the things an individual consider to be theirs. It includes their body, conscience, family, attitudes, values, traits, possessions, moods, emotions and social positioning (Rolando, 1998).

In individualistic cultures, one’s identity is in his or her person (De Mooij, 2011). People in such cultures have an ‘I’-conscious and the self-actualisation is significant. Individualistic cultures tend to be more universalistic and usually assume that their values are applicable for the whole world. Also, they are low-context communication cultures with explicit verbal communication. On the other hand, in collectivistic cultures, people are “*we*”-conscious. In such cultures a person’s identity is based on the social system to which they are members, and there is a lot of importance placed on avoiding loss of face. Collectivistic cultures are high-context communication cultures, and they tend to have an indirect style of communication. In sales process in individualistic cultures, the various agents involved endeavour to get to the closing the sales deal very fast, while in collectivistic cultures, the building of relationships and trust between the various agents precedes the actual sales. This difference is manifested in the different roles of advertising and other strategies for marketing communication: either for persuasion or for creating trust. Also, in collectivist cultures, advertisement portrays collective experience whiles advertisement in individualist cultures emphasizes on the ability to save time and money (Marcus and Gould, 2001).

In a typical individualistic society, people are free from the group obligations and activities that focuses on integrating the group, but people in collectivist societies live in “*a society in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups*” with collectivistic bonds (Hofstede, 2001). Societies that are individualistic tend to have very loosed social fabric and group norms. In such societies, people do not follow social norms; rather, they independently make decisions and engage in behaviours (Roth 1995). Other researchers such as Midgley and Dowling (1978) have stressed that the innovativeness of consumers involves an inclination to engage in new behaviours, independently from other people. The predisposition to be independent is of positive value in an individualistic society but in a collectivistic society, it is valued negatively.

In Hofstede’s collectivistic cultures, the social needs of belonging and prestige aspect of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs can be seen as affiliation, admiration and status which tend to be the main forces that drive consumer behaviour. The high level of interdependence among people in a collectivist culture makes them to have a lesser personal affection to material objects and a greater attachment to human beings. According to Kotler, et al. (1999), the influence by others plays an important role in the decision making processes of consumers. In collectivist cultures, buyers have the habit of consulting other people with regards to new product or brand and seek their advice before making a decision. Hence, the decision to purchase by a buyer could also be influenced by the attitude expressed by others. Consumers can also be influenced culturally i.e. value, behaviour and preferences from family or other institution or socially i.e. by a small group like family or membership group.

5.3.2 Power distance

Power distance index (PDI) refers to the way societies deal with inequalities among its members. According to Hofstede (1991) it is the extent to which less powerful members of a society accept and expect that there is an unequal distribution of power. In any given society, people tend to have unequal physical and intellectual capacities, and some societies allow these to grow into inequalities especially in terms of power and wealth. However, some other societies de-emphasize these inequalities and try to bridge the gap among its members. According to Hofstede (1984), in high power distance societies, differences in power are expected to translate into visible differences in status. In some cultures, the decision to purchase is normally based on the utilitarian attribute of the product such as the physical characteristics as well as the price to quality ratio (Schutte and Ciarlante, 1998).

There are some consumers who are price conscious when buying items for personal use. Such consumers regard their own identity within the context of their society. This makes them not to want to depart from socially acceptable norms, even in private, thus encouraging conformist consumption. This dimension of culture reflects the results of power inequality and authority relations in a society. In a high power distance culture, a person’s social status must be clear so that others can

accord them with appropriate respect; hence global brands serve that purpose (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010). In cultures with a large power distance, each person has their rightful place in a social hierarchy. Hence, the concept of rightful place is relevant for understanding the role of global brands.

Fast food brands that are considered to be luxurious typically appeal to social status needs of consumers (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011b). Power distance explains the level of hierarchy in a society. A society with a high power distance has a hierarchical order with a vertically stratified power positions existing to create lots of power status. In large power distanced cultures, it is significant to display the status to others. Research has shown that, consumers in high power-distanced cultures enjoy the status quo and are therefore reluctant to accept or adopt accept or appreciate new products (Van den Bulte and Stremersch, 2004; Yenyurt and Townsend, 2003).

5.3.3 Uncertainty avoidance

The uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) is a reflection of how a society deals with uncertainties about the future - an essential part of human existence. Uncertainty avoidance is defined as *“the extent to which people feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity and try to avoid these situations”* (Hofstede, 1980). At one end, weak Uncertainty Avoidance cultures tend to socialize its members to accept and handle uncertainty. High Uncertainty Avoidance societies foster the need to try to beat the future. It refers to how much members of a society are anxious about the unknown, and as a consequence, attempt to cope with anxiety by minimizing uncertainty. Cultures that have strong uncertainty avoidance tend to have rules and formality that structures life. This leads to the desire and search for truth and a belief in experts' opinions. In societies that have high levels of uncertainty, there are more rules, procedures and standards that enable individuals to avoid uncertainty and ambiguity. People with high uncertainty avoidance tendencies are less open to change and innovation than people from low uncertainty avoidance cultures (Yaveroglu and Donthu, 2002; Yenyurt and Townsend, 2003). Consequently, the introduction of a new brand in such markets tends to be risky as their performance and use are more uncertain than already established products and brands.

In cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance, there is a preference for explicit rules for issues concerning religion and food. In advertising products and services in markets with high uncertainty avoidance, emphasis should be laid on safety whiles advertising in other markets may focus on social image (Marcus and Gould, 2001). In a high uncertainty avoidance cultures, there is a passive attitude to health, hence people focus on purity in food and drink and using more medication. On the other hand, in low uncertainty avoidance cultures, people often have a more active attitude to health by focusing on fitness and sports (De Mooij and Hofstede 2002; De Mooij 2010).

5.3.4 Masculinity vs. Femininity

Masculinity/Femininity (MAS/FEM) deals with the degree to which societies subscribe to the typical stereotypes associated with males and females. According to De Mooij and Hofstede (2010) “*the dominant values in a masculine society are achievement and success; the dominant values in a feminine society are caring for others and quality of life.*” In a more “*masculine*” society, there is greater emphasis on wealth, success, ambition, material things and achievement, while emphasis is placed on the greater value of people, care for others providing help to others, preserving the environment and equality in a more “*feminine*” society (Hofstede 1980). Masculine values emphasize on money making and the quest of noticeable achievements. Such societies tend to have admiration for individual brilliance and they idolize the success and achievement (Kale, 1983). In masculine societies, performance and achievement are vital; and they must be always be demonstrated in the open, therefore status products from reputable brands are important to portray one’s success (De Mooij and Hofstede 2002; De Mooij 2010).

Promoting a product of a brand in a masculine society, should be done in such a way as to portray that the product is better than all others. On the other hand, in a feminine society, it is vital for the brand to promote a product that brings improvement in the lives of people (De Mooij and Hofstede, 2010). A very significant aspect of this cultural dimension is role differentiation, which tends to be small in feminine societies and large in masculine societies. In masculine cultures, domestic work is less shared between a husband and wife than in feminine cultures. Men also do a lot more shopping for the household in feminine cultures. Data compiled by Eurostat (2002) indicates that, a low level of masculinity explains a 52% of variance of the fraction of men who spend time on shopping activities. The characteristics of masculinity include the preference for assertiveness, achievement and material success. This is in contrast with the femininity characteristics which places emphasis on relationships, modesty and care for the weak (Hofstede, 1980).

5.3.5 Long term orientation

Long-term orientation (LTO) refers to “*the fostering of virtues oriented towards future rewards, in particular perseverance and thrift*” (Hofstede, 2001). Long versus short term cultural orientation is “*the extent to which a society exhibits a pragmatic future-orientated perspective rather than a conventional historic or short-term point of view*” (De Mooij, 2003). The values in long-term orientation cultures include perseverance, consistency, ordering relationships by status, thrift, and having a sense of shame. On the other hand is short-term orientation, which includes personal steadiness and stability and respect for tradition. Here, focus is on the pursuit of happiness rather than on pursuance of peace of mind. Long-term orientation implies investment in the future (De Mooij, 2010). People with high long-term orientation are loyal to specific brands unlike those from short-term orientation cultures. They like to stay with specific brand and the probability of them switching brands is relatively low (De Mooij, 2010).

6. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 Research objectives

The following are the research objectives that were formulated to address the research problem. The research objectives were formulated based on the conceptual framework and modern trends in the global fast food industry from literature reviews.

The main objective of this research is to create a model for cross cultural branding strategy in the global fast food industry. Also, the research examines the branding strategies of firms in the fast food industry with reference to the dimensions of the marketing mix, the behaviour of consumers towards fast food in the Czech Republic and Ghana and the major marketing variables that determine their preferences for fast food brands.

Aside the main objectives, there are some sub-objectives that are analysed in this research. The sub-objectives are:

- a. To analyse the cultural orientation (cultural dimensions) of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana with reference to the different age groups and sex.
- b. To determine the extent of relationship between consumers (age and sex) in the Czech Republic and Ghana and their response to the marketing mix variables.
- c. To examine the relationship between sex, age and income and the frequency of purchase of fast food among respondents in the Czech Republic and Ghana.
- d. To determine the preference patterns of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana and perception of firms with respect to the standardization or customization of fast food product or services.
- e. To examine the perception of consumer on the role of internet in the customization of fast food products and trends in the use of the internet in fast food operations.
- f. To examine the preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms on the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes.
- g. To analyse the market structure of the fast food industry and strategies for competitive advantage.

In this research, a conceptual framework was developed based on the marketing mix theory and the cultural dimensions. The conceptual framework was designed in relation to the age and sex of consumers in the two countries for the purpose of hypothesis formulation and testing. The conceptual framework is shown in figure 5 below:

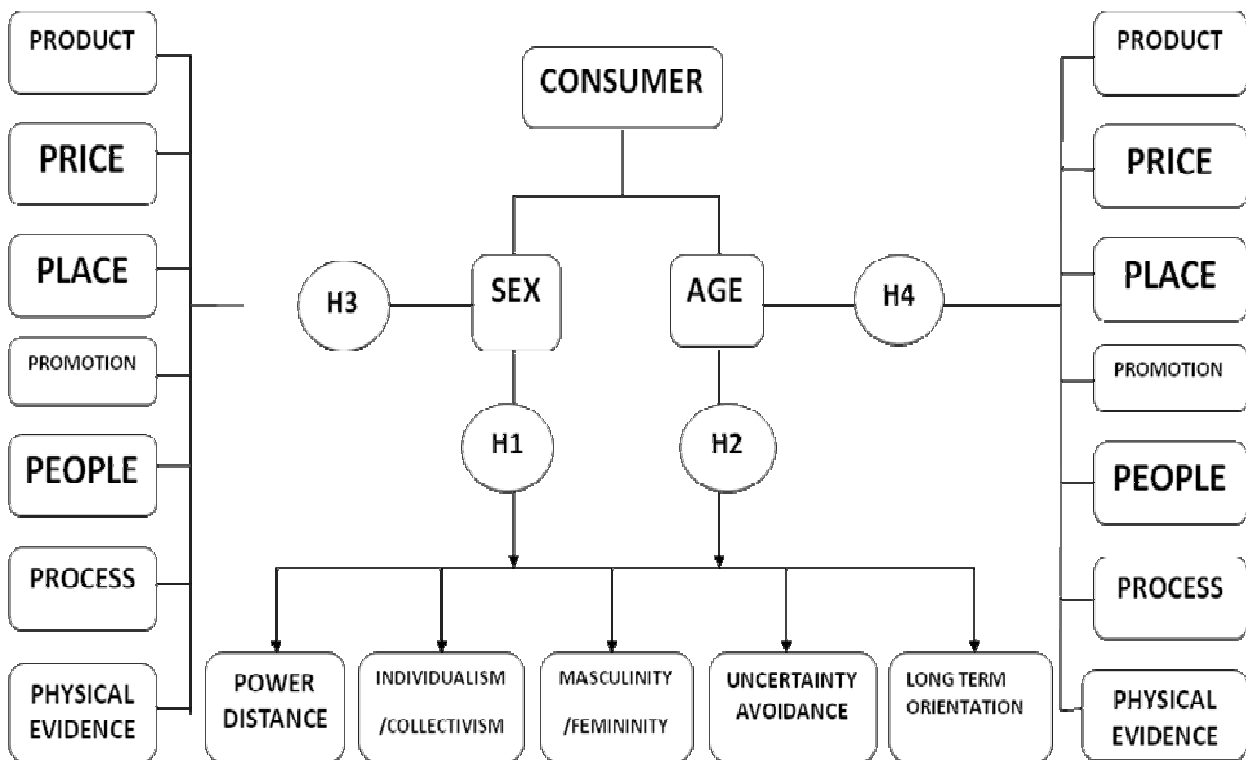


Figure 5: A conceptual framework of the interrelationship between culture and marketing mix and the age and sex of consumers.

Source: Authors impression

From the objectives and the conceptual framework, the following hypotheses are generated:

H1: There is significant difference between consumers (sex) in the Czech Republic and Ghana in terms of their cultural orientations (dimensions of culture).

H2: There is significant difference between consumers (age) in the Czech Republic and Ghana in terms of their cultural orientations (dimensions of culture).

H3: There is no significant difference in the response to the seven (7) elements of the marketing mix by males and females.

H4: There is a significant difference among consumers of different ages and their response to the seven (7) elements of the marketing mix.

Furthermore, the following research questions were formulated in line with the objectives to elaborate on the consumer behaviour and branding strategies of firms. They research questions are:

RQ1: What is the relationship between sex, age and income and the frequency of purchase of fast food?

RQ2: What are the preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms with respect to the standardization or customization of fast food product or services?

RQ3: What is consumer perception of the role of internet in the customization of fast food products and trends in the use of the internet in fast food operations?

RQ4: What are the preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms on the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes?

6.2 Research design

The development of an appropriate research design is essential for any research. The research design, which is also derived from the research objectives, refers to “*a set of advance decisions that makes up the master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the needed information*” (Burns and Bush, 2002). The adoption of a suitable research design is essential because, it determines the type of data, the technique for data collection, the sampling method, the time schedule and the overall budget for the research (Hair, Bush and Ortinau, 2003). Mainly, it enables the researcher to ensure that the planned methodology is aligned with the research problems (Churchill and Iacobucci 2004; Malhotra, 1999).

The research design can be categorized into three namely: exploratory, descriptive and causal (Burns and Bush, 2002; Hair, et al., 2003; Aaker, Kumar and George, 2000; Churchill and Iacobucci, 2004). This dissertation applies these research designs to achieve the research objectives. Although it is not compulsory, it is usual for researchers to use several research designs at the same time (Burns and Bush, 2002). For example, a researcher may commence a research with an exploratory design which tends to provide essential background information that is necessary for a descriptive study. The information that is gathered from a descriptive study may help the researcher to design and establish a causal relationship between variables.

This research can be seen in the light of exploratory research design. An exploratory design was utilized to survey views from respondents. The use of the exploratory design facilitates and make for flexibility in enabling the researcher to examine all aspects of the problem at hand. The exploratory design will allow an in-depth knowledge of the perceptions of people in both countries and the explanations behind the behaviour of respondents.

6.3 Research approach

Any researcher setting out to investigate any new field must make a series of decisions. In most cases, the very first decision that a researcher must make is the choice between qualitative and quantitative methodologies (Palys, 1992). The choice between these two research methods is important because they reflect entirely different underlying epistemologies and research philosophies. According to Dugbazah (2007), “*the crux of the matter is not about superiority of one*

methodological approach over the other, but rather the identification of the approach that is most appropriate for a particular study.” Given the overall objectives of this study, which is to deepen the understanding of the factors that underlie the behaviour of consumers and the branding strategy of firms in the fast food industry, taking a strictly passive position would not have been useful.

Therefore, both the qualitative and quantitative methods are adopted in the exploratory design. Qualitative research entails investigating the features of a market. This is done through an in-depth research that explores the background and context for the purpose of decision making. It is an exploratory research method and it involves using unstructured techniques (Hague, 2006). Hague (2006) postulates that qualitative research is used for exploring and understanding people’s needs, values, attitudes beliefs, perceptions and behaviour, testing reactions to concepts such as new products and services, advertising messages, approaches to buying among others and working out the real issues or problems.

Qualitative analysis is more explicitly interpretive, creative and personal than quantitative analysis. The strengths of qualitative research methods are derived primarily from its inductive, interpretivism and constructionism approach and its focus on specific situations or people (Patton, 2002). Qualitative methodology, seeks subjective understanding of social realities, whilst quantitative methodology on the other hand, provides statistical description and predictions (Maguire, 1987). The qualitative research method was used in the collection of data and analysis of relevant information; and this was supplemented by the quantitative methods. A combination of these two perspectives is ideal in this research in order to determine the respondent’s perception and understand their attitudes. A combinational approach (triangulation) views phenomena through different perspectives and in a sense, leads to higher accurate results. Result attained through the use of the two approaches gives a more comprehensive coverage of the research objectives.

Qualitative research method gives a deeper understanding of how different cultures influence the branding strategies in fast food companies in the two countries. The use of the qualitative methodology allows for flexibility in the research in order to get a clear and broad view on the cultural aspects of the topic. Qualitative approach is ideal because culture is distinct and reducing it entirely to figures will not permit the accurate interpretation, and it will not elucidate the research topic in an exhaustive manner. Patton (2002) emphasizes that quantitative and qualitative methods are not simply different ways of doing the same thing. Quantitative research is used to compare the buying behaviour of consumers of ages, sex or income groups in the respective countries. Also, it is used to condense the data into a number of key attributes or variables based on several indicators in the questionnaire for the purpose of analysis and hypothesis testing.

6.4 Research setting

The research was carried out in the capital city of the Czech Republic, Prague and the capital city of Ghana, Accra. Because these cities are the capitals of both

countries, there is a convergence and diversity of consumers from other parts of the country. Also, due to their locations and population structure, they serve as appropriate entry points for international fast food chains. Most fast food outlets are concentrated in these cities and the consumption of fast food is popular among residents. These capital cities are noted not only for the consumption of fast food, but also they are the main cities that fast food industries started in both countries. Most of the residents in these cities are drawn from almost all the parts of the country. The income disparity and the social class of the indigenes are generally structured. Due to this, it is expected that the sample drawn will be representative of the cultural orientation of the general population in the respective countries. The sample from these two cities will to a large extent ensure external validity of the outcome of the research. However, especially in the Czech Republic, some of the respondents were selected from cities outside the capital. The diversity and wider coverage further strengthens the representation of the sample to the population.

6.5 Target population

The target population of the study is made up of individuals and the various fast food brands in both the Czech Republic and Ghana. The fast food firms selected were duly registered as legal entities under the laws of the Republic of Ghana and Czech Republic and designed to provide food items and services. The respondents were of any sex and a specific age range. Also, they were old enough to understand and respond to the questions on why they buy and consume fast foods. A population refers to all the individuals or items with the characteristic that the researcher wishes to understand. Owing to the fact that there is very rarely sufficient time or money to collect information from all the members of the population, the goal becomes finding a sample (or subset) that is representative of that population.

6.6 Data collection methods

There are two major approaches that are used in collecting data by marketing researchers. These are primary and secondary data gathering methods.

6.6.1 Primary data

Primary data is information that has been collected for a specific purpose (thus, primarily for the purpose of a particular research) (Bryman, 2006). It is generated from in-depth studies or surveys. Each survey therefore is based on raw data, usually from interviews and questionnaire that is unique (Hague, 2006). This research is highly depended on primary data. Primary data collection approach is used to gather information about consumer perceptions and behaviour by highlighting on their attitude to fast food brands. This is necessary because consumers build up prejudices and beliefs about products and services that affect their purchasing habits. Primary data collection method is used to sample opinions and attitudes to understand the attributes or variables that consumers consider important in driving the selection of fast food brand.

Primary data is mostly collected through questionnaires and interviews. The data collection tools were designed in English and translated to Czech language in order to make it easy for respondents who cannot understand English especially in the Czech Republic. The questionnaires were translated by a native of the Czech Republic who is fluent in English as well. The translations were done and double checked to ensure clarity and to remove any form of ambiguity in the questions that result from translation. Care was taken in the translation of the English text so as not to change the content of the question and compromise understanding. Where appropriate, the respondent provided some form of empirical evidence to support a claim or convince the researcher for certain open-ended questions.

6.6.2 Questionnaire and interviews

Questionnaires were used to collect information that was used subsequently as raw data for analysis. The questionnaire was self-developed and it is based on literature review of the dependent and independent variables and the objectives of the study. The questionnaire was semi-structured and made up of both close-ended and open-ended questions and they were self-administered to permit further clarifications from respondents. The questionnaire sampled opinions and attitudes of consumers to understand the attributes that consumers consider important in their selection of fast food brands and fast food outlets. Initially, the researcher wanted to use online questionnaire formats. However, the low response rate especially in Ghana led to a change in the distribution strategy of questionnaire. Consequently, hard copy print-outs were distributed in Ghana, while the responses in the Czech Republic were collected with online and hardcopy questionnaire formats.

The questionnaire for customers consisted of a number of questions about the respondent's attitudes, perception and behaviour towards fast food. The questionnaire was categorized into four parts. Part A measured respondents' demographic characteristics. Part B had questions that tested Hofstede's cultural dimensions in the two countries. Part C then measured respondents attitudes, perception and behaviour towards the marketing mix and its relation to the fast food industry, and Part D contained questions on the perception and behaviour towards mass production and mass customization in the fast food industry as well as other modern approaches in the fast food industry like standardization, inclusion of traditional/local ingredients and internet application in fast food operations.

With regards to fast food firms, questionnaires were also used to collect information from managers from the various fast food firms responsible for marketing and branding. The questions were such that, it could be self-filled by the managers as well as administered in the form of one-on-one interviews. For those firms who could not grant a one-on-one interview the questionnaire were sent to them to fill themselves which was later returned. The one-on-one interview took between 40-50 minutes for each interview and the answers were filled on a printed version of the questionnaire as the respondents were giving answers to the questions.

However, the interview sessions were tape-recorded and played later to ensure that none of the information was lost.

6.6.3 Pre-testing

The questionnaire was pre-tested using response of potential respondents in both countries. The pre-testing enables the researcher to ensure that the questions are clear and rid of any form of ambiguity and that the set of questions effectively measures the subject of interest. According to Burns and Bush (2002) and Zikmund (2000), pre-testing is necessary because it ensures that the questions elicit the expected responses and reveal ambiguous wording or errors before the research begins. The questionnaire for the fast food firms were checked by two experts in the field of branding and marketing management. The pre-testing of the questionnaire for consumers was done with 18 respondents from both countries. As suggested by Francis et al. (2004) conducting a pre-test with between 5-10 representative respondents is usually sufficient in identifying potential problems of a questionnaire. The respondents who were involved in the pre-testing were asked to comment on the questionnaire clarity, bias, ambiguity and length of the questions. It was realized that some of the questions were not easily understandable because of the use of technical words and vocabulary. They also indicated that the length of some of the questions were long. Hence, the entire questionnaire was restructured to address the comments that came out of the pre-testing. Some of the questions that were considered long were shortened and simple vocabularies were used to simplify the questions for easy understanding.

6.6.4 Response format

There are several response formats for conducting research into consumer behaviour and branding strategies of firms. In order to obtain information about the demographic data of the respondents, the close-ended question format was used. Additionally, the labelled scale response format was used to collect information on the behaviour of consumers with regards to the cultural variable and their responses to the marketing mix of fast food firms. Aside the fact that, labelled scale responses are simple to administer and code in data collection and statistical analysis (Burns and Bush, 2000) it is appropriate for marketing research because, it allows the respondent to provide answers to attitudinal questions in various degrees that explains the dimensions of interest (Aaker, et al. 2000; Kinnear, Taylor and Armstrong, 1993). However, the open-ended question format was used for the interview questionnaire for the fast food firms.

In this research, the Likert scale was adopted because it generates a higher reliability coefficient with lesser items than other scales that are developed with other methods (Hayes, 1998). The Likert scale is also prominently used in market research and has been extensively tested in both marketing and social science with a high degree of reliability (Garland, 1991). Some researchers have found that, the Likert scale provides a high tendency of receiving responses that accurately portray

the opinions of respondents in a research (Burns and Bush 2002; Zikmund, 2000). It contributes to the increase in the spread of variance of feedbacks, which also strengthens the measures of association (Aaker, et al. 2000). There are no clear rules with regards to the number of scale points on a Likert scale. However, researchers are of the view that opinions of respondents in any research can be adequately captured with five to seven point scale (Aaker, et al. 2000; Malhotra 1999; Sekaran 2000). Specifically, some researchers assert that a five-point scale is just as good as any other (Malhotra 1999; Sekaran 2000). According to Elmore and Beggs (1975) an increase in the scale points does not lead to an improvement in the reliability of the ratings; as it may confuse the respondents (Aaker, et al. 2000; Hair, et al. 2003). Hence, a five-point Likert scale was used in this research.

6.7 Secondary data

According to Bryman and Bell (2007), secondary data refers to information that has been collected for another purpose by other people other than the researcher in question. Secondary data is data which can be collected without fieldwork. The secondary data used in this dissertation came from sources such as internal data within the fast food firms, research journals, books, articles, government departments, published reports, online databases and the website of fast food firms. The quality of secondary data is usually very good; hence, they can be useful for other purposes other than the primary reason for which they were collected (Bryman, 2006). In this research, secondary data was particularly useful in the analysis of the market structure of the global fast food industry.

6.8 Sampling method and sample

In both quantitative and qualitative research, sampling is one of the important steps for researchers (Bryman, 2006). Given the theme of this dissertation, both the stratified simple random sampling and purposive sampling method are considered suitable in selecting respondents. Stratified simple random sampling is a variation of simple random sampling where the population is divided into mutually exclusive and relatively homogeneous groups called strata (Shukla, 2008). In this research, the stratified simple random sampling method is used to divide the population of the two countries into homogenous groups based on differences in age. The sample size normally recommended for marketing research with the standard of 95% confidence level and population above 1 million is ~ 384 respondents². The formula for arriving at this figure is given as:

$$\text{Formula: } n = \frac{t^2 \times p(1-p)}{m^2}$$

Where:

n = required sample size

² International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), Calculating the Sample Size. Available at http://www.ifad.org/gender/tools/hfs/anthropometry/ant_3.htm

t = confidence level at 95% (standard value of 1.96)

p = percentage of the probability of selecting a respondent (50% if unknown, infinite or more than 1 million)

m = margin of error at $\pm 5\%$ for a two tailed test (standard value of 0.05)

This research goes beyond the minimum sample size required for cross cultural studies. An increase in the sample size beyond what is recommended therefore increases the validity of generalisability of the findings. The sample size was divided into strata according to age to cover the part of the population that usually make decisions to buy fast food either for themselves or for others. The age strata are as follows: 11-20, 21-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60. The justification for this age range is based on the fact that a large part (70.2%) of the population of the Czech Republic is between the ages of 15-64 years (male 3,599,774/female 3,554,158).³ The same age group makes up 60% of the population in Ghana (male 7,435,449/female 7,436,204).⁴

The purposive sampling method was used to select respondents into the various age strata. Considering the nature of the study, the consent of the respondents is paramount and therefore the purposive sampling is appropriate as it ensures that only those who are willing to be part are included. Marketing research survey is such that, most of the respondents are interviewed in different locations. It will be difficult to use other forms of sampling. According to Trochim (2006), many marketing researchers run into people in different locations and ask for their permission to be interviewed. Trochim (2006) further indicates that, researchers' size up people passing by and anyone who looks to be in that category is asked if they will participate. One of the first things such researchers are likely to do is to verify that the subjects meet the criteria for been selected into the sample.

The purposive sampling could be helpful in situations where there is a need for the researcher to reach the sample of interest quickly. With purposive sampling, it is likely to get the opinions from a large number of the target population. Efforts were made to reduce the likelihood of using a lot of people from one sub-group in the population. The sampling therefore cut across individuals with a wide demographic attributes. Also, because fast food firms vary in size, the quota sampling method was used to divide fast food outlets based on their sizes. The purposive sampling method was then used to select fast food firms in both countries. Fast food firms are of different types, from small scale street vendor to multi-franchised corporations. The sampling cuts across fast food outlets from small joint usually recognized within local communities or a limited area without proper business concepts to recognized and established brand names. Consequently, this research divides fast food outlets into four different groups based on the headcount (number of employees)

³ <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ez.html>

⁴ <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/gh.html>

categorization of enterprises by the European Commission (2003). The categories and the number of firms chosen from the two countries are indicated in the table 5:

Table 5: Headcount categorization of enterprises

Enterprise category	Headcount ceiling	No. of firms from each country
Large size	> 250	2
Medium-sized	< 250	2
Small	< 50	2
Micro	< 10	2

Source: European Commission (2003)

In order to achieve external validity, the research ensured that a range from one extreme to the other is included (in terms of groupings of respondents and size of fast food firms).

6.9 Research procedure

The distribution of questionnaires to the managers of the fast food firms were either in the form of one-on-one interview or questionnaire format. With regards to the consumers selected from the population, the questionnaire were distributed and collected after they had been filled. Some respondents filled and delivered it as soon as they received it while others took one to three days to complete the questionnaire. Respondents in the Czech Republic had the option of filling the questionnaire in either English or Czech language. However, respondents from Ghana filled only the English version of the questionnaire.

For those firms that one-on-one interviews were conducted, the time of the interview were prior arranged. It must be emphasised that, for all the fast food firms, a formal letter were sent to them upon their request to confirm the background of the researcher, to satisfy the protocol and the firms' internal documentation. The rationale of the research was clearly stated in the questionnaire for both the consumers and fast food firms.

6.10 Coding of responses

Coding has to do with the identification, classification and assigning of a numeric or character symbol to data (Wong, 1999). The two main methods of coding are: pre-coded and post-coded. In this research, the responses for the close ended questions were pre-coded from 1-5, according to the labelled response format while the open ended questions were post coded before it was entered into the data analysis software. The pre-coding was done by taking from the list of responses; a specific number that corresponds to a particular selection of choice on the Likert scale. Therefore, the questionnaire for respondents were done as follows: Strongly disagree (1), Disagree (2), Neither agree nor disagree (3), Agree (4) and Strongly agree (5). However, the interview questionnaire for the firms were open-ended, hence, they were content analysed.

7. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

7.1 Analysis of data from respondents

The following is an analysis of the results of data from respondents selected from the two countries.

7.1.1 Descriptive information

Descriptive statistics are used to present the demographic background (sex, age, income level and citizenship) of respondents. In all, there were a total of 1253 respondents selected from the Czech Republic and Ghana. There were 460 respondents from the Czech Republic, representing approximately 36.7% and 793 respondents from Ghana, representing approximately 63.3% of the total respondents. The distribution is shown in figure 6:

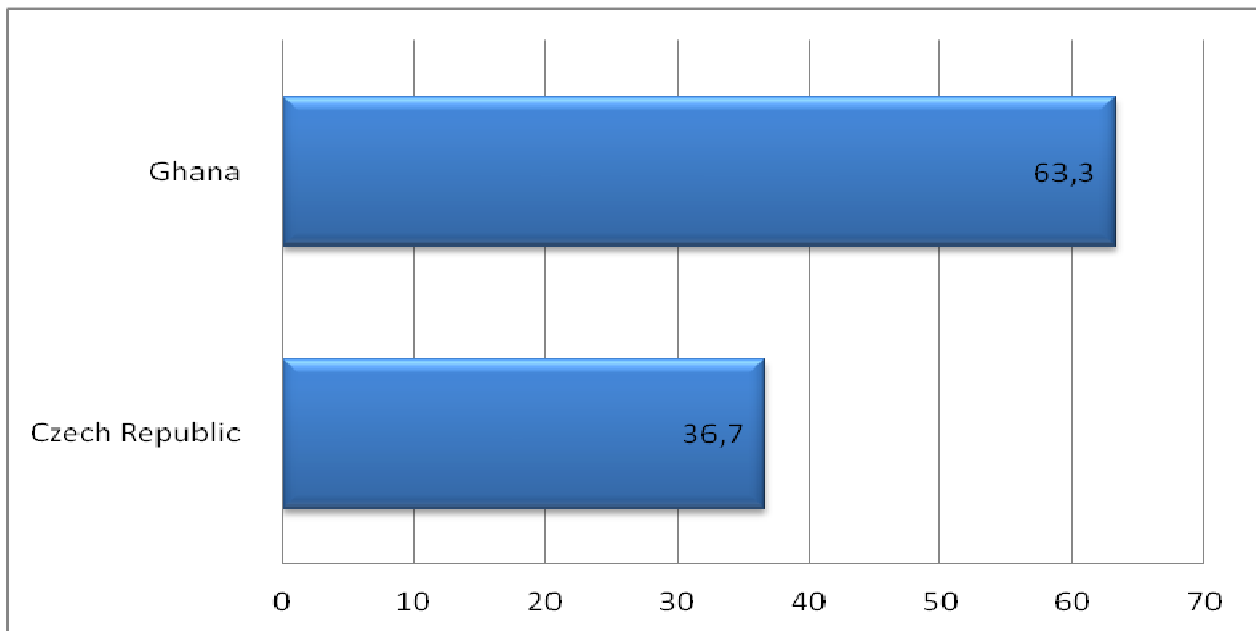


Figure 6: Sample from each country (in percentages)

Source: Survey data, 2011

Figure 7 illustrates the distribution of respondents in the two countries according to their sex. Out of a total of 793 respondents selected from Ghana, 421 were females and 372 were males, whereas 236 females and 224 males representing a total of 460 respondents were selected from the Czech Republic.

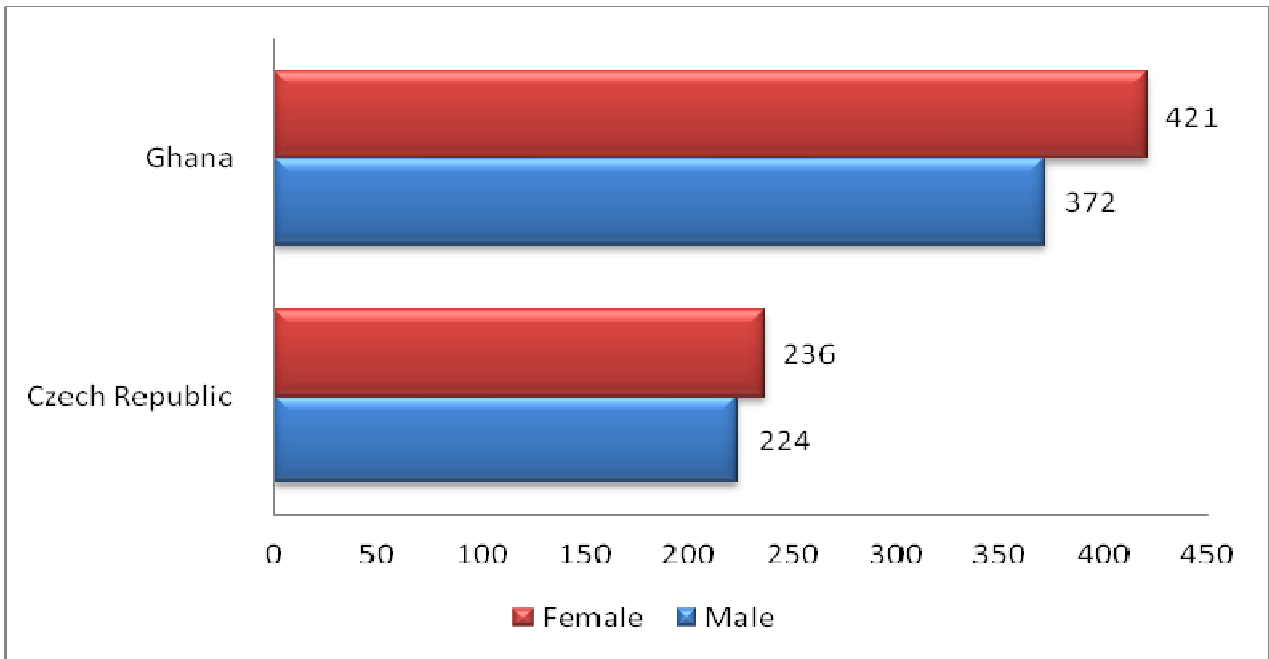


Figure 7: Sex of respondents

Source: Survey data, 2011

Furthermore, the respondents were distributed for both the Czech Republic and Ghana based on their age groupings. In the Czech Republic, the distributions are as follows: 11-20 (109), 21-30 (171), 31-40 (57), 41-50 (76) and 51-60 (47). In Ghana, the numbers of respondents in the age groups are as follows: 11-20 (350), 21-30 (198), 31-40 (126), 41-50 (75) and 51-60 (44). The distributions of respondents with respect to the various age groupings are shown in figure 8.

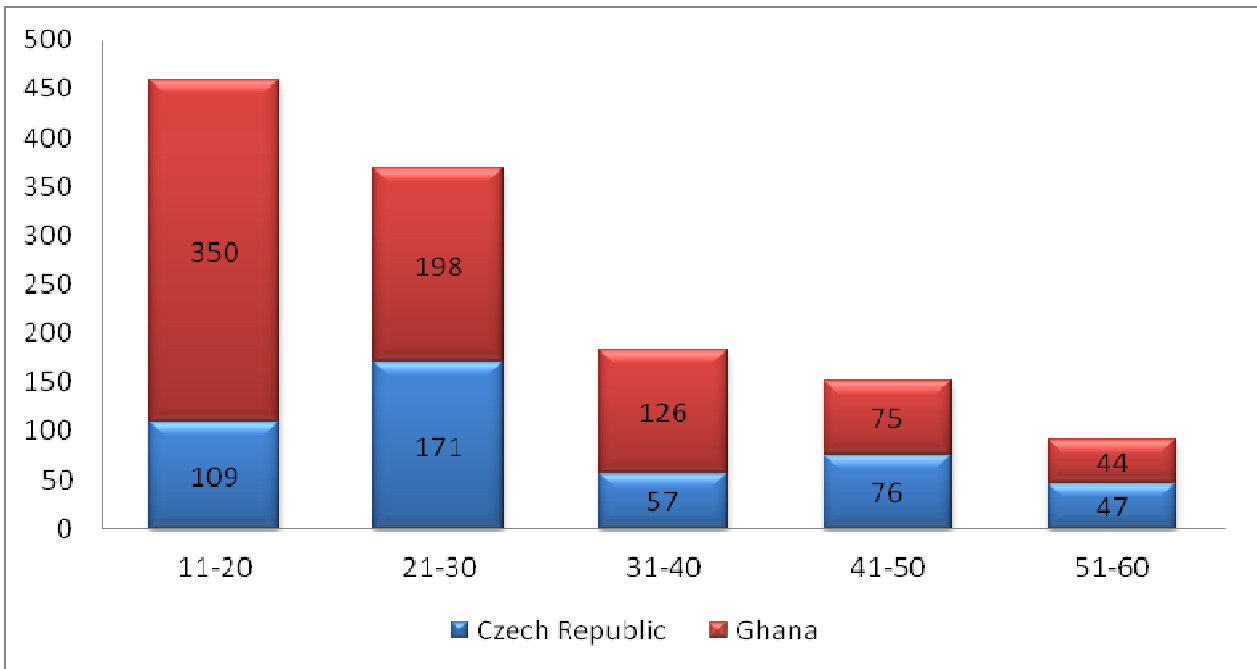


Figure 8: Age distribution of respondents

Source: Survey data, 2011

With regards to the income distribution, the average exchange rate of 25 CZK to 1 Euro and 2.15 GHC to 1 EUR were used. As can be seen from figure 9, the distribution is in Euro to ensure uniformity in reporting the findings.

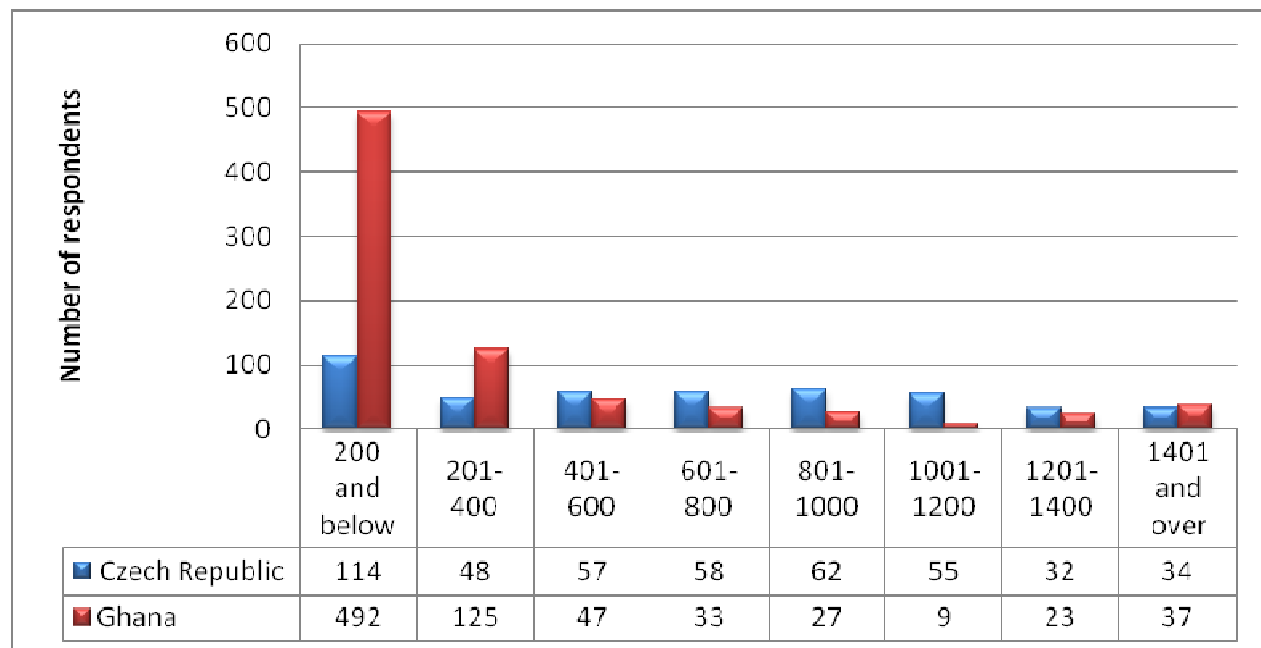


Figure 9: Income distribution of respondents (in Euros)

Source: Survey data, 2011

From figure 9, it is seen that a large number (492) of respondents in Ghana reported a total monthly income of €200 and below compared to 114 respondents from the Czech Republic. This is not surprising due to the relatively low income level not only in Ghana but also other developing countries in the African region. Also, 48 and 125 respondents from the Czech Republic and Ghana respectively indicated an income level range from €201– €400 while 57 respondents from the Czech Republic and 47 respondents from Ghana reported a total monthly income between €401 and €600. The rest are, income level between €601 and €800 – 58 respondents from the Czech Republic and 33 respondents from Ghana, income level between €801 and €1000 – 65 respondents from the Czech Republic and 27 respondents from Ghana, income level between €1001 and €1200 – 55 respondents from the Czech Republic and 9 respondents from Ghana, income level between €1201 and €1400 – 32 respondents from the Czech Republic and 23 respondents from Ghana, income level from €1401 and over – 34 respondents from the Czech Republic and 37 respondents from Ghana.

The data analysis was based on the premise that, the behaviour of consumers differs from country to country. The hypothesis is tested in relation to the sex and age of respondents because the buying habits of consumers in different countries and cultures are determined by these demographic indicators (Asamoah, 2010; Herrmann and Heitmann, 2006; Asamoah, et al., 2011). Hence, the hypothesis and research questions were analysed based on this premise.

7.2 Objective 1

The behaviour of consumers towards fast food brands in the Czech Republic and Ghana and the major marketing variables that determines their preferences for fast food brands.

There are some marketing variables that dominantly determine and influence the behaviour of consumers and their preferences for fast food brands between the two countries. The analyses of the variables are done with respect to the countries under study.

7.2.1 Behaviour of consumers in the Czech Republic

In the Czech Republic, the behaviour of consumers with regards to fast food purchases and fast food consumption was mainly influenced by social, individual, psychological and cultural forces (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010). Czech consumers consider global brands positively, not for health reasons, but for other reasons. For instance, they see the brands as a warranty of quality and value. In spite of this high regard, Czech consumers are rational, practical and very demanding in their expectations of global fast food chains operating in the Czech Republic. They do not expect much from the local micro and small fast food firms. They expect to get value for their money, hence, making them very demanding and selective. Generally, Czech consumers prefer fast food firms that offer discounts and other forms of sales promotion. As explained by Hoek and Gendall (2006), such initiatives influence their preference patterns and encourage repeated purchases. They see promotions as extra incentives and added value for money spent (Smith, 2003).

Usually, teenagers and young adults are driven by price and other sales promotion campaigns which provide a perception of getting more value for less amount of money in their purchasing decisions. These are mainly high school and university students. Middle and older adults prefer quick service and ambience of the fast food outlets. For parents or families with children, they prefer to visit outlets with adequate sitting capacity and playground for their older children or changing table for toddlers. Parents usually send their children to visit fast food outlets based on several reasons. For instance, it was found that, it may be as a result of the demands of the children, to reward their children for good behaviour (happy meal) or to celebrate an event (e.g. birthday party). Young adults and older adults expect suitable premises - cleanliness and no smoking areas in fast food outlets. Young Czech consumers in high schools or universities see fast food outlets as a place where they can meet their friends, talk and relax for hours. For such consumers, the ambience of the outlet must be conducive enough, with important features like, background music, washroom etc, to keep them comfortable for as long as they stay. This is consistent with the findings by Turley and Milliman (2000) and Park, (2004).

One university student indicated that: *“I expect convenient food access; I prefer fast food outlets that offer quickly prepared food, which can be taken home or even taken straight to the car by drive through, without a need to go into the premises.”* Aside convenience, consumers of fast food products usually do so because they seek

for a change from home-cooked food rather than its nutritional value, because of the widespread perception that fast food is not nutritious.

It was found that, the factors that determine the behaviour of customers when decided to buy fast food in the Czech Republic are mainly: food quality and consistency in taste, price, convenient location (Agnes et al. 2004; Auty, 1992; Kara, Kaynak and Kucukemiroglu 1995; Park, 2004; Byrne, Capps and Saha, 1998), cleanliness of fast food outlets and its environment, (Pettijohn, Pettijohn and Luke, 1997), friendly, polite or helpful staff (Agnes et al. 2004; Law, Hui, and Zhao, 2004) and the nature of ambience of restaurants (Auty, 1992). However, drive through service and home delivery was not of much significance to consumers. This is mainly because the drive through outlets is usually not located at places with a convergence of a large number of consumers. The social aspect of eating out also makes home delivery of mainstream fast food products unpopular, though home delivery is prominent for pizza products. Frequent fast food buyers in the Czech Republic consider nutritional value as the most important factors. However, the less frequent buyers consider attributes such as price and location in their buying decision.

7.2.2 Behaviour of consumers in Ghana

Just like the Czech Republic, it was found that, in Ghana the forces that influence consumer purchases are mainly a combination of factors that are broadly classified under cultural, social, individual and psychological (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010). However, the variations in the indicators among respondents differed significantly between the two countries. This affirms the assertion by De Mooij (2004, 2010) that the strength of the forces that influences consumer purchases and motives, especially with regards to buying products that are seen as luxurious (De Mooij, 2004), vary across cultures. The study found that, the consumption of fast food in Ghana is predominantly a class thing often associated with the elite in the society.

The common trends of comments by respondents in Ghana are summarised as follows: *“In Ghana, the consumption of fast food is basically a class thing and as Ghanaians, our culture is such that we like to belong. We like to show off and we think that consuming products from reputable fast food brands will boost our self-esteem. For instance, even when I do not have enough money, I do not want to be left behind when my colleagues are visiting a fast food outlet. Since fast food consumption is in vogue, I like to associate myself with the trend”*

As indicated by Bagozzi, et al. (2000) and Cialdini, Kallgren, and Reno (1991) when there is a perception of approval associated with behaviour among important reference groups, it tends to influence a person’s performance of that behaviour in order to feel accepted. Hence, factors such as family influences, social class, social values and group influences largely determine fast food choices (Bareham, 1995).

Aside the glamour associated with fast food brands, it is also a class symbol indication. Working class and other professionals buy fast food often because of their busy schedule. However, they would rather prefer to visit recognized local and

foreign outlets or brands in order not to be belittled. Consequently, there is a high tendency for consumers in Ghana to visit western kind of fast food outlets irrespective of their size. During public holidays and other festivities like Christmas, the premises of the large fast food outlets are jam-packed with buyers. The micro, small and medium fast food outlets also have a share of the increase in the number of buyers during such times of the year. It is common to see customers snapping pictures and flaunting the pictures to their friends. This trend is consistent with the findings by Belk (1988) that, the brand becomes a source of communicating who they are to their friends.

One respondent explained that: *“Buying from fast food outlets provides a sense of pride and belongingness to a particular social group. Usually, those who buy from big fast food outlets flaunt the plastic packages and the logo displayed on it to show off that they visited that fast food outlet.”* As indicated by De Mooij and Hofstede (2011) consumers prefer to be accorded with appropriate respect, consequently, they associate themselves with reputable global brands for that purpose. Hence, the brand serves as a symbolic tool that consumers use to project their self-image (Levy, 1959), hence, consumers look out for the symbolic benefits of the brand because by purchasing specific brands, they tend to preserve and augment their self-concept (Shrauger, 1975). One interviewee put it like this: *“Sincerely, fast food consumption is more of status thing. It is common to hear people say let me go and spread you at PAPAYE (let me go and give you a threat at PAPAYE)”*. In this case, the reputation of the brand is important when deciding to visit the fast food outlet (Islam, Ullah and Abu Nasim, 2010). Therefore, in markets like Ghana, the brand must serve the social symbolic function and must add to the self-congruity (Sirgy, 1982) and self-enhancement Shrauger (1975) of buyers. This is because; like Bradford (2008) explains, consumers invest their ego into buying specific brands.

Often, consumers display the *“take away”* packs of fast food brands is assumed to be an indication of a class dimension, because people consider these as marks of living a *“privileged lifestyle”*. So even those who do not have enough money to buy from the large fast food brands, make do with the products offered by the micro and small scale fast food firms as and when they can afford. A consumer with the motive of showing off would only buy from micro and small fast food outlets with logos and slogan printed on the *“take away”* pack or the plastic or paper bags. A similar sentiment was expression by a middle age worker: *“Those who visit fast food outlets, consider it to be cool and trendy, I personally do feel the same. My friend celebrated his birthday party at PAPAYE and he kept bragging about it.”* Moreover, people consume fast foods to belong to their peer group and to have a feeling of *‘I am a member’*. One consumer put the feeling of belongingness in this way: *“When I see my friends at these outlets, I am moved and I have a strong feeling to join them.”*

It was found that, the big fast food outlets have increasingly become meeting grounds for people to spend time with their friends and relax. Consumers patronize these outlets to relax whiles savouring the ambience of the outlets. A visit to one fast food outlets indicated that, young consumers dress trendily and sit at these outlets to

eat and enjoy background music from these outlets while waiting for their friends to arrive. Unlike the Czech Republic where young lovers would prefer to go to regular restaurants, the prestige attached to fast food outlets in Ghana, makes them attractive for young lovers. However, many single Czech consumers spend time with their friends at fast food outlets too.

Due to the importance of fast food outlets as meeting points, the convenience factor in terms of the durations with which they open becomes very important. A consumer explained that: *“I also think that I will prefer fast food outlets that operate 24 hours on a daily basis even on weekends and holidays so I can meet my friends. I don’t want to drive all the way there and they would have closed. If I know they are always there, I will go and buy when I want one and I can also meet my friends anytime at these places when I want.”* Another explained that: *“It is always better and healthier to eat food prepared in the house. However, due to the changes in socioeconomic activities of individuals it has become convenient to eat fast food.”*

Others also preferred the variety of food items that are put on sale. For the older ones, preferences were given to food items with locally made ingredients. One respondent explained that: *“The more variety on the list of menus a fast food firm can provide for me, the more likely I will visit that outlet. But the taste and smell will determine my loyalty.”* Frequent consumers in Ghana consider variety, speed and friendliness of employees as the most important attributes for choosing fast food outlets. On the other hand, the less frequent buyers considered price, promotional deals and sitting capacity as important factors in their choice of fast food outlets.

One essential point to note is that while fast food consumption is considered cheap and trashy among a segment of consumers in the Czech Republic, in Ghana, the consumption of fast food is moderately expensive, and is often considered to be elegant and only ideal for people who want to boost their social status. Presently in Ghana, fast food is mainly consumed by the middle-income earners with busy work schedules. However, low-income earners patronize fast food during festivities and special occasions in order to enjoy the trend and also to feel a sense of belonging. Furthermore, during special occasions and festivities, middle-income earners also patronize fast food products, hence leading to an extraordinary boom during those times. Also, the low-income earners consume fast food outside the regular festive seasons and special occasions. However, the frequency of patronage may not be as that of the middle-income earners who mostly form a habit of buying fast food on regular basis.

From the responses indicated above, it is seen that fast food consumption is a result of the desire for elegance and the pressures from busy urban life. In Ghana, as more and more people work outside their home, there is a tendency for them to buy food from outside their home. Hence, modern fast food outlets satisfy that need and they do not find it difficult to integrate fast food consumption into their lifestyles.

7.3 Objective 2

How do managers of firms of different sizes in the fast food industry manipulate and incorporate the dimensions of the marketing mix in their branding strategies.

Certainly, fast food can be seen as a phenomenon of urbanization in both the Czech Republic and Ghana. In the international fast food industry, most of the big fast food brands are located in urban areas, usually in the capitals, where the population is considerably high. In the Czech Republic, the big fast food brands are located in almost every city and even small towns with considerable number of people unlike Ghana where the big fast food brands are located in the capital and are concentrated in some specific areas where people usually converge. Clearly, this is as a result of the level of developing of the two countries where the Czech Republic is ahead of Ghana. Fast food firms in Ghana do not see the need to spread or move towards places where people live as they perceive that consumers will move towards the locations despite the distance. This is also complemented by the prestige associated with fast food consumption.

In spite of the presence of micro and small scale fast food firms, the organized players (usually, medium-sized and large scale) largely dominate the market. They have an organized business models with recognized brands either by the franchising model or joint ventures. It was revealed that, micro and small fast food firms share some characteristics while medium-sized and large fast food firms possess similar characteristics. Therefore, the sizes of fast food firms are grouped into two based on the convergence of their characteristics. Where there are differences between the two groups, it will be indicated in the discussions. The following are the findings of how managers of fast food firms of different sizes in the Czech Republic and Ghana manipulate and incorporate the dimensions of the marketing mix in their branding strategies.

7.3.1 Micro and small firms

The presence of micro and small scale fast firms in the global fast food market provides different flavours, styles and emphasize on minor details that are otherwise ignored by the medium-sized and large scale fast food firms. Micro and small scale firms tend to avoid the industrialization trend in the food industry by providing a home touch and varied flavours in their products. Micro fast food firms represent the preferences of low-end consumers with little income. Their convenience and location makes them popular. Usually, micro fast food firms do not have any prominent business concept and they are usually confined in a specific area.

Although, some small fast firms have a form of business concept that guides their operations, they are not as elaborate as the medium-sized and large scale enterprises and there is not a consistent implementation of the business concept. Since branding is not of importance to them, any branding strategy that is based on the elaborate antecedence of brand equity may not be suitable for them. Not all the marketing mix variables are implemented to its fullness in such micro and small firms due to cost

and other resource constraints. Just like micro firms, small firms are also popular in both the Czech Republic and Ghana. Micro and small firms provide services for low-end consumers who may not have access to or shy away from medium-sized and large fast food brands due to reasons such as, cost, health and nutrition and non-availability among others. The micro fast food firms sampled for the study in the Czech Republic are Platýz and Pepito whiles that of Ghana include Christ ambassador food court and Zoo Zoo fast foods. The small fast food firms selected for the Czech Republic are Hallal Fast Food and Greek fast food GYROS whiles HOTPOT and Ebony restaurant were selected for Ghana.

a. Price

The pricing strategy that are used by micro and small fast food firms are mostly in the form of Economy pricing (conscious effort to keep prices low) and Penetration pricing (setting low prices to gain market share) for new entrants. Since they target the low-end segment of the market, their pricing strategy emphasize on the affordability of their products. One manager in the Czech Republic indicated that: *“Our prices are already affordable compared to the large fast food outlets.”*

Lower prices are the hallmark of micro and small fast food firms. An owner of a Gyros stand in the Czech Republic explained that: *“We observe the prices that are charged by our competitors and either match or beat the prices to attract customers where possible.”* Micro and small fast food firms endeavour to keep their prices low even in the face of increasingly economic cost.

b. Product

The product mix and product line of micro and small fast firms are very limited in the Czech Republic and Ghana. Fried rice & grilled chicken with vegetables are the dominant food items offered by micro and small fast food firms in Ghana. There are also fast food firms which sell potatoes chips and chicken. Gyros (bread, with either chicken or friend cheese with vegetables and sausages dominate the food items of micro fast food firms in the Czech Republic. There are also noodle, potatoes, rice and chicken offered by the small firms. The products that are offered by these firms are usually similar to what consumers are able to prepare at home.

By virtue of their size, micro and small fast food firms are able to adjust their production system quickly to include local ingredients and develop food items that tend to satisfy a niche market unlike the medium-sized and large scale enterprises. Their flexibility also makes it possible for them to customize food for their customers. It was realized that, in both countries, micro and small fast food firms provide consumers the option to choose the content of their food. A manager of a small fast food firm in the Czech Republic indicated that: *“We give customers the opportunity to opt for some ingredients when preparing their order. But we do not allow them to actively pick what they want themselves.”* However, one operator of a micro fast food outlet explained that: *“customers mostly know the kind of products*

we sell before they come to us to buy.” Hence, product innovation does not constitute an integral part of the strategy of micro and small fast food outlets.

c. Place

Micro and small scale fast food firms in both the Czech Republic and Ghana usually do not have the intension to expand. Their operations are limited to a particular location and that is how they want to operate. The main reason is to have total control of their business due to lack of trust and their low business acumen. Another reason is the relatively high cost involved in expanding to other places. The owner of a micro fast food firm in the Czech Republic indicated that: *“We do not have intentions to expand to cover a wide geographic area. Our strategy is to satisfy customers within a specific location and we are satisfied with it”*

However, there were differences in the distribution approach of small firms. They usually have more than one distribution channel within a defined geographical area, usually in the same, but different town or city. These trends were similar in both the Czech Republic and Ghana. In Ghana consumers want to be treated like kings and they expect that from fast food firms. Customers in Ghana usually prefer to sit at the premises of these outlets to eat, unlike the Czech Republic where those who buy from micro and small fast food firms prefer to consume their food on the go. Hence, the fast food firms provide comfortable suite and attractive sitting places.

Although micro and small fast food firms in the Czech Republic and Ghana do not have the establishment of more distributing channels in their business concept, their outlets are usually situated at busy places in the cities where they are visible to a large number of people. Some micro fast food operators operate from mobile vans; hence, they are able to move from place to place. Therefore, they are able to cover a wide area of the cities they operate in within a day.

d. Promotion

The promotion strategy of micro fast food firms is in the form of direct sales with occasional sales promotion in the premises of the outlet. Resource constraints does not permit small and micro fast food firms to engage in large scale advertisement. Promotion activities are carried out through the use of billboards displayed at the locations of the outlets. That is to say, the promotion aspects of micro and small fast food enterprises are mainly in the form of in-store promotions or marketing (Gallo, 1999). Daily or weekly offers (sales discounts, product combinations) are posted on these billboards for customers who visit the fast food outlets to see. Personal selling is mostly preferred. As one owner puts it: *“the reason is that when you are personally selling, you will know how to approach your customers and satisfy them better”* This trend was common for both micro and small fast food outlets in the Czech republic and Ghana.

CSR is an important part of the public relations strategy of firms. By virtue of their size and revenue the CSR of micro and small fast food outlets are not so profound. The CSR activities of the smaller fast food companies in Ghana are

centred on their immediate surroundings. It mostly has to do with clean-up campaigns and does not include huge projects and donations unlike the medium-medium and large fast food enterprises. CSR initiatives were less observed and emphasized in micro and small fast food firms in the Czech Republic.

e. People

In terms of employees, usually, the owners of these fast food firms are themselves present at the fast food outlets to serve customers. They play an active role in the preparation of the food and the provision of services to their customers. They have a personal contact with their regular customers and often tend to have close attachment to them. Consequently, consumers who visit these fast food firms are usually loyal to the outlets.

It was revealed that micro and small fast food maintain relationship with their customers that are mostly personal than the relationship that exist between medium-sized and large scale firms and their customers. As indicated by one manager of a micro fast food firm in Ghana: *“To be nice to customers at the point of purchase, we endeavour to have a one-on-one contact to listen to needs and expectations of customers and by virtue of our size; we achieve this objective well enough.”*

Because branding is not actively pursued in these firms, employee training is focused on equipping them with the proper practices of customer relations and service delivery. The firms believe that providing buyers with an enviable or compelling experience will result in repeated purchases and customer loyalty.

f. Process

In terms of opening up the production of food, it was found that the micro and small fast food firms are able to do it better than the medium-sized and large fast food enterprises. In Ghana for instance, micro fast food firms usually operate under moveable canopies and other temporary sheds. In the Czech Republic they operate in relatively permanent spaces. They are better placed to open the food production processes than the medium-sized and large fast food firms, hence, the processes are usually visible to visitors of their outlets.

The speed of delivery forms the basis of the process aspect of the marketing mix in micro and small firms in both the Czech Republic and Ghana. One owner indicated that: *“Our strategy is to deliver the food as fast as possible to customer.”* Delays are usually not tolerated and customers may move to another competitor since the products offered are almost similar and the outlets are located close to each other or by a walking distance.

g. Physical evidence

Micro and small fast food firms tend to be conscious of the cleanliness of their outlets at all times. One manager in a small scale firm indicated that: *“we ensure cleanliness at our outlets; we believe it is essential to attract consumers.”* Also,

another indicated that: *“We have general cleaning every four weeks and daily cleaning of the company after each business day.”*

The level of health control of fast food firms is very minimal in the Czech Republic. In Ghana, it is almost non-existent. The fast food firms recognize the importance of the healthy environment and its impact on the firms' profitability, as consumers expect that from the firms. In the words of one worker at a fast food outlet: *“A Well tidy, nice painting, employees' first impression to the customers.”* The use of souvenirs and give-aways were not frequently applied in micro and small fast food firms as in the case of medium-sized and large scale enterprises.

7.3.2 Medium and large firms

Branding is more prominent in the large scale firms in both the Czech Republic and Ghana. However, the understanding and implementation of branding is more intensive in the Czech Republic than in Ghana. All the marketing mix variables are fully exploited, manipulated and implemented by these firms by virtue of their size and large resource base in the Czech Republic, though there are traces of the implementation of aspects of the marketing mix among medium-sized and large enterprises in Ghana. For those firms that are part of franchisees, the intensity of use of the marketing mix is more profound.

The marketing strategy of the medium-sized and large fast food enterprises consists of creating high visibility and global recognition and the concept of franchising makes it possible for proper recognition on the global scale. Large scale fast food firms in the Czech Republic and Ghana are able to leverage on their global franchise reputation to attract more consumers. In Ghana where ethnocentrism is not so strong, global fast food franchisees tend to be attractive to consumers. The reputation of global fast food franchise chains in the Czech Republic increases their appeal to consumers. Hence, it is easier for firms to leverage on the franchise reputation than starting a new fast food brand in the two countries. The chains have higher capacity to grow and expand by means of franchise financing.

The large fast food firms sampled for the Czech Republic are KFC and McDonald's while KFC and PAPAYE were selected from Ghana. The franchising system in the fast food industry in both countries follows the “business” or “package” format (Preble, 1992). Although KFC and PAPAYE does not meet the criteria for selecting large fast food enterprises in terms of employee numbers, their modus operandi are very similar to any large fast food firm that operates elsewhere in the world. The medium-sized fast food firm in Czech Republic include Subway and Himalaya Fast Food while Mr Bigg's and Chicken Republic formed the medium-sized fast food firms in Ghana.

a. Price

Price is the only variable in the marketing mix that directly impacts on the revenue and profits of the firm. Furthermore, it is the revenue that ensures the continuous survival of the firm. Hence, all the other marketing mix variables will

revolve around it. One manager in a large fast food firm in the Czech Republic indicated that: “*Consumers want nice tasty products for relatively low cost.*” This assertion was contrary to firms in Ghana. Because consumers in Ghana associate fast food consumption to prestige and financial well being, medium-sized and large fast food firms do not hesitate to transfer any increment in their operation cost to consumers. Their brand reputation serves as leverage for charging higher prices unlike the micro and small scale firms who may fear losing their customers to their immediate competitors who may be operating an outlet close of theirs. The belief is that, irrespective of the price of the products, consumers will still patronize the products unlike micro and small scale enterprises that are mostly reluctant to pass the full cost to consumers and rather explore alternative ways of absorbing the cost, often through the reduction in the quantity of the food items. When the cost is increased, by micro and small firms in Ghana, they are very marginal. This is the reason why micro and small scale firms tend to fold up quickly when they are over stretched by increases in their cost of operations.

In this regard, branding is even more relevant to the micro and small scale firms as it will contribute to creating a niche market so as not to face adverse effect of increment in the cost of production. Branding will enable them to gain loyal customers who may be prepared to pay more for the firm’s products even in the face of increase in cost. Though branding is not emphasized to a large extent among micro and small firms in the Czech Republic, the economic environment and the income levels of consumer’s means that it is relatively easier for them to pass on the rise in cost of their operations to consumers without much loses. Medium and large scale firms in Ghana are able to pass on their cost to consumers unlike in the Czech Republic where fast food is affordable to those in low income groups. In Ghana, the higher the cost of products from fast food outlets, the greater the prestige attached to people who buy from such outlets.

Due to the fact that the products offered by fast food firms are closely related although not perfect substitutes, a price conscious customer may be lured towards a brand that offers the least price. The penetrative pricing strategy should be used by fast food firms that are considered as new entrants. This is because consumers anticipate such offers and they want to benefit from the new brand that has been lunched. Sales promotions that are price oriented could trigger responses from consumers to try or experiment the products or brands of the new entrant. Consumers will not like to pay the full cost of a brand they are not used to, especially if the new product is of the same price as their preferred product or brand. As indicated by Hopkins (1996), for large fast food firms that are part of global franchises, the local franchise owners are allowed to make adjustments in the price of their products based on the macroeconomic indicators.

b. Product

All the firms admitted to the fact that the product is the most important part of the marketing mix in the fast food industry. The kinds of products that are offered by

medium-sized and large fast food outlets are mostly similar; though the large fast food outlets have more products in their product mix and product line than the medium-sized fast food outlets. Among the medium-sized and large enterprises, considerable efforts are put into the development of new products and evaluations are conducted to assess the marketability of existing products. The franchise owners of KFC in both the Czech Republic and Ghana emphasised the essence of product by saying that: *“if you squeeze a product into the market, you will squeeze out of the market quickly”*. They indicated that, the fast food business is acutely sensitive to competition which requires the establishment and maintenance of product standards with some appreciable level of quality. Hence, there is no room for introducing mediocre products and services. Every product strategy requires adequate preparation to ensure its suitability to the market.

The product element is essential because that is what actually enters the consumer's body. According to a manager at Mr Bigg's, *“quality and variety of the food we offer is essential to our firm and it permeates the different aspect of our operations.”* The quality standards are observed starting from where they buy their raw materials to the final products that are sold to customers. The manipulation of the marketing mix for existing firms begins with the product. The product portfolio of large scale fast food firms like Mc Donald's and KFC in the Czech Republic primarily comprises of vegetarian and non-vegetarian menu. These are meant to increase the variety in the menu portfolio.

A strategy that is used by KFC which is widely welcomed by consumers in the Czech Republic is the *“feel free to refill”* drinks on the premises of the outlet. Here, consumers upon obtaining a disposable cup from one purchase are able to refill it with assortment of drinks as and when they want without having to pay extra. This is only unique to KFC. Also, packaging forms a greater part of the branding strategy of the medium-sized and large fast food firms. The packages come with inscriptions of the logo and brand mantra or slogan. From a distance, it is possible to identify the brand from the package. The packages are provided free of charge to buyers.

Among the large fast food firms, sub-branding was very common in the two countries. Sub-branding is where the firms put together specific products ingredients under a given name to target some specific customers. For instance, KFC in the Czech Republic had sub-brands such as BSmart, Hot Wings Menu, Kentucky Menu Twister Menu, Mega Pocket Menu, Kids menu and Zinger Menu among others; while McDonalds had sub-brands like Big Mac, Cheeseburger, Hamburger, McChicken, McCountry and Royal among others.

In Ghana, the variety of sub-brands was not as extensive as that of Czech Republic. This was especially true for the fast food firms of local origin. The foreign fast food outlets had sub-brands. For instance, Chicken republic has sub-brands like Spicy Fried Citizens Meal, Quarter Rotisserie Citizens Meal, Spicy Fried Citizens Combo and Quarter Rotisserie Citizens Combo while KFC had sub-brands like Twisters, Burgers and Streetwise among others. The large fast food franchises in both countries though part of a standardized global franchise are able to make

changes to their menu items to suite the taste and preferences of consumers (Hopkins, 1996). However, the changes are not so dramatic since the preferences patterns of consumers in the two countries do not differ from consumers elsewhere. The extent of the changes in the business franchise format is a function of the cultural distance that exists between the foreign and the domestic cultures of the fast food firm (Aydin and Kacker, 1990).

c. Place

Place or distribution channels are more extensive among medium sized and large fast food firms in the Czech Republic than in Ghana. The marketing strategy of McDonalds and KFC in the Czech Republic is to have an outlet wherever people live, work, shop, play, or gather. In the Czech Republic, the competitiveness of fast food outlets is caused by the convenience factor. Consumers in the Czech Republic consider convenience as an important factor in their buying decisions. Consequently, some the large scale fast food outlets in the Czech Republic provide maximum convenience for customers by combining shopping, travelling and work with meal-time. Drive-through services has also permeated through the place strategy to add to the convenience of the buying experience in the outlets.

The franchise owners of KFC in the Czech Republic indicated that: *“People want quick and convenient meals; they do not want to spend a lot of time preparing meals, travelling to pick up meals, or waiting for meals in restaurants.”* For McDonalds, it was revealed by a manager that: *“Our Convenience Strategy is to monitor the changing lifestyles of consumers and endeavour to intercept them wherever possible. Therefore, when we expand customer convenience through the increase in the number of outlets, we gain market share.”*

The strategy of medium-sized and large scale enterprises in Ghana is that of a pull strategy, where they expect consumers to move to the fast food locations while that of the Czech Republic is a push strategy, where they move their outlets closer to consumers. The dominant reason for the differences is the prestigious image that consumers in Ghana attach to fast food consumption, hence their preference to converge at the premises of the outlets of big fast food brands irrespective of the location, unlike in the Czech Republic where emphasis is placed on convenience. However, cost considerations also play a considerable role in the establishment of fast food outlets in different locations in Ghana.

One manager in Ghana explained that: *“the spread of outlets of the outlet is essential to keep customers. When there are outlets spread in different locations, the degree of non-availability of a product is greatly reduced. A customer may switch to another brand they are not able to find their preferred brand.”* Consequently, the strategy of the fast food firms, especially the large enterprises is to spread and increase the number of outlets available. The increase in the distribution channels is a key marketing strategy of large fast food franchises (Jekanowski, 1999).

Fast food branding for the medium-sized and large scale enterprises starts from the design of the restaurants. This is especially true for those that are part of global

franchises. The ambience and design of the restaurants are similar irrespective of the location. This is an essential condition for the franchise contract and each franchisee is obliged to conform (“*business*” or “*package*” format franchising) (Preble, 1992). For McDonald and KFC, the strategy is to use the franchising system to operate in a wide variety of locations in the Czech Republic. For instance, KFC’s strategy is to open an outlet in towns with 100,000 inhabitants. KFC also intends to use the same franchising strategy to expand in Ghana. PAPAYE in Ghana though not a franchise, establishes branches in different parts of the capital. Their brand network and expansions is restricted by the cost involved. The local franchisee of KFC in Ghana, Mohinani Group, intends to open more outlets in Accra. The idea for venturing into markets throughout Africa is as a result of the increase in the economic growth, increase in the middle-class and relative political stability in the continent. The same reason has accounted for the expansion strategies by United African Company of Nigeria (UACN) Plc operators of Mr Bigg's fast food restaurants.

However, PAPAYE has the most branch network in Ghana at the moment. By establishing outlets in shopping centres and on busy commercial roads, the large fast food firms benefit from the impulse purchases from customers who might not have a pre-planned desire to patronize from their outlets. The large fast food firms in both countries do not offer home delivery but their outlets are readily accessible. The large fast food firms in the Czech Republic (Mc Donald’s) offer take away drive through services.

d. Promotion

The way the firm delivers the brand to the public will determine how they will be perceived. In both countries, it was realized that, the advertisement by the large fast food firms are targeted mainly at children, youth, the middle-aged and the middle class. The use of advertisements and sales promotions are vital to the expansion and stimulation of demand among the younger consumers. Due to the intensity in the level of competition among the reputable brands; it is observed that there are more aggressive advertisements and promotions in the Czech market than in Ghana. However, because KFC is new in the Ghanaians market, they use all the marketing communication mix intensively with the aim of getting the attention of the market and to emphasize their presence in the market. Most especially, electronic media such as radio advertisement dominates their marketing communication.

The marketing communication of the large scale franchise brands are mostly done by the franchisors. This forms part of the franchise agreement and it is meant to ensure harmonization of all the communication initiatives of the brand. The communication strategies of fast food franchises are more sophisticated and intensive in terms of the amount of money they spend in both below the line and above the line communication. Brand building and sales promotion are the focal point around which all the marketing communication of large fast food franchises targets. Medium-sized fast food firms in the Czech Republic use milder forms of

promoting their brands and their product. They are not as sophisticated and intensive as the large fast food outlets.

However, consumers (based on different ages) in the two countries often expect regular discounts and other sales promotion methods. The prime focus of McDonald's in the Czech Republic is children and teenagers as well as young working adults. At various intervals, McDonalds offer happy meals which are mainly targeted at children and small toys are given together with the meals they buy. Aside this, there are promotions in the form of winning prizes by way of lucky draws where scratch cards are given to consumers to enter a draw to win various prices.

CSR is an integral part of the public relations strategy of medium-sized and large firms in the Czech Republic and Ghana. CSR is vital in international business today. Fast food firms in the Czech Republic especially the large fast food chains like McDonald's and KFC have social responsibility policies which are centred on sponsorship of sporting activities, e.g. football. However, for the large fast food firms, these sponsorships are done at the franchise head office. The franchises do not actively engage in CSR, they expect to benefit from the CSR initiatives by the franchise owners. Just like the pricing of products, franchise owners are allowed to make changes in their promotion strategy to suite the market demands (Hopkins, 1996).

In Ghana, social responsibility is an important part of maintaining competitive advantage not only in the fast food industry but also in other industries. The culture of the country is such that people tend to attach emotional feelings to such initiative with the belief that every product of the company they buy goes to support the society. Eventually, it makes them repeat their purchases. Such affections are so strong that people recommend the company's products to friends and relatives. The fast food themselves know the relevance of been socially responsible and its impact on the brand image.

The CSR of Mr Bigg's for instance is aimed at positioning the firm as a socially responsible member of the community. The firm provides support for schools and other institutions. The marketing manager at Mr Bigg's explained that CSR forms part of the business strategy of the firm and it is aimed at creating a relationship with their external stakeholder whiles at the same time projecting the image of the firm positively. He further asserted that: "*our aim is to bring improvement in the lives people in our immediate communities*".

CSR was used by both medium-sized and large enterprises in Ghana. Though, the practice was dominant in the large fast food firms in the Czech republic, they played a passive role in CSR implementations as the CSR practices are handled by the franchise owners. The practice of CSR was less visible among medium-sized fast food firms in the Czech Republic.

e. People

At the very least, employees of the firm are the first point of contact for customers of the fast food firm. Consumers want to be treated well, they also want their

concerns responded to in ways that makes them feel special. In all the two countries, it was found that employee branding in all the medium-sized and large enterprises begins with the provision of uniforms with all employees with the logo and slogan of clearly printed on the uniforms. Also, new employees undergo rigorous training lasting for a specific period of time to learn about the tenets of brands and how to deliver a compelling experience to customers based on the branding principles. This was more peculiar to the medium-sized and large fast food outlets in both the Czech Republic and Ghana.

One manager of a large fast food outlet in the Czech Republic indicated that: *“Our induction programme for employees includes education on the tenets of our brand and the role it plays in enhancing our competitiveness.”* Another manager in Ghana explained that: *“Everyone employed in our firm is given adequate training on what our brand stands for and they are able to articulate the branding strategy simply and clearly.”* For the medium-sized firms, although employee training is carried out, it is not as elaborate as that of the large firms. This is because, the large firms are usually part of global franchises and hence, there is an expectation of a standardized approach to dealing with clients irrespective of the location, unlike medium-sized firms which are not so widespread.

During the training of employees, emphasis is placed on friendliness and prompt service delivery. Unlike the micro and small enterprises, there is no bond between the employees and the customers in medium-sized and large fast food enterprises. Even when there is some form of relationship, it is very weak and is strictly for business purposes and it ends after the sale is concluded. There is no use of emails, direct mails or telephone to establish a relationship. Customer loyalty is built from trust and the belief by customers in the reputation of the brands.

f. Process

Fast food firms must note that, the processes that consumers find annoying are those that are designed to the convenience of the firm and not the customers. The changing trends in the global business environment have brought about the introduction of technology in the operations of fast food firms. Innovation in production process and services delivery is essential for competitive advantage in consumer markets. The operators of KFC in Ghana explained that: *“the essence of innovation is not only to save them cost, but more important to increase the speed and efficiency of service delivery.”* In other words the convenience to the customers is of utmost importance. This view was also shared by the franchise operators of McDonalds and KFC in the Czech Republic.

Although the internet has penetrated into the fast food industry in more advanced countries like the United States, the use of the internet in the Czech Republic is mostly for marketing communication and promotion purposes. At its basic form, the internet is used provide information about menu items on offers at the outlets. In Ghana, none of the medium-sized and large scale fast food firms have website unlike the Czech Republic where all of them have websites. However, in both

countries, medium-sized and large enterprises both used social network (Facebook) to provide information about their products and to keep in touch with their customers. This is not surprising because of the low internet penetration in Ghana.

The managers in Ghana indicated that: *“Having a website does not affect their customer base, in any case it is an additional cost which is not needed in the fast food business in the country”*. For fast food firms like KFC and McDonald in the Czech Republic and PAPAWE and KFC in Ghana, the production of food is very visible for customers to see. A manager at McDonalds explained that: *“In order to convince our customers of the food that is cooked, the process of food preparation is made visible to our customers”*. The idea behind this is to instil trust and confidence in the customers. As they see how the food is prepared, they are able to convince themselves of the quality and this helps in pre-purchase satisfaction.

g. Physical evidence

Anything that reminds customers of their experience with the firm is always positive in projecting and instilling long lasting positive impressions with the consumer. In the large fast food chains, aside the food that is provided, on special occasions, the firms provide customers with something tangible (souvenirs, toys for kids, free candies, coupons etc) to remind consumers of the existence of the firm. This was only peculiar to the large fast food firms in the Czech Republic. In both the Czech Republic and Ghana, family cohesiveness is essential to the cultures of the country. Hence, fast food firms have designed their outlets to have something that will be of interest to families when they visit. Parents can watch their children play at the outlets as they eat. It is also a possible meeting ground for families. There is also food created purposely for kids, young people and adults.

A manager at Mr Bigg's in Ghana explained that: *“Our focus is to create an unforgettable mealtime experience for families and young adults who visit our outlets. Therefore, it is not only about the food, but also an experience. Furthermore, the core values of the firm are to offer convenience, refreshingly and delightful ambience, good food that is provided by enthusiastic employees and value for money reflects the passion with which we deal with our customers.”*

All the medium-sized and large fast food brands indicated that their strategy is based on a focus on maintaining clean and hygienic interiors of their outlets. Furthermore, importance is placed on the attractiveness of the interiors and maintenance of proper decorum at all outlets. There is also consistency, taste and quality in the menu items irrespective of the location of the medium and large fast food enterprises in both countries. To instil trust and confidence in the market, firms also ensure that they deliver exactly what they promise in their marketing communications. This ensures trust and confidence in the brand in the eyes of consumers. The reputation of their brands demands honesty and consistency in their interactions with consumers because; consumer apathy could jeopardize their brand reputation - the effect of which would be detrimental in the long-term.

7.4 Objective 3

The cultural orientation (cultural dimensions) of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana with reference to the different age groups and sex

This research determined the cultural orientation of both countries with respect to respondents buying behaviour and perception of fast food products and services. The cultural orientations are examined using the sex and age of respondents as independent variables. In doing this the following questions were asked:

Table 6: Research questions for assessing the cultural dimensions

No	Question	Cultural dimension
1	For me fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend. It is expensive for those with low incomes.	High vs. low power distance
2	For me, it is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues or friends than to go alone	Individualism vs. collectivism
3	I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food, because the family bond, care and dependence are important to me.	Masculinity vs. Femininity
4	I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food, so I often hesitate when I have to buy from fast food outlets.	High vs. low uncertainty avoidance
5	When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change even if there are cheaper options offered by other fast food brands because I will not like to take the risk of trying other brands.	Long vs. short term orientation

Source: Authors compilation

The respondents were asked to determine the extent to which they agree or disagree to the statements in table 5 on the 5 point Likert scale from Strongly disagree (1), Disagree (2), Neither agree nor disagree (3), Agree (4) and Strongly agree (5). The analyses are done in conformity with the sex and age of respondents to provide solutions to hypothesis 1 and 2.

H1: There is significant difference between consumers (sex) in the Czech Republic and Ghana in terms of their cultural orientations (dimensions of culture).

Mann Whitney U test – is used to find out if there are differences and compare the means to see where the differences exist. This is because; there are two sets of samples that are independent. The following is the results of the Mann-Whitney U test analysis of hypothesis 1 from the Czech Republic and Ghana.

Table 7: Summary of the significance level between sex and cultural dimension in the Czech Republic and Ghana

Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)					
	Fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	It is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food	I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change
Czech republic	0.161	0.110	0.000	0.007	0.493
Ghana	0.284	0.542	0.287	0.734	0.675

Source: Survey data, 2011

In the Czech Republic, there were no significant differences between three of the dependent variables and sex. The p-value for the analysis on power distance was 0.161, collectivism and individualism was 0.110 and long term orientation was 0.493. These figures were more than the sig. level of 0.05, hence, it can be concluded that in the Czech Republic, respondents do not differ with respect to sex and the cultural variables of power distance, long term orientation and collectivism and individualism. There were significant differences between sex and two of the dependent variables (masculinity and femininity and uncertainty avoidance). The p-value of the test of masculinity and femininity and sex was 0.000 while that of uncertainty avoidance and sex was 0.007. These values were less than the sig. level of 0.05. A comparison of the mean rank revealed that females (with a mean of 256.39) in the Czech Republic are more feministic than males (with a mean of 203.22). Hence, the hypothesis was partially confirmed for respondents in the Czech Republic.

Females usually prefer to cook at home rather than buying fast food compared to males. This is not surprising because the traditional domestic role that women play in the Czech Republic. Eating out was more of a male attribute than a female attribute. Also, it was revealed that females scored high in uncertainty avoidance (mean of 246.29) than males (mean of 213.87). Past research shows that, females are more risk averse than males (Byrnes, Miller and Schafer, 1999). The socialization processes in society expect women to take less risk and embrace soft attributes like kindness, loving and caring while men are expected to take risk and be aggressive. From this finding, it is realized that, these expectations have not changed in the Czech Republic, hence, women do not take a lot of risk. As indicated by Hofstede (1984) such women prefer predictability, stability, are usually resistant to change and exhibit discomfort with the unknown. Hence, making them resistant to change from one fast food brand they are used to another new brand (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). For such women, the most useful way to handle risk is by buying brands that

are reputable or well-known, especially those brands that they have had favourable past experiences (Aaker, 1991; Levy, 1959).

However, in Ghana, the results showed that there is no significant difference between sex and the cultural orientation of respondents. The p-value recorded for all the five questions that access the cultural dimensions among consumers in Ghana were more than the sig. level of 0.05. The p-values recorded are as follows: power distance was 0.284, collectivism and individualism 0.542, masculinity and femininity 0.287, uncertainty avoidance 0.734 and long term orientation 0.675. Therefore, the hypothesis was not supported for respondents in Ghana. This trend could be attributed to the increase in levels of income of the middle class, the weakening of family bond due to busy work schedules, the rapid change in the roles of women in the Ghanaian society, the less interest placed on risk factors in fast food consumption due to the prestige and the desire to belong and the willingness to change and try different products due to the presence of fast food outlets of different sizes in the market (competition) and the attractiveness of the firms marketing mix packages that are offered by these firms.

H2: There is significant difference between consumers (age) in the Czech Republic and Ghana in terms of their cultural orientations (dimensions of culture).

Because there were more than two groups of the independent variables and more than two dependent variables, and also there were one independent variable with two or more levels, the Kruskal Wallis test was used to test the hypothesis.

Table 8: Summary of the significance level between age and cultural dimension in the Czech Republic and Ghana

	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)				
	Fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	It is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food	I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change
Czech republic	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.000
Ghana	0.011	0.230	0.728	0.000	0.000

Source: Survey data, 2011

In the Czech Republic, the research revealed a statistical significance between the ages of respondents and the cultural dimensions. The p-value of all the five cultural dimensions was less than the sig. level of 0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis is confirmed for all the cultural dimensions in the Czech Republic. In terms of power

distance, it was revealed that it was highest among respondents between the ages of 31-40 (mean rank 265.84) and lowest among respondents between the age group 41-50 (mean rank 186.97). The rest of the mean ranks are shown in descending order as follows: age group 21-30 (mean rank 247.24), 51-60 (mean rank 225.46) and 11-20 (mean rank 218.28)

Furthermore, it was revealed that, respondents between the ages of 51-60 (mean rank 278.52) preferred to visit fast food outlets with their family and work colleagues, hence exhibiting a high collectivism tendencies. Respondents between the ages of 21-30 recorded the lowest mean rank i.e. 199.07, hence demonstrating a high level of individualism followed by age group 31-40 (mean rank 232.71), 11-20 (mean rank 239.51) and 41-50 (mean rank 256.93). Like Chavadi and Kokatnur (2008) indicated, consumers above 35 years prefer to eat with friends and family members than alone, and the intensity of this collective feeling, tends to increase with age. Also, the research showed that respondents between the ages of 51-60 (mean rank 201.87) and 11-20 (mean rank 204.63) least preferred to cook at home, hence, demonstrating the highest level of masculinity. For those between the ages of 51-60, it was mainly because they usually have other people to cook for them. But for those between the ages of 11-20, the main reason for not cooking at home was due to lack of time and the convenience of eating out. Respondents between the ages of 31-40 (mean rank 277.56) demonstrated the highest level of femininity. The rest of the age groups mean ranks were moderate, thus, 21-30 (mean rank 232.39) and 41-50 (mean rank 245.76).

With regards to uncertainty avoidance, the research found that this attribute varied directly with age, meaning that, the higher the age of consumers, the higher the uncertainty avoidance level. The mean ranks are indicated from lowest to the highest as follows: 11-20 (mean rank 178.07), 21-30 (mean rank 205.13), 31-40 (mean rank 243.54), 41-50 (mean rank 292.47) and 51-60 (mean rank 328.37). Young people do like to take a lot of risk mainly because they are more adventurous and they have fewer responsibilities. However, like Mittal and Kamakura (2001) explained, as they get older, their tendency to go through mental deliberations to access the risk exposure of increases. They become risk averse because they are aware of the impact their decision will have on other people who depend on them. Moreover, with regards to long term orientation, the study found that, respondents between the ages of 31-40 years (mean rank 270.35) who are usually workers are loyal to fast food brands due to the high tendency of long term orientation. This was followed by respondents between the ages of 21-30 (mean rank 256.57) and age group 11-20 (mean rank 232.97). Short term oriented respondents, thus those who are less loyal to fast food brands were those between the age groups 51-60 (mean rank 198.89) and 41-50 (mean rank 157.96). It can be concluded that older people are short term oriented than younger people.

However, in Ghana, there was no statistical significance between the ages of the respondents and the cultural dimensions of collectivism and individualism (p-value 0.230) and masculinity and femininity (p-value 0.728) given a sig. level of 0.05.

Respondent of all ages consider it important to visit fast food outlets with their friends and close relations than to go alone. This means that the collectivism attribute of the Ghanaian society is still strong for different consumers irrespective of their age. Furthermore, the age of the respondents was not important in predicting their level of appreciating feminine or masculine roles. According to the findings of Hofstede (1984), there are strong feministic tendencies in West African countries of which Ghana is one. Hence, it was not surprising that, respondents of different ages did not differ much in the masculinity and femininity variable.

However, there were statistical significance between age of respondents and 3 of the cultural dimensions namely power distance (p-value 0.011), uncertainty avoidance (p-value 0.000) and long term orientation (p-value 0.000) given a sig. level of 0.05. The mean ranks showed that, there were differences in terms of power distance. The perception of fast food been associated with the higher class in society was demonstrated by younger respondents, thus, age group 11-20 (mean rank 410.09) and 21-30 (mean rank 418.77). The mean rank for respondents between ages 31-40 and 41-50 were quite similar, thus 367.45 and 380.28 respectively. However, respondent between age group 51-60 with mean rank 308.03 demonstrated a low power distance. Also, uncertainty avoidance to a large extent varied directly with age. That is to say that, the older a person, the higher the uncertainty avoidance ranks and vice versa (Mittal and Kamakura, 2001). This finding was similar to that of Czech Republic. The mean ranks for the respondents are as follows: 11-20 (mean rank 386.63), 21-30 (mean rank 360.00), 31-40 (mean rank 404.06), 41-50 (mean rank 421.83) and 51-60 (mean rank 583.40).

There were also differences in long term orientation, although the scores did not follow a particular trend. The least loyal consumers with short term orientation were respondents between the age group 11-20. Such consumers like to explore so they tend to change from one fast food outlet to another depending on how attractive or otherwise the firms marketing mix is, especially, price and promotion. Respondents from age group 51-60 were also short term oriented. Long term oriented consumers were between the ages 31-40 (mean rank 480.26). This was followed by age group 21-30 and 41-50 with mean rank 446.58 and 411.49 respectively. Hence, it can be concluded that, the hypothesis was partially confirmed for respondents in Ghana.

7.5 Objective 4

The extent of relationship between consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana and their response to the marketing mix variables.

The 7 dependent variables based on the marketing mix were identified and tested in this research. They are product, promotion, price, place, physical evidence, people, and process. These were used to formulate the third hypothesis:

H3: There is no significant difference in the response to the seven (7) elements of the marketing mix by males and females.

Hypothesis 3 was tested with the Mann Whitney U test. Where there were differences, the means were compared to see which groups differ. This is because; there are two sets of samples that are independent.

Table 9: Summary of the significance level between sex and the marketing mix in the Czech Republic and Ghana

	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)						
	Place	Promotion	Process	People	Price	Product	Physical evidence
Czech Republic	0.177	0.198	0.754	0.075	0.278	0.000	0.000
Ghana	0.272	0.717	0.224	0.265	0.014	0.121	0.944

Source: Survey data, 2011

In the Czech republic, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed that, there were no significant differences between the sex of respondents and marketing mix element of place (p-value of 0.177), promotion (p-value of 0.198), process (p-value of 0.754), people (p-value of 0.075), and price (p-value of 0.278). However, there were significant differences between males and females for the product (p-value of 0.000) and physical evidence (p-value of 0.000) aspect of the marketing mix. These p-values were less than the sig. level of 0.05. Female respondents recorded a higher mean values (254.57 and 253.98 for product and physical evidence respectively) compared to the mean values (205.14 and 205.76 for product and physical evidence respectively) recorded for males. This shows that, females pay more attention to the nutritional content of the food they buy. They want to know what they consume and what they give to their children to eat. They expect to spend their money on healthy and nutritious products especially when they are buying for their children. Their domestic cooking roles make them more conscious of food nutrition and eating habits of their families unlike males. Regarding physical evidence, it was revealed that the expectations of adult females were mainly for the interest of children, especially when these females take them to visit fast food outlets. They want a nice environment where they can change children's cloth and outlets with children playing ground. The younger females expect an evidence of service quality and value for their money. Hence, the hypothesis was partially confirmed for sex and response to the marketing mix by respondents in the Czech Republic.

However, in Ghana, the analysis of sex and the marketing mix was not statistically significant except for price. The p-values for 6 variables in the marketing mix were more than the sig. level of 0.05. The results are as follows: place 0.272, promotion 0.717, process 0.224, people 0.265, product 0.121 and physical evidence 0.944. The relationship between sex and price was statistically significant as the p-value level for price is 0.014 (less than the sig level of 0.05). A comparison of the mean rank revealed that males (mean 418.20) consider price as more important in their buying behaviour than females (378.27). This was contrary

to the expectations that females will be more price conscious than males. Therefore, the hypothesis was partially confirmed for sex and consumer response to the marketing mix in Ghana.

H4: There is a significant difference among consumers of different ages and their response to the seven (7) elements of the marketing mix.

The Kruskal Wallis test was used because there were more than two groups of the independent variables and more than two dependent variables, and also the independent variable had two or more levels.

Table 10: Summary of the significance level between age and the marketing mix in the Czech Republic and Ghana

	Asymp. Sig.						
	Place	Promotion	Process	People	Price	Product	Physical evidence
Czech Republic	0.014	0.353	0.000	0.930	0.000	0.000	0.035
Ghana	0.011	0.526	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Source: Survey data, 2011

The statistical test revealed a no significant differences between age and the promotion and people aspect of the marketing mix among respondents from the Czech Republic. Both variables had a p-value more than the sig. level of 0.05, thus, p-values of 0.353 and 0.930 for promotion and people respectively. However, there were significant differences between the ages of respondents and place (p-value of 0.014), process (p-value of 0.000), price (p-value of 0.000), product (p-value of 0.000) and physical evidence (p-value of 0.035). These p-values were less than the sig. level of 0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis was partially confirmed for respondents' age and their response to the marketing mix in the Czech Republic.

An assessment of the means to determine where the differences were observed revealed that, the differences varied directly with the age of respondents and distribution channels or place. Young people want to have a nice ambience to enjoy and spend time in the fast food outlets while the older people preferred to buy and eat without taking much interest in the ambience. Also, young people did not mind the location of the outlet. However, the interest in the place or distribution channels tends to decline with age. The price largely varied with the age of respondents. The lower the age of respondents, the more likely they pay particular attention to price they pay for the food items they buy. For such younger consumers, sales discounts and other price promotions are likely to persuade them to buy from fast food outlets.

With regards to product, it was found that, respondents in lower age groups paid less attention to the product content than respondents in high age groups. The interest in the product tends to increase as the age of the consumer increase and vice versa. This was because; consumers tend to become conscious of the food they

consume and the attributes of the products as they grow. Apart from respondents in age group 11-20 who recorded a mean rank of 249.96, it was found that, the interest in the process largely declines as the ages of respondent's increases from 21-30 (mean rank 256.65) to 51-60 (mean rank 148.46). With regards to the physical evidence, although there were differences, it did not follow a particular pattern.

In Ghana, it was revealed that the relationship between age and 6 variables in the marketing mix were statistically significant. The p-values recorded were less than the sig. level of 0.05. They are as follows: place 0.011, process 0.000, people 0.000, price 0.000, product 0.000 and physical evidence 0.000. The mean rank analysis revealed that in terms of place, apart from the age group 21-30 which had a mean rank of 356.64, the interest tend to decline as the age increases from 11-20 (mean rank 407.01) to 51-60 (mean rank 354.69). Though there were differences of interest in process, people, price, product and physical evidence among the different age groups, it did not follows a specific pattern or trend.

It was only promotion which was not statistically significant because the p-value (0.526) was more than the sig. level of 0.05. Irrespective of the age of respondents, they always want to see firms make their communication mix customer oriented. Consumers in Ghana expect the contents of marketing communication and promotions to offer them good deals in the form of reduction in prices, discounts, coupons and other incentives. Therefore, the hypothesis was partially confirmed for respondents' age and their response to the marketing mix in Ghana.

7.6 Objective 5

The relationship between sex, age and income and the frequency of purchase of fast food.

RQ1: What is the relationship between sex, age and income and the frequency of purchase of fast food?

The respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with which they buy fast food. A cross tabulation analysis was done to find the interrelationship between the frequency of purchases of fast food and the age, sex and income of respondents. The cross tabulation analysis performs complex statistical trends where there are different levels (age, sex and income) of the independent variables been compared with different levels of the behaviour of interest (frequency of fast food purchases). Cross tabulation reporting allows for a quick comparison of how different groups of respondents answer to the survey question. Also, it presents the number of respondents who fall into each possible pairing of the answers to the survey questions. The cross tabulation analysis gives details of the counts or frequencies of occurrences of the phenomenon of interest in row, column and total percentages. The results of the relationship from the two countries are indicated in the following tables:

The Chi-square test results with a sig. level of 0.001, showed significant differences between the frequency of purchase of fast food and the sex of respondents. The following is a cross tabulation analysis of the distribution between sex of respondents in the Czech Republic and the frequency of purchase of fast food.

Table 11: Sex and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Czech Republic)

		How often do you buy fast food						Total		
		daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month	occasionally			
Sex of respondents	male	Count	15	59	59	56	13	22	224	
		% within demographic background	6.7%	26.3%	26.3%	25.0%	5.8%	9.8%	100.0%	
		% within how often do you buy fast food	42.9%	68.6%	47.2%	47.5%	28.9%	43.1%	48.7%	
		% of Total	3.3%	12.8%	12.8%	12.2%	2.8%	4.8%	48.7%	
		female	Count	20	27	66	62	32	29	236
		% within demographic background	8.5%	11.4%	28.0%	26.3%	13.6%	12.3%	100.0%	
		% within how often do you buy fast food	57.1%	31.4%	52.8%	52.5%	71.1%	56.9%	51.3%	
		% of Total	4.3%	5.9%	14.3%	13.5%	7.0%	6.3%	51.3%	
Total		Count	35	86	125	118	45	51	460	
		% within demographic background	7.6%	18.7%	27.2%	25.7%	9.8%	11.1%	100.0%	
		% within how often do you buy fast food	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	7.6%	18.7%	27.2%	25.7%	9.8%	11.1%	100.0%	

Source: Survey data, 2011

Also, the Chi-square test results with a sig. level of 0.000, showed significant differences between the frequency of purchase of fast food and the age of respondents. The following is a cross tabulation analysis of the distribution between age of respondents in the Czech Republic and the frequency of purchase of fast food.

Table 12: Age and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Czech Republic)

			How often do you buy fast food					Total	
			daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month		occasionally
ages of 11-20 respondents	Count		20	32	33	19	4	1	109
	% within ages of consumers		18.3%	29.4%	30.3%	17.4%	3.7%	0.9%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food		57.1%	37.2%	26.4%	16.1%	8.9%	2.0%	23.7%
	% of Total		4.3%	7.0%	7.2%	4.1%	0.9%	0.2%	23.7%
21-30	Count		9	40	53	50	9	10	171
	% within ages of consumers		5.3%	23.4%	31.0%	29.2%	5.3%	5.8%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food		25.7%	46.5%	42.4%	42.4%	20.0%	19.6%	37.2%
	% of Total		2.0%	8.7%	11.5%	10.9%	2.0%	2.2%	37.2%
31-40	Count		5	9	13	18	9	3	57
	% within ages of consumers		8.8%	15.8%	22.8%	31.6%	15.8%	5.3%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food		14.3%	10.5%	10.4%	15.3%	20.0%	5.9%	12.4%
	% of Total		1.1%	2.0%	2.8%	3.9%	2.0%	0.7%	12.4%
41-50	Count		0	3	15	22	16	20	76
	% within ages of consumers		0.0%	3.9%	19.7%	28.9%	21.1%	26.3%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food		0.0%	3.5%	12.0%	18.6%	35.6%	39.2%	16.5%
	% of Total		0.0%	0.7%	3.3%	4.8%	3.5%	4.3%	16.5%

continued on next page

		How often do you buy fast food					Total	
		daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month		occasionally
51-60	Count	1	2	11	9	7	17	47
	% within ages of consumers	2.1%	4.3%	23.4%	19.1%	14.9%	36.2%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	2.9%	2.3%	8.8%	7.6%	15.6%	33.3%	10.2%
	% of Total	0.2%	0.4%	2.4%	2.0%	1.5%	3.7%	10.2%
Total	Count	35	86	125	118	45	51	460
	% within ages of consumers	7.6%	18.7%	27.2%	25.7%	9.8%	11.1%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	7.6%	18.7%	27.2%	25.7%	9.8%	11.1%	100.0%

Source: Survey data, 2011

Finally, in the Czech Republic, the Chi-square test results with a sig. level of 0.000, showed significant differences between the frequency of purchase of fast food and the income distribution of respondents. The following is a cross tabulation analysis of the differences between the income level of respondents in the Czech Republic and the frequency of purchase of fast food.

Table 13: Income distribution and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Czech Republic)

CZK			How often do you buy fast food					Total	
			daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month		occasionally
Respondents monthly income	5000 and below	Count	9	37	41	22	4	1	114
		% within consumers monthly income	7.9%	32.5%	36.0%	19.3%	3.5%	0.9%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	25.7%	43.0%	32.8%	18.6%	8.9%	2.0%	24.8%
		% of Total	2.0%	8.0%	8.9%	4.8%	0.9%	0.2%	24.8%
	5001-10000	Count	2	15	11	12	4	4	48
		% within consumers monthly income	4.2%	31.3%	22.9%	25.0%	8.3%	8.3%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	5.7%	17.4%	8.8%	10.2%	8.9%	7.8%	10.4%
		% of Total	0.4%	3.3%	2.4%	2.6%	0.9%	0.9%	10.4%
	10001-15000	Count	7	5	20	13	2	10	57
		% within consumers monthly income	12.3%	8.8%	35.1%	22.8%	3.5%	17.5%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	20.0%	5.8%	16.0%	11.0%	4.4%	19.6%	12.4%
		% of Total	1.5%	1,1%	4.3%	2.8%	0.4%	2.2%	12.4%
15001-20000	Count	7	8	17	13	7	6	58	
	% within consumers monthly income	12.1%	13.8%	29.3%	22.4%	12,1%	10.3%	100.0%	
	% within how often do you buy fast food	20.0%	9.3%	13.6%	11.0%	15.6%	11.8%	12.6%	
	% of Total	1.5%	1.7%	3.7%	2.8%	1.5%	1.3%	12.6%	

continued on next page

CZK		How often do you buy fast food					Total	
		daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month		occasionally
20001- 25000	Count	3	7	13	21	9	9	62
	% within consumers monthly income	4.8%	11.3%	21.0%	33.9%	14.5%	14.5%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	8.6%	8.1%	10.4%	17.8%	20.0%	17.6%	13.5%
	% of Total	0.7%	1.5%	2.8%	4.6%	2.0%	2.0%	13.5%
25001- 30000	Count	2	3	13	15	8	14	55
	% within consumers monthly income	3.6%	5.5%	23.6%	27.3%	14.5%	25.5%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	5.7%	3.5%	10.4%	12.7%	17.8%	27.5%	12.0%
	% of Total	0.4%	0.7%	2.8%	3.3%	1.7%	3.0%	12.0%
30001- 35000	Count	3	6	3	12	5	3	32
	% within consumers monthly income	9.4%	18.8%	9.4%	37.5%	15.6%	9.4%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	8.6%	7.0%	2.4%	10.2%	11.1%	5.9%	7.0%
	% of Total	0.7%	1.3%	0.7%	2.6%	1.1%	0.7%	7.0%
35001 and over	Count	2	5	7	10	6	4	34
	% within consumers monthly income	5.9%	14.7%	20.6%	29.4%	17.6%	11.8%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	5.7%	5.8%	5.6%	8.5%	13.3%	7.8%	7.4%
	% of Total	0.4%	1.1%	1.5%	2.2%	1.3%	0.9%	7.4%
Total	Count	35	86	125	118	45	51	460
	% within consumers monthly income	7.6%	18.7%	27.2%	25.7%	9.8%	11.1%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	7.6%	18.7%	27.2%	25.7%	9.8%	11.1%	100.0%

Source: Survey data, 2011

In Ghana, the Chi-square test results with a sig. level of 0.590, showed no significant differences between the frequency of purchase of fast food and the sex of respondents. The cross tabulation analysis of the differences between sex of respondents in Ghana and the frequency of purchase of fast food are shown in table 14.

Table 14: Sex and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Ghana)

		How often do you buy fast food						Total	
		daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month	occasionally		
Sex of respondents	male	Count	78	88	73	39	18	76	372
		% within demographic background	21.0%	23.7%	19.6%	10.5%	4.8%	20.4%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	47.0%	50.6%	42.9%	53.4%	42.9%	45.2%	46.9%
		% of Total	9.8%	11.1%	9.2%	4.9%	2.3%	9.6%	46.9%
female	Count	88	86	97	34	24	92	421	
		% within demographic background	20.9%	20.4%	23.0%	8.1%	5.7%	21.9%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	53.0%	49.4%	57.1%	46.6%	57.1%	54.8%	53.1%
		% of Total	11.1%	10.8%	12.2%	4.3%	3.0%	11.6%	53.1%
Total	Count	166	174	170	73	42	168	793	
		% within demographic background	20.9%	21.9%	21.4%	9.2%	5.3%	21.2%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	20.9%	21.9%	21.4%	9.2%	5.3%	21.2%	100.0%

Source: Survey data, 2011

Furthermore, the Chi-square test results with a sig. level of 0.000, showed significant differences between the frequency of purchase of fast food and the ages of respondents. Table 15 shows the results of a cross tabulation analysis of the distribution between age of respondents in Ghana and the frequency of purchase of fast food.

Table 15: Age and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Ghana)

			How often do you buy fast food					Total	
			daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month		occasionally
ages of respondents	11-20	Count	97	76	77	18	3	79	350
		% within ages of consumers	27.7%	21.7%	22.0%	5.1%	0.9%	22.6%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	58.4%	43.7%	45.3%	24.7%	7.1%	47.0%	44.1%
		% of Total	12.2%	9.6%	9.7%	2.3%	0.4%	10.0%	44.1%
	21-30	Count	54	39	46	19	7	33	198
		% within ages of consumers	27.3%	19.7%	23.2%	9.6%	3.5%	16.7%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	32.5%	22.4%	27.1%	26.0%	16.7%	19.6%	25.0%
		% of Total	6.8%	4.9%	5.8%	2.4%	0.9%	4.2%	25.0%
	31-40	Count	12	35	26	10	6	37	126
		% within ages of consumers	9.5%	27.8%	20.6%	7.9%	4.8%	29.4%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	7.2%	20.1%	15.3%	13.7%	14.3%	22.0%	15.9%
		% of Total	1.5%	4.4%	3.3%	1.3%	0.8%	4.7%	15.9%
	41-50	Count	0	15	15	19	13	13	75
		% within ages of consumers	0.0%	20.0%	20.0%	25.3%	17.3%	17.3%	100.0%
		% within how often do you buy fast food	0.0%	8.6%	8.8%	26.0%	31.0%	7.7%	9.5%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.9%	1.9%	2.4%	1.6%	1.6%	9.5%

continued on next page

		How often do you buy fast food					Total	
		daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month		occasionally
51-60	Count	3	9	6	7	13	6	44
	% within ages of consumers	6.8%	20.5%	13.6%	15.9%	29.5%	13.6%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	1.8%	5.2%	3.5%	9.6%	31.0%	3.6%	5.5%
	% of Total	0.4%	1.1%	0.8%	0.9%	1.6%	0.8%	5.5%
Total	Count	166	174	170	73	42	168	793
	% within ages of consumers	20.9%	21.9%	21.4%	9.2%	5.3%	21.2%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	20.9%	21.9%	21.4%	9.2%	5.3%	21.2%	100.0%

Source: Survey data, 2011

Finally, in Ghana, the Chi-square test results with a sig. level of 0.000, showed significant differences between the frequency of purchase of fast food and the income distribution of respondents. The results of a cross tabulation analysis of the distribution between income distribution of respondents in Ghana and the frequency of purchase of fast food are shown in table 16.

Table 16: Income and the frequency of purchase of fast food (Ghana)

GHC			How often do you buy fast food					Total	
			daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month		occasionally
Respondents 430 and monthly below income	Count		136	103	105	37	12	99	492
	% within consumers monthly income		27.6%	20.9%	21.3%	7.5%	2.4%	20.1%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food		81.9%	59.2%	61.8%	50.7%	28.6%	58.9%	62.0%
	% of Total		17.2%	13.0%	13.2%	4.7%	1.5%	12.5%	62.0%
431-860	Count		9	30	29	15	15	27	125
	% within consumers monthly income		7.2%	24.0%	23.2%	12.0%	12.0%	21.6%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food		5.4%	17.2%	17.1%	20.5%	35.7%	16.1%	15.8%
	% of Total		1.1%	3.8%	3.7%	1.9%	1.9%	3.4%	15.8%
861-1290	Count		9	11	7	4	1	15	47
	% within consumers monthly income		19.1%	23.4%	14.9%	8.5%	2.1%	31.9%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food		5.4%	6.3%	4.1%	5.5%	2.4%	8.9%	5.9%
	% of Total		1.1%	1.4%	0.9%	0.5%	0.1%	1.9%	5.9%
1291-1720	Count		1	3	7	7	6	9	33
	% within consumers monthly income		3.0%	9.1%	21.2%	21.2%	18.2%	27.3%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food		0.6%	1.7%	4.1%	9.6%	14.3%	5.4%	4.2%
	% of Total		0.1%	0.4%	0.9%	0.9%	0.8%	1.1%	4.2%

continued on next page

GHC		How often do you buy fast food						Total
		daily	more than once a week	once every two weeks	once a month	once every six month	occasionally	
1721- 2150	Count	2	7	7	3	1	7	27
	% within consumers monthly income	7.4%	25.9%	25.9%	11.1%	3.7%	25.9%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	1.2%	4.0%	4.1%	4.1%	2.4%	4.2%	3.4%
	% of Total	0.3%	0.9%	0.9%	0.4%	0.1%	0.9%	3.4%
2151- 2580	Count	2	1	3	1	0	2	9
	% within consumers monthly income	22.2%	11.1%	33.3%	11.1%	0.0%	22.2%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	1.2%	0.6%	1.8%	1.4%	0.0%	1.2%	1.1%
	% of Total	0.3%	0.1%	0.4%	0.1%	0.0%	0.3%	1.1%
2581- 3010	Count	1	7	4	4	5	2	23
	% within consumers monthly income	4.3%	30.4%	17.4%	17.4%	21.7%	8.7%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	0.6%	4.0%	2.4%	5.5%	11.9%	1.2%	2.9%
	% of Total	0.1%	0.9%	0.5%	0.5%	0.6%	0.3%	2.9%
3011 and over	Count	6	12	8	2	2	7	37
	% within consumers monthly income	16.2%	32.4%	21.6%	5.4%	5.4%	18.9%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	3.6%	6.9%	4.7%	2.7%	4.8%	4.2%	4.7%
	% of Total	0.8%	1.5%	1.0%	0.3%	0.3%	0.9%	4.7%
Total	Count	166	174	170	73	42	168	793
	% within consumers monthly income	20.9%	21.9%	21.4%	9.2%	5.3%	21.2%	100.0%
	% within how often do you buy fast food	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	20.9%	21.9%	21.4%	9.2%	5.3%	21.2%	100.0%

Source: Survey data, 2011

7.7 Objective 6

The preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms with respect to the standardization or customization of fast food product or services?

RQ2: What are the preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms with respect to the standardization or customization of fast food product or services?

From the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances (Levene's F statistic) for respondent in the Czech Republic, it was found that the significance level was 0.001. The 0.001 significance level is less than 0.05, hence, there was a non homogeneity of the variances as the Levene's F test was significant. Clearly, the assumption of homogeneity was not met. Therefore, the significance level from the Robust Test of Equality of Means (Welch test) was used in interpreting the results instead of the significance level from the ANOVA.

Table 17: Summary of statistical test

Statistical Test	Sig. level
Homogeneity of Variances	0.001
ANOVA	0.000
Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welch test)	0.000

Source: Survey data, 2011

The Welch test shows a significant level of 0.000 (P=0.000) which is below 0.05. Therefore, there is statistical significance in the means of each group (age) and their preference patterns for standardization or customization of fast food product or services. In order to find the groups that differed from the other, a Tukey *post-hoc* analysis was conducted.

Table 18: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in the Czech Republic

	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
11-20		0.901**	1.000**	0.080**	0.000*
21-30	0.901**		0.985**	0.276**	0.002*
31-40	1.000**	0.985**		0.262**	0.005*
41-50	0.080**	0.276**	0.262**		0.374**
51-60	0.000*	0.002*	0.005*	0.374**	

*the mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

**the mean difference is not significant at the 0.05 level.

Source: Survey data, 2011

From table 18, it can be seen that there were statistical difference between respondents from the age group 51-60 (mean of 4.04) and the age groups of 11-20 (mean of 3.30), 21-30 (mean of 3.42) and 31-40 (mean of 3.33). However, there were no significance differences between respondents from the age group of 51-60 and 41-50 (mean of 3.70). The means were increasing with the age of respondents. It

can be inferred that, in the Czech Republic, older people tend to prefer customized food for health and nutrition reasons than younger ones. Therefore, marketers may have an easier task selling mass customized products to older consumers. Here, the nutritional contents of food items must be emphasized in the promotion initiative to make them attractive to the target consumer.

However, for respondents in Ghana, the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances (Levene's F statistic) revealed a significant level of 0.016, which is less than 0.05. This shows a non homogeneity of variances because the Levene's F test was significant. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not satisfied. Hence, instead of using the ANOVA table, the Robust Test of Equality of Means (Welch test) was used in interpreting the results.

Table 19: Summary of statistical test

Statistical Test	Sig. level
Homogeneity of Variances	0.016
ANOVA	0.536
Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welch test)	0.488

Source: Survey data, 2011

The Welch test revealed a significant level of 0.488 ($p=0.488$) which is more than 0.05. The result is not statistically significant, therefore it can be concluded that there is no significant differences between the groups (ages of respondents) and the patterns of preferences for standardized or customized fast food products and services. This finding was also confirmed by the multiple comparison analysis using the significance level of the Tukey *post-hoc* test.

Table 20: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in Ghana

	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
11-20		0.977**	0.681**	0.990**	0.999**
21-30	0.977**		0.460**	0.922**	1.000**
31-40	0.681**	0.460**		0.985**	0.845**
41-50	0.990**	0.922**	0.985**		0.983**
51-60	0.999**	1.000**	0.845**	0.983**	

**the mean difference is not significant at the 0.05 level.

Source: Survey data, 2011

Micro and small scale fast food firms use both standardization and mass customization in their operations. These firms often allow consumers to take out part of the products they do not like and add extra of some ingredient they like unlike the medium-sized and large scale fast food outlets which usually offer standardized meals. However, even with the customization of food in the micro and small firms, it was found that, mass customization was not used in its purest form where the Consumer Intervention Point (CIP) is at the beginning of the order.

The kind of customization that are used by micro and small fast food firms are the practical definition of mass customization by Hart (1995) where the firms' use flexible processes and organizational structures to produce various and usually individually customized products and services at low cost of a standardized and a mass production system. Though it was considered to be ideal for customer satisfaction purposes, the managers admitted that, it is not cost effective. What these micro and small fast food firms do is to give consumers the opportunity to opt-out of some ingredients they do not like or add more of some other ingredients at a cost or for free depending on the nature of the ingredient. The medium-sized and large fast food outlets admitted that, the only way they can fully pursue mass customization is to increase the cost or final price of the final customized product so that it will not affect their profit margins. Such firm sizes would prefer the visionary form of mass customization where they provide customers with their desired product combinations profitably, anytime, anywhere and anyway they want it (Hart, 1995).

However, managers of medium and large fast food franchises admit that, the respective market is not ready for mass customization and that they are better placed and known as standardized, mass production fast food firms and consumers recognize them as such. Most of the comments from respondents from the two countries were that, the standardization of food suits their tastes and they do not have a problem with it. The expectation is that, as the Czech market becomes more and more sophisticated, mass customization could be introduced in its purest form. Managers' of medium and large fast food firms did not anticipate the use of mass customization mainly due to the cost involved in changing their production process.

As the statistical test revealed, consumers of different age groups in Ghana did not consider mass customization as important in their fast food purchases, hence, strengthening the conviction of these medium and large enterprises. Furthermore, if this strategy is to be used, it is important for the firm to make a comprehensive assessment of the customer sensitivity in the market, market readiness, the extent of process amenability, how it contributes to brand equity and competitiveness, the competitive environment and the readiness of the organization (Hart, 1995).

7.8 Objective 7

The perception of consumers on the role of internet in the customization of fast food products and trends in the use of the internet in fast food operations?

RQ3: What is consumer perception of the role of internet in the customization of fast food products and trends in the use of the internet in fast food operations?

From the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances (Levene's F statistic) for respondent in the Czech Republic, it was revealed that the significance level was 0.368. The 0.368 significance level is greater than 0.05. This means that, there was homogeneity of variances with a Levene's F test of 0.368. Clearly, the assumption of homogeneity was met and the variances of the groups are similar. Hence, the one-way ANOVA is used in interpreting the results.

Table 21: Summary of statistical test

Statistical Test	Sig. level
Homogeneity of Variances	0.368
ANOVA	0.194
Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welch test)	0.209

Source: Survey data, 2011

The one-way ANOVA test shows a significant level of 0.194 (P=0.194) which is above 0.05. Therefore, there is no statistical significance in the means of each group (age) and consumer perception of the role of internet in the customization of fast food products. This finding was also confirmed by the multiple comparison analysis using the significance level of the Tukey post-hoc test.

Table 22: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in the Czech Republic

	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
11-20		0.982**	0.866**	0.590**	0.993**
21-30	0.982**		0.974**	0.236**	0.910**
31-40	0.866**	0.974**		0.199**	0.756**
41-50	0.590**	0.236**	0.199**		0.939**
51-60	0.993**	0.910**	0.756**	0.939**	

**the mean difference is not significant at the 0.05 level.

Source: Survey data, 2011

In the Czech Republic, respondents recognize the convenient and time saving factor of the use of internet in customization and ordering of food items, if it is available. However, the comments from respondents indicate the challenges that firms are bound to face if they introduce such services. The fast food culture is generally associated with eating-out and people want to go out and eat rather than cook at home. Some respondents did not see the possibility of having such a service and saw it as a luxury which is not necessary. Others were of the opinion that, food differs from the durable products that are usually ordered online. Hence, it is not suitable for it to be transferred online aside the cost considerations. Therefore, they would not like to use the internet to order food. When consumers are at home they will rather cook instead of order fast food. Buying food online take out the social factor (meeting with friends outside the home) which are of very much importance to Czech consumers. One respondent elaborated on the needlessness of buying food on the internet by indicating that *“If I am at home I eat from what I have at home and I do not care about buying food over the Internet.”* For another, the feeling of eating out was of significance. The respondent indicated that, *“I do not visit fast food for the purposes of eating only; it is also for social contacts.”*

Furthermore, for respondents in Ghana, the Levene’s test of homogeneity of variances (Levene’s F statistic) revealed a significant level of 0.016, which is less than 0.05. This shows a non homogeneity of variances because the Levene’s F test

was significant. The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met. Therefore, instead of using the ANOVA table, the Robust Test of Equality of Means (Welch test) was used in interpreting the results.

Table 23: Summary of statistical test

Statistical Test	Sig. level
Homogeneity of Variances	0.016
ANOVA	0.140
Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welch test)	0.150

Source: Survey data, 2011

From the Welch test, it was found that the significant level was 0.150 (P=0.150). The result is not statistically significant, hence, it can be inferred that there is no significant differences between the groups (ages of respondents) and their perception of the role of the internet in the customization of fast food products. Further, the multiple comparison analysis using the significance level of the Tukey post-hoc test confirmed this finding.

Table 24: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in Ghana

	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
11-20		0.228**	0.309**	0.543**	0.880**
21-30	0.228**		1.000**	1.000**	1.000**
31-40	0.309**	1.000**		1.000**	0.999**
41-50	0.543**	1.000**	1.000**		0.999**
51-60	0.880**	1.000**	0.999**	0.999**	

**the mean difference is not significant at the 0.05 level.

Source: Survey data, 2011

Irrespective of age, respondents in Ghana, just like those in the Czech Republic, consider the use of internet in fast food purchases as an unnecessary luxury which was not needed. In Ghana for instance, internet technology is not reliable and many people are not technologically savvy. Also, people are sceptical about buying online. The cultural orientation is that, they usually want to see the item and bargain on price whiles at the same time examining the physical product to see if it suites their expectations. They want to smell and feel the product. It is an issue of trust and skepticism from their history. The internet removes all this things and hence, people do not feel comfortable with that. They are also not sure about the period of order and delivery since they are not sure if it will actually arrive, coupled with the traffic situation among others. One respondent indicated that: *“We naturally do not do things online and it’s not part of the business arrangement of firms. It may change but it will be very gradual.”* Though, this service is not present in the market, some respondents considered it as a service that is worthy of trial.

Just like consumers in the Czech Republic, respondents in Ghana indicated that, eating out is not only about the food, but also, the social contact that comes with visiting fast food outlets with their family and friends, either for meetings or informal conversations. A middle age respondent indicated that *“With me, food is not too sophisticated to be sold online; I just want to satisfy my hunger, I really don’t have time for the use of the internet to select fast before I get to eat it.”* Another worker in a bank indicated: *“I wonder how fast and realistic that can be, with the unstable issues with internet network and connectivity in Ghana.”* Some other respondent was more concern with the uncertainty that surrounds online buying by explaining that: *“Choosing food on the internet can lead to getting something you do not really like”* while another elaborated on the fact that it is a waste of time and it takes away the feeling of eating out. The respondent explained that: *“I disagree because it is a waste of time because if I am hungry, I may not be able to wait for the food to arrive. Also, I like eating away from home. It is exciting”*

From the side of the fast food firms, it was found that the marketing strategy of fast food outlets in Ghana does not include e-marketing unlike the strategies used by firms in the Czech Republic. The internet does not form part of the business concept and day-to-day operations of fast food firms in Ghana. It is not surprising because the internet has not penetrated deeply in the market and even where it is used, the services are not reliable enough to facilitate full swing incorporation into the business strategies of enterprises.

Unlike the Czech Republic where fast food firms have websites, most fast food firms in Ghana do not have websites. The websites and social network platforms of fast food firms in the Czech Republic are meant to introduce current and new menu items as well as sales promotion. Currently, there is no fast food firm that customizes food items for customers over the internet, although it is possible to find websites of fast food firms to place an order and have it delivered. That is to say that, it is not possible for customers to chose the contents of their food items before they buy unlike what pertains in the fast food industry in the US specifically that which is practiced by Burger King. The online customization by Burger King is such that customers are able to calculate the calories in the food items they build for themselves. They can either increase or reduce it to meet their health needs. After building the final food product, they print it online and send it to the location of Burger King to have it prepared for them exactly as they have chosen. In this instance, the CIP is at the beginning of the order. The final price for the customized food items is determined at the restaurant. However, although the mass customization strategy is not currently been used by fast food firms in both the Czech Republic and Ghana, there are prospects that it could spread to other countries (though with much hesitation on the part of firms) with Czech Republic been a favourable potential market. The current socio-cultural, economic and technological situation of Ghana and many other African countries makes it almost impossible for this strategy to be implemented.

7.9 Objective 8

The preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms on the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes.

RQ4: What are the preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms on the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes?

From the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances (Levene's F statistic) for respondent in the Czech Republic, it was found that the significance level was 0.001. The 0.001 significance level is less than 0.05, hence, there was a non homogeneity of the variances as the Levene's F test was significant. Clearly, the assumption of homogeneity was not met. In this scenario the significance level from the Robust Test of Equality of Means (Welch test) was used in interpreting the results instead of the significance level derived from the ANOVA.

Table 25: Summary of statistical test

Statistical Test	Sig. level
Homogeneity of Variances	0.001
ANOVA	0.000
Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welch test)	0.000

Source: Survey data, 2011

The Welch test indicated a significant level of 0.000 (P=0.000) which is lower than 0.05. Hence, there is statistical significance in the means of each group (age) and their preferences for the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes. Consequently, a Tukey *post-hoc* analysis was conducted to find the age groups that differed from the other.

Table 26: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in the Czech Republic

	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
11-20		0.457**	0.276**	0.000*	0.000*
21-30	0.457**		0.935**	0.000*	0.000*
31-40	0.276**	0.935**		0.083**	0.001*
41-50	0.000*	0.000*	0.083**		0.358**
51-60	0.000*	0.000*	0.001*	0.358**	

*the mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

**the mean difference is not significant at the 0.05 level.

Source: Survey data, 2011

From table 26, it can be seen that there were statistical difference between respondents from the age group 51-60 (mean of 3.98) and the age groups of 11-20

(mean of 2.84), 21-30 (mean of 3.05) and 31-40 (mean of 3.18). However, there were no statistically significance differences between respondents from the age group of 51-60 and 41-50 (mean of 3.63). The analysis also revealed that there were statistical differences between respondent from age group 41-50 and the age group 11-20 (mean of 2.84) and 21-30 (mean of 3.05). Also, there were no statistically significance differences between respondents from the age group of 41-50 and 31-40 (mean of 3.18).

As indicated in table 26, the statistical analyses between the other age groups (11-20, 21-30 and 31-40) were not significant at the 0.05 level. The means were increasing with the age of respondents. It can be inferred that older people (from age of 40 and 60) tend to prefer the inclusion of local/traditional ingredients into fast food products than younger ones (40 years and below). There were varied reasons for this trend. For instance, in the Czech Republic, younger consumers, especially those of school going age prefer to try food from different countries. The trendiness of fast food also makes them appealing and attractive to younger consumers while the middle age consumers saw fast food consumption as more convenient and the preparation is quick, hence, making it inconvenient to include local ingredients which may usually take a long time to prepare. Ethnocentric feelings were generally weak among consumers 40 years and below. For the older generation, their preferences for the inclusion of local ingredients are high. They have a perception that traditional ingredients are healthier and more nutritious than the greasy and unhealthy food items offered by fast food outlets, especially the large fast food franchises. Older Czech consumers exhibit high ethnocentrism when selecting and buying fast food. It was not surprising to see some younger consumers having preferences for the inclusion of local ingredients. For such consumers, their preferences were as a result of parental influences.

Furthermore, the Levene's test of homogeneity of variances (Levene's F statistic) for respondents in Ghana revealed a significant level of 0.000, which is less than 0.05. This shows a non homogeneity of variances because the Levene's F test was significant. The assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met. Consequently, the Robust Test of Equality of Means (Welch test) is used in interpreting the results instead of the results of the ANOVA.

Table 27: Summary of statistical test

Statistical Test	Sig. level
Homogeneity of Variances	0.000
ANOVA	0.066
Robust Tests of Equality of Means (Welch test)	0.055

Source: Survey data, 2011

From the Welch test, it was found that the significant level is 0.055 (P=0.055). The result is not statistically significant, therefore, it can be concluded that there is no significant differences between the groups (ages of respondents) and their

preferences for the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes. The multiple comparison analysis using the significance level of the Tukey *post-hoc* test confirmed the fact that there was no statistical significance between the groups (ages). This means that age was not a predictive indicator for the inclusion of traditional ingredients into fast food.

Table 28: Multiple comparison between groups (ages) in Ghana

	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60
11-20		0.791**	0.370**	1.000**	0.372**
21-30	0.791**		0.940**	0.968**	0.135**
31-40	0.370**	0.940**		0.755**	0.052**
41-50	1.000**	0.968**	0.755**		0.503**
51-60	0.372**	0.135**	0.052**	0.503**	

**the mean difference is not significant at the 0.05 level.

Source: Survey data, 2011

This statistical analysis confirms prior research by Asamoah (2010) that revealed that, there are differences in the preference pattern for older consumers than younger consumers. For the youth, “*foreign*” is more saleable and most young people want to be associated with foreign fast food brands. Younger consumers find fast food consumption as trendy and a preserve for people with money. They would want to associate themselves with Americanized type of fast food such as KFC and PAPAYE (Asamoah, 2010). Hence, they often feel a sense of appreciation and belongingness to be associated with the fast food culture. It was found that, when KFC entered the market, most of the other big fast food brands were almost deserted for KFC. It is the first global brand to enter the Ghanaian market. They want to eat products that they cannot cook at home. For the older ones their reasons were mainly the convenience of buying from fast food outlets without recourse to the health implications unlike the older consumers in the Czech Republic.

Firms in Ghana do not consider the inclusion of local ingredients in their products. This is mainly because of the preference of consumers for foreign global fast food products. The unattractiveness of such a product strategy is further strengthened by the local “*chop bar*” joints which usually provide food products similar to what consumers prepare at home. Thus, fast food firms in Ghana concentrate on providing food items that are considered to be foreign. In the Czech Republic, the fast food firms did not consider it necessary to include Czech traditional ingredients in their operations, mainly because of the length of time in preparation and the fact that they do not consider it feasible for industrial or mass production purposes. However, firms recognise that when there are strong cultural rejections of standardized food due to religion or taboos, then the use of traditional/indigenous ingredients to satisfy the preference patterns of consumers

where necessary. Such inclinations were not observed on a larger scale among consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana.

7.10 Objective 9

The market structure of the fast food industry and strategies for competitive advantage

The characteristics of the fast food industry as determined by its market structure should be taken into consideration when developing the firms branding strategies. The managers of all the fast food firms admitted to the competitive nature of the industry. The competitiveness of the fast food industry means that, it follows the monopolistic market structure. This is not only in the Czech Republic and Ghana, but also all other global fast food markets. Due to the monopolistic nature of the fast food industry, consumers do have options to make their choices. The characteristic of the monopolistic market structure are as follows:

- Firms have the freedom to enter and exit the market, meaning that, many small firms can enter the industry and exit at will without causing any major imbalance in the market.
- The products that are offered by firms are similar but not perfect substitute.
- Consumers perceive non-price differences among the products of competitors'.
- There are many producers and many consumers in the market, and no firm has total control over the market price.
- The firms have only a degree of control over the price of their products, meaning that none of them are price takers.

In the short run, the firm is at equilibrium; hence, it can maximize its profits and produce the output/quantity where the Marginal Revenue (MR) is equal to its Marginal Cost (MC). The short-run position also means that, the firm is able to accept price for its products based on the Average Revenue (AR) curve. The Average Revenue (AR) curve also represents the Demand (D) of the market. The difference between the Average Revenue (AR) and Average Cost (AC) of the firm gives it a profit. The profit that accrues to the firm in the short-run is termed as abnormal profit. In figure 10, the abnormal profit is represented by the shaded area between $P2$ and $AC/P1$. As the firm continues to reap abnormal profits in the short-run, the market attract the attention of potential firms, therefore, the abnormal profit is unsustainable in the long-run.

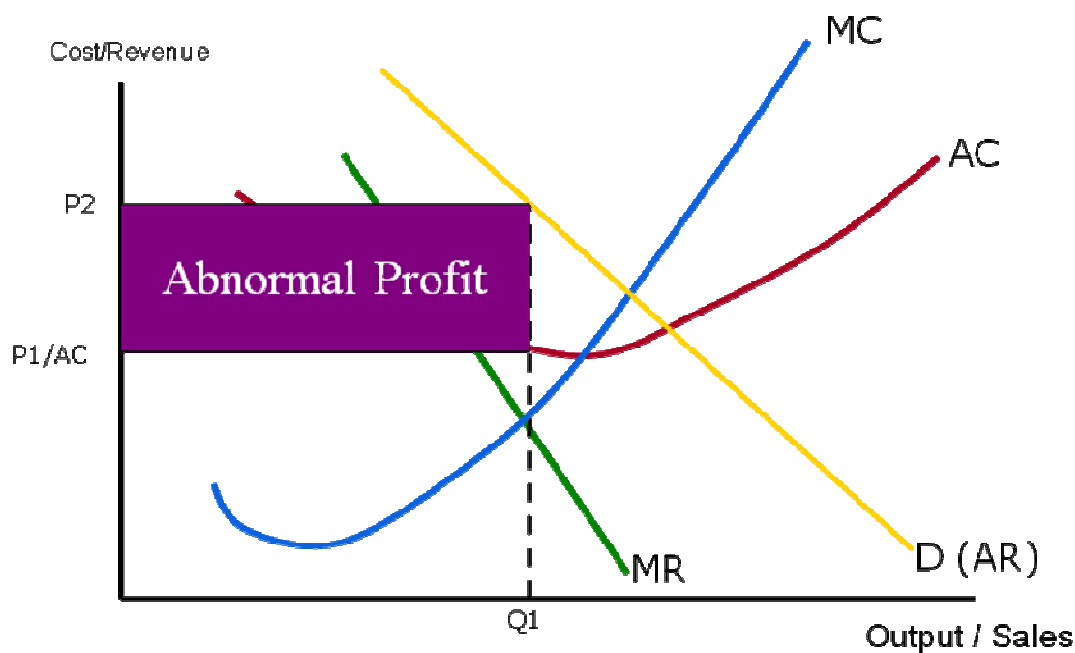


Figure 10: The short-run position of the fast food firm
 Source: Authors impression, adapted from Mankiw (2004)

In the international fast food industry, it is revealed that firms enjoy abnormal profits in the short-run. Consequently, a lot of fast food firms of different sizes infiltrate the market due to the freedom of entry and exit in the monopolistic market to compete for a share of the market and profits. Usually, the large numbers of new entrants are micro and small enterprises (because of the low initial capital requirement) who sell burgers, sausages and other food items. The new entrants operate under various brand names and produce food items that reflect the local culture of the country and consumers preferences unlike the global fast food brands. Often, the new entrants operate close to the outlets of the large fast food chains. The micro or small entrant engage in mild competition to get the attention of consumers and scrap part of the profits of large scale fast food firms (although very marginal). However, in the long-run, the cumulative effects from the competition that arise from the new entrants significantly affect the profit of existing firms. As new firms penetrate the market, there is an increase in supply which leads to a fall in price. The fall in price causes both the *AR* and *MR* curves to shift inwards because the revenue from each sale becomes lesser than before. The shifts in the *AR* and *MR* curves are shown in Figure 11.

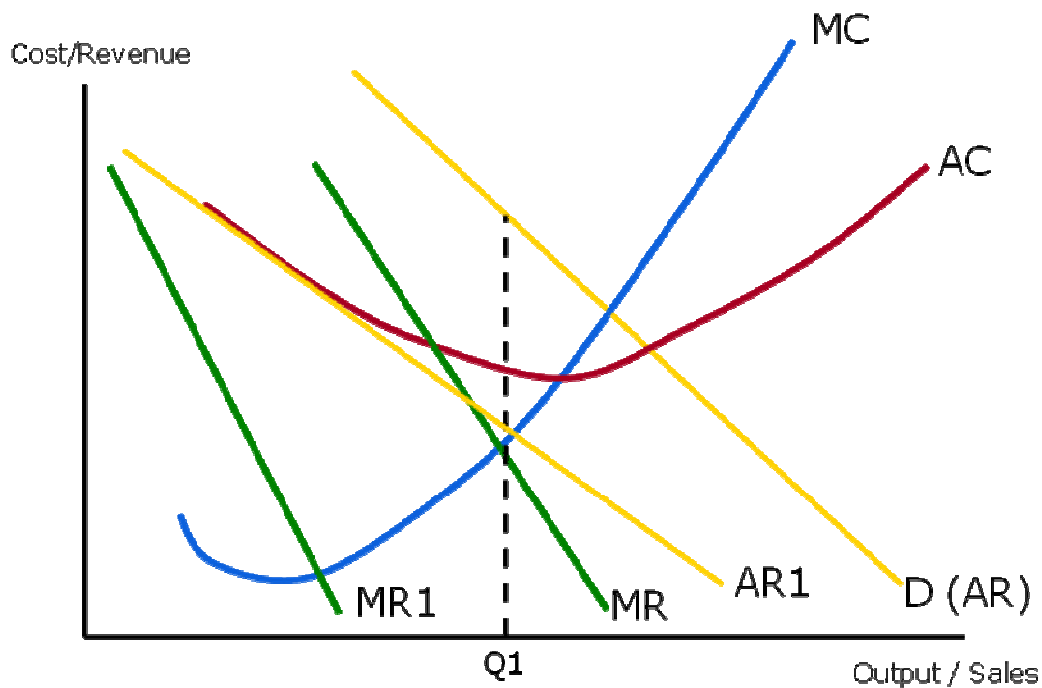


Figure 11: Shifts in AR and MR as a result of the new entrants
 Source: Authors impression, adapted from Mankiw (2004)

The availability of more substitute fast food products due to the entrance of new firms causes the new $AR1$ (D) curve to be more price elastic. Therefore, the firm reduces output to a point where $MC = MR$ ($Q2$). The output $Q2$ with $AR1 = AC$ is where the firms make a normal profit. This is depicted in figure 12.

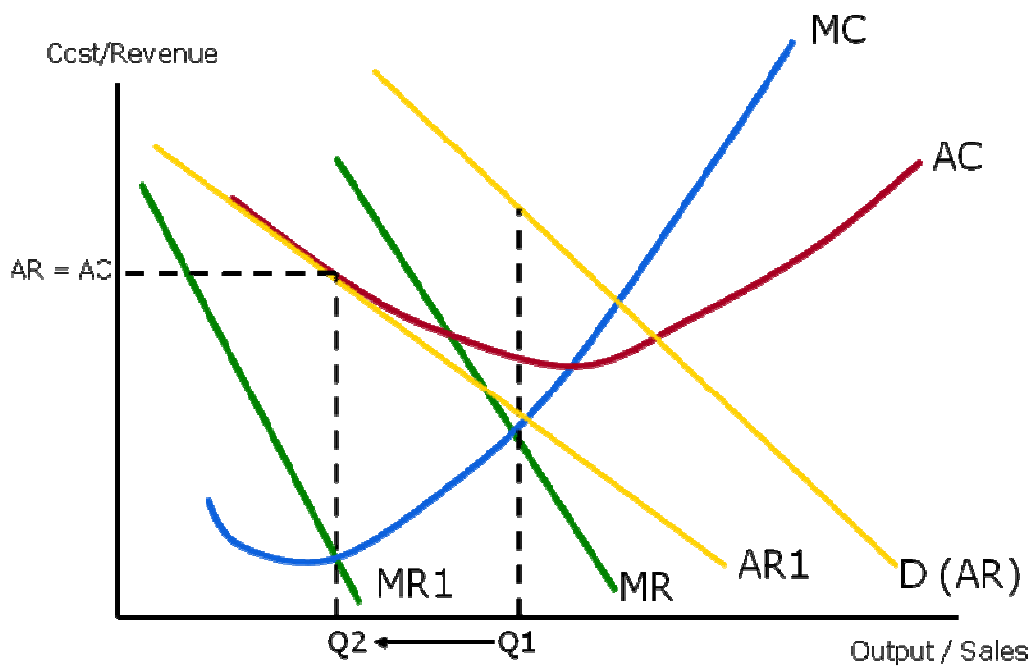


Figure 12: Normal profit position of the firm
 Source: Authors impression, adapted from Mankiw (2004)

The result of the entrance of other firms in the market causes the demand curve D (AR) shift to D ($AR1$). Figure 13 gives the long-run equilibrium position of the fast food firm.

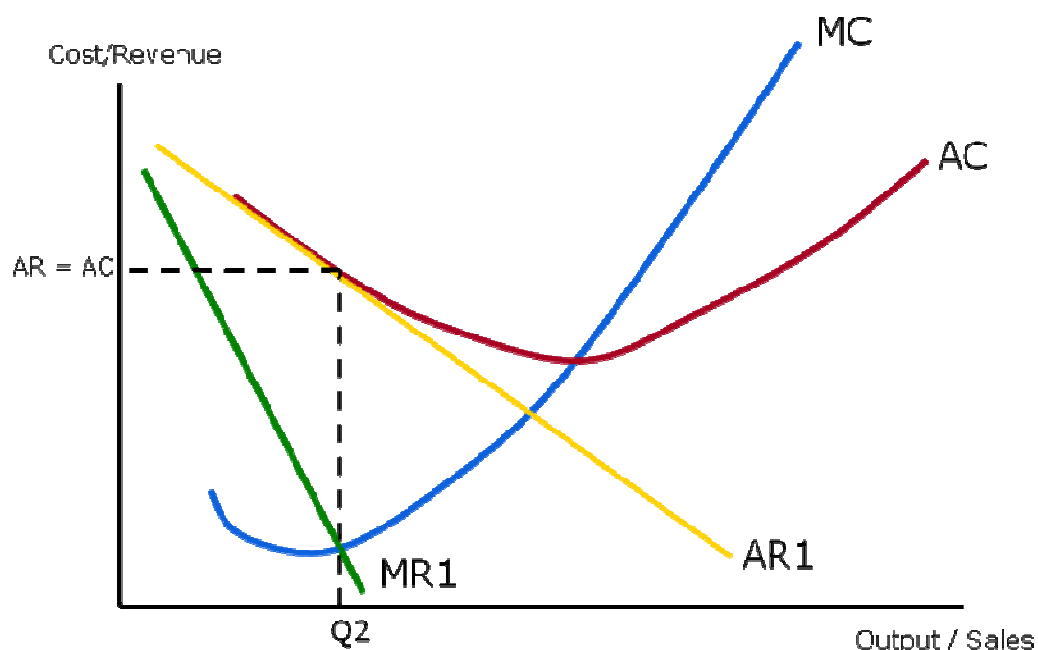


Figure 13: The long-run position of the fast food firm
Source: Authors impression, adapted from Mankiw (2004)

In figure 13, the fast food firm continues to produce at the point where the Marginal Cost (MC) is equal to the Marginal Revenue (MR). At this point, it is no longer possible for the fast food firm to sell its products above Average Cost (AC); hence, the firm can no longer claim an economic profit. In other words, there is zero economic profit at the quantity supplied point where $MC=MR$. The firm therefore breaks-even in the long-run as $AC=AR=D$. Also, $P=Q2$ at that point and the fast food firm is able to supply just enough to break-even (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011a). The AC curve of the firm is tangential to the demand curve at the output $Q2$. At the equilibrium position, the number of firms that can be supported in the fast food market is dependent on factors such as the fixed costs, economies of scale and the extent of product differentiation. For instance, if the fixed cost is high, then the market can support fewer firms.

When the firms $MR = MC$, the firm are able to maximize their profits, therefore, they do not have any reason to make adjustments to the quantity of output or their production size. Also, the firms in the industry only earn normal profits because the Price (P) = Average Cost (AC). Consequently, given a zero economic profit and no economic losses, there is no inclination for firms to enter or exit the market. These conditions are satisfied separately. The Price (P) the firm charge is not equal to MR ; therefore, the two equations are not equal. The implication is that, the monopolistic competition does not achieve the $L-R$ equilibrium at the minimum efficient scale of production. When firms in the fast food industry are incurring economic losses,

there will be a reversal in the movement towards the *L-R* equilibrium position, making some firms exit the market. The reduction in the number of firms that continue to operate will reduce the aggregate substitutes available for consumers. Consequently, the demand curve of each of the remaining firms would shift to the right. Furthermore, the price and output of the existing firms would increase and as the exit of firms continues, the remaining firms would earn zero economic profit.

The Price (*P*) that monopolistically competitive firms charge exceeds the Marginal Cost (*MC*) thus $P > MC$; therefore, the typical monopolistic competition is considered inefficient (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011a). The marginal benefit that a consumer gets from consuming an additional unit of a product or service is given by its price. However, because the benefit of consuming an additional unit of a product or service is greater than the *MC*, the consumers would be better off if there is an expansion in the market output. The expansion of output would cause a reduction in the *AC*, but monopolistically competitive firms will not voluntarily increase output, mainly because their *MR* would be less than their *MC*, eventually, the price exceeds the *MC* in the *L-R*, implying that consumers value additional units which are not being produced. Furthermore, because of the cost incurred in advertising to attract or influence customers of competing firms, the *AC* of the fast food enterprise is higher than what pertains in the pure competition market. Hence, in the fast food industry, there exists a situation of economic inefficiency because the excess capacity, thus, the quantity that a fast food firm produces is less than the quantity at which the *AC* is at its minimum.

In the monopolistic competitive market, it is expected that in the long-run, many firms should experience break-even, although very theoretical. In reality, some of them gain profits because they are able to differentiate themselves from the competitors in the market through the building of a loyal customer base. For example, large scale fast food firms such as KFC and McDonalds in the Czech Republic and PAPAYE in Ghana are able gain normal profits in the long-run unlike the small fast food outlets with no differentiation strategies. However, some other firms that experience losses in the long-run may still operate because the normal profits they earn is lower than their opportunity cost of leaving the market.

In the fast food industry, each of the firms sets the terms of exchange for their products independently, thus, they do not give consideration to the effect of their decisions on competitors. The characteristic of "many firms" in the monopolistic market structure means that each firm has the freedom to set the price for their products without losing their customers and they can also lower their prices without triggering a potentially damaging price war with competitors (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011a). This makes the use of price unsuitable to brand the firm and distinguish it from competitors because the actions of the firm have a negligible effect on the market. Mostly, the small scale fast food outlets do not do much strategic decision making and the products that firms offer are undifferentiated from each other. This is especially true for the micro and small scale fast food outlets that are usually recognized within local communities or a limited area and are often

without proper business unlike the large fast food chains which use branding (packaging, logos and names) to differentiate their products. In the monopolistic market structure, the market power implies that, the demand curve of the fast food firm slopes downwards. Hence, the demand curve is very elastic although not “flat”.

In the fast food industry in the Czech Republic and Ghana, most buyers know the products that the firms offer, where the products are sold, the characteristics of the products on offer and their price range. Therefore, what will attract consumers is the extra value that comes from how the firms differentiate itself to become distinct in the eyes of consumers. The monopolistic competition in the fast food industry is significant to the firms marketing strategy. It generates a condition where fast food firms have to invest in the creation of brand names, position and communicating the values of the brand to consumers in order to differentiate itself and gain, maintain and increase its market share. The branding of the firm becomes a source of differentiation for consumers. The branding arises from the manipulating of the elements of the marketing mix as it presents the building blocks around which all branding efforts of the firm revolves (Kotler, 2011).

In the Czech Republic and Ghana and the international fast food industry, consumers come into contact with different fast food products and services making it difficult for them to differentiate and make a choice. Therefore, the brands that the firm puts in the market are more important than the product and service they put in the market. Hence, branding is relevant because, it reduces the dilemma that consumers have to go through in deciphering between the muddle marketing communication messages that they are confronted with on a daily basis.

Furthermore, the fast food industry is such that, consumers generally do not always engage in a “*rational buying behaviour*” but rather “*random buying behaviour*” (Asamoah and Chovancová, 2011a). Hence, it is imperative for the firm to devise innovative advertising strategies that are appealing, persuasive and compelling enough to cause consumers to be drawn towards the firm’s brand. The use of advertising and sales promotion causes consumers to buy on impulse without having to do much rational thinking on alternative products or the opportunity cost of the decision to purchase. Also, given the market structure and the perception of fast food products, they must use innovative and rigorous marketing campaigns that are aimed at instilling confidence in the market with regards to the quality and safety of their product.

As consumers are faced with a monopolistically competitive industry, they have to collect and process information on the various brands available in order to choose the brand that meets their expectations. In such instances, the cost of information gathering on a brand or product may exceed the benefit of consuming it. Both below and above the line communication induces customers to spend more on products because of the emotional appeal it generates rather than rational factors. Because there are some unique information processing costs that is associated with choosing from the different firms in a monopolistically competitive market, consumers tend to use the information they receive from advertising not only to

assess the single brand advertised, but also to make inferences on the possible existence of other brands in the market. The use of advertising and other elements of the communication mix is necessary because it is a proactive way of reducing the cost consumers have to incur in weighing the tradeoffs of the many competing brands before taking a decision to buy.

Although price competition results in short-term gains, it is the building of loyalty that reaps long-term benefits for the firm. It is important for fast food firms not to focus their competitiveness only on the basis of price as the firm does not have control over the market price due to the many producers and sellers in the market. Although pricing is important, it is even more important to gain market dominance by spending time to brand the firm to gain a formidable presence in the market. The communication mix that the firm adopts at any point of contact with consumers must be branding oriented. That is the only sustainable means of being competitive in the long-term. Even in cases where the firm focuses on pricing, it must be geared towards building loyalty in the market. Loyalty building could also be done through customer care by employees of the firm. The other elements of the marketing mix should also be managed in such a way that they aid in the branding strategy of the firm. There could be product differentiation, the good ambience of the fast food outlet, providing compelling experience by given customers souvenirs and the process of production and delivery should be distinct from what already prevails in the market. However, the number of distribution channels does not really affect the brand building of the firm. When brand building is effectively carried out, it differentiates the firm from the others in the market and makes the firm competitive. Also, consumers tend to be attracted to the firm in the short and long-term, hence bringing in more returns to firm.

7.11 Objective 10

A proposed model for cross cultural branding strategy in the fast food industry

Based on the factors that are considered by consumers in their buying decision and the trends in the international fast food industry, there should be comprehensive model that combines the various elements that are relevant to the operations of fast food firms. As shown in this research, consumers of products and services of fast food firms are more demanding in their need for food and often require the menu of fast food outlets to meet their individual taste and preference.

Consequently, the branding practices of fast food firms must either opt for or combine the mass production and mass customization approaches. A pure mass customization strategy brings the CIP to the beginning of the production. In a typical mass production systems, the CIP is at the end of the production (where they decide to either buy the product or not). The CIP is where the customer has an input into what goes into the final product. As consumers have become more and more sophisticated, they want to intervene at the beginning of the production process. This has resulted in the gradual shift from the classical production systems to mass customization in certain countries.

In the advanced form of mass customization approach, fast food ingredients such as vegetables, cheese, and meat are assembled and the consumer selects them to create the final product themselves according to their preferences, with or without the assistance of the firms' employees. Mass customization focuses on individual creation, relative to the standardized food items that are provided through the mass production approach. Furthermore, in response to the health concerns of consumers, the adoption of mass customization may be a useful for strategy for fast food firms. Firms that succeed in implementing the mass customization strategy stand the chance of gaining consumers who shun fast food products due to the perception of health risk.

What currently prevails in the Czech and Ghana market is mass production. Although mass customization strategy has not penetrated deeply in the both the Czech Republic and Ghana, the influence of such a strategy cannot be discounted as some segment of respondents saw it as a good strategy. Also, it is anticipated that in the future, fast food firms would consider the use of such strategies as a result of the increase sophistication and expectation of consumers. Already mass customization is been used in some international markets (like the United States). It is expected that it will gradually penetrate into other markets.

Figure 14 provides the proposed model for cross cultural branding strategy in the fast food industry. The model is essential for managing brands and operating in a multicultural business environment. From the model, it can be seen that, the consumer is at the centre of the branding activities of the firm. The consumers are not isolated from the culture (cultural dimensions) they live in and the culture also affects the firms' decisions. Hence, the firm must understand the cultural orientations of consumers in the country they operate in or want to enter before deciding on the branding strategy to adopt and implement. The branding strategy of the firm begins with the manipulation of the marketing mix variables. The outcome of the marketing mix and cultural understanding determines the approach to production.

The proposed model also includes the decisions on whether to standardize or adapt the firms' production and branding strategies. Depending on the approach to production, thus, either mass production or mass customization, either standardization or adaptation can be used by the firm. It is important for fast food firms (especially global fast food firms) to study the cultural orientation of consumers to decide on whether they will use the adaptive or the standardization strategy in the target market. Currently, the adaptation and standardization strategy is clearly taken into cognisance in the global fast food industry. Where firms need to adapt to local conditions, they do not hesitate although all price, promotion and product elements of their marketing mix are standardized in all markets by large fast food franchises.

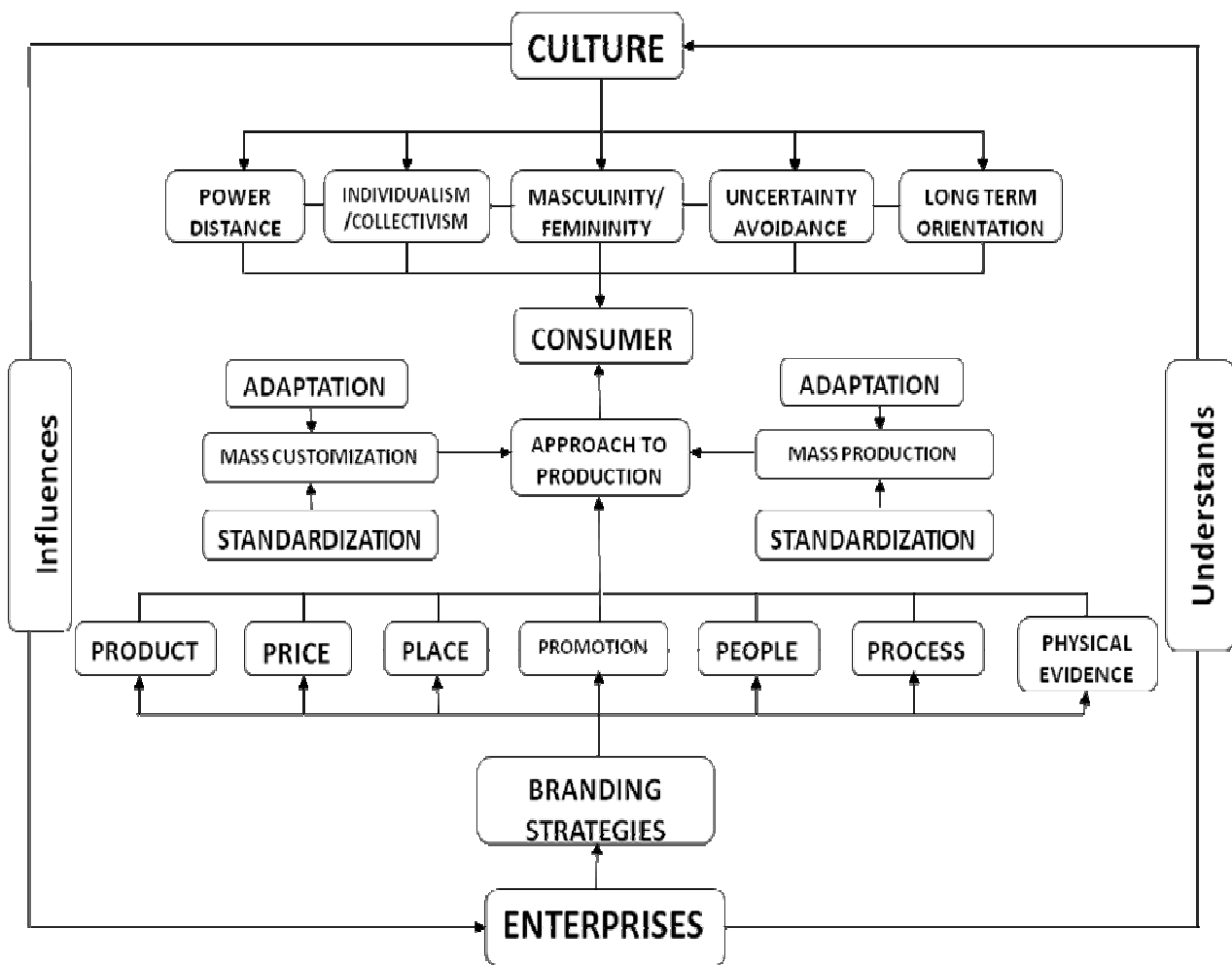


Figure 14: A proposed model for cross cultural branding strategy in the fast food industry

Source: Authors compilation

It must be emphasized that, it is possible for international fast food firms to use the two production approaches in the same market, although currently they are not applied simultaneously in most markets. The production approach that prevails in many countries including the Czech Republic and Ghana is the mass production strategy. However, in the two countries that were used in this study, it was realized that firms have adopted a different kind of mass customization especially the micro and small size enterprises based on cost considerations and customer satisfaction purposes. In both the Czech Republic and Ghana, the medium-sized and large scale firms still use the mass production method in their operations.

There are differences in taste tastes and living habits among consumers in different culture, hence, calling for a need for fast food firms need to adapt to local needs. Marketers need to understand how consumers think and evaluate the elements of the marketing mix. This research found that, the motivation for the consumption of fast food differs significantly among Czechs and Ghanaians. Also, consumers with different demographic characteristics have different perceptions as to what

makes up a fast food outlet and why they may visit fast food outlets. Often food products are associated with strong cultural habits. Therefore, fast food chains may need to adapt their menus and services by including local food ingredients. This research found that, adaptation to local culture or some local element is important in the formation of brand image and predicting satisfaction and brand loyalty among older consumers.

Finally, the proposed model is relevant because it incorporates all the relevant elements that are of importance to brand building and the firms' competitiveness in the global marketplace. The relevance lies in the fact that it includes the factors that are of importance in influencing the behaviour of consumers. For firms to be competitive in the fast food industry they must not only supply products and offer services in every market but also they must implement different strategies based on the cultural orientation of consumers in the target country.

8. RELEVANCE FOR SCIENCE AND PRACTICAL MANAGEMENT

8.1 Gains for scientific knowledge

This research examined new trends in cross cultural brand management and consumer behaviour in the fast food industry. After a thorough analysis of existing branding literature, the need for a new concept of consumer-brand experience has been identified. This research fills that gap by bringing out a new concept of the nexus between the branding strategies (based on the manipulation of the tenets of the marketing mix) of the firm and cross cultural consumer behaviour (as indicated by the consumer's cultural orientations). The research deals with the interpretation and determination of strategic marketing with reference to branding; as well as certain theoretical approaches related to it.

The research methodology permits a comprehensive analysis of the marketing mix and interpretation of consumer behaviour across cultures; hence concise conclusions are drawn to further advance scientific knowledge in the fields of marketing and consumer sciences. By taking the inductive approach in the conceptualisation of brand strategy and consumer behaviour from the marketing mix perspective, this research provides an elaborate insight into the brand management field. This research did not rely on existing literature to understand consumer behaviour and the firms marketing strategy. Rather, it took a step away from the literature by turning directly to consumers and fast food firms for the answers. Hence, the author considers the inductive approach as more important in cross cultural studies in branding and consumer behaviour than the deductive approach. Additionally, due to the maturity in the brand management field, focusing on testing of theories alone in its rigid form may hamper the creation of further knowledge.

Also, the fact that the researcher made direct contact with consumers made it relatively easier to understand the variables they value in fast food branding. Here, brand equity elements like, personalities, perceived value, images, associations and relationships were found to be the elements that consumers associate with the brands they like. This means that, the way consumers interpret the brand elements as predicted by the marketing mix goes to indicate the meanings they attach to the firm and the values they attach to the brand.

Furthermore, this research was conducted in two countries with vast differences in terms of their cultural orientations; hence, it is embedded in a cross cultural environment. This research indicates that, the dimensions of culture should be used as pre-predictors to determine how consumers differ or converge in their behaviour in different countries. This is how culture can serve the purpose in defining consumer behaviour and enable managers develop strategies for specific markets.

Finally, it is conceded that, reducing culture or behaviour of consumers entirely to figures may not project a true outcome, hence the use of mixed research methods (qualitative and quantitative). The use of both methods brings out relevant aspects of

the behaviour of consumers that may otherwise not be available when conducting a purely quantitative study. Therefore, cross cultural research studies must employ mixed methods in order not to lose out on expressive behaviours of consumers. The qualitative research makes it possible gain an understanding of the phenomenon under study while the quantitative research makes it possible to collect empirical data for the purposes of analysing hypothesis. The two methods yields results that is valuable for decision making and strategy formulation.

8.2 Gains for practical and managerial knowledge

This research contributes to the viability of current and potential fast foods firms in their expansion strategies into different countries as it provides an analysis of the salient aspects of fast food branding that are relevant to consumers. Further, the study brings out relevant elements for the development of branding strategies to influence consumer perception and purchasing behaviour. The research provides practical, proactive and result oriented analysis that will enable managers to understand the intricacies involved in branding in the global fast food industry and decrease the use of ‘trial and error’ when entering into unfamiliar markets so as to augment their strategies in international markets, thus, making the culture the focal point for the development of marketing strategies.

Another managerial implication is that, the competitive ability of a company is directly related to its ability to understand the significant role individual preferences as well as culture plays in consumer decisions making. Thus for a company to be successful in consumer markets, they do not have to concentrate only on their internal activities, but also, they must understand and inculcate specific cultural variables into their marketing and branding activities.

Furthermore, this research provides insight into the relevant factors that exist in consumer markets, which determines how they behave. From the variables and factors indicated in this dissertation, fast food firms irrespective of their sizes are better placed to anticipate trends and future changes in the markets. This will enable them to improve their planning of marketing strategies and provide better service to consumers. With an understanding of the impact and interactions of marketing mix elements in different cultures, managers of fast food firms can design effective branding strategies for an effective customer acquisition and/or retention purposes.

This research expands on fast food marketing by bringing to light the effects of the concept of market structures in fast food branding. Due to the monopolistic market structure of the global fast food industry, fast food firms should focus not only on the regular activities of promotion, but also, they must keep abreast with changing consumer needs and innovative trends in the global business environment. Formidable brand reputation must be built to create an additional value of the firm in the minds of consumers. Also, other elements like closeness or proximity and accessibility, cost, quality, discount, and taste factors are vital for the firms’ competitiveness and growth. The finding from the monopolistic market structure that characterizes the fast food industry indicates that advertising and other

promotional activities (marketing communication) that fast food firms adopt has a significant impact on consumer rationality. The marketing communication activities of the firms tend to cause consumers to buy on impulse, thereby defiling the rationality propositions that are put across by the microeconomic theory of consumer behaviour.

Additionally, fast food firms must look at their size and resources in the development of their branding strategies. Although, medium-sized and large fast food firms possess adequate resources for effective branding strategy development and implementation, micro and small fast food firms possess some advantages that make them competitive if they are built upon. Micro and small fast food firms of the fast food industry is an indication that, there is room for profit for any firm irrespective of their size. Hence, management of fast food firms must assess their strengths and weaknesses in the market and exploit it fully to their advantage.

From this study, there are implications that consumers in different countries look out for several product/service factors in order to make their decision to buy from a particular fast food outlet. It is not the case for managers to assume that the fast food industry has become a commodity market. Managers of fast food firms who understand the factors that are considered important by consumers and emphasize on those factors in the branding strategies and can also differentiate (actual or perceived) in their products or service are those who succeed.

From a marketing management point of view, the research emphasizes the significance of acquiring knowledge and understanding of the prevailing environment fast food firms operate, especially as they expand in into other markets. Managers must have a clear understanding of the expectations of customers in each culture and differentiate their product to meet their needs, wants and preferences.

The research highlights on the relevance of segmentation in the executing of branding strategies. This research found that the frequency of fast food purchases by consumers differs with age, sex and income level in both countries. This is an indication of the multiplicity of consumer markets. Hence, fast food firms irrespective of their size must endeavour to segment the market for targeting and quicker adaptation. The definition of market segments is for product differentiation from rival products and to serve the needs of a given segment better. The unique characteristics, varied taste and preferences and frequency of purchase of consumers as determined by their age, sex, income level as well as cultural underpins means that, fast food firms, specifically in the Czech Republic and Ghana firm must engage in segmentation and targeting in the implementation of their branding strategy (marketing mix implementation). This is mainly because consumers differ significantly in terms of their needs and wants, demographics, expectations, buying attitudes, lifestyles resources, geographical locations, and reasons for buying.

This research revealed that, the marketing strategies of firms are usually targeted at kids, students and young working adults. Fast food firms must know that children usually do not make purchasing decisions, their parents or older persons do although they may be the final consumers. Designing advertising messages to stimulate the

needs of kids may not necessarily increase sales. Rather, to get the older generation to patronize fast food for themselves and for their kinds, the nutrition of fast food products must be emphasized in the firms marketing communications as it is the main interest for most adults. This could be applicable to young adults as well although they do not consider the health implications so much in their buying because they usually want to satisfy their hunger, save time from cooking, convenience sake and as a form of social gathering.

Furthermore, another managerial contribution is that, all the aspects of the marketing mix cannot be considered in isolation as they are mutually dependent. For instance, it is not prudent to develop a product without considering the price to charge, where it would be sold, how it will reach the consumer, how to make people aware of the product, how to make employees understand and deliver the product to the customers satisfaction and how to provide a compelling service to get customers coming after initial purchase. The merging of all these elements together is a function of a proper planning for consumer markets. The fundamental essence of marketing planning requires the manipulation of the marketing mix and incorporating it into the marketing strategy of the firm while tailoring it to meet the needs and preferences of consumers so as to satisfy them better than competitors. The effectiveness of the branding strategy requires a co-ordinated strategy and not a piecemeal approach. It also requires a realistic evaluation of the market under consideration and consumer characteristics as predicted by their cultural orientation and a realistic assessment of the firms' resources and budget.

Based on the relevance of mass customization in the fast food industry, this research proposes the inclusion of personalization as an additional 'P'. The personalization cannot be seen as an element of the marketing mix as it is an umbrella that covers all the other 7Ps. This is mainly because it is possible for the fast food firms to customize or personalize the marketing mix (7P) not only for individuals, but also for different segments of the market who possess similar characteristics, demands, expectations and preferences. The findings in this study suggest that personalization will prove to be a successful strategy for marketers to pursue as it improves consumer satisfaction in different strata of the society (be it age, sex or income level).

Finally, the standardization or adaptation is also worthy of consideration by fast food outlets. Firms in the fast food industry must not adopt one of the extreme but rather to combine both concepts in the management and implementation of the marketing mix depending on the peculiarity and dynamics of the market as depicted by consumers' cultural orientations. It may involve the development of food items using traditional ingredients to satisfy the preference of consumers and to make the food more acceptable. In instances where the taste and preferences are as a result of religion and taboos, adaptation strategy is indispensable in the firms branding strategy. For young consumers, their desire to taste food from different countries means that, the inclusion of local ingredients may not be an appropriate strategy.

9. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

9.1 Summary of findings

Cultural differences are very important in consumer markets; this is because of the impact it has on the buying behaviour of individuals. For some fast food firms, in order to gain market share in different markets, it is important to understand the factors that influences the behaviour of consumers; firms should not only supply the same products and services in every market but also implement different strategies based on the different cultures existing in the different countries. This dissertation emphasized the important role of cultural values in the self of consumers and the role of culture in modern practice of branding and international fast food operations.

The main objective of this research was to create a comprehensive model for cross cultural brand management in the global fast food industry. The model was based on the factors and variables that were found to be relevant in determining the competitiveness of firms and the behaviour of consumers. The model provides a practical approach for managers to manage their brands to ensure their competitive in the vibrant global fast food industry given the dynamics in the behaviour of consumers as determined by their cultural orientations.

The research also examined the branding strategies of firms in the fast food industry with reference to the dimensions of the marketing mix, the behaviour of consumers towards fast food in the Czech Republic and Ghana and the major marketing variables that determine their preferences for fast food brands. The findings revealed that there are differences between the preferences and perceptions of consumers in two culturally different countries (Czech Republic and Ghana) for what is known as the commodity-type product/service, that is, fast food. Attributes such as price, product quality, politeness of staff, promotion and cleanliness are considered important in buying fast foods among consumers in both countries. There were also country specific preferences. Consumers in Ghana considered the sense of belongingness and social acceptance as relevant in their buying decisions whiles convenience, nutrition and desire for change was the main attribute Czech consumers found to be valuable in determining their decision to buy.

Also, it was found that, medium-sized and large fast food firms by virtue of their size and franchise associations possess adequate resources for effective and comprehensive branding strategy development and implementation. However, micro and small fast food firms do not actively engage in branding due to resource constraints or lack of business acumen. Their operations are generally concentrated on pricing, sales promotion and personal contact. However, micro and small fast food firms possess some advantages (like flexible production processes and personal contact with customers) that makes them competitive. Also, micro and small fast food firms are better placed to satisfy low-end consumers.

With regards to the sub-objectives, the first of it analysed the cultural orientation of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana with reference to the different age groups and sex. It was found that, in the Czech Republic, respondents do not differ in sex with respect to the cultural variables of power distance, long-term orientation and collectivism and individualism. But there were significant differences between sex and masculinity and femininity and uncertainty avoidance. Females in the Czech Republic are more feministic than males. Also, females scored high in uncertainty avoidance than males. However, in Ghana, there were no significant difference between sex and the cultural orientation of respondents.

In terms of age of respondents and the cultural dimensions, the results indicated that, in the Czech Republic, there were statistical significance between the ages of respondents and the cultural dimensions. However, in Ghana, it was revealed that there was no statistical significance between the ages of the respondents and the cultural dimensions of collectivism and individualism and masculinity and femininity. However, there were statistical significance between age of respondents and 3 of the cultural dimensions namely power distance, uncertainty avoidance and long term orientation.

The second sub-objective was to determine the extent of relationship between consumers (age and sex) in the Czech Republic and Ghana and their response to the marketing mix variables. In examining this objective, it was revealed that in the Czech Republic, there were no significant differences between the sex of respondents and marketing mix element of place, promotion, process, people and price. However, there were significant differences between males and females for the product and physical evidence aspect of the marketing mix. But in Ghana, the analysis of sex and the marketing mix was not statistically significant except for price. It was found that males in Ghana consider price as more important in their buying behaviour than females. In terms of age of respondents, it was revealed that there were no significant differences between age and the promotion and people aspect of the marketing mix among respondents from the Czech Republic. However, there were significant differences between the ages of respondents and place, process, price, product and physical evidence. In Ghana, it was revealed that the relationship between age and 6 variables in the marketing mix were statistically significant. The marketing mix is as follows: place, process, people, price, product and physical evidence. It was only promotion which was not statistically significant.

The third sub-objective examined the relationship between sex, age and income and the frequency of purchase of fast food among respondents in the Czech Republic and Ghana. The analysis of the interrelationship indicated that in the Czech Republic; there were significant differences between the frequency of purchase of fast food and the sex, age and income level of respondents. However, in Ghana, there were no significant differences between the frequency of purchase of fast food and the sex of respondents. But there were significant differences between the frequency of purchase of fast food and the ages and income distribution of respondents.

The fourth sub-objective determined the preference patterns of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana and perception of firms with respect to the standardization or customization of fast food product or services. With regards to the preference patterns of consumers it was found that in the Czech Republic, there were statistical difference between respondents from the age group 51-60 (mean of 4.04) and the age groups of 11-20 (mean of 3.30), 21-30 (mean of 3.42) and 31-40 (mean of 3.33). However, there were no significance differences between respondents from the age group of 51-60 and 41-50 (mean of 3.70). Hence, older people tend to prefer customized food for health and nutrition reasons than younger ones. However, in Ghana, there was no significant differences between the groups (ages of respondents) and the patterns for preferences for standardized or customized fast food products and services. From the point of firms in both countries, it was found that Micro and small scale fast food firms use both standardization and mass customization in their operations. Micro and small scale fast food firms often allow consumers to take out part of the ingredients they do not like and add extra of some ingredient they like unlike the medium and large scale fast food outlets which usually offer standardized meals. However, even with the customization of food in the micro and small firms, mass customization was not use in its purest form where the Consumer Intervention Point (CIP) is at the beginning of the order.

The fifth sub-objective examined the perception of consumer on the role of the internet in the customization of fast food products and trends in the use of the internet in fast food operations. The research revealed that in both the Czech Republic and Ghana, there is no statistical significance in the means of each group (age) and consumer perception of the role of internet in the customization of fast food products. From the side of the fast food firms, it was found that the marketing strategy of fast food outlets in Ghana does not include e-marketing unlike the strategies used by firms in Czech Republic. The websites of fast food firms in the Czech Republic are meant to introduce current and new menu items as well as sales promotion. Currently, there is no fast food firm that customizes fast food menu items for customers over the internet, although it is possible to find websites of fast food firms to place an order and have it delivered.

The sixth sub-objective examined the preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms on the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes. This objective was also achieved, as it was found that in the Czech republic, there is statistical significance in the means of each group (age) and their preferences for the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes. However, in Ghana there was no significant differences between the groups (ages of respondents) and their preferences for the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes. The firms also indicated that complexity in preparing traditional/indigenous food makes them unattractive, unsuitable and not feasible to be implemented in the fast food industry

which is characterized by easily prepared food and requires low preparation time. However, firms recognise that when there are strong cultural rejections of standardized food due to religion or taboos, then traditional/indigenous ingredients are used to satisfy the preference patterns of consumers. Such inclinations are not observed on a larger scale among consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana.

The seventh sub-objective analysed the market structure of the fast food industry and strategies for competitive advantage. The analysis indicated that, the global fast food industry follows a monopolistic market structure. Given the characteristics of this market structure, competing on price alone is not strategic and prudent for the long-term. Though price competition and sales promotion ensures short-term profitability, the focus on branding is essential because it impacts on the long-term profitability of the firm as it builds loyalty among consumers and instils the values and what the brand represents in the market by bringing out the characteristics that differentiates it from the brands of competitors.

9.2 Conclusions

There are some conclusions that can be drawn from the findings in this research. There is a need for managers to have a global approach to marketing and business practices, but in doing that, they must take cognisance of the local orientation of the countries they operate as determined by the cultural consumer's socio-cultural values. The mantra of '*think globally and act locally*' applies in this regard. Because of the competition in the fast food industry, it is important for firms to be innovative in their product development and service delivery whiles at the same time capitalizing on advertisements and sales promotions (with emphasis on pricing) tools to increase their bottom-line and stay competitive in the market. However, as the monopolistic market structure predicts, competing based on price alone may not be feasible and it may not guarantee long-term consumer loyalty. Therefore, it behoves on the firm to develop their brand and support it with appropriate branding strategies to gain consumer loyalty and stay competitive in the long-term.

Furthermore, it was found that, the adoption of either mass customization or mass production or a combination of two approaches depends largely on the cost and revenue considerations of the firm as well as cultural orientations and behaviour of consumers in the target market. Usually, mass customization is used in a subtle way by micro and small firms in the fast food industry who strive to satisfy consumers taste and preferences to keep them loyal and also to keep a close contact with them. Personal interaction is more intense between micro and small fast food firms and their customers unlike the large scale fast food firms where there is not much personal contact with their customers. In most cases, the point of interaction in medium-sized and large fast food firms is usually for transaction purposes.

Mass customization is the way to go in order to address the health concerns of consumers of fast food products. It is essential for fast food firms to develop mechanism that makes it possible for consumers to know exactly the amount of calories contained in each food item they purchase and consume. The customization

strategy that is used by Burger King in the United States may be far too advanced for micro and small fast food enterprises, although its use cannot be discounted. There are alternative strategies that may be applicable to the micro and small firms. Micro, small as well as medium size fast food firms may opt to provide information on the nutritional contents of each of the standardized menu items on display at the point of purchase and not only on their websites. This strategy could also be implemented in the large fast food outlets too.

However, a hurdle that firms must address is the perception that mass customized products and services cost more. Even though it may not impair consumer attitudes, the perception should not be left unaddressed. The final cost of the product depends on what the consumer decides to put in the final products. The reality is that, the actual price consumers pay for a mass-customized product, may be lesser, equal or more than non-mass customized goods. Furthermore, the idea that a customized product may cost more in itself is not a disadvantage as the firm can translate it into a positive selling point. The key advantage of personalization or mass customization is the fact that it increases and maintains customer satisfaction. Hence, the enticement of consumers to personalize their food product may be a good way of transferring short-term buyers into long-term buyers.

Although many micro and small enterprises in the fast food industry do not proactively engage in creating brand names and brand management, the monopolistic market structure that characterizes the fast food industry demands that they adopt brand development and management in their operations. This will guarantee some form of uniqueness of their products and services they offer in the eyes of consumers. Branding is a viable source of competitiveness and survival in the fast food market in the two countries and the global fast food industry. However, the brand building initiatives must be innovative and different from what already prevails in the market. It must highlight on the uniqueness of the products and services the firm provides that are of relevance to consumers to avoid unnecessary cost, especially for the micro and small firms.

Finally, fast food firms must realize that, their competitive ability in the global marketplace is directly related to their ability to adequately understand the role individual preferences and the relevance of consumer cultural orientation play in their decision making process. Hence, the firm that wants to be successful in their branding and marketing strategies do not only have to concentrate on their internal business practices, but also, they must endeavour to understand and inculcate specific consumer preferences and the prevailing cultural orientations into their marketing and branding strategies. This should be done with cognisance of the trends and dynamics in technology and its role in production and service delivery.

9.3 Suggestions for future research

The health aspects of fast food consumption though considered important to consumers were not fully explored because the researcher lacks capacity in the area of food and nutrition to fully analyse the impact of such variables from the

perspective of consumers and the firm. While it was the aim to study the impact of health concerns of fast food on consumer behaviour, it was not appropriate to make generalizations without scientific backing to prove whether or not fast food healthy. It will therefore be necessary to conduct further studies that will bring out the nutritional aspects of food products to in order to make strong correlations and inferences to support the augments made in relation to the healthiness or otherwise of fast food products.

Studies could also be conducted to examine the predictive power of the marketing mix variables and the likelihood of consuming fast food products. Such an empirical study could go into the effect of a change (level of intensity) in any of the marketing mix variables by the firm on consumers' decisions to purchase, given their cultural orientation as a moderating variable.

This research did not find strong religious influences on the taste and preferences of certain food items in the two countries. However, literature reviewed indicates that, taboos associated with the consumption of certain food items may render certain products unacceptable in some consumer markets. This research does not discount the influence of religious orientations in the branding strategy of firms. The adaptation strategy makes room for flexibility in the implementation of the marketing mix in international markets.

Regarding the standardization and adaptation dichotomy, there is a need for further exploration of the issue of cost. This is because of the argument that, when there is homogeneity of market characteristics, companies can adopt and implement a standardized marketing strategy so as to reap lower costs and larger profit margins compared to heterogeneous markets. Consequently, the cost implications of the two strategies could be considered in future studies.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- [1] AAKER, A., KUMAR, V. D., GEORGE, S. *Marketing research*, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 2000. ISBN: 9780471363408
- [2] AAKER, D. A. *Managing Brand Equity: Capitalizing on the Value of a Brand Name*. New York: The Free Press. 1991. ISBN: 9780029001011
- [3] AAKER, D. A. *Building Strong Brands*. New York: The Free Press, 1996. ISBN: 9780029001516
- [4] AAKER, J. L., BENET-MARTÍNEZ, V., GAROLERA, J. Consumption symbols as carriers of culture: a study of Japanese and Spanish brand personality constructs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 2001, vol. 81, p. 492–508. ISSN: 0022-3514
- [5] AAKER, J. L., LEE, A. Y. “I” Seek Pleasures and “We” Avoid Pains: The Role of Self-Regulatory Goal in Information Processing and Persuasion. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 2001, vol. 28, p. 33-49. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [6] AAKER, J. L., MAHESWARAN, D. The effect of cultural orientation on persuasion. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 1997, vol. 24, p. 315–328. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [7] AAKER, J., SCHMITT, B. Culture-dependent assimilation and differentiation of the self: Preferences for consumption symbols in the United States and China. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. 2001, vol. 32, no. 5, p. 561–576. ISSN: 0022-0221(Print)/1552-5422 (Online).
- [8] ABRAMSON, N. R., KEATING, R. J., LANE, H. W. Cross-national cognitive process differences: A comparison of Canadian, American and Japanese Managers. *Management International Review*. 1996, vol. 36, no. 2, p. 123-148. ISSN: 0938-8249.
- [9] ACKERMAN, D., TELLIS, G. Can culture affect prices? A cross- cultural study of shopping and retail prices. *Journal of Retailing*. 2001, vol. 77, p. 57-82. ISSN: 0022-4359.
- [10] AGNES, K.Y., LAW, Y.V., HUI, X. Z. Modeling repurchase frequency and customer satisfaction for fast food outlets. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*. 2004, vol. 21 Is. 5, p.545 – 563. ISSN: 0265-671X
- [11] AGRAWAL, M., KUMARESH, T.V., MERCER, G. The false promise of mass customization. *The McKinsey Quarterly*. 2001, no.3, p.62-71. ISSN: 0047-5394
- [12] AJEWOLE, O. I., OMONONA, B. T. Urban-rural differential in food consumption in Nigeria: a case study of Ilesa and Atakumosa LGAs of Osun State. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Information*. 2006, vol. 7, nos. 2-3, p. 145-57. ISSN: 1049-6505 (print)/ISSN: 1540-4722 (online)
- [13] AKBAY, C., TIRYAKI, G., GUL, A. Consumer characteristics influencing fast food consumption in Turkey. *Food Control*. 2007, vol. 18, Is. 8, p. 904-913. ISSN: 09567135.
- [14] ALIMIENÉ, M., KUVYKAITE, R. Standardization/adaptation of marketing solutions in companies operating in foreign markets: An integrated approach.

- Inzinerine Ekonomika-Engineering Economics*. 2008, vol. 1, p. 37-47. ISSN 1392–2785 (print)/ISSN 2029–5839 (online)
- [15] AL-WEQUAIN, A. *Examining the association between personal and cultural values and cross- national customer satisfaction*. (Online) (1998) Available at <http://www.proquest.co.uk/en-UK/catalogs/databases/detail/pqdt.shtml>
- [16] AMERICAN MARKETING ASSOCIATION *Definition of Brand*. Marketing Terms Dictionary (online) [cit. 2011-10-10]. Available at <http://www.marketingpower.com/mg-dictionary-view329.php>
- [17] ANGULO, A. M., GILL, J. M., MUR, J. Spanish demand for food away from home: A panel data approach. In *European Association of Agricultural Economist Cong*. Zaragoza, Spain. 2002.
- [18] ANITA, G. S. N. P. Consumer Perception about Fast Food in India: An Exploratory Study. *British Food Journal*. 2007, vol. 109, no. 2, p. 182-195. ISSN: 0007-070X
- [19] ARNOLD, D. *The handbook of brand management*. NY: Perseus Books, 1992.
- [20] ASAMOAHA, E. S. Consumer perception of fast food brands: An exploratory study of university students in Ghana and the Czech Republic. In *New Directions New Insights: 4th German French Austrian Conference on Quantitative Marketing*. Online, 2010, p. 51-51.
- [21] ASAMOAHA, E. S., CHOVANCOVÁ, M. An overview of the theory of Microeconomics (consumer behaviour and market structures) in fast food marketing. *Ekonomika a Management*. 2011a, no. 1, p. 75-88. ISSN 1802-8470(print) / ISSN 1802-8934(online).
- [22] ASAMOAHA, E. S., CHOVANCOVÁ, M. A proposed managerial framework for international marketing operations in the fast food industry. In *WASET: International Conference on Business, Economics, Management and Marketing*. Paris, France. November 14-16, 2011b. Issue 59, p. 189-193. ISSN 2010-376X (print), ISSN 2010-3778 (online)
- [23] ASAMOAHA, E.S., CHOVANCOVÁ, M., CHAMARU DE ALWIS, A, SAMARAKOON MUDIYNSELA A. K., GUO, Y. Motivation for buying branded items: a cross country application of Maslow's hierarchy of needs in consumer decision making. *Scientific Papers of the University of Pardubice Series D*. Special edition. 2011, vol. XVI, no. 21 (3), p. 6-18. ISSN 1211-555X (Print)/ISSN 1804-8048 (Online)
- [24] AUTY, S. Consumer Choice and Segmentation in the Restaurant Industry. *The Service Industries Journal*, 1992, vol. 12, no. 3, p. 324-339. ISSN: 0264-2069 (Print)/ISSN: 1743-9507(Online)
- [25] AYDIN, N., KACKER, M. International Outlook of US based Franchisers. *International Marketing Review*. 1990, vol. 7, no. 2, p. 43-53. ISSN: 0265-1335
- [26] BAGOZZI, R. P., LEE, K. H. Multiple routes for social influence: the role of compliance, internalization and social identity. *Social Psychology Quarterly*.

- 2002, vol. 65, no. 3, p. 226–247. ISSN: 0190-2725 (print)/ISSN: 1939-8999 (online)
- [27] BAGOZZI, R. P., WONG, N., ABE, S., BERGAMI, M. Cultural and Situational Contingencies and the Theory of Reasoned Action: Application to Fast Food Restaurant Consumption. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*. 2000, vol. 9, no. 2, p. 97–106. ISSN: 1057-7408
- [28] BARBOUR, J. *Children's Eating Habits in the U.S.: Trends and Implications for Marketers*. New York: Packaged Facts, 2004.
- [29] BAREHAM, J. *Consumer Behavior in the Food Industry. A European Perspective*. Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford, U.K, 1995. ISBN 0750619317
- [30] BARLON, K. The concept of the marketing mix. *Marketing Management*, 2006, vol. 1, p. 2–7. ISSN: 1061-3846.
- [31] BEARDEN, W. O., NETEMEYER, R. G., TEEL, J. E. Measurement of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 1989 (March), vol. 15, p. 473–481. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [32] BELASCO, W., SCRANTON, P. *Food Nation: Selling Taste in Consumer Societies*. New York: Routledge, 2002.
- [33] BELCH, G. E., BELCH, M. A. *Advertising and Promotion: An Integrated Marketing Communications Perspective*. New York: McGraw-Hill. 2004.
- [34] BELK, R. W. Possessions and the Extended Self. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 1988, 15 (September), p. 139-168. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [35] BENDER, A. E., BENDER, D. A. *A dictionary of food and nutrition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1993.
- [36] BLACKWEL, R. D., MINNIARD, P. W. ENGEL, J. L. *Consumer behaviour*. 5th edn. The Dryden Press, 2001.
- [37] BRADFORD, R.W. *Understanding the Competitive Value of your Brand*. Centre for Simplified Strategic Planning, Inc., (2008) [online]. [cit. 2010-10-14]. Available at http://www.strategyletter.com/CD0905/featured_article.php
- [38] BRADLEY, F. *International marketing strategy*. London: Pearson education limited, 2002.
- [39] BRILEY, D. A., MORRIS, M. M., SIMONSON, I. Reasons as carriers of culture. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 2000, vol. 27, p. 157-178. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [40] BROWN, D.L. *Export Advertising*. New York, NY: Ronald Press, 1923.
- [41] BRYMAN, A. Integrating quantitative and qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*. 2006, vol. 6, no. 1, p. 97-113. ISSN: 1468-7941 (Print)/1741-3109 (Online).
- [42] BRYMAN, A., BELL, E. *Business research methods*. (2nd edition). New York: Oxford University Press, 2007. ISBN-13: 978-0199284986.
- [43] BURNS, A. C., BUSH, R. F. *Marketing research: Online research applications*. 4th edn. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 2002.

- [44] BUTTER, E. A., LEUNG, K. The difference between Chinese and Western negotiations. *European Journal of Marketing*. 1998, vol. 32, no. 3/4, p. 374-389. ISSN: 0309-0566.
- [45] BUZZELL, R. D. Can you standardize multinational marketing? *Harvard Business Review*. 1968 (November/December). ISSN: 0017-8012.
- [46] BYRNE, J. P., CAPPS, J. O., SAHA, A. Analysis of quick-serve, mid-scale and up-scale food away from home expenditures. *The International Food and Agribusiness Management Review*. 1998, vol. 1, p. 51–72. ISSN:1096-7508.
- [47] BYRNES, J. P., MILLER, D. C., SCHAFER, W. D. Gender Differences in Risk Taking: A Meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*. 1999 (May), vol. 125, p. 367-383. ISSN: 0033-2909 (Print)/1939-1455 (Online).
- [48] CADOTTE, E. R., WOODRUFF, R. B., JENKINS, R. L. Expectations and norms in models of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*. 1987(August), vol. 24, p. 305–314. ISSN: 0022-2437 (Print)/1547-7193 (Online).
- [49] CALANTONE, R. J., KIM, D., SCHMIDT, J. B., CAVUSGIL, S. T. The influence of internal and external firm factors on international product adaptation strategy and export performance: a three-country comparison. *Journal of Business Research*. 2006, vol. 59, p. 176–185. ISSN: 0148-2963.
- [50] CAREY, R. A., GENEVIEVE, L. USA snapshots: Factors influencing choice of sit-down restaurant. *USA Today*. 1995 (June 23), p. D1.
- [51] CAVUSGIL, S. T., ZOU, S. Marketing strategy-performance relationship: an investigation of the empirical link in export market venture. *Journal of Marketing*. 1994, vol. 58, no. 1, p. 1-21. ISSN: 0022-2429 (Print)/ISSN: 1547-7185 (Online).
- [52] CHANG, P. L., CHIENG, M. H. Building consumer–brand relationship: a cross cultural experiential view. *Psychology and Marketing*. 2006, vol. 23, no. 11, p. 927–959.
- [53] CHAPLIN, L. N., JOHN, D. R. The Development of Self-Brand Connections in Children and Adolescents. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 2005 (June), vol. 32, p. 119–129. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [54] CHARTERED INSTITUTE OF MARKETING (CIM) (2003) [cit. 2010-05-09]. Available at <http://www.hajarian.com/esterategic/tarjomeh/87/brand%20strategy.pdf>
- [55] CHARTERED INSTITUTE OF MARKETING (CIM) Marketing and the 7Ps: a brief summary of marketing and how it works: *CIM insights*. 2009, Berkshire. Also available at www.cim.co.uk/marketingresources
- [56] CHAVADI, C. A., KOKATNUR, S. S. Consumer Expectation and Perception of Fast Food Outlets: An Empirical Study in Davangere. *The Icfai University Journal of Services Marketing*. The Icfai University Press. 2008, vol. VI, no. 2.
- [57] CHO, B., KWON, U., GENTRY, J.W., JUN, S., KROPP, F. Cultural values reflected in theme and execution: a comparative study of US and Korean

- television commercials. *Journal of Advertising*. 1999, vol. 28, no. 4, p. 60–73. ISSN: 0091-3367.
- [58] CHO, C-H., CHEON, H. J. Cross-Cultural Comparisons of Interactivity on Corporate Websites. *Journal of Advertising*. 2005, vol. 34, no. 2, p. 99-115. ISSN: 0091-3367.
- [59] CHOI, I., NISBETT, R. E., SMITH, E.E. Culture, category salience, and inductive reasoning. *Cognition*. 1997, vol. 65, p. 15–32.
- [60] CHOVANCOVÁ, M., ASAMOAH, E. S., CHAMARU DE ALWIS, A., SAMARAKOON, A. K., GUO, Y. Brand as a dominant factor in determining the competitiveness of firms: evidence from the Czech consumer market. In *Proceedings of the 18th Annual Conference on Marketing and Business Strategies for Central and Eastern Europe*. Vienna: Vienna University of Economics and Business, 2010, p. 61-85. ISBN: 978-3-9502045-9-9
- [61] CHOW, C. W., DENG VE, F. J., HO, J.L. The openness of knowledge sharing within organizations: A comparative study in the United States and the People’s Republic of China. *Journal of Management Accounting Research*. 2000, vol.12, p. 65-95. ISSN: 1049-2127(Print)/1558-8033(Online).
- [62] CHRISTIE, P. M. J., KWON, I. W. G., STOEBERL, P. A., BAUMHART, R. A cross-cultural comparison of ethical attitudes of business managers: India, Korea and the United States. *Journal of Business Ethics*. 2003, vol. 46, no. 3, p. 263-287. ISSN: 0167-4544 (Print)/1573-0697 (Online).
- [63] CHUNG, I. K., ADAMS, C. R. A study on the characteristics of group decision making behavior: Cultural difference perspective of Korea vs. U.S. *Journal of Global Information Management*. 1997, vol. 5, no. 3, p.18-29. ISSN: 1062-7375 (printed)/1533-7995 (Online).
- [64] CHURCHILL, G. A., IACOBUCCI, D. *Marketing research: Methodological foundations*. 9th edn. Ohio: Thomson South-Western, 2004.
- [65] CIALDINI, R. B., KALLGREN, C. A., RENO, R. R. A Focus Theory of Normative Conduct: A Theoretical Refinement and Re-evaluation of the Role of Norms in Human-Behavior. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. 1991, vol. 24, p. 201–234. ISBN: 978-0-12-394286-9.
- [66] CLARITY MARKETING LTD, *Marketing mix-7 Ps of the marketing mix: a framework for complete marketing* (online) 2005. [cit. 05.09.2010]. available at <http://www.clarity-in-communication.com/getattachment/5efd93e3-cdf7-489e-a0b6-9cb5fb19cf2d/7-Ps-of-the-marketing-mix.aspx>
- [67] CLARK, M., WOOD, C. R Consumer loyalty in the restaurant industry: A preliminary exploration of the issues. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. 1998, vol. 10, no. 4, p. 139–144. ISSN: 0959-6119.
- [68] CRAWFORD-WELCH, S. Product development in the hospitality industry. In *Teare, R., Mazanec, J.A., Crawford-Welch, S., and Calver, S. (Eds.), Marketing in Hospitality and Tourism: A Consumer Focus*. London: Cassell, 1994.

- [69] CUI, Y., TING, Z. American Fast Food in Chinese Market: A Cross-Cultural Perspective: The Case of KFC and McDonald's. *Unpublished Master's thesis*, University of Halmstad. 2009
- [70] CZINKOTA, M. R., RONKAINEN, I. A. A resource-based perspective on global branding: an analysis of trademark registration data. *International journal of management*. 2004, vol. 21, no. 4, p. 451-463. ISSN: 0813-0183.
- [71] CZINKOTA, M. R., RONKAINEN, I. A. *International Marketing*. 5th edn. Forth Worth, London: The Dryden Press, 1998.
- [72] DAVIES, G. J., SMITH, J. L. Fast food dietary perspective. *Nutrition and Food Science*. 2004, vol. 34, no. 2, p. 80–82. ISSN: 0034-6659.
- [73] DAWAR, N., PARKER, P. Marketing universals: consumers' use of brand name, price, physical appearance, and retail reputation as signals of product quality. *Journal of Marketing*. 1994, vol. 58, no.2, p.81-95. ISSN: 0022-2429 (Print)/ISSN: 1547-7185 (Online).
- [74] DAWAR, N., PARKER, P., PRICE, L. A cross-cultural study of interpersonal information exchange. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 1996, vol. 27, no. 3, p. 497–516. ISSN: 0047-2506 (Print)/1478-6990 (Online).
- [75] De CHERNATONY, L., DRURY, S. The effects of service brand extensions on corporate image: An empirical model. *European Journal of Marketing*. 2006, vol. 40, No. 1-2, p.174-197. ISSN: 0309-0566.
- [76] De MOOIJ, M., HOFSTEDE, G. The Hofstede Model: Applications to Global Branding and Advertising Strategy and Research. *International Journal of Advertising*. 2010, vol. 29, no. 1, p. 85-110. ISSN: 0265-0487.
- [77] De MOOIJ, M. (online) (2011) [cit. 04.09.2011]. Available at <http://www.mariekedemooij.com/>
- [78] De MOOIJ, M. *Consumer Behaviour and Culture: Consequences for Global Marketing and Advertising*. London: SAGE Publications: Thousand Oaks. 2005, p. 5. ISBN: 0-7619-2669-0.
- [79] De MOOIJ, M. *Consumer Behaviour and Culture: Consequences for Global Marketing and Advertising*. 2nd Edn. London: SAGE Publications: Thousand Oaks. 2011. ISBN: 978-14129-7990-0.
- [80] De MOOIJ, M. *Consumer Behaviour and Culture: Consequences for Global Marketing and Advertising*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications. 2004.
- [81] De MOOIJ, M. Convergence and divergence in consumer behaviour: implications for global advertising. *International Journal of Advertising*. 2003, vol. 22, p. 183–202. ISSN: 0265-0487.
- [82] De MOOIJ, M. *Global Marketing and Advertising, Understanding Cultural Paradoxes*. (3rd edn). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. 2010. ISBN-13: 978-1412970419.
- [83] De MOOIJ, M., HOFSTEDE, G. Convergence and divergence in consumer behaviour: implications for international retailing. *Journal of Retailing*. 2002, vol. 78, p. 61–69. ISSN: 0022-4359.

- [84] De MOOIJ, M., HOFSTEDE, G. Cross-Cultural Consumer behaviour: A Review of Research Finding. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*. 2011, vol. 23, p.181–192. ISSN: 0896-1530(Print)/ISSN: 1528-7068 (Online).
- [85] DELGADO-BALLASTER, E. MUNUERA-ALEMAN, J. L. Does Brand trust matter to brand equity? *Journal of Product and Brand Management*. 2005, vol. 14, no. 3, p.187-196. ISSN: 1061-0421.
- [86] DESCHAMPSNEUFS, H. *Marketing Overseas*. New York, NY: Pergamon Press, 1967.
- [87] DOOLE, I., LOWE, R. *International Marketing Strategy - Analysis, Development and Implementation*, 3rd edn. Thomson Learning, 2001.
- [88] DOOLE, L., LOWE, R. *International Marketing Strategy*. 5th edn. London: South-Western Cengage Learning, 2008.
- [89] DOW, D. Adaptation and performance in foreign markets: evidence of systematic under-adaptation. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 2005, vol. 37, p. 212–226. ISSN: 0047-2506 (Print)/1478-6990 (Online).
- [90] DUGBAZAH, J. E. Gender, migration and rural livelihoods in Ghana: A case of the Ho district. *Unpublished doctoral thesis*. Centre of West African Studies School of Historical Studies, Faculty of Arts. The University of Birmingham, 2007.
- [91] DUNCAN, T., RAMAPRASAD, J. Standardized multinational advertising: The influencing factors. *Journal of Advertising*. 1995, vol. 24, no. 3, p. 55–68. ISSN: 0091-3367.
- [92] ECONOMIST INTELLIGENCE UNIT (EIU) (2008) (online) [cit. 04.10.2011]. Available at <http://www.nihongobashi.com/news/brand-management-localization.html>
- [93] EKELUND, R. B., WATSON, J. K. Restaurant cuisine, fast food, and ethnic edibles: An empirical note on household meal production. *Kyklos*. 1991, vol. 44, no. 4, p. 613–627.
- [94] EKSTROM, K. Children's Influence in Family Decision Making: A Study of Yielding, Consumer Learning and Consumer Socialization, *PhD Thesis*, Gothenburg University, Gothenburg, Sweden, 1995.
- [95] ELINDER, E. How International Can Advertising Be? *International Advertiser*. 1961 (December), p. 12-16. ISSN: 0885-3363.
- [96] ELMORE, P. E., BEGGS, D. L. Saliency of concepts and commitments to extreme judgments in response patterns to teachers. *Education*. 1975, vol. 95, no. 4, p. 325-334. 243
- [97] EMERSON, R. L. *The new economics of fast food*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Publishing, 1990.
- [98] ENGEL, J., BLACKWELL, R., MINIARD, P. *Consumer behaviour*. Forth Worth: The Dryden Press, 1995.
- [99] ENSARI, N., MURPHY, S. E. Cross-cultural variations in leadership perceptions and attributions of charisma to the leader. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*. 2003, vol. 92, p. 52-66. ISSN: 0749-5978.

- [100] ERDEM, T., SWAIT, J., VALENZUELA, A. Brands as Signals: A Cross-Country Validation Study. *Journal of Marketing*. 2006 (January), vol. 70, p. 34-49. ISSN: 0022-2429 (Print)/ISSN: 1547-7185 (Online).
- [101] ESCALAS, J. E., BETTMAN J. R. Self-Construal, Reference Groups, and Brand Meaning. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 2005 (December), vol. 32, no. 3, p. 378-389. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [102] ETTINGER, K. E. How BMW achieves international message coordination. *The International Advertiser*. 1969), vol. 10, no. 2, p.18-19.
- [103] EUROPEAN COMMISSION (6.5.2003) (online) [cit. 24.12.2010]. Available at http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/sme/facts-figures-analysis/sme-definition/index_en.htm
- [104] EUROSTAT, *How Europeans Spend their Time. Data 1998–2002*, Europe, Nine countries. 2002.
- [105] FALKENBERG, L. Virtually made to order. *Money*. 1998, vol.1, no.2, p. 60-61
- [106] FANNING, J., MARSH, T., STIEGERT, K. Determinants of fast food consumption. In WAEA. Selected paper. Long Beach, CA. 2002.
- [107] FATT, A. C. The danger of ‘local’ international advertising. *Journal of Marketing*. 1967, vol. 31, no.1, p. 60-62. ISSN: 0022-2429 (Print)/ISSN: 1547-7185 (Online).
- [108] FISHBEIN, M., AJZEN, I. *Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1975.
- [109] FISHBEIN, M., AJZEN, I. *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1980.
- [110] FISHER, C. D., YUAN, X. Y. What motivates employees? A comparison of US and Chinese responses. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*. 1998, vol. 9, no. 3, p. 516-539. ISSN: 09585192, 14664399.
- [111] FISHER, J., BIRCH, L. Fat Preferences and Fat Consumption of 3- to 5-Year-Old Children Are Related to Parental Adiposity. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*. 1995, vol. 7, p. 759–64. ISSN: 0002-8223.
- [112] FOSCHT, T., MALOLES, III, C., SWOBODA, B., MORSCHETT, D., SINHA, I. The impact of culture on brand perception: a six-nation study. *Journal of Product and Brand Management*. 2008, vol. 17, no. 3, p. 131–142. ISSN: 1061-0421.
- [113] FRANCIS, J. J., ECCLES, M. P., JOHNSTON, M., WALKER, A., GRIMSHAW J., FOY R., KANER E.F.S., SMITH, L., BONETTI, D. *Constructing questionnaires based on the Theory of Planned behaviour, A manual for health services researches*. Centre for Health Services Research, University of Newcastle, 21 Claremont Place, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE 24AA, United Kingdom, 2004, ISBN: 0-9540161-5-7.
- [114] GALLO, A. E. Food Advertising in the United States. In *America’s Eating Habits: Changes and Consequences*, Elizabeth Frazão, ed. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1999

- [115] GARDYN, R. Convenience. *American Demographics*. 2002, vol. 24, no. 3, p. 30–31.
- [116] GARLAND, R. The mid-point on rating scale: is it desirable? *Marketing Bulletin*. 1991 (May), vol. 2, p. 66-70.
- [117] GILBERT, G. R., VELOUTSOU, C., GOODE, M. H., MOUNTINHO, L. Measuring customer satisfaction in the fast food industry: A cross-national approach. *Journal of Service Marketing*. 2004, vol. 18, no. 5, p. 371–383. ISSN: 0887-6045.
- [118] GILMORE, J. H., PINE, J. B. The four faces of mass customization. *Harvard Business Review*. 1997, vol. 75, no.1, p.91-101. ISSN: 0017-8012.
- [119] GOLAN, M., CROW, S. Parents Are Key Players in the Prevention and Treatment of Weight-Related Problems. *Nutrition Reviews*. 2004, vol. 62, no. 1, p. 12.
- [120] GOPALAN, S., THOMSON, N. National cultures, information search behaviours and the attribution process of cross-national managers: A conceptual framework. *Teaching Business Ethics*. 2003, vol. 7, no. 3, p. 313-328.
- [121] GREEN, E. Chart Your Destiny: Create a Marketing Plan. In *49th NIRSA Annual Conference*. Salt Lake City, Utah, 1999.
- [122] GRIER S. A., BRUMBAUGH, A. M. Noticing Cultural Differences: Ad Meanings Created By Target and Non Target Markets. *Journal of Advertising*. 1999. vol. 28, p. 79-93. ISSN: 0091-3367.
- [123] GRIER, S. A., MENSINGER, J., HUANG, S. H., KUMANYIKA, S. K., STETTLER, N. Fast food marketing and children’s fast food consumption: exploring parental influences in an ethnically diverse sample. *Journal of Public Policy Marketing*. 2007, vol. 26, p. 221-235. Also available at <http://www.aacorn.org/uploads/files/GrierJPublPolicyMarket07.pdf>
- [124] GRUBB, E. L., GRATHWOHL, H. L. Consumer Self-concept, Symbolism, and Market Behaviour: A Theoretical Approach. *Journal of Marketing*. 1967 (October), vol. 31 p. 22-27. ISSN: 0022-2429 (Print)/ISSN: 1547-7185 (Online).
- [125] GUTHRIE, J. F, BIING-HWAN, L., FRAZÃO, E. Role of Food Prepared Away from Home in the American Diet, 1977–78 versus 1994–96: Changes and Consequences. *Journal of Nutrition Education & Behavior*. 2002, vol. 34, no. 3, p. 140–50.
- [126] HAGUE, P. *A practical guide to market research*. High Street, Guildford, Surrey: Grosvenor House Publishing Ltd, 2006, p. 28–30.
- [127] HAIR, J. F., BUSH, R. P., ORTINAU, D. J. *Marketing research: Within a changing information environment*, 2nd edn. New York: McGraw-Hill/ Irwin, 2003.
- [128] HAN, S.-P., SHAVITT, S. Persuasion and culture: advertising appeals in individualistic and collectivistic societies. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*. 1994, vol. 30, p. 326–350.

- [129] HANSON, R. Turkey HRI food service sector report 2002. *USDA Foreign Agricultural Service Gain Report #TU2012*. 2002. Also available at <http://fas.usda.gov>
- [130] HARRIS, G., ATTOUR, S. The International Advertising Practices of Multinational Companies: A Content Analysis Study. *European Journal of Marketing*. 2003, vol. 37, nos. 1 & 2, p. 154-168. ISSN: 0309-0566.
- [131] HART, C. H. L. Mass customization: conceptual underpinnings, opportunities and limits. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*. 1995, vol. 6, no.2, p. 36-45
- [132] HARVEY, M. G. Point of view: a model to determine standardization of the advertising process in international markets. *Journal of Advertising Research*. 1993, vol. 33, no.4, p. 57-64. ISSN: 0021-8499(Print)/1740-1909(Online).
- [133] HASTINGS, GERARD, MARTINE STEAD, LAURA MCDERMOTT, ALASDAIR FORSYTH, ANNE MARIE MACKINTOSH, MIKE RAYNER, et al. Review of Research on the Effects of Food Promotion to Children,” final report prepared for the Food Standards Agency. Glasgow, UK: Food Standards Agency. 2003.
- [134] HAYES, B. E. *Measuring customer satisfaction: survey design, use and statistical analysis methods*, Milwaukee: ASQ Quality Press, 1998.
- [135] HERMEKING, M. Culture and Internet consumption: Contributions from cross-cultural marketing and advertising research. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*. 2005, vol. 11, no. 1. ISSN: 1083-6101(Online).
- [136] HERRMANN, A., HEITMANN, M. Providing More or Providing Less? Accounting for Cultural Differences in Consumer Preference for Variety. *International Marketing Review*. 2006, vol. 23, no. 1, p. 7-24. ISSN: 0265-1335.
- [137] HIEMSTRA, S., KIM, W. G. Factors affecting expenditures for food away from home in commercial establishment by type of eating place and meal occasion. *Hospitality Research Journal*. 1995, vol. 19, p. 15–31.
- [138] HIRSCHMAN, E. C. Cognitive processes in experimental consumer behaviour. *Research in Consumer Behavior*. 1985, vol. 1, p. 67-102. ISSN: 0885-2111.
- [139] HOCH, S. J., LOEWENSTEIN, G. F. Time inconsistent preferences and consumer self control. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 1991, vol. 17, no. 4, p. 492-508. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [140] HOEK, J., GENDALL, P. Advertising and Obesity: A Behavioural Perspective. *Journal of Health Communication*. 2006, vol. 11, p. 409–423.
- [141] HOFSTEDE, G. *Cultures and organizations - software of the mind*. New York: McGraw Hill, 1991.
- [142] HOFSTEDE, G. *Culture's consequences*. 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, 2001.
- [143] HOFSTEDE, G. *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, 1984.

- [144] HOFSTEDE, G. H. *Culture Consequences: International Differences in Work-related Values*. London: Sage Publications, 1980. ISBN 0-8039-1444-X.
- [145] HOFSTEDE, G., HOFSTEDE, G. J. *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. 2nd edn. New York: McGraw-Hill, 2005. ISBN: 0-07-143959-5.
- [146] HOFSTEDE, G., USUNIER, J-C. Hofstede's dimensions of culture and their influence on international business negotiations. In *Ghauri Pervez, Usunier Jean-Claude, editors. International business negotiations*. Amsterdam: Pergamon, 1999. p. 119–30.
- [147] HOLLENSON, S. *Global marketing*. Edinburgh: Pearson education limited, 2007.
- [148] HOPKINS, D. M. International Franchising: Standardization versus Adaptation to Cultural Differences. *Franchising Research: An International Journal*. 1996, vol. 1, no. 1, p. 15-24.
- [149] HOUSE, R. J., HANGES, P. J., JAVIDAN, M., DORFMAN, P. W., GUPTA, V. (Eds.). *Culture, Leadership and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, 2004.
- [150] HU, M. Y., GRIFFITH, D. A. Conceptualizing the global marketplace: marketing strategy implications. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*. 1997, vol. 15, no.3, p.117-23. ISSN: 0263-4503.
- [151] HUSZAGH, S. M., HUSZAGH, F.W., MCINTYRE, F. International Franchising in the Context of Competitive Strategy and the Theory of the Firm. *International Marketing Review*. 1992, vol. 9, no. 5, p. 5-18. ISSN: 0265-1335.
- [152] INKELES, A., LEVINSON, D. National character: the study of modal personality and sociocultural systems. In: *Lindzey G, Aronson E, editors. The handbook of social psychology*, 2nd ed., Reading- Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company. 1969, vol. 4, p. 418–99.
- [153] ISLAM, N., ULLAH, G. M. S., ABU NASIM, S. T. B. *Factors related to consumers' preferences of fast food products in Bangladesh: A case study*. (2010) (online) [cit. 2011-12-15]. Available at <http://www.scribd.com/doc/34998439/FACTORS-RELATED-TO-CONSUMERS%E2%80%99-PREFERENCES-OF-FAST-FOOD-PRODUCTS-IN-BANGLADESH-A-CASE-STUDY>
- [154] JAMES, W. L., HILL, J. S. International advertising messages: to adapt or not to adapt. *Journal of Advertising Research*. 1991, vol. 31, no. 3, p. 65-71. ISSN: 0021-8499 (Print)/ 1740-1909(Online).
- [155] JEKANOWSKI, M. D. Causes and Consequences of Fast Food Sales Growth. *Food Review*. 1999 (January–April), [cit. 2007-06-29]. Available at www.ers.usda.gov/publications/foodreview/jan1999/frjan99b.pdf
- [156] JEKANOWSKI, M., BINKLEY, J. K., EALES, J. Convenience, accessibility, and the demand for fast food. *Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics*. 2001, vol. 26, no. 1, p. 58–74.
- [157] JEKANOWSKI, M., BINKLEY, J. K., EALES, J. *The impact of demographics, market characteristics, and prices on the consumption of food-*

- away-from home. Western agricultural economics association annual meeting, Reno/Sparks, Nevada, 1997 (July 13–16).*
- [158] JOHNS, N. F., PINE, R. Consumer behaviour in the food industry: A review. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 2002, vol. 21, no. 2, p. 119–134. ISSN: 0278-4319.
- [159] KAGITÇIBASI, C. Individualism and collectivism. In *Berry, J.W., Segall, M.H. & Kagitçibasi, C. (Eds) Handbook of Cross-cultural Psychology*. 1997, vol. 3. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, p. 23.
- [160] KALE, S. H. Culture-specific Marketing Communications: An Analytical Approach. *International Marketing Review*. 1983, vol. 8, Is. 2. ISSN: 0265-1335.
- [161] KALE, S., BARNES, J. Understanding the domain of cross-national buyer-seller interactions. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 1992, vol. 23, no. 1, p. 101. ISSN: 0047-2506 (Print)/1478-6990 (Online).
- [162] KANSO, A., NELSON, R. A., Advertising Localization Overshadows Standardization. *Journal of Advertising Research*. 2002, vol. 42, no. 1, p. 79-89. ISSN: 0021-8499 (Print)/1740-1909(Online).
- [163] KANWAR, R. The influence of perceived risk and advertising copy claims on the consumption behavior of Asian Indian consumers. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*. 1993, vol. 5, no.4, p.7-28. ISSN: 0896-1530(Print)/ISSN: 1528-7068 (Online).
- [164] KARA, A., KAYNAK, E., KUCUKEMIROGLU, O. Marketing Strategies for Fast-Food Restaurants: A Customer View. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. 1995, vol. 7, no. 4, p. 319. ISSN: 0959-6119.
- [165] KATSIKEAS, C. S., SAMIEE, S., THEODOSIOU, M. Strategy Fit and Performance Consequences of International Marketing Standardization. *Strategic Management Journal*. 2006, vol. 27, no. 9, p. 867-90. ISSN: 1097-0266 (Online).
- [166] KEILLOR, B., HULT, G. A five-country study of national identity: implications for international marketing research and practice. *International Marketing Review*, 1999, vol. 16, no. 1, p. 65–82. ISSN: 0265-1335.
- [167] KELLER, K. L. Building Customer-based Brand Equity: A blueprint for creating strong brands. *Marketing Management*. 2001 (July/August), p. 15-19. ISSN: 1061-3846.
- [168] KELLER, K. L., AAKER, D. A. Corporate-level marketing: The impact of credibility on a company's brand extensions. *Corporate Reputation Review*. 1998 (1August), p. 356-378. ISSN: 1363-3589 (Print)/ 1479-1889 (Online)
- [169] KELMAN, H.C. Processes of opinion change. *Public Opinion Quarterly*. 1961, vol. 25, no. 1, p. 57–78. ISSN 0033-362X (Print)/1537-5331(Online).
- [170] KIFFIN-PETERSEN, S. A., CORDERY, J. L. Trust, individualism and job characteristics as predictors of employee preference for teamwork. *International*

Journal of Human Resource Management. 2003, vol. 14, no. 1, p. 93-117. ISSN: 09585192, 14664399.

- [171] KIM, J., FORSYTHE, S., GU, Q. L. Cross-cultural consumer values, needs and purchase behaviour. *Consumer Marketing*. 2002, vol. 19, no. 6, p. 481-503
- [172] KIM, U., TRIANDIS, H. C., KAGITÇIBASI, C., CHOI, S-C., YOON, G. Introduction. In *U. Kim, H. C. Triandis, C. Kagitçibasi, S-C. Choi & G. Yoon (Eds.), Individualism and collectivism. Theory, method, and applications*. Thousand Oaks, 1994.
- [173] KINNEAR, T. C., TAYLOR, J. R., ARMSTRONG, J. *Australian marketing research*. Sydney: McGraw-Hill, 1993.
- [174] KOTLER P., ARMSTRONG G., SAUNDER J., WONG, V. *Principle of marketing*. 2nd edn. England: Prentice hall, 1999.
- [175] KOTLER, P. (online) 2011. [cit. 20.01.2011]. Available at <http://kovanda.blog.tyden.cz/clanky/4787/ekonomove-jsou-zpozdeni-rika-guru.html>
- [176] KOTLER, P. *Marketing Management*. 10th edition. Tsinghua University Press, 2001.
- [177] KOTLER, P., ARMSTRONG, G. *Principles of Marketing*. 13th edn. New Jersey: Prentice Hall. 2010, p.161. ISBN: 0-13-608075-8.
- [178] KOTLER, P., PFOERTSCH, W. Being known or being one of many: the need for brand management for business-to-business (B2B) companies. *Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing*. 2007, p. 357-362. ISSN: 0885-8624.
- [179] KOUDELOVA, R., WHITELOCK, J. A Cross-Cultural Analysis of Television Advertising in the UK and the Czech Republic. *International Marketing Review*. 2001, vol. 18. no. 3, p. 286-300. ISSN: 0265-1335.
- [180] KRUGER, J., BLANCK, H. M., GILLESPIE, C. Dietary Practices, Dining Out Behaviour, And Physical Activity Correlates of Weight Loss Maintenance. *Centres for Disease Control and Prevention*. 2008, vol. 5, no.1.
- [181] KURTZ, D. *Contemporary Marketing*. Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning. 2010.
- [182] LAGES, L. F., ABRANTES, J. L., LAGES, C. R. STRATADAPT scale. A measure of marketing strategy adaptation. *Journal of International Marketing Review*. 2008, vol. 25, p. 584-600. ISSN: 0265-1335.
- [183] LAM, D. C. S., LEE, A. Y. C. The Influence of Cultural Values on Brand Loyalty. In *ANZMAC Conference: Consumer Behaviour*. 2005 Also available at http://smib.vuw.ac.nz:8081/www/anzmac2005/cd-site/pdfs/3-Consumer-Beh/3-Lam_Lee.pdf
- [184] LAW, A. K. Y., HUI, Y. V., ZHAO, X. Modeling repurchase frequency and customer satisfaction for fast food outlets. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*. 2004, vol. 21, no. 5, p. 545–563. ISSN: 0265-671X.
- [185] LAWRENCE, J. M., DEVLIN, E., MACASKILL, S., KELLY, M., CHINOUYA, M., RAATS, M. M., BARTON, K. L., WRIEDEN, W. L., SHEPHERD, R. Factors that affect the food choices made by girls and young

- women, from minority ethnic groups, living in the UK. *Journal of Human Nutritional Diet.* 2007, vol. 20, p. 311–319.
- [186] LEE, C., GREEN, R. L. Cross-cultural examination of the Fishbein behavioural intentions model. *Journal of International Business Studies.* 1991, vol. 22, p. 289–305. ISSN: 0047-2506 (Print)/1478-6990 (Online).
- [187] LEUNG, K., MORRIS, M. W. Justice through the lens of culture and ethnicity. In *J. Sanders & V. L. Hamilton (Eds.), Handbook of Justice Research in Law.* New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum. 2000, p. 343-378.
- [188] LEVITT, T. The Globalization of markets. *Harvard Business Review.* 1983, vol. 61, no.3, p.69-81. ISSN: 0017-8012.
- [189] LEVY, S. J. Symbols for Sale. *Harvard Business Review,* 1959 (July-August), vol. 37, p. 117-124. ISSN: 0017-8012.
- [190] LEWIS, C. R. Restaurant advertising: Appeals and consumer intentions. *Journal of Advertising Research.* 1981, vol. 21, no. 5, p. 69–74. ISSN: 0021-8499 (Print)/1740-1909(Online).
- [191] LIN, M.Y., CHANG, L. H. Determinant of habitual behaviour for national and leading brands in chain. *Journal of product and brand management.* 2003, p. 94- 107. ISSN: 1061-0421.
- [192] LIPMAN, J. Marketers Turn Sour On Global Sales Pitch Harvard Gury Makes. *Wall Street Journal,* 1988 (May 12), New Jersey: Princeton,
- [193] MAGUIRE, P. *Doing participatory research: A feminist perspective,* Centre for International Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA. 1987.
- [194] MALHOTRA, N. K. *Marketing research: An applied orientation,* 3rd edn. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1999.
- [195] MALHOTRA, N. K., MCCORT, J. D. A cross-cultural comparison of behavioural intention models. *International Marketing Review.* 2001, vol. 18, p. 235–269. ISSN: 0265-1335.
- [196] MANKIW, G. N. *Principles of Economics.* South-Western Publications, 3rd edition, 2004. ISBN- 13: 9780324171884
- [197] MANRAI, L. A., MANRAI, A. K. Current issues in cross-cultural and cross-national consumer research. In *Global perspectives in cross-cultural and cross-national consumer research,* ed. L. A. Manrai and A. K. Manrai, 13. 1996. New York: International Business Press/Haworth Press.
- [198] MARAI, G. The Perception of Chinese Consumers on American Fast Food in Beijing. *Thesis submitted in Hospitality and Tourism.* 1994.
- [199] MARCUS, A., GOULD, E.W. *Cultural Dimensions and Global Web Design: What? So What? Now What?* New York: Aaron Marcus and Associates, Inc., 2001.
- [200] MARKUS, H. R., KITAYAMA, S. Culture and the self: implications for cognition, emotion and motivation. *Psychological Review.* 1991, vol. 98, no. 6, p. 224–253. ISSN: 0033-295X (Print)/1939-1471(Online).

- [201] MATTSSON, J., HELMERSSON, H. Eating Fast Food: Attitudes of High School Students, *International Journal of Consumer Studies*. 2007, vol. 31, no.1, p. 117-121. ISSN: 1470-6423 (Print)/1470-6431 (Online).
- [202] MAYERS, D. *The book's author of "beyond branding."* Nicholas Inc. 2003.
- [203] MAZNEVSKI, M. L., Di STEFANO, J. J. Measuring culture in international management: The cultural perspectives questionnaire. *The University of Western Ontario Working Paper Series*, 1995, p. 95-39.
- [204] McCARTHY, M., BRENNAN, M., KELLY, A. L., RITSON, C. B., THOMPSON, N. Who is at risk and what do they know? Segmenting a population on their food safety knowledge. *Food Quality and Preference*. 2007, vol.18, no.2, p.205-217. ISSN: 0950-3293.
- [205] McCRACKEN, X., BRANDT, J. Household consumption of food away from home: Total expenditure and by type of food facility. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*. 1987, vol. 69, p. 274–284. ISSN:1467-8276 (Online)/0002-9092 (Print).
- [206] McDONALD, E., SHARP, B. Brand awareness effects on consumer decision making for a common, repeat purchase product: A replication. *Journal of Business Research*. 2000, vol. 48, no. 1, p. 5-15. ISSN: 0148-2963.
- [207] MERRIAM-WEBSTER (online) [cit. 10.10.2011]. Available at <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/fast%20food>
- [208] MIDGLEY, D. F., DOWLING, G. R. Innovativeness: the Concept and its Measurement. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 1978, vol. 4, Is. 4, p. 229–242. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [209] MIHALPOULOS, V. G., DEMOUSSIS, M. Greek household consumption of food away from home (FAFH): A micro econometric approach. *European Review of Agricultural Economics*. 2001, vol. 28, no. 4, p. 421–432. ISSN 1464-3618 (Online)/0165-1587 (Print).
- [210] MILNER, L. M., FODNESS, D., SPEECE, M. W. Hofstede's research on cross-cultural work-related values: Implications for consumer behaviour. *European Advertising and Consumer Research*. 1993, vol. 1, p. 70–76.
- [211] MIRACLE, G. E., TAYLOR, C. R., CHANG, K.Y. Culture and advertising executions: a comparison of selected characteristics of Japanese and US television commercials. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*. 1992, vol. 4, p. 89–113. ISSN: 0896-1530(Print)/ISSN: 1528-7068 (Online).
- [212] MIRACLE, G.E. Feel-do-learn: an alternative sequence underlying Japanese consumer response to television commercials. In *Feasley, F. (ed.) Proceedings of the 1987 Conference of the American Academy of Advertising*. USA, 1987, pp. 73–78.
- [213] MITCHELL, V-W., MCGOLDRICK, P. J. Consumer's Risk-Reduction Strategies: A Review and Synthesis. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution, and Consumer Research*. 1996 (January), vol. 6. p. 1-33. ISSN: 0959-3969 (Print)/1466-4402 (Online).

- [214] MITTAL, V., KAMAKURA, W. Satisfaction, Repurchase Intent, and Repurchase Behaviour: Investigating the Moderating Effects of Customer Characteristics. *Journal of Marketing Research*. 2001, vol. 38, p. 131-142. ISSN: 0022-2437 (Print)/1547-7193 (Online).
- [215] MIYAHARA, A. Toward theorizing Japanese interpersonal communication competence from a non-Western perspective. In *Jandt, F.E. (ed.) Intercultural Communication*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2004, p. 283.
- [216] MONGA, A.B., ROEDDER, J.D. Cultural differences in brand extension evaluation: the influence of analytic versus holistic thinking. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 2007, vol. 33, p. 529–536. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [217] MOORE, E. S., WILKIE, W. L., LUTZ, R. J. Passing the Torch: Intergenerational Influences as a Source of Brand Equity. *Journal of Marketing*. 2002 (April), vol. 66, p. 21–37. ISSN: 0022-2429 (Print)/ISSN: 1547-7185 (Online).
- [218] MOURALI, M., LaROCHE, M., PONS, F. Individualistic orientation and consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence. *Journal of Service Marketing*. 2005, vol. 19, no. 3, p. 164–173. ISSN: 0887-6045.
- [219] MUELLER, S. L., CLARKE, L. D. Political-economic context and sensitivity to equity: Differences between the United States and the transition economies of Central and Eastern Europe. *Academy of Management Journal*. 1998, vol. 41, no. 3, p. 319-330. ISSN: 0001-4273.
- [220] MUÑIZ, A. M. JR., O'GUINN, T. C. Brand Community. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 2001(March), vol. 27, no. 4, p. 412-431. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [221] NAYGA, R. M., CAPPS, O. Impact of socio-economic and demographic factors on food away from home consumption: Number of meals and type of facility. *Journal of Restaurant and Food Service Marketing*. 1994, vol. 1, no. 2, p. 45–69. ISSN: 1052-214X.
- [222] NESTLE, M. *Food Politics: How the Food Industry Influences Nutrition and Health*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 2002.
- [223] NEZLEK, J. B., KAFETSIS, K., SMITH, V. Emotions in everyday social encounters. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. 2008, vol. 39, no. 4, p. 366–372. ISSN: 0022-0221(Print)/1552-5422 (Online).
- [224] NICKLAS, T. A., BARANOWSKI, T., BARANOWSKI, J. C., CULLEN, K., RITTENBERRY, L., OLVERA, N. Family and Child-Care Provider Influences on Preschool Children's Fruit, Juice, and Vegetable Consumption. *Nutrition Reviews*. 2001, vol. 59, no. 7, p. 224–35. ISSN: 1753-4887 (Online).
- [225] NORENZAYAN, A., CHOI, I., NISBETT, R. E. Cultural similarities and differences in social influence: evidence from behavioural predictions and lay theories of behaviour. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*. 2002, vol. 28, p. 109–120. ISSN: 0146-1672 (Print)/1552-7433 (Online).
- [226] OKAZAKI, S., MUELLER, B. Cross-cultural advertising research: where we have been and where we need to go. *International Marketing Review*. 2007, vol. 24, no. 5, pp. 499–518. ISSN: 0265-1335.

- [227] OLARINDE, L. O., KUPONIYI, F. A. Rural livelihood and food consumption patterns among households in Oyo State, Nigeria: implications for food security and poverty eradication in a deregulated economy. *Journal of Social Sciences*. 2005, vol. 11, no. 2, p. 127-32.
- [228] OLUMAKAIYE, F., AJAYI, O. A. *Consumer Attitudes to Snacking Versus Meals*, Research Report, Euromonitor International, America, 2008.
- [229] OUTLEY, C., TADDESE, A. A Content Analysis of Health and Physical Activity Messages Marketed to African American Children During After-School Television Programming. *Archives of Paediatrics and Adolescent Medicine*. 2006, vol. 160, p. 432–35.
- [230] ÖZSOMER, A., BODUR, M., CAVUSGIL, S. T. Marketing standardization by multinationals in an emerging market. *European Journal of Marketing*. 1991, vol. 25, no. 12, p. 50-64. ISSN: 0309-0566.
- [231] PALYS, T. *Research decisions: Quantitative and qualitative perspectives*. 3rd edn. Toronto: Thompson Canada, 1992.
- [232] PARK, C. Efficient or enjoyable? Consumer values of eating-out and fast restaurant consumption in Korea. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. 2004, vol. 23, p. 87–94. ISSN: 0278-4319.
- [233] PATTON, M. Q. *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*. 3rd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 2002. ISBN: 9780761919711.
- [234] PETTIJOHN, L. S., PETTIJOHN, C. E., LUKE, R. H. An evaluation of fast food restaurant satisfaction: Determinants, competitive comparisons and impact on future patronage. *Journal of Restaurant and Food Service Marketing*. 1997, vol. 2, no. 3, p. 3–20.
- [235] PETTY, R. E., CACIOPPO, J. T. The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion. In Berkowitz, L. (ed.) *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. New York: Academic Press. 1986.
- [236] PINE, B.J. II *Mass Customization: The New Frontier in Business Competition*, Boston, MA: Harvard School Press, 1993.
- [237] POPULATION DIVISION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS OF THE UNITED NATIONS SECRETARIAT, *World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2007 Revision*, (online) [cit. 02.03.2012; 4:37:44 PM.]. Available at <http://esa.un.org/unup>
- [238] PREBLE, J. Global Expansion: The Case of U.S. Fast-Food Franchisors. *Journal of Global Marketing*. 1992, vol. 6, no. 1/2, p. 185-205. ISSN: 0891-1762 (Print)/1528-6975 (Online).
- [239] PROPSON, C. F. *Illustrating the foreign campaign*. *Export Advertising Practice*. New York, NY: Prentice-Hall, 1923.
- [240] RESTAURANT & INSTITUTIONS (R&I) (online) (2008) [cit. 2012-03-10]. Available at http://goliath.ecnext.com/coms2/gi_0198-499357/My-Way-or-the-Highway.html

- [241] RICHARDS, T.J., PADILLA, L. Promotion and Fast Food Demand. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*. 2009, vol. 9, p. 168-183. ISSN: 0002-9092 (Print)/1467-8276 (Online).
- [242] RÖHR, A., LÜDDECKE, K., DRUSCH, S., MÜLLER, M. J., ALVENSLEBEN, R. V. Food Quality and Safety—Consumer Perception and Public Health Concern. *Food Control*. 2005, vol.16, p. 649-655. ISSN: 09567135.
- [243] ROLANDO, D-L. Contribution of Mexican ethno psychology to the resolution of the etic-emic dilemma in personality. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 1998, vol. L, no. 29, p. 104-118. ISSN: 0022-0221(Print)/1552-5422 (Online).
- [244] ROTH, M. S. The Effects of Culture and Socioeconomics on the Performance of Global Brand Image Strategies. *Journal of Marketing Research*. 1995 (May), vol. 32, p.163-175. ISSN: 0022-2437 (Print)/1547-7193 (Online).
- [245] ROYLE, T. Corporate versus societal culture: a comparative study of McDonald's in Europe. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. 1995, vol.7, no. 2/3, p.52-56. ISSN: 0959-6119.
- [246] RUIGROK, W., VAN TULDER, R. *The Logic of International Restructuring*, Routledge: London, 1995. ISBN: 0-415-12238-4.
- [247] RYDER, R. D. *Brands Trademarks and Advertising*. Eastern Book Company, 2003. ISBN: 8180380270.
- [248] SAMIEE, S., JEONG, I., PAE, J.H., TAI, S. Advertising Standardization in Multinational Corporations: The Subsidiary Perspectives. *Journal of Business Research*. 2003, vol. 56, no. 8, p. 613-626. ISSN: 0148-2963.
- [249] SAMIEE, S., ROTH, K. The influence of global marketing standardization on performance. *Journal of Marketing*. 1992, vol. 56, no.2, p.1-17. ISSN: 0022-2429 (Print)/ISSN: 1547-7185 (Online).
- [250] SCHIFFMAN, L. G., KANUK, L. L. *Consumer behaviour*. (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 2000.
- [251] SCHIPPERS, M. C., DEN HARTOG, D. N., KOOPMAN, P. L., WIENK, J. A. Diversity and Team Outcomes: The Moderating Effects of Outcome Interdependence and Group Longevity and The Mediating Effect of Reflexivity, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. 2003, vol. 24, no. 6. pp. 779-802. ISSN: 0894-3796 (Printed)/1099-1379 (Online).
- [252] SCHLOSSER, E. *Fast Food Nation: The Dark Side of the All-American Meal*. New York: Houghton Mifflin, 1999.
- [253] SCHRÖDER, M. J. A., McEACHERN, M. G. Fast foods and ethical consumer value: A focus on McDonald's and KFC. *British Food Journal*. 2005, vol. 107, no. 4, p. 212–224. ISSN: 0007-070X.
- [254] SCHUTTE, H., CIARLANTE, D. *Consumer Behaviour in Asia*. Palgrave Macmillan Limited. 1998. ISBN: 9780333740774.
- [255] SCHWARTZ, S. Beyond individualism/collectivism - new cultural dimensions of values. In Kim U, Triandis H, Kagitçibasi Ç, Choi S, Yoon G,

- editors. *Individualism and collectivism—theory, method and applications*. 1994, vol. 18. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, p. 85–115.
- [256] SEKARAN, U. *Research method for business: A skill building approach*, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 2000.
- [257] SHERRY, J.M. *The soul of the company store: Nike town Chicago and the emplaced brandscape, The Concept of Place in Contemporary Markets*. Lincolnwood: NTC Business Books, 1998.
- [258] SHIN, S. K. A nested logit model of the determinant of away-from-home food consumption. *Ph.D. Dissertation*. Oregon State Univ., USA, 1998.
- [259] SHOHAM, A. Global marketing standardization. *Journal of Global Marketing*. 1995, vol. 9, no.1&2, p.91-119. ISSN: 0891-1762 (Print)/1528-6975 (Online).
- [260] SHRAUGER, J. S. Responses to Evaluations as a Function of Initial Self-perceptions. *Psychological Bulletin*. 1975, vol. 82, no. 4, p. 581-596. ISSN: 0033-2909 (Print)/1939-1455 (Online).
- [261] SHUKLA, R. *Marketing Research*. Paurav Shukla and Ventus Publishing ApS. 2008. ISBN 978-87-7681-411-3.
- [262] SIMESTER, D., HAUSER, J., WERNERFELT, B., RUST, R. Implementing Quality Improvement Programs Designed to Enhance Customer Satisfaction: Quasi experiments in the U.S. and Spain. *Journal of Marketing Research*. 2000, vol. 37, no. 1, p. 102-112. ISSN: 0022-2437 (Print)/1547-7193 (Online).
- [263] SINGELIS, T. M., BOND, M. H., SHARKEY, W. F., LAI, C. S. Y. Unpackaging culture's influence on self-esteem and embarrassability: The role of self-construals. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. 1999, vol. 30, no. 3, p. 315-341. ISSN: 0022-0221(Print)/1552-5422 (Online).
- [264] SINGELIS, T. M., BROWN, W.J. Culture, self, and collectivist communication. *Human Communication Research*. 1995, vol. 21, p. 354–389. ISSN: 0360-3989 (Print)/1468-2958 (Online).
- [265] SIRGY, J. M. Self-concept in consumer behaviour: A critical review. *Journal of Consumer Research*. 1982, vol. 9, no. 3, p. 287-300. ISSN: 0093-5301.
- [266] SIVAKUMAR, K., NAKATA, C. The stampede toward Hofstede's framework: avoiding the sample design pit in cross-cultural research. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 2001, vol. 32, no. 3, p. 555–74. ISSN: 0047-2506 (Print)/1478-6990 (Online).
- [267] SMITH, D. The Future of Fast Food. *Entrepreneur*. 2003 (April 7). Also available at [http:// entrepreneur.com/franchises/franchisezone/trendwatch/article60710.html](http://entrepreneur.com/franchises/franchisezone/trendwatch/article60710.html)
- [268] SMITH, P., DUGAN, S., TROMPENAARS, F. National culture and the values of organizational employees—a dimensional analysis across 43 nations. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. 1996, vol. 27, no. 2, p. 231–64. ISSN: 0022-0221(Print)/1552-5422 (Online).

- [269] SOARES, A. M., FARHANGMEHR, M., SHOHAM, A. Hofstede's dimensions of culture in international marketing studies. *Journal of Business Research*. 2007, vol 60, p. 277–284. ISSN: 0148-2963.
- [270] SÖDERLUND, M. *The head on the customer*. Malmö: Liber ekonomi. 2000.
- [271] SOKLING, S. Cross-cultural differences in brand cognitive structures: impact of field dependency. *Unpublished PhD thesis*, Minnesota University. 2004
- [272] SOLOMON, M., BAMOSSY, G., ASKEGAARD, S., HOGG, M.K. *Consumer Behaviour: A European Perspective*. 3rd ed. Harlow: Prentice Hall, 2006. ISBN: 978-0-273-71472-9.
- [273] SONDERGAARD, M. Research note: Hofstede's consequences: a study of reviews, citations and replications. *Organizational Studies*. 1994, vol. 15, no. 3, p. 447–56. ISSN: 0170-8406 (Print)/1741-3044 (Online).
- [274] SRNKA, K. J. Culture's role in marketers' ethical decision making: An integrated theoretical framework. *Academy of Marketing*, 2004, vol. 1.
- [275] STAMOULIS, K. G., PINGALI, P., SHETTY, P. Emerging challenges for food and nutrition policy in developing countries. Special issues on Globalization of food systems: Impact on food security and nutrition. *Electronic Journal of Agricultural and Development Economics*, eJADE. 2004, vol.1, no. 2, p.154-167. Available on line at www.fao.org/es/esa/eJADE
- [276] STEENKAMP, J. The role of national culture in international marketing research. *International Marketing Review*. 2001, vol. 18, no. 1, p. 30–44. ISSN: 0265-1335.
- [277] STERN, B. L., RESNIK, A. J. Information content in television advertising: a replication and extension. *Journal of Advertising Research*. 1991 (June/July), vol. 31, no. 3. ISSN: 0021-8499 (Print)/1740-1909(Online).
- [278] STEWART, H., BLISARD, N., BHUYAN, S., NAYGA, R. M. The demand for food away from home: Full-service or fast food? *USDA economic research service*, Agricultural economic report no. 829, 2004.
- [279] STORY, M., NEUMARK-SZTAINER, D., FRENCH, S. A. Individual and Environmental Influences on Adolescent Eating Behaviours. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*. 2002, vol. 102 no. 3, supplement, p. 40–S51. ISSN: 0002-8223.
- [280] TARDIFF, T., FLETCHER, P., LIANG, W., ZHANG, Z., KACIROTI, N., MARCHMAN, V.A. Baby's first ten words. *Development Psychology*. 2008, vol. 44, no. 4, p. 929–938. ISSN: 0012-1649 (Print)/1939-0599 (Online).
- [281] TASSALINA, N., BADRIE, N. Influential Factors Affecting Food Choices of Consumers When Eating Outside the Household in Trinidad, West Indies. *Journal of Food Products Marketing*. 2007, vol. 13, no. 1. ISSN: 1045-4446 (Print)/ 1540-4102 (Online).
- [282] TAYLOR, C. R. Recent trends in international advertising research: current state of knowledge and where we need to go. In *proceedings of the 2007*

- Conference of the American Academy of Advertising*. 12–15 April. Burlington, VT. 2007.
- [283] TAYLOR, C. R. What is wrong with international advertising research? *Journal of Advertising Research*. 2002, vol. 42, no. 6, p. 48–54. ISSN: 0021-8499 (Print)/1740-1909(Online).
- [284] TAYLOR, C. R., OKAZAKI, S. Who standardizes advertising more frequently, and why do they do so? A comparison of US and Japanese subsidiaries' advertising practices in the European Union. *Journal of International Marketing*. 2006, vol.14, no. 1, p. 98–120. ISSN: 1069-031X (Print)/ 1547- 7215 (Online)
- [285] TAYLOR, C.R. Moving international advertising research forward. *Journal of Advertising*. 2005, vol. 34, no. 1, p. 7–16. ISSN: 0091-3367.
- [286] THE ECONOMIST, Mass customisation: a long march. *The economist magazine*. 12 July, 2001.
- [287] THEODOSIOU, M., LEONIDOU, C. L. Standardization versus adaptation of international marketing strategy: an integrative assessment of the empirical research. *International Business Review*. 2003, vol. 12, no. 2, p. 141-171. ISSN: 0969-5931
- [288] THEOPHILOPOULOS, G. Advertising in specific markets: Greece. In *Dunn, S.W., Lorimor, E.S. (Eds), International Advertising and Marketing*, Grid Publishing Inc., Columbus, OH, 1979.
- [289] TRIANDIS, H. C. *Culture and social behavior*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1994.
- [290] TRIANDIS, H. C. *Individualism and Collectivism*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1995. ISBN: 9780813318509
- [291] TROCHIM, W.M.K. *Research methods knowledge based* (online) 2006. [cit. 05.09.2010]. Available at <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/sampon.htm>
- [292] TROMPENAARS, F. *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Diversity in Global Business*. Chicago: Irwin Professional Publishing. 1993. ISBN: 9780850584288
- [293] TURLEY, L. W., MILLIMAN, R. E. Atmospheric Effects on Shopping Behaviour: A Review of the Experimental Evidence. *Journal of Business Research*. 2000, vol. 49, no.2, p. 193-211. ISSN: 0148-2963
- [294] UGGLA, H. *Organisation av Varumärken (Organization of Brands)*. Liber Ekonomi, Sweden, 2001.
- [295] UNSWORTH, S. J., SEARS, C.R., PEXMAN, P. M. Cultural influences on categorization processes. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. 2005, vol. 36, no. 6, p. 662–688. ISSN: 0022-0221(Print)/1552-5422 (Online).
- [296] VALENTE, S. Products and brands: the other face of the franchise. *Census of Franchising*, 2000.

- [297] VAN DEN BULTE, C., STREMERSCHE, S. Social contagion and income heterogeneity in new product diffusion: A meta-analytic test. *Marketing Science*. 2004. vol. 23, p. 530-544. ISSN: 0732-2399
- [298] VAN GELDER, S. *Global Brand Strategy: Unlocking Brand Potential across Countries, Cultures and markets*. London: Kogan page ltd, 2003, ISBN:0749440236
- [299] VIRVILAITE, R., SEINAUSKIENE, B., SESTOKIENE, G. The Link between Standardization/Adaptation of International Marketing Strategy and Company Performance. *Inzinerine Ekonomika-Engineering Economics*. 2011, vol. 22, no. 1, p. 106-117. ISSN 1392–2785 (print)/ISSN 2029–5839 (online).
- [300] VRONTIS, D., VIGNALI, C. *An International Marketing Reader*, The Manchester Metropolitan University, 1999.
- [301] VRONTIS, D. Integrating Adaptation and Standardisation in International Marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*. 2003, vol.19, no. 3-4, p. 283-305. ISSN: 0267-257X (Print)/ ISSN: 1472-1376 (Online)
- [302] WESSLEN, A., SEPP, H., FJELLSTROM, C. Swedish Preschool Children's Experience of Food. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*. 2002, vol. 26, no. 4, p.264-272. ISSN: 1470-6431(Online)
- [303] WILCOCK, A., PUN, M., KHANONA, J., AUNG, M. Consumer Attitudes, Knowledge and Behavior: A Review of Food Safety Issues. *Trends in Food Science. & Technology*. 2004, vol.15, p. 56-66. ISSN: 0924-2244
- [304] WILKIE, W. L. *Consumer Behavior*, 3rd ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1994. ISBN-13: 978-0471545170
- [305] WONG, H.Y., MERRILEES, B. Multiple roles for branding in international marketing. *International Marketing Review*. 2007, vol. 24, no. 4, p. 384–408. ISSN: 0265-1335
- [306] WONG, T.C. *Marketing research*, Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann, 1999. ISSN 1040-8460
- [307] YARROW, L., REMIG, V. M., HIGGINS, M. M. Food Safety Education Intervention Positively Influences College Students' Food Safety Attitudes, Beliefs, Knowledge, And Self-Reported Practices. *Journal of Environment and Health*. 2009, vol.71, p. 30-35.
- [308] YAVEROGLU, I. S., DONTU, N. Cultural influences on the diffusion of new products. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*. 2002, vol. 14, no. 4, p. 49–63. ISSN: 0896-1530(Print)/ISSN: 1528-7068 (Online)
- [309] YENIYURT, S., TOWNSEND, J. D. Does culture explain acceptance of new products in a country? *International Marketing Review*. 2003, vol. 20, no. 4, p. 377–396. ISSN: 0265-1335
- [310] YU, X. H., BOGGS, D. J. Corporate branding verses product branding in emerging markets: A conceptual framework. *Marketing intelligence and planning*. 2006, vol. 24, no. 4, p. 347-364. ISSN: 0263-4503
- [311] ZANDPOUR, F., CAMPOS, V., CATALANO, J., CHANG, C., CHO, Y.D., HOBYAR, R., JIANG, S.-F., LIN, M.-C., MADRID, S., SCHEIDELER, H.,

- OSBORN, S.T. Global reach and local touch: achieving cultural fitness in TV advertising. *Journal of Advertising Research*. 1994, vol. 34, no. 5. ISSN: 0021-8499 (Print)/1740-1909(Online).
- [312] ZEITHAML, V. A., BERRY, L. L., PARASURAMAN, A. The nature and determinants of customer expectations of service, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*. 1993, vol. 21, pp. 1–12. ISSN: 0092-0703
- [313] ZHOU, S., ZHOU, P., XUE, F. Visual differences in US and Chinese television commercials. *Journal of Advertising*. 2005, vol. 34, no. 1, p. 111–119. ISSN: 0091-3367.
- [314] ZIKMUND, W. G. *Exploring marketing research*. 7th edn., Forth Worth: Dryden Press, 2000. ISBN: 978-0324320886
- [315] ZOU, S., CAVUSGIL, S. T. The GMS: a broad conceptualization of global marketing strategy and its effect on firm performance. *Journal of Marketing*. 2002, vol. 66, no. 4, p. 40-56. ISSN: 0022-2429 (Print)/ISSN: 1547-7185 (Online).

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

MONOGRAPH/BOOK

1. CHOVANCOVÁ, M., ASAMOAH, E.S. AND BANDARA WANNINAYAKE, W. M. C. *Consumer behaviour and branding: A cross cultural perspective*. Žilina: Knihárstvo GEORG, 2011. ISBN: 978-80-89401-58-1

JOURNALS

1. ASAMOAH, E.S. Customer Based Brand Equity (CBBE) and the competitive performance of SMEs in Ghana. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development (full paper accepted for publication)* Emerald Group Publishing Limited. ISSN: 1462-6004
2. ASAMOAH, E. S., CHOVANCOVÁ, M. The influence of price endings on consumer behaviour: an application of the psychology of perception. *Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendeleianae Brunensis*. 2011, LIX, no. 7, p. 29–38. ISSN: 1211-8516.
3. ASAMOAH, E.S., CHOVANCOVÁ, M., CHAMARU DE ALWIS, A, SAMARAKOON MUDIYNSELA A. K., GUO, Y. Motivation for buying branded items: a cross country application of Maslow's hierarchy of needs in consumer decision making. *Scientific Papers of the University of Pardubice. Series D. Special edition*. 2011, vol. XVI, no. 21 (3), p. 6-18. ISSN 1211-555X (Print)/ISSN 1804-8048 (Online)
4. ASAMOAH, E. S, CHOVANCOVÁ, M. An overview of the theory of Microeconomics (consumer behaviour and market structures) in fast food marketing. *Ekonomika a Management*. 2011, no. 1, p. 75-88. ISSN 1802-8470(Print) / ISSN 1802-8934(Online).

REFEREED CONFERENCES

1. ASAMOAH, E.S., CHOVANCOVÁ, M. The theory of consumer behaviour in fast food marketing: strategies for competitive advantage. In *WSEAS International Conferences*. Montreux, Switzerland, December 29-31, 2011. pp. 51-56. ISBN: 978-1-61804-061-9
2. ASAMOAH, E. S., CHOVANCOVÁ, M. A proposed managerial framework for international marketing operations in the fast food industry. In *WASET: International Conference on Business, Economics, Management and Marketing*. Paris, France. November 14-16, 2011. Issue 59, p. 189-193. ISSN 2010-376X (Print), ISSN 2010-3778 (Online)
3. ASAMOAH, E. S., CHOVANCOVÁ, M. Market structures of fast food industry within the context of the firms' competitiveness. In *the 16th IBIMA conference on Innovation and Knowledge Management: A Global Competitive Advantage*. Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. 29-30 June, 2011. ISBN: 978-0-9821489-5-2
4. ASAMOAH, E. S. The valuation of brands as an intangible asset: over estimation or under estimation of a company's worth? In *the International Scientific Conference: European Financial Systems*. Faculty of Economics and

Administration MU (FEA) of Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic, 3rd June, 2011. ISBN: 978-80-210-5509-4

5. CHOVANCOVÁ, M., ASAMOAH, E. S., CHAMARU DE ALWIS, A., SAMARAKOON, A. K., GUO, Y. Brand as a dominant factor in determining the competitiveness of firms: evidence from the Czech consumer market. In *Proceedings of the 18th Annual Conference on Marketing and Business Strategies for Central and Eastern Europe*. Vienna: Vienna University of Economics and Business, 2010, p. 61-85. ISBN-ISSN 978-3-9502045-9-9
6. ASAMOAH, E.S. Consumer perception of fast food brands: An exploratory study of university students in Ghana and the Czech Republic. In GARAUS, M., WEITZL, W., WOLFSTEINER, E., ZIMPRICH, M. *New Directions New Insights: 4th German French Austrian Conference on Quantitative Marketing*. Vienna, Austria: University of Vienna, 16 – 18 September, 2010
7. ASAMOAH, E.S. Strategies for building brands for competitive advantage in Small and Medium Enterprises (SME'S) in Ghana. In POMFFYOVÁ, M. *Riadenie tímovej spolupráce v MSP*. 1. Zvolen, Slovakia: Univerzita Mateja Bela, Ekonomická fakulta v Banskej Bystrici, 2010. p. 96-104. ISBN: 978-80-557-0003-8.

PHD STUDENTS CONFERENCES

1. ASAMOAH, E.S. Strategies for building competitive brand franchise in the fast food industry. In *the 7th annual international Bata conference for PhD students and young researchers*. Faculty of Management and Economics of the Tomas Bata University, Zlin Czech Republic 12th April, 2011. ISBN: 978-80-7454-013-4
2. ASAMOAH, E.S. When celebrity endorsement goes wrong; implications for brand advertising. In *6th annual international Bata conference for PhD students and young researchers*. Zlín, Czech Republic: FaME UTB Zlín, 15th April, 2010. p. 14. ISBN: 978-80-7318-922-8.
3. ASAMOAH, E.S. Creating and managing global brand architecture. In *2nd International PhD Students Conference – New Economic Challenges*. Brno, Czech Republic: Faculty of Economics and Administration of Masaryk University, 20-21 January, 2010. p. 274-278, ISBN: 978-80-210-5111-9

CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal information

Surname: Asamoah

First name/middle name: Emmanuel Selase

Address: P. O. Box, MD. I37

Accra, Ghana

Email: asamoah29@gmail.com

Nationality: Ghanaian,

Date of birth: 29 July, 1983

Education and training

Dates: September 2009-ongoing

Title of qualification: PhD (Doctor of Philosophy)

Research topic: Brand management in the fast food industry: a cultural perspective of the branding strategies of firms and the behaviour of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana.

Name of institution: Tomas Bata University in Zlin

Dates: September 2007 - June 2009

Title of qualification: Masters in economics and management (International Business)

Research topic: Creating value through brand management: a study on Toyota Ghana limited.

Name of institution: University of Economics, Prague

Dates: August 2002 – May 2006

Title of qualification: Bachelor of Arts (Psychology with Sociology)

Research topic: Disparity in academic performance between private and public schools: a case study of two schools in Madina, Ghana

Name of institution: University of Ghana

Work experience

Dates: January 2008 – July 2008

Position held: International communication specialist

Name of employer: Icon Communication Centres s.r.o. Prague, Czech Republic

Dates: July 2006 – August 2007

Position held: Marketing officer/Underwriter

Name of employer: Star Assurance Company limited, Accra, Ghana

Research projects

- 2010 - SV-IGA/76/FaME/10/D of the Internal Grant Agency of Tomas Bata University “Brand as a dominant factor in determining the competitiveness of companies”
- 2011 - IGA/57/FaME/11/D of the Internal Grant Agency of Tomas Bata University “Strategic brand building for the competitiveness of SMEs in the global market place”

Languages

English: mother tongue

Czech: basic

Hobbies and interest

Travelling, football, mountain hiking, walking, theatre, movies, cinema, cycling

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Descriptive statistics: Czech Republic

Sex

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid male	224	48.7	48.7	48.7
female	236	51.3	51.3	100.0
Total	460	100.0	100.0	

Respondents monthly income

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 5000 and below	114	24.8	24.8	24.8
5001-10000	48	10.4	10.4	35.2
10001-15000	57	12.4	12.4	47.6
15001-20000	58	12.6	12.6	60.2
20001-25000	62	13.5	13.5	73.7
25001-30000	55	12.0	12.0	85.7
30001-35000	32	7.0	7.0	92.6
35001 and over	34	7.4	7.4	100.0
Total	460	100.0	100.0	

Ages of respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 11-20	109	23.7	23.7	23.7
21-30	171	37.2	37.2	60.9
31-40	57	12.4	12.4	73.3
41-50	76	16.5	16.5	89.8
51-60	47	10.2	10.2	100.0
Total	460	100.0	100.0	

How often do you buy fast food

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Daily	35	7.6	7.6	7.6
more than once a week	86	18.7	18.7	26.3
once every two weeks	125	27.2	27.2	53.5
once a month	118	25.7	25.7	79.1
once every six month	45	9.8	9.8	88.9
Occasionally	51	11.1	11.1	100.0
Total	460	100.0	100.0	

Appendix B: Descriptive statistics: Ghana

Sex

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid male	372	46.9	46.9	46.9
female	421	53.1	53.1	100.0
Total	793	100.0	100.0	

Respondents monthly income

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 430 and below	492	62.0	62.0	62.0
431-860	125	15.8	15.8	77.8
861-1290	47	5.9	5.9	83.7
1291-1720	33	4.2	4.2	87.9
1721-2150	27	3.4	3.4	91.3
2151-2580	9	1.1	1.1	92.4
2581-3010	23	2.9	2.9	95.3
3011 and over	37	4.7	4.7	100.0
Total	793	100.0	100.0	

Ages of respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 11-20	350	44.1	44.1	44.1
21-30	198	25.0	25.0	69.1
31-40	126	15.9	15.9	85.0
41-50	75	9.5	9.5	94.5
51-60	44	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total	793	100.0	100.0	

How often do you buy fast food

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid daily	166	20.9	20.9	20.9
more than once a week	174	21.9	21.9	42.9
once every two weeks	170	21.4	21.4	64.3
once a month	73	9.2	9.2	73.5
once every six month	42	5.3	5.3	78.8
occasionally	168	21.2	21.2	100.0
Total	793	100.0	100.0	

Appendix C: Results of hypothesis testing for the Czech Republic

H1: Consumers (sex) and their cultural orientations (dimensions of culture).

Ranks

	Sex	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	Male	224	222.21	49774.00
	female	236	238.37	56256.00
	Total	460		
It is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	Male	224	220.73	49444.50
	female	236	239.77	56585.50
	Total	460		
I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food	Male	224	203.22	45521.50
	female	236	256.39	60508.50
	Total	460		
I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	Male	224	213.87	47906,00
	female	236	246.29	58124.00
	Total	460		
When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change	Male	224	234.70	52572.00
	female	236	226.52	53458.00
	Total	460		

Test Statistics^a

	Fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	It is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food	I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change
Mann-Whitney U	24574.000	24244.500	20321.500	22706.000	25492.000
Wilcoxon W	49774.000	49444.500	45521.500	47906.000	53458.000
Z	-1.401	-1.597	-4.478	-2.710	-0.685
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.161	0.110	0.000	0.007	0.493

a. Grouping Variable: Sex

H2: Consumers (age) and their cultural orientations (dimensions of culture).

Ranks

ages of consumers	N	Mean Rank
Fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	11-20	218.28
	21-30	247.24
	31-40	265.84
	41-50	186.97
	51-60	225.46
	Total	460
It is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	11-20	239.51
	21-30	199.07
	31-40	232.71
	41-50	256.93
	51-60	278.52
	Total	460
I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food	11-20	204.63
	21-30	232.39
	31-40	277.56
	41-50	245.76
	51-60	201.87
	Total	460
I am not sure about ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	11-20	178.07
	21-30	205.13
	31-40	243.54
	41-50	292.47
	51-60	328.37
	Total	460
When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change	11-20	232.97
	21-30	256.57
	31-40	270.35
	41-50	157.96
	51-60	198.89
	Total	460

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	Fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	It is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food	I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change
Chi-Square	18.331	20.806	15.803	70.626	39.965
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: ages of consumers

H3: The response to the seven (7) elements of the marketing mix by males and females.

Ranks

	Sex	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Place	Male	224	221.96	49719.50
	Female	236	238.60	56310.50
	Total	460		
Promotion	Male	224	222.35	49806.00
	Female	236	238.24	56224.00
	Total	460		
Process	Male	224	228.52	51187.50
	Female	236	232.38	54842.50
	Total	460		
People	Male	224	219.22	49106.00
	Female	236	241.20	56924.00
	Total	460		
Price	Male	224	237.34	53164.00
	Female	236	224.01	52866.00
	Total	460		
Product	Male	224	205.14	45950.50
	Female	236	254.57	60079.50
	Total	460		
Physical evidence	male	224	205.76	46090.50
	female	236	253.98	59939.50
	Total	460		

Test Statistics^a

	Place	Promotion	Process	People	Price	Product	Physical evidence
Mann-Whitney U	24519.500	24606.000	25987.500	23906.000	24900.000	20750.500	20890.500
Wilcoxon W	49719.500	49806.000	51187.500	49106.000	52866.000	45950.500	46090.500
Z	-1.349	-1.287	-0.313	-1.779	-1.085	-4.005	-3.902
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.177	0.198	0.754	0.075	0.278	0.000	0.000

a. Grouping Variable: sex

H4: Consumers ages and their response to the seven (7) elements of the marketing mix.

Ranks

	ages of consumers	N	Mean Rank
Place	11-20	109	242.00
	21-30	171	240.50
	31-40	57	229.54
	41-50	76	231.23
	51-60	47	167.46
	Total	460	
Promotion	11-20	109	243.32
	21-30	171	236.46
	31-40	57	205.47
	41-50	76	215.46
	51-60	47	233.76
	Total	460	
Process	11-20	109	249.96
	21-30	171	256.65
	31-40	57	239.01
	41-50	76	188.11
	51-60	47	148.46
	Total	460	
People	11-20	109	222.70
	21-30	171	237.01
	31-40	57	229.47
	41-50	76	226.74
	51-60	47	232.24
	Total	460	

Price	11-20	109	260.06
	21-30	171	251.12
	31-40	57	216.35
	41-50	76	179.53
	51-60	47	186.50
	Total	460	
Product	11-20	109	197.17
	21-30	171	222.45
	31-40	57	226.58
	41-50	76	261.06
	51-60	47	292.43
	Total	460	
Physical evidence	11-20	109	225.04
	21-30	171	245.17
	31-40	57	219.33
	41-50	76	244.77
	51-60	47	180.27
	Total	460	

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	Place	Promotion	Process	People	Price	Product	Physical evidence
Chi-Square	12.491	4.417	35.126	0.863	26.945	21.937	10.327
df	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	0.014	0.353	0.000	0.930	0.000	0.000	0.035

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: ages of consumers

Appendix D: Results of hypothesis testing for Ghana

H1: Consumers (sex) and their cultural orientations (dimensions of culture).

Ranks

Sex	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Fast food is consumed by the male higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	372	405.93	151005.50
female	421	389.11	163815.50
Total	793		
It is important to visit fast male food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	372	391.89	145784.50
female	421	401.51	169036.50
Total	793		
I will rather cook at home male than to buy fast food	372	405.68	150914.00
female	421	389.33	163907.00
Total	793		
I am not sure about the male ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	372	394.15	146624.50
female	421	399.52	168196.50
Total	793		
When I buy from one fast male food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change	372	393.48	146373.00
female	421	400.11	168448.00
Total	793		

Test Statistics^a

	Fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	It is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food	I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change
Mann-Whitney U	74984.500	76406.500	75076.000	77246.500	76995.000
Wilcoxon W	163815.500	145784.500	163907.000	146624.500	146373.000
Z	-1.072	-0.610	-1.065	-0.340	-0.420
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.284	0.542	0.287	0.734	0.675

a. Grouping Variable: sex

H2: Consumers (age) and their cultural orientations (dimensions of culture).

Ranks

ages of consumers	N	Mean Rank	
Fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	11-20	350	410.09
	21-30	198	418.77
	31-40	126	367.45
	41-50	75	380.28
	51-60	44	308.03
	Total	793	
It is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	11-20	350	405.76
	21-30	198	413.97
	31-40	126	364.98
	41-50	75	385.39
	51-60	44	362.47
	Total	793	
I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food	11-20	350	398.00
	21-30	198	408.90
	31-40	126	374.30
	41-50	75	395.39
	51-60	44	403.27
	Total	793	
I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	11-20	350	386.63
	21-30	198	360.00
	31-40	126	404.06
	41-50	75	421.83
	51-60	44	583.40
	Total	793	
When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change	11-20	350	338.94
	21-30	198	446.58
	31-40	126	480.26
	41-50	75	411.49
	51-60	44	372.59
	Total	793	

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	Fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend.	It is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues than to go alone	I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food	I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food	When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change
Chi-Square	13.020	5.616	2.045	38.492	52.226
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	0.011	0.230	0.728	0.000	0.000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: ages of consumers

H3: The response to the seven (7) elements of the marketing mix by males and females.

Ranks

	Sex	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Place	Male	372	406.47	151208.00
	female	421	388.63	163613.00
	Total	793		
Promotion	male	372	400.12	148845.50
	female	421	394.24	165975.50
	Total	793		
Process	male	372	386.51	143780.50
	female	421	406.27	171040.50
	Total	793		
People	male	372	387.38	144105.50
	female	421	405.50	170715.50
	Total	793		
Price	male	372	418.20	155570.00
	female	421	378.27	159251.00
	Total	793		
Product	male	372	410.37	152659.00
	female	421	385.18	162162.00
	Total	793		
Physical evidence	male	372	396.39	147458.00
	female	421	397.54	167363.00
	Total	793		

Test Statistics^a

	Place	Promotion	Process	People	Price	Product	Physical evidence
Mann-Whitney U	74782.000	77144.500	74402.500	74727.500	70420.000	73331.000	78080.000
Wilcoxon W	163613.000	165975.500	143780.500	144105.500	159251.000	162162.000	147458.000
Z	-1.099	-0.362	-1.217	-1.115	-2.459	-1.550	-0.070
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0.272	0.717	0.224	0.265	0.014	0.121	0.944

a. Grouping Variable: sex

H4: Consumers ages and their response to the seven (7) elements of the marketing mix.

Ranks

	ages of consumers	N	Mean Rank
Place	11-20	350	407.01
	21-30	198	356.64
	31-40	126	439.66
	41-50	75	409.97
	51-60	44	354.69
	Total	793	
Promotion	11-20	350	397.46
	21-30	198	377.23
	31-40	126	413.10
	41-50	75	423.91
	51-60	44	390.34
	Total	793	
Process	11-20	350	383.49
	21-30	198	354.92
	31-40	126	504.21
	41-50	75	408.11
	51-60	44	367.86
	Total	793	
People	11-20	350	394.99
	21-30	198	371.29
	31-40	126	476.44
	41-50	75	372.72
	51-60	44	342.59
	Total	793	

Price	11-20	350	419.53
	21-30	198	429.10
	31-40	126	335.04
	41-50	75	342.55
	51-60	44	343.59
	Total	793	
Product	11-20	350	380.91
	21-30	198	354.41
	31-40	126	479.49
	41-50	75	425.09
	51-60	44	432.56
	Total	793	
Physical evidence	11-20	350	372.38
	21-30	198	334.19
	31-40	126	500.40
	41-50	75	479.46
	51-60	44	438.81
	Total	793	

Test Statistics^{a,b}

	Place	Promotion	Process	People	Price	Product	Physical evidence
Chi-Square	13.027	3.192	36.625	21.123	23.301	27.256	55.990
df	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	0.011	0.526	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: ages of consumers

Appendix E: Results of research questions for respondents in the Czech Republic

RQ1: The relationship between age, sex and income and the frequency of purchase of fast food.

Age

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	137.264 ^a	20	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	138.112	20	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	103.484	1	0.000
N of Valid Cases	460		

a. 3 cells (10.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.58.

Sex

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.003 ^a	5	0.001
Likelihood Ratio	22.542	5	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.466	1	0.006
N of Valid Cases	460		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.04.

Income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	86.244 ^a	35	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	93.143	35	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	33.799	1	0.000
N of Valid Cases	460		

a. 12 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.43.

RQ2: The preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms with respect to the standardization or customization of fast food product or services.

Descriptives

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
11-20	109	3.30	1.041	0.100	3.11	3.50	1	5
21-30	171	3.42	0.987	0.075	3.27	3.56	1	5
31-40	57	3.33	1.170	0.155	3.02	3.64	1	5
41-50	76	3.70	1.132	0.130	3.44	3.96	1	5
51-60	47	4.04	0.806	0.118	3.81	4.28	2	5
Total	460	3.49	1.053	0.049	3.39	3.59	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4,734	4	455	0.001

ANOVA

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	23.795	4	5.949	5.579	0.000
Within Groups	485.151	455	1.066		
Total	508.946	459			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	7.345	4	167.296	0.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Multiple Comparisons

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item

Tukey HSD

(I) ages of consumers	(J) ages of consumers	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
11-20	21-30	-0.112	0.127	0.901	-0.46	0.23
	31-40	-0.031	0.169	1.000	-0.49	0.43
	41-50	-0.395	0.154	0.080	-0.82	0.03
	51-60	-0.740*	0.180	0.000	-1.23	-0.25
21-30	11-20	0.112	0.127	0.901	-0.23	0.46
	31-40	0.082	0.158	0.985	-0.35	0.51
	41-50	-0.282	0.142	0.276	-0.67	0.11
	51-60	-0.627*	0.170	0.002	-1.09	-0.16
31-40	11-20	0.031	0.169	1.000	-0.43	0.49
	21-30	-0.082	0.158	0.985	-0.51	0.35
	41-50	-0.364	0.181	0.262	-0.86	0.13
	51-60	-0.709*	0.203	0.005	-1.27	-0.15
41-50	11-20	0.395	0.154	0.080	-0.03	0.82
	21-30	0.282	0.142	0.276	-0.11	0.67
	31-40	0.364	0.181	0.262	-0.13	0.86
	51-60	-0.345	0.192	0.374	-0.87	0.18
51-60	11-20	0.740*	0.180	0.000	0.25	1.23
	21-30	0.627*	0.170	0.002	0.16	1.09
	31-40	0.709*	0.203	0.005	0.15	1.27
	41-50	0.345	0.192	0.374	-0.18	0.87

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

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item
 Tukey HSD^{a,b}

ages of consumers	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
11-20	109	3.30	
31-40	57	3.33	
21-30	171	3.42	
41-50	76	3.70	3.70
51-60	47		4.04
Sig.		0.136	0.248

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 74.626.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

RQ3: Consumer perception of the role of internet in the customization of fast food products and trends in the use of the internet in fast food operations.

Descriptives

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to choose the contents of the food item

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
11-20	109	2.52	0.939	0.090	2.34	2.70	1	5
21-30	171	2.59	1.033	0.079	2.43	2.75	1	5
31-40	57	2.68	1.121	0.148	2.39	2.98	1	5
41-50	76	2.30	0.980	0.112	2.08	2.53	1	5
51-60	47	2.45	0.996	0.145	2.15	2.74	1	5
Total	460	2.52	1.013	0.047	2.43	2.62	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to choose the contents of the food item

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.075	4	455	0.368

Multiple Comparisons

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to choose the contents of the food item
 Tukey HSD

(I) ages of consumers	(J) ages of consumers	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
11-20	21-30	-0.068	0.124	0.982	-0.41	0.27
	31-40	-0.161	0.165	0.866	-0.61	0.29
	41-50	0.220	0.151	0.590	-0.19	0.63
	51-60	0.076	0.176	0.993	-0.41	0.56
21-30	11-20	0.068	0.124	0.982	-0.27	0.41
	31-40	-0.094	0.155	0.974	-0.52	0.33
	41-50	0.288	0.139	0.236	-0.09	0.67
	51-60	0.144	0.166	0.910	-0.31	0.60
31-40	11-20	0.161	0.165	0.866	-0.29	0.61
	21-30	0.094	0.155	0.974	-0.33	0.52
	41-50	0.382	0.177	0.199	-0.10	0.87
	51-60	0.237	0.199	0.756	-0.31	0.78
41-50	11-20	-0.220	0.151	0.590	-0.63	0.19
	21-30	-0.288	0.139	0.236	-0.67	0.09
	31-40	-0.382	0.177	0.199	-0.87	0.10
	51-60	-0.144	0.187	0.939	-0.66	0.37
51-60	11-20	-0.076	0.176	0.993	-0.56	0.41
	21-30	-0.144	0.166	0.910	-0.60	0.31
	31-40	-0.237	0.199	0.756	-0.78	0.31
	41-50	0.144	0.187	0.939	-0.37	0.66

ANOVA

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to choose the contents of the food item

	Sum Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6.227	4	1.557	1.525	0.194
Within Groups	464.510	455	1.021		
Total	470.737	459			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to choose the contents of the food item

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1.485	4	165.192	0.209

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to choose the contents of the food item

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

ages of consumers	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
41-50	76	2.30
51-60	47	2.45
11-20	109	2.52
21-30	171	2.59
31-40	57	2.68
Sig.		0.145

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 74.626.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

RQ4: The preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms on the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes.

Descriptives

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
11-20	109	2.84	0.992	0.095	2.66	3.03	1	5
21-30	171	3.05	1.053	0.081	2.89	3.21	1	5
31-40	57	3.18	0.966	0.128	2.92	3.43	1	5
41-50	76	3.63	1.187	0.136	3.36	3.90	1	5
51-60	47	3.98	0.707	0.103	3.77	4.19	2	5
Total	460	3.21	1.081	0.050	3.11	3.31	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4,987	4	455	0.001

Multiple Comparisons

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

Tukey HSD

(I) ages of consumers	of (J) ages of consumers	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
11-20	21-30	-0.209	0.125	0.457	-0.55	0.13
	31-40	-0.331	0.167	0.276	-0.79	0.13
	41-50	-0.788*	0.153	0.000	-1.21	-0.37
	51-60	-1.135*	0.178	0.000	-1.62	-0.65
21-30	11-20	0.209	0.125	0.457	-0.13	0.55
	31-40	-0.123	0.156	0.935	-0.55	0.31
	41-50	-0.579*	0.141	0.000	-0.97	-0.19
	51-60	-0.926*	0.168	0.000	-1.39	-0.46
31-40	11-20	0.331	0.167	0.276	-0.13	0.79
	21-30	0.123	0.156	0.935	-0.31	0.55
	41-50	-0.456	0.179	0.083	-0.95	0.03
	51-60	-0.803*	0.201	0.001	-1.36	-0.25
41-50	11-20	0.788*	0.153	0.000	0.37	1.21
	21-30	0.579*	0.141	0.000	0.19	0.97
	31-40	0.456	0.179	0.083	-0.03	0.95
	51-60	-0.347	0.190	0.358	-0.87	0.17
51-60	11-20	1.135*	0.178	0.000	0.65	1.62
	21-30	0.926*	0.168	0.000	0.46	1.39
	31-40	0.803*	0.201	0.001	0.25	1.36
	41-50	0.347	0.190	0.358	-0.17	0.87

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

ANOVA

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	60.182	4	15.045	14.388	0.000
Within Groups	475.783	455	1.046		
Total	535.965	459			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	20.322	4	173.517	0.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

ages of consumers	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
11-20	109	2.84		
21-30	171	3.05		
31-40	57	3.18	3.18	
41-50	76		3.63	3.63
51-60	47			3.98
Sig.		0.278	0.052	0.233

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 74.626.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Appendix F: Results of research questions for respondents in Ghana

RQ1: The relationship between age, sex and income and the frequency of purchase of fast food.

Age

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	164.913 ^a	20	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	150.999	20	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	26.727	1	0.000
N of Valid Cases	793		

a. 3 cells (10.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.33.

Sex

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.724 ^a	5	0.590
Likelihood Ratio	3.725	5	0.590
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.294	1	0.587
N of Valid Cases	793		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.70.

Income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	98.601 ^a	35	0.000
Likelihood Ratio	96.214	35	0.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.645	1	0.018
N of Valid Cases	793		

a. 19 cells (39.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 0.48.

RQ2: The preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms with respect to the standardization or customization of fast food product or services.

Descriptives

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
11-20	349	3.73	1.211	0.065	3.60	3.86	1	5
21-30	197	3.67	1.199	0.085	3.50	3.84	1	5
31-40	126	3.89	1.067	0.095	3.70	4.08	1	5
41-50	75	3.80	0.930	0.107	3.59	4.01	1	5
51-60	44	3.68	1.095	0.165	3.35	4.01	2	5
Total	791	3.74	1.155	0.041	3.66	3.83	1	5

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.054	4	786	0.016

ANOVA

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.190	4	1.047	0.784	0.536
Within Groups	1050.225	786	1.336		
Total	1054.415	790			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	0.862	4	200.179	0.488

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Multiple Comparisons

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item
 Tukey HSD

(I) ages of consumers	(J) ages of consumers	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
11-20	21-30	0.061	0.103	0.977	-0.22	0.34
	31-40	-0.158	0.120	0.681	-0.49	0.17
	41-50	-0.069	0.147	0.990	-0.47	0.33
	51-60	0.049	0.185	0.999	-0.46	0.55
21-30	11-20	-0.061	0.103	0.977	-0.34	0.22
	31-40	-0.219	0.132	0.460	-0.58	0.14
	41-50	-0.130	0.157	0.922	-0.56	0.30
	51-60	-0.012	0.193	1.000	-0.54	0.52
31-40	11-20	0.158	0.120	0.681	-0.17	0.49
	21-30	0.219	0.132	0.460	-0.14	0.58
	41-50	0.089	0.169	0.985	-0.37	0.55
	51-60	0.207	0.202	0.845	-0.35	0.76
41-50	11-20	0.069	0.147	0.990	-0.33	0.47
	21-30	0.130	0.157	0.922	-0.30	0.56
	31-40	-0.089	0.169	0.985	-0.55	0.37
	51-60	0.118	0.220	0.983	-0.48	0.72
51-60	11-20	-0.049	0.185	0.999	-0.55	0.46
	21-30	0.012	0.193	1.000	-0.52	0.54
	31-40	-0.207	0.202	0.845	-0.76	0.35
	41-50	-0.118	0.220	0.983	-0.72	0.48

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item
 Tukey HSD^{a,b}

ages of consumers	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
21-30	197	3.67
51-60	44	3.68
11-20	349	3.73
41-50	75	3.80
31-40	126	3.89
Sig.		0.683

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 96.268.

I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item
 Tukey HSD^{a,b}

ages of consumers	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	
21-30	197	3.67	
51-60	44	3.68	
11-20	349	3.73	
41-50	75	3.80	
31-40	126	3.89	
Sig.		0.683	

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 96.268.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

RQ3: Consumer perception of the role of internet in the customization of fast products and trends in the use of the internet in fast food operations.

Descriptives

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to choose the contents of the food item

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
					11-20	350		
21-30	198	2.97	1.296	0.092	2.79	3.16	1	5
31-40	126	2.99	1.262	0.112	2.77	3.21	1	7
41-50	75	2.99	1.097	0.127	2.73	3.24	1	6
51-60	44	2.93	0.974	0.147	2.64	3.23	1	4
Total	793	2.87	1.254	0.045	2.79	2.96	1	8

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to chose the contents of the food item

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.063	4	788	0.016

Multiple Comparisons

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to chose the contents of the food item
Tukey HSD

(I) ages of consumers	(J) ages of consumers	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
11-20	21-30	-0.232	0.111	0.228	-0.54	0.07
	31-40	-0.249	0.130	0.309	-0.60	0.11
	41-50	-0.244	0.159	0.543	-0.68	0.19
	51-60	-0.189	0.200	0.880	-0.74	0.36
21-30	11-20	0.232	0.111	0.228	-0.07	0.54
	31-40	-0.017	0.143	1.000	-0.41	0.37
	41-50	-0.012	0.170	1.000	-0.48	0.45
	51-60	0.043	0.209	1.000	-0.53	0.61
31-40	11-20	0.249	0.130	0.309	-0.11	0.60
	21-30	0.017	0.143	1.000	-0.37	0.41
	41-50	0.005	0.183	1.000	-0.49	0.50
	51-60	0.060	0.219	0.999	-0.54	0.66
41-50	11-20	0.244	0.159	0.543	-0.19	0.68
	21-30	0.012	0.170	1.000	-0.45	0.48
	31-40	-0.005	0.183	1.000	-0.50	0.49
	51-60	0.055	0.238	0.999	-0.60	0.70
51-60	11-20	0.189	0.200	0.880	-0.36	0.74
	21-30	-0.043	0.209	1.000	-0.61	0.53
	31-40	-0.060	0.219	0.999	-0.66	0.54
	41-50	-0.055	0.238	0.999	-0.70	0.60

ANOVA

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to chose the contents of the food item

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10.885	4	2.721	1.737	0.140
Within Groups	1234.505	788	1.567		
Total	1245.390	792			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to chose the contents of the food item

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1.704	4	202.497	0.150

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to chose the contents of the food item

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

ages of consumers	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05
		1
11-20	350	2.74
51-60	44	2.93
21-30	198	2.97
41-50	75	2.99
31-40	126	2.99
Sig.		0.640

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 96.330.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

RQ4: The preference patterns of consumers and perception of firms on the inclusion or otherwise of local/traditional ingredients in fast food products and services for adaptation or standardization purposes.

Descriptives

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
11-20	347	3.63	1.122	0.060	3.51	3.74	1	5
21-30	198	3.73	1.128	0.080	3.57	3.89	1	6
31-40	126	3.83	0.930	0.083	3.66	3.99	1	5
41-50	75	3.64	0.782	0.090	3.46	3.82	2	5
51-60	44	3.32	1.073	0.162	2.99	3.64	1	5
Total	790	3.67	1.067	0.038	3.59	3.74	1	6

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
5.186	4	785	0.000

Multiple Comparisons

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

Tukey HSD

(I) ages of consumers	(J) ages of consumers	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
11-20	21-30	-0.107	0.095	0.791	-0.37	0.15
	31-40	-0.200	0.111	0.370	-0.50	0.10
	41-50	-0.015	0.136	1.000	-0.39	0.36
	51-60	0.307	0.170	0.372	-0.16	0.77
21-30	11-20	0.107	0.095	0.791	-0.15	0.37
	31-40	-0.093	0.121	0.940	-0.42	0.24
	41-50	0.092	0.144	0.968	-0.30	0.49
	51-60	0.414	0.177	0.135	-0.07	0.90
31-40	11-20	0.200	0.111	0.370	-0.10	0.50
	21-30	0.093	0.121	0.940	-0.24	0.42
	41-50	0.185	0.155	0.755	-0.24	0.61
	51-60	0.507	0.186	0.052	0.00	1.02
41-50	11-20	0.015	0.136	1.000	-0.36	0.39
	21-30	-0.092	0.144	0.968	-0.49	0.30
	31-40	-0.185	0.155	0.755	-0.61	0.24
	51-60	0.322	0.202	0.503	-0.23	0.87
51-60	11-20	-0.307	0.170	0.372	-0.77	0.16
	21-30	-0.414	0.177	0.135	-0.90	0.07
	31-40	-0.507	0.186	0.052	-1.02	0.00
	41-50	-0.322	0.202	0.503	-0.87	0.23

ANOVA

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10.015	4	2.504	2.211	0.066
Within Groups	889.094	785	1.133		
Total	899.109	789			

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

	Statistic ^a	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	2.351	4	201.235	0.055

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

ages of consumers	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
51-60	44	3.32	
11-20	347	3.63	3.63
41-50	75	3.64	3.64
21-30	198	3.73	3.73
31-40	126		3.83
Sig.		0.055	0.689

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 96.284.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Appendix G: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CONSUMERS

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a PhD candidate at the Tomas Bata University in Zlin, Czech Republic and I am conducting a research on the topic **Brand management in the fast food industry: a cultural perspective of the branding strategies of firms, and the behaviour of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana.** I would appreciate it if you could please complete this survey questions for me. The questions will take about 15-20 minutes to complete. I am aware that you are busy, but the time you will take to complete this questionnaire will be valuable to this important research. This questionnaire is purely for academic purposes and will certainly respect your right of anonymity and examine the outcomes of the questionnaire with the highest degree of confidentiality. Kindly answer the questions as candidly as you can. Thank you.

Sincerely

Emmanuel Selase Asamoah

Faculty of Management and Economics

Tomas Bata University in Zlín

Czech Republic

(In answering the questions, close approximations will be very much appreciated)

Definition

Fast food is an **“inexpensive food prepared and served quickly”**. They are foods that are convenient, quick, and usually reasonably priced. Fast food differs from other kind of food outside the home in the sense that it is **fast and easy** to prepare, providing **a common and consistent product** with **less cooking time**. Fast food industry includes businesses which primarily sell meals that are ready to eat immediately and are **packaged in takeaway containers or are packaged where no table service is involved** (that is on the premises, but without waiters or waitresses and consumers may chose the contents online or on the premises). The products and services provided by fast food firms are sometimes standardized or customized.

PART A: Demographic background *(please tick what is applicable)*

1. Sex: a. Female b. Male

2. Age: a. 11-20 b. 21-30 c. 31-40 d. 41-50 e. 51-60

3. Total Income per month:
 - a. €200 and below (GHC 430 and below)
 - b. €201- €400 (GHC 431- GHC 860)
 - c. €401- €600 (GHC 861- GHC 1290)
 - d. €601- €800 (GHC 1291 - GHC 1720)
 - e. €801- €1000 (GHC 1721- GHC 2150)
 - f. €1001-€1200 (GHC 2151- GHC 2580)
 - g. €1201-€1400 (GHC 2581- GHC 3010)
 - h. €1401 and over (GHC 3011 and over)

4. Citizenship:

General information

1. How often do you buy fast food?

- a. Daily
- b. More than once a week
- c. Once every two weeks
- d. Once a month
- e. Once every six months
- f. Occasionally

PART B: General perception of fast food

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements. Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Neither agree nor disagree (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1	For me fast food is consumed by the higher class in the society with extra money to spend. It is expensive for those with low incomes.					
2	For me, it is important to visit fast food outlets with my family, work colleagues or friends than to go alone					
3	I will rather cook at home than to buy fast food, because the family bond, care and dependence are important to me.					
4	I am not sure about the ingredients used in the preparation of fast food, so I often hesitate when I have to buy from fast food outlets.					
5	When I buy from one fast food outlet, I stay with them and I do not like to change even if there are cheaper options offered by other fast food brands because I will not like to take the risk of trying other brands.					

PART C: Marketing mix

Marketing mix – Product

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements. Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Neither agree nor disagree (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1	The packaging of fast food is important to me and it affects my buying behaviour					
2	I buy fast food items because generally the quality of food is good.					
3	The taste of the food will influence by decision to buy from a fast food brand					
4	The smell of the food will influence by decision to buy from a fast food brand					

5	I expect different variety of food items on the menu of fast food outlets aside what I prefer					
6	For me, fast food items are not healthy					
7	I will buy from fast food outlets associated with highly reputable brands because I am assured of the quality of food produced					

Marketing mix – Physical evidence (physical environment)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements. Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Neither agree nor disagree (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1	I am influenced by the appearance of staff of fast food firms when I want to buy					
2	The cleanliness of fast food outlets determines my purchasing habits					
3	When I walk into a fast food outlet of the same brand name, I expect a friendly atmosphere irrespective of the location					
4	I expect to see exactly the contents of food items I see in advertisement					
5	The taste of menu items must be the same for the same fast food brand irrespective of the location					
6	I expect to see exactly the price of the menu items I see in advertisement					
7	I expected a tangible evidence (e.g. souvenirs, gifts etc) to remind me of the service that are provided by each fast food outlet I visit					
8	The quality of service must be the same for the same fast food brand irrespective of the location					

Marketing mix – Place (distribution channels)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements. Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Neither agree nor disagree (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1	My decision to choose from a number of fast food outlets is influenced by the distance from my residence.					
2	I will buy from a fast food outlet with more distribution channels					
3	My decision to buy fast food is influenced by the convenience with which I can have access to it when I want.					

4	My decision to buy from a particular fast food brand is influenced by the ambience of the restaurant					
5	My decision to buy from a fast food outlet is determined by the cleanliness of the environment where it is located					
6	For me, it is not worth travelling long distances to buy a particular fast food brand, even if I like it					

Marketing mix – Promotion

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements. Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Neither agree nor disagree (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1	I am usually influenced to buy fast food brands through exciting events and advertisement					
2	My decision to buy fast food is dependent on sales promotions (discounts etc)					
3	When there is a negative publicity in the media about a fast food outlet, I will not buy from them					
4	If the advertisement of the fast food outlet does not appeal to me, I will not buy it					
5	My decision to buy from a fast food outlet is dependent on how I am persuaded and convinced by their advert or promotion					
6	I trust recommendations from Family/friends/work colleagues when am making a decision to buy from a fast food outlet					

Marketing mix – Process (mode of delivery of food items and value added products)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements. Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Neither agree nor disagree (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1	I always expect value for the money I spend money when I buy from a fast food outlet					
2	It is important for fast food firms to solicit for the views from their customers on a regular basis					
3	My decision to buy from a particular fast food outlet is determined by how quick I can get my orders.					
4	Fast food firms must design their locations in way that customers can see how food is prepared					
5	I always want to see how the food is prepared before I decide to buy					

	I always want to know the origin of raw materials used in the preparation of food items before I buy					
--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Marketing mix – People (employees)

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements. Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Neither agree nor disagree (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1	I will <u>change</u> to another fast food brand if the employees are rude to me even if I prefer the food that is <u>cooked</u>					
2	I will <u>not</u> buy from a fast food outlet that employees do not have knowledge about the brand and strategy of the firm					
3	Employees must <u>demonstrate adequate understanding</u> of the branding and marketing strategy of the fast food firm to effectively deliver value for the customer.					
4	My decision to buy from a fast food outlet is determined by the cleanliness of employees					
5	As a consumer I feel I am important stakeholder and so I have to be consulted on a regular basis on my views of my satisfaction or otherwise of fast food outlet I visit.					
6	Employees are important in delivering an experience to customers that will influence the image of the brand					
7	I will <u>change</u> to another fast food brand if the employees are rude to me even if I prefer the fast food <u>brand</u>					

Marketing mix – Price

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements. Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Neither agree nor disagree (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1	Fast food outlets with <u>higher brand reputation</u> must charge higher prices and vice versa					
2	My decision to buy fast food is determined by the <u>price</u> I have to pay and not necessarily the quality of food					
3	I will buy fast food even if the <u>price is high</u> because I believe it boost my status among my peers					

4	For me, a higher price of fast food menu is an indication of quality					
5	The price I pay for a fast food meal must be equivalent to the benefits (satisfaction) I get					

PART D: General questions

1. For me, I will prefer to visit a fast food outlet where I can chose the contents of the food item that satisfies my taste and preference instead of buying a standardized product

Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)

Kindly comment on your answer

.....

.....

2. For me, I will prefer to sit in my home and use the internet to chose the contents of the food item and have it delivered to me instead of ordering a standardized food item

Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)

Kindly comment on your answer

.....

.....

3. I will always prefer to buy fast food products that use local/traditional ingredients in their food items.

Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)

Please provide explanations

.....

.....

i. Additional comments?

.....

.....

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Appendix H: DOTAZNÍK PRO SPOTŘEBITELE

Vážený/á pane/paní,

Jsem studentem doktorského studijního programu na Univerzitě Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně v České republice a provádím průzkum na téma Management značky v odvětví rychlého občerstvení: kulturní hlediska firemních strategií značek a chování spotřebitelů v České republice a Ghaně. Rád bych Vás požádal o vyplnění tohoto dotazníku, který slouží jako podklad pro mou výzkumnou studentskou práci. Jsem si vědom toho, že jste zaneprázdnění, ale vyplněním dotazníku nesmírně podpoříte mou výzkumnou studentskou práci; vyplnění dotazníku by nemělo přesáhnout 15 až 20 minut. Dotazník slouží pouze pro akademické účely, smyslem je pouze výzkum a Vaše anonymita bude respektována.

Prosím Vás, o upřímné odpovědi.

Děkuji.

S úctou

Emmanuel Selase Asamoah
Fakulta managementu a ekonomiky
Univerzita Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně
Česká republika

(Při odpovídání na otázky bude velmi ceněno bližších vysvětlení)

Co je to rychlé občerstvení ?

Rychlé občerstvení (fast food) je “levně připravené a rychle podávané jídlo”. Jedná se o potraviny, které jsou pohodlné, rychlé a obvykle za rozumnou cenu. Rychlé občerstvení se liší od jiných jídel, konzumovaných mimo domov, v tom smyslu, že je rychlé a snadné na přípravu, a poskytuje obvyklý a stejný produkt s krátkým časem přípravy. Průmysl rychlého občerstvení zahrnuje firmy, které prodávají jídla, která jsou okamžitě připravena ke konzumaci, jsou v přenosných obalech a jsou konzumována v místech bez obsluhy (v restauracích bez číšníků a servírek).

V dotazníku je místo rychlé občerstvení používán výraz fast food.

PART A: Demografické pozadí *(prosím, zaškrtněte, co je odpovídající)*

1. **Pohlaví:** a. žena b. muž

2. **Věk:** a. 11-20 b. 21-30 c. 31-40 d. 41-50 e. 51-60

3. **Celkový příjem do rodiny za měsíc:**
 - a. Kč 5000 a méně
 - b. Kč 5001- Kč 10.000
 - c. Kč 10.001- Kč 15.000
 - d. Kč 15.001- Kč 20.000
 - e. Kč 20.001- Kč 25.000
 - f. Kč 25.001- Kč 30.000
 - g. Kč 30.001- Kč 35.000
 - h. Kč 35.001 a více

4. **Občanství :**

Základní informace

1. Jak často nakupujete fast food?

- Denně
- Více než jednou týdně
- Jednou za dva týdny
- Jednou za měsíc
- Jednou za šest měsíců
- Jednou za rok

PART B: Obecné vnímání rychlého občerstvení (fast food)

Uveďte prosím, do jaké míry souhlasíte nebo nesouhlasíte s těmito tvrzeními. Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1) Nesouhlasím (2) Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3) Souhlasím (4) Rozhodně souhlasím (5)		Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)
1	Myslím si, že jídla z fast foodů restaurací konzumují lidé s vyššími příjmy, kteří si mohou dovolit utrácet. Pro osoby s nízkými příjmy je to drahé.					
2	Pro mě je důležitější navštívit fast food restauraci s rodinou, s kolegy z práce či s přáteli, než kdybych fast food restauraci navštívil/a sám/a.					
3	Raději vařím doma, než abych kupoval/a fast food, protože rodinné prostředí je pro mě důležité.					
4	Nedůvěřuji surovinám, které jsou používány při přípravě fast foodu, a proto často váhám, když si ho musím koupit.					
5	Pokud jsem zvyklý/á na jeden typ (jednu značku) fast foodu, neměním tuto značku, a to i přesto, že jiné značky fast foodu nabízí levnější jídlo.					

PART C: Marketingový mix

Marketingový mix - Výrobek

Uveďte prosím, do jaké míry souhlasíte nebo nesouhlasíte s těmito tvrzeními. Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1) Nesouhlasím (2) Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3) Souhlasím (4) Rozhodně souhlasím (5)		Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)
1	Obal fast foodu je pro mne důležitý a ovlivňuje mě při nákupu					
2	Kupuji fast food, protože obecně kvalita jídla je dobrá.					
3	Mé rozhodnutí o výběru značky fast foodu ovlivňuje chuť jídla.					
4	Mé rozhodnutí o výběru značky fast foodu ovlivňuje vůně jídla.					

5	Kromě jídla, které preferuji, očekávám v menu fast food restaurace další varianty jídla.					
6	Jídla z fast food restaurací považuji za <u>nezdravé</u>					
7	Nakupuji pouze ve fast food restauracích, které jsou vysoce renomovanými značkami, protože jsem přesvědčen/a o jejich kvalitě.					

Marketingový mix -Fyzické prostředí

<i>Uved'te prosím, do jaké míry souhlasíte nebo nesouhlasíte s těmito tvrzeními.</i> Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1) Nesouhlasím (2) Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3) Souhlasím (4) Rozhodně souhlasím (5)		Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)
1	Při výběru fast food restaurace mě ovlivňuje vystupování zaměstnanců.					
2	Čistota fast food restaurace určuje mé nákupní zvyky.					
3	Když vcházím do fast food restaurace stejné značky, očekávám přátelskou atmosféru bez ohledu na místo provozovny.					
4	Očekávám, že uvidím stejná jídla, které vidím v reklamě.					
5	Chuť jídla z menu určité značky musí být stejná bez ohledu na umístění provozovny fast foodu.					
6	Očekávám, že uvidím tytéž ceny jako v reklamě.					
7	Při každé návštěvě očekávám suvenýry a dárky, které mi připomenou služby fast food restaurace.					
8	Kvalita služeb musí být pro tutéž značku fast food restaurace stejná bez ohledu na umístění provozovny.					

Marketingový mix -Místo (distribuční kanály)

<i>Uved'te prosím, do jaké míry souhlasíte nebo nesouhlasíte s těmito tvrzeními.</i> Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1) Nesouhlasím (2) Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3) Souhlasím (4) Rozhodně souhlasím (5)		Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)
1	Mé rozhodnutí o výběru fast food restaurace je ovlivněno vzdáleností od mého bydliště.					
2	Budu nakupovat u provozovatele fast foodu, který má více distribučních kanálů.					
3	Mé rozhodnutí o nákupu fast foodu je ovlivněno pohodlím - mít přístup k rychlému občerstvení tehdy, když je chci.					
4	Mé rozhodnutí o výběru značky fast foodu je ovlivněno atmosférou restaurace.					

5	Mé rozhodnutí o výběru fast food restaurace určuje čistota prostředí, ve kterém se nachází.					
6	Nestojím o to jet do vzdálené fast food restaurace, i když mám tuto značku v oblíbě					

Marketingový mix – Propagace

<i>Uveďte prosím, do jaké míry souhlasíte nebo nesouhlasíte s těmito tvrzeními.</i> Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1) Nesouhlasím (2) Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3) Souhlasím (4) Rozhodně souhlasím (5)		Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)
1	Obvykle jsem k některé značky fast foodu ovlivněn/a zajímavou akcí nebo reklamou.					
2	Mé rozhodnutí koupit si fast food <u>závisí</u> na podpoře prodeje (slevy atd.)					
3	Pokud se v médiích objeví negativní publicita spojená s některou fast food restaurací, nebudu v ní nakupovat.					
4	Pokud mě reklama fast food restaurace neosloví, nebudu v ní nakupovat.					
5	Mé rozhodnutí nakoupit si jídlo ve fast food restauraci závisí na přesvědčivosti reklamy a propagaci.					
6	Když se rozhoduji koupit jídlo ve fast food restauraci <u>dám na doporučení</u> od rodiny/přátel/kolegů z práce.					

Marketingový mix - Proces (způsob dodávky jídla a přidaná hodnota produktů)

<i>Uveďte prosím, do jaké míry souhlasíte nebo nesouhlasíte s těmito tvrzeními.</i> Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1) Nesouhlasím (2) Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3) Souhlasím (4) Rozhodně souhlasím (5)		Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)
1	Vždy očekávám, že při nákupu jídla ve fast food restauraci, získám za utracené peníze <u>odpovídající hodnotu</u>					
2	Pro fast food firmy je <u>důležité</u> , aby pravidelně získávaly od svých zákazníků názory.					
3	Mé rozhodnutí o nákupu jídla ve fast food restauraci je <u>určováno</u> tím, jak rychle jsem obsloužen/a.					
4	Fast food firmy musí své provozovny zařizovat tak, aby zákazníci mohli vidět, jakým způsobem je jídlo připravováno.					
5	Než se rozhodnu jídlo koupit, chci vždy vědět, jak se jídlo připravuje.					
6	Před nákupem chci vždy znát původ surovin použitých pro přípravu jídla.					

Marketingový mix - Lidé (zaměstnanci)

Uveďte prosím, do jaké míry souhlasíte nebo nesouhlasíte s těmito tvrzeními. Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1) Nesouhlasím (2) Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3) Souhlasím (4) Rozhodně souhlasím (5)		Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)
1	Změním značku fast foodu, pokud se ke mně zaměstnanci chovají hrubě, přestože preferuji právě jejich jídlo.					
2	Nenakupuji ve fast food restauraci, jejíž zaměstnanci nemají povědomí o značce a strategii firmy.					
3	Zaměstnanci musí <u>prokázat odpovídající znalosti</u> o značkové a marketingové strategii fast food firmy a dodat tuto hodnotu zákazníkovi					
4	Mé rozhodnutí o výběru fast food restaurace je určováno čistotou zaměstnanců.					
5	Jako pravidelný zákazník se cítím jako významná zúčastněná strana, a proto bych měl/a být pravidelně dotazován/a na mé názory a spokojenost s fast food restaurací.					
6	Zaměstnanci jsou důležití při nabývání zkušenosti zákazníka s fast foodem, což významně ovlivňuje image značky fast foodu.					
7	Přestože značku fast foodu preferuji, změním ji, jestliže se ke mně budou zaměstnanci chovat nevhodně.					

Marketingový mix - Cena

Uveďte prosím, do jaké míry souhlasíte nebo nesouhlasíte s těmito tvrzeními. Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1) Nesouhlasím (2) Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3) Souhlasím (4) Rozhodně souhlasím (5)		Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)
1	Fast food restaurace <u>značky s vyšší reputací</u> si musí účtovat vyšší ceny a naopak.					
2	Mé rozhodnutí si koupit fast food je dáno <u>cenou</u> , kterou musím zaplatit, nikoliv kvalitou jídla.					
3	Koupím si fast food přestože <u>je cena vyšší</u> , protože věřím, že tím zvýším svou reputaci mezi svými známými.					
4	<u>Vyšší cena</u> fast food menu je pro mě ukazatelem kvality					
5	Cena, kterou zaplatím za oběd ve fast food restauraci, <u>musí být odpovídat hodnotě</u> , kterou dostanu.					

PART D: Obecné otázky

1. Osobně upřednostňuji návštěvu fast food restaurace, kde si mohu složit jídlo podle vybraných složek, které uspokojí mou chuť a preference, namísto zakoupení jídla, které je fast food restaurací standardizované.

Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)

Prosím, okomentujte svou odpověď

.....
.....

2. Pro mě je výhodnější sedět doma, s použitím internetu si vybrat jednotlivé složky jídla a jeho následné doručení, namísto toho abych si objednal/a jídlo, které je fast food restaurací standardizované.

Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)

Prosím, okomentujte svou odpověď

.....
.....

3. Vždy budu preferovat nákup fast food jídel, do kterých se používají místní/tradiční suroviny.

Rozhodně nesouhlasím (1)	Nesouhlasím (2)	Ani souhlas, ani nesouhlas (3)	Souhlasím (4)	Rozhodně souhlasím (5)

Uveďte, prosím, své vysvětlení

.....
.....

- i. Další poznámky?

.....
.....

Mnohokrát Vám děkuji za spolupráci!

Appendix I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FAST FOOD ENTERPRISES

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Emmanuel Selase Asamoah and I am a PhD candidate at the Tomas Bata University in Zlin, Czech Republic and I am conducting a research on the topic Brand management in the fast food industry: a cultural perspective of the branding strategies of firms, and the behaviour of consumers in the Czech Republic and Ghana. I would appreciate it if you could please complete this survey questions for me. The questions will take about 15-20 minutes to complete. I am aware that you are busy, but the time you will take to complete this questionnaire will be valuable to this important research. This questionnaire is purely for academic purposes and will certainly respect your right of anonymity and examine the outcomes of the questionnaire with the highest degree of confidentiality. Thank you for your willingness to participate and helping to shape the efficacy of branding strategies used by fast food firms.

(In answering the questions, close approximations will be very much appreciated)

Background information of the firm

1. How do you classify your organization in terms of size?

A	Micro (less than 10 employees)	
B	Small (10 - 50 employees)	
C	Medium-sized (51- 250 employees)	
D	Large (over 250 employees)	

2. How many years has your company been operating in the fast food industry?

.....

General questions

1. What is your understanding of customers' satisfaction?

.....
.....

2. How important is customer satisfaction to your firm?

.....
.....

3. What strategies do you use to satisfy your customers?

.....
.....

4. How will you assess the reputation of your brand?

.....
.....

5. How does your firm implement its branding strategies?

.....
.....

6. What strategies has your firm put in place to meet the changing needs and expectations of consumers compared to competitors?

.....
.....

7. How relevant is branding to your firm?

.....
.....

8. What is the role of strategic marketing planning in the fast food industry and how flexible is your firms' strategy?
.....
.....
9. How will you describe your branding strategy? Is it proactively driven or it depends on what your competitors do?
.....
.....
10. Does your firm have a brand management programme in place that is continually looking for new and more effective ways to protect and enhance the brand throughout the organization?
.....
.....
11. How does the firm strengthen and protect its brand to drive its long-term goals?
.....
.....
12. 'The consistency of our brand is important. It reaches way beyond just tactical brand campaigns and it is deeper than even key personnel changes.' To what extent that this statement relate to your firm?
.....
.....

Competition in the fast food industry

1. Comment on your impression of the competitiveness of the fast food industry in general and the fast food market you currently operate.
.....
.....
2. How does your company differentiate itself from competitors?
.....
.....
3. What innovation strategies does your firm use?
.....
.....
4. Provide an assessment of the performance of your firms branding strategy compared to your competitors?
.....
.....
5. How will you describe your branding approach or position in the market compared to competitors?
.....
.....
6. Explain some of the critical things that you do that separates or differentiates your brand from our competitors.
.....
.....

Branding strategy – product

1. What kind of food items do you sell, what features does it have and what benefits does it provide to your customers?

-
-
2. Would you consider modifying your food items to suite the culture of the people?
.....
.....
 3. How important is segmentation in the development of products?
.....
.....
 4. How does your firm engage in development, testing and introduction of new food items?
.....
.....
 5. What role does packaging play in the delivery of your final product and how important is packaging to your firm?
.....
.....
 6. What in your opinion can you do better to improve the image of your products compared to your competitors in terms of product development and improvement?
.....
.....

Branding strategy – price

1. What role does pricing play in your firms branding strategy?
.....
.....
2. Which of the following pricing strategies is commonly used in your firm (arrange in order of preference with 1 mostly used to 4 the least used strategy)

Price skimming (Charge a high price because you have a substantial competitive advantage)	
Economy pricing (conscious effort to keep prices low)	
Penetration pricing (setting low prices to gain market share)	
Premium pricing (setting high prices due to the uniqueness of your product, brand or service)	

3. What are the reasons for your ranking?
.....
.....
4. What in your opinion can you do better to improve the image of your brand compared to your competitors in terms of price?
.....
.....

Branding strategy – Distribution channels (place)

1. How will you describe your distribution systems for your products and services?
.....
.....
2. What is the firm’s strategy with regards to the establishment of more outlets?
.....
.....
3. What goes into the design of your fast food outlets?

.....
.....
4. Does the opening of new outlets in different locations, contribute to your competitiveness in the market? (give reasons)

.....
.....
5. Does the establishment of more distribution channels increase your competitiveness or you are convinced that consumers will travel to your outlets wherever they are located?

.....
.....
6. What in your opinion can you do better to improve the image of your brand compared to your competitors in terms of distribution channels (place)?

.....
.....
Branding strategy: promotion

1. How does your firm monitor the appropriateness, consistency of your branded communications?

.....
.....
2. Do you think frequently offering discounts is necessary to survive in the fast food industry?

.....
.....
3. How does the firm go about the development and implementation of its advertising/promotional messages to make it clear to customers?

.....
.....
4. Which of the following aspects of the communication mix is the most preferred by your company? (Rank them from 1 - the most preferred to 5 – the least preferred)

a	Sales promotion	
b	Public relations	
c	Direct selling	
d	Advertising (print media)	
e	Advertising (electronic media)	
f	Personal selling	

5. What are the reasons that account for the ranking above?

.....
.....
6. What is the role of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in your marketing activities?

.....
.....
7. What role does Public Relations (PR) play in your organization?

.....
.....
8. How is sale promotion implemented in your organization?

.....
.....
9. What are the direct selling methods used by your firm?

.....
.....
10. What personal selling strategies are used by your firm?
.....
.....

11. What in your opinion can you do better to improve the image of your brand compared to your competitors in terms of promotion activities?
.....
.....

Branding strategies: Employees (People)

1. How does the firm inculcate the branding promise and product/service objectives to employees?
.....
.....

2. What role does the induction programme of employees and other internal stakeholders play in enhancing your brand reputation and competitiveness?
.....
.....

3. Explain how the performance management systems of your organization assesses contribution each individual makes to growth and enhancement of the brand.
.....
.....

4. Explain how the marketing and communications team are integrated to understand the brand and brand-related activities and issues.
.....
.....

5. How is branding activities emphasized throughout the organisation hierarchy?
.....
.....

6. What in your opinion can you do better to improve the image of your brand compared to your competitors in terms of employees in the firm?
.....
.....

Branding strategy: process (mode of delivery and value added products)

1. Explain the organizations process improvement processes.
.....
.....

2. Elaborate on how the firm delivers value added products to its customers?
.....
.....

3. How does your process of food preparation contribute to providing “fast” or quick service to your customers?
.....
.....

4. How does your marketing activity link with the day-to-day operations of your firm?
.....
.....

5. Would you consider opening up your food preparation process to make it visible to customers?

6. What in your opinion can you do better to improve the image of your brand compared to your competitors in terms of process (mode of delivery of food items and value added products)

Branding strategy: physical evidence (physical environment)

1. How does the firm deliver exactly what you promise in your communication with customers?

2. Is the taste of menu items the same irrespective of the branch or location of our outlet (we ensure standardization in our products)

3. Apart from the food items, does the firm provide customers with something tangible to remind them of the service we provide?

4. How will you describe the commitment towards cleanliness of your outlets and how does it influence your branding and marketing activities?

5. What in your opinion can you do better to improve the image of your brand compared to your competitors in terms of physical environment of your outlets?

General questions

1. In the preparation of your food, do you use local/traditional ingredients to satisfy the preference of the local people? (please explain your answer)

2. Would you consider having food on your menu that is associated with the traditional food of the country you operate it? (please explain your answer)

3. How important is the internet to your operation? Do you think the internet can play a role in mass customization of fast food product? (please explain your answer)

4. Considering your marketing strategy would you prefer: mass customization (products and services for individuals) or mass production (standardized products and services for everyone)? (please explain your choice)

.....
.....
5. Would you consider giving customers the option to choose the contents of the food item that satisfies their taste and preference instead of providing standardized products? (please give reasons for your answer)

.....
.....
6. Looking at the market you currently operate in, how will you include mass customization in your branding strategy? (if not important please give reasons)

.....
.....
7. What are your suggestions for building reputable brands in the fast food industry?

.....
.....
Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Appendix J: DOTAZNÍK PRO SPOLEČNOSTI RYCHLÉHO OBČERSTVENÍ

Vážený/á pane/paní,

Jméno je Emmanuel Selase Asamoah a Jsem studentem doktorského studijního programu na Univerzitě Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně v České republice a provádím průzkum na téma Brand management v průmyslu rychlého občerstvení: kulturní perspektiva firemních brandingových strategií a chování spotřebitelů v České republice a v Ghaně. Ocenil bych Vaši účast na vyplnění tohoto dotazníku, který slouží jako podklad pro můj výzkum. Vyplnění dotazníku by nemělo přesáhnout 15 až 20 minut. Jsem si vědom toho, že jste zaneprázdněni, ale čas, který strávíte vyplněním, bude pro tento výzkum velmi cenný. Tento dotazník slouží čistě pro akademické účely a budu respektovat Vaše práva na anonymitu a zkoumat výsledky dotazníku v utajení. Děkuji Vám za Vaši ochotu podílet se a pomáhat formovat strategie značky používanou firmami rychlého občerstvení.

(Při odpovídání na otázky bude velmi ceněno bližších vysvětlení)

Základní informace o firmě

1. Jak byste zařadili Vaši firmu z hlediska velikosti?

a	Mikro (s méně než 10 zaměstnanci)	
b	Malé (s 10 - 50 zaměstnanci)	
c	Středně velké (s 51- 250 zaměstnanci)	
d	Velké (s více než 250 zaměstnanci)	

2. Jak dlouho Vaše společnost působí v průmyslu rychlého občerstvení?

.....

Obecné otázky

1. Jakým způsobem chápete zákazníkovo uspokojení?

.....
.....

2. Jak moc důležité je uspokojení zákaznickovy potřeby pro Vaši firmu?

.....
.....

3. Jaké strategie používáte pro spokojenost zákazníků?

.....
.....

4. Jakým způsobem hodnotíte (měříte) reputaci Vaší značky?

.....
.....

5. Jak firma implementuje své strategie značky?

.....
.....

6. Jaké strategie Vaše firma použila, aby uspokojila měnící se potřeby a očekávání spotřebitelů v porovnání s konkurencí?

.....
.....

7. Jak důležité je budování značky (branding) pro Vaši firmu?

.....
.....

8. Jaká je úloha strategického marketingového plánování v potravinářském průmyslu zaměřeném na fast food a jak flexibilní je strategie Vaší firmy?
.....
.....
9. Jak byste popsali strategii budování značky? Je řízena aktivně, nebo záleží na tom, co udělá Vaše konkurence?
.....
.....
10. Má Vaše firma program řízení značky veden tak, aby neustále hledal nové a více efektivní cesty k ochraně a posílení značky napříč celou organizací?
.....
.....
11. Jak firma posiluje a chrání svou značku, aby plnila své dlouhodobé cíle?
.....
.....
12. “Konzistence naší značky je důležitá. Překračuje nejen taktické kampaně zaměřené na značku, ale dokonce je hlubší než klíčové personální změny.” Do jaké míry se tento výrok týká Vaší firmy?
.....
.....

Konkurence v průmyslu rychlého občerstvení

1. Prosím o komentář k vašemu dojmu z konkurenceschopnosti potravinářského průmyslu zaměřeného na fast food (obecně) a na trh fast foodu, na kterém současně působíte.
.....
.....
2. Jak se Vaše společnost liší od své konkurence?
.....
.....
3. Jaké inovační strategie Vaše společnost používá?
.....
.....
4. Prosím o poskytnutí hodnocení výkonu Vaší strategie budování značky ve srovnání s Vaší konkurencí.
.....
.....
5. Jak byste popsali svůj přístup k budování značky nebo budování pozice na trhu ve srovnání s konkurencí?
.....
.....
6. Vysvětlíte prosím určité kritické záležitosti, které separují či odlišují Vaši značku od Vašich konkurentů.
.....
.....

Strategie značky– Výrobek

1. Jaké potraviny prodáváte, jaké vlastnosti má a jaké výhody poskytují Vaším zákazníkům?
.....
.....
2. Zvažovali byste změnu či modifikaci Vašich jídel tak, aby vyhovovaly kultuře lidí?

.....
.....
3. Jak důležitá je segmentace ve vývoji produktů?
.....
.....

4. Jak se Vaše firma zapojuje do vývoje, testování a představování nových jídel?
.....
.....

5. Jakou roli hraje balení v procesu vydávání Vašeho finálního produktu a jak důležité je balení pro Vaši firmu?
.....
.....

6. Co se domníváte, že můžete udělat lépe, abyste zlepšili image Vašeho výrobku ve srovnání s Vaší konkurencí v oblasti vývoje produktu?
.....
.....

Strategie značky– Cena

1. Jakou roli hraje stanovení cen ve Vaší strategii budování značky?
.....
.....

2. Která z následujících cenových strategií je běžně používána Vaší firmou?(seřadte prosím v pořadí 1 – nejčastěji používaná až 4 – nejméně používaná)

Sbírání smetany (<i>Účtovat vysoké ceny, protože máte značnou konkurenční výhodu</i>)	
Ekonomické stanovení ceny (<i>Vědomá snaha udržet nízké ceny</i>)	
Pronikání cenou (<i>Stanovení nízké ceny k získání podílu na trhu</i>)	
Prémiové stanovení ceny (<i>Stanovení vysoké ceny vzhledem k jedinečnosti Vašeho produktu nebo služby</i>)	

3. Jaké jsou Vaše důvody pro Vaše hodnocení?
.....
.....

4. Co podle svého názoru můžete udělat lépe pro zlepšení image Vaší značky ve srovnání s Vaší konkurencí v oblasti stanovení cen?
.....
.....

Strategie značky– Místo (distribuční kanály)

1. Jak byste popsal Vaše distribuční systémy pro Vaše produkty a služby?
.....
.....

2. Jaká je strategie firmy s ohledem na založení nových prodejen?
.....
.....

3. Co je zahrnuto v designu Vašich fast foodových prodejen?
.....
.....

4. Podporuje otevření nových prodejen v různých místech Vaší konkurenceschopnost na trhu?
(Uveďte prosím důvody)
.....
.....
5. Má zavedení nových distribučních kanálů za následek zvýšení Vaší konkurenceschopnosti nebo jste přesvědčeni o tom, že spotřebitelé budou cestovat do Vašich prodejen, kdekoliv budou umístěny?
.....
.....
6. Co podle Vašeho názoru můžete udělat lépe, abyste zlepšili image Vaší značky ve srovnání s Vaší konkurencí v oblasti distribučních kanálů (místo)?
.....
.....

Strategie značky - Propagace

1. Jak Vaše firma sleduje vhodnost a soudržnost Vaší značky a její komunikační strategii?
.....
.....
2. Domníváte se, že časté nabízení slev je nutné pro přežití na potravinářském průmyslu zaměřeném na fast food?
.....
.....
3. Jak firma uplatňuje rozvoj a implementaci reklamních/propagačních sdělení, aby byla zákazníkům jasná?
.....
.....
4. Který z následujících aspektů komunikačního mixu Vaše firma preferuje nejvíce?
(*Hodnoťte je od 1 – nejvíce preferován až po 5 – nejméně preferován*)

Podpora prodeje	
Vztah s veřejností	
Přímý prodej	
Reklama (tištěná média)	
Reklama (elektronická média)	
Osobní prodej	

5. Jaké jsou důvody, které odpovídají na výše uvedené hodnocení?
.....
.....
6. Jaká je role společenské odpovědnosti firmy (CSR) ve Vašich marketingových aktivitách?
.....
.....
7. Jakou roli hraje styk s veřejností (PR) ve Vaší organizaci?
.....
.....
8. Jak je podpora prodeje realizována ve Vaší firmě?
.....
.....
9. Jaké metody přímého prodeje Vaše firma používá?
.....
.....

10. Jaké strategie osobního prodeje Vaše firma používá?

.....

11. Co podle Vašeho názoru můžete udělat lépe ke zlepšení image Vaší značky ve srovnání s konkurencí v oblasti propagačních aktivit?

.....

Strategie značky - Lidé (zaměstnanci)

1. Jak firma vštěpuje cíle produktu/služby a poslání (přísliby) značky svým zaměstnancům?

.....

2. Jakou roli hraje školicí program zaměstnanců a jiných interních zainteresovaných stran (stakeholders) v posílení pověsti své značky a konkurenceschopnosti?

.....

3. Prosím vysvětlete, jak systémy řízení výkonnosti Vaší organizace hodnotí přínos každého jedince k růstu a posílení značky.

.....

4. Prosím vysvětlete, jak jsou marketingový a komunikační tým začleněny do pochopení značky a aktivit, případně problémů spojenými se značkou.

.....

5. Jak jsou brandingové aktivity (spojené se značkou) zdůrazněny napříč celou organizační hierarchií?

.....

6. Co podle Vašeho názoru můžete udělat lépe pro zlepšení image Vaší značky ve srovnání s Vaší konkurencí z hlediska zaměstnanců?

.....

Strategie značky - process (způsob dodávky potravin a produktů s přidanou hodnotou)

1. Vysvětlete prosím proces zlepšení organizačních procesů.

.....

2. Vysvětlete prosím, jak firma doručuje produkty s přidanou hodnotou svým zákazníkům?

.....

3. Jak Váš proces přípravy jídla přispívá k poskytování „rychlého“ nebo svižného servisu Vašim zákazníkům?

.....

4. Jak je Vaše marketingová činnost provázána s denními operacemi Vaší společnosti?

.....

5. Uvažovali byste o otevřené přípravě jídla (procesu přípravy), aby tato činnost byla viditelná pro zákazníky?

-
.....
6. Co podle Vašeho názoru můžete udělat lépe pro zlepšení Vaší značky ve srovnání s konkurencí z hlediska procesů (způsob dodání zboží a potravinářských produktů s přidanou hodnotou)?
-
.....

Strategie značky - Fyzické prostředí

1. Jak firma doručí přesně to, co jste slíbili svým zákazníkům skrze komunikační kanály?
.....
.....
2. Je chuť položek menu stejná bez ohledu na odvětví nebo umístění Vaší prodejny (zajišťujeme standardizaci našich produktů)?
.....
.....
3. Kromě položek potravin, poskytuje firma zákazníkům něco hmatatelného, co by jim připomnělo služby, které poskytujete?
.....
.....
4. Jak byste popsali závazky vůči čistotě Vašich prodejen a jak to ovlivní Vaše marketingové aktivity a aktivity spojené s budováním značky?
.....
.....
5. Co podle Vašeho názoru můžete udělat lépe pro zlepšení Vaší značky ve srovnání s konkurencí z hlediska fyzického prostředí Vašich prodejen?
.....
.....

Obecné otázky

1. Při přípravě jídla používáme místní/tradiční suroviny k uspokojení preferencí místních obyvatel (prosím, vysvětlete svou odpověď)
.....
.....
2. Uvažovali byste o tom, mít jídlo na Vašem menu, které je spojováno s tradičním jídlem dané země, na které působíte? (prosím, vysvětlete svou odpověď)
.....
.....
3. Jak důležitý je internet pro Váš provoz? Myslíte si, že internet může hrát roli v masovém přizpůsobení produktu rychlého občerstvení? (prosím, vysvětlete svou odpověď)
.....
.....
4. Vzhledem k Vaší marketingové strategii byste dali přednost: masovému přizpůsobení (produkt a služba pro jednotlivce) nebo masové produkci (standardizované produkty a služby pro všechny)? (prosím, vysvětlete svou volbu)
.....
.....
5. Vzali byste v úvahu dávat zákazníkům možnost vybrat si obsah jídla, které uspokojuje jejich vkus a preference namísto poskytování standardizovaných produktů? (uveďte důvody pro svou odpověď)

.....
.....
6. Při pohledu na trh, v němž v současnosti působíte, jak budete zahrnovat hromadné přizpůsobení do Vaší strategie značky? (pokud to není důležité, uveďte prosím důvody)

.....
.....
7. Jaké jsou Vaše návrhy pro vytváření renomovaných značek v průmyslu rychlého občerstvení?

.....
.....
Mnohokrát Vám děkuji za spolupráci!

Appendix K: Customized Burger



ENJOY YOUR MEAL.

Food is so much more delicious when you HAVE IT YOUR WAY®. Don't you think?

YOUR ORDER		3 items		
UNDER 400	French Fries - salted (Small)	340cal		
UNDER 200	Coca-Cola® (Small)	190cal		
UNDER 500	TRIPLE WHOPPER®	440cal		
TOTAL		970cal		
970 calories	30g sat fat	205mg cholesterol	62g sugar	152g carbs
90g total fat	2mg trans fat	70 protein	1600g sodium	
Allergens: Wheat, Soy, Egg				