

PORKBRAND

WP4: Optimizing branding strategies

Report

By Klaus G. Grunert¹, Maartje Mulders¹ & Yanfeng Zhou²

¹ MAPP Centre, Department of Management, Aarhus University, Denmark

² Business School, Sun Yat-sen University, People's Republic of China

This report is an outcome of the fourth work package in the PorkBrand project (2019-2020), which is funded by Svineafgiftsfonden (*Muligheder for branding af dansk grisekød på det kinesiske marked*). The project is led by Klaus G. Grunert with participation of Yanfeng Zhou, Hanne Kragh, Karen Brunsø, Stephan Zielke, Maartje Mulders and Susanne Pedersen. The advisory board consists of Søren Tinggaard, Vice President, Danish Crown and Nicolaj Christoffersen, Head of Sector, Danish Agriculture and Food Council. The advisory board has not been involved in writing or commenting on this report.

Table of Contents

1. AIM4

2. THEORETICAL APPROACH4

3. OVERVIEW OF EMPIRICAL WORK7

4. STUDY 1: IDENTIFYING MOST PROMISING PRODUCT ATTRIBUTE/PRODUCT BENEFIT COMBINATIONS.....7

 4.1. METHODOLOGY.....7

 4.2. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS9

 4.3. DISCUSSION10

5. STUDY 2: STUDYING THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT EXECUTIONS OF TWO PROMISING BRAND MESSAGES10

 5.1. METHODOLOGY.....10

 5.3. RESULTS.....12

 5.4. DISCUSSION18

6. OVERALL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION.....18

1. Aim

The purpose of the PORKBRAND project is to support branding of Danish pork meat in China by providing knowledge about how Chinese consumers form brand images and develop preferences for pork brands across sales channels, identify the pros and cons for different branding strategies and come up with recommendations for cooperation strategies with Chinese stakeholders. The short-term aim is to improve the basis for decisions on export strategies for Danish pork meat, so that Chinese consumers will establish preferences and a willingness to pay a premium. The longer-term aim is to continue the growth of Danish export of pork meat to China based on stable preferences among the Chinese consumers.

The first work package provided knowledge about the major brands currently on the Chinese market, their positioning and the currently used branding practices on the Chinese market for pork. The second work package provided knowledge on how Chinese consumers form brand images for pork brands based on their interaction with multiple sales channels and other brand touchpoints such as traditional and social media. The third work package investigated possibilities to engage in branding activities in cooperation with Chinese partners.

The aim of the fourth work package is to investigate different options for branding of Danish pork in China, based on the results of the previous work packages. Most notably, we will try to answer three major questions: 1) which product attributes and product benefits of Danish pork are the most promising to communicate to Chinese consumers as part of a branding strategy? 2) which form of message execution will be best suited to create a positive brand image, brand attitude and purchase intention? 3) how can these messages be distributed through different communication channels? In answering these questions, we will take into account the heterogeneity of Chinese consumers both in terms of their brand-related buying habits and in terms of their use of different sales channels when buying pork. The empirical base for this work package is two online surveys in China.

2. Theoretical approach

The essence of branding is building up a brand image in the mind of the consumer that then determines how the consumer reacts to the brand when the brand is encountered during a shopping trip. The brand image consists of all the associations that the consumer has with the brand and is the result of all interactions that the consumer has had with the brand, no matter whether these were based on own experiences with brand, contact with the brand in a shopping

situation, or any other contact with the brand through traditional marketing communication channels, social media, or personal communication (Aaker, 1991). The brand image will determine how consumers react to the brand when they encounter it. The *attitudinal* reaction is how the consumer will evaluate the brand when seeing it in a shopping situation. The *behavioural* reaction refers to the consumer's actual purchase of the brand.

In the present study we focus on how the brand image for Danish pork can be affected by communication through different channels. Channels of communication of relevance are traditional marketing media like outdoor advertising, print ads, posters, TV ads; internet-based media like banners, websites, and WeChat accounts; and communication at the point of sale including package information and in-store displays. Different communication channels differ in their abilities to convey different types of messages, most notably some channels like outdoor advertising and banners will only lead to short-time exposure, whereas others like print ads can lead to longer exposure times, enabling the communication of more complex messages. In addition, different channels will meet consumers in different states of interest for the advertised product; outdoor advertising may be seen in a situation where interest in the product is low, whereas product interest may be higher when information is seen in a shopping context.

These differences in the way persuasive communication is perceived and processed by consumers has been dealt with in the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; see Lien, 2001, for a review on the ELM in advertising specifically). The ELM is a theory that is specifically about the processes responsible for the effectiveness of persuasive communication (such as advertising) and how this influences the strength of the attitudes that result from it. The process can follow one of two distinct pathways: The first, known as the “central route,” involves effortful processing, meaning that consumers focus their attention on message relevant ad information, whereas the second, known as the “peripheral route”, involves no effortful processing, meaning that consumers do not think much about message content. In this latter route, consumers are more likely to use other elements associated with the message or brand (known as peripheral cues) as a basis for attitude formation (such as, e.g., the music used in the advertisement, the colours used, or the emotions it elicits). When consumers are exposed to different messages in different channels for the same brand, the effect of these messages on brand image, brand attitude and brand purchase will come about by a combination of central and peripheral processing. Taking into account these interaction effects between different channels of communication is one of the biggest challenges in modern marketing for consumer goods.

When designing and analyzing the effect of branding messages, we can distinguish the content and the execution of the message. The content refers to *what* is being said about the brand, whereas the execution refers to *how* it is being said. Seen through the lens of the ELM model, the content will dominate central processing of the message, whereas the execution will dominate peripheral processing.

In designing message content, we adopt the MECCAS model of developing advertising messages (Bech-Larsen, 2001; Reynolds & Craddock, 1988). The main assertion of the MECCAS model is that advertising message content should communicate both product attributes and product benefits (and possibly those consumer values that the benefits tap into). It is based on the central notion of means-end theory (Walker & Olsen, 1991) that consumer do not want products for their own sake, but in order to use them to attain desirable consequences – for example to feed the family in an enjoyable and safe way. Advertising messages should therefore concentrate on key product benefits, and information on product attributes should then be used to lend credibility to the claimed benefits. This approach has been widely used also in the design of advertising content for food products (e.g., Jaeger & MacFie, 2001; Vannopen et al., 2002).

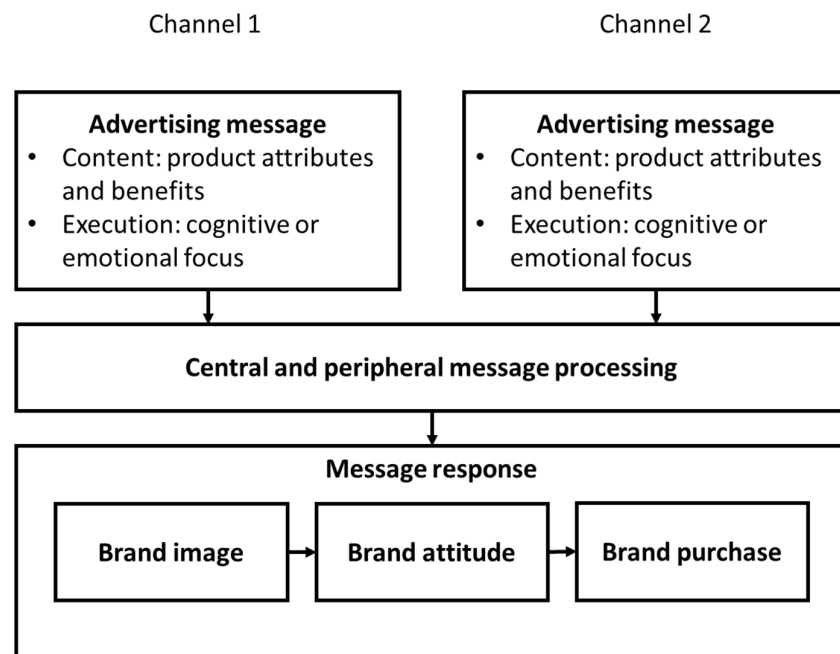


Figure 1: Conceptual model

In designing message execution, we will take into account that messages may, according to the ELM model, be processed with more weight on central or peripheral cues, i.e., with more emphasis on the content or on the execution. If emphasis on content is expected, the message can have a more cognitive orientation, focusing on conveying factual information. If emphasis is on execution, the message should have a more emotional orientation, eliciting positive feelings even when the content is only superficially processed.

Our conceptual model can be seen in figure 1 above.

3. Overview of empirical work

In line with the MECCAS approach, we conduct two studies in this work package. The first study has the aim to identify the best possible content of the messages, defined as combination of product attributes and product benefits. The second study takes the most promising contents from study 1 and develops different executions for them; these executions are then tested for consumer reactions in terms of brand image, brand attitude and brand purchase.

4. Study 1: Identifying most promising product attribute/product benefit combinations

4.1. Methodology

For this study, we collected data via an online survey carried out in November 2020 with 1000 participants from five major cities in China: Shanghai, Guangzhou, Shenzhen, Nanjing and Hangzhou.

The purpose of this first study was to identify the most promising combinations of product attributes and product benefits that could form the basis for a branding strategy for Danish pork in China. In cooperation with two experts in China, we identified four benefits and for each of them up to four different product attributes that may be relevant for Chinese consumers and that, at the same time, could be credibly and truthfully communicated for Danish pork. These are shown in table 1.

	Attribute 1	Attribute 2	Attribute 3	Attribute 4
Benefit A: Safety	Almost no antibiotics used	Full control over production chain	Meets the Danish red meat standard	Good test results: virtually no residues or bacteria
Benefit B: Origin	Fresh and clean product from Denmark	Environmentally pure	Authentically Danish production	Full traceability along the production chain
Benefit C: Taste	From pigs with natural growth with good feed	Authentic meat	Taste has been preserved throughout shipment and processing	Less salt and additives used
Benefit D: Sustainability	Almost no antibiotics used	Produced with the world's lowest climate effect	Climate certified pigs	

Table 1: Product benefits and product attributes

In order to test the potential effect of these benefits and attributes, we used a discrete choice experiment (DCE), a method that has been used in a wide variety of areas (e.g., environmental management, transportation, marketing, retailing) and that is effective for assessing the trade-offs consumers make in determining their real preferences (e.g., Crouch & Louviere, 2001; Kim & Park, 2017). In a DCE, series of choice sets are presented to survey respondents, and for each choice set, respondents are asked to choose one preferred option from two or more alternatives. These alternatives display different characteristics, which force consumers to make trade-offs between these different characteristics.

We constructed a DCE where respondents had to choose 12 times between two alternative pork products. Each was described by two benefits and four attributes selected from table 1. From the full factorial design (all possible combinations of benefits and attributes), a fractional design was generated with the JMP software. The aim was to generate 36 choice sets with 2 choice options in each, in 3 blocks of 12 choice sets each. The output was a d-optimal (efficient) design, which is known to provide the most precise parameter estimations. This allows maximizing the efficiency of parameter estimates by providing a minimum value for all the elements in the variance-covariance matrix (Bliemer & Rose, 2005; Hoyos, 2010; Rose & Bliemer, 2009). Respondents in the survey were randomly allocated to one of the 3 blocks of 12 choice sets.

For each choice set, respondents had to indicate a) which of the two they would rather buy, b) which of the two they like more, c) which of the two they think has higher quality, and d) which of the two they think will lead to higher enjoyment. These dependent variables correspond to brand choice, brand attitude, and two dimensions of brand image, as used in WP2.

4.2. Analysis and results

Data were analysed by means of a latent class choice model, which explains respondents' choice by the benefits and attributes describing the two choice alternatives, and at the same time classifies respondents into different classes, depending on their preferences. This was first done separately for buying, liking, quality and enjoyment. Results indicated that 3 or 4 classes were the most appropriate model. In each case, there was a relatively large group of consumers who had weak preferences, and 2 or 3 groups of consumers that differed in the weight they attached to different benefits and attributes. Respondents were categorised into classes according to their responses to each of the four dependent variables (buying, liking, quality, enjoyment) and then a cluster analysis of respondents was carried out across the four classifications.

A 3-cluster solution was chosen in order to capture a) the group of respondents with weak preferences (66% of respondents) and b) retain a minimum of heterogeneity among those who do have clear preferences (19% and 15%). For these three clusters of respondents, the impact of benefits and attributes was re-estimated for the four dependent variables. For the two groups with clear preferences, the most impactful benefits and attributes were identified. The aim was to identify two messages, each defined by benefits and attributes, which would have maximum appeal to both clusters.

This process led to the selection of the two following messages.

Message 1:

This pork tastes good and has been produced in a sustainable way. This is because it comes from naturally grown pigs with good feed, the taste has been preserved throughout shipment and processing, and there is almost no use of antibiotics.

Message 2:

This pork is from Denmark and has been produced in a sustainable way. It is a fresh and clean product from Denmark, there is full control over the production chain, and there is almost no use of antibiotics.

4.3. Discussion

The aim of this study was to identify elements for messages that can form the basis for a branding strategy. Following the MECCAS approach, we defined possible messages as combinations of product benefits and product attributes. We ended up with recommending two messages as promising candidates to be investigated for their effect in the next study.

The final selection was a qualitative evaluation based on the analysis performed on the data. We believe that these two messages are indeed the two most promising. At the same time, a number of precautions are in order. First, and in line with the results from the previous work packages, we find again that there is a large share of Chinese consumers where branding and messages to support it do not seem to play a big role in their pork buying decisions. These people are less brand loyal, are more likely to buy pork in wet markets, and are less environmentally concerned. Within the group of Chinese consumers that do react to branding messages, there is still heterogeneity with regard to how they react. We have tried to select messages that we believe will have broad appeal, but it should be noted that other combinations of benefits and attributes from table 1 could likewise be promising, especially if the target group is more narrowly defined.

5. Study 2: Studying the effect of different executions of two promising brand messages

5.1. Methodology

For the two messages identified in the first study, we developed two advertising executions each in cooperation with a professional advertising agency. In line with our theoretical approach, we developed for each message one version with a more cognitive orientation, focusing on the communication of information about the product and more suitable for central processing, and one version with a more emotional orientation, aimed at causing positive arousal in the message recipient and more suitable for peripheral processing. The ad executions were developed such that they would be usable in different contexts, most notably in outdoor advertising, as posters at the point of sale, in print advertisements and on packaging. The four ad executions can be seen in figure 2.





	Cognitive orientation, with an emphasis on facts and information giving.	Emotional orientation, appealing to positive emotions by use of wording and imagery.
This pork tastes good and has been produced in a sustainable way. This is because it comes from naturally grown pigs with good feed, the taste has been preserved throughout shipment and processing, and there is almost no use of antibiotics.		
This pork is from Denmark and has been produced in a sustainable way. It is a fresh and clean product from Denmark, there is full control over the production chain, and there is almost no use of antibiotics.		

Figure 2: Ad stimuli developed for ~~2nd~~ study 2

As noted in the section on our theoretical approach, consumers encounter brand messages in multiple channels that differ with regard to the amount of information that can be transferred, the time of exposure and the motivation of the message receiver. In order to simulate this, we exposed respondents in the study to two of the ads in figure 2, in random order, and with either short (10 seconds) or long (30 seconds) exposure. The short exposure resembles seeing the ad in an outdoor context or while walking along a poster in a store, the long exposure resembles seeing a print ad or looking at the packaging during a deliberate choice.

After exposure, we measure brand image in three dimensions (brand quality, brand enjoyment, brand status) using the instrument from Sweeney and Soutar (2001) also used in WP2. We measured brand attitude using the same three items as in WP2. Brand choice was measured by administering a simple DCE task to respondents. Respondents had six times to choose a pork product among two alternatives that differed in price and brand; the brand could either be a Danish brand (Danish Crown), a Chinese mainstream brand (Shineway) or a Chinese premium brand (Meal Boss). We also had all four ads evaluated one-by-one by a choose-all-that-apply method, where respondents had to tick all those adjectives from a list that they thought characterized the ad.

Consumer channel usage and brand loyalty were measured in the same way as in WP2. In addition, we added the consumer ethnocentrism scale (Shimp & Sharma, 1987) as a measure of attitude to imported goods, a measure that has been used in China before (Tsai, Lee & Song, 2013). We also measured self-rated importance of those benefits and attributes of pork that are mentioned in the ads.

For this study, we again collected data via an online survey with 1000 participants from Shanghai, Guangzhou, Shenzhen, Nanjing and Hangzhou. Number of respondents was equally divided among the cities, and there were quotas for gender (30% male, 70% female) and age (50% 18-40, 50% 41-64). In this respect the composition of the sample is the same as in the online study in WP2.

5.2. Results

Figure 3 shows the results of the monadic evaluation of the four ads. There are relatively few differences between the four ads, with a majority of respondents finding them *informative*, *attention-grabbing* and *appealing*. The first ad (taste and sustainability/cognitive) gets slightly better evaluations in terms of *attention grabbing* and *appealing* than the other ads.

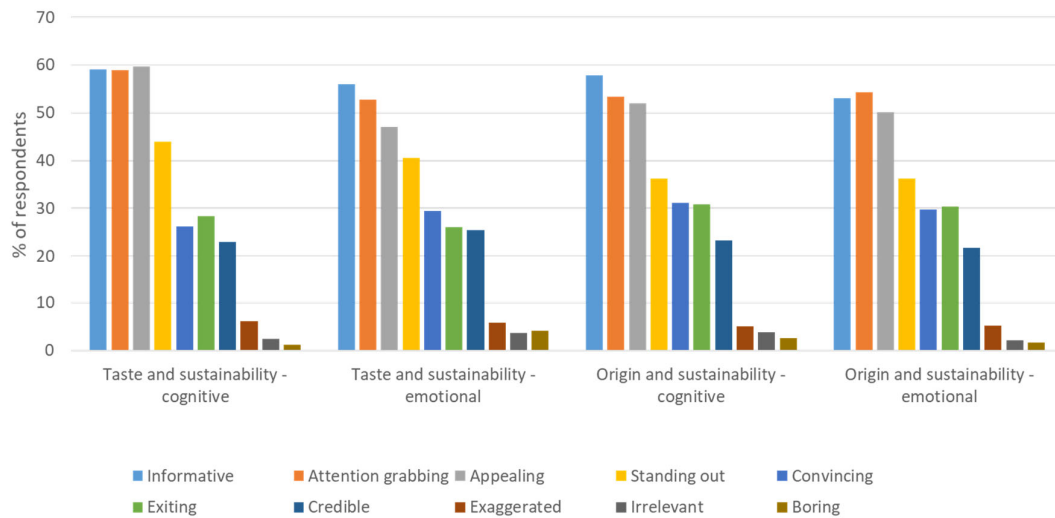


Figure 3: Monadic evaluation of the four ads

Figure 4 shows the mean values for the three components of brand image and for brand attitude for the Danish brand, measured after respondents saw the two ads for the Danish brand. As benchmark, we add the mean values for brand image and brand attitude for Chinese mainstream and premium brands that we obtained from WP2. Results show that the Danish brand is almost at par with the Chinese brands with regard to the quality and enjoyment components of brand image, whereas it scores lower on the status component. Also, we see that brand attitude is higher compared to the benchmark. Message type, execution and length of exposure had no significant effect on brand image and brand attitude.

The finding that brand attitude is higher whereas brand image is partly on par and partly lower compared to the benchmark seems surprising. A possible explanation can be found in the relationship between brand image and brand attitude. In the analysis of Chinese brands in WP2 we found that the strongest predictor of brand attitude was the brand quality component of brand image, followed by the enjoyment component. The status component, however, had a (weak) negative impact: when consumers thought that a particular Chinese brand conveys status when buying it, this actually decreased their attitude towards buying it. Seeing a brand as conveying status seems to be something projective – people think that some other consumers may buy the brand for status reasons, and view this as something negative. In our analysis of the Danish brand, the quality component of brand image again has the strongest impact on brand attitude, but the status component now has a positive effect, slightly higher than the effect of the enjoyment component. It seems that the impression of whether a brand conveys status works differently for Chinese brands and for the Danish brand: Respondents who think that the

Danish brand conveys status also have a more positive attitude towards the brand. Thus, while we find that respondents were more likely to associate status with some of the Chinese brands, this actually lowered their attitude to the brand, whereas the same increased brand attitude for the Danish brand.

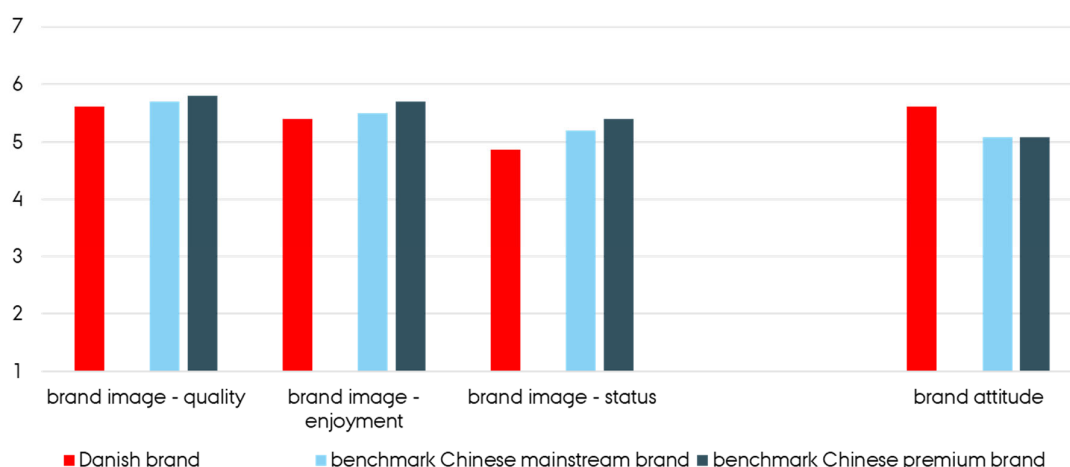


Figure 4: Brand image and brand attitude for Danish brand after exposure to two ads

After viewing the ads and completing measures of brand image and brand attitude, respondents had, as noted above, to make six brand choices, where the Danish brand was paired with either a Chinese mainstream brand (Shineway, the most well-known Chinese brand) or with a premium brand (Meal Boss), at different price levels. Analysis of the data showed that respondents could be categorized into two groups, with different response patterns. For the first group, 60% of the respondents, price was the major driver of their choice. The remaining 40% had a tendency to choose Shineway, the most well-known brand, if it was part of the choice set. These two groups' likelihood of choosing the Danish brand rather than the Chinese brand, depending on the price difference between the two, is shown in figure 5. The choices of the price conscious group are price-elastic, and the probability of choosing the Danish brand increases the more the price of the Danish brand is favourable compared to the Chinese brand. Whether the Chinese brand is Shineway or Meal Boss makes no difference in this. Also note that when the price of the Chinese and of the Danish brand are identical, the share of the price conscious consumers choosing the Danish brand is still over 50%.

For the 40% of the respondents that prefer Shineway, the most well-known Chinese mainstream brand, the likelihood of them choosing the Danish brand is low unless the price is strongly in favour of the Danish brand. When they had to choose between the Danish brand and the Meal Boss brand, it is different – the likelihood of choosing the Danish brand is now higher. It seems

that when the most well-known brand was not an option, their decision was mostly driven by price, choosing either Meal Boss or the Danish brand depending on the price differential. Note that brand awareness of Meal Boss is much lower than brand awareness for Shineway, so when choosing between Meal Boss and the Danish brand, for many respondents this was a choice between two unknown brands.

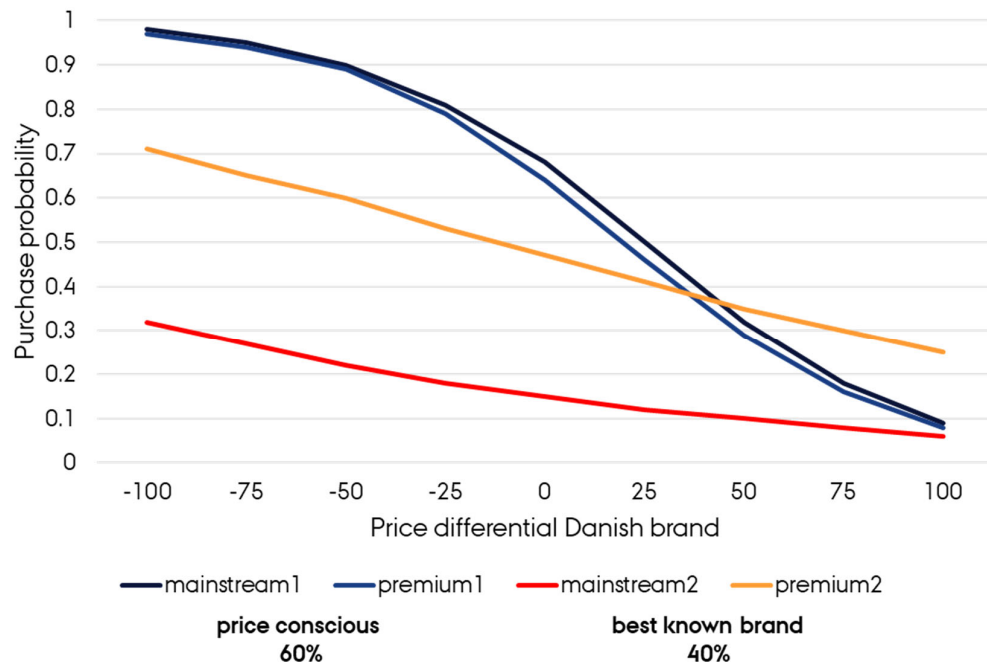


Figure 5: Likelihood of choosing Danish brand depending on price differential, competing brand and consumer segment

The preference for Shineway in the choice task is not necessarily a sign of brand loyalty – it may just show that when in doubt, these consumers go for the most well-known brand. We did measure brand loyalty by asking consumers to indicate how their last 10 pork purchases were distributed over the 11 most well-known brands, other brands and unbranded pork. Based on this, we classified respondents into three equal groups of low, medium and high brand loyalty (where even high was not very high – it only meant that respondents, out of 10 purchases, bought at least 3 times the same brand, indicating the generally low level of brand loyalty). Results can be seen in figure 6. The level of loyalty affects brand image and brand attitude for the Danish brand only slightly, but it has an effect on to which extent this also carries over to brand choices.

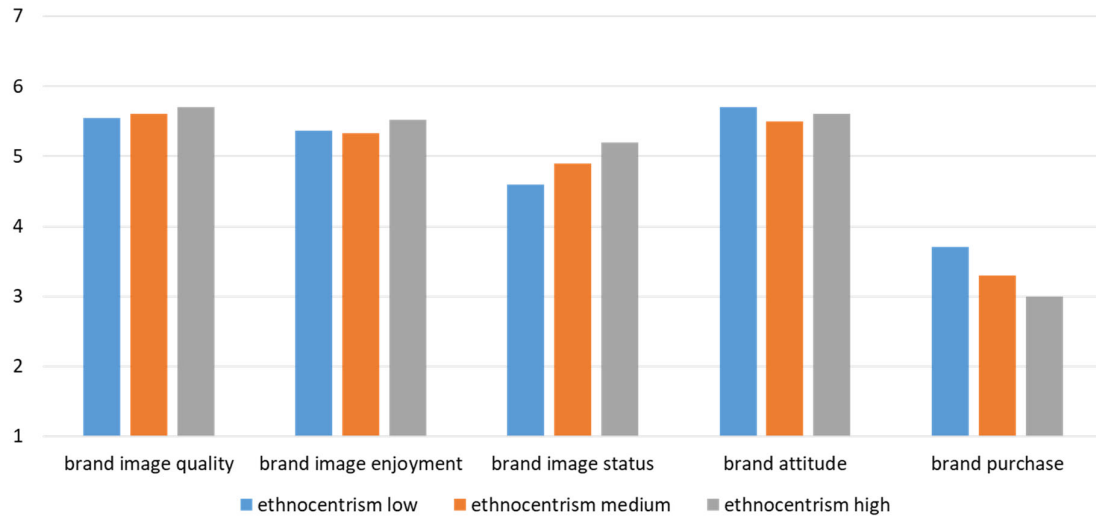


Figure 6: Effect of brand loyalty on brand image, brand attitude and brand choice for the Danish brand

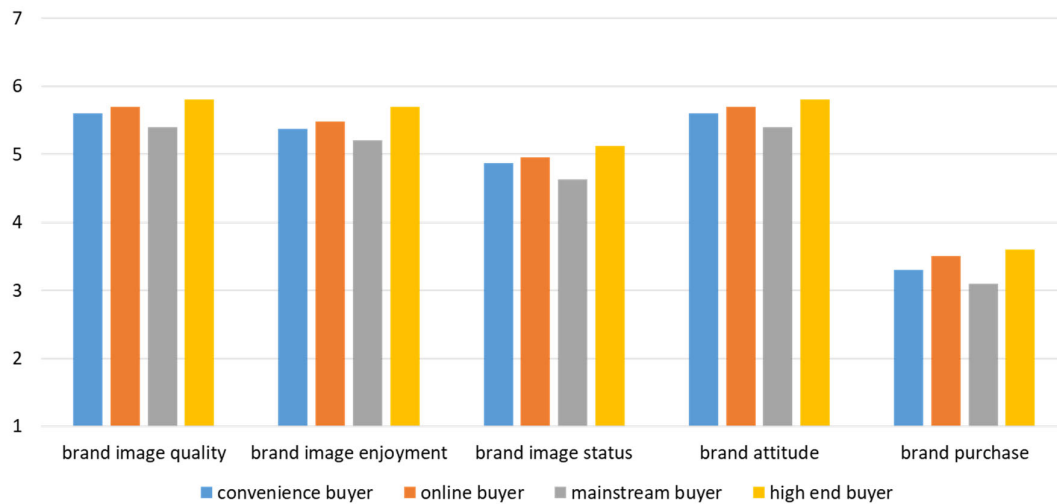


Figure 7: Effect of channel usage on brand image, brand attitude and brand choice for the Danish brand

We know from the results from WP2 that Chinese consumers' brand image, brand attitude and brand choice is related to which channels they use for buying pork. Chinese consumers usually use different channels simultaneously, but there are differences in their pattern of usage. We grouped respondents (latent class clustering) based on their channel usage (measured by how the last 10 purchases of pork were distributed across different channels) and found, quite in line with the results from WP2, four groups: a group of mainstream buyers, where most of their pork purchases are in supermarkets or on wet markets, a group of online buyers that do most of

their purchases online, a group of high-end buyers where about half of their purchases are in high-end supermarkets and imported goods stores, and a group of convenience buyers, where about half of their purchases are in convenience stores. Figure 7 shows how these groups differ in brand image, brand attitude and brand purchase for the Danish brand. The differences are not huge, but across all variables the high-end buyers and the online buyers have a more positive brand image and a more positive attitude to the Danish brand, and they also chose it more often in the choice task.

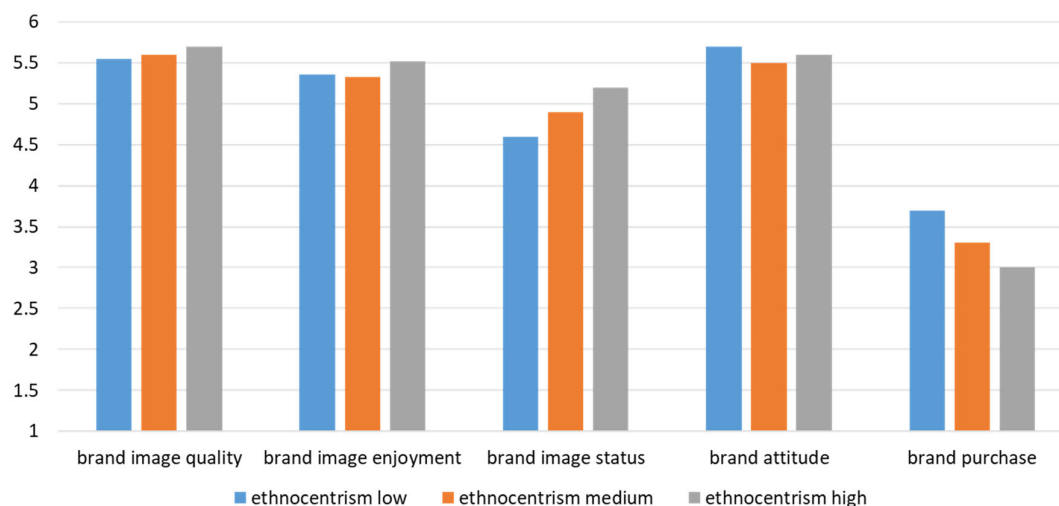


Figure 8: Effect of ethnocentrism on brand image, brand attitude and brand choice for the Danish brand

Finally, we checked the effect of degree of consumer ethnocentrism – an attitudinal construct measuring the extent to which a consumer thinks one should prefer and buy domestically produced products rather than imported products. Figure 8 shows that brand attitude and two of the brand image dimensions are only very slightly related to degree of ethnocentrism. The exception for brand image is the brand status dimension – here respondents with a high degree of ethnocentrism actually rated the Danish brand *higher* on status. This makes sense remembering the interpretation earlier in this report: brand status seems by most respondents be seen as a projective variable, indicating to which they extent *others* may think the brand conveys status, and buying brands for their status value is seen as something negative. We do see an effect of ethnocentrism on brand purchase: the likelihood of choosing the Danish brand, when having to choose between the Danish and a Chinese brand, falls with degree of ethnocentrism.

5.3. Discussion

We found that showing respondents the ads that were developed for promoting the Danish brand resulted in scores for brand image and brand attitude at about the same level as we measured for Chinese brands in WP2. Which of the four ads people saw, for how long and in which sequence did not result in major differences. Whether the brand image and brand attitude turned into actual decisions to choose the brand – in a hypothetical choice task – depended on the price differential between the Danish and the Chinese brand and on whether respondents were mainly price conscious or whether respondents went for the well-known brand.

The results are in line with the results from WP2 – namely that the various brands on the Chinese market are not very differentiated in the mind of the Chinese consumer and that a Danish brand will fit into this overall pattern. This is both good and bad: It means that a Danish brand can achieve a brand image and brand attitude similar to that of Chinese brands. It also means that achieving a brand image and brand attitude that is clearly better than Chinese brands, or at least better than some Chinese brands, will be difficult.

Still, some Chinese consumers will be more responsive than others to Danish branding efforts. As concluded earlier, the way in which Chinese consumers distribute their pork purchases over different sales channels plays a role. Those that buy their pork mostly online and those that buy their pork in high-end supermarkets and in imported goods stores have been more positive. Ethnocentrism does play a role, such that consumers with a strong preference for domestic products are less positive towards a Danish brand, but our findings do not indicate that there should be a generally high level of ethnocentrism that could prevent the development of a Danish brand.

6. Overall discussion and conclusion

In this work package, we wanted to investigate options for branding of Danish pork in China. We did this on the basis of the results of work packages 1 and 2. Results from these work packages showed that branding of pork is widespread in China, but that there is little difference in the way the brands are positioned, that brand images and brand attitudes in the minds of Chinese consumers have a low degree of differentiation, and that the level of brand loyalty is generally low. This is both good and bad for branding of Danish pork: when the level of loyalty to Chinese brands is low, it should be possible to convince some Chinese buyers to buy Danish

pork instead. At the same time, it indicates that it will be uphill to establish a brand image that is really distinct from the Chinese brands.

In the first part of this work package, we have worked with identifying promising brand messages. Given the high importance that Chinese consumers attach to safety, the obvious way to go in selecting a brand message may appear to be a claim that Danish pork is safe. Our results do not bear that out. All pork brands on the Chinese market claim to be safe. Any positive brand differentiation would need to be in terms of a) underlying arguments supporting the safety claim, and b) bundling the safety benefit with other benefits. We have investigated a range of claims and underlying product attributes and have identified these two as the most promising:

Message 1: This pork tastes good and has been produced in a sustainable way. This is because it comes from naturally grown pigs with good feed, the taste has been preserved throughout shipment and processing, and there is almost no use of antibiotics.

Message 2: This pork is from Denmark and has been produced in a sustainable way. It is a fresh and clean product from Denmark, there is full control over the production chain, and there is almost no use of antibiotics.

Both messages address safety indirectly, through the characteristics of the production process that are mentioned, and they link them to other main benefits, namely taste, origin and sustainability. The origin in Denmark and the characteristics of the production process that go with it are unique characteristics of a Danish brand, and linking them to multiple benefits has the potential of building a positive brand image.

We then tested different possible executions of these messages, varying both the degree of emphasis on conveying facts vs. creating positive emotional reactions and the exposure times. While none of this resulted in major differences in the brand image and attitude created, we still propose that the current conditions for market communication in China require a mix of different message executions. The major reason for this is that consumers are exposed to brand-related messages across different touchpoints, which differ in their ability to convey information and in the way consumers will process this information. Likewise, consumers will differ in the interest they have in this information. A combination of more factual messages, where consumers can learn about the benefits and characteristics of Danish pork, and more emotional messages, creating interest, curiosity and sympathy, is therefore most likely to be successful and will require the use of several communication channels in parallel.

Given the amount of brand clutter on the Chinese market, the low degree of brand differentiation, and the low degree of brand loyalty of Chinese consumers, it would require a quite massive communication effort to build a strong and differentiated brand image for the Danish brand. This naturally leads to the question whether this effort should be aimed at a narrower target group than the mass market. The results of both this work package and of work package 2 underlined the importance of use of different sales channels as a way to distinguish different consumer segments in the Chinese market. As we have shown here, those consumers that mainly buy online and in imported goods stores are the most promising group to address. If the communication effort is concentrated on these consumers, it will also have consequences for the choice of communication channels.

References

- Aaker, D.A. (1991) *Managing Brand Equity*. New York: Free Press.
- Bech-Larsen, T. (2001). Model-based development and testing of advertising messages: a comparative study of two campaign proposals based on the MECCAS model and a conventional approach. *International Journal of Advertising*, 20, 499-519.
- Crouch, G. I., & Louviere, J. J. (2001). A review of choice modelling research in tourism, hospitality and leisure. In J. A. Mazanec, G. I. Crouch, J. R. Brent Richie, & A. G. Woodside (Eds.), *Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure*. (Vol. 2, pp. 66-87). Wallingford: CABI Publishing.
- Dinner, I. M., Heerde Van, H. J., & Neslin, S. A. (2014). Driving online and offline sales: The cross-channel effects of traditional, online display, and paid search advertising. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 5), 527-545.
- Hoyos, D. (2010). The state of the art of environmental valuation with discrete choice experiments. *Ecological Economics*, 69, 1595-1603.
- Jaeger, S. R., & MacFie, H. J. (2001). The effect of advertising format and means-end information on consumer expectations for apples. *Food Quality and Preference*, 12, 189-205.
- Kim, D., & Park, B.-J. (2017). The moderating role of context in the effects of choice attributes on hotel choice: A discrete choice experiment. *Tourism Management*, 63, 439-451.
- Lien, N.-H. (2001). elaboration likelihood model in consumer research: A review. *Proceedings of the National Science Council*, 11, 301-310.
- Petty, R. E., & Cacioppo, J. T. (1986). The Elaboration Likelihood Model of persuasion. In R.E. Pett & J.T. Cacioppo (Eds.), *Communication and Persuasion: Central and Peripheral Routes to Attitude Change* (pp. 1-24). Springer.
- Reynolds, T. J., & Craddock, A. B. (1988). The application of the MECCAS model to the development and assessment of advertising strategy: A case study. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 28(2), 43-54
- Rose, J. M., & Bliemer, M. C. J. (2009). Constructing efficient stated choice experimental designs. *Transport Reviews*, 29, 587-617.
- Tsai, W. H., Lee, W. N., & Song, Y. A. (2013). A cross-cultural study of consumer ethnocentrism between China and the US. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 25, 80-93.

- Vannoppen, J., Verbeke, W., & Van Huylenbroeck, G. (2002). Consumer value structures towards supermarket versus farm shop purchase of apples from integrated production in Belgium. *British Food Journal*, 104, 828-844.
- Walker, B. A., & Olson, J. C. (1991). Means-end chains: Connecting products with self. *Journal of Business Research*, 22, 111-118.