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Celebrating the New Consumer – An Introduction

Nnamdi O. Madichie

In a recent discussion paper, Madichie (2018) revisited an earlier paper presented at a marketing conference calling for the need for knowledge co-creation between academic staff and students and especially those on level 6 and above. In that paper, which has now been published as part of a book (see Madichie, 2017), he emphasised the need for assessment to remain unstructured or better still only semi-structured in order to enable students’ imagination to kick in, and the requisite pastoral support to follow suit.

Indeed, student pastoral support (McChlery and Wilkie, 2009) remains an imperative in higher education provision, and the needs and motivation warrant rewarding achievements. In this context, the importance of student conferences as a means of rewarding “… Business students [in the hope] that [they] will invest more time in a project knowing they have an opportunity to have their work considered for acceptance” (Buff and Devasagayam, 2008, p. 40) cannot be overemphasised.

Generally, such events have resulted in outcomes over and beyond motivational and aspirational, but also cognitive and social, as they “encourage other students to undertake undergraduate research upon witnessing the success and accomplishments of their peers” (Madichie, 2018). He also opined that such conversations would have implications for not only business students and staff, as other disciplines especially the pure sciences may have already been ahead of the field in this direction. According to Buff & Devasagayam (2008, p. 37), “when compared with natural sciences, there is a dearth of undergraduate business research”.

In an empirical investigation, Whelan, Thomas, and Madden (2007) found that faculty-student collaborative research produced a higher level of learning, motivation, interest, and skills in student collaborators than when they undertook research on their own. More interestingly, the faculty collaborators reported a more satisfying and better organized research agenda (see Madichie, 2018). The academic staff mentor becomes a collaborator in the learning process and can actually guide the student to learn from the very experience of undertaking a research project from start to finish and then communicating the findings to the larger body of knowledge.

As pointed out by Buff & Devasagayam (2008, p. 37) “AACSB accreditation, a student-centered mission statement, and the continuous quality improvement that most educators engage in have resulted in an increase in student research projects. This presented an opportunity to develop a venue for students to showcase their research,” and thereby providing valuable input to future students and their families. Consequently, the papers in this issue speaks to the discourse in this area.

This issue of the now renamed Bloomsbury Institute Working Paper Series consists of five articles, which are all revised versions of past student research projects supervised by members of academic staff at the institute. The first two of these are focused on the power of celebrity endorsements in quite interesting, but diverse sectors – i.e. fast fashion and royalty influence on charitable-giving. The next paper focuses on the factors that influence vegetarian consumers’ intentions towards eating vegetarian meals in a non-specialised chain restaurant using the Theory of Planned Behaviour as its theoretical framework. In the fourth paper, the expectations of millennials in relation to leadership and working conditions are examined by a millennial entrepreneur himself, who also happens to be the past student president at Bloomsbury Institute. The fifth and final paper is a bit of an outlier considering that the author is still an existing student at the Bloomsbury Institute, and whose contribution can serve as a basis for a teaching case in consumer behaviour. This final paper is a revised version of a report completed in the first semester of 2018/2019 in response to a contemporary subject on the challenges of cashless transactions and digital banking in the UK context. Overall the papers in this issue are in alignment with the core values of the Institution, which includes raising aspirations of our students.

In the first paper supervised by Chris Munro (Head of the Business School at Bloomsbury Institute), Monica Palumbo sought to identify the relationship between a celebrity endorsement in the fast-fashion industry in the UK, identifying if a celebrity endorsement for the fast-fashion industry is effective. In a bid to understand the impact of a celebrity endorsement upon consumer choice of fast-fashion brands in the UK, the study’s main objectives are: to establish a relationship between celebrity endorsements and the fast-fashion industry in the UK, to identify factors taken into consideration during the decision-making process of a fast-fashion brand, and to assess the effectiveness of a celebrity endorsement in the fast-fashion industry.

In the second paper Eva Korenyi, under the supervision of Dr Knowledge Mpofo (senior lecturer in strategy at the Bloomsbury Institute), provides some interesting insights and background information on advertisement, royal and celebrity endorsement and their influence on consumer’s donating decisions. The researcher explored how marketing influences people’s donation habit, behaviour and advertisement, including the factors that impact on consumers
donation decisions. This project specifically focused on key factors explored in previous research with a view to establishing whether individual’s donation to an endorsed charity is high, including whether credibility, likability and attractiveness have a positive impact on charity donations. This study investigated the influence Royal family in shaping consumer’s donating habit in the non-profit organisation in the UK. It specifically sought to establish what influences does Royal family have in shaping consumer’s donating habit in the non-profit organisation within the UK by critically analysing the behaviour of consumer towards royal endorsement of charity regarding donation; examining whether royal endorsers’ attractiveness, likability and credibility may influence consumer behaviour towards donation and what are the most important other factor – with a view to highlighting how the Royal family may have shaped consumers’ donation habits in the non-profit sector in the UK.

In the third paper supervised by Dr. Nisreen Ameen (senior lecturer in Business and the Bloomsbury Institute), Aparna Jani argues that "in recent years there has been a rising trend towards alternative diets. Vegetarian diets, in particular have gained significant traction. As a result of this change, consumer behaviour in terms of attitudes and preferences towards vegetarian products has evolved, with the vegetarian food market growing in line with this upsurge.” Against this backdrop, the author investigated the factors that influence a vegetarian consumers intention towards eating a vegetarian meal at a popular chain restaurant. Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) model was applied. The study adopted a deductive approach to test the TPB and used a survey method which consisted of 70 (Lacto-Ovo and Vegan) vegetarian participants. Statistical analyses and Chi Square tests were performed to reveal that the TPB was a valid model to test factors relating to intentional behaviour. Key factors of intention were also found to include health and animal welfare. Additionally, the external factor of choice also strongly affected intentional behaviour to eat a vegetarian meal. The study has implications for chain restaurants, as far as the preferences of their consumers are concerned.

Supervised by Dr. Nnami Madiche and Dr Knowledge Mpofu, Julian Owusu, in the fourth paper, seeks to identify the expectations of millennials in relation to leadership and working conditions. The paper specifically seeks to: understand the changing nature of organisational culture; critically analyse the characteristics of the group referred to as millennials; and suggest several recommendations to organisations recruiting millennials. According to the author, “as digital transformation has not been implemented fully in all companies, we find ourselves in a shift between traditional and modern business models.” This poses a challenge as millennials who for the majority of their lives have only known a digital age and have a different outlook to work, are entering into workplace in large numbers. Arguably these millennials view the world somewhat differently and have redefined the meaning of success in the workplace – be it professionally and/or personally. This has led to the misunderstanding amongst previous generations who are co-existing in today's workplace. Business leaders are now realizing the unique perspectives and competencies so are therefore looking for new ways to harness their strengths in a workplace. The purpose of this study was to investigate millennials are joining organisations who are not at the forefront of digital transformation and therefore become frustrated as they are forced to work in pre-organised structures which were not designed for them but for previous generations. The changing requirements for millennials as they move into progressive careers and the new ways in which they should be led on a daily basis is also explored. In doing this, the study develops a new framework, which provides a better understanding of what leadership style is most appropriate for this ‘new generation’ workforce who are digitally networked. The study has implications on the expectations of millennials in relation to leadership and working conditions and how today’s organisations may be better equipped to managing these expectations.

The final paper by Steven Zorzi is an outlier in the sense that it was not part of the Business Research Project but a revised report on the Consumer Behaviour module 2018/2019. The article is based on a final year report on a consumer behaviour module at the Bloomsbury Institute London. This version has some additional input from the module leader having been graded by at least two tutors with expertise on the subject matter. The report was a response to a task requiring some investigation of the choices faced by UK consumers when it comes to their transaction preferences using cash vis-à-vis cashless means. Two main consumer behaviour concepts are interrogated in order to highlight the observed preferences – i.e. consumer perception and motivation. In the case of the former, elements of perception such as exposure, attention and interpretation of stimuli are explored. These are then mapped against theories of motivation directing consumers towards alternative choices. In this latter context, the study draws upon two motivational theories – Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and McClelland’s theory of needs.

Overall, I would like to congratulate and celebrate our past and current students for showcasing their hard work in this final issue of 2018, and first under the rebranded Bloomsbury Institute. Stay tuned for Volume 4.

References


The Impact of a Celebrity Endorsement Upon Consumer Choice of Fast-fashion Brands in the UK

Monica Palumbo

This study aims to identify the relationship between a celebrity endorsement in the fast-fashion industry in the UK, identifying if a celebrity endorsement for the fast-fashion industry is effective and if so, how? In a bid to understand the impact of a celebrity endorsement upon consumer choice of fast-fashion brands in the UK, the study’s main objectives are: to establish a relationship between celebrity endorsements and the fast-fashion industry in the U.K; to identify factors taken into consideration during the decision-making process of a fast-fashion brand; and to assess and evaluate the effectiveness of a celebrity endorsement in the fast-fashion industry.

Keywords: consumer behaviour, fast-fashion, United Kingdom

Introduction

Celebrity endorsements are commonly associated with the luxury fashion industry, used as a form of viral marketing, generating international media interest and awareness (Hines and Bruce, 2007). However, celebrity endorsements are more recently becoming a common strategy for brands in the fast-fashion industry, aiming to monopolize on a pre-established customer base. The UK’s fast-fashion industry has flourished in recent years, resulting from a trend-driven consumer, demanding an increase in the speed of delivery of products (McKinsey & Company, 2016). These fast-fashion brands are able to replicate luxury fashion catwalk looks within days and offer them to the mid-market consumer. Brands such as New Look, Zara and ASOS have managed to dominate the UK’s fast-fashion market (Dalton, 2017), gaining market share and competitive advantage by implementing a fast-fashion approach to their supply chain. The UK’s consumers are becoming increasingly interested in fashion and lifestyle inspirations, demonstrating the power of partnerships and celebrity endorsements (Dalton, 2017). A celebrity trend driven consumer with a key interest in celebrity culture has enabled a celebrity endorsement to be a popular strategy for brands to employ. However, despite having an influence on consumer’s perception of a brand and raising brand awareness, the direct impact a celebrity endorsement has on consumer's purchasing decisions and brand image is difficult to identify. Theoretically, celebrity endorsements provide many advantages but research on how effective this marketing strategy is, in terms of increased sales, purchasing intention and brand image is limited.

Literature Review

The preliminary literature review explores the relevant key themes including the fast-fashion industry in the U.K., the use of celebrity endorsements as an affective advertising strategy and its effects on the consumer decision-making process. There are a few congruence studies that formed initial research into this field, resulting in the creation of theories and frameworks of which most of the predecessor research is based on, such as the ‘Match-Up Hypothesis’ (Kamins, 1990) and the ‘Meaning Transfer Model’ (McCacken, 1989).

The fast-fashion industry in the UK

Industry reports on fashion in the UK in 2016 identified a much more demanding consumer that pushed an increase in the speed of delivery of products (McKinsey & Company, 2016). The U.K.’s fashion consumers are trend-focused and demanding, driving the need for a fast-response that encourages disposability. The volatile market in which fashion retailers compete for market share urged the need for a fast-response, resulting in the creation of fast-fashion. Fast-fashion is described as low-cost clothing collections that mimic current luxury fashion trends (Joy, Sherry, Venkatesh, Wang andChan, 2012). Studies show the global fast-fashion industry has grown over 21% in the last three years, compared to the mediocre growth of the luxury fashion industry (Gilliland, 2017). Research conducted by Euromonitor International demonstrates that the fast-fashion industry is growing faster than the global apparel and footwear industry (see Figure 1). Examples of fast-fashion brands in the U.K. include ASOS, H&M, Very, New Look, PrettyLittleThing and Zara. These fast-fashion brands have been outpacing traditional clothing retailers for years in terms of both market share and annual revenue (Lieber, 2016) due to their trend-driven merchandise being accessible only a few weeks after luxury brands present their collections on the catwalk.

Zara is commonly referred to as a fashion pioneer brand (Hanbury, 2017), being the first brand in the U.K. to adopt a fast-fashion approach, with the ability to design and distribute a garment to market in just fifteen days (Ferdows, Lewis and Machuka, 2005). Fast-fashion retailers are commonly associated with celebrity endorsements and collaborations. Retailers such as Boohoo have shown significant growth in market share in recent years, with profits doubling after paying celebrities to promote their products (Tan, 2017), as well as the increasingly popular PrettyLittleThing, with a 663% increase of web visits (netimperative.com, 2017) in the year of 2017 after many celebrity collaborations. Research suggests the U.K.’s desire for on-trend fast-fashion came about due to their “celebrity-crazed culture” (Lieber, 2016) and interest in celebrity culture (Linden, 2016). The fast-fashion industry has received criticism for its unethical approaches towards sustainability and lack of corporate social responsibility (Gilligand, 2017). Some examples of this include Primark’s link to sweatshops (Dhariwal, 2009) and the backlash Nike received for its unethical labour practices in Southeast Asian countries (McVeigh, 2017), destroying their reputable brand image. This forced the
company to implement ethical approaches and sustainability within their supply chain, resulting in them receiving the title of the 16th most valuable brand in 2017 (China Daily, 2016).

Figure 1 Sales Growth of Fast Fashion

Source: Euromonitor International

**Celebrity endorsement**

A celebrity endorser is described as a recognizable person who is contracted to advertise for a product or brand (Tantiseneepong, Gorton and White, 2012; McCracken, 1989). Fredjan (1984) tested the effectiveness of celebrities against other types of spokespeople (such as CEOs) and found that celebrities stood out in terms of trustworthiness, likeability, persuasiveness and believability (Till and Shimp, 1998) resulting in celebrity endorsements becoming a popular marketing strategy (Ding, Molchanov and Stork, 2010). By collaborating with celebrities that represent attributes such as trustworthiness and likeability, an organisation is able to convey these to the consumer as a method of building a deep personal relationship between the consumer and the brand (Power and Hauge, 2012), aiding in distinguishing them from their competitors (Bridson, Kerrie and Evans, 2004) and creating a positive brand attitude (Wei and Lu, 2012). Fashion retailers that collaborate with celebrities are of the most successful brands, driving mass brand awareness quickly and monopolizing on a pre-established customer base (netimperative.com, 2017). Additional benefits of a celebrity endorsement include the enhancement of the effectiveness of advertising campaigns by attracting consumer’s attention, making an advertisement more memorable and credible (Wei and Lu, 2012) and a positive effect on sales (Elberse, 2009). Examples include Versace’s use of Madonna in print adverts throughout 2005 and 2006 (Mukherjee, 2009), Charlize Theron as the iconic face of Dior’s ‘J’adore’ perfume (Nathanson, 2016) and Tiger Woods for Nike (Knittel and Stango, 2012). According to Nigel Wilson, Managing Director at Hitwise:

> “Retailers collaborating with celebrities become associated with the people most influential to their customers, and in turn, monopolize on a pre-established customer base… the importance of influence for this audience demonstrates the power of partnerships and celebrity endorsements, proving fashion trends aren’t only made on the catwalk” (netimperative.com, 2017).

Having said this, a celebrity endorsement is not fundamental in order to build a reputable brand image. Zara was one of the first retailers to adopt a fast-fashion approach in their supply chain but has never invested in a celebrity endorsement, celebrity models, or a designer collaboration (The Fashion Law, 2017), as they do not need these marketing techniques to increase sales. Instead they rely on their effective supply chain and runway copies (The Fashion Law, 2017) in order to maintain their competitive advantage. Despite numerous benefits to a celebrity endorsement, there are high-risk implications involved. One of which is a celebrity’s over-endorsement of products, resulting in the consumer’s negative perception of the endorsement’s credibility and likability (Fang and Jiang, 2015). Financial risk is likely to be the most detrimental risk involved, as celebrities can be expensive and demanding (Knott and St. James, 2004). When the scandal broke out involving Tiger Woods, Nike suffered a loss of $1.7million in sales and 105,000 customers (Sokolovska, 2016). The lack of control an organization has over the persona of the celebrity (Erdogan, 1999) and their unpredictable behaviour (Edwards and La Ferle, 2009) can also be limiting to the organisation.

**The decision-making process**

Consumers traditionally approach decision making from an information-processing perspective (Soloman, 2016). A need for a certain product or service is recognized, alternatives are evaluated until a final purchasing decision is made (see decision-making process in Figure 2). A celebrity endorsement can reach the consumer at the following stages of the decision-making process.

- **Problem recognition:** an advertisement featuring a celebrity may trigger a need for a certain product/service. Studies have examined ad effectiveness with and without a celebrity (Silvera and Austad, 2004).
- **Information search:** consumers search for information on certain products; one method is through word of mouth. Studies show on purchases based on word of mouth, 7% were attributed to celebrity endorsements (Fireworker and Friedman, 1977).
- **Evaluation of alternatives:** Evaluative criteria and their assigned important have great influences on consumer’s decisions (Ifeanyuchukwe, 2016; Hawkins and Mothersbaugh, 2010). Tangible factors such as styles and taste...
can be influenced by a celebrity endorsement. During this face, variables are taken into consideration such as personal taste and previous experiences (Khan, Rukshar and Shoaib, 2016). On the contrary, a celebrity endorsement does not always affect the purchasing decision. Studies show despite 85% of consumers admitting celebrity endorsements enhanced their confidence in a product; only 15% said they influenced their purchase decisions Sokolovska, 2016).

Figure 2: Consumer decision-making process

The effect of a celebrity endorsement on economic return has been a popular area for research study. A study by Agrawal and Kamakura (1995) studied the positive impact of a celebrity endorsement on expected future profits. The effects of a celebrity endorsement on brand image and sales have been studied (Hansen, Basic and Byberg, 2015), identifying certain factors that must be present in order to increase sales and improve brand image, such as the likeability of the celebrity and having a congruent image between the brand and the celebrity (Hansen, Basic and Byberg, 2015). During a study in which athlete endorsements were researched, sales jumped an average of 4% in the six months following the start of an endorsement deal (Elberse, 2009). However, a consumer’s high intention to buy a product may be influenced by other mediating factors such as price (Phang and Cyril de Run, 2007). Therefore, it is difficult to define the exact effect on sales due to the numerous factors and variables a study must take into consideration. For example, there was an increase in the sales of the Puma racket when Boris Becker won Wimbledon (from 15,000 to 150,000 units in a year) (Gupta, 2007). However, a facilitating factor to this may be the popularity of Wimbledon. Assumptions can be made, but difficult to verify.

The literature on the impact of celebrity endorsements on brand value and image have established factors that have maximum impact on the success of an endorsement (Mukherjee, 2009). These factors include the consistency and duration of the endorsement, the match between the organization’s brand image and the celebrity (McCracken, 1989) and financial investment (Mukherjee, 2009) in terms of marketing campaigns and advertisements. Another factor is timing, referring to where the celebrity is in terms of their career. This theory is supported by the increase in sales of the Puma racket when Boris Becker won Wimbledon (1985). One may suggest if he had not become champion, would the sales have increased?

Studies have identified differences in the ways in which a celebrity endorsement affects male and female consumers. An important segmentation characteristic that has distinguished how people process information is gender (Edwards and La Ferle, 2009). The Selectivity Hypothesis suggests differences in gender perceptions is due to the fact men are more driven by overall message themes, whereas woman engage in detailed elaboration of messages (Putrevu, 2001). Therefore, advertising campaigns based around a celebrity can result in different perceptions from male and female consumers. Studies reveal women exhibit more positive attitude towards celebrity endorsements and are impacted more by celebrity-endorsed advertisements compared to men (Soni, 2016), resulting in women being twice as likely to be swayed by famous faces than men (Kirkova, 2014). Studies have also identified the difference in celebrity perceptions between generations. A recent study found that consumers aged between 18-24 take on an active role in developing their identities and appearances based upon celebrities (Sokoslova, 2016). Generation Z (ages 15-20) and the millennial generation (ages 21-34) are the generations whom resonate strongly with celebrity endorsements (Sokoslova, 2016; Nielson, 2015).

Methodology
This section presents the research methodology used in the study. The research philosophy, approach to theory development, methodological choice and the techniques and procedures used during data collection and data analysis are presented in this section. The specific techniques have been chosen in order to best achieve the aims and objectives of the study and to answer the research question. Ethical considerations and the validity of the study are also discussed.

Research philosophy
The two philosophical approaches this study could have taken are positivism and interpretivism. Positivism is the philosophical stance of the natural sciences entailing working with an observable social reality to produce law-like generalizations (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). This philosophical approach focuses on scientific methods, designed to yield pure data and facts uninfluenced by human interpretation or bias (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). Positivism is commonly associated with a quantitative method of analysis as well as being typically deductive. Interpretivism argues human beings and their societies cannot be studied in the same way as physical phenomena, therefore social sciences research needs to be different from natural sciences research (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). This approach is commonly supported by qualitative research, using unstructured interviews. Positivism was chosen due to its ability to generalize and predict causes and affects rather than understanding and interpreting the implications of human behaviour (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988), as well because it stresses the importance of conducting...
quantitative research in order to attain an understanding of society and uncover social trends, such as the relationship between celebrity endorsements and the fast-fashion industry.

**Approach to theory development**

There are two broad methods of reasoning: inductive and deductive (Trochim, 2006). Induction seeks to build up theory that is adequately grounded in the data (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016), using the participants’ views to build broad themes and generate a theory interconnecting these themes (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). This research study takes a deductive approach to theory development, making use of existing theory to formulate the research question and objectives. By using a deductive approach, it links the research into the existing body of knowledge discussed in the literature review (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). A deductive approach involves the development of a theory that is then subjected to a rigorous test through a series of propositions (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). By conducting deductive research, an explanation will be offered to describe the relationship between a celebrity endorsement in the fast-fashion industry in the UK, and it's influence on the consumer’s purchasing decision.

In terms of data collection, secondary data was based on an extensive research of scholarly journal articles found on the Internet and theories from relevant books and journal articles in order to have an in-depth understanding of the research area to aid in the validating of the survey questions. Primary data was collected through a questionnaire designed on Google Forms, consisting of 15 closed questions including demographics. Closed ended questions aid to ensure the information needed by the researches is obtained, making the responses easier to analyse, however lacking depth and variety (Kumar, 2011). The questionnaire was designed to collect data on the role of a celebrity endorsement in the fast-fashion industry and the factors taken into consideration during the consumer's purchasing decision.

**Methodological approach**

There are two main forms of research: qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative data has an explorative approach, aiding in the gathering of new information on specific areas of research providing depth and detail. This form of research is highly involved with the researcher’s personal involvement, gaining an insider’s perspective on the research topic, whereas quantitative research strives for objectivity and impartiality (Sayre, 2006). Quantitative is the formal, objective, systematic process to describe and test relationships and examine cause and effect interactions among variables (Grove, Burns and Gray, 2012). This form of study statistically measures and evaluates the reactions of a number of people with the use of a limited set of questions and standardized answer categories, unlike qualitative data which is limited to a small number of detailed cases. The literature review has provided initial qualitative perspective; therefore, through the use of surveys (questionnaires), further research was conducted from a quantitative perspective. A common approach involved in a quantitative study is the use of survey, used to collect original data for describing a population too large to observe directly (Mouton, 1996). The questionnaire survey was chosen as it allows the collection of standardized data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way and allowing easy comparison (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). The data collected through surveys aids in evaluating the relationship between the key topic areas discussed in the literature review.

**Sampling and sample size**

In survey research, a population is described as the category of people from which the sample is drawn (Davies and Hughes, 2014). The two methods of sampling are probability and non-probability. Probability sampling allows the researcher to make inferences from the sample about a population (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). Non-probability sampling does not know the chance or probability of each case being selected (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016) and therefore has no sample frame. A method of this is convenience sampling. This was chosen due to the individuals’ proximity to the researcher, their convenient accessibility and the individuals’ willingness to participate in the research study. However, there are limitations due to the nature of this ‘accidental sampling’, therefore the researcher exerts no control over who falls into the sample and resulting in no method of knowing to what extent the information received or opinions expressed do or do not reflect the total population (Davies and Hughes, 2014). As a result of this, there is no way of knowing to what extent the sample is biased (Davies and Hughes, 2014). The sample size consisted of 40 participants, both male and female. Subjects chosen to participate in this research study had to meet the following specific criteria: (i) Must be between the ages of 18-29 years. This age range was chosen due to consumers of this age being more influenced by a celebrity endorsement, discussed in the literature review; (ii) Must have purchased a product from the list of fast-fashion companies provided in the literature review within the last year.

**Techniques and Procedures**

Questionnaires were administered through Google Forms, considering the speed and ease of its distribution. A questionnaire is a type of survey research instrument consisting of a series of questions for the purpose of gathering information from respondents (McLeod, 2018). The questionnaire used the Likert scale to measure the attitudes of the respondents. Questionnaires were chosen due to the fact they allow more control over the research process and the generating of findings that are statistically representative of the whole population at a much lower costs than collecting data from the whole population (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). Questionnaires help to ensure a high response rate and anonymity; there is no face-to-face interaction between the respondent and the researcher, assisting the likelihood of achieving accurate information (Kumar, 2014). However, there are some limitations, mainly the lack of validity and accuracy (Grove, Burns and Gray, 2012,) as a result of respondents not presenting their true feelings and attitudes. Other limitations include the lack of wide-ranging data collected compared to other research instruments due
to the limit on the amount of questions asked (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). Despite high efforts of ensuring the questionnaire is clear and comprehensible, if respondents do not understand a question or statement there is no opportunity for its clarification (Kumar, 2014).

**Data analysis method**

Once the data was collected it was analysed through descriptive analysis and later through inferential statistics using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) in order to quantify any emerging relationships between variables. Tests conducted were an Independent Samples Test and ANOVA in order to identify the significant difference between groups such as gender and age.

**Ethical considerations**

Subject’s consent, defined as the prospective subject’s agreement to participate voluntarily in a study, which is reached after assimilation of essential information about the study (Grove, Burns and Gray, 2012), was acquired in order to conduct this research. The questionnaire’s consent form informed the participants of their right to accept or decline to participate and offered them the opportunity to withdraw. The researcher’s supervisor validated the questionnaire and it was pretested out on three volunteer participants in order to identify any flaws or lack of understanding from participants. It is necessary to determine whether questions and directions are clear to subjects and whether they understand what is required from them (Polit and Hungler, 1995).

**Discussion and evaluation**

The following section presents the data collected through graphs, tables, and figures. A total of 40 questionnaires were distributed and collected. However, 8 participants did not follow the requirements needed for this particular study and were therefore excluded from the data. The total number of participants is 32. The questionnaires were designed to ask respondents to indicate their attitudes using the Likert scale. 1 identified as strongly agree, 2 agree, 3 neither agree nor disagree, 4 disagree and 5 strongly disagree.

**Demographics of respondents**

Gender distribution of respondents: Figure 3 identifies the majority of respondents to be female. Age distribution of respondents: Figure 4 identifies the highest percentage of respondents is within the age bracket of 22-25, totalling 53.1% of the respondents. Most frequently shopped at fast-fashion brands. Figure 5 identifies 50% of respondents most frequently shop at Zara.

This data presents the majority of participants shop at Zara. This is an interesting find due to the fact Zara is one of the only fast-fashion brands that do not invest in celebrity endorsements, models or collaborations as discussed in the literature review. This would suggest fast-fashion brands do not need to invest in a celebrity endorsement in order to broaden brand awareness, there are other methods in doing so such as having a near-perfect supply chain, as Zara do.

**Why do you shop fast-fashion?**

A theme derived from the data suggested the respondents purchase fast-fashion products primarily for its affordability and on-trend merchandise, rather than for the quality or the celebrity-driven trends. Respondents were asked to state how strongly they agree or disagree with the statement ‘I shop fast-fashion due to the affordability’. The results show 75.1% of participants agree and strongly agree with the statement (see figure 6). This supports previous findings due to the fact fast-fashion is a form of offering the mid-marketing consumer affordable apparel based on current luxury fashion trends. Therefore, the affordability of fast-fashion products is expected to be a key reason, if not the primary reason, to why consumers shop fast-fashion.
Respondents were asked to state whether they agree or disagree with the statement ‘I shop fast-fashion due to the on-trend merchandise.’ Results (see figure 7) show 68.8% of the participants agreed and strongly agreed with the statement, supported by a mean of 2.19.

There is a difference in the means of men and women (see Table 1). Female participants had a mean of 1.85 and male participants had a mean of 2.75. This suggests female participants on average agreed with the statement, whilst male participants neither agreed nor disagreed.

An Independent Samples Test identified a significant difference of 0.006. This data corresponds with previous research suggesting female consumers demand constant newness more than male consumers, with 71% opting to shop at retailers that sell frequently updated ranges (Mintel, 2017). According to a study conducted by OnePoll in 2018, 64% of men claim they do not care if someone said they’re style was out of fashion. Respondents were asked to state whether they agree or disagree with the statement ‘I shop fast-fashion due to the quality of their products’. Figure 8 demonstrates 68.7% of participants disagree and strongly disagreed with the statement, supported by a mean of 3.72. Fast-fashion is commonly associated with poor quality due to the ways manufacturing costs (the industry’s biggest expense) are cut (Celikian, 2017) resulting in the cheap constructions of their clothes (Cline, 2016).
The quality of the products is poor, and consumers are aware of this. A study conducted by Cotton Incorporated Lifestyle Monitor in 2012 shows 44% of customers believe the quality of apparel has decreased and do not seem to last as long as they used to. This study suggested consumers are willing to pay more for their apparel if it ensures better quality (WWD, 2012). Fast-fashion is notorious for looking faded and dated in a handful of wears (Cline, 2016) therefore consumers are not expected to invest in this apparel for quality purposes. Respondents were asked to state how strongly they agree or disagree with the statement ‘The reason I shop fast-fashion is due to their celebrity-driven trends’.

The data identified a mean of 3.34. This suggests the participants on average neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. This indicates that celebrity-driven trends do not directly impact the purchasing decision. This theory is supported through previous literature suggesting although a celebrity endorsement may influence a purchasing decision, there are more dominating factors such as corporate credibility (Phang and Cyril de Run, 2007), the business’ ethical practices and the quality of the product (Sokolovska, 2016). There is a difference between the mean values for men and women (see Table 3).

**Difference between male and female attitudes towards celebrity endorsements**

A theme derived from the data collected suggested male respondents had different attitudes towards celebrity endorsed products and celebrity driven-trends, than female respondents. Respondents were asked to state how strongly they agree or disagree with the statement ‘I like to see a brand/product advertisement with a celebrity in it’ (see figure 10).

There is a difference in the means of men and women (see Table 2). The mean for female respondents is 2.65, suggesting on average they neither agree nor disagree with the statement. However, male participants demonstrate a mean of 3.50, suggesting they disagree. An Independent Samples Test demonstrates there is a significant difference of 0.046. Results from the statement ‘The reason I shop fast-fashion is due to their celebrity-driven trends’ in Figure 9. There is a difference in the means between male and female participants (see Table 3). Male participants had a mean of 4.0, suggesting they disagree with the statement. Female participants had a mean of 2.95, suggesting they neither agree nor disagree with.
This data supports previous findings suggesting females exhibit more positive attitude towards celebrity endorsements and are impacted more by celebrity-endorsed advertisements compared to male respondents (Soni, 2016). Some studies suggest men do not pay as much attention to advertisements as much as women do (Mintel, 2016), therefore asking male respondents about their attitudes towards ads with a celebrity in it may not be a dependable source and therefore limiting to this research study.

Factors affecting the purchasing decision

A theme derived from the data suggested that although a celebrity endorsement influenced the respondents purchasing decision, there are other factors taken into consideration, such as brand image/reputation and the ethical practices of the organisation. Respondents were asked how strongly they agreed or disagreed with the statement ‘The celebrity’s reputation strongly affects my purchasing decision’. 71.9% of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement (see Figure 11), supported by a mean of 2.41. This data supports previous research findings suggesting the celebrity reputation is an essential factor in the success of the endorsement and is therefore classified as a high-risk element of the endorsement. If the reputation of the celebrity were to be damaged due to a scandal, the endorsed brand is likely to take on the same negative attributes as well as the celebrity.

Figure 11

In conjunction with the common association between fast-fashion and celebrities, supported by findings discussed in the literature review, the celebrity’s reputation and ensuring the celebrity represents the same positive attributes of the brand is an essential factor in ensuring a successful endorsement. Respondents were asked to state how strongly they agree or disagree with the statement ‘I am likely to purchase a product solely because a celebrity promotes it’. 71.9% of participants disagree and strongly disagree with the statement (see Figure 12).
There is a difference in the mean values between male and female participants (see Table 4). However, an Independent Samples Test established there is no significant difference between them.

**Table 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The respondent is likely to purchase a product solely because a celebrity promotes it.</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>1.165</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This suggests that although a celebrity endorsement does have some impact on the purchasing decision, it is not a dominating factor affecting the purchasing decision. Respondents were asked to state how strongly they agree or disagree with the statement ‘A company’s brand image and reputation strongly affects my purchasing decision’ (see Figure 13). The data identified a mean of 2.13, suggesting on average the participants agree with the statement. This supports a previous study conducted by Havas (2015) suggesting a consumer is willing to spend more money on a meaningful brand. The study also identified the brands considered meaningful enjoyed increased sales, better brand awareness and higher annual returns than other companies (Meaningful-brands.com, 2018).

Respondents were asked to state how strongly they agree or disagree with the statement ‘I like to invest in brand that promote good ethical practices’. The results are presented in Figure 14. The data demonstrated a mean of 2.41, suggesting on average participants agree with the statement. This supports previous research findings, suggesting despite not being the most dominant factor affecting purchasing habits, ethical practices are an increasing concern for consumers of the fashion industry in the UK (Morgan Stanley, 2016). There is a difference between the mean values of male and female respondents. However, an Independent Samples Test presented no significant difference between them.
This does not support previous research findings, conducted in 2016, suggesting women are more concerned with an organisation’s ethical practices than men. It is possible that within the last two years men have also become more concerned with an organisation’s ethical practices, consequently affects their buying behaviour.

**Difference between age ranges**

A theme derived from the data analysis presented a significant difference between the ages of the respondents and their attitudes towards the statement 'I do not purchase celebrity promoted products because the celebrity is being paid to promote that product'. The results (see Figure 15) analysed a mean of 3.38, suggesting on average the participants neither agreed nor disagreed. There is a significant difference of 0.006 between the respondents (see Table 5).

This data suggests the celebrity’s payment does not affect their purchasing decision and therefore does not reduce believability. This is supported by previous research findings, suggesting a celebrity endorser could lead to higher believability, a more favourable evaluation of the product and a significantly higher advantage to purchase (Phang and Cyril de Run, 2007; Friedman and Friedman, 1979).

An ANOVA test demonstrated a significant difference of 0.01 between the age groups of 18-21 and 22-25. This may be an interesting area for further research to be conducted in order to identify the difference in attitude towards celebrity endorsements between these age groups. A potential explanation may those who are of the younger age range (18-21) may have less disposable income and earn less money (Elliot, 2016) than those aged between 22-25. Therefore, they are more inclined to purchase cheaper products from fast-fashion companies regardless how they feel towards a celebrity endorsement and brand image. Another potential explanation may be millennials are more interested in personal values and morals than other generations (Freidlin, 2018).
Conclusions

The data demonstrated key themes that offer an insight into the role of a celebrity endorsement in the fast-fashion industry in the UK. Firstly, male and female consumers have different attitudes towards the celebrity endorsed products and advertisements. Female consumers display more interest in celebrity trends and fashion-forward merchandise than males do. This could be an interesting area to conduct further research, in order to understand why celebrities influence women more than men and a recommendation to fast-fashion brands to endorse celebrities that influence men as well as women, consequently increasing market share. Despite a difference in opinions on celebrity-driven trends, both genders demonstrate equal interest on an organization’s brand image and its ethical practices. The Millennial generation is becoming increasingly more concerned with sustainability, corporate social responsibility and the ethical implications of business practices in today’s globalized economy (Freidlin, 2017). For this reason, it is recommended for fast-fashion organizations to take more ethical approach towards their supply chain in order to adhere to the consumer’s ethical concerns. Failing to do so may result in damaging of the brand image and a loss of market share to those brands that are eco-friendly. There’s a big trend in the growth of ecological sensibility (Cline, 2016). According to a study by Nielsen in 2014, consumers stated they are willing to pay more for a product provided by companies that are committed to making a positive environmental impact. It would be recommended for fast-fashion brands to invest more in ethical approach than celebrity endorsements, in order to keep up with the changing demands of the consumer.

In conclusion, a celebrity endorsement is a marketing technique commonly used by companies in the fast-fashion industry in the UK in order to adhere to the demands of a celebrity-crazed consumer. The reputation of the celebrity is an essential factor that must represent the characteristics and attributes of the brand in order for the endorsement to be effective and successful. However, despite the increasing attention from the consumers (more so in females) it is not a dominating factor that consumers take into consideration when making a purchasing decision. Due to the interest in ethical practices, perhaps producing marketing campaigns based around ethical practices and sustainability would have a more definite effect on purchasing behaviour and sales. This would be an interesting area for further research in an industry that receives a lot of criticism due its unsustainable practices.

Limitations to the study

There are a few limitations to this study. Due to the cross-sectional nature of the study (data was collected over a period of 5 days), there was a limit on the number of participants reached. The larger the number of participants, the more accurate the data collected and therefore more representative of the population. Another limitation is the use of questionnaires; they do not provide the in-depth opinions of the participants, therefore limiting the quality of the data collected. Further investigations in this area might consider using in-depth interviews to fully comprehend the attitudes and perspectives of participants on issues explored in this study. The results presented in this paper strongly agree with some insights from the reviewed literature and helped to a large extent to address the research question and aims of the study. A relationship between fast-fashion and celebrity endorsements was established. Celebrity endorsements do have an impact upon female consumer choice of fast-fashion brands in the UK. However, the research did not identify clearly the reasons why? This could be an interesting area for further research to establish why female consumers have different attitudes than men, and what factors influence this opinion and attitude. It is difficult to identify the exact impact due to the numerous factors one must consider that may affect the purchasing decision, such as the brand’s image, reputation and ethical practices, which are interesting areas for further investigation.

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Bridson, Kerrie and Evans, Jody (2004), The secret to a fashion advantage is brand orientation, International journal of retail & distribution management, vol. 32, no. 8, pp. 403-411


Hanbury, M. (2017). Zara is facing a massive threat that could jeopardize the business. [online] Business Insider UK.


Knot, C.L. and James, M.S., (2004). An alternate approach to developing a total celebrity endorses rating model using the analytic hierarchy process. International transactions in operational research, 11(1), pp.87-95.


Mintel. (2015). Brits log off from celebrities and on to bloggers: Less than one in 10 are interested in seeing pictures of celebrities using beauty products. [online]

Morgan Stanley. (2016). Is Ethical Retailing Real?. [online]


Appendices

Appendix 1: mean of ‘the reason I shop fast fashion is due to the affordability’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.100</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 2: mean of ‘the reason I shop fast fashion is due to their on-trend merchandise’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.965</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 3: the mean of ‘the reason I shop fast fashion is due to their celebrity-driven trends’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.234</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 4: the mean of ‘the reason I shop fast fashion is due to the quality of the products’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1.198</td>
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Appendix 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reason the respondent shops fast-fashion is due to their on-trend merchandise.</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td>.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-2.985</td>
<td>27.213</td>
<td>.006</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reason the respondent shops fast-fashion is due to their celebrity-driven trends.</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>2.858</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-2.610</td>
<td>25.776</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 7: source AlphaWise, Morgan Stanley research

**Importance of Key Selection Criteria, 2010 vs. 2016**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good Ethics</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Advertising</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Customer Care</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Environment</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conveniently Located</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Sales, Promotions, Etc.</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fashionable</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirational</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Value for Money</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand for Me</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Quality</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popular</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Appendix 8: source AlphaWise, Morgan Stanley research

**Women Appear to Care More About Ethics Than Men**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat important</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>37.6%</td>
<td>41.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all important</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Appendix 9

Advertising themes that resonate more with younger or older respondents

---

*Nielsen Report – Global Trust in Advertising*
Appendix 10

LFL sales vs. supply chain lead times

![Graph showing supply chain lead times for various companies]

Source: Company data, Goldman Sachs global Investment Research

Appendix 11

Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td>.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-2.985</td>
<td>27.213</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 12

Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>2.858</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-2.610</td>
<td>25.776</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix 13

Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.587</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-2.644</td>
<td>22.013</td>
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</table>
Appendix 14

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: The respondent does not purchase celebrity promoted products because the celebrity is being paid to promote them.

Tukey HSD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) Age group to which the respondent belongs</th>
<th>(J) Age group to which the respondent belongs</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I−J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-21</td>
<td>22-25</td>
<td>-1.275</td>
<td>.403</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>-2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-21</td>
<td>26-29</td>
<td>-.167</td>
<td>.516</td>
<td>.944</td>
<td>-1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-25</td>
<td>18-21</td>
<td>1.275</td>
<td>.403</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-25</td>
<td>26-29</td>
<td>1.108</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-29</td>
<td>18-21</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>.516</td>
<td>.944</td>
<td>-1.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
Charitable Donations and Celebrity Endorsements: An insight from the UK Royal family influence

Eva Korenyi

Introduction

This study provides some background information and interesting insights on advertisement, royal and celebrity endorsement and their influence on consumer decisions for donating. The research aims, and objectives are also presented. The researcher explores how marketing influences people’s donation habit, behaviour and advertisement, including the factors that impact on consumers donation decisions. This project specifically focused on key factors explored in previous research with a view to establishing whether individual’s donation to an endorsed charity is high, including whether credibility, likability and attractiveness have a positive impact on charity donations. This research project aims to investigate the influence Royal family has in shaping consumer’s donating habit in the non-profit organisation in the UK. The main research objectives are to critically analyse behaviour of consumer towards royal endorsement of charity regarding donation; examine if royal endorser’s attractiveness, likability and credibility have an influence on behaviour of people towards donation and what are the most important another factor; assess behaviour of people towards publicity of charity and what is the motive for donation; and evaluate the influence Royal family has in shaping consumers donation habit in the non-profit organisation in the UK.

Literature Review

Charities want to encourage people to donate with their advertisement, sometimes with celebrity, or with royal endorsement. In recent profit maximisation time, charities are concentrating on charitable fundraising as a viable source of funding. This is one of the biggest, fastest growing sector in the UK. There are over 19,315 organisations currently recorded in the Benefacts Database. People are struggling because of the recession in the recent economy, and uncertain environment in the UK, but royals are given extra boost because the charity donation which positively influenced them (The Guardian, 2012). Charities are competing with each other to increase their donation (Euromonitor, 2012). Charities chose royals to advertise because they are highly influential, and people are exposed to these advertisement. Royal endorsement all over the world are becoming very popular to support charity, and this has been proven that royals create positive respond (Byrne et al., 2003).

Charity dinners or even iPhone fundraising apps can help to increase donation as well. The study examines the influences Royal family has in shaping consumer’s donating habit in the non-profit organisation within the UK, including people’s perception about the factors which impact them, and the effect of publicity which help to create a successful strategy for future charity to increase donation. This also helps to understand the relation between factors, and people’s behaviour in making donation decisions. The study analyses the royals support of charity in efforts to influence people’s donation decisions. Previous studies explored this in terms of key factors including likability, creditability or attractiveness of royals in influencing donation habits and decisions in the UK. The study identifies the most important factors for charity’s most effective campaigns to raise donations and how the royals influence people’s donating behaviour. The research interest is on people’s behaviour - what and how their decisions can be changed by influence of different factors and marketing strategies. To this end, the study explores if advertisement campaigns and royal endorsement are influencing the charity sector positively to increase donations.

The study examines whether advertisement, royal endorsement, by “investing” into use them, has positively impacted the charity sector to raise donations. Celebrities have played an important role in advertisement, as suggested in previous research, based on the understanding that they raise attention and add unique value to the charity because of their positive public image and endorsement. Members of the Royal Family support over 3,000 charities including Well Child, Tusk, Action on Addiction, the Art Room, and the Kent County Agricultural Society (royal.uk, 2017). The Eglantyne Jebb’s charity (Save the children) ads made the advertisement history with Dr Thomas Barnardo charity, with parents of charity ads which attracts attention from websites, newspapers or TV screens. Both of them found ways of good communication techniques that charities adapted and use successfully. Jebb was the one who realised the importance of publicity in The Times, which first raised four hundred thousand pound for “Save the children “, and now worth eight million pound. That persuaded others like Thomas Hardy, George Bernard Shaw to support charity (campaign live, 2017). The research about the relationship between effectiveness of charity celebrity endorser and their attribute (Wheeler, 2002, 2009) is a limited area (Illici, Baxter, 2014). Consumer’s later behaviour (Kim and Cha, 2016) are impacted by attributes including the action of other people (Sjovall and Talk, 2004). The type of donation (Kang, 2004), the duration of charitable donation (Yoon and Cho, 2007), and the celebrity’s reputation (Bae and Cameron, 2006) are critical factors. Several previous studies (Hwang, 2012; Khedher 2013, Motion, 1999; Whitfield 2012) tried to find the connection between the influence of celebrities on donation of charities and PR (Samman et al., 2009, Wheeler, 2011), because of advertisement recall (Wann-Yin et al., 2012), which caught the attention of many people (Chapman and Leask, 2011).

Charities brand and profile using celebrities or royals and increase loyalty compared to the charities who do not use them (Jasmina and Webster, 2011). Nowadays celebrities are used in the world everywhere, examples include Bono and Friends by The Lazarus Effect, Beyoncé and Michelle Obama by Let’s Move, (looktothestars.org, 2017). Royals and celebrities representing charities create positive response from people (Kambitsis et al., 2002. It is very
important for charities to have a well-known brand image because that huge potential to attract people (Dash, 2007), and for that reason celebrities, especially royals are popularly used in advertising charities in the UK (Ruihley, Runyan and Lear, 2010). Credibility of an endorser is effective as people are often donating more to the associated image of the charity (Chung et al., 2013). Abbot et al., (2001) revealed, that credible celebrity endorsement associate immediately this credibility to the charity which helps to differentiate themselves from other competitors in the charitable sector (Datamonitor, 2011; Peltier, Schibrowsky, and Schultz, 2002; Yoon & Cho, 2007). In past decade celebrity support has increased, which is an effective “advertisement” tactic (Biswas et al., 2009). There is increasing research interest in this area despite the growing body of literature generated in recent years (Belch & Belch, 2007). There are several theories of consumer behaviour, which include brand theory, motivation theories, theories of ethics and CSR. Figure 1 presents the Consumer decision making process model. The model (Bray, 2008) suggests that the consumer needs a stimuli and information in order to trigger their decision-making process taking into account the recognition and acknowledgement of the difference between their current and desirable state (Blackwell et al., 2001).

**Figure 1. The Consumer Decision Model**

![Image of the Consumer Decision Model](source: Bray (2008))

After a need is realised the individual start a search for information including internally, previous experiences, and externally (Bray, 2008). Brands are therefore expected to express a desired image that attracts the consumer (Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2004). Organisation have to develop a competitive brand to meet consumer expectations and needs (Anholt, 2007, Berthon, Holbrook, Hulbert, & Pitt, 2011).

**Methodology**

This section presents the methodology taken in this paper by outlining the philosophical underpinning, data collection methods, sampling considerations, data analysis methods and ethical considerations.

**Philosophical underpinnings**

The philosophical underpinning in this paper is explained based on the Burrell and Morgan (2005) four paradigms (subjectivist-objectivist and the radical-regulation continuums) by drawing and building on the Grant and Perren (2002) model that depicts radical humanist, radical structuralism, interpretivist and functionalist as shown in Figure 2. Burrell and Morgan’s paradigm, subjective and an interpretivist paradigm is used for this study. According to the interpretivist paradigm that a charity is a “socially constructed context” that have to be understood individual experiences (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Quantitative research methodology is used in this research that seeks to explore the influence Royal family has in shaping the consumer’s decision in making donations to charitable organisation in the UK. According to Bryman and Bell (2011) quantitative methodology is more appropriate for theory testing and its advantages including use questionnaire survey to collect data from a large and representative sample resulting in findings that are more generalisable and generating results which can be generalised (Baxter 2008; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008).
Figure 2

THE SOCIOLOGY OF RADICAL CHANGE

'Subjective'

'Radical humanist'

'Radical structuralist'

'Obligatory'

'Interpretive'

'Functionalist'

THE SOCIOLOGY OF REGULATION

(Burrell and Morgan, 2005, Grant and Perren, 2002)

Statistical methods and techniques including software such as SPSS can be employed for analysis of quantitative data. However, the disadvantages include the lack of opportunity to interact with the participants which is one of the strengths of interviews and observation in qualitative methodology (Marschan-Piekkari and Welch, 2006). A total of 200 participants were initially targeted to respond to the distributed questionnaire. However, a total of 50 participants completed and returned the questionnaire. Random sampling was carried out drawing respondents from members of the public and those working in charitable organisations in London (Punch, 2009). Primary data was collected through structured questionnaire, which will be used for the findings of the research. Secondary data was collected from the constant overview of relevant literature sources including internet, document analyses and journal articles and books. Questionnaires are relatively cheap, quick and allows to collect data from a large sample. However, close ended questions can result in limited outcomes (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The respondents can return the questionnaire, when completed immediately. Microsoft excel statistical techniques and SPSS are used to analyse quantitative data from the questionnaire survey. Result from questionnaires is presented in tables, graphs and percentages. Existing theories are constantly used to inform the analysis process of primary data. (Saunders et al., 2003). Participants were asked to voluntarily take part in the research and assured of confidentiality in the analysis and reporting and dissemination of the findings. The participants were also assured that the results would only be used for academic purposes.

Findings and Discussion

This section presents the results and analysis of the findings from the questionnaire using quantitative methods, techniques and tools from Microsoft Excel and SPSS. Reflecting on the research objectives, it is worth recalling that Objective 1 was to critically analyse behaviour of consumer towards royal endorsement of charity regarding donation. Figures 3 and 4 show that 45 participants (88%) are interested in charity and most of them, 41 (85%) are regular donors to charities. However, 9 participants (15%) are not donating (interested about charity, however, do not donate because of financial reasons, 3%). There are almost equal number respondents by gender with Figure 5 showing that 54% were female compared to 46% male (23 male and 27 female). Participants are between 18 to 54 years, and most of them are aged between 18 to 24 years old and 35 to 44 years. The researcher tried to ask equally, from the different social background, and all individuals were from the UK. Figure 6 shows that 46 % of the participants are between the ages of 18-24 years old, 6 % are 25-34, 26% are 35-44, 16% are 45-54, 4 % are 55-64 and 2 % are above 65. Majority of the respondents are young between 18-24 years (Figure 6). Figure 7 shows that most of the participants income is less than £15000 per year. Donation in the UK is important as the pie chart shows above (58%) of the respondents. Perhaps, the recently reported scandals covered in the media notably about some Oxfam officials abroad have influenced those who viewed charities as not very important anymore (Figure 8).

Figure 9 also shows that 14 participants (28 %) are sometimes donate, 7 participants (14 %) rarely and 3 participants (6 %) never, because of their financial situation. 5-14 participants (10-28 %) donate monthly or yearly and 7 participants (14 %) frequently. They are representing the society of the middle and higher end. The responded are donating mostly monthly and sometimes as frequently. This suggests that in difficult economic times fewer people can afford to donate weekly. Fewer respondents never donated, which could be connected to their poor social, financial circumstances. Figure 9 also shows that 47 participants (94 %) would donate after a period. However, 3 participants (6%) would not donate after a period (Bae & Cameron, 2006; Yoon & Cho, 2007; Kang 2004).
Figure 3. Are you interested in charity?

- Yes: 88%
- No: 12%

Figure 4. Do you donate?

- Yes: 85%
- No: 15%

Figure 5. Gender of participants

- Male: 54%
- Female: 46%
Figure 6: Age range by gender (Q2)

Figure 7: Income of respondents (Q3)

Figure 8: Importance of donation (Q7)

Figure 10 shows that most of the respondents have been donating to charities for more than 5 years. Targeted communications result in long-term positive impact which is very important for survival in the charity sector.
Figure 10. How long have you been donating for a charity?

Figure 11: Reasons for Charity donation (Q13)

Figure shows that 9 participant donate to charity to feel good, 33 participant would like to help to people in needs and 5 participant would like to be respected through their donation. 4 participant not interested at all. They are just donating whenever they can. Respondents added that they would donate just to make them feel good (Figure 11) (Orlando, 2005; Kim & Cha 2016)). This question shows surprisingly men tends to help other people in need, more as the women. Women donate more to feel good and make the world better (Figure 11). This means that in advertisement in case of higher women customers need different, more emotional advertisement compared to responses from men. Man need more facts to express the need of other countries people.
The results also suggest that very few respondents were interested in following what royals do (Figure 11). None of them felt that donating to a royal endorsed charity made them feel closely connected to the organisation. The results also show that 14 participants were donating to a charity monthly because of their habit and feel good factor, whereas 7 respondents would not donate or rarely. This is again connected with the low income of the respondents (Figure 7, 9). Figure 12 shows clearly that people prefer endorsed charities, especially if the charity is small. Charities, as any other big company have to consider risks in their (bbc.co.uk, 2018). I will examine by t-test analysis later on if there are statistical difference or by chance.

![Figure 12. Likely to donate to charity endorsed than non endorsed by celebrities](image)

**Figure 12. Likely to donate to charity endorsed than non endorsed by celebrities**

**Figure 13: I am more likely to donate to charity endorsed by royals as non-celebrity (Q15c)**

![Figure 13: I am more likely to donate to charity endorsed by royals as non-celebrity (Q15c)](image)

It shows clearly that people accept more royals (10%) as an endorser as celebrities (2%) and would donate. Just 8 % of the respondents are strongly disagree (royal endorsement) compared with celebrity endorsement (50% strongly disagree). According to Solomon et al, (2002), people would donate because they are influenced by celebrities (Biswas et al., 2009).
Figure 14: Likely to donate to non-endorsed charity. (Q16c)

This results however show that non-endorsed charity campaign become more accepted as endorsed in the last period. Perhaps the Oxfam scandals reported recently contributed in changing people’s thinking about charitable organisation and donations generally. Despite this, almost half of the respondents (46%) still agree about charity campaigns (Figure 12) and the important role they play in supporting specific needs of humanity in the UK and around the world. The Figures show that participants agree that royals have some influence on the donation of the people in some cases (Figure 10, 11). However, the results suggest divided views especially after the charity scandals, therefore non-endorsed charity become more accepted (22%)

Objective 2. To critically examine if royal endorser’s attractiveness, likability and credibility have an influence (on behaviour of people towards donation and what are the most important factor.

As can be seen from the results (Figure 14), passionate, credibility of the endorsers are highly influential (especially by men) (Figure 15), less neutral by the people, if it comes to donation compared to familiarity which is doesn’t make a difference (Figure 16). However overall all feature becomes unimportant (neutral) (Figure 15), especially in the wake of the Oxfam and other charity scandals.

Figure 15: Credibility of celebrity, royal influence by donation decision. (Q19a).

The results show that the majority, (18 participants) are agree that creditability of the Royals is the most important, whereas 1 participant answered that attractiveness is the most important for them when it comes to their donation. 27 participants were not influenced by the royals. Other reasons attract their donation intention (Belch & Belch, 2007). The younger generation feel that credibility of the endorser is the most important or they are not really interested about the features of the endorsers, and this follows likability.
Attractiveness seems to be important by the middle age generation. This shows that by the marketing campaign the charity by this age group have to use different endorsers as by the older or younger generation. For older generation these features are also become unimportant. Credibility of the celebrity’s message can improve the persuasiveness, and raising people’s donation intention (Biswas et al., 2009). Royalty's likeability positively influences people, however more neutral compared to credibility (Figure 16) (Hendrix, 2008). Royal's attractiveness can influence some individual. An attractive celebrity is perceived to have more positive qualities. The royal’s attractiveness positively influences the individuals to donate. Despite the low result (Figure 17) by this research, most of the previous literature found that attractiveness is an important factor of a celebrity to be effective (Shimp, 2003).

Objective 3, To critically assess behaviour of people towards publicity of charity and what is the motive for donation.

Figure 16 shows advertisement is a common and raising tool (38%) for charities to use, get attention. Figure 18 shows clearly that charity needs publicity to help people to collect information and to give inspiration for them to decide whom to donate. Figure 19 shows that less educated people prefer more non-celebrity advertisement or maybe celebrities. As people with profession like royalty endorsed and non-celebrity advertisement equally. Figure 18 shows that participants have some impact on their donation habit (7 respondent, 14%) by some more royals as celebrity endorsed charity (12%) (almost equal) whereas 34 participants (68%) are not willing to donate more to charity endorsed (negative views). However, a royal endorsed charity was perceived as high performance (expert opinions). People are using more television and internet as a source or in some cases WOM. Magazines and radio nowadays have less importance as earlier (Figure 19). The younger generation (19 respondent) prefer more brand image as older generation (Figure 20).
Figure 18 shows clearly that younger generation is influenced by brands which are endorsed by celebrities or royals. They are more recognized brands through celebrities compared to middle aged generation (35-54 years, 5-8% strongly disagree).

Figure 18: How frequently do you come across advertisement featuring royals? (Q10)

Figure 19: Advertisement of charity (Q20)

Figure 20. Which medium is the most effective (Q21)
Figure 21 shows that 19 respondents (38%) are would be influenced by donation (not donate) through negative publicity whereas surprisingly 20 respondents (40%) are willing to donate even if the negative publicity, reputation of the charity is negative and 11 respondents are neutral in this question. Just 12% of the respondent strongly agree that negative publicity influence their donation. Most of them do not think that help by donation, which is difference from the literature, previous experiences. However, Prince Harry in King’s College London this year warned military charities to drop publicity battles and put veterans first (telegraph.co.uk, 2018), which is based on public view that military charities must stop competing for the publicity and profile. They have to put the health of veterans above their “individual brand” (telegraph, 2018). Figure 22 shows that 20 participants (41%) willing to recommend a charity endorsed by Royals whereas 30 participants (59%) are not wanting to recommend. This support the theory that royals have not have huge impact but influence some of their donation. This shows that word-of-mouth (WOM) is not very important in case of royals compared to celebrities. This does not seem to support the theory advanced by Keller & Libai (2009) (significant correlation between WOM and people behaviour). For participants not important WOM from friend about an endorser (Figure 22). WOM is important for 20 participants, especially if somebody is a fan of the royals.

Figure 21: Brand image is important for you? (Q14)

Figure 22: The presence of celebrity or royals help to recognize the brand. (Q15a)
Objective 4: To evaluate the influence Royal family has in shaping consumers donation habit in the non-profit organisation in the UK.

Figure 25 shows that equally 5 respondents (10%) declared very or just influential and 23 respondents (46%) declared somewhat importance of the charity to use royals by advertisement, media and charity events. Just 17 respondents (34%) are not impressed by royals (Figure 24). It shows that Royals have some influence on people but not dominant.

It can be seen from the result that the aim of the charity is the most famous (32 respond scale 9). It followed by type of donation (6 scored 9), habits (7 scored 9) and country of aid (5 scored 9), WOM (3 scored 6 and 11 scored 4), reputation of the charity (10 scored 8) (especially nowadays) is also important. Advertisement, amount of money and celebrity
endorsement are behind (scored mostly 1 and 2). In the future charities will see a donation boost during advertisement of the aim of the charity maybe through charity events. Figure 26 shows that female are more influenced to donate as men, and celebrities and royals do not motivate too much to donate. The main reason to donate is the aim of the charity. Figure 26, 27 shows that 32 participants donate because of the aim of charity. 5 participants donate because of the country of aid to donate. 6 participants are donating because of the type of donation. Media, advertisements have almost no impact on individuals which often used by the Royals nowadays (2 respondent scored 8). Royals, celebrity (3 respondent scored 5) and WOM (3 respondent scored 6) showed as not the main factor by motivation, and they are just donating when they can, (Brooks & Wilson (2007), responses to help others, all other things being equal).

Royal’s presence did help by donation (according 12% of the respondents). It is also important that they give a meaning, have a connection to the charity for the success of the campaign (Figure 28).
Royals’ credibility is the most important factor to increase donation but royal endorsement by charity events can also help (Figure 13, 14, 15). The impact of royals is slightly more important compared to celebrities (Figure 18). Surprisingly, WOM was considered unimportant regarding their donation decision (Figure 23, 25, 26). Most of the participants are donating and interested in the work of charities. Some participants cannot donate just because of their financial situation. The results suggest that a good number of respondents were donating frequently to the same charity (Figure 7, 8). For most of the participants it is not important who advertise a charity, but the type of the donation and aim of the charity is more important for them (Figure 25, 26). They bring awareness to needs of people which raise the profile and credibility of the charity (Figure 13, 17). Some respondents’ views suggested that everything royals are representing is something positive (Figure 9, 13). Royals are representing charities that are well-known (good cause) (Figure 18). Royals are deciding regarding charity endorsement (add positive value) therefore they are more credible and positive compared to celebrity (charity choice and help to collect information and give inspiration (Chung et al., 2013) Royal endorsers are exist a while, compared to celebrity, and therefore have had develop credibility, communications and name recognition.

Independent Samples Test

The excel analysis showed that there are differences between men and women (Q1) in terms of decisions to donate to charity endorsed by celebrity in question 12 and 13. Therefore t-test (Q1 and Q15b) is applied to establish if there are statistical difference or it is just by chance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>What is your gender?</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am more likely to donate to charity that have been endorsed by celebrities than non-celebrity endorsements</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.6957</td>
<td>1.32921</td>
<td>.27716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4.2222</td>
<td>.97402</td>
<td>.18745</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"Mean" shows that there are difference between women and men donation to charity endorsed by royals. Female (average 4.222) are more likely to donate to endorsed charity compared to men (average 3.695).

Independent Samples Test

Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am more likely to donate to charity that have been endorsed by royals or celebrities than non-celebrity endorsements</th>
<th>Equal variances assumed</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>5.674</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>1.613</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>-.52657</td>
<td>.32646</td>
<td>-.18296</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Equal variances assumed and not assumed
Sig. is 0.123 (equal variances are not assumed), higher as 0.05 which means that not reject the Null Hypotheses which means that there is no statistical difference between “Means” numbers, groups (women and man) to donate to endorsed charity, just by chance are the people selected.

2. Excel analysis proved that credibility is the most important feature of the endorser. For that reason, credibility of a celebrity is further analysed using $t$-test (Q1-18a).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consider credibility of celebrity by donation decision to charity</td>
<td>&quot;Male&quot;</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.9565</td>
<td>1.22394</td>
<td>.25521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Female&quot;</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2.9259</td>
<td>.99715</td>
<td>.19190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are some different between female (2.9259) and male (2.9565) including how they think about credibility of celebrity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consider credibility of celebrity by donation decision to charity</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sig. 0.923 is higher than 0.05 which means that there is no statistical difference just by chance but by Group Statistics, “mean”. This means that the null hypotheses cannot be rejected, no difference between male and female consider credibility of celebrity by donation decision to charity, just because its by chance.

ANOVA:
1. I would like to know, if there are difference between young age (18-24), middle age (25-34, 35-44) and older age (45-54, 55-64) influence on donation by recognise brand through royals endorsement (Q2-15a).

Q2-15a

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANOVA</th>
<th>Celebrity support recognize brand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>19.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>66.477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>85.780</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is statistical difference between the groups who agree or disagree about celebrity support a brand to recognise. Younger generation prefer more brands through endorsed by celebrity. The Sig. is above 0.05 therefore the difference between the groups to recognize brans through celebrity. There are difference between young age (18-24), middle age (25-34, 35-44) and older age (45-54, 55-64) influence on donation by royals (Q2-15c) is just by chance.
Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Celebrity support recognize brand

Tukey HSD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) Age group</th>
<th>(J) Age group</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>&quot;18-24&quot;</td>
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<td>.994</td>
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</table>

2. I would like to see, if there are statistical difference between age groups regarding donation by endorsed charity.

ANOVA

Likely to donate to royalty endorsed charity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>Within Groups</td>
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<td>45</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54.320</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is difference between age groups to donate to royalty endorsed charity.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Likely to donate to royalty endorsed charity

Tukey HSD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) Age group</th>
<th>(J) Age group</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>.70124</td>
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The Sig is above 0.05 by every groups which means that there is no difference between the age groups regarding likely to donate to charity endorsed by royals. Just by chance. This shows that marketing communicate must not be differently to one group than the other.
Conclusions

Royal’s endorsement will not impact significantly individuals for more donation, unimportant endorsement, but influence them positively. Participants expressed that more important to them is the purpose and reputation of the charity, specific needs of people and therefore willing to help them because it gives them a good feeling. Some respondents are supporting the work of charitable organisations but cannot donate because of their financial situation. The results suggest that donation is important or very important for many people (UK’s charity culture) and think that advertisement inspire them and help to collect information. Likability and creditability are also important factors. Participants are grateful to donate after a period. However, if the reputation of the charity is negative, some of them would not donate. The results also reveal that the reputation of a charity is one of the most important factor which influence their donation decisions across every demographic groups especially nowadays. Other factors are also important in the charitable contribution decision such as name awareness and advertisement. The researcher found a significant, positive relationship between advertisement, reputation, charity awareness, brand equity connected to decisions for donations. The results show that royal endorsement is perceived better in some cases than non-celebrity endorsed charity, which means that name awareness would increase further donation. The results of this study shows that media communications and the use of royal endorsement is a good strategy to increase donations nowadays. Charities have to use different media (social media) to raise awareness of a charity (Facebook and Twitter), which have a huge audience (WOM advertising). Targeted communication has a long-term impact, and the results of the research could be used to find out if other cultures have different opinions about factors and Royal endorsers. Expanding the research into a different market would present opportunities to explore if these factors are equally important across the different markets. Charities must advertise their activity not just on their websites but also on other social media platforms including Facebook, Twitter, Pinterest and Instagram, as well as widely read magazines and billboards to increase the donation to charity causes. Charity events can also help to boost publicity and promote public donation culture in the United Kingdom.


The rise of the vegetarian consumer: An exploration of factors influencing a vegetarian consumers behavioural intentions

Aparna Jani

In recent years there has been a rising trend towards alternative diets. Vegetarian diets, in particular have gained significant traction. As a result of this change, consumer behaviour in terms of attitudes and preferences towards vegetarian products has evolved, with the vegetarian food market growing in line with this upsurge. Supermarkets have adapted and increased vegetarian products and while some restaurants have begun to make changes to their menus, other more traditional (Chain) have limited offerings that cater for the needs of its vegetarian consumers and are thus behind the curve on the vegetarian consumer behaviour changes in this market. This study investigated the factors that influence a vegetarian consumers intention towards eating a vegetarian meal at a popular chain restaurant using a developed Theory of Planned Behaviour model as base theoretical consumer behaviour framework. The study adopted a deductive approach to test the TPB and used a survey method which consisted of 70 (Lacto-Ovo and Vegan) vegetarian participants. A statistical analysis of Mean/Mode/Median and Chi Square tests was performed. The results showed that the TPB was a valid model to test factors relating to intentional behaviour and the key factors of intention were health and animal welfare. Additionally, the external factor of choice also strongly affected intentional behaviour to eat a vegetarian meal. The influence of friends and family or gender had no significance on intention. These results were used to support recommendations to chain restaurants on the preferences of their consumers and marketing implications of adopting these recommendations.

Acknowledgements
I would like to thank everybody who guided, supported and participated in this research. Special thanks go to my supervisor, Dr Nisreen Ameen who was professional, patient and highly dedicated in providing valuable hours in her support towards my research and her faculty colleagues Dr Nnamdi Madichie and Chris Munro for their guidance and tutorials also on the initial research proposal and statistical analysis respectively.

Introduction
According to a recent MINTEL food market report, the UK is seeing an increased trend towards food diets that are geared towards less consumption of meat. Almost 30% of British Meat eaters have reduced meat consumption in the last 6 months (MINTEL, 2018) and this trend is set to continue (Tang & Mousel, 2016). The report also aligns with conclusions from another research study conducted by the Kantar World panel who concluded that 25% of dinners in the UK contained no meat or fish and that sales of vegetarian meals are seeing a year on year growth. (BBC News, 2018). It is important to note also that this trend is not purely limited to Britain. In America, almost 32% of Americans practice ‘Meat Free’ days and are moving away from eating meat (& Diary) in favour of ‘Plant Based’ Diets (Walsh, 2013) (Baum + Whiteman, 2018) and in Belgium, the city of Ghent has every Thursday as ‘Vegetarian’ (Cheng et al, 2014). Traditional restaurants are now starting to follow this trend in order to remain competitive and offering meat free choices. Examples of such ‘chain’ restaurants are Nando’s and McDonalds (Baum + Whiteman,2018). Consumers are being choosier about what they eat and wanting to stay healthy is one of the main reasons (amongst others) for this (Rana and Paul, 2017). As public awareness increases about food, consumers are changing their diets and being more selective about what they eat. The two main diet choices that are pushing this particular ‘Megatrend’ are ‘Vegetarian’ and ‘Vegan’ (Tang & Mousel, 2016).

According to the UK Vegetarian Society (Established in 1847), although these diets are often referred separately in literature, they fall under an umbrella diet term of ‘Vegetarian’ (Of which Vegetarianism is the practice followed relating to this diet). According to Corrin & Papadopoulos (2016), the most commonly known definition of a vegetarian is ‘One who abstains from eating meat, fish or fowl’. However, the Vegetarian Society notes that there are 4 different types namely:

- Lacto-Ovo. (One who eats both eggs and dairy products).
- Lacto Vegetarians (One who eats dairy product but doesn’t eat eggs)
- Ovo Vegetarian. (One who eats eggs but doesn’t eat dairy products)
- Vegan (One who does not eat dairy products, eggs or any other products that have been derived from animals)

Of the above diets, Lacto-Ovo is the most common and the Vegan diet, in particular has recently surged in popularity (Vegsoc.org, 2018). A recent IPSOS MORI poll showed that in 2016, the number of vegans in the UK increased by more than 360% from the previous decade (Crawford, 2018).

Consumer preferences indicate that this diet trend is set to rise (Gourmet Marketing) and that businesses must therefore be aware of the changes in their industry to ensure they capture the expected surge in demand for food of this diet type. Therefore, it is important to understand more about this particular diet preference, its rising popularity and in particular, how this diet choice impacts consumer behaviour when dining out. From a theoretical perspective, despite the significance of this topic in terms of understanding consumers’ needs and preferences within this context, there is a
lack of academic research that has been conducted in this area. This gap in research has been acknowledged in previous studies (e.g. Rana and Paul, 2017; Tang and Mousel, 2016; Marangon et al., 2015).

Hence, the present research contributes to the existing body of literature by identifying the factors that can influence vegetarian consumers’ intentional behaviour when eating out at a restaurant. One of the most well-known theories in the existing body of literature used in studying consumers’ attitudes and behaviour is the Theory of Planned Behaviour developed by Icek Ajzen (see Ajzen, 2015).

**Research Aim, Question & Objectives**

Although some studies have analysed vegetarian diets in terms of food choices (Marangon et al., 2015; Cheng et al 2014; Kumar and Kapoor 2014), there appears to be a gap in research on consumer behaviour in relation to how these affect intentional behaviours when deciding to eat out at popular restaurants. This could be an issue for chain restaurants that gear predominantly for those who eat meat and the purpose of this study is to build on current research and add fresh insight to the topic. Consumer aspirations for living healthier lifestyles are creating a traction for demand in vegetarian products. New and creative businesses are ‘popping’ up to meet this demand, for example vegan vending machines (Guardian). Investment in this market has seen an increase (Guardian). However, there is a food industry divide on capturing opportunities for this growing market. Supermarkets are increasing their shelf spaces for these products (MINTEL, 2018). However there has been (So far) little creativity or alternation to traditional chain restaurant menus. Such restaurants may be potentially ‘Behind the curve’ on the phenomena and as a result could be losing market opportunities for the vegetarian consumer, it would therefore be particularly useful for such chain restaurant businesses (& research companies) to better understand consumer behaviour in relationship to the motivations and preferences of the vegetarian consumer. Given there are several chain restaurant establishments in the UK, the study focuses on one particular chain restaurant, Nando’s.

The choice of Nando’s is due to two main reasons, First, Nando’s is one of the leading top ten casual dining chain restaurants in the UK by revenue – See Appendix A (Statista.com) Secondly, although it does have vegetarian products on its menu, they are limited as the restaurant is a known chicken establishment and is popular for this reason. Thirdly, it recently dropped a popular vegetarian burger from its menu but added two new vegetarian choices (Nando’s 2018). This study will be useful for any other chain restaurant that wishes to learn more on this topic for strategic marketing purposes. The aim of the study is to identify the factors that influence a vegetarian’s consumers choice of eating at Nando’s (Chicken restaurant) UK. Thus, the research answers the following question; ‘What are the main factors that can affect a vegetarian consumer’ behavioural intention towards choosing Nando’s restaurant when eating out in the UK’. The Vegetarian society notes that there are four distinct types of diets that sit under the ‘Vegetarian’ banner. (Vegsoc.org, 2018). The main reason for selecting these two types is that Lacto-Ovo is the most common type and Vegan has seen the greatest rise in recent years. The study objectives are as follows;

- To identify the main factors affecting a Lacto-Ovo and 'Vegan (Vegetarian) consumers' intention towards choosing ‘Nando’s’ restaurant when eating out.
- To test the applicability of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) within the context of Lacto-Ovo and Vegan (Vegetarian) consumers intention towards choosing Nando’s restaurant when eating out.
- To provide recommendations to predominantly ‘meat eating’ chain restaurants in the UK on the preferences of their Lacto-Ovo and Vegan (Vegetarian) consumers.

**Literature Review**

The review covers previous research that is relevant to the (Broad) study of vegetarian consumers and covers three main areas that are relevant to this research paper - namely the key market drivers and consumer behaviour (Theoretical) approaches and models. Additionally, a conceptual model (Based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour) is introduced and includes 6 hypotheses. The literature search table in Appendix B provides examples of previous studies within the context of consumer behaviour and vegetarian food which links to the context of this research. The table also provides the purpose, findings and the theories used in these studies, in addition to the implications related to the study. Based on the analysis of the existing literature, it can be concluded that there is a gap in research in terms of the area identifying the main factors that can affect a vegetarian consumers behavioural intention towards choosing a (Chain) restaurant that caters predominantly for meat eaters in the UK.

**The Vegetarian Food Market and Key Drivers**

A recent surge in the past few years has been seen in vegetarian diets and related food consumption which is impacting the vegetarian food market and restaurant trade (BBC News, 2018). A survey conducted by MINTEL reported that the vegetarian food market grew from £333million (1996) to £786million (2013) (The Independent, 2018). Furthermore a 2017 Kantar World panel survey of 30k UK households reflected an annual growth in vegetarian meals from 26.9% to 27.8% (From 2014 to 2016) and increased sales of meat free ready meals of 15% (January 2017 versus January 2018) (BBC News, 2018). Some businesses are adapting and also benefitting from this trend. For example, Meat free substitute companies such as Quorn Foods saw a global rise in sales of 16% in 2017 (BBC News, 2018). The hospitality sector has also noted the rising demand for meat free choices and increased 'Mega-trend' towards plant-based foods (Baum and Whitelam, 2018) and is starting to take advantage of this trend. For example, established restaurants have increased the number of meat free options on their existing menus (The Independent, 2018). However, according to The Vegetarian Resource Group (VRG), business competition in this market is high and getting the right (Vegetarian) product that meets customer preferences is crucial (Vrg.org, 2018). Of the 4 (Out of 10) leading UK chain restaurants...
in the UK, (McDonalds, Nando’s, Pizza Hut and Wetherspoons). Nando’s (The chicken restaurant) has recently added more vegetarian choices (Which include Vegan options) to its menu (Metro.co.uk, 2018; Nandos.co.uk, 2018). Some consumer studies have researched vegetarian products and /or vegetarian restaurant choice to understand the impact of the rising trend on consumer behaviour. For example, Maragon et al (2015) focussed on consumer research in Italy into Vegan breadsticks and prices and Cheng et al (2014) investigated consumer preferences towards vegetarian restaurants in Taiwan. However, neither these studies (Or others found during the literature search) were conducted in the UK nor did they research specific categories of the two main (And rising) vegetarian categories, Lacto-Ovo or Vegan, in relation to factors that influence their intention to eat in UK chain restaurants (Such as Nando’s). Given that the UK vegetarian food market size is rising and some new restaurants have noted this trend, it is important for established (Traditional meat-eating) chain restaurants to better understand the factors that contribute towards a vegetarian consumers intention to eat a vegetarian meal in such places.

Key Market Drivers and the Importance of a Vegetarian Diet

According to a report published by the World Health Organisation (WHO) in 2015, processed and red meat has carcinogenic features (MINTEL, 2018). This widely publicised report is claimed to have likely contributed to an increased concern about potential cancer risks and subsequent reduced intake of meat from August 2016 to August 2017 (MINTEL, 2018). One study that concurred with the stance on health implications was Cheng et al (2014) who quoted Stahler (2009) in stating that a vegetarian diet (fruit and vegetables) lowers the risk of chronic diseases such as Cancer. Another key driver of an increase in vegetarian diets is its impact on the environment and several studies show that having a vegetarian diet has advantages in terms of its reduction of carbon footprint (Lusk and Norwood 2016; King 2014; Tang and Mousel 2016). The world’s population is expected to reach under ten billion by 2050 and keeping up with the demand for food from an agricultural production perspective is major challenge for the future. Additionally, Meat farming contributes to almost 15% of greenhouse gas emissions (Statistafacts, 2018). Animal welfare is also quoted as key factor for following vegetarian diet (King, 2014, Walsh, 2013). Furthermore, the recent trend to follow a vegetarian diet is being fuelled further through social media by several high-profile celebrities who are endorsing meat free campaigns. For example, ‘Meatless Mondays’ (Paul McCartney). Additionally, famous singers such as Ellie Golding and Jennifer Lopez who follow a vegan diet, appear to be influencing consumers, particularly the younger generation in moving towards a meatless diet (The Independent, 2018; Quinn, 2018). In an IPSOS MORI poll of 10,000 people 42% (Between the ages of 15-34) were vegans (The Vegan Society, 2018).

Consumer Behaviour and Marketing Implications

According to Blackwel et al, (2006), there is no unique individual definition of consumer behaviour as the subject area is broad and made up of a variety of different variables such as group influences, social and economic status and other external (Environmental) factors (Bray, 2008). This complexity has made it challenging for researchers to ascertain one standard meaning however Goodhope (2013) suggests that McNeal’s definition of it being a ‘Process whereby an individual decides as to where, what, when, how and from whom to purchase goods and services’, encompasses its main elements. From a commercial angle, consumer behaviour is highly important for marketers (Dudovskiy, 2018) as it supports companies who wish to understand consumer characteristics that predict buyer behaviour. This type of research can be used for strategic marketing purposes, thus leveraging a company’s ability to gain advantage over its competitors (Dudovskiy, 2018). Therefore, this research focusing on vegetarian consumer’s motives and intentions to eating a meal at Nando’s will provide useful insight on vegetarian consumers which marketers and restaurants can utilise in shaping marketing initiatives and strategies geared towards this group of customers.

Theoretical Approaches to Consumer Behaviour

Consumer Behaviour is a dynamic and complex area (Blackwell et al., 2006) and as such theoretical approaches to its study appeared to be equally as wide and varied as its definition. However, three key approaches were identified on the subject, namely, Economic Man, Psychodynamic and Cognitive and these were analysed for comparative purposes and relevance to this research. Appendix C outlines the principles of each 3 of these theories and their applicability level for this study. Economic Man and Psychodynamic were dismissed given that they had limitations that made them either impractical or unrealistic (Respectively). For example, Economic Man states that consumers are fully aware of all choices available when making decisions and Psychodynamic rejects cognition as a factor of behaviour. Neither of these theories corresponded closely to this research of vegetarian consumers. The approach that was considered most relevant for this research was cognitive as this theory factors elements such as motivation, attitude, perception and thinking as determinants of intentional behaviour and this this theory supported the ability to cover the research aim.

Furthermore, none of the studies shown in the literature search table had applied Economic Man or Psychodynamic approaches but rather the majority had followed cognitive approaches. Examples include King (2014), who examined the relationship between vegetarians and ethical ‘movements’, Thomas (2015), who studied the gender perception of masculinity on eating a vegan diet and Tang & Mousel (2016) who studied plant-based meat and dairy alternatives in Sweden. In conclusion, Consumer behaviour is broad area of research that cannot be easily defined. The 3 theoretical approaches to consumer behaviour analysed and discussed in this paper include Economic Man, Psychodynamic and Cognitive. Given that existing literature found Cognitive approaches to be more realistic (Compared to the other two approaches) particularly and prevalent in food related consumer studies, this research has also followed the same (Cognitive) approach in order to answer the research question. The following section thus discusses the models that are attached to a cognitive approach and includes the conceptual framework with hypothesis used for this research.

Cognitive Models – Background
Two of the most influential and well-known cognitive models widely used in the field of food studies (Tang & Mousel, 2016), are the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) developed by Fishbein in 1975 and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) developed by Azjen in 1985. These models focus on beliefs and attitudes as key determinants of consumer behaviour and are highly popular in the field of empirical research of consumer behaviour (Bray, 2008).

The Theory of Reasoned Action
The Theory of Reasoned Action, (TRA), was developed by Fishbein and Ajzen in 1975 to explain the following two concepts firstly, how a consumer’s behavioural intention is closely related to actual behaviour and secondly how a consumer’s behavioural intention is influenced by a person’s attitude and subjective norm (Figure 1). The more positive these factors, the more likely the consumer would carry out the behaviour (Schiffman et al, 2011).

The TRA states that behaviour is a measurement that is said to be equal to behavioural intention and intention is derived from two factors. Firstly, attitude, which is a person’s personal belief that a particular action will lead to a desired outcome and secondly, Subjective Norm which is person’s perceptions of whether or not the people who are important to them would approve or disapprove of the behaviour, such as family, friends, peers, colleagues. Subjective Norms can be determined by assessing the normative beliefs that the person attributes and whether they would have the motivation to comply with people or person who is important. (Schiffman et al, 2011). Tang and Mousel (2016) used the TRA in their research and concluded that attitude has an influence on intention to buy a certain product. Additionally, this study also concluded that improved health, concern for the environment and concern for animal welfare were attitudinal drivers towards buying meat and dairy alternatives.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour
The theory of planned behaviour is an extension to the TRA and developed by Azjen in 1985 to take into consideration that behaviour is not always within the control of the individual, even though the intention may be strong. ‘Perceived Behavioural Control’ (PBC) was added to the model and ensures that this extra factor is considered. In the same way that constructs of Attitude and Subjective Norms, have two inputs PBC does also. The first being the importance given to that factor that enables the person to carry out the behaviour and secondly, the level to which he or she has access to that factor. Figure 2 shows a visual diagram of the model. Hasbullah et al. (2014) discusses the addition of PBC as a positive factor and quotes Armitage & Connor (2001) Godin & Kok (1996) and Rise et al (1998) in stating that PBC has gained ‘Significant prediction in other studies’. TPB is therefore considered to be better model than TRA due to its considering that fact that when a person does not have perceived control, it may reduce the prediction of intention and behaviour (Hasbullah et al., 2014). The TPB has, however also received debate and some criticism of its 3 main components (SN/PBC and Attitude) in that external factors are not considered (For example, self-identity and past behaviour) however Ajzen is open to adaption of the model and accepted there are potential limitations of the 3 main constructs (Hasbullah et al, 2014; Ajzen, 2015).
Given the fact that the broad principle of this study is to investigate the main factors that can affect a vegetarian consumer’s behavioural intention towards eating a meal at Nando’s, the Theory of Planned Behaviour is deemed as the most appropriate model to use as a base framework for this study as the research question focusses on the cognitive aspect of factors that form intention towards carrying out an action. Furthermore, TPB model has gained significant popularity and use over the last 30 years in understanding consumer behaviour in this regard (Tang and Mousel, 2016; Honkanen et al 2002; Bray 2008) and in food consumption also and is flexible in accommodating extra factors which were considered relevant to this study (Ajzen, 2015).

Conceptual Framework and Hypothesis
Figure 3 shows the conceptual framework which is an extension of the TPB. Based on existing literature on food studies and vegetarian consumer behaviour (Tang and Mousel, 2016; Azjen 2015; Marangon et al 2015), it introduces additional antecedents (Or inputs) to intention (i.e. Choice, Outcome and Gender).
Table 1 – Hypothesis for Conceptual Framework (Extended TPB)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Rationale</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Attitude towards being a vegetarian will have a significant effect on the behavioural intention towards eating a vegetarian meal at Nando’s.</td>
<td>Tang &amp; Mousel (2016) study witnessed that that attitude influences intention to buy a certain product. (Meat and Dairy alternatives)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Subjective Norm will have a significant effect on their intention towards eating a meal at Nando’s.</td>
<td>As above but for SN.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Perceived Behavioural Control will have a significant effect on their intention towards eating a meal at Nando’s.</td>
<td>As above (But for PBC) Hasbullah et al (2014) and Azjen (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Choice of vegetarian meals will have a significant effect on their intention towards eating a meal at Nando’s.</td>
<td>The choice of food, particularly for vegetarians has been well covered in numerous studies including Honkanen et al (2006), Ajzen (2015) Cheng et al (2014), Marangon et al (2015), Kumar et al (2014) and is thus an important variable to add into the model. Formative as part also elicited this belief. (See section 3.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Outcome will have a significant effect on consumers behavioural intention towards eating a vegetarian meal at Nando’s</td>
<td>Outcome is grouped together as 1. The factors broken down are 1. Improved health 2. Supporting Animal cruelty and 3. Maintaining cultural traditions. Studies supporting these outcomes are Rana and Paul (2017) and Cheng et al (2015) for Health, Honkanen et al (2002) for Animal Cruelty and Rana and Paul (2017) for culture and tradition. (See section 3.4 also on formative research)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Gender will have a significant effect on consumers behavioural intention towards eating a vegetarian meal at Nando’s</td>
<td>Azjen (2015) recognised the importance of demographics such as gender as external variables for addition to the TPB model. Thomas (2015), studied gender perception on masculinity towards eating a vegan diet. Tang and Mousel (2015) found gender (Indirectly) influenced intention to buy meat and dairy replacement products.</td>
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Methodology
In order to address the main aim of this study, a developed version of the Theory of Planned Behaviour was used as a framework to identify and test the underlying factors that influence vegetarian consumers intention to eat at Nando’s. The testing and data analysis of the TPB provided the main body of evidence for this research in terms of answering the broad question of what drives a vegetarian consumers intention to eat at Nando’s if the TPB can be applied in this context. The limitations of not including other known vegetarian diet type categories in the survey, were acknowledged by the researcher. However, for reasons of ensuring simplicity and avoiding confusion, only two main vegetarian diet types (Lacto-Ovo and Vegan) were chosen for inclusion and only those types of (Vegetarian) consumers who followed these diets were allowed to participate in the survey.

Research Philosophy and Approach
This study adopted positivism as the methods used was highly structured and the main concern was to observe the factors which influenced intention to eat at a vegetarian meal at a Nando’s. Positivism was appropriate to this study as opposed to realism. According to Saunders and Lewis (2012), realism is the theory where ‘Reality is quite independent of the mind’. As this study looked at the cognitive angle of buyer behaviour, realism was not relevant. Interpretivism and pragmatism were also not applicable given that the former relates to interpreting human roles in an environment and the latter, looks at taking a practical stance and uses a mixture of philosophical approaches and methods (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016.) The research approach was descriptive (As opposed to exploratory or explanatory) as the research aims and objectives required measurable (Quantitative) data (Using a survey) that tested a theory scientifically. The approach to this study was deductive as it involved the testing of a theoretical proposition using a set structured approach to explain the (Causal) link between variables (Saunders, et al, 2016). This was better suited than an inductive
approach which is the involvement of developing of a theory as a result of analysing data already collected. (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016).

Research Method and Design

The methodology used for this study was quantitative and the method for used for data collection was an online survey questionnaire. (Google Docs, 2018) This method allowed (A large amount) data to be collected in a standardised way and clear measurement of variables (Saunders and Lewis 2012). This particular methodological approach also appeared more prevalent, particular in vegetarian diet and food studies such as Rana & Paul (2017) and De Boer et al (2017) Some studies such as Harper & Makatouni (2002) and Dobernig & Stagl (2015) involved qualitative methods and focus groups but did not test any theories.

Data Collection

The design of questionnaire followed the Azjen’s online guide (People.umass.edu, 2018) titled ‘Constructing a theory of planned behaviour questionnaire’. As suggested in the guide, an informal pilot study was held (With two family members) to elicit modal salient beliefs towards the target action of ‘Eating a Lacto-ovo or vegan meal at Nando’s restaurant’. Although a formal set of written questions was not provided for free format response (A focus group was not set up due to time constraints and geographical issues), a quick informal telephone conversation with a (Vegan) friend and a (Lacto-Ovo) family member provided some useful elicitation on beliefs for the TPB constructs of Attitude, Subjective Norm and Perceived Behavioural Control (The 3 questions asked to elicit the beliefs were: 1. What were the advantages and disadvantages of eating a vegetarian meal at Nando’s, 2. Who they thought would approve or disapprove of that action and 3. What would be the reasons that would stop them eating at Nando’s. The answers to these enabled the main questionnaire constructs to be completed. The questionnaire consisted of 30 questions and as per the template guide, a Likert Scale was applied to 23 of these questions. The final version (Appendix F) was validated by the researcher’s supervisor. Access to the survey was provided via an online portal (Google forms) The survey was tested by 4 people and the feedback resulted in some minor wording and technical changes prior to launch. Given that whole population of Lacto-ovo and Vegan vegetarians in the UK was not practically possible to reach, the sampling method for this study is non-probability, snowball sampling. The options for non-probability sampling such as self-selection and convenience sampling were dismissed on the basis that convenience samples are ‘Likely to be of limited use’ (Lewis and Saunders, 2012) and self-selection adverts in windows were impersonal and impractical. Snowballing sampling enabled sharing of the survey and proved highly effective in reaching a wider and correct group of respondents (Sample goal was 70-80 and 70 respondents completed the survey).

Data Analysis

The statistical data analysis was conducted using SPSS software using descriptive statistics. Appendix D shows a summarised SPSS data output table of the Mean/Mode/Median and Standard Deviation outputs of data for each construct of the conceptual model and Appendix E graphics. Although Gender was hypothesised, the data was nominal and thus shown statistically as a (Pie) graph. Although past behaviour and intention were not hypothesised against variables, questions on these factors were included in the survey and are also included and analysed in this study and included SPSS data table.

Respondent Size, Diet Type and Demographics

A total of 70 respondents accessed and completed the survey. Of the 70 respondents, 71% identified as following a Lacto-Ovo (L/O) diet and 29% as a Vegan diet. Office of National (ONS) UK statistics were not available for diet types in the UK however, the Vegetarian Society states that Lacto-Ovo is the most common type of vegetarian diet (Vegsoc.org, 2018) and hence may be why the split is weighed heavier on L/O than Vegan diet types. Demographically, the split was 71% female and 29% male. Scarborough et al (2014) completed a study in the UK which included 15000 Vegetarians in a survey. 76% of the vegetarian respondents and as this figure is also close to this research, it may be considered that females have a greater preference to a vegetarian diet than men.

Attitude

The results showed a positive attitude measure of 4.70 Mean and 4.50 Median towards intention on Q24. As per the TPB model, inputs of attitude are personal beliefs and Question 25 on this construct asked if eating a (L/O or Vegan) meal at Nando’s in the next 3-6 months was bad or good. 4.70 Mean indicated that vegetarian consumers have a positive attitude towards eating at this restaurant, however the standard deviation is 1.7 and mode of 4 which also indicated there may have been some consumers who considered it less so on the scale. Overall however this measure is significant against intention.

H1 - ‘A Vegetarian Consumers Attitude having a significant effect on intention’ is supported

Subjective Norms.

6 of the 9 questions relating to SN were 3.0 or below on mean and mode and the median for 6 of these was 1 (Strongly disagree). Although the strength of belief towards the normative referents (Friends and Family in this case) was strong (Q14,15,16), the motivation to comply was not and overall SNs did not have an effect on intention. This suggests that although the consumers view of friends and family were considered important, the SNs influence was not as strong to
motivate intention. These results differ from Tang and Mousef's (2016) study which found that SN had a positive influence on behavioural intention.

H2 – ‘A Vegetarian Consumers Subjective Norm will have a significant effect on intention towards eating a meal at Nando’s’ is rejected (And null hypotheses supported).

Perceived Behavioural Control
The results show majority of scores above 5.0 on mean, median and all mode scores at 7.0 confirming that PBC has a strong effect on intention. SD was above 2 on one question, however mode at 7.0 suggests SD was on positive scale. The control beliefs measured were if the consumer always orders a vegetarian meal when visiting Nando’s and whether that decision is always up to the consumer. Both of these scores were positive towards ‘Strongly agree’. Additionally, this result may also give light on the reason why motivation to comply with friends and family was low (Consumers may believe their SN’s are important but decision making is strongly down to the consumer and not the SN)

H3 - 'A vegetarian consumers Perceived Behavioural Control will have a significant effect on their intention towards eating a meal at Nando’s’ is supported.

Choice
The results show significance of choice to intention. With mean, mode and median strong above 5.5. SD was low at 1.2. The question relating to the above score asked if having a variety of choice enabled the consumer to eat a vegetarian meal at Nando’s. The other two questions on choice asked the if Nando’s had a good choice of Lacto-Ovo and Vegan meals and the one that scored lowest on this was for Vegan meals (Mode of 1) This suggests that Vegan consumers felt strongly that they did not have enough choice compared to L/O consumers.

H4 A vegetarian consumer Choice of vegetarian meal will have a significant effect on their intention towards eating a meal at Nando’s is supported.

Outcome
The results show a strong significance of outcome to intention. Majority outputs had Median of 7 and all questions had mode of 5 and above. Although standard deviation was high at above 2 on two questions, the high mode and median would suggest that deviation veered towards significance. Vegetarian consumers strength of beliefs that following a vegetarian diet will improve their health and support a reduction to animal cruelty were highly positive (Respectively) and this follows the rationale mentioned earlier in the paper on the key market drivers of an increase in vegetarians that health and animal cruelty being the main reasons for the rise in preferences towards a vegetarian diet.

H5 A vegetarian consumers outcome will have a significant effect on their intention towards eating a meal at Nando’s is supported.

4.7 Gender
In order to examine the association of this categorical data, a Chi Square P test was applied. Chi Square test measures the strength of the relationship between two variables and if this has occurred by chance (Saunders and Lewis, 2012). If probability is 0.05 or lower, the probability is considered significant (Saunders and Lewis, 2012). The Chi-Square P test on Gender against intention was 0.387. Additionally, the test showed that 57% had count of less than 5 and the minimum expected count is .86 which means the sample size was insufficient to give a clear result so suggests the data could be invalid.

H6 Gender will have a significant effect on intention is not supported (Null hypothesis is accepted)

4.8 Diet Type
Although this was not hypothesised, a Chi square test was run against intention with the result of 0.326. which accepts a null hypothesis. This means that there is no relationship between a L.O or Vegan diet type to intention

4.9 Past Behaviour
Although past behaviour was not added as a proposed construct, the questionnaire template included a question on PB. Smith et al., 2007 suggest that past behaviour is an important addition for TPB, particularly where food decisions (That are repeated) occur as their study concluded that PB had a significance on intention. mean on PB was less than 4 and mode 1 on the question as to whether the consumer had eaten at Nando’s in the last 3-6 months. This suggests that the respondents did not frequent this restaurant in recent months.

4.9 Intention
Intention scored strongly with a mean of 4.59, median of 5 and mode of 7. This suggests that the consumers strength of intention to purchase a meal at Nando’s in the next 12 months was high. Given that 5 of the 6 constructs that input to intention were strong (with hypothesis supported also) and these constructs are direct inputs to intention under the TPB, the intention score being high was as expected.
**Discussion**

The developed TPB provided a relevant and useful framework in understanding and testing the (Consumer Behaviour) factors that influence intention as 4 out of the 6 hypotheses were supported as having significance, two of which were in the original TPB model (PBC and Attitude) and the other two (Choice and Outcome) were additions to the model. Table 2 shows a summary of each hypotheses (Of significance towards intention) and its TPB variable.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Variable</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Subjective Norms</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Perceived Behavioural Control</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Choice</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Outcome</td>
<td>Supported</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Not supported.</td>
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</table>

Consumer beliefs concerning both Attitude and Outcome weighed heavily in preference towards improved health and animal welfare and these were expected given the literature review findings. As the scores for these constructs were amongst the highest across all other variables, the marketing implications in particular will be beneficial for restaurants to be aware of these factors. Although SN’s were not supported as inputs towards intention, a focus group was not used to pre-determine normative referents. Of the two people used in the formative research, only one provided referents - friends and family as potential influencers as the other was not sure. A wider group of people for this may have introduced other influencers (For example, teachers, work colleagues) and future research would benefit from using a broad focus group to discuss and elicit referents in the context of its study. Time limitations restricted this facility for this study. The prediction of Past Behaviour to Intention was not supported in this study however, this result challenges the study of Smith et al., 2007 who supported a hypothesis that PB is a predictor of intention. Again, further studies may provide new insight on this variable. In regard to ‘choice,’ although hypothesis 4 was supported, it is important to highlight that Vegan consumers in particular felt they had limited choice of meals. This is important to note given one objective of this research is to provide recommendations to restaurants relating to consumer’s preferences. Finally, Intention was strong and again this points to validation of the TPB that the stronger the antecedents intention will be. This is in line with the original TPB model.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The lack of existing vegetarian consumer behaviour research (In the context of motivations towards eating vegetarian food at established chain restaurants such as McDonalds) raised the following study question; 'What are the main factors that can affect a vegetarian consumers behavioural intention towards choosing Nando’s restaurant when eating out in the UK?’ This study has answered this question in to ways. Firstly, it identified the motivational beliefs of vegetarian consumers which were mainly health and animal welfare, as well as others such as culture and tradition. Additionally, this research tested the Theory of Planned behaviour and found it to be an applicable model to measure intention on these factors identified. Additional variables were added to the model (Gender, Choice and Outcome) to develop a conceptual framework. However, in testing, two factors fell short of the theory that these variables affect intention, and these were the Subjective Norms and Gender. Given this result, the framework could benefit from further research (In the same context of vegetarian consumer behaviour) on these constructs that did not support hypothesis. In line with objective 3 of this study, further recommendations are provided below for chain restaurants wishing to develop their marketing strategies to increase market share of vegetarian consumers and/or sales of vegetarian meals by understanding vegetarian consumer preferences and behaviours.

1. To support national campaigns that promote meat reduction on particular days or months by introducing discounts on vegetarian meals on these days or months (EG Veganuary, Meatless Monday’s) and promoting these through social media and collaboration with organisations such as Vegetarian Society. This will attract consumers who are considering changing their diet to vegetarian, those who are reducing their meat intake and those who already follow vegetarian diets and potentially change mind sets of those consumers who considered chain restaurants as only being commercially responsive to meat eating consumers.

2. To introduce wide choices of healthy vegetarian options to menus which include more natural plant-based ingredients and highlight these features on the menu and clearly labelling foods that are vegan or left-over. This will ensure the main key consumer driver of health is acknowledged and increased sales opportunity is captured.

3. To introduce /Increase Vegan options and advertise these new options through social media advertisements and billboards. Where possible, use celebrity endorsement for advertising. This would potentially capture the younger market also which is increasing for this diet type.

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4. Where meals are using animal by products such as dairy or eggs, sourcing to be organic or free range and ingredients to be clearly stated on menus as organic or ‘Cruelty free’ to ensure vegetarian consumer beliefs on animal welfare are shown to be commercial supported.

The contribution of this research provides marketers, researchers and businesses with insights to the vegetarian consumer’s motivations and intentional behaviour. Further studies and literature on vegetarian and in particular Vegan consumer behaviour would further add to the body of existing research and likely be welcomed.

References


Appendix A – List of top 10 chain restaurants by revenue

- McDonald’s: 1,810 million GBP
- Wetherspoon: 1,217 million GBP
- Costa Coffee: 938 million GBP
- Greggs: 787 million GBP
- KFC: 685 million GBP
- Domino’s Pizza: 623 million GBP
- Starbucks: 606 million GBP
- Pizza Hut: 532 million GBP
- Subway: 531 million GBP
- Nando’s: 455 million GBP

Revenue in million GBP

Source: Statista.com
<table>
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### Appendix C – Consumer Behaviour Theories

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<th>Theoretical Approach and citation</th>
<th>Author/ Year</th>
<th>Principle of Theory</th>
<th>Relevance to this study?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic Man</td>
<td>Persky, 1995</td>
<td>Consumers will be aware of all options available when buying a product or service and would thus be capable of selecting the most optimum course of action</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychodynamic approach</td>
<td>Sigmund Freud, 1923</td>
<td>Behaviour is influenced by internal biological forces such as ego</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Ulrik Neisser, 1969</td>
<td>Considers mental aspects (Such as thinking, learning, memory, emotion, beliefs, perceptions and motivation) to be fundamental to the process of taking in information and making decisions</td>
<td>Yes, takes into account cognitive aspects that the research objectives are looking to understand such as motivation, beliefs and thinking towards intention (To buy a product)</td>
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An Investigation into the expectations of millennials in the workplace

Julian Owusu

The purpose of this research is to investigate why many millennials are joining organisations who are not at the forefront of digital transformation and therefore become frustrated as they are forced to work in pre-organised structures which were not designed for them but for previous generations. The changing requirements for millennials as they move into progressive careers and the new ways in which they should be led on a daily basis is explored. Overall the study seeks to identify the expectations of millennials in relation to leadership and working conditions. It specifically seeks to understand the changing nature of organisational culture; critically analyse the characteristics of the group referred to as millennials; and suggest a number of recommendations to organisations recruiting millennials.

Keywords: Millennials at work, Human resource management, Digital age

Introduction

Millennials are a generation born between 1982-2000 and shortly before the stroke of midnight on December 31st, 2017, the world’s last millennial turned 18 (Wolf, 2017). There are currently over 2 billion millennials globally (28% of the global population). However, they are not evenly distributed evenly across regions. In fact, in Europe they are only 22% whilst in Africa they are 29% of the local population (Wolf, 2017). Within a few years, many millennials will complete their formal education and pursue careers in various industries and take up jobs to make up over a third of the global workforce (Wolf, 2017). This is one reason why the conversation about millennials has been so popular. Many wonder the ideas, values and level of creativity this generation possess and how this will shape the society, markets and companies. The attitude they have towards work and the implications this may have on companies is an issue organisation are trying to understand.

Today’s businesses operate in a world of increased complexity, which is characterised by higher volumes of data, more demanding customers and faster business cycles. With more changes to societies, competition, markets and more importantly technology, organisations are forced to clarify their values, learn new ways of operating and develop new strategies. The toughest tasks for leaders is to effect change by inspiring and mobilizing people in an organisation to do adaptive work. In the VUCA (volatile, uncertain, complex, ambiguous) environment we live in today, companies formed in the 20th century who work with traditional business models and organisational cultures based on past ideas can put their company at a competitive disadvantage. In response, many companies are embarking on projects of digital transformation that will help them enhance customer experience, improve productivity and manage risk better. As digital transformation is applied, the workforce must approach their day-today responsibilities in new ways. Workplaces are changing, and new cultures are being created by leaders who are curious as to how to keep a workplace predominately made up of millennials happy. With digital transformation at the forefront of modern business, millennials are using social media and websites to find jobs more than ever before. In fact, LinkedIn boast of over 120million users in the US members alone (Susan Lund, 2016). Digital labour platforms have created more transparent jobs for the market so that top performing candidates understand their value and are therefore evaluating potential employers as they look for new opportunities (Susan Lund, 2016). Platforms such as Glassdoor give people the chance to find out what other employees are saying about job satisfaction, lifestyle and company culture in the organisations they work in (Susan Lund, 2016). Therefore, companies who do not manage the new generation correctly or engage continuously with their employees will find themselves on the losing side of a war on the best talent.

As digital transformation has not been implemented fully in all companies, we find ourselves in a shift between traditional and modern business models. This causes a problem, as millennials who for the majority of their lives have only known a digital age and have a different outlook to work, are entering into workplaces which were culturally impacted by baby boomers. Millennials are by no means like preceding generations. They view the world differently and even have arguably redefined the meaning of success both professionally and personally. This has led to the misunderstanding amongst previous generations who are co-existing in today’s workplace. Business leaders are now realizing the unique perspectives and competencies so are therefore looking for new ways to harness their strengths in a workplace (Brack, 2012).

The purpose of this research is to investigate why many millennials are joining organisations who are not at the forefront of digital transformation and therefore become frustrated as they are forced to work in pre-organised structures which were not designed for them but for previous generations. The
changing requirements for millennials as they move into progressive careers and the new ways in which they should be lead on a daily basis will be explored. In doing this, the research aims to develop a new framework, which gives a better understanding of how leaders should lead the new generation of millennials in a digitally transformed networked environment. “What are the expectations of millennials in relation to leadership and working conditions?” This study seeks to identify the expectations of millennials in relation to leadership and working conditions. It specifically seeks to understand the changing nature of organisational culture; critically analyse the characteristics of the group referred to as millennials; and suggest a number of recommendations to organisations recruiting millennials.

**Literature Review**

Millennials display and abundance of self-confidence and believe in their value to any organisation from day one. The extreme focus on developing themselves and thriving to learn new job skills allow them to set new challenges to achieve. To do this they have become, unlike any other generation, multitasking pros who can juggle many responsibilities at the same time. However, this means they are often easily distracted and find texting and social media hard to resist. As social media has been imbedded in their lives, it means that companies must employ social media effectively by keep social media outlets active at all times. As everything is moving so quickly in digitally transformed era, millennials often need instant gratification and recognition to feel like what they are doing is important and they are on the right track. For employers this simply means that they need to tell them how important the position is and the value they would be bringing into the company. Unlike former generations who sacrifice their personal lives to advance their careers, Millennials want to be part of companies who appreciate the importance of work-life balance and flexibility. According to the 2017 Telecommuting in the U.S. Employee workforce report by FlexJobs (Jobs, 2017), telecommuting has increased more than 100% since 2015. This means that companies are helping millennials achieve that work-life balance creating policies which allow employees to work remotely or allow them time away during the work day for exercise, appointments and other personal priorities (Jobs, 2017).

Effort has gone in to clarify the different dimensions of leadership, which has generated social and organisational research of leadership styles and behaviours. Researchers on numerous occasions have developed agreement that leadership is becoming more and more flexible and is a developmental process (Vaari, 2015). In the 20th Century many leadership styles were explored. A journal article by (Khan, 2016) written in 2016, a year before the proposal for this research was written, explored in depth the various types of leadership styles including \(\text{Johnson, 2018}\):

- **Autocratic leadership:** A style which leaders usually make decisions without communicating or receiving input from others. These types of managers possess total authority and usually impose their will onto employees. Nobody challenges decisions made by an autocratic leader.

- **Participative Leadership:** This type of leadership is also known as a democratic style where the leader values the input of the members of the team but ultimately the final decision still rests with the leader. Participative leadership usually boosts employee morale as they are involved in the decision-making process.

- **Transactional leadership:** These types of leaders create tasks for their team to perform which determines their rewards or punishments based on performance results. Goals are set together with the management and team and employees agree to follow the direction of the leader to accomplish the goals set.

- **Transformational leadership:** This style depends on high levels of communication from management. Employees feel motivated by this leadership style and are usually highly productive and efficient through constant communication and the high visibility of the leader. These types of leaders focus on the big picture and delegate smaller tasks to various teams in an organisation.

In a time where dynamism and change are very apparent, one may argue that even this article is outdated. However, this article did find that transformational leadership distinguished itself from other theories. Transformational leaders raise morality and motivation which is something millennials crave in a workplace as they want to be lead and not managed (Sinek, 2016). Followers and advocates of this type of leadership have confidence that the arrangements of past leadership should not be the guide for the future. Simon Sinek mentioned above that millennials do not want to be managed and would rather be lead (Sinek, 2016). The type of qualities a leader must possess in a digital era resemble that of a transformational leader.

However, there has still been a shift. What used to be called “soft skills” are now the most desired skill leaders crave in a business world. As baby boomers retire at a rate of 10,000 a day (Kessler, 2014), the type of leadership styles simply has to change as millennials put a premium on communication, meaningful connection and community (Kessler, 2014). We are entering into a new era.
of leadership with skills such as empathy and compassion the most sort after skills. In fact, many leaders will be replaced by female leaders as by nature they are more likely to possess these skills (Entrepreneur, 2017). A recent study held by Google aimed to find factors of a productive team found that the high-performing teams had a high social sensitivity which was characterized by mutual respect, trust and real connections (Entrepreneur, 2017). Changes in the way leaders operate can be partly contributed to the emergence of digital transformation in organisations.

What is the digital transformation era?
It is difficult to pinpoint a clear definition for digital transformation (DT) as it looks different for every company. However, the enterprise project (Project, 2016) makes a general definition of DT as the integration of technology into areas of a business, which results in fundamental changes of how the business operates and delivers value to its customers and workforce. In a recent article written by Forbes, six predictions were made for the future concerning DT. These predictions spoke mostly of the working environment and how systems would change. A few of the predictions mentioned were that CEO’s would create clear digital visions for their organisations, new IT skills would be required by employees and how artificial intelligence would drive new DT revenue streams. In all of these predictions, there is still a missing link and that is how future leadership will be influenced by these factors?

We have moved from traditional leadership styles in the 20th century where the internet and digital transformation was not apparent. Moving on to a time where we begin to see change in the business environment with new PESTEL challenges which have arguably come as a result of technology and the worlds reaction to technology. However, we notice a literature gap where authors have not written about how traditional leaders can become digital leaders and understand how millennials should be leading to create positive performance at a workplace. The recent trends help to explain the growing interest in research focusing on the effects digital technology (DT) has on modern dynamic, diverse and complex workplaces.

The changes in organisational culture
Although many factors ultimately contribute to the changing nature and patterns of work; main factors such as the increasing pressure on organisations to be more competitive and agile with a more customer focused approach. Followed by communication and technology breakthroughs, especially with the emergence of smartphones which enable work to be separated from time and space. Hierarchical structures simply cannot respond quickly in changing market demands such as cycle time and continuous innovation. This is being replaced with a more collaborative/cross unit structure with fewer layers and a more decentralized decision-making process. As this happens, we see that boundaries between departments as well as job categories become looser and there is a greater need to knowledge sharing (Heerwagen, 2016).

On a psychological level, the increased access to information has made work easier but also more difficult. The ability to download or search for information from a broad range of channels is great contribution to knowledge sharing. However, some literature sources argue that this may also present challenges related to information overload (Heerwagen, 2016). With amount of new knowledge coupled with time pressures and the complexity of the new organisation, it has led to “cognitive overload syndrome” (COS) (Heerwagen, 2016). Symptoms of COS include the inability to concentrate, increased stress, multitasking, task switching and the tendency to choose easier tasks which can be completed quicker. This is a cause of concern as a recent study on millennials by Gallup showed that millennials are the least engaged generation at work (Gallup, 2017). Organisations can expect a continuous cycle of reflection and reorganisation, especially with the emergence of tech companies and the level of attractiveness they have to the millennials. In fact, companies like Google, Amazon, Apple and Microsoft currently top the list of company’s millennials want to work for as they are in search of career growth, sense of purpose and flexibility, which tech companies can provide (Umoh, 2017). These factors compliment certain characteristics which can be found in the average millennial.

Methodology
A positivist approach was chosen as the researcher wanted to stay independent of the research so that the results could be purely objective. As communication with the research participants were carried out online, minimal interaction made which aligned with the approach. An inductive approach simply would not have worked in this context as the research started with a hypothesis. Inductive approaches mean that the researcher is free in terms of altering the direction of the study. Positivism is a philosophy which adheres to the view that only accurate (Factual) knowledge gained through observation which includes measurement is trustworthy. With this approach the researcher is limited to the collection of data and interpreting this data in an objective way (Dudovskiy, 2010). The approach taken by this research was
to collect data from millennials via questionnaire surveys which would form the foundation of the sampling process. Positivism depends on quantifiable observations which lead to statistical analysis (Dudovskiy, 2010).

The deductive took place to develop the hypothesis which was made on the expectation of millennials in relation to leadership and working conditions. The literature review allowed the comparison of existing theories which allowed us to continue with advanced understanding. A mono method of quantitative research using a single data collection technique via a questionnaire survey was used to produce quantitative research. A deductive approach was used to test an existing theory which allowed the research to generalize findings to a certain extent. Statistical tools and techniques including t-test and ANOVA from SPSS were applied in the data analysis. This approach was chosen simply because it allowed the possibility to explain relationships between the variables and measure concepts quantitatively. Primary research was at the core of this paper. It is worth noting that the researcher entered the social world of millennials and currently participates in daily activities millennials are involved in. This is because the researcher is currently working in a graduate-based role. The researcher at the time of the research, had been acting as a participant-and-observer for over three months whilst also studying in his third year at university. This took away any issues such as observer error as the researcher fully understood what it meant to be a millennial as he is one. It also served as an advantage as he understands the symbolic world of millennials and their perception about their social situation. The limitation of over-familiarity was not a problem as noted before, with being in his current role for only three months, there was still different aspects of the workplace he is trying to understand. The researcher found that colleagues showed great willingness to share their thoughts comfortably while interacting with someone they know and trust as a colleague within the social and academic environments.

Findings and discussion
The sample for this research was carried out with 34 participants made up of 21 females and 13 male millennials (74% fell in age ranges 25-30) (Figure 1). All but one of these respondents are graduates who are currently working in jobs they have purposely selected and are taking up positions at various levels at their companies. The survey was mostly completed in true millennial fashion via smartphone with over 90% of responses being completed from a smartphone. On average it took participants 5.59mins to complete the survey. 92% of participants have achieved an undergraduate degree. Using secondary data would have been a risk is as the data may no longer have been relevant in over a years’ time.

Figure 1. T-Test – ‘My work aligns with my values’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T-Test</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group Statistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What’s your gender?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My work aligns with my values</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Difference</td>
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<td>F</td>
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<tr>
<td>My work aligns with my values</td>
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Does work align with the values of Millennials?
Almost 70% agree or strongly agree that their work align with their values. By doing a T-test showed that there was no difference with the response from both sex (See Figure 1). This means that both genders agree that their jobs are meeting the needs of the values. An Independent samples test was conducted to see if this result was just a coincidence because of the nature of the millennials used for this study. Figure 1.1 shows that the significance column is above 0.05, so we understand that the sample was a normal distribution. The Sig (2-Tailed) column which tells us if there is any difference between the genders is also well above 0.05. This proves that there is no difference, simply because millennials having grown up in the same era, have the same characteristics no matter what gender they
are, they all have values and look for jobs which they believe share this with them. They simply avoid companies who do not seem to take this into account. The results are very interesting because at times you find that junior/entry-level employees are idealistic and are content but when you study employees higher up in organisations, things are not usually as perceived.

However, after carrying out an ANOVA, results showed that there were no differences in their positions when it comes to values (See Figure 2).

**Figure 2. ANOVA Test – ‘My work aligns with my values’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My work aligns with my values</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
<td>df</td>
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<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>26</td>
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**Post Hoc Tests**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multiple Comparisons</th>
<th>Tukey HSD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your job level in the company?</td>
<td>My work aligns with my values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Difference (B-J)</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>Senior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>-0.122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>-0.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive</td>
<td>-1.455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>Junior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>-0.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>-1.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive</td>
<td>-0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>Junior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>-0.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>-1.133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive</td>
<td>1.355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>1.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>0.000</td>
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</table>

Are Millennials working in jobs which give them personal satisfaction?

Millennials are often portrayed to be job-hoppers who show a low level of company commitment and loyalty. It is said that instead of job stability, they prefer flexibility and the freedom offered in the emerging ‘gig-economy’ (Wolf, 2017). Through curiosity, this research sought to explore these issues through empirical evidence. Therefore, a question was asked to measure personal satisfaction, after all if a person was satisfied in their job, why would they leave? The results from this research showed that almost 60% of participants were extremely satisfied in their current positions. A T-test was carried out to see the difference in results between male and female (Figure 3). The results found that females were slightly more satisfied. This could be for a number of reasons.
Figure 3. How much does your job give you a sense of personal satisfaction?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
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<tr>
<td>What’s your gender?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How much does your job give you a sense of personal satisfaction?</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusions
This project has explored the changing nature of organisational culture, the emergence of digital transformation and analysed the characteristics of millennials. Their main source of communication is via smartphones and therefore are more likely to search for jobs via platforms such as LinkedIn and twitter. Therefore, the first step in recruiting millennials is to keep the online presence of the company high. Once a millennial applicant has been hired, the question is how to keep them. Contrary to the opinion that millennials lack loyalty, this research found that they simply have a clearer vision of their career progression and the goals they wish to achieve in the future. The insights from this research suggest that if employers can provide the right working environment which applicants desire; under the right conditions, millennials could be great assets to any workplace. A positive workplace experience will be a positive indicator of how a company value its employees which is a desire of the millennial.
Millennials value results and desire career development so if they were to move on it would be to secure a better working environment and greater opportunities (similar to previous generations). Companies who seek to retain or attract millennial talent would need to address the needs of the majority and also bear in mind that millennials expect a healthy work-life balance through flexibility in hours and a different approach to leadership. There are limitations to this research project such as a lack of a global network of millennials to participate in the survey. This would have allowed the researcher to compare how millennials from various demographics thought and tried to make a correlation between their expectations. It would have been particularly interesting to see the desires of millennials in developing countries compared with that of those in more developed countries. China and elsewhere in Western developed countries would have been an interesting segment to analyse as digital transformation has developed much more quickly by various groups of millennials who have shown great innovation and creative minds.

References


Show me the Money! Cash versus Cashless

Steven Zorzi

This article is based on a final year report on a consumer behaviour module at the Bloomsbury Institute London. This version has some additional input from the module leader having been graded by at least two tutors with expertise on the subject matter. The report was a response to a task requiring some investigation of the choices faced by UK consumers when it comes to their transaction preferences using cash vis-à-vis cashless means. Two main consumer behaviour concepts are interrogated in order to highlight the observed preferences – i.e. consumer perception and motivation. In the case of the former, elements of perception such as exposure, attention and interpretation of stimuli are explored. These are then mapped against theories of motivation directing consumers towards alternative choices. In this latter context, the study draws upon two motivational theories – Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and McClelland’s theory.

Keywords: Consumer Behaviour, Consumer Perception, Motivation theories, Digital banking adoption

Introduction

This report will look the public perception of using cash compared to using digital payment methods such as contactless payments and credit cards. It will analyse why consumers favour one over the other and what motivates them to do this. It will look at Automated Teller Machines and what motivates people to use them. Following this it will offer recommendations of how financial institutions can improve digital banking options more appealing to people who favour using cash. To do this it will use consumer behaviour theories such as Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs and McClelland’s Theory of Needs.

In recent years despite it never being easier to use digital payments such as contactless payment, PayPal, credit cards or bitcoin, from the end of 2016 until October 2017 the value of hard cash surged up towards a value of £83 billion (Partington, 2017). During 2016, 40% of all payments were made by cash, this is expected to fall to 21% by 2026 (Partington, 2017). By the end of 2018, it is expected that debit cards will have replaced cash as the most used form of payments in the United Kingdom (Lyons, et al., 2018).

Historically a tendency for people to stockpile cash is during times of uncertainty such as when the United Kingdom voted for Brexit and the subsequent fall in the value of the pound as well as the aftermath of the financial crash of 2008 have left a large percentage of people who prefer their money outside of the storage of high street financial services. Another factor could also be using the black-market economy or tax evasion (Partington, 2017). These factors all point to people not having trust in banks or their systems in protecting their finances if something does happen that could wipe out people’s savings, this can be viewed as being motivated by safety in Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs as people just want to know that everything that they have worked for will be protected.

Another factor that people may prefer to use cash over cashless transactions is the fact that when you physically feel and see your cash being handed over it makes it more painful than paying with a card or smart phone. A survey conducted by ClearScore in 2016 found that 59% of people blamed their overspending on cashless payment and 79% said that they were more prone to impulse buying with cashless payments (Naylor, 2018). Part of the reason for this is without touching or seeing the money as it is being spent can feel as if it is not spending real money, this relates to research that shows when people touch something, they feel more attached to it. This is a good example of the effects of sensation perception and the importance of the senses especially in this case sight and touch (Solomon, et al., 2016, p. 126). This can be seen with having physical money to buy items people are more reluctant to spend it then if it is paid with a cashless method.

In some cultures, having and paying with cash is ingrained and seen as aspirational or a source of power. This was referred to in a 2009 report about the history of cash in credit in America which stated that having a wallet full of cash was a status symbol and worthy of respect (Mudd, 2009). This refers to McClelland’s Needs Theory and shows the Need for Power and the Need for Achievement. By having the wallet full of cash, they are hoping to win the respect of their peers. Having that cash in hand also gives a sense of achievement in saying that they have been successful and earnt this symbol of respect (McClelland & Burnham, 1976). Paying with cash also touches on the Ego Needs of status and prestige in Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (Salkind, 2011, p. 196).
Consumer Perception towards Digital Banking

Consumer perception is the way that a customer converts and interprets stimuli such as sensations into meaning which the customer will take away and influence their thoughts about their experience. This is done by converting raw stimuli such as touch, sight or sound into meaning that influences the customers feeling towards a product, service or experience (Solomon, et al., 2016, p. 125). A study completed in China in 2017 found that after banks had enabled personalization services it was helpful to all users but especially those with low experience levels with e-banking (Wang, et al., 2017). This report shows that by personalizing digital banking services to each customer it can increase customer satisfaction with the services they provide.

A study conducted in 2015 which looked at how consumers in three UK cities adapted to internet banking found that the most common activities were paying bills and transferring money and that the people who took part in the survey were highly satisfied with internet banking (Shanmugam, et al., 2015). The biggest concern the customers interviewed had was with security, but they were happy with the measures that the banks had taken, such as providing card readers to help combat online fraud. This shows that a factor in people adapting to digital banking is safety, they need to know that their finances are secure when using digital banking. To get more people to use cashless payment methods such as Apple pay at Point of Sale (POS) or Mobile Remote Payments (MRP) is to have their customer have trust and confidence that systems are safe from fraudulent activities. A report carried out in New Zealand in 2015 found that users are more likely to use these payments when they have faith in the protections provided by the companies involved as well as in the legal systems and regulations of the nation involved (Xin, et al., 2015). Their recommendations included that providers as well as policymakers should introduce relevant regulations that protect consumers when making cashless payments especially via mobile technology (Xin, et al., 2015). This shows that the consumers perceptions of using these systems is based on the reputations of the companies providing the service to ensure that their transactions are safe.

In a 2017 study it was revealed that that had UK residents fill in a questionnaire as well as some interviews about their perceptions of mobile banking. More than 23% of the respondents believe that their personal data is not safe, but they have higher levels of trust, (87%) in UK online banking providers than they do in Mobile Network Operators (MNO) (65%) (Hampshire, 2017). over 87% of the respondents believe that mobile payments have some risk involved and overall 82% also believe that contactless cards also carry risk when being used (Hampshire, 2017). This shows that customers perceptions are clouded by security risks to the perceived usefulness of this technology and how it can make life easier for people, but they do they have trust in established UK banks which has helped people to adopt this banking method (Hampshire, 2017).

Motivation for use of Automated Teller Machines

Automated Teller Machines (ATM) have been in use for approximately 51 years in the United Kingdom (Collinson, 2017) but they have been disappearing from the streets at a rate of 500 a month in the first half of 2018 along with the almost 3,000 bank branches that have closed up since 2015 due to the emergence of digital banking (Tims, 2018). This section will use the motivation theories of Maslow and McClelland to look at the motivational factors towards cash and cashless transactions. Maslow's Hierarchy of needs is based on a pyramid which shows the most important psychological needs on the base such as food, water, and so on, the next four steps are safety, love and intimacy (Social), self-esteem (Esteem) and at the top is self-actualization. The top four steps are the ones that drive a person’s needs to achieve their aims (Salkind, 2011, p. 196) (Solomon, et al., 2016, p. 206).

McClelland’s theory states that people have three specific needs or motivations which are the need for affiliation which means people wanting to belong to a group of people, the need for power which is that these people that need to control or influence others and finally the need for achievement which is someone that sets goals to strive for (Solomon, et al., 2016, p. 205). A 2004 study which investigated how residents in Hong Kong adapted to the various channels of banking open at that time, Branch Banking, ATM’s, Internet Banking and Phone Banking (Wan, et al., 2005) found out that customers found ATM’s their most preferred option edging out Internet Banking, Branch Banking and Phone Banking. This was due to its high levels of convenience and the fact it offered 24-hour cash withdrawal and didn’t require computer or internet access. This supports the findings of the 2001 research in Australia which found people with technological knowledge preferred ATM’s over human tellers in Banks due to their level of convenience over the people who were service orientated that favoured the personal interaction of the human tellers (Thornton & White, 2001). This shows that a major motivation for ATM usage is for people to withdraw their cash as easy as possible in a safe environment.
Another report published in 2015 that asked ATM customers in Ghana to rate their level of satisfaction with ATM’s and what they wanted from this service. The results of this survey were that qualities they were wanting were; convenience, privacy and security, ease of use, responsiveness, reliability, and fulfilment (Narteh, 2015). This shows that having cash in your wallet is a symbol of power and achievement in McClelland’s Theory of Needs and people wanting to be able to access this as quickly and safely as possible when required. It also references the importance of Maslow’s need for safety as they want to be able to withdraw their money without being in any danger.

Conclusions and Implications

Based on what was discussed in the previous section regarding consumer perceptions toward digital banking, the concerns that kept being discussed were about ease of use and security and safety. What banks need to do is ensure that their systems offer security from bank fraud and other such threats. They need to implement systems and procedures so that customers know their savings are safe from fraud at Point of Sale (POS), as well as their accounts being hacked online. Once people know their accounts are safe from these threats, they will be more inclined to make use of digital banking. Banks should also make sure that their systems are easy for people of all ages and technological skills to use, are convenient and offer personalization options so that they satisfy their customers need. They should offer personalization settings and possibly even offer lesson and tutorial sessions for customers that don’t have confidence in using digital banking. A digital helper might also be able to assist users when they are online and struggling to use the system. Some technologies that will help in this regard are facial and voice recognition, and live help chat services.

Whilst discussing consumer behaviour towards cash and cashless transactions one issue that was raised was the fact that the sensation of paying with a cashless method felt different than paying with cash as some people feel that it is not the same as paying with real money, it feels like a game. This means that there is an opportunity for banks and software developers to come up with a way so that digital payments better simulate the sensation of paying for items with physical cash to help people that need to save money. This will help people that struggle to save money and are prone to impulse buying as paying digitally does not feel real to them and they spend money they should not be spending.

Overall, this report looked at customer behaviour toward digital banking and factors affecting the use of this. Following this it moved onto motivations towards using ATM’s and looked at theories such as Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs and McClelland’s Theory of Needs to explore this. Based on the previous three sections it developed recommendations that the banking industry should explore to encourage the adoption of digital banking. These recommendations related to security, convenience, ease of use and giving the same sensation to cashless payments as people get from paying with cash.

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Appendix

Box 1. The Scenario

According to Victoria Cleland, chief cashier at the Bank of England (see BBC News, 2017), "Cash will remain a part of our day-to-day lives for decades, the Bank of England's chief cashier has said on the 50th anniversary of the ATM." This view is reportedly echoed by Raheel Ahmed, head of customer experience at Barclays, in the following comment: "even though recent years have seen a huge uptake of digital banking and card payments, cash remains a crucial part of most people's day-to-day lives - whether it is paying for groceries or doing the office coffee run - and we're very proud of the role that Barclays has played in the history of the cash machine." From the above brief background, you are required to explore a clearly justifiable theory of motivation to explain consumers' behaviour towards cash versus cashless transactions.

Write a 2000-word report addressing the following questions:

• Discuss consumer behaviour towards cash versus cashless transactions (500 words).
• Explain consumer perceptions towards digital banking (500 words).
• Apply any motivation theory, with a clear justification, to the use of automated teller machines in the UK (500 words).
• Based on the analysis above, make a number of recommendations to UK banks in relation to their efforts for investing in digital banking (500 words).

Please note: (a) You may use media reports and company websites to generate your case material. (b) You are expected to review at least six (6) academic journals on the relevant sector.


Box 2. Expectations/ Indicative Responses

Q1. Discuss consumer behaviour towards cash versus cashless transactions.
Students are expected to demonstrate a general/ broad understanding of consumer behaviour concepts and apply these to the trends in UK cashless transactions. Practical insights may be drawn from the BBC News article and other media reports. It is important to demonstrate the interplay between theory and practice in this section. Here the keyword is cashless transactions in all its variants – online transactions, Apps and other electronic payments systems.

Q2. Explain consumer perceptions towards digital banking.
To tackle this section, there must be a detailed explanation and analysis of the concept of consumer perception touching upon how consumers select, organize and interpret stimuli (exposure, attention and interpretation). Here the keyword is digital banking in its broad sense.

Q3. Apply any motivation theory, with a clear justification, to the use of automated teller machines in the UK.
Students are expected to explain what motivation is in the first place. They may then go on to use any of the motivation theories to explain how consumers choose or refuse to choose ATMs over teller transactions.

Q4. Based on the analysis above, make a number of recommendations to UK banks in relation to their efforts for investing in digital banking.
Students are expected to make their voices heard in this section especially having based the other sections on secondary material (including academic articles for theory, and media reports for practical insights into trends). It is expected that students would highlight the pros and cons of both cash and cashless transactions in this section. To secure a good grade, any suggestions/recommendations for the providers of these services should be based on evidence and practicality of the reality observed. Indeed, there has been a surge of fully-digital banks (e.g. Monzo) acting as challenger alternatives to the traditional high-street banks.