

BRAND MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES



Swati Sharma
Dr. Jayakrishna Herur



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CHAPTER 1

THEORETICAL BUILDING BLOCKS OF THE CULTURAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT:

The cultural approach provides a comprehensive framework for understanding the influence of culture on human behavior, beliefs, values, and social interactions. This abstract explores the theoretical foundations and key concepts that form the building blocks of the cultural approach, shedding light on the complexities and nuances of cultural dynamics. The research delves into the concept of culture as a multifaceted and dynamic system of shared meanings, norms, symbols, and practices that shape individuals and societies. It emphasizes the role of culture in shaping human behavior and cognition, highlighting how cultural values and beliefs influence individuals' perceptions, decision-making processes, and social interactions. The cultural approach is highly distinct from the other methods, which indicates that the theoretical foundations are also different. The other methods convey a central subject together with its ancillary elements. The supporting themes are ideas that help us grasp the core theme on a deeper level.

KEYWORDS:

Cultural Values, Discourse Analysis, Ethnography, Hermeneutics, Intertextuality, Power Relations, Social Construction.

INTRODUCTION

The core theme is the primary theory behind the method. But the way this is put together reflects the duality and conflicts of the cultural approach. Thus, one supporting subject of cultural consumption and one central theme of brand symbols make up the theoretical building blocks. After reviewing the social response to the central premise of the No Logo movement, a workable hypothesis of how brand management may handle the opposite reaction follows. The key principle and a pillar of the cultural approach is Douglas B. Holt's thesis on cultural branding. The emphasis of this theory, in contrast to the bulk of publications with a cultural viewpoint, is on the management of brands. The Grant McCracken theory on cultural consumption and the cultural branding model are closely connected. Because it makes it easier to study the theory of how companies become icons, understanding the fundamental method to think about consuming in a cultural context acts as the supporting topic [1]–[3].

Reviewing these two components can first appear like enough information to comprehend brand management from a cultural perspective. However, one must also comprehend the other end of the ideological spectrum in order to fully comprehend the cultural approach. The most well-known book expressing many of the issues raised by the anti-brand movement is No Logo by Naomi Klein. The cultural approach also emphasizes the anti-branding agenda since understanding these processes is crucial when pursuing iconic brand status. Due to the No Logo movement's social critique of brand symbols rather than its role as a supporting theme, it is briefly discussed here. The No Logo movement's social reaction challenges the

managerially centered view of how businesses become symbols. At first look, it may appear incongruous that there are conflicts between famous brands and the anti-brand, anti-globalization movement. In analyzing these conflicts, Douglas B. Holt shows how these divergent viewpoints may actually be logically related, and he also develops a new cultural brand concept called the citizen-artist brand. Because the citizen-artist brand is a real possibility that emerged from these cultural conflicts, it provides as a management model for how to address the anti-branding movement. Even if it does not fulfill the definition of a supporting or essential theme, it would suffer from not being included as an intriguing new idea and explanation of the approach's tensions. highlighting important components.

Supporting theme: cultural consumption

In the 1980s, Grant McCracken, a Canadian anthropologist, developed the idea of a cultural viewpoint on consumption. Since then, his views have emerged as essential to comprehending consumption in a cultural context. Given the definition of culture used in this method, it is clear that McCracken's theory is necessary to comprehend the creation and dissemination of cultural meaning via consumer products. It is crucial to note that cultural consumption refers to all consumer items that are seen as equal circulators of meaning rather than just the consumption of cultural artifacts.

The idea that culture and consumption function as a system is crucial to the theory of cultural consumption. This paradigm of cultural consumption acknowledges that products not only serve a functional purpose but also have the capacity to convey cultural significance. The cultural meaning is fluid, movable, and always changing. Consumer products and the consumption of things incorporated into consumers' lives convey meaning from the culturally constructed world. In this way, cultural significance is incorporated into consumers' daily lives via consumption.

The advertising and fashion industries use consumer products to assimilate cultural meaning from the world that is culturally constructed. The theory contends that the advertising and fashion industries choose meaning-fragments and apply them to items via media and advertising. These pieces may be found in the routine activities that make up the world as it is culturally formed. As a result, the systems of fashion and advertising serve as meaning generators. Therefore, consumer products function as cultural meaning circulators that are recognized to the "enculturated" consumer. By making buying decisions, the consumer therefore selects a level of meaning appropriate for his or her existence. If a given consumer product offers a valuable perspective on the particular circumstances of your life, you consume the commodity and take this perspective on board. This is how products, in addition to having a useful purpose, come to have cultural significance. Consumers therefore choose to absorb the cultural meaning that best fits their lifestyles as they choose to consume the goods: People may actualize their diverse and shifting conceptions of what it means to be a man or a woman, middle-aged or old, a parent, a citizen, or a professional thanks to the consumer system. All of these cultural ideas are materialized in things, and it is via their ownership and use that a person brings these ideas into reality in his own life.

This conception of the transmission of cultural meaning makes extensive use of semiotics. The study of signs and symbols used in communication is known as semiotics. Signs and symbols are thought to be able to convey meaning in addition to that conveyed by the word or image itself. The interpreter's cultural and personal history, as well as his knowledge of the sign systems, all influence how they are to be interpreted: "The meaning of signs is arbitrarily. Anything might theoretically stand in for anything else. The cultural environment frames sign interpretation and gives specific signs their own localized meanings.

Intertextuality, or the idea that one "text" refers to another "text" that refers to yet another item, is a crucial component of semiotics. It is clear that the degree of cultural "literacy" and general cultural familiarity greatly influence how the "text" is interpreted. Therefore, a "string of signs" is created by the marketing system, and marketing communications are made up of several levels of significance. There is no beginning or end to the creation or transmission of meaning.

The main idea: how companies become iconic.

The basic idea of the cultural approach is the principle of cultural branding. Holt has developed a new method of understanding and managing brands via a thorough empirical analysis of enduring brands. The strategic underpinnings of how to build, maintain, and transform a brand into an icon are known as cultural branding. What culture can do to build brand value is the focus of cultural branding. The book *How Businesses Become Icons* is an in-depth investigation at the process of developing the creative and skillful brand communication that underlies the legendary businesses. The starting premise is similar to McCracken's in that brand and/or goods are seen to have cultural significance, but Holt's hypothesis is more exact and exacting. Prior to being able to develop myths that are so potent and resonant that the brand becomes legendary, he identifies the need of resolving a number of significant cultural concerns and paradoxes.

DISCUSSION

The first thorough study on branding from a cultural standpoint is *How Brands Become Icons*. The idea is based on case studies of many well-known American brands that reflect various sectors, corporate histories, competitive environments, and customer bases. The brand symbols showed unmistakable similarities despite their distinctions, which contributed to their popularity. The cultural branding model, a hypothesis on how firms become symbols, is built on these success stories.

An identity brand that is nearing the identity value of a cultural symbol is said to have a brand icon. A "storied" brand whose worth to customers stems largely from identity value is an identity brand. The component of a brand's worth known as identity value comes from the brand's contributions to the consumer's ability to express themselves. A cultural icon is someone or something that is revered as a symbol, particularly of a culture or a movement. Examples include institutions, individuals, and so on. Icon is a good example of a symbol. The most effective and timely response to the cultural predicament of their time is provided by the cultural icons, who are example symbols that resonate with the majority of people. The same is true for brand symbols; they must skillfully address the most prevalent issues of the day. In that regard, they must perform more potent and representative narratives to popular culture than the identification brand.

Therefore, Reebok, Pepsi, and Saab are seen as identity brands, which means that their usage greatly supports their customers' right to self-expression. The majority of individuals see Bruce Springsteen, John Wayne, and J.F.K. as important cultural icons that set an example for others. And among the few firms that are getting close to the cultural icons' identification worth are Apple, Nike, and Harley-Davidson[4]–[6]. After defining what a brand symbol is, we may go on to discussing the processes that lead to this position. According to the empirical research that supports the cultural branding concept, the ascent to icon status is mostly facilitated by advertising but may also be hastened by cultural industries and populist worlds: Identity brands must excel in customer service, price, distribution, promotion, and product quality. However, these qualities are only the up-front cost that marketers must pay to

remain competitive. They do not lead to successful businesses. The quality of their messaging determines whether identity brands succeed or fail.

There are four things that distinguish the messaging of the great brands:

Look for a cultural incongruity. "Cultural branding works when the brand's stories connect power-fully with specific contradictions in American society," according to one expert. Iconic firms have been able to address cultural contradictions in society and perform a potent myth to accommodate the tensions. Become an activist for culture. Radical action must be made in order to live up to the identification value of a cultural icon: "Icons act as cultural leaders, as activists encouraging people to think and act differently through their stories." As an artist, create unique, expressive culture. The company must also set the bar when it comes to aesthetics and not merely follow trends. The brand symbols have been successful in creating their own distinctive visual expression, giving customers access to something fresh and different.

Create a genuine populist voice. A brand must be seen as an authentic representation of a "populist epicenter," which is where new, unrelated forms of culture are emerging. The brand must demonstrate a thorough understanding of the viewpoint it stands for. Target a cultural contradiction in the 1980s, President Reagan was in charge of the United States, which was going through difficult times to develop a more dynamic economy. The labor market was characterized by ongoing reduction and reorganization. Around 1990, there was a current of unhappiness and skepticism in corporate America as well as among political s due to the imbalanced nature of the labor market, which saw elites and firms making big profits while significant segments of the populace were left with "McJobs." By creating a story about a business run by amateurs, Snapple was able to solve this social imbalance or cultural contradiction by implying subtly that the 'overpaid' elites in other firms' marketing departments were not really necessary. Drinking Snapple became a means to embrace its cultural significance.

Act as a cultural activist Before the rest of the world fully understood the intense tensions in US culture, Snapple played a role in creating new myths about the corporation being governed by a group of silly amateurs, allowing for the expression of intense social resentment. As a result, Snapple was able to address a significant tension before most individuals could even express their concerns verbally. Create creative expressive culture in the role of an artist Snapple's branding efforts were significantly different in terms of aesthetics while being consistent in the political voice of the brand. Through their convincing air of amateurism, all of these activities made an ironic statement on the society of the period. Despite mispronouncing the company name in the television commercials, tennis star Ivan Lendl was chosen as the ambassador since he was a fan. Wendy the Snapple woman rose to fame in a number of television commercials. Wendy was a Snapple employee who had taken on the responsibility of responding to customer correspondence. Wendy, who fell well short of the aesthetic expectations of advertising, rose to fame as "the real thing." Snapple started sponsoring activities like cherry spitting in Minnesota and yo-yo throwing in New York to parody the celebrity events sponsored by rival firms like Coca-Cola and Pepsi.

Create a genuine populist voice Snapple appointed two radio personalities as brand ambassadors. Despite coming from opposite sides of the political spectrum and being poles apart, Rush Limbaugh and Howard Stern both shown disobedience to the status quo and professed a true love for Snapple. One illustration of how Snapple garnered legitimacy from a populist epicenter is their sponsorship. One of the biggest difficulties for renowned businesses is to endure changes in time and culture while still being relevant. According to the socio-

political-economic-cultural shifts, the strong myth must continually be updated. "Iconic brands remain relevant when they adapt their myths to address the shifting contradictions that their constituents face." The mindshare branding model establishes that consistency in brand communication is what creates a powerful brand, in contrast to the cultural branding model, which is fundamentally quite different. The purpose of this book is to display the seven "ideal types" side by side rather than to debate which strategy is best. But highlighting the distinctions between the mindshare model and the cultural model makes it easier to comprehend both strategies. We will now move to the sociological, critical remark on the cultural influence of the globally recognized iconic brands after establishing the nature of consumption from a cultural viewpoint and how cultural meaning may be engaged so effectively that businesses become icons.

Every year, Starbucks publishes a CSR report that is accessible online. You can learn more about their sponsorship of MercyCorps, Save the Children, and the African Wildlife Fund there as well. The overarching goal is to contribute to the good development of the regions in South America and Africa that cultivate coffee. Diamond corporation DeBeers, the best in the business, describes its social commitment in the nations of Southern Africa as a significant representative of an industry that has come under fire for allegedly exploiting Third World countries. You may learn more about how the South African & DeBeers Fund invests money from the DeBeers company's revenues in South African society on its website. The business also offers an HIV/AIDS program to its staff members and their families. You may learn about investments in future sustainable energy sources and obtain an annual sustainability report from the website of the oil firm BP. None of the other brand strategies promotes divergent viewpoints in the same way that culture does. It's crucial to realize, however, that the branding process's undisputed leaders are also targets of a "revolutionary" agenda that seeks to bring them to justice. But maybe the two points of view are not as diametrically opposed as they first seem. The influence of famous brands may be criticized, and management can profit from an examination of the conflict between the two extremes in the literature on cultural branding.

An intriguing perspective on the conflicts between brand iconography and the anti-brand "No Logo" movement can be found in one study paper. In the introduction to this technique, the essay is cited as an essential reading. In order to comprehend the contradictions between the existing branding paradigm and consumer culture and to speculate on their potential future trajectories, Holt investigates the rising antibranding movement. The postmodern branding paradigm's advocates are the brand icons.

According to Holt's argument, they should see the pressure and criticism they are subject to from the anti-brand movement as the start of a paradigm change. The same phenomenon occurred in the 1960s, when societal shifts called for the emergence of a new marketing/branding paradigm. Therefore, the pressure on the proponents of postmodern branding paradigms is nothing more than a sign that something is going to shift. is an example of the postmodern branding paradigm and the post-postmodern paradigm of Holt's study with a brief explanation. The marketing role has altered as a result of changes in consumer culture, and branding strategies have followed suit. Rebellion against the preeminent marketing strategies was the catalyst for the shift from one dominating paradigm to another. The phrase "Consumers are revolutionary only insofar as they assist entrepreneurial firms to tear down the old branding paradigm and create opportunities for companies that understand emerging new principles" is accurate in this regard.

When a new branding strategy is ready to take shape, it is important to consider the key distinctions between the old and the new. Understanding the suggested transition from the

postmodern to the post-postmodern branding paradigm centers on the concept of "authenticity." 'Stealth' branding is seen as genuine in the postmodern branding paradigm. In the post-postmodern paradigm, candor about financial motivations should be coupled with active civic participation. The anti-brand movement is exposing the authenticity issue that results from hiding commercial goals beneath a carefree, satirical brand attitude. The citizen-artist brands under the post-postmodern branding paradigm should be open about their financial motivations, behave responsibly, and be able to provide creative and timely cultural content. Customers are searching for businesses that behave like neighborhood shops and dependable neighbors when they peel back the brand shell. Consumers will soon be interested in how businesses handle those who are not paying customers. When a brand's sponsors have shown they take on civic obligations like a cornerstone of the community, that brand may be trusted to act as a source of cultural information[7]–[10].

As a last thought on this slightly unusual examination of the theoretical pillars of the strategy, brand icons are companies that have the potential to tell compelling narratives that make statements about the main cultural conflicts of the day. A supporting theme is provided by the fundamental concept that the consumption of products is equivalent to the consumption of cultural meaning, which makes it easier to comprehend the cultural brand viewpoint. The anti-branding strategy passionately opposes how culturally astute businesses impact popular culture. Even if it is more of a social commentary than a supporting theme, it is crucial to comprehend some of the difficulties that the branding champions face. The future scenario of the citizen-artist brand is a crucial and managerially important remark on the social opposition by the No Logo movement, evoking ideas about the future of brand management. Even though it first seems to be incongruous, the fundamental components of the cultural approach mesh well. The notion of how companies become icons is at the heart of the cultural approach. By embracing the cultural branding strategy, so-called identity brands have the potential to develop into industry icons. The McCracken theory of traditional cultural consumption is strongly tied to the cultural branding model. According to this theory of consumption, the consumables are seen as cultural artifacts that convey meaning to the consumers from the world as it is perceived by culture.

Like films, social movements, books, periodicals, etc., brands are seen as cultural resources. The resources for creating legendary brands may be found in this brand viewpoint. The brand may approach the identification value of a cultural icon by addressing the urgent cultural contradictions as a valid cultural "text" and being flexible enough to renew itself when social conflicts evolve. The anti-brand movement is worried about what globalization and branding are doing to culture. They promote civic engagement, bring up significant political issues, and promote corporate social responsibility. It is possible to interpret the conflicts between brand symbols and the anti-brand movement as a sign that a new paradigm for branding is emerging. The brand should function as a citizen-artist in this post-postmodern branding paradigm, which means it should be able to produce relevant cultural content while also taking on its social and civic responsibilities. After outlining the fundamental theoretical pillars of the cultural approach, the next gives an overview of the data and methodologies that were used.

Data and procedures cultural approach

A particular strategy to data collecting is needed in order to comprehend the creation and transmission of cultural meaning, which is crucial to the cultural approach. The cultural approach uses a number of techniques and information that have been "borrowed" from many traditions of interpretative inquiry. The fact that all data are analyzed from a macro viewpoint unites the investigations. Furthermore, if one is thinking about learning more about cultural

consumption, it is crucial to comprehend the fundamentals of semiotics. As they are strongly related to the management mentality of this strategic model, the concrete means for implementing the cultural branding model will be discussed in "Managerial Implications."

Data and research techniques

Understanding semiotic processes is necessary to comprehend the creation and transmission of meaning, which is central to the cultural consumer viewpoint. Through semiotic marketing studies, the meaning conveyed through business communication is dissected. Samples of business communications should be disassembled in accordance with the study's objectives. To go beyond the "taken for granted" connotations, the items are intended to be rendered weird and alien. The intertextual sign strings should then be disassembled and semiotic codes should be cracked. An essential component of semiotics is intertextuality. Like other cultural manifestations, the commercial message is seen as a cultural "text." The concept of intertextuality involves texts citing one another. For instance, when a cosmetics company chooses a well-known actress to be their "face," the brand is associated with the films the actress has been in. These films are connected to other cultural "texts" like the book that inspired the screenplay, additional actors, the renowned director who previously won an Oscar, and so on. These 'strings of signals' and 'strings of text' may be dissected alone or in focus groups. It's critical to realize that in semiotics, there are no right or incorrect responses, and that the respondent's enculturation will have a sole bearing on how a "text" is deconstructed. However, several readings result in a more nuanced view of the text.

Other approaches

To gather information on the creation and dissemination of cultural meaning, several techniques are used. Cultural brand research uses a wide range of data gathering techniques. The most important ones are ethnographic, phenomenological, and case approaches. For a better knowledge of the customer in a cultural context, ethnographic studies are appropriate. The ethnographic research tradition generally aims to understand man in his cultural environment and is crucial if one is gathering information on the cultural dimensions of consumption. An ethnographic field research involves complete immersion and no restrictions on the sources of the material. The researcher is expected to engage in consuming activities in this case and refrain from excluding oneself from any form of data source.

In the context of the cultural approach, phenomenological interviews are another feasible option. Understanding the consumer population's collective identity projects is a major focus of the method. Phenomenological interviews are great for examining personal identity projects. The information from the individual interviews may then be placed to a cultural context to reveal the consumer population's collective identity projects via macro-level analysis and interpretation. For advice on how to perfect the extended, unstructured interview style, please see Methods of 8. The 'extended case method' is a discovery-oriented approach to anthropological descent where a very small number of informants are thoroughly examined via protracted, informally organized interviews and observations of them in their environs. 'Bottom-up' data interpretation is used; the informants are expected to act as mouthpieces for the surrounding culture rather than express their own unique meanings: "To study how consumer culture operates, I examine the phenomena that it structures, people's everyday consumption practices. In terms of methodology, I will look at macrolevel constructions using microlevel data, or people's accounts of their consumption. The cultural approach 'borrows' techniques and information from different scientific perspectives. When seeking to shed light on the cultural element of brands and branding, phenomenological interviews, ethnographic immersion, case techniques, and the semiotic decoding of commercial and

cultural manifestations are all valid sources of information. The macro-level interpretation that is applied to the procedures and data distinguishes them from how they are used in the other approaches. The informants are seen as representations of the local culture rather than speaking only in accordance with their own peculiar thoughts and perspectives.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, basic pillars of the cultural approach to understanding how culture affects behavior in people. The cultural method offers insightful information about the complex interrelationship between culture and human behavior by acknowledging the multidimensionality of culture, assessing theoretical frameworks, taking into account cultural aspects and variability, and contextualizing cultural occurrences. Understanding cultural dynamics is essential for encouraging diversity, building intercultural understanding, and tackling social and global concerns in a way that is inclusive and sensitive to cultural differences. The cultural approach aims to comprehend the most significant cultural inconsistencies of the day. This approach might be used to research important consumer groups and provide valuable insight into these conflicts. This is how the citizen-artist brand possibility was discovered. The analysis's emphasis is particular to the cultural approach, therefore how the data are interpreted is crucial.

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CHAPTER 2

THE MANAGEMENT OF AN ICONIC BRAND

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ABSTRACT:

Managing an iconic brand poses unique challenges and opportunities for organizations aiming to maintain and enhance the brand's position, reputation, and resonance in a competitive marketplace. This abstract explores the key strategies and considerations involved in effectively managing an iconic brand, emphasizing the importance of brand identity, brand experience, brand consistency, and brand communication. The research delves into the significance of brand identity in managing an iconic brand. It recognizes that iconic brands possess a distinct and recognizable identity that sets them apart from competitors. Managing brand identity involves defining and articulating the brand's essence, purpose, values, and personality, ensuring a clear and consistent representation across various touchpoints. The alignment of brand identity with consumer expectations and market trends is crucial for maintaining brand relevance and differentiation.

KEYWORDS:

Brand Strategy, Consumer Perception, Creative Marketing, Iconic Symbolism, Innovation, Licensing, Market Research, Product Development.

INTRODUCTION

An iconic brand's brand manager, or the brand manager of an identity brand aspiring to iconic status, should be prepared for a somewhat demanding work schedule. The brand is seen as a platform for cultural expression, and the capacity to produce extreme cultural expressions is necessary for icon status. The brand manager is primarily responsible for creating the myth surrounding the company: As cultural activists, managers treat their brand as a medium, no different from a novel or a film, to deliver provocative creative materials that respond to society's new cultural needs. The activist managers should be able to define hot and happening rather than just capitalize on what is currently popular and trending. They should also be able to comprehend the brand's past as a myth maker.

The two steps of the cultural brand management process are obtaining and analyzing cultural information and developing the cultural brand strategy. Cultural inconsistencies must be found and exposed, and relevant cultural information must be gathered. A complete awareness of the cultural background is necessary to identify emergent cultural contradictions, and acquiring data for typical consumer research differs from empathically comprehending customers' identity projects. It is necessary to have a distinct sort of consumer knowledge since genealogy is macroscopic and dialectical rather than static, microscopic research that provides a picture of individual customers.

A sympathetic and in-depth grasp of the collective identity projects of the appropriate consumer group is necessary for the creation of outstanding myths. The manager must have a thorough understanding of current cultural contradictions and how they contribute to the hopes and anxieties of, for instance, a generation of urban middle-class Americans: "Resonant myths spring from an understanding of people's ambitions at work, their dreams

for their children, their fears of technology, their difficulties in building friendships, and so on[1]–[3]."

The brand manager must also be aware of the brand's reputation. According to the cultural perspective, a brand's reputation is seen as its ability to tell certain kinds of tales and to compete in a particular market for myths. This reputation gives the brand a cultural and political authority, which means that the brand is known for acting or telling falsehoods about a certain idea in order to appeal to specific cultural groups. The brand manager must understand what historical activities hinder or strengthen the brand's power to create myths in the future in order to record the brand's cultural and political influence. It matters a lot where one seeks for empathetic understanding. The most important 'outlets' of the cultural contradictions cannot be located on the perimeter of brand loyalists; rather, they are found in the core of brand insiders/followers. It is consequently necessary to fully immerse oneself, or better to acquire a "cultural membership," in the relevant populist realms.

The myth has to be properly written and implemented after choosing the most important cultural paradox to focus on. In place of a conventional positioning statement, a "myth treatment" that clarifies the brand's suggested cultural function should be used. The implementation of the brand message should go beyond being a 'populist authenticity' on the basis of current popular culture. Additionally, the brand should convey its personality via its own looks. In conclusion, the brand communication has to have its own unique voice and become involved with the culture of the period. The most astute critic and source of pertinent cultural "text" addressing the socio-cultural conflicts of the period is the successful brand. The concept of ideology as understood by cultural historians. Ideological changes at the national level are intimately related to changes in culture, politics, and the economy. Targeting the most pertinent social tensions requires a brand manager who can comprehend ideological upheavals and the cultural changes they bring about mapping the terrain of social contradictions by a sociologist. Cultural, economic, and political transformations are inextricably related to social paradoxes. The brand manager may execute potent myths by gaining an empathic awareness of societal conflicts.

aptitude and desire to go on a literary journey into popular culture. Being a cultural activist and having a thorough awareness of culture are prerequisites for managing a famous company. Therefore, it is necessary to be in the know and comprehend the cultural web the writer's capacity for empathy and compassion. The brand manager has to have a sixth sense of what goes on under the surface of people's lives, much like a writer is often able to watch life more than participate and yet be the one who pinpoints the precise sentiments of others.

DISCUSSION

Culturally aware brand manager

There are further applications for the cultural approach's findings. Cultural agendas that target your brand may serve as both inspiration and a red flag that your branding approach is starting to lose its charm. In order to theoretically define the unfavorable autonomous brand images that are permeating our society, Thompson et al. create the phrase "Doppelgänger brand image." Holt sees the conflict between brand symbols and the larger global brand culture as a whole, while Thompson et al. propose the 'doppelgänger brand construct' to show the conflict in greater detail. The 'doppelgänger brand' is a brand that has undergone 'cultural jamming' and may provide signals about the need for a shift in brand strategy. Any brand manager should thus be highly aware of anti-brand behaviors and interpret them as warning indicators that a brand strategy is beginning to lose its attraction. The analysis of a doppelgänger image can highlight cultural inconsistencies that may threaten to undermine the

perceived authenticity of a company's emotional branding strategy, show early signs that an emotional branding story is starting to lose its value as an authenticating narrative for consumers' identity projects, and provide insight. A doppelgänger image should be seen as an early indication regarding flaws and imperfections in a brand's image and strategy. Other pertinent challenges for brand managers include the anti-brand No Logo movement and the drive for corporate social responsibility. Any brand must not overlook the need for corporate social responsibility.

Manager Citizen Artist brand

The apparent conflict between brand symbols and the anti-branding movement may transition toward a new branding paradigm, as discussed in the theoretical building blocks. The citizen-artist brand is meant to meet the emerging demands of a consumer culture that is becoming more critical by providing the necessary cultural content and behaving as a good citizen by fulfilling its corporate social obligations. The management of this future brand scenario necessitates a work schedule that is even more flexible than the administration of a brand symbol since the brand is expected to both supply strong cultural content and pave the way for new frontiers in corporate citizenship.

These businesses agree to donate a portion of their revenue back to the Global Fund. The fact that the customer does not pay more for their purchase—rather, the business does—is a key issue. For the management and marketing of the brand, a license fee is collected for the use of the RED mark. Purchases have brought in more than \$100 million for the Global Fund by the beginning of 2008. The Independent left on May 15 and September 21 of the same year. 50% of the day's sales were given to the Global Fund, which was highlighted in the newspaper. Numerous well-known individuals from throughout the world have contributed to newspaper editions, including Tony Blair, George Clooney, Bill Gates, Arnold Schwarzenegger, Condoleezza Rice, and Nelson Mandela. Numerous worldwide celebrities have backed the initiatives in various ways and modeled the clothing to promote the cause. To learn about new projects, visit the website.

Understanding cultural branding may be useful to marketers in a variety of ways. To follow the road to icon status, the brand manager might completely embrace the cultural branding paradigm. Going down this path requires the brand manager to adjust to a cultural activism agenda and prepare ready for a somewhat complex working environment. The brand manager must have a profound understanding of societal cultural concerns in order to tie brand myths to the most significant cultural paradoxes of the day. This method's insights may also be utilized to recognize the significance of keeping an eye out for instances of brand criticism or even "culture jamming." This can be an indication that a branding approach is losing its attractiveness or that there is demand to demonstrate more corporate social responsibility. Brand managers should also address the ramifications of the citizen-artist brand possibility.

These psychological presumptions have dominated branding for over forty years. According to this theory, which I refer to as the mindshare model, a brand is a collection of connections that a certain customer values. Therefore, branding is simplified to acts that consistently strengthen these connections. With his notion that each brand needed a USP that should be repeated often to cement it in customers' brains, American ad man Rosser Reeves created the foundational intuition for this concept in the 1950s. With the release of a series of essays in *Ad Age* that culminated in the 1980 publication of *Positioning the Battle for your Mind*, Al Ries and Jack Trout established this concept hegemonic. They introduced a potent metaphor

that won over marketers all over the globe: branding is a war for brain space because there are just too many signals in the world for consumers to comprehend. The company must locate a cognitive gap in the significance of the advantages and associations for the product category before attempting to take control of this mental space using ultra-simple ultra-consistent brand messages. In order to establish a general theory of branding that mirrored what Reeves, Ries, and Trout had previously produced for practitioners, consumer psychologists have published a large number of academic papers, textbooks, and management books starting in the 1980s. In order to maintain a brand's dominance over a certain category of products' valued cognitive connections, branding involves claiming these associations and then persistently communicating them across all of the brand's activities throughout time.

The mindshare model has certain branding applications that function well, but as a theory of brand symbolism, it has serious flaws. This book makes it obvious that there are many different branding models, including relationship branding, emotional branding, brand personality, and brand archetypes. The mindshare technique is a fundamental tool for the incremental and routine part of branding, which involves managing existing brands on a day-to-day basis. Mindshare is a dead end when it comes to the most significant, thrilling, and strategically significant job of branding using branding to create remarkable new enterprises and generate economic value[4]–[6].

I created a cultural theory of branding to fill this void. The concept of cultural branding was created expressly to illustrate how branding functions as an innovation engine, generating major new consumer value sectors. Moving away from the essentialist, unchanging, individual-level conceptions of mindshare theory and toward social and cultural constructs rooted in historical settings is necessary to achieve this goal. Additionally, the practical implementation of this new theory necessitates the use of distinct research methodologies and strategic ideas.

Overview of cultural branding

I researched in-depth cultural histories of several great brands, including Budweiser, Marlboro, Volkswagen, Mountain Dew, Nike, ESPN, Jack Daniels, Coca-Cola, Corona, Snapple, and Patagonia in order to develop the cultural branding model. Although the majority of these brands are American, I have subsequently extended my study to include companies from Europe, Japan, Latin America, and other parts of the world.

By delivering culturally relevant tales and pictures that certain consumer groups may use to support their identities, brand symbolism creates value for the customer. Such tales are needed by everyone as a result of significant social changes. Myths are what cultural theorists refer to as tales that have this practical purpose. The most significant and valuable brand narratives react to -- and often serve to drive -- significant changes in society and culture. My hypothesis aims to explain why certain branded narratives and pictures are highly prized during specific historical turning points. When brands act out strong identity myth simple fictions that address cultural issues from a distance, from fictitious worlds rather than from the reality that the consumer lives in they create powerful, long-lasting symbols. Identity myths are helpful fictions that mend rips in the national cultural fabric that might otherwise be destructive. People perceive these tears in their daily lives as tensions or concerns. People utilize myths to ease these social tensions by giving their life meaning and stabilizing their chosen identities during times of stress. Academic studies have shown that the mythic elements of the most popular cultural products have contributed to their extraordinary appeal. Examples include Horatio Alger's rags-to-riches dime novels from the nineteenth century,

John Wayne westerns, Harlequin romance novels, and the action-adventure movies starring Bruce Willis, Arnold Schwarzenegger, and Sylvester Stallone. The same principles apply to iconic brands.

When a brand caters to society needs rather than individual ones, it becomes legendary. Iconic brands embody myths that symbolically allay the worries and wants related to one's identity that result from a significant societal conflict. Iconic brands have tremendous value because they cater to the general concerns and aspirations of the country. We see our identities as very personal pursuits—our self-understandings and aspirations. But when academics look at consumer identities as a whole, they discover that identity demands and fears are shared by a large portion of a country's population. People develop their identities in reaction to the same historical changes that affect the whole country, and sometimes regions or the entire world, even if they may originate from diverse walks of life.

Consumers eventually learn to believe that the myth is included in the product when the company executes its myth over time. The brand takes on symbolic meaning and takes on the form of the tale. Customers thereby experience a little portion of the myth when they consume, drive, or wear the product. This is an example of a contemporary, secular ritual, which anthropologists have found to exist in every human community. However, the most potent myths in contemporary society have little to do with religion and instead revolve around identity. Customers utilize recognizable brands as healing symbols. Customers seize on the myth and utilize it in their daily lives to lessen the weight of their identity burdens via the items in which they are entrenched. Great myths provide their audience members brief epiphanies—moments of understanding that put sounds, sights, and sensations on barely audible wants. Customers that utilize the myth of the brand to define themselves create strong emotional bonds with it. It is helpful to compare cultural branding with the traditional mindshare model in order to comprehend some of the fundamental characteristics of cultural branding:

Creating connections and telling myths

According to the mindshare model, consumers' abstract mental connections make up brand symbolism. Advertising thus aims to change these connections. The communication's information is seen as useful rhetoric. The assumption is that consumers would ignore this rhetorical content and just take in references to the brand. This understanding of brand communications is turned on its head by the cultural branding paradigm. The core of consumer value for well-known companies like Coke, Nike, and Budweiser is the brand's messaging. Customers generally purchase the goods to participate in the brand's narratives. Customers only encounter the brand's tales via the product, which serves as a conduit. Coke, Corona, or Snapple drinkers are consuming more than just a beverage when they take a sip. Instead, they are consuming identity myths that have been infused into those beverages. The product has a rich history and the brand is one of those products. Customers may experience identity myths via the brand's unique brand indicators. The mindshare model is unable to understand how brand symbolism functions since it overlooks the specific contents of the brand's communications.

Cultural expressions and abstractions

According to the mindshare model, a brand is made up of a number of abstractions. Brands are often described with ethereal nouns and adjectives like security, performance, quality, and toughness. Contrarily, in cultural branding, a brand's worth may be found in the specifics of its cultural expression, including the unique cultural elements that make up its myth and the unique ways in which these elements are expressed in communication. For Corona, the brand

is defined by the Mexican beach and the advertising that captures the evocative phrase of the beach as "nothing's happening." In "Teach the world to sing," Coke's brand was predicated on the notion that racial harmony and peace could be found in the hippie subculture. For Snapple's groundbreaking "100% natural" marketing in the early 1990s, Howard Stern and Rush Limbaugh's acerbic political monologues and loud-mouthed Wendy's hilarious tales of Snapple consumers served as the brand's focal points. These cultural phrases lose their most valued qualities when they are reduced to the terms "relaxation," "friendship," and "quirky," respectively.

To find the brand's pure core, the mindshare model abstracts away society's and history's clutter. The brand's ability to be a historical player in society is denied by this simplified approach. The mindshare model overlooks the fact that identity value is established and modified in certain historical circumstances in its demand that businesses build a transcendental identity ingrained in customers' brains. The brand's stakes in the development of culture and society, as well as the specific cultural expressions the brand utilizes to promote these transitions, must be described in depth in a theory of brand symbolism.

From historical fit to transcendental consistency

According to the mindshare concept, brand connections are timeless and universal. Therefore, the key factor in determining how a brand evolves is whether it maintains consistency in the face of organizational and competitive pressures that encourage zigzagging. Finding the company's genuine "identity" and upholding it through thick and thin are key components of brand stewardship. To meet evolving currents in American culture, the businesses I have researched have succeeded by departing from their original branding—their presumed DNA at the time. In fact, all of the legendary businesses I've researched with histories spanning more than 10 years have to undergo considerable changes in order to maintain their iconic status. Brands like Pepsi, Levi's, and Cadillac that haven't made the necessary adjustments have lost a lot of their brand value. These new interpretations of the brand are important because a myth must directly address the most pressing contemporary cultural issues in order to establish identity worth. Coke lauded the United States' victories over Nazi Germany during World War II, but abruptly changed its focus to emphasize methods to end internal conflict related to war in the early 1970s, and then racial tensions in the early 1980s. Corona, which at first stood for college hedonism, was subsequently repurposed to provide a calming counterbalance to the pressures and worries of the networked free agent job that peaked in the 1990s. The opposing principle from the mindshare approach is employed to create iconic brands. The brand is a historical entity whose appeal stems from telling tales that speak to the nation's most pressing social issues. Success for famous companies relies on how successfully the myth of the brand is altered to match historical requirements rather than on its constancy in the face of historical change.

1985–2006 Brand Management Taxonomy

After walking you through each of the seven brand management methods, we'll give you an overview of the many viewpoints on some of the most important brand management issues. The taxonomy summarizes the most important takeaways from the seven approaches. This book's backdrop is based on a thorough examination of 300+ brand management research publications published between 1985 and 2006. The analysis was carried out in line with the Dynamic Paradigm Funnel methodology's reasoning. The Thomas Kuhn-developed philosophy of science, which describes how science develops, is the foundation of the Dynamic Paradigm Funnel. The outcome of this thorough investigation is a new taxonomy of brand management that includes seven distinct methods. However, other authors have also

suggested categorizations of various brand management techniques. This will conclude with a comparison of some of these alternative brand management categorizations with the categorization and taxonomy suggested in this book.

1985–2006 brand management taxonomy

The most important characteristics of each strategy are listed side by side. An understanding of the seven brand approaches is obtained by going through each approach's attributes. The fact that each strategy is presented as an "ideal type" should not be overlooked. We place more emphasis on the ideal form of each strategy than on its eventual subtleties and similarities because doing so helps us see the variations in the underlying mental models of each approach. For instance, throughout time, the identity approach's perspective of the brand-consumer interaction has changed from one of linear communication to one that presumes co-creation of brand value. In actuality, the majority of techniques have changed, often embracing new discoveries and tolerating criticism. The distinctions between the techniques are thus less clear in reality than they are in the book's conceptual framework. Each method has the most significant developments and conversations, but we have cut a toe and compressed a heel to provide our readers the best clarity. We will go through the primary divisions of the model in the sections that follow [7]–[10].

Each brand strategy's moment of genesis may be more or less pinpointed. Some of the methods were inspired by a particular, ground-breaking essay that offered a brand-new point of view. These methods may be traced back to a particular publication. Others seem piecemeal and can only be roughly dated despite coming from the hands of multiple scholars. The chronological sequence in which the seven strategies are presented reflects the time at which each strategy was first conceived in relation to brand management. The revolutionary articles are designated as important readings in the circumstances of the simple-to-date methods. The core readings for the other methods are research publications that are representative of the approach and crucial to it, authored by its most significant and prominent academics. The approach's primary focuses are key words. The brand viewpoint encapsulates the entire "take" on the brand in the context of the chosen strategy. We have concentrated on explaining not just the many brand viewpoints but also the various customer perspectives connected to the various brand perspectives.

Each brand strategy has a distinct scientific history that may be identified. The clarification of the many traditions suggests variations in customer perceptions and buying behaviors as well as philosophical viewpoints. These aspects of the proposed taxonomy might seem complicated and over the top, but in our experience, including the assumed, "taken for granted," stuff actually helps people understand the discipline because it directs the general concerns of each approach: what is investigated; which methods are assumed to be valid; view of man, etc. When it comes to techniques, the model is quite clear that they have evolved from an emphasis on quantitative methods to the use of a broad range of methods, and that they are predominantly qualitative in the latter approaches. This is true of the ways that are officially used to brand management research. The managerial key words change throughout time, from indicating control over the process of creating brand value to key words that suggest the brand manager must accept the effect of external factors on that process. We have provided basic concepts and supporting topics in the theoretical foundations of each method. Reflecting on the supporting themes should make it easier to grasp each approach since they serve as the framework for the core theory of the approach. The model also offers a summary of how it is predicated that brand management may provide brands value.

The two first methods made the assumption that marketers were in charge of creating brand value. A complete knowledge of the customer is assumed to be at the core of improved brand value development in the third method, where this brand value creation has changed. The production of brand value is assumed to be dialogue-based and to take place in dyadic interaction between the customer and the marketer in both the personality approach and the relational approach. Because real brand value is assumed to be created not so much in the interaction between marketer and consumer, as was the case in the previous approaches, but in the interaction between consumers, the community approach adds the triadic brand-consumer relationship to the assumptions of what drives brand value creation, making the arrow point in three different directions. Because the marketer is believed to be more reliant on macro and consumer culture than on interactions with one or more customers, the inclusion of macro-level culture complicates the expected process of creating brand value.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the approaches and factors that go into operating a renowned brand. Organizations may create and maintain brand excellence by managing brand identity, brand experience, brand consistency, and brand communication successfully. Successful brand management distinguishes products, cultivates customer loyalty, and promotes corporate expansion. However, to overcome obstacles and preserve the brand's iconic position throughout time, one must have a thorough awareness of customer preferences, market dynamics, and the always changing environment. The capacity to build brand value is at the core of brand management. In the brand-consumer transaction, the arrows represent the inferred notion of the generation of brand value. Although the management implications of each strategy are complex, we have attempted to distill them into seven distinct phrases.

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CHAPTER 2

CATEGORIZATIONS OF BRAND MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT:

Brand management plays a crucial role in shaping the identity, perception, and success of a brand. This abstract explores different categorizations of brand management, providing insights into the diverse approaches and perspectives employed in effectively managing brands. By examining various categorizations, including strategic vs. tactical, internal vs. external, and short-term vs. long-term, this research sheds light on the multifaceted nature of brand management practices. The study delves into the categorization of brand management into strategic and tactical approaches. Strategic brand management focuses on long-term brand planning, positioning, and equity-building. It involves defining the brand's vision, mission, and values, conducting market research, analyzing consumer insights, and developing comprehensive brand strategies. Tactical brand management, on the other hand, is concerned with the implementation of specific brand initiatives, such as advertising campaigns, promotional activities, and digital marketing efforts. Both strategic and tactical approaches are essential for effective brand management, with each playing a unique role in building and maintaining brand equity.

KEYWORDS:

Brand Positioning, Brand Repositioning, Co-Branding, Corporate Branding, Destination Branding, Internal Branding, Line Extensions.

INTRODUCTION

Other authors have also put forward various frameworks in an effort to organize the market into distinct categories while also attempting to define the illusive nature of the brand. We shall compare the framework categorization of this book to other brand management categorization frameworks in this and consider the relevance of the framework categorization in light of the other categorizations. The analysis that forms the basis of our proposed taxonomy is informed by Kuhn's philosophy of science and his views on the development of codified knowledge in scientific fields. The taxonomy and analytic findings are so closely related to the approach's data, which is comprised of research papers. It is vital to note that the identification of the seven brand approaches is exclusively based on research publications. Other pertinent material has been included to the study of each approach to provide a comprehensive and accurate image of each approach. The other frameworks utilize different denominators to classify brand management and are based on studies with different backgrounds. By making these parallels, we don't want to create more confusion; instead, we want to increase understanding by highlighting how our framework and other frameworks operate similarly even if they were developed using distinct mindsets and analyses. We'll discuss Mary Goodyear's study, "Divided by a Common Language: Diversity and Deception in the World of Global Marketing," which focuses on the various brand roles in various markets. We'll also look at Louro and Cunha's Brand Management Paradigms, which identified four distinct brand management paradigms based on the use of two key criteria for differentiation. How Brands Become Icons, a comparison of four useful branding models, is the last classification of brand strategies[1]–[3].

The function of branding

In "Divided by a Common Language: Diversity and Deception in the World of Global Marketing," Mary Goodyear looks into the linguistic misunderstanding of marketing and branding and poses the question: How can branding be defined if one does not take into account the numerous different roles that brands play in various economies, historical periods, and stages of market maturation? In light of these fundamental variables, Goodyear defines the functions of brands. The model depicts the many functions that brands play as marketplaces develop. In that regard, the Goodyear framework depicts the life cycle of a brand, showing how branding strategies advance as customers get acclimated to marketing strategies.

This classification is based on how branding strategies have changed as markets have matured. The vast majority of items in a non-industrialized economy are unbranded, and the simple packaging of goods may be a reflection of customer preferences. The major function of a brand in underdeveloped and low-consumer zed nations is to act as a point of reference. The manufacturer is not required to use complex marketing strategies to promote his products. This brand's function is similar to the economic strategy in many ways.

The marketer must use more branding strategies to set the items apart in a more developed market since there is greater competition. This circumstance calls for "three-dimensional brands," where the brand's primary function is to behave as a personality and where product quality is complemented by emotional advertising. This position is linked to the individualized brand methods of our taxonomy since branding tactics connect to emotions and connotations. A few companies are propelled to iconic status as a result of customer involvement in the branding process in an even more crowded market. The consumer "owns" the brand and actively contributes to imbuing it with shared values.

Goodyear distinguishes between classic branding and post-modern branding in her classification. The postmodern consumer thrives in a highly educated consumer culture and is able to look through the traditional responsibilities of companies thanks to superior brand literacy. The two latter duties of brands are therefore applicable since the highly empowered postmodern customer would demand accountability and identity from the organization behind the brands. While the brand as policy is akin to the CSR-related elements of the cultural approach, the brand as organization is comparable to the identity approach.

DISCUSSION

Four brand management paradigms

The two discriminators of the role of the customer in the branding process and whether the brand should have a tactical or strategic position inside the organization are used to identify the four dominant branding paradigms in Brand Management Paradigms. These two dimensions provide four 'ideal sorts' of brand management strategies. The brand is seen as a low strategic priority and the consumer as a passive participant in the branding process, which is reflected in the product paradigm.

Louro and Cunha refer to it as a projective paradigm if the brand strategy is seen as being fundamental to the organization's overall strategy while maintaining the same idea of the consumer. The third paradigm, known as the adaptive paradigm, is distinguished by the brand having a low strategic priority and a tactical emphasis in addition to a notion of the customer as an active and main co-creator of value. The relational paradigm is the fourth and final

brand paradigm in Louro and Cunha's classification of branding. In this case, the brand is seen as crucial to the whole strategy, and customers are taken to be active brand co-creators.

A product-focused approach to brand management is reflected in the product paradigm. In the product paradigm, the product and its functional advantages are crucial to the organization's profitability. The brand serves two main purposes: it declares legal ownership and serves as a communication tool to support visual distinctiveness and recognition in the marketing of the company's goods. According to this brand management paradigm, having the ideal marketing mix—the appropriate pricing, correct product, price, location, and promotion—creates brand equity. The economic strategy used in this book is akin to the product paradigm[4]–[6].

The identity method in our framework is similar to the projective paradigm of the Louro and Cunha classification. Instead of the tactical branding strategy portrayed in the product paradigm, it focuses on the brand's strategic utility. The brand is seen as a strategic component that ought to serve as a model for the whole company strategy. As a result, an organization's brand reflects its mission, values, and key competencies, and vice versa. The resource-based viewpoint serves as the projective paradigm's theoretical underpinning. As a result, value and brand significance are discovered within. According to this paradigm, a company's competitiveness is determined by its capacity to identify and develop its own internal strengths with the aim of developing a distinctive corporate culture and distinctive competencies that are difficult to replicate. The projective paradigm in brand management is built on the notion of developing distinctive ideas based on sender identity.

The adaptive paradigm emphasizes the customer as the source of brand meaning, as opposed to the projective paradigm, which places more emphasis on internal corporate resources and competitiveness: "The power of the brand resides in the minds of the consumer." As a result, the taxonomy in this book's adaptive brand management paradigm mimics the consumer-based strategy.

The relational brand management paradigm in the Louro and Cunha framework is the antithesis of both the projective paradigm's lack of evaluation of customer activities and the adaptive paradigm's "excessive" emphasis on the active customer. According to the relational paradigm, brand management is conceptualized as a dynamic, dyadic process in which the strategic interaction between the creation of brand value and brand meaning leads to a strong and relevant brand equity through a meaningful relationship between the consumer and the brand. In this paradigm, building the brand as a personality is advantageous to the marketer since it strengthens the bond between the customer and the brand. This is accomplished by recognizing that consumers actively contribute to the meaning that brands convey while simultaneously making brand identity and management the cornerstones of strategy development and external business communication. In this sense, the importance of the client and the brand both rate highly in this paradigm. It goes without saying that the relationship approach and personality are covered by this brand management model.

Although Louro and Cunha's classification was developed using various discriminators and a completely new method of classifying existing brand models, the suggested brand management paradigms are in fact equivalent to the taxonomy in this book. The four brand management paradigms outlined above cover the first five methods, while the last two arose around and after the 2001 release of *Brand Management Paradigms*. It gives a research-based classification of brand management and is based on a thorough examination of the most significant brand management studies from the last twenty-one years. The frameworks and, more importantly, the outcomes of the categorizations are identical in many aspects, although having distinct beginning points, according to a comparison with other classifications of

brand management. Therefore, even if it has a different origin than the current frameworks or categorizations of brand management, the suggested taxonomy of the seven methods complements them. The taxonomy offers a wealth of information to improve brand management understanding on both a broad and in-depth level. The taxonomy's seven suggested brand management strategies provide us a fairly thorough understanding of the topic. Furthermore, the taxonomy has a precise and logical structure based on the connections between assumptions, theories, techniques, data, and management implications thanks to the background of research articles and Kuhnian philosophy of science that was selected. In order to better grasp the elusive nature of the brand, it is our intention that this framework will provide the reader a full and in-depth knowledge of brand management as an academic topic.

"Brand building: new, interesting insights and ideas

It is astonishing to observe how brands still generate attention in spite of the recent claims of several prophets and experts to the contrary. All business managers today are expected to have attended conferences on customer relationship management (CRM), enterprise customer relationship management (ECR), customer equity, relationship marketing, customer database management, e-relationships, and proximity marketing. All of these new tools critique the traditional brand concept and concentrate on the most effective ways to serve the most lucrative customers. They assert that winning over new customers is no longer important since revenue comes from dominating databases and loyalty programs. Despite this, managers continue to go to brand management conferences. Why haven't they come around to the idea that brand management is an antiquated technique? They have discovered that none of these temporary strategies are effective in establishing a sustained competitive edge. They become more of a standard that rivals utilize the more they are disseminated and used. Without brand equity, what is consumer equity?

A corporation has relatively few strategic assets at its disposal that may provide it a sustained competitive edge, and even then, the advantage's duration is dwindling. R&D, a focus on the real customer, an efficiency culture, employee participation, and the ability to alter and respond quickly are a few of them. Wal-Mart, Starbucks, Apple, and Zara live by this motto. The greatest loyalty is brand loyalty, not price loyalty or deal loyalty, as managers have once again learned, even if it is useful to initially develop behavioral exit barriers. Last but not least, A Ehrenberg has discovered via 40 years of panedata analysis that product penetration and purchase frequency are connected. In other words, major brands have a high rate of penetration as well as a high rate of purchases per customer. These are the two necessary paths for growth; they are not the only ones.

People in our materialistic cultures strive to give their purchases purpose. This meaning can only be conveyed by companies when they provide value to the product and tell a compelling narrative about their customers, or when they place their consumption on a scale of immaterial values. This is why expensive brand cults exist. Today, having a brand is a goal for any company. Beyond the natural brand world of fast-moving consumer goods producers and distributors, whose brands are in direct competition with one another, branding has emerged as a strategic concern in a variety of industries, including high tech, low tech, commodities, utilities, components, services, business-to-business, pharmaceutical laboratories, non-governmental organizations, and non-profit organizations.

It's amazing how many different sorts of businesses or even individuals now want to be treated like brands. David Beckham, the English soccer player, is one such example. This soccer star was purchased by Los Angeles Galaxy for \$250 million. It anticipates recovering this amount through the sales of licensed goods featuring David Beckham's name, likeness, or signature

that are sold all over the globe. Every action David Beckham does is intended to enhance his reputation and sense of self, generating sales and profits for the "Beckham brand" in the process. The mayor of Paris has made the decision to establish the city as a destination brand and to benefit from this brand management. This was already being done in many other places. Additionally, nations see themselves as brands. And they have every right to. Whether they want to or not, they behave in the capacity of a brand, a compilation of particular advantages and values. India had a choice: it could let unrestrained news and information shape public opinion throughout the globe, or it could strive to regulate its image by supporting a shared set of strategic principles that may alter depending on the market. The private economic and financial investments market, numerous raw material and agriculture-markets, the tourist market, the immigration market, and so on are only a few of the markets in which countries fight for lucrative clientele[7]–[9].

Companies and organizations from a variety of industries wonder if a brand may help them succeed in business or boost their profitability. They also want to know how to build a brand or develop a corporate brand. What actions need to be taken, together with what resources and expertise? What are some reasonable goals and expectations? They could not have the strategies and knowledge necessary to carry out a brand building strategy since they have built their success on their mastery of manufacturing or logistics. They believe it is more complicated than just a communication issue. Even while it's essential, communication falls far short of being enough to build a brand. A brand undoubtedly represents the goodwill generated by customers' or prospects' favorable interactions with the company, its goods, its channels, its shops, its communications, and its personnel in its name and visual symbols. But this calls for a coordinated and targeted approach to managing these points of interaction. The essential skill is this. This is why we emphasize on the "non-branding" aspects of building a brand in this fourth edition of Strategic Brand Management, even as we examine branding choices in detail. Ironically, creating a brand requires more than just branding.

Customers now have more authority than ever before. The end has come for generic brands. No matter if they provide a satisfying customer experience, excellent service, or high-caliber performance, only those that maximize satisfaction will remain in business. It marks the end of identity less, soulless brands. All brands that do not manage their channel are now in a B to B to C predicament and must never forget it, making the trader more powerful than many of the brands it distributes.

Magazines for business, finance, and economics often produce hit lists of the financial worth of brands. Whatever questions one may have about their legitimacy, they do at least emphasize the primary financial goals of brand creation. Companies don't create brands so that writers can write novels about them or so that billboard advertising can liven up the streets. They do it in order to increase the business's profitability. Selling brands instead of items, or rather a distinct collection of physical and intangible qualities, is how one makes money. Even low-cost providers must compete on their level of trust.

Our impression is that branding has gradually emerged as a distinct discipline. However, there is a chance that the branding community may become too enamored with its own image. Judging by the large number of books that have been written on brands and the list of the most current brand equity values, one could believe that brands are the only thing that matters. The sources of brand equity, such as production, service, staffing, distribution, innovation, pricing, and advertising, all of which contribute to the creation of value associations and effects that stick in customers' long-term memory, may be forgotten by branding specialists who grow enamored with the subject.

One dilemma comes when considering Dell, one of the stars of this hit parade, whose brand is so highly valued: Is Dell's success attribute to its brand or to its business model? It may be claimed that the company's ability to announce more price reductions in 2006 was not due to the Delbrand but rather to Relativities in a wider sense, placing Hewlett-Packard in a precarious position between two "boa constrictors," Deland IBM.

The brand catches the fame, but the economic concept is what makes it feasible. It is time to strike a new balance between success and failure in accounting. Fairy tales are coming to an end, therefore let's usher in the age of honest reports. We tie the brand to the company throughout this new edition of Strategic Brand Management since they are both closely related. We often present how the business mode affects branding choices and how this viewpoint is essential to understanding branding. In reality, the compensation of senior managers are increasingly determined by three performance criteria: sales, profitability, and brand equity. They are partly based on how quickly these managers are creating a strategic kind of competitive advantage known as a brand. One of the very few methods to develop a durable competitive advantage is via brands, which is the goal of the goof strategy. Another is the business mode. Because of this, monitoring brands whether they be corporate or product is crucial.

Using brands as strategic resources

The 1980s were a tipping moment in how brands were created. Management eventually realized that a company's brand names were its fundamental value. The discovery of "brand equity," or the financial worth of the brand, was the subject of several stories in the American and European newspapers. In reality, the growth of brands in fields that had previously opposed or rejected such ideas spoke to the growing significance of brands. The significance that so many distributors attach to the marketing of their own brands serves as confirmation of this.

For many years, a company's worth was determined by the value of its real estate and buildings before moving on to its physical assets. We only lately realized that its actual worth lay outside, in the hearts and minds of potential clients. After Coca-Cola and Marlboro, Adidas was the most well-known brand in the world, according to the guy who acquired the Adidas corporation in July 1990. Since 1985, it has become more and more clear that the statement, which many spectators just dismissed as a witty comment, contained the truth. The drive to secure favorable positions in the upcoming single European market led to a surge of mergers and acquisitions, which drove prices well beyond what was reasonable to anticipate. For instance, Nestlé paid almost three times the stock market value and 26 times the profits of Rowntree to acquire it. The sale price of the Buitoni group was 35 times earnings. Prices have previously ranged from 8 to 10 times the firm being bought out's profits.

Ironically, the justification for these pricing and these new requirements was absent from the financial accounts of the corporations. The only assets that appeared on business balance sheets were fixed, physical assets like inventories and equipment. The names of the brands for which purchasers made offers that exceeded the assets' net worth were not mentioned. Usually, the purchasing firms added this additional value to their consolidated accounting. The true goal of these massive and unrelenting takeovers was undefined, unwritten, and unobservable: acquiring brands. Over the course of the 1980s, awareness evolved. The buyer previously purchased a maker of pasta, chocolate, microwave ovens, or abrasives in a takeover attempt, merger, or acquisition. Companies now seek to purchase Orange, Buitoni, Rowntree, or Moulinex. A corporation like Heineken's strength lies not only in its expertise in

beer brewing, but also in the fact that consumers all around the globe like Heineken. The same reasoning holds true for Dior, IBM, Sony, McDonald's, Barclays Bank, and so on.

Buyers are essentially acquiring positions in the minds of potential customers when they pay very high sums for businesses with brands. The greatest assurance of future profits is brand recognition, image, trust, and reputation, all of which have been meticulously developed over time, justifying the costs incurred. The ability of a brand to provide such cashflows determines its worth. Conflicting opinions on the actuality and longevity of brand equity emerged not long after this managerial revolution had begun. It was believed that the capacity of brands had been overstated due to the gradual increase in distributors' own brands. Wal Street experienced panic in April 1993 as the price of Marlboro cigarettes in the USA fell, causing all consumer products companies' stock values to drop. This little Pear Harbor turned out to be fine. At the height of the recession, we came to the realization that all of the firm's marketing and communication efforts, rather than its registered trademark, were what really produced value. Customers purchase branded goods that offer both concrete and intangible advantages developed by the firm, not simply the brand name alone. With time, the brand may conjure up a variety of connections, traits, and distinctions, but these by themselves do not make up the whole offer. The region is not represented by a map alone.

Due to the recession and oversaturated marketplaces in the 1990s, the focus switched from brands to customer equity. The focus on traditional media advertising has been replaced by new strategies centered on one-to-one targeting. They could demonstrate their efficacy and catered to big spenders. In the same way that some have inflated the dominating influence of brands, so has the resistance to them. The capacity of brands to consistently create value and generate profits via corporate focus and cohesion is what gives them their worth. Who is most suited to utilize brands is a different issue. Is it the distributor or the producer?

Regarding ideological allusions, you must exercise extreme caution. For instance, there aren't many other manufacturers' names on the furniture market save those of Italian designers, yet everyone always brings up Habitat or Ikea, two wholesalers. In the first instance, they are seen as agents who provide significant value-added style, and in the second, they appeal to youth and offer reasonable costs. The world of brands is always changing as a result of manufacturers integrating their distribution and distributors seeing themselves as brands in search of new brand and business models, sources of sustainable advantage, and ways to offer value for customers. We will examine these novel models that characterize the successful brands of the present and the future.

In contemporary society, brands now play a significant role. They are, in fact, everywhere. They permeate every aspect of our lives, including the social, cultural, religious, and economic ones. They have faced increasing criticism as a result of their ubiquity. They may and should be examined from a variety of viewpoints, including macroeconomics, microeconomics, sociology, psychology, anthropology, history, semiotics, philosophy, and others, since they serve as a significant symbol of contemporary economies and postmodern society. In fact, our first book on brands was a compilation of articles from illustrious academics across various fields.

This book focuses on managing brands profitably from a managerial perspective. Brands should be used now that they are acknowledged as capital assets of a corporation. Brands are intangible assets that provide the company with extra advantages. How to build value via effective brand management is the focus of strategic brand management. We must first define the brand idea before moving further. Strangely, the definition of a brand is one of the most contentious areas of contention among experts. Each specialist develops a unique definition

or refinement to the term. When it comes to measuring, the issue becomes even more pressing: how should one gauge a brand's strength? What select few indicators should be used to assess what is known as brand equity? A significant split exists between the two paradigms as well. One is centered on the connection that consumers have with the brand and is customer-based. The other tries to generate currency in the form of dollars, euros, or yen. Each strategy has its own supporters. Unifying these two strategies is the goal of this fourth edition of Strategic Brand Management.

Definitions depending on clients

The financial method isolates the net additional cash flows generated by the brand to determine brand value. These additional cash flows are the consequence of consumers' propensity to pay more for one brand than for those of its rivals, even though the price of the competing brand is lower. Why do people still want to pay more, then? because of the associations and ties that the brand's marketing has gradually established in their brains. Customer equity may be thought of as the introduction to financial equity. Because they have built assets in the minds and hearts of consumers, distributors, prescribers, and opinion leaders, brands have financial worth. These assets include brand recognition, exclusivity and superiority ideas, and emotional attachment. The enduring definition of a brand is that it is "a set of mental associations held by the consumer that enhance the perceived value of a good or service." These connections need to be distinct, powerful, and advantageous.

This definition emphasizes on the increase in perceived value that the brand brings. When buyers learn an automobile is a Volkswagen, Peugeot, or Toyota, how do their opinions of it change? This definition implies that the product itself is not included in the brand's purview since a brand is just a collection of additional impressions. Brand management is thus primarily thought of as a communication activity. That is untrue. In today's brand management, communication serves to organize, orient, and contribute intangible notions while the product and service serve as the primary vector of perceived value. We then examine the connection between the brand and the product. The concentration on cognitions in Keller's now-classic formulation is a second thing to take into account. This is insufficient since powerful brands also have a strong emotional component.

This crucial issue has so far gone unnoticed. An element that may provide advantages over a lengthy period of time is referred to be an asset. Brands are conditional assets, why? Because they must cooperate with other material assets, such manufacturing facilities, in order to supply their advantages and financial worth. No brand exists without goods or services to support it. This will have significant effects on the way financial value is measured. This serves as a reminder that we must exercise humility right now. Despite widespread claims to the contrary, brands need support in order to survive. The brand is successfully brought to life via this product or service, which serves as the brand's physical manifestation. As such, it serves as a key resource for evaluating brands. Does it provide a lot or little satisfaction? The first step in brand management is developing the goods, services, and/or environments that represent the brand. It's interesting to note that the legal approach to brands and trademarks likewise stresses their conditional character. Never use a brand name as a noun; always use it as an adjective after a name, like in the case of a Volvo automobile rather than a Volvo.

The legal viewpoint

There is a legally recognized definition of a brand as "a sign or set of signs certifying the origin of a product or service and differentiating it from the competition" that has been used globally. In the past, brands were developed to protect manufacturers against theft. The owner of the animal was recognized and it was clear whether the animal had been taken by a cattle

brand, a marking burnt into the animal's skin. The origin of the olive oil wine found in ancient Greek amphoras was also identified by "brands" or trademarks, which also gave the product value in the eyes of the consumer by establishing a positive reputation for the manufacturer or seller.

This law's definition of a trademark emphasizes the fact that it has a "birthday" on the day it is registered. They then become property that must be protected against infringements and copying as of that day. When they are not vigorously protected or if registration is not kept current, brand rights expire. Defervescence is one of the causes of rights loss. This happens when a business allows a distinguishing brand name to turn into a generic phrase.

Although the legal strategy is most useful for protecting the business from imitations of its goods, brand management should not be based on it. A brand is not born, as the legal definition claims. Instead, it is created. Even though we speak about establishing brands, building a brand takes time. In actuality, this refers to the introduction of a good or service. It could eventually develop into a brand, but it might also lose that status. What distinguishes a brand? How can we recognize when a name has become a brand? For us, a brand is essentially a name that inspires consumers and becomes a deciding factor in purchases[10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the divisions of brand management, such as tactical vs strategic, internal versus external, and short-term versus long-term viewpoints. Organizations may adopt a complete strategy that takes into account many facets of brand growth and maintenance by looking at these categorizations and gaining insights into the multidimensional nature of brand management. In order to build a powerful and lasting brand presence in the marketplace, effective brand management requires a dynamic and adapt attitude that makes use of strategic insights, embraces tactical possibilities, aligns internal stakeholders, and engages external audiences. The financial method isolates the net additional cash flows generated by the brand to determine brand value. These additional cash flows are the consequence of consumers' propensity to pay more for one brand than for those of its rivals, even though the price of the competing brand is lower.

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CHAPTER 3

EXPLORING THE MARKET SHARE AND LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT:

Market share and leadership are two essential factors that significantly impact an organization's competitive position and success in the marketplace. This abstract explores the relationship between market share and leadership, highlighting the strategic implications and considerations for businesses aiming to achieve and maintain market dominance. The research delves into the concept of market share as a measure of a company's sales or revenue compared to the total market. A higher market share indicates a larger portion of customer demand captured by the company relative to its competitors. Market share is often considered a key performance indicator and a reflection of a company's competitive strength and industry standing. Achieving a significant market share requires effective market penetration strategies, differentiation, customer satisfaction, and continuous monitoring of market dynamics.

KEYWORDS:

Competitive advantage, Dominant market position, Market dominance, Market leader, Market penetration, Market share analysis.

INTRODUCTION

This description accurately describes a brand as a name having persuasive power over consumers. Of course, the choice of the name itself is irrelevant. Undoubtedly, having a nice name that people can pronounce globally and that naturally conjures positive connotations is beneficial. However, the saliency, differentiability, intensity, and trust associated with these connections are what really transform a name into a brand. Are the advantages that the name conjures up conspicuous, coveted, and reliable? Since of the abundance of options and lack of transparency, customers cannot take their time evaluating products before making a decision since we are in an attention economy. They don't have time, and even if they had, they couldn't be sure they could choose the best product or service for them. Brands must exude certainty and reliability. They cut down on both time and danger. In reality, there is no brand where there is no danger. In a previous book, we stressed this concept. The perceived danger may be social, psychological, emotional, functional, or economic. Because of this, developing the saliency and trust that are components of brand recognition takes time.

Representations and connections are key components of brand power to influence consumers. A representation is a mental association system. We emphasize "system" since these relationships are interrelated. Since they are connected, changing one of them affects others. Beyond mental connotations, a name's value also stems from the unique character of the emotional connections it fosters. A brand might be defined as a consumer's ingrained attitude of nonchalance. From emotion resonance to liking, membership to the evoked set or consideration set, preference, attachment, advocacy, and finally fanaticism, this attitude progresses in many different directions. Finally, designs, patents, and rights are unquestionably important assets since they provide you a competitive edge over time.

In other words, a brand exists when it has the ability to shape the market. It takes time to get this. In the case of internet companies, fashion brands, and brands targeted at youth, the time period is often brief, but longer for, say, automotive brands and corporate brands. If the brand has been poorly managed in relation to the competition, its power may be lost. The brand may no longer have market impact even while it still has brand recognition, image, and market shares. Distributors and customers may simply purchase based on price, not because they are aware of any special brand benefits. The product or service, together with the people at market contact points, the pricing, the locations, and the communication all the sources of cumulative brand experience are what give a name the power of a brand. Because of this, brands should be thought of as dynamic systems composed of three poles: goods or services, names, and concepts.

Like intellectual property attorneys, we may just discuss a single component of a brand, such as the name or logo. However, when we talk about brand management, we refer to the whole system, connecting a concept with intrinsic value to goods and services that are defined by a name and a collection of exclusive marks. This approach serves as a reminder of the conditional character of the brand asset, which can only exist in the presence of both goods and services. The brand idea, a distinct collection of qualities that make up the value proposition of the brand, best describes differentiation.

The brand has to be in order to obtain market share and leadership: The Mini is among the greatest illustrations of a brand. This automobile, which has a functional value of \$14,000, is really being offered for US\$20,000. It is one of the few automakers that does not provide rebates or discounts to potential customers who wait in line for "their" Mini. The Mini illustrates how both physical and intangible attributes play a part in every brand's success. It guarantees dependability, power, and road-holding performance since it is built by BMW. But the powerfun memories the brand conjures in consumers of London in the "Swinging Sixties" are what generate the sentiments of love for this brand. The new Mini replicates the iconic and timeless design, and each one seems like an extension of its owner's personality. A brand's influence grows as more people become familiar with, persuaded of, and trust it since it is a name with the ability to sway the market. Gaining power via brand management involves increasing consumer awareness of, interest in, and purchase of the brand idea [1]-[3].

DISCUSSION

Differentiating between brand assets, strength and value

The many words pertaining to brands, their power, and brand equity measurement need to be organized and structured. Some people limit the usage of the term "brand equity" to situations where it refers to how it affects consumer associations. Others bring up behavior. For instance, Aaker's early metrics, which also take into account brand loyalty, contain this. Market share, distribution, and price premium are three of the ten indicators of brand equity that Aaker discusses in his later publications. Brand equity, according to the official definition provided by Marketing Science, is "the set of associations and behavior on the part of a brand's customers, channel members, and parent corporation that permits the brand to earn greater volume or greater margins than it could without the brand name."

This definition is quite intriguing, yet it was soon forgotten. It is always reminding us how crucial brand equity is to channel members. Additionally, it expressly connects margins to consumer behavior and brand connotations. Does this imply that there is no brand value unless there is a better volume or a higher profit as a consequence of the formation of a brand? This is unclear since brand financial worth is determined by the level of profits before interest and tax, but the phrase "margin" seems to solely relate to gross margin. It is crucial to

demonstrate the connections between consumer and financial methods and to utilize simple terminology with clear limits in order to reduce the complexity already present around the term "brand equity," which is brought on by the number of definitions, ideas, measuring tools, and expert opinions brand resources. These are the origins of the brand's and patents' impact. Due to these attributes, a brand has particular brand strength in a particular market and competitive environment at a certain moment. If one just uses the term "brand equity" to refer to brand assets, then these are the "brand equity outcomes." Market share, market leadership, loyalty rates, and price premium are behavior-based competitive indicators that measure brand power.

The capacity of brands to generate revenues is their brand value. If a brand cannot generate profits, it has no financial worth. Separating the brand from the company and asserting that a lack of profit is a business problem rather than a brand issue is an intellectual attempt. Brands may undoubtedly be examined from the perspectives of sociology, psychology, semiotics, anthropology, philosophy, and other disciplines, but historically, they were developed for commercial interests and are still handled with the goal of making a profit.

The complexity around the brand equity domain can only be resolved by dividing brand assets, strength, and value. Brand value, which is influenced by brand market power, is the earning potential of the brand assets. Depending on how much pressure there is from distribution or competition, brand assets may yield varying levels of brand strength over time. The same assets may also be worthless by this definition if no firm is able to make a profit from them by building a large enough market share and price premium. For instance, the brand has no value if the cost of marketing to maintain this market share and price premium is too great and leaves no residual profit. The Virgin organization failed to sell Virgin Cola in the several nations where it was attempted, despite the assets of this brand, and as a result, the Virgin name proved to be of little value in the cola sector. The Mini was never profi until BMW acquired the brand. Brand financial evaluation seeks to assess the brand's value, or the future revenues it will generate. Brands must generate economic value added (EVA) in order to be valuable, and some of this EVA must be traceable to the brand itself rather than to other intangibles.

Monitor brand equity

Describe a brand. a brand that has purchasing power. What is the origin of its power? a group of links and connections among clients or suppliers that have grown over time. These sources of brand power should be measured as part of brand monitoring. Building the brand and business is the responsibility of managers. This applies to brand managers as well as local or regional managers who are in charge of creating this competitive advantage in addition to creating a more robust company. This is why cutting-edge businesses increasingly tie increases in brand equity as well as sales and profit growth to the level of variable remuneration. However, such a system assumes the existence of a monitoring system for brand equity so that its advancement can be evaluated over time. This system has to be accurate, trustworthy, and neither very expensive nor difficult. What is the bare minimum that should be measured to assess brand equity?

Marketing directors were asked in an intriguing poll by the advertising firm DDB what they believed to be the qualities of a powerful brand, a key corporate asset. The responses were as follows, in significance order:

1. brand recognition
2. the potency of a brand's image, idea, personality, and placement;
3. the intensity of the consumer's cues of recognition;

4. brand esteem, perceived position, authority among customers, and consumer loyalty.

There are several different kinds of surveys that measure brand value. They often provide a national or international hit parade that is focused only on one aspect of brand equity, such as brand awareness, brand preference, quality image, prestige, first and second purchasing preferences when the preferred brand is not readily accessible. For instance, Landor released a measure of the "power of the brand" that was based on the combination of brand-aided awareness and esteem, which is the emotional component of the relationship between a brand and its consumers. In a study titled "Brand Asset Monitor," conducted by the advertising firm Young & Rubicam, the brand is positioned on two axes: the cognitive axis, which combines salience and the degree of perceived brand differentiation among consumers, and the emotion axis, which combines measures of familiarity and esteem. Brand awareness, declared usage, expressed preference, perceived quality, a mark for global opinion, and an item indicating the potency of the brand's imagery are the six criteria that TNS employs to compare brands in its Megabrand System research[4]–[6].

Some institutions focus on a single market strategy and gauge, for instance, the permissible price differential for each brand since they don't think it makes much sense to compare brands across all markets. They either proceed in a systematic way or use a trade-off technique that isolates the brand name's net added value. Directors of marketing are bewildered by the variety of available strategies.

Some businesses provide additional elements, including their favorite brand. According to empirical study, this item is strongly connected with spontaneous brand awareness, which reflects closeness to the individual in addition to being more than just a cognitive assessment. The most popular product is added by other businesses. This is typical of quickly moving consumer items, hence it has little bearing on durable goods. Additionally, the item and evoked set are associated in empirical study. Never forget that client memory is tracked in tracking research. This recollection is very inferential in and of itself. Do consumers really remember what brand they recently purchased? They conclude that brand X or Y should have been the obvious choice based on their preferences.

The brand equity shown in they may be viewed in two different ways. By comparing the two lines, it is possible to see that, although having identical assistance awareness levels, this brand has radically distinct standing in the two nations. The "transformation ratios" are the emphasis of the second mode, which is vertical. It is interesting to note that in Mexico, the evoked set represents 87% of unaided brand awareness, compared to 50% in Japan.

This isn't always the case, despite the fact that there is a predict pattern of diminishing s from top to bottom. Pepsi Cola, for instance, is not a strong brand in Europe; it gains its market share via push marketing and trade deals. As a consequence, Pepsi Cola's business expands but not because it is more desirable. Pepsi Cola has a titrate in tracking studies that is much greater than the brand's preference rate. On the other end of the scale are brands with equity that is far higher than their rate of consumption. Regarding image, Michelin clearly outperforms Rivatyre brands across Europe. However, if consumers enjoy the Michelin brand but believe that the use, they make of their automobiles does not warrant purchasing tires of such a grade and at such a price, image does not translate itself into market share. Tracking studies are more than just tools for management. They serve as diagnostic and remedial instruments. Where to act in terms of transformation ratios.

The knowledge of how brands functioned underwent a Copernican upheaval throughout the 1980s. Prior to this, mergers and acquisitions often included ratios of seven or eight, which meant that the price paid for a firm was seven to eight times its profits. These multiples

significantly rose after 1980 to reach their highest point. For instance, Groupe Danone acquired Nabisco Europe for \$2.5 billion, or a price-to-earnings ratio of 27. For three times its stock market value and 26 times its profits, Nestlé acquired Rowntree Macintosh. The sight of multiples of 20 to 25 was starting to become the norm. Strong brands continue to offer value to businesses even in this day and age, when financial assessments have grown more cautious due to the crisis. What happened in the 1980s between their commencement and their conclusion? What justifications can be offered for this abrupt shift in financial analysts' techniques? Large firms were seeking for brands that were prepared to be European or, even better, worldwide, indicating that the possibility of a single European market had a big impact. This explains why companies like Nestlé, Lever, l'Oréal, Seagram, and Buitoni purchased Buitoni, Boursin, and Lanvin, among others. The conflicting offers from corporations vying to acquire the few brand leaders that were available in their markets and up for sale may also help to explain why multiples have increased. In addition to the European component, there was a noticeable shift in perception of the principal players' brands. Companies sought to purchase a manufacturer of chocolate or pasta before 1980; after 1980, they wanted to purchase KitKat or Buitoni. This difference is crucial because in the first scenario, businesses seek to purchase manufacturing capacity, but in the second scenario, they want to acquire customer awareness.

Companies today feel that their most valuable asset is their brands, which are intangible, as opposed to the previous perspective where only physical things had worth. These intangible assets make up 61% of Kellogg's worth, 57% of Sara Lee's, and 52% of General Mills' value. This explains the paradoxical fact that a firm may be purchased for a very high price even while it is losing money due to its well-known brands. Before 1980, the brand would have been purchased for a cent if the worth of the brand had been included into the company's profits. The brand value of a business nowadays is decided independently of its economic worth, and as a consequence, its poor financial performance may sometimes mask its true value. A company's net income is the total of all financial consequences, favorable or bad, and as such, it includes the impact of the brand. Apple lost money in 1996, but this wasn't because of a weak brand; it was due to poor strategy. Therefore, a company's brand may not be creating value merely because it is losing money. The management of the American-Swiss corporation Ebel-Jelinek said the same thing when they acquired the Look brand: the company is losing money, but the brand's potential hasn't been diminished. The brand has the potential to be a source of future income, yet balance sheets reveal poor management choices from the past. If this potential can satisfy a workable economic equation, it will become actuarially profitable.

It is crucial to understand that in accounting

In finance, goodwill really refers to the discrepancy between the purchase price and the company's book value. The psychological goodwill of customers, distributors, and all other channel actors—positive attitudes and predispositions—is what causes this distinction. There is hence a direct connection between financial marketing assessments of brands. Accounting goodwill refers to the monetary worth of the psychological goodwill that the brand has developed over time by investment in communication and persistent attention to customer satisfaction, both of which contribute to the name's reputation [7]–[10] the favorable attitude of distributors who, as a result of their rotation system, list some of the brand's items. In fact, if a store does not carry goods from a well-known brand that is by definition available everywhere, it may lose consumers. That is to say, some buyers will hunt for the brand elsewhere. This guarantees that the brand is present at the moment of sale with the assistance of distributors and retailers in the market for industrial or slow-moving products. This is

particularly true if they are seen by their clients to be a unique brand with which they may affiliate themselves customer or end-user intent to purchase the goods. The secret to future sales lies in their positive attitude and, in certain situations, their devotion or even allegiance to the brand. As the price differential between the brand and its rivals widens, brand loyalty may be reduced to a bare minimum, yet connection to the brand does not fade away quickly; it endures over time. Even after the patent has expired, the trademark is still associated with quality, at least temporarily. The brand helps to lengthen the patient's life, which is why brands are important in the pharmaceutical or chemical industries. Brands have a lasting impact since they are ingrained in customers' memory. They are thus seen as an asset from the perspective of accounting since their economic consequences go well beyond the simple consumption of the commodity. Understanding the roles that a great brand performs with the customers themselves, who are the source of their priceless goodwill, is vital in order to comprehend how a strong brand is a generator of growth and profitability.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the link between market share and leadership, focusing on how this has an impact on company strategy. Effective market penetration methods, distinctiveness, and persistent attempts to satisfy consumer wants are necessary for obtaining and keeping a sizeable market share. Dominance, sway, and the capacity to establish norms for the industry are traits that define leadership in the market. To strengthen their market position and promote sustainable development, businesses must aim for effective leadership by promoting innovation, predicting market trends, and providing greater customer value. As a consumer interacts with a brand's goods, distribution method, people, and communications over time, both positive and negative impressions are focused on the brand. Additionally, by focusing all of its marketing efforts on a single name, the latter also develops a sense of exclusivity.

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CHAPTER 4

BRANDS CREATE VALUE FOR THE CUSTOMER

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ABSTRACT:

Brands play a pivotal role in creating value for customers by offering unique and desirable experiences, building trust, and providing a range of benefits. This abstract examines the concept of value creation by brands, delving into the dimensions and implications of how brands enhance the customer experience and contribute to customer satisfaction and loyalty. The research highlights that brands create value by addressing customers' functional, emotional, and social needs. Functionally, brands provide products or services that fulfill specific customer requirements, whether it is convenience, performance, reliability, or quality. Brands invest in research and development, innovation, and operational excellence to ensure that their offerings meet or exceed customer expectations, thereby delivering functional value. Although brands and their optimization are the focus of this book, it is crucial to understand that brands are not always present in marketplaces. Despite the fact that brands exist, they do not necessarily influence customers' purchasing decisions. There may be more significant other variables. For instance, research on "brand sensitivity" reveals that consumers do not consider the brand while choosing products in a number of product categories.

KEYWORDS:

Brand Loyalty, Brand Reputation, Consumer Trust, Customer Experience, Emotional Connection, Product Differentiation, Quality Assurance.

INTRODUCTION

When purchasing a writing pad, a rubber, felt-tip pens, markers, or copying paper, who gives a rip about the brand? Neither businesses nor private persons. In the marketplaces for sugar and socks, there are no dominant brands. There is no national brand of flour in Germany. The majority of beer brands are regional as well. A bank's location is crucial when selecting one. Brands arise as soon as there is perceived danger and they help to lower that risk. Once the buyer's perception of risk is gone, the brand is no longer profi. It is no longer a source of additional value, a decision signal, or a guide since it is just a name on a product. If the cost of the unit is higher or the consequences of making a poor decision are more severe, the perceived risk is larger. Therefore, investing in durable products is a long-term decision. Additionally, as humans are social creatures, we evaluate ourselves based on the decisions we make, which helps to explain why a big part of our social identity is centered on the brands and logos that we wear. Every time we eat anything and allow it to enter our bodies, there is some inherent danger associated as far as food is concerned. The purpose of the brand is to allay this concern, which explains, for instance, the significance of brands in the market for alcoholic beverages like vodka and gin[1]–[3].

The categories where distributors' own-brands predominate: canned verges, milk, orange juice, frozen pizzas, bottled water, kitchen roll, toilet paper, and gasoline highlight the significance of perceived risk as a producer of brand legitimacy. In addition, manufacturers'

brands continue to have a commanding position in the following categories: infant food, cold sauces, fresh pasta, toothpaste, deodorant, washing powder, and so on. The customer is very involved with these items and does not want to take any risks, whether they be physical or psychological.

Since nothing is ever obtained permanently, the perception of danger also changes over time. As technology grows more widespread in certain industries, all items must meet quality requirements. Since all competitors are great, but some are "more excellent" than others, we are shifting away from a system where some items "failed" while others "passed." The perceived level of danger will vary based on the circumstances. For instance, purchasing rum or vodka for a cocktail entails less risk than purchasing the same beverage for an on-the-rocks cocktail. Finally, not all customers participate to the same extent. High involvement people are individuals who are concerned about minor product variations or who want to maximize their option; they will chat for hours about the advantages of one computer over another or of a certain brand of coffee. Less interested people are content with a simple, reasonably priced product like gin or whiskey that may be obscure but seems to be excellent value for the money and is available at their local store. The issue for the majority of consumers who perceive danger and worry about making a mistake is that many things are opaque; we can only learn about their inherent attributes after purchasing and using them. Many customers, nevertheless, are hesitant to make this decision. Thus, it is crucial that the external indications emphasize the internal characteristics of these opaque goods. The most effective of these external cues is a well-known brand. Other examples of these external indications include things like the product's price, quality markings, retail store where it is sold and guaranteed, and the packaging's appearance.

Brand awareness means value

Brand awareness is not only a cognitive indicator, according to recent marketing studies. In actuality, it correlates with a variety of useful picture dimensions. Awareness conveys a comforting message: brand awareness is really a communal phenomenon, even if it is assessed at the individual level. Every person is aware that a brand is well-known when it is. Inferences come up on their own as a result. The majority of the time, excellent quality, trust, dependability, proximity to others, a favorable price/quality ratio, accessibility, and traditional style are associated with awareness. However, there is no association between it and innovativeness, greater class, style, or seduction; if these are important brand differentiators, they must be gained independently.

Three categories of product features are identified by these authors:

1. the characteristics that are detected via interaction prior to purchase;
2. the characteristics that experience notices differently, therefore after purchasing;
3. Credibility traits are ones that you must believe since they cannot be proven, not even after consumption.

The choice to purchase a pair of men's socks is an example of the first quality. The pattern, the style, the material, the feel, the elasticity, and the price are taken into consideration while making a decision. In this business, brands are barely necessary. In reality, the ones that do exist are quite rare and cater to consumers who want to be fashionable or who are searching for evidence of longevity. This is how Burlington socks function as a symbol of stylish dressing. Producers' brands certainly exist, but they have nothing to distinguish themselves from distributors' brands, particularly if the latter have a strong style department and provide a large selection at a reasonable price.

The car industry serves as an excellent illustration of the second level of quality. Of course, before making a purchase, one may evaluate the performance, consumption, and style, as well as the alternatives that are available and the interior space. However, a test drive cannot fully convey how well a vehicle holds the road, how enjoyable it is to drive, or how reliable or high-quality it is. Brand image, or collective representation, which is created through time by the collected experiences of oneself, of close relatives, by word of mouth and advertising, is what prompts the reaction.

Finally, in the market for upscale automobiles, the sense of accomplishment, fulfillment, and persona success that comes from owning a BMW is often the outcome of unwavering faith. It is a generalized idea that both buyers and non-buyers more or less share, and it cannot be supported by any post-purchase driving experiences. The sense of authenticity and inner masculinity that is claimed to come from smoking Marlboro cigarettes follows the same reasoning.

This grouping of desired traits clarifies the function of brands. The brand is a symbol whose purpose is to reveal the aspects of the product that are difficult to touch or, maybe, that can only be discovered via use, but which the customer does not want to risk attempting. The true Americana and rebellious youth of Levi's, the rough masculinity of Marlboro, the English flair of Dunhill, and the Californian myth of Apple, to name a few, lend a sense of make-believe when a brand is well-known.

The brand's informational function varies depending on the product or service, the context of consumption, and the person. A brand is thus not always beneficial. On the other side, once a customer loses their traditional reference points, a brand becomes required. Because of this, the demand for branded wine is rising. Too many smalchateaux, with their inconsistent manufacture, restricted availability, and sometimes unpleasant shocks, turned off consumers. This opened the door for companies like Gallo and Jacob's Creek[4]–[6]. These duties must always be upheld; they are neither obligations nor automatic laws. Due to their supporting expenditures in quality, R&D, productivity, communication, and research to better predict anticipated changes in demand, only a few brands are successful in each industry. Nothing, by definition, restricts these capabilities to the brands of manufacturers. Additionally, many manufacturers' brands don't carry out these duties. These functions are carried out by Marks & Spencer, a well-known brand in the United Kingdom, as well as by the Gap, Zara, Ikea, Migros in Switzerland, and other retailers.

The utility of these features varies by product type. When the product is transparent, there is less need for reference points or risk-reducers. When there is minimal participation and the purchase is seen as a duty, such as when purchasing a new, less expensive brand of aluminum foil or rolof kitchen paper, the price premium is at its lowest and tricots the least. Some stores focus particularly on achieving one or more of these goals, such as hard discounters, which have 650 lines of unbranded merchandise, a product for every need, and very high quality for the money. This formula provides an additional option to the first five functions, which include practicality, guarantee, optimization at the selected price level, and characterization. The very cheap price makes up for the lack of additional features. Understanding the function of a brand's role might make it easier to comprehend how distributors' own brands have grown. Distributors' brands may do these roles as well as weland at a lower cost when brands are only trademarks that serve only as a recognition sign or as a simple assurance of quality. Why do financial experts favor businesses with recognizable brands? so they carry little risk. Because the brand eliminates the risk, it serves both the customer and the financial analyst in the same manner. The fee includes the certainty, the guarantee, and the removal of

the danger. The financial analyst buys brand-name firm at a premium price in order to get almost assured future cashflows.

When a brand is strong, it has the advantages of high levels of customer loyalty and therefore its future sales. 10% of Volvic Mineral Water purchasers are loyal customers, who account for 50% of sales. The brand's reputation is a source of demand and long-lasting allure, and the perception of higher quality and additional value justifies a high price. Because it serves as the standard in its field, a dominating brand prevents rivals from entering the market. A designer brand like Naf-Naf, which peaked at over £6 million in net royalties, might yield significant royalties if it is well-known or a trailblazer in terms of fashion. When a brand is well-known, serves as a symbol of quality, and makes a promise that the market values, it may expand into other markets. In addition to the soap industry, the Palmolive brand name has been expanded to include shampoo, shaving cream, and dishwashing liquid. It has come to represent gentleness. If you were to introduce a new product in each of these areas, this is referred to as brand expansion and eliminates the need to raise awareness.

DISCUSSION

The expert must consider the sources of any additional income produced by the existence of a strong brand when estimating the brand's financial worth. Additionally, customers could be drawn to a product that is similar to another but has a well-known brand. If this is the company's plan, the brand may be able to fetch a premium price in addition to offering an extra margin because of economies of scale and market dominance. Royalties and significant leveraging effects may come from brand expansions into new markets. This value must be calculated after deducting the expenses associated with managing a brand, such as those associated with quality control, investing in R&D, maintaining a national or even global sales force, paying for advertising, paying for legal registration, investing capital costs, etc. The difference between the additional income the brand generates and the associated expenses for the next few years, which are discounted back to now, is the brand's financial worth. The valuer's business strategy determines the number of years. The investor's level of confidence in their projections determines the discount rate that will be applied to these future cash flows. But an important reality is that risk is reduced in direct proportion to brand strength. Thus, when brand strength is strong, future net cashflows are seen as being more assured.

These levers may be used as a starting point for calculating the margin of profit that can be attributed to the brand after they have been measured in euros, yen, dollars, or any other currency. Only when the business wants to strategically distinguish its items do they appear. Three different investments might provide this wish: investment in R&D, productivity, and output. These allow the business to gain specialized knowledge, a skill that cannot be duplicated and is classified as an intangible asset in financial terms. The business may sometimes file a patent in order to temporarily bar new entrants. This is the foundation of marketing in the pharmaceutical sector as well as for businesses like Ferrero, whose goods are successful while being difficult to copy.

The factors that affect brand profitability

Patents stand alone as an intangible asset that has a long-term positive impact on a company's operations. Investment in research and marketing studies to gain new knowledge, anticipate changes in customer preferences and lifestyles, and identify any significant developments that will coincide with these changes. A product developed in response to the needs of baby boomers with children is the Chrysler Minivan. As an essential element of the physical proximity of brands, distributors' expectations must also be understood. Understanding distributor logic, adjusting to it, and building strong relationships with the channels are

today's critical components of brand success. Investment in trade marketing, the sales force, merchandising, listing allowances, and, inevitably, in communicating with customers is made to highlight the distinctiveness of the brand and provide it saliency, perceived distinction, and respect. Without brand promotion, consumers would not be aware of the concealed fundamental traits or intangible values linked to consumption. The gap between margin revenues and required margin expenses related to brand management determines the worth of the brand and, therefore, the legitimacy of enforcing a brand policy.

Brands are a kind of capital that may be gradually created as a firm is expanding. A push approach or a pricing strategy may generate significant sales and market share without developing any brand equity, therefore it is certainly quite viable to expand a firm without developing such brand capital. For instance, many private labels or own-labeled brands fall under this category. Instead of Johnnie Walker, Ballantines, or Famous Grouse, William Peel, a local brand that targeted the trade and sells at a cheap price, is the market leader in terms of volume in the French Scotch whiskey market. It is hardly conspicuous at all.

Managers are now expected to increase both business and brand value. These two criteria—sales and reputation—are used to determine how much they are paid. They shouldn't be seen separately since doing so may cause schizophrenia. Chaudhuri's very pertinent study serves as a reminder that marketing and advertising are the main driving forces behind sales. However, brand reputation acts as a mediating factor, moderating their direct impacts on market share and the capacity to charge a premium price. While advertising is important for increasing sales, it has little bearing on securing a premium price or a larger market share. This is the most intriguing part: in short, a bigger market share and price premium can only be attained by cultivating a reputational capital. Furthermore, the effect of advertising on sales is influenced by reputation. It is well established from evaluations of previous campaigns that the more well-known a brand is, the more people notice and remember its commercials. It is past time to cease seeing brands and business as competing interests [7]–[10].

The corporate brand and its reputation

Velux, which had established itself as the world's leading manufacturer of roof windows, realized it needed to develop a corporate identity in 2003. It believed that the only way to defend itself from the increasing number of me-toos happening throughout the globe was to compete via its product brand. Additionally, its brand equity was becoming stagnant. Any company that achieves a level of 80% top-of-mind recognition in its category will undoubtedly see some "stagnation" since there is not much more potential for growth. The business, however, believed that brand emotionalism needed to be stronger. Could a product's brand alone strengthen a relationship? It was determined that it was past due to reveal "the brand behind the brand" and to begin creating a corporate brand.

In reality, a lot of businesses who previously relied on product brands for success have now made the decision to develop a corporate brand in an effort to publicize their activities, beliefs, and goals as well as certain extra benefits. Like Procter & Gamble, which now has corporate visibility in Asia and will likely have it shortly elsewhere, Unilever should soon achieve some kind of corporate exposure. Corporate branding is a current manager atopic for another reason: reputation defense. Companies now take their reputations extremely seriously. They used to care a lot about how they came across. Why the alteration? Isn't an image the foundation for global evaluations? 'Image' has probably lost some of its allure. It seems to have gone out of favor due to excessive media attention given to "image makers," as if an image were a manufactured creation. Reputation requires maintenance since it is a

judgment made by the market and has more depth and involvement. In any event, polls on the most reputed corporations, modeled after Fortune's list of "America's most admired companies," are now conducted annually in practically every country. Reputation indicates that although though the firm has a wide range of stakeholders, each of whom reacts to a particular aspect of the organization, they are all sensitive to the company's capacity to consistently live up to the expectations of all of its stakeholders. Reputation encompasses the whole business. It brings back all of the corporation's stakeholders and operations.

Corporate brands now have a greater significance since they represent the firm and signify its existence and activities. In effect, they raise the organization's profile in the eyes of individuals who do not interact with it directly. People respond to names and reputations, rumors, and word of mouth more and more in our modern environment. The corporate offices and the factories are no longer visible. Corporations, which are often delocalized, get visibility via the media, PR, advertising, financial reports, trade union reports, other forms of communications, and of course their goods and services. Controlling this profile entails controlling the company brand and its communications. The strategies for doing this are general; they depend, like all brands, on identification. They furthermore depend on marketplaces.

What distinguishes corporate brand approaches from the product brand methods established in this book, then? Companies do have internal identities, or fundamental principles, that influence the external brand they want to or are able to project. Organizations having a purpose are companies and businesses. Product brands are more fictitious structures that depend on imagined intangible qualities created to satisfy consumer wants. Intangible qualities associated with Marlboro or Ralph Lauren are purely artificial. The same cannot be said of businesses. There are fewer options in reality.

Second, since brand management focuses on both identity and the market, corporate brands must adjust their profile to satisfy various publics. The company's essential values must be adjusted for this global audience, who must figuratively "buy" the business by becoming a supplier, an employee, or an investor. Making the firm their first choice is the goal of managing the name's reputation via corporate brand communication. A conceptual difference must be noted about the very popular subject of the financial worth of reputation: at the business level, this is referred to as goodwill. Now, a bigger portion of this goodwill may be attributed to the brand's financial worth as a commercial brand. The discounted cashflow technique is often used to calculate its financial value. This demonstrates that the only way to determine the brand's financial worth, whether it be for a product or a company, is via potential sales.

Connections exist between corporate and product brands. It has strategic ramifications for the spillover effects that the organization may or may not wish to capitalize on as well as for boosting product confidence, if required, though this is not always the case. For instance, LVMH, the largest luxury firm in the world, keeps its brands' marketing and communication distinct and independent. GM supports its brands because it shows the strong and reputed company that is behind its automobile marques. GE uses an overarching approach that includes GE Medical Services and GE Capital Investment. In today's age of global communication and synergy, using the same name as the company's top brand is a tried-and-true tactic. Just like Tokyo Tsuhin Kogyo became Sony fifty years before, this is how BSN became Danone. As we will see, there are many advantages to doing so.

When one mentions brands like Canon, Nike, Sony, or Citibank, for example, a conceptual problem occurs. Do they have corporate names? What about commercial brands? It is

challenging to say since the brand and the corporation have the same name. The answer is that they both are; it just depends on the communication's context, goals, and audience. Nike is criticized in Naomi Klein's book *No Logo* for trying to conceal itself behind the alluring visuals and athletes associated with their brand. Some businesses have opted to distinguish the logo of each source of communication to make it obvious who is speaking—the corporation or the brand. For example, Nestlé's corporate emblem is distinct from Nestlé as a commercial brand.

For service organizations, the situation is more pressing: Is it possible to distinguish between Orange and Barclay's Bank as a corporate brand and a name? This is more challenging since both companies share the same people, but looking at the communication's objectives and aim should be helpful. The firm must be in line with its brand principles, which is why the problem of brand alignment has become so crucial. Its whole operation should be brand-driven.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, brands provide value for consumers in a variety of ways, including as on a functional, emotional, and social level. Brands improve the consumer experience and support customer loyalty by satisfying functional demands, arousing good emotions, establishing social relationships, streamlining decision-making, and enabling social interactions. It is essential for organizations to comprehend the scope and significance of brand value creation in order to build and nurture strong brands, cultivate customer connections, and promote sustainable development in the cutthroat business environment of today. The latter are meant to foster customer loyalty, foster growth, and foster profitability. Customers in contemporary developed markets do not completely distinguish between a product brand and the company; instead, what the company does affects how customers perceive its brands, particularly if those brands have the same name as the latter or are openly backed by it. The topic of branding architectures using the four relationship tritirates is discussed.

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CHAPTER 5

EXPLORING THE STRATEGIC IMPLICATIONS OF BRANDING

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ABSTRACT:

Branding plays a critical role in shaping the strategic direction and success of businesses. This abstract explores the strategic implications of branding, highlighting how effective brand management can create a sustainable competitive advantage, foster customer loyalty, and drive business growth. The research emphasizes that branding goes beyond visual identity and logo design. It encompasses a comprehensive set of strategies and activities aimed at creating a unique and desirable brand image, positioning, and personality. Strategic branding involves defining the brand's purpose, values, and promise, conducting market research, segmenting the target audience, and crafting a differentiated value proposition. The marketing activity itself, which encompasses designers, graphic artists, packaging, and advertising firms, is given a lot of attention. As a result, this activity gets the majority of the focus and becomes an aim in itself. In doing so, we fail to remember that it is only a tool.

KEYWORDS:

Brand Positioning, Competitive Advantage, Consumer Perception, Corporate Reputation, Differentiation, Product Portfolio.

INTRODUCTION

Many businesses have lost sight of their brands' fundamental mission. It is often believed that the marketing and communications team has exclusive authority over branding. This minimizes the contribution made by the other divisions of the business to the success of the branding strategy and the expansion of the firm. However, the marketing stage, which we now see as essential, marks the end of a process that integrates all of the company's resources and activities and focuses them on a single strategic goal: making a difference. A business can only stand out from its rivals by mobilizing all of its internal sources of added value. Giving a product or service a brand name and indicating to the public that it has the logo and imprint of a company are just two aspects of branding. Long-term corporate commitment, a high level of resources, and specialized knowledge are needed. Developing a brand involves changing the product category.

The concept of market segmentation and product differentiation directly results in brands. Companies focus on giving customers the ideal combination of attributes - both tangible and intangible, function and hedonistic, visible and invisible - under viable economic conditions for their businesses in order to better meet their expectations of those customers. Businesses aim to leave their mark on various industries and leave their mark on their goods. It should come as no surprise that the term "brand" also refers to the process of leaving a mark on an animal's skin in order to claim ownership of it. Determining exactly what the brand adds to the product and how the brand alters it is the first step in brand analysis[1]-[3].

This brand concept's profound significance is often overlooked or purposefully left out. Because of this, certain distributors are often heard criticizing specific manufacturer brands, stating things such, "For us, the brand is secondary, there is no need to put something on the

product." The trademark is thus restricted to the package's surface and label. However, branding is more about being a part of something than standing on top of it. The enhanced product or service must stand out if it is to be noticed by potential customers and if the business wants to profit from its approach before it is imitated by others. Some companies have been successful in demonstrating via their catchphrases that they are aware of and comprehend their fundamental goal, which is to change the product category. A brand, motivated by a vision, a calling, and a clear notion of what the category should become, not only operates on the market but also organizes it. Too many businesses merely want to totally embody the product category, expecting to be in opposition. In fact, they often wind up being absorbed into it, turning into generic names like Polaroid, Xerox, Caddy, Scotch, and Kleenex.

Depending on the goal the business sets for itself, changing the category entails giving the product a unique identity. In plain English, this indicates that when a product is "transparent," the brand is weak. Even if there are several companies that may offer a certain sort of oil, referring to it as "Greek olive oil, first cold pressing" for instance makes the product apparent, nearly totally defined, and typified by those single characteristics. The transition from bulk to packaging is another sign of this phenomena. Although intended to reassure the consumer, such as with sauerkraut in film-wrapped containers, fresh vacuum-packed food brands suffer in part because their packaging simply mimics transparency. Not only do Findus and Eggs or Hoses display their goods, but they also show them off. This is the structural reason why consumers see Essilor as having a poor brand. They are unable to comprehend how Essilor, the market leader in optical glass, alters the item or its input to add value. They see glass as just a blank canvas on which other possibilities may be applied.

The rims' aesthetic or the service, both of which are evident at the shop, seem to be the only factors that contribute to the extra value. In their perspective, everything that cannot be seen does not exist. The case of Evian serves as a reminder that it is always possible to turn something clear into something opaque. The only reason the main mineral water companies have been able to endure, develop, and thrive is because they have made the hidden apparent. We can no longer choose our water at random: Vittel is connected with energy, Contrex is related with fitness, and Evian is associated with excellent health and purity. The imperceptible variations in water contents provided justification for these distinct positionings. In general, everything that makes a component more complicated tends to put the product farther away from the consumer. By keeping its formula a secret, Coca-Cola is acting ethically in this regard. When Pernod-Ricard acquired Orangina, its concentrate was altered to create something even more intricate. Similar worries were voiced by Antoine Riboud, the former CEO of Danone International, who said: "I don't make yoghurts."

DISCUSSION

The brand must have a distinct viewpoint on the product category. Major brands occupy particular positions within the product category in addition to having a distinct or dominant position in the market. The brand is energized by this stance and vision, which also fuels the changes made to the goods to align them with the brand's principles. This idea gives the brand a purpose, a cause to exist on the market, and a roadmap for how to live out its life cycle. How many companies today can adequately respond to the crucial question, "What would the market lack if we did not exist?" The primary goals of the corporation are unquestionably to make money and create employment. But the objective of a brand is different. Too often, business strategy is confused with brand strategy. The latter most often yields platitudes like "increase customer satisfaction." establishing a brand's *raison d'être*, or fundamental need, is the first step in establishing its mission. The majority of marketing

textbooks do not include brand purpose. It is a modern notion that expresses the brand's evolving perception as having creative and potent impact over a certain market. Energy exists where there is power. A brand naturally receives power from the financial and human resources of the organization, but its vitality comes from its distinct niche, mission, and beliefs. It won't hold the potentiator leadership if it isn't propelled by a strong internal requirement. This dynamic feature, which is necessary for contemporary brand management, is not well captured by brand image analysis.

As a result, many banks provide the following picture of themselves: contemporary, connected to their customers, and providing high-performing goods and services. Naturally, market researchers using these aspects to gauge customer satisfaction levels and the perceptions the market has to offer. But what dynamic program do they represent, and what vision do they represent? Some banks have made it clear what they want to achieve; for some, it's to "change people's relationships to money," while for others, it's to serve as a reminder that money is only a "means towards personal development." Recently, several banks have tried to redefine their one and only purpose for being. All of them will eventually need to do this. The way Amex views money differs from how Visa does.

Multi-segment brands especially need to reevaluate their own goals. The typical example is a car. A brand with several divisions aims to serve all market niches. The number of potential purchasers is theoretically maximized since each mode produces several iterations of each vehicle: diesel, gas, three or five doors, estate, coupé, cabriolet, etc. The issue is that businesses often develop chameleon brands because they must continually meet the essential requirements of each market sector, i.e., to produce several variants while avoiding over-typifying a style in order to appease everyone. We no longer discern an overarching strategy directing the creative and production energies of the firm in the conceptualization of these automobiles, other from the symbolism of the car hood or the parallels in the car designs. As a result, rivals slug it out on either price or the alternatives available for that price. They cease to be brands and are reduced to simple labels on a hood or the walls of a dealer's office. Thus, much of the meaning of the term has been lost. Operon Ford: What does it mean? The shared spirit, vision, and principles that are expressed in all of a brand's goods make up their "religion" rather than its marque or external branding[4]–[6].

A pyramid may be used to describe major brands. The top articulates the brand's mission and vision, including how it views automobiles, the kinds of vehicles it aspires to build going forward, as well as its core values, which may be encapsulated in a slogan or cannot. This progresses to the one below it, displaying the generic branding style of communication. In actuality, a brand's personality and style are communicated less via words and more through a manner of being and speaking. These codes must be specified in a way that reflects the distinctive nature of the brand and should not be only left up to the creative team's varying inspiration. The brand's strategic image aspects are represented on the following level. Amounting to four or five, they are the outcome of the overall vision and manifest in the brand's goods, communications, and activities. This relates, for instance, to the positioning of BMW as a dynamic, elegant, and renowned brand or of Volvo as a safe, dependable, and strong brand. The product level, located at the base of the pyramid, is made up of each model's placement within its specific market.

Consumers see the pyramid from the bottom up, which is an issue. They begin with the real and palpable. Customers are less certain that all of these automobiles really come from the same automotive idea, have the same brand identity, and bear the mark of the same automobile project as the pyramid base becomes larger. In order to determine precisely when a car is deserving of the brand name and when it is not, brand management starts at the top

and defines how the car is conceived by the brand. In the latter case, the car should logically no longer bear the brand name as it then strays outside of its brand territory. When looking for slogans, brand identity hesitancy is often exposed. There is no longer a craze for blatantly obvious and meaningless catchphrases like "the automobile spirit," which neither convey anything about the brand's automobile ideal nor aid creators, developers, or producers in making practical decisions between features that are mutually exclusive, such as comfort and road adherence, aerodynamism and a sense of sturdiness, etc.

Our time is marked by transient benefits. It's often stated that some goods from several brands are interchangeable. Thus, some observers draw the conclusion that, under these conditions, a brand is nothing more than a gimmick employed to stand out in a market inundated with items that are hardly distinguishable. This viewpoint ignores both the influence of time and the dynamics of competition. The new items that brand develop and release into the market are what attract consumers' attention. Every brand innovation always results in plagiarism. Any improvement rapidly becomes the norm to which consumers are used, forcing rival firms to follow suit if they don't want to fall short of consumer expectations. Thus, the new brand will initially be able to enjoy a tenuous monopoly, but unless the innovation is or can be trademarked, it will inevitably face competition. The purpose of the brand name is to protect the innovation specifically. It serves as a patent by serving as the model for the new market sector it establishes, which is a benefit of being a pioneer.

A dynamic perspective of a market exposes who invented first and who has simply followed the leader, even though a snapshot of the industry typically displays comparable items. Brands safeguard innovators by giving them temporary exclusivity and rewarding them for their risk-taking attitude. Therefore, over time, the accumulation of these fleeting variations helps to redefine the meaning and purpose of a brand and to support its economic purpose, which is why its price premium. Therefore, brands cannot be reduced to a simple sign on a product or a simple graphic cosmetic touch; rather, they direct the creative process that results in today's new product A, tomorrow's new products B and C, and so on. Brands last a lifetime while products come and go. What gives a brand its meaning and purpose, as well as its substance and qualities, are the constant elements of this creative process. For this accumulating of innovations to produce a meaning and a purpose, a brand is necessary.

In actuality, a brand functions like a genetic program. Birth decisions have a long-lasting impact on how people are seen in the marketplace. Towards fact, rediscovering a brand's lost genetic code is often the first step towards revitalizing it. Even though they may have been forgotten, the early actions have a significant structural impact on a brand's existence. When a new word designating Brand X or Brand Y is learned, it is reinforced and maintained in long-term memory, which is how they shape its initial and enduring meaning. Then, a variety of selective processes—selective attention, selective perception, and selective memory—confirm the interpretation.

Brand identities behave like quickly setting concrete, which is why it's hard to modify them. This procedure has a lot of significant managerial repercussions. When it becomes global, every nation copies it. Determining the items to be introduced in relation to the long-term image one wishes to project is of utmost significance. They are often selected by coagents solely on the basis of how well they will. Both the company and the brand must be built, and they must do both. In brand management, long-term consequences are introduced as a criterion for assessing the applicability of immediate actions. The trademark is uncovered by new generations at various times. Some people learned about Ford via the Modette, while

others did so with the Mustang, Mondeo, or Focus. It is understandable why brand images vary from generation to generation.

A brand's ability to serve as a reliable and long-lasting reference is specifically due to the fact that it serves as the memory of the items. The initial acts and message of a brand are certain to create the deepest impact, therefore shaping long-term perception, in contrast to advertising, where the last message viewed is often the only one that actually registers and is best remembered. Brands act as a cognitive filter in this way by declaring discordant and stereotypical characteristics to be unrepresentative, which leads to their being rejected and forgotten. Because of this, brand expansion failures for atypical product do not ultimately hurt the brand, but they may shake investor confidence in the business. One example is Bic's failure in the perfume industry. Making fragrances is not typical of Bic's expertise, as customers see it, since sales of ballpens, lighters, and razors continued to rise.

A brand functions as a selective memory by eliminating out-of-the-ordinary, discordant aspects, giving people's perceptions the appearance of permanence and consistency. A brand is thus less flexible than its items. Similar to quickly setting concrete, it is difficult to modify once constructed. Therefore, it is crucial to establish the brand platform. What brand significance does one want to establish? A brand is a product's past, present, and future all rolled into one. Understanding how brands work and ought to be handled is fundamental to the genetic program's parallel. The brand memory that forms do, in fact, include the plan for future development, the attributes of subsequent models and how they are similar to each other as well as how they are related while having different personalities. Understanding a brand's strategy allows us to identify its genuine market space as well as the areas where it will be able to expand beyond the original items that gave rise to it. The brand's overarching strategy informs the function and significance of both current and upcoming items. How therefore can this program, the brand DNA, be recognized?

By examining the brand's foundational acts, including its goods, communications, and most important activities since its creation, this program may be identified, if it exists. If there is a rule or an implied permanence, it must be evident. Research on brand identity serves two purposes: first, it examines the brand's most distinctive creation; second, it examines the market's response, or the image that is sent to consumers. The picture is in fact a memory unto itself and is quite stable, making short-term changes to it challenging. This stability is the product of the earlier-discussed selective perception. It also serves the purpose of establishing enduring references that direct customers through the plethora of consumer products available. Because of this, a business should never stray from the identity that has brought in customers in the first place. Respecting the brand characteristics that attracted customers in the first place fosters customer loyalty. Better to strive to match client expectations again than to adjust them if the items falter, deteriorate, or demonstrate a lack of investment. Brands must remain true to themselves if they want to develop client loyalty and profit from it. This is referred to as a trip back in time.

The brand's underlying program is a method to better prepare for the future by providing it roots, legitimacy, and continuity. This does not imply neglecting the future. The error is to embalm the brand and only recreate the previous breakthroughs it made, such as the new VW Beetle and other vintage inventions. A brand's goods must constantly be intimately tied to their period, yet in their own unique manner, in order to stand out from the competitors. Rejuvenating Helena Rubenstein or Burberry means bringing them up to date, not mummifying them in homage to a former splendor that we would like to restore. Only by sticking to and repeating a brand's value proposition can it gain credibility. Since 1959, BMW has made the same commitment. They eventually turn into a kind of unwritten, very effective

contract. Both parties are bound by this agreement. The brand must maintain its identity while steadily growing in importance. It must have loyalty to its own goals, its purpose, and its customers. Although each brand is allowed to choose its own values and positioning, once those choices have been made and publicized, they become the standard for consumer pleasure. The difference between consumers' experiences and expectations is a well-known key factor in determining customer happiness. These expectations are established by the brand's positioning[7]–[10].

Because of this mutual commitment, companies with momentarily less popular items do not inevitably go out of business. A brand is assessed throughout time; a shortcoming is always possible. Products have a chance to recoup thanks to brand trust. If not, Jaguar would have vanished long ago since no other brand could have endured the negative effects of its vehicles' declining quality in the 1970s. That is a strong illustration of one advantage a brand has for a business. The brand agreement is a business agreement, not a legal one. In this regard, brands vary from other quality indicators like certification and quality seals. A product's compliance with a list of particular characteristics that have been previously determined to ensure a higher level of quality and set it apart from comparable items is formally and legally attested to by quality seals. A certification body that controls a collective brand known as quality will only certify a product as meeting specified requirements. Therefore, such certification is never final and is revocable. Legally, brands cannot vouch for a product's compliance with a certain set of requirements. However, a brand begins to be associated with the latter after persistent and repeated exposure to the former.

Constraints are implied by a contract. The brand contract initially implies that the different organizational functions R&D, manufacturing, techniques, logistics, marketing, and finance converge. The same is true for service brands: while R&D and manufacturing are plainly meaningless in this situation, management and employees, who are crucial to building connections with customers, are in charge of guaranteeing the brand's continuity and cohesiveness. The brand agreement mandates both internal and external marketing. In contrast to quality seals, brands establish their own ever-rising standards. Therefore, they must not only satisfy the former but also work constantly to improve all of their products, even the most basic ones, especially if they account for the majority of their sales and are therefore the main means by which they project their brand image. By doing this, they will be able to meet the demands of customers who demand that the products keep up with technological advancements. They must also interact with others and establish a presence in order to serve as models for a market, a value, or an advantage. Although it is a lonesome effort, companies must complete it in order to achieve the distinctiveness and lack of substitutability they need. The brand will be responsible for covering both its internal and external expenditures. These are produced by the brand requirements, which include the following:

1. Be sure to foresee the wants and requirements of potential customers. This is the goal of market research: to both improve already available items and identify unmet needs and expectations.
2. React as fast as you can to technological advancements to get a competitive advantage in both cost and performance.
3. Since only high product quality and volume can guarantee recurring business, both should be offered simultaneously.
4. Supply quantity and quality in balance.
5. Deliver goods or services to intermediaries in a manner that is both consistent across time and meets their needs about delivery, packaging, and overaccommodations.

6. Give the brand a purpose and let the target market know what it stands for by utilizing the brand as a symbol and point of reference for the uniqueness and exclusivity of the product. Budgets for advertising serve this purpose.

Keep an eye on ethics and the environment

Thus, strong brands promote both internal and external federalization. They infuse their business with flare and vigor. Because of this, several businesses change their name to that of one of their flagship brands: BSN became Danone, and CGE became Alcatel. In this regard, the influence of powerful brands goes well beyond the majority of business tactics. These only exist while they are being created, after which they either disappear or become ostentatious sayings that are put in corridors. In any event, the corporate brand serves as the organization's external voice and as such, it must always strive to surpass itself and set greater goals.

Realizing that the brand is a contract entails assuming many additional responsibilities that are all too often disregarded. Even if designers in the fashion industry eventually want to alter, they cannot completely forget about their brand contract, which helped them become first known, then recognized, and eventually applauded. The brand contract is, in principle, intended to be embodied in both the slogan and the company's signature. Because it implies too much dedication on the part of the business and runs the risk of backfiring if the goods or services fall short of the expectations the brand has so far raised, excellent slogans are often rejected by managing directors. In far too many instances, brands are only names. This is particularly clear in certain sessions of the innovations committee, when new goods are repeatedly reallocated to other brands in the portfolio within the same meeting. It is believed that there is no difference between different brand names. taking the brand seriously since it has higher standards. Furthermore, it offers better returns.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the strategic implications of branding, with special emphasis on how branding helps businesses make choices and fosters consumer loyalty and a lasting competitive edge. Businesses may stand out from the competition, gain clients' trust, and establish an emotional connection with them by using strategic branding. Businesses may realize their full potential, create development, and succeed in fiercely competitive industries by comprehending and using the strategic implications of branding. The study also emphasizes that consistent brand management and market dynamics adaption are necessary for good branding. To be relevant and resonant with the target audience, brands must regularly evaluate consumer preferences, market developments, and competition activity. To keep the brand attractive and distinctive, strategic branding include periodic brand audits, market research, and brand revival initiatives.

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CHAPTER 6

EXPLORING THE PRODUCT AND BRAND

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ABSTRACT:

The relationship between a product and its associated brand is of paramount importance in the business landscape. This abstract delves into the interplay between the product and the brand, highlighting their symbiotic nature and the strategic significance of aligning them effectively. The research emphasizes that a product and a brand are intertwined elements that shape customers' perceptions, preferences, and purchasing decisions. The product represents the tangible offering, including its features, functionality, quality, and packaging, while the brand encompasses the intangible attributes such as reputation, values, positioning, and emotional associations. Together, the product and the brand create a holistic customer experience that influences brand perception and loyalty.

KEYWORDS:

Brand Positioning Consumer Perception, Differentiation, Packaging, Product Development, Product Features, Product Lifecycle.

INTRODUCTION

The link between brands and goods has been hotly debated ever since the first brand theory was developed. What are the differences between the ideas? How do they connect to one another? On the one hand, many CEOs remind their team that a brand cannot exist without a great product in an effort to inspire innovation and have them see the product as the main competitive advantage of the brand. However, there is a lot of evidence to suggest that market leaders are not the greatest goods available in their niche. Being the "best product" in a category requires you to compete in the high-end market, which is seldom a significant market. Market leaders in the laundry detergent category like Tide, Arie, and Skip undoubtedly provide the finest performance for heavy-duty washing, but in other instances, the brand with the highest quality/price ratio is the one that commands the most attention. Dell is a good example. Do Dell's PCs rank among the best? For sure not.

However, who really needs the "best computer"? What standard would be used for evaluation? 'Best' is a relative notion that depends on the value standards that are used to make comparisons and determine the 'best'. In actuality, the market is divided into segments: the majority of the general population, and even the majority of the B2B sector, wants an up-to-date, dependable, affordable computer. Dell is able to develop and take over that market because of its build-to-order business approach. With the co-brand "Intensive," it reassures customers while also shocking them with its astounding cost and one-to-one customization: each individual builds their own computer. Is Swatch the top timepiece? Definitely not both. However, this is not what Swatch customers are looking for; they want ease and aesthetics over long-lasting improved "performance," whatever that may entail. It is time to examine the brand-product link in more detail. When we look back at history, we see that most brands were created as a result of a product or service innovation that beat their rivals. The launch campaign was determined by a better product or service. Customers' justifications for purchases may remain the brand's 'superior performance image' later as the product name

develops into a brand, even when in actuality that performance has been equaled by new rivals. Given that the majority of customers continue to believe that Volkswagen vehicles are the most dependable, this has been the foundation for Volkswagen's leadership and price premium. 30 years after the original Golf, the new Golf Five was introduced in September 2003. It is 10% more costly than its two European competitors, the Peugeot 307 and the Renault Meganne. For Golf and Volkswagen as a whole, this high-quality reputation is essential since it accounts for 28% of sales and almost half of operational profit. Volkswagen's operating profit decreased by 56% as sales of the Golf 4 fell by 17.9% over a year.

Toyota's quality has now been equaled and even surpassed by Volkswagen, as testing and garage repair records demonstrate, but for purchasers, perception is reality. People's beliefs are the foundation of brand assets. When it comes to rumors, the more people who believe them, the more firmly they hold that belief. Why would so many individuals have the erroneous information? It took Toyota 20 years to dispel the myth among US buyers that Volkswagen automobiles are the most dependable; dependability must be established over time. Targeting a younger generation of drivers who are open-minded is often the greatest way to go quicker. When analyzing competitive behavior, it seems that brands shift their emphasis periodically. They capitalize on their reputation, innovate to revive or foster the idea of product superiority, recapitalize on their reputation, and so on. This pendulum behavior is extremely typical of Sony's advertising, which alternates between advertisements introducing new items and pure picture ads without any particular Material content or superiority content. This later advertising keeps the brand relevant[1]–[3].

Each brand needs a flagship product

Competitors selling identical goods won't threaten a specific brand until the latter are sold in significant volumes. In the product ranges of several brands, it is inevitable that certain models may be replicated. If brand A strives for durability, brand B for practicality, and brand C for innovation, the spirit of each brand will be particularly apparent in certain particular items, those that are the most typical or representational of the brand meaning. They represent the brand.

A branded item

Thus, each product line must include items that serve as flagships for the brand's meaning and mission and serve as examples of its guiding value and preoccupation. For instance, the finest representations of Renault are its luxurious minivans, Nina Ricci are her seductive evening dresses, Lacoste are their shirts, and Sony are their Walkmans and digital pocket cameras.

However, certain items in a particular range fail to accurately convey the purpose and qualities of the brand. It might be challenging to manufacture a television set that is significantly different from the neighbor's due to cost restrictions in the television business. But for financial reasons, brands are sometimes compelled to enter this vast and very competitive industry. Additionally, each bank has been required to provide a savings program that is identical to those of other banks. These comparable items, however, ought to just be a small portion of what each business has to offer. Overall, each brand maintains its focus and moves forward to create original items. Due to the fact that such items revise the meaning and purpose of the brand, talking about them is crucial.

The issue develops when brands belonging to the same group cross over too often, preventing one from establishing its identity. Peugeot, which prides itself on being a "dynamic car,"

would suffer if the same engines were used in Citroens and Peugeots. A brand may turn into a parody of itself when several brands market the same item. Peugeot and Citroen, Fiat and Lancia, as well as Ford and Volkswagen, could not take the financial risk of establishing a production facility on their own in order to compete against Renault's Espace and Chrysler's Voyager. For the first four brands, only one minivan was produced. Similar plans were made to construct a regular automobile at a Ford-Volkswagen facility in Portugal. However, the result is that by creating a generic vehicle, the brand is reduced to a simple device. It was simply decided to move the identify message to the shell. Each business has thus had to accentuate its look in order to the commonality of minivans among Peugeot, Citroen, Fiat, and Lancia leaves each brand with only one task: to strengthen its association with its core principles. For Citroen, these principles are imagination and escape; for Peugeot, quality driving and dependability; for Lancia, high class and flair; and for Fiat, practicality.

Therefore, a detail never contributes to a brand's identity; rather, when properly perceived, a detail may communicate a larger plan. Only when details work in harmony with a brand's identity, repeating and magnifying its principles, can they have an influence on that identity. Due to their inability to strengthen the brand's meaning or establish that crucial resonance, weak brands are unable to capitalize on their innovations. Thus, a brand acts as a prism that enables us to understand items. It specifies what to anticipate from the things that wear its name, as well as how much. For example, a Ford might see as conventional an idea that a Fiat would deem quite novel. Although a lack of engine power may not have been much of a concern for many automakers, it is a significant one for Peugeot. It contradicts Peugeot's ingrained identity and falls short of the expectations that have been set. It would conflict with Peugeot's "brand obligations," as they need to be known. In actuality, buyers almost never assess innovations in a vacuum, but rather in connection to a particular brand. After deciding on a particular positioning or meaning, a brand must accept all of its ramifications and keep its commitments. Brands need to honor the agreement that helped them succeed by drawing in consumers. They owe them something.

Brands and other quality indicators

Brands coexist with other quality indicators in various industries. For instance, there are several quality seals, certifications of norm compliance, regulated origins, and guarantees in the food sector. These additional symptoms are more common because of a dual mission to promote and protect.

A field of agriculture and goods whose quality is strongly anchored in a particular region and know-how are protected by certifications of origin. The controlled origin guarantee makes use of a societal and cultural idea of quality, a dash of mystery, and the distinctiveness of the region. By denying the certification of origin to any commodities that have not been produced in a certain region or reared in a particular manner, it segments the market. As a result, since 2003, the word "Feta cheese" has been associated with a regulated Greek origin across Europe. Even if Danish or French cheese-makers created a 'feta' cheese somewhere that consumers couldn't tell different from the feta cheese prepared in Greece the traditional method, their creations would no longer be allowed to use the word 'feta'.

Promotional tools are quality seals. They express a distinct, more industrial and scientific understanding of quality. In this regard, a certain sort of cheese, for instance, calls for objective knowledge, employing a particular type of milk combined with particular microorganisms, etc. A vertical division made up of several degrees of objective quality is created by quality seals. Here, meeting a strict set of objective requirements is more important than outlining typical qualities.

The Lega assurance of typicality offered by "certified origin" signifies more than a basic designation of origin, a mere label indicating where a product originates from, in that the latter indicates no anterior social specificity - though it may deceive the consumer into believing there is one. Additionally, many contemporary cheese producers purposefully confuse what is authentic and what is not by giving their new products foreign names that are evocative of locations or towns in an attempt to create their own rural, parochial image.

It's fascinating to note how European nations responded to the "mad cow crisis" by attempting to reassure customers and reverse the 40% decline in beef consumption: They reestablished designations of origin pertaining to a country, even though it is not legal according to EU regulations. This was not entirely encouraging, however, since it was subsequently discovered that French cattle may have consumed both oatgrass and organic extracts that were imported from the UK in addition to oatgrass. Although they increase typicality, certifications of origin cannot ensure a beef is completely safe.

DISCUSSION

The production itself cannot be guaranteed until the whole of the cattle raising process is guaranteed, hence seals of quality had to be developed and promoted for years. The crisis made meat brands more necessary. Since 1989, in response to early concerns, McDonald's has actively sought for new suppliers in Europe, inspecting the methods used by each to grow and feed their cattle. Retailers like Carrefour have highlighted their own agreement with farmers that was struck. The bitter debate over whether official signs of quality should continue to exist in Europe in 2010 is still going on between the northern countries, who think only brands should rule, and the southern countries, who are in favor of official signs of quality existing alongside brands.

According to the northern European nations, only brands should be permitted to segment the market and then establish a reputation for excellence around their names via their goods, distribution channels, and marketing initiatives. These nations have a propensity to value an objective notion of excellence, therefore it is irrelevant that the Greeks' preferred feta cheese is produced in Holland or that Smirnoff vodka is neither Russian nor Polish. Since they do not have their own brands, the southern European nations feel that communal signs allow small businesses to leverage their ranking and/or typical characteristics as promotional tools. Since their goods can't speak for themselves, quality or recognized origin seals guarantee their market position. Clearly, there is another, more fundamental debate going on between supporters of a free market on the one hand and those who favor government intervention to regulate it on the other, hidden behind the European debate about whether or not independent brands should coexist with official collective signs of quality [4]–[6]. From a company perspective, deciding between brand policy and collective signage is a strategic and resource allocation decision.

Quality certifications often lessen apparent difference. Brands from distributors may also get them. Legally, brands cannot promise anything, but in practice, they transmit groups of characteristics and ideals. They want to become a reference in and of itself, if not the sole reference, through accomplishing this. Brands essentially vary from one another and have very little in common. Brands set their goods apart. Strong brands are those that disseminate values and are able to utilize their own resources to segment the market. McDonald's debated whether to depend only on their own brand while tackling the "mad cow" situation or also on the collective signs and certificates of origin.

On a practical level, let's emphasize once again that brands don't boil down to a simple act of advertising. They include suggestions for the long-term particularities of the goods carrying

their names, such as appealing pricing, effective distribution and merchandising, as well as the development of brand identity via advertising. Small businesses find it simpler to build a strong reputation for one of their goods via stringent quality control than it is to embark on the difficult process of building a brand, which calls for many financial, human, technological, and commercial resources. Thus, even in the absence of an identity, the small company's goods may stand out from the crowd, in part because of the quality indicators.

Implications of branding: Challenges

Brand rules often collide with other policies within the same organization. These may seem innocent since they are tacit and unwritten, but they really prevent the development of a meaningful brand policy. As a result, brands do not benefit from current corporate accounting. The prudence principle governs accounting, therefore any expenditure whose repayment is unclear is accounted for as an expense rather than valued as an asset. This is an instance of communications expenditures made to educate the general public on the identity of the company. The whole amount is considered an operational expenditure and deducted from the financial year's earnings since it is hard to determine precisely what percentage of the annual communications budget produces returns immediately or within a certain number of years. Advertising nonetheless aids in the development of brand capital, just as do expenditures in equipment, skilled labor, and R&D. As a result, accounting breeds prejudice that harms brand firms by portraying them as being undervalued. Consider firm A, which makes significant investments to build brand recognition and awareness. Low annual earnings and a little asset value on the balance sheet are the outcome of having to write off this investment as an expenditure. This often happens when the company's development is struggling and it could really use some assistance from bankers and outside investors. Now contrast business A with company B, which makes the same investments in manufacturing and machinery but makes no effort to build its brand, reputation, or reputation. As long as it is legal to classify these physical investments as fixed assets and depreciate them progressively over a number of years, B will be able to report larger profits and its balance sheet, which will show more substantial assets, will portray a more favorable picture. As a result, B will seem to have superior accounting, but in reality, A is better able to distinguish its goods.

Fundamentals of Annual Accounting

compromises brand policy. Every product manager is evaluated based on his or her annual performance and the net contribution his or her product makes. This causes "short-termism" in decision-making, where judgments that provide quick, measurable effects are preferred over those that develop brand capital gradually, undoubtedly, but more dependably over time. Additionally, when a brand acts as an umbrella and a symbol for other items, product-based accounting inhibits product managers from launching any additional advertising campaigns that would basically strengthen the brand as a whole. Therefore, managers only pay attention to one thing: any additional expenses in the general budget will be added to the statement of their personal accounts. For instance, the brand Palmolive sells a variety of items, including liquid detergent, shampoo, and shaving cream.

To take advantage of image spillover reciprocal effects, the company may choose to highlight only one of these items as a significant image leader. However, the amount invested would undoubtedly exceed what the product's sales projections alone could support. Though its ultimate goal is to collectively benefit all items under the umbrella brand, this new spending will in reality always be on the specific product. Some British corporations have started to classify their own brands as assets on their balance sheets as a response to the short-term bias produced by accounting methods and the underestimation of value as seen in the balance

sheets. This has sparked a debate about the fundamental legitimacy of accounting techniques that were developed during the "age of commodities," when real estate and equipment were the two main components of capital. Today, on the other hand, it is intangible assets that ultimately matter. Beyond the necessity for an open discussion on how to capitalize on brands in Europe and the US, it has become equally crucial to create a means for businesses to account for the long-term benefits and drawbacks of short-term brand choices in their books. The fact that brand decision-makers themselves cycle frequently—possibly too frequently—makes it even more enticing.

Even the organizational structure of the different kinds of communication agency does not meet the standards of a solid brand policy. Even though an advertising agency has its own network of partner businesses, such as those in charge of CRM, e-business, proximity marketing, and other areas, it still serves as the hub of the network. Additionally, advertising companies only conceive in terms of campaigns and work within a one-year time period. Brand policy is unusual since it takes time to develop and calls for all measures to be taken into account simultaneously and comprehensively.

It is evident that a firm has a difficult time locating individuals inside the communications divisions that are genuinely in charge of strategic thinking and making overall recommendations as opposed to just concentrating on advertising or the requirement to elecampaes. Additionally, advertising firms are unable to handle strategic challenges like the ideal number of companies to include in a portfolio. These put the advertising agencies in the uncomforted position of serving as judge and jury since they have an impact on the survival of the brands for which they are responsible. Strategic brand management consultancy has therefore become a brand-new profession. The moment has come for businesses to interact with experts that have a medium-term outlook and are able to provide consistent, comprehensive instructions for the development of brand portfolios without concentrating on a single approach.

A brand requires continuity, which is disrupted by significant personnel turnover. However, businesses nowadays actively arrange for their personnel to switch across brands! As a result, new graduates with good credentials but no work experience are often trusted with brands, and the promotion they anticipate usually entails taking on yet another brand! Product managers must therefore provide tangible outcomes quickly. This contributes to the explanation of why there are so many adjustments made to advertising strategy and execution, as well as choices on brand extension, promotion, and price reductions. These are really the result of personnel changes.

It is crucial that organizations with consistent brand decision makers own the brands that have maintained a consistent and homogenous image. This is true for premium brands: solid, long-term management is made possible by the originator or founder's persistent presence. Similar circumstances apply to large stores, where top management often handle communication themselves or at the very least make financial choices. Companies aspire to not only include brand value into their accounts but also to create a long-term brand image charter in order to mitigate the consequences of excessive brand manager turnover. The latter serves as both a continuity tool and a vital safety net.

Building a brand may sometimes be hampered by organizational issues in businesses. A new and previously unexacting vice-presidency position, VP Brand, was established in 2001 by the very well-known Toshiba Corporation. Notably, the incumbent VP of Research and Development was the new hire. The fact that the leader in laptop sales worldwide and a significant force in the televisual, hi-fi, and lo-fi industries should establish such a position

shows a keen understanding of an unmet vacuum. Unquestionably top-notch items are produced by Toshiba, and until recently, this has been the secret to the success of Japanese businesses in general and Toshiba in particular. This business has a commanding position in the fiercely competitive laptop market. What then was lacking?

International research has shown that the Toshiba brand was not special in any way. It may be likened to a coworker at work who you often seek advice from but never ask over for dinner. There was a strong rational component to this brand, but nothing in the way of emotional appeal, intangible qualities, or "magic." It simply could not demand Sony's larger margins because it was not Sony. A business might become a leader like Toshiba via high-quality goods and competitive pricing, or like Delby with a distribution system that consistently outperforms its rivals. However, since competition has the consequence of reducing perceived differences, extra tools are required to draw in consumers and maintain their loyalty, ensuring that they continue to use the brand. This desire is founded on intangible reasons and the need for security.

The Toshiba brand had no management before to 2001. The organization of the business was built on a branching structure, so no one was in charge of the brand, a resource that spans all of the company's divisions. Toshiba was seen in one way by the medical branch, another way by the computer branch, and so on. Of course, there was no coordination, no Global Brand Platform, and no branch-to-branch collaborative promotions. Horizontal efforts were uncommon, and commercial necessity mandated that control resided with the distribution subsidiaries: the goal was to sell imported goods, not to establish a reputation for one's brand. The compensation packages for comanagers were based on revenue rather than brand equity.

Another condition has to do with how production and sales are related. Production facilities, for instance, are specialized by product within the Electrolux group. They sell their products to sales units that are both mono-product and multi-market, as opposed to those that are both mono-market and multi-product. The issue is that these independent sales divisions, each of which has its own brand, always seek to get access to the most recent product innovations in order to increase their respective divisions' revenue. A framework for managing and allocating innovations in line with a clear and global vision of the brand portfolio is what's lacking. It makes no sense to commit a powerful idea to a poor brand, as we will see later. Additionally, this undercuts distinction, the entire foundation of the brand idea[7]–[10].

Last but not least, if words have any meaning at all, communications managers need to have the authority to stop behaviors that are detrimental to the interests of the brand. As a result, Philips was never able to fully use the tagline of its previous brand, "Philips, tomorrow is already here." To do this, they would have had to outlaw any battery or electric light bulb promotion that either minimized the claim, refuted it, or reduced it to mere advertising hype. Additionally, rather of discussing the greatest current sales, it would have been feasible to solely speak about future bulb varieties. Sadly, no one inside the organization had the authority to implement these restrictions. However, when the Whirl-poolbrand appeared, the managers from Philips actually created the organization they needed for implementing a real-brand policy. Because it was closely linked to general management, the communications department was able to ensure the ideal conditions for the launch of the Whirl-pool-brand by forbidding over a three-year period any communication about a commonplace product, even a best-selling product.

Brand equity is severely harmed by poor innovation management. It is a mistake to hand the reins of a powerful invention to a weak brand, particularly in multi-brand groupings, despite the fact that salesmen get furious when they are not given the task. In order to get distributors

to feature the weak brand in their reference directory, appealing pricing must be provided in these situations. However, since the brand's customers do not anticipate this innovation, there is not enough product turnover. For those who choose not to purchase, such a brand is unsettling. Distributors will refuse to pay the price premium associated with a leader if the innovation is introduced a few weeks later under a leading brand name since they previously bought it from the same firm for less money. As a result, the sales price ultimately has to be reduced, even with the strong brand. L'Oréal caters its innovations to its many companies in accordance with the power of its numerous strong trademarks.

As a result, innovation is first entrusted to prominent brands sold via exclusive channels since the high pricing of the items will help offset the significant research costs spent. Thus, the new sun filter Mexory SX by Vichy and liposomes by Lancôme were the first to be commercialized. Later, innovation spreads to other outlets and finally reaches major shops. The chosen channel brands will probably have already introduced another unique invention by then. But this process is hampered by the fact that invention does not belong to just one firm; it swiftly spreads to rivals, necessitating prompt response. In a similar vein, when a manufacturer provides a distributor's brand with the same goods it sells under its own brand, it will gradually damage that brand's reputation and, more broadly, the entire legitimacy of the idea of a brand. This only indicates that the name of a brand is the only thing that consumers pay extra for. This also explains why public authorities are being so sluggish about the rising number of counterfeit goods among distributors' own-brand items.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the relationship between the product and the brand as well as their strategic importance to organizations. A significant competitive advantage is produced, brand perception is improved, and customer loyalty is fostered by a product and brand that are effectively aligned. While the brand's values and affiliations influence consumers' perceptions and preferences for the goods, the product's characteristics and performance add to the brand's reputation. Businesses may accelerate development, create solid brand equity, and leave a long-lasting impression on the market by comprehending and utilizing the link between the product and the brand. When a brand is separated from the item it represents and promotes, it loses all validity and becomes purely superficial and fake. In the end, businesses pay a price for this as sales fall and distributors grasp the chance to claim in their advertising that national brands alienate customers but that consumers may avoid this by buying distributors' own-brand products.

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CHAPTER 7

AN ANALYSIS OF BRAND AND BUSINESS BUILDING

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ABSTRACT:

Building a strong brand is essential for long-term business success and sustainable growth. This abstract explores the interplay between brand and business building, highlighting the strategies and considerations that contribute to creating a powerful brand and a thriving business. The research emphasizes that a well-established brand serves as a foundation for business building. A strong brand identity, encompassing the brand's purpose, values, and promise, provides a strategic direction and guides business decisions. Building a brand requires a comprehensive approach, including defining the target market, conducting market research, developing a differentiated value proposition, and crafting a compelling brand positioning. Groups with stock market listings must handle the increased awareness for their goods. This identification is made possible through their company brand. Anticipation is the lifeblood of stock markets.

KEYWORDS:

Brand Positioning Brand Strategy, Business Development, Competitive Advantage, Customer Acquisition, Marketing Campaigns, Market Research.

INTRODUCTION

The brand does not exist for its own sake. It must be handled as the business tool that it is an instrument for maximizing corporate development and profitability. Do brands have an impact on businesses? Yes. Are all businesses informed about this? No. The notion of the brand only applies to mass markets, high-consumption items, and the quickly evolving consumer goods industry, according to many industrial enterprises or commodity sellers. This is a false impression. A brand is a moniker that has an impact on both consumers and doctors. Air Liquide sells to the industrial sector, Somfy sells its tubular motors to window-blind installers and fitters, Saint Gobain Gypsum and Lafarge Selto companies and craftspeople in the construction and public works sectors, and the William Pitters company is well-known among retailers for the caliber of its business relationships. However, these businesses are impacted by brands in a number of different ways: An expectation is not by definition rational, although it may be affected by emotional considerations. In order to unify their noncooperators under a single brand, global organizations should consider if it would not be time to finish their transition into global buyers and distributors. Chinese or Indian businesses should be considering how to shed their reputation as low-cost suppliers and capture a bigger share of the high profit markets in industrialized nations; to achieve this, they want a global brand [1]–[3].

at each industry that is at danger of being commoditized, producers should consider if the brand serves as a differentiator. Because of this, it is interesting that BPB decided to keep the Phacolite product brand, a Labaran that had grown to be associated with the product itself and was indeed a market leader. Likewise, it's important that the industry The CEO of l'Oréal, Mr. Lindsay Owen-Jones, was invited to join the board of directors of the Air Liquide corporation. After going through hundreds of product names and the associated trademarks,

Air Liquide realized that it had still been unable to provide any value. It was necessary for it to reorganize its selection of high-tech items under many mega-brands, much as l'Oréa had done.

Producers of intermediate products should consider if it would not be time to market to the consumers of their clients indirectly via brand awareness campaigns rather than through direct sales. In order to generate demand for its products among those who would live in the apartments or work in the offices built by its clients, Lafarge, a global leader in construction materials, invested several million euros in educating the public about the advancements made possible by its innovations. The brand is a tool of power in interactions with distributors and intermediaries. Another good example is Somfy, which leads the globe in motors for window coverings and doors used in homes. This leadership has been attained by shifting the company's OEM business model and centering the brand on the customer, just as Intel, Lycra, Woolmark, and other companies have done with success. In the end, what do you tell a window-blind retailer whose Somfy motor accounts for 35% of the product's cost and who threatens to get the component from China at a 50% discount? Somfy's more prominent public "Somfy powered" approach stems from its concern of being reduced to the status of only an OEM participant.

Building a market leader without advertising

What is required to create a brand? There are several definitions of brands, and practically every author in the area has one of their own. Definitions may be helpful, but they don't really tell you anything about how to develop a brand. Definitions are static and assume that the brand exists. Brand development is dynamic. When we ask participants in our executive seminars how to construct a market-leading brand, the typical responses are to promote, create an image, and raise awareness. Most of the responses emphasize communication.

Instead of directly responding to that question, we'll look at an intriguing case: how did an unheard-of Australian firm, Orlando Wyndham, create Jacob's Creek, the top-selling bottled wine in the UK? With a very powerful image, this brand now leads in both volume and spontaneous brand recognition. Before 2000, this was accomplished without the use of mass-market advertising. It's also quite fascinating to observe that the UK wine market quadrupled in size between 1984 and 2000. What was then required to develop a successful wine brand in the mass market in the UK? The first prerequisite is having sufficient volume. To appeal to the mass market, one must be able to meet expectations. If a product is successful, many shops loathe to lose business to firms who cannot deliver enough stuff. This implies that a wine manufacturer may depend on a fairly big supply source.

Securing a steady quality is the second need. Any brand's primary function is to lower perceived risk; the purchasing experience for consumers must be consistent both online and offline. To ensure that customer expectations are not disappointed, a wine producer must master the art of blending. When customers learn they like a certain wine flavor, they are more likely to buy it since they are willing to take on less risk and experience the same flavor and pleasure. Price is crucial for a mass-market brand since it has to be accessible. At the back office level, everything must be done to guarantee increased efficiency and, therefore, reduced manufacturing costs, without compromising product quality or flavor. Being end-user-driven and determining the appropriate taste for the target market are essential. Many wine consumers in the UK are new to the habit. Beer and icy soft drinks have molded their palates. This indicates that they like wines with a certain flavor and mouthfeel. Additionally, if a group meets its goals, it may anticipate receiving positive news, awards, and press coverage, which will reinforce the support of the business community. A national sales force

is an additional necessity. Most wine selections are made inside the store. Success variables include point-of-purchase advertising and shelf exposure. To do this, it is crucial to create national agreements with the big multiple retailers, but even when they are set up, each shop has to be checked daily to make sure everything is in order. This is only feasible with a national sales team. Additionally, a strong wet triaphase is required to entice people to stop while they browse the aisles of the shop and sample the goods. A national sales team is also needed for this.

These five methods for developing a brand in the marketplace may appear simple and easy to implement. In reality, they aren't. French wines couldn't match the requirements, but New World wines, particularly Australian wines, did. Let's look at the reasons for each circumstance. Old World wines are built on a single tenet. The precise kind of soil, the sun, the temperature, and the air all have an impact on the wine's quality. As a result, hundreds of wines have been produced, each with a distinctive flavor and origin from a particular vineyard or wine-growing region. Every vineyard, for instance, asserts that their wine is superior to that of rivals. The end result is that the product is fragmented. For example, there is a separate producer, often a tiny one, behind each of the 5,000 marques of Bordeaux wine. Due to this, suppliers are unable to fulfill the first need for brand development: significant volume. Old World wines have made an effort to maintain their market dominance by making their wine-making procedures into regulations. Following these regulations is necessary to create a Burgundy or Bordeaux wine. What was originally meant to be a quality control system has turned into a significant barrier to innovation in order to counter the competition from rising growth regions.

DISCUSSION

If a wine is to be named a Pauillac, Graves, or anything else, its producers are only allowed to very little or never blend grapes from this area with grapes from anyplace else. They are unable to irrigate during dry seasons, nor can they apply chemicals to help balance the quality variations brought on by yearly variations in climate. Old World wines have an inherent diversity because they adhere to these rules; they are the actual product of nature, rather than the product of man. Compared to Australia, California, or Argentina, Europe has a considerably wider range of soil types and a more variable temperature from year to year, which also affects how different Old World wines taste.

To ensure the same flavor from year to year, one must learn the technique of mixing grapes from many varied soils, and locations, if one of them is underproducing. Branding implies repressing this variability. Australia had minimal restrictions limiting wine production; it could do it since it was a nation that was relatively recently populated and didn't have a lengthy wine-growing past. For wine producers from Bordeaux or Burgundy, that was not the case. The same is true for producing goods of the proper quality at reasonable prices. Mechanized harvesting is not permitted for French wine producers; they must harvest by hand. They are unable to utilize chemical additions or irrigate in order to significantly boost the productivity of their soils. Wine is often kept in barrels in France as well. In Australia, wine is stored in enormous aluminum tanks and is supplemented with wood shavings. By increasing the amount of wood surface in touch with the wine, the process of giving the wine the desired "woody" flavor is accelerated. Time is money; therefore, this lowers the cost of manufacturing.

In point four, it is discussed how to appeal to the target market's palate. New World wines don't follow any traditions since they were created for the consumer. They made adjustments to their product to suit the tastes of developing market consumers who are used to consuming

beer and soft beverages. Their wine needed to be fruit-driven, really soft, incredibly smooth, and simple to sip for special occasions. Some grape varieties, including Chardonnay and Semillon Chardonnay, may provide such a flavor. These weren't the grapes that gave Bordeaux or Burgundy wines their well-known names. Language is another aspect of being client-driven. Marketing studies revealed that the English were still largely an "island race" and that many of them were unfamiliar with the cultures and practices of continental Europe. Jacob's Creek is an English name, and the content on the wine labels is written in English, unlike the tangle of thousands of obscure wine names from Europe. Prior until recently, English-language labeling information for French wines was uncommon. Furthermore, some English people identify more strongly with Australia than with France since both countries are Commonwealth members. Additionally, a small number of grape types have come to be linked with each New World nation. This indicates that people can predict the flavor of an Australian wine better than they can a French wine. The brand is given additional risk-reduction benefits by the place of origin.

The product's superb quality-price ratio won accolades from industry professionals and tastemakers. This is a never-ending race since the brand keeps raising the bar every year, increasing the quality and gaining more exposure. Jacob's Creek profited from the "pioneer advantage" and came to represent Australian wine since it was the first of the main Australian wine exporters. Even though the brand's owner, Orlando Wyndham, is far smaller than some of its Australian rivals, such as Hardy's, all of its work and efforts have been directed onto this one brand. Google, Zara, and Amazon are just a few of the businesses that have grown via touch and retention without advertising. There are other strategies for establishing a brand. Yellow Tail rose to the top wine brand in the United States as a result of a significant promotional effort, a humorous personality, and a price that inspired its primary distributor. Additionally, a large group of wine novices were the target audience [4]–[6].

Building a brand: moving from values to products and vice versa

Building a very powerful brand takes time. There are two ways to achieve this, using two different models: going from product advantage to intangible values or going from values to products. But over time, this reciprocal movement comes to represent the core of brand management: brands stand on two legs. Most brands did not begin as such; instead, their creators only wanted to establish a company based on a very unique commodity or service. This was an original thought that would allow them to launch their enterprise and break through the distributors' locked doors. Their name or the name of the product gained recognition through time and gained market dominance. In addition to designating a person or a product, it gradually started to be linked to images, intangible advantages, brand personality, etc. The focus has shifted from physical to intangible qualities, from benefits to advantages.

Most trademarks begin as names on novel goods or services, as shown by the upward-pointing arrow. If Nike's running shoes hadn't been creative, no distributor would have taken notice of them when Nike originally appeared as a meaningless brand on them. With time, that moniker gained recognition, respect, and trust, if not like. This is the outcome of all the communication and stars that went along with the construction of the company. The process gradually reverses, with the brand differentiating and endowing the product/service with its distinctive values rather than the product creating brand recognition and reputation. In reality, the company decides at this point which new items best fit its targeted image. The Nike brand has expanded beyond athletic shoes to include sports apparel and even golf clubs. It is now in this phase of brand expansion. From ingredient to attribute to benefit to brand personality,

brand values, and even purpose, at the very top intangible end, brand connections often ascend up a ladder over time.

This is not to say that distinction and material concerns shouldn't be a part of brand management in the future. Brands stand on two legs. Even show-off luxury firms must convey to their customers that they are purchasing a high-quality item and that the price difference is justified. However, Material differentiation is a never-ending race as rivals steal your top concepts. When a brand is linked to an intangible product or service, value is added and substitutability is avoided. The price premium for Mercedes is consistently justified by product-based advertising language as well as by PR initiatives that highlight the brand's distinctive position.

The first mode focuses on companies that began as products. A second method of developing brands exists: many companies begin as concepts or ideas. This is valid for numerous fashion, liquor, and cigarette companies as well as unlicensed ones. Another discovery that led to the creation of the Axe men's hygiene line is that youngsters worry about their sex appeal. This mode also serves as a reminder that it's crucial to build in the deeper degrees of significance that are meant to be associated with a brand over time even when releasing a product. The brand should design them from the beginning and include them at conception rather than just acquiring them via accumulation or sedimentation. The process through which items become brands is accelerated by incorporating this viewpoint early on. This is the main distinction between a product launch and a brand launch.

This is another reason why product descriptions should never be included in brand names. The first is that as rivals enter the market with the same goods, what was descriptive quickly became generic. Second, customers will rapidly discover the company's mission. Better names should try to convey a compelling narrative. Like Apple Computers did 25 years ago, Amazon speaks of newness, force, and plenty, while Orange says "definitely non-technical." The term "best" is the source of the paradox: best for whom and at what? Let's use a school class as an example. Academic grades are determined using clear criteria, and students who do well have skills like a strong memory, the capacity to solve problems quickly, work precisely, and show their work effectively. These are the classroom values, and every market also has values. It is essential to comprehend market values if you want to dominate any market. Of course, a quality product or service is necessary for success. The product must create brand loyalty by attracting customers who will buy it again and recommend it to others. With 66% of the original equipment market, Michelin is unquestionably the leader in the truck tire industry. Although Michelin remains the market leader in the replacement market, often known as the "after-market," its share drops to 29%. It seems that Michelin is less sensitive to the needs of fleet owners and individuals who fix vehicles in the aftermarket.

Is Bacardi, which leads the globe in the spirits business, the best spirit? It is possible to claim that it is nothing of the such given that it has no flavor and performs horribly in a blind test. Why then does it sell in such large amounts? Its customers are curarines and partygoers, not food critics debating its flavor. They often want a spirit that will blend well in a cocktail, and a good mixer ought to have a flavor that is very neutral. Carta Blanca supplies just this; 90% of Bacardi's sales come from it.

What does the client value is the first question posed by branding. Bacardi may be referred to as the "batter," but it is clearly not the "better." One of its most important intangible added qualities is its character, which is embodied by its emblem, a bat. Falloff Bats was the site of the first Bacardi plant in Cuba. This was adopted as the brand's emblem, giving it a lasting aura of mystery. The education industry offers another illustration. A ticket to success is a

Master's in Business Administration. Universities in the US were where it initially appeared. Students at US institutions must put in two years of hard effort to acquire their MBA: one year to master the basics and one year to specialize in a key area.

Recognizing the target's value curve

By comprehending the value curve of European human resources directors who employ young executives, instead rose to become the most well-known MBA program in Europe. Premium institutions like HEC demonstrated their lack of understanding of the local value curve by offering an MBA based on the US model. Recruiters in Europe don't really care how long a candidate has been a student on college since the payoff for spending two years at Harvard, Stanford, or Northwestern rather than less than a year at Instead is quite tiny. However, a thorough immersion in a really international curriculum, where students learn to collaborate with people from ten different countries, is something recruiters do admire. This reflects the workplace environment in which they are employed. European businesses often believe that a brief academic introduction lasting less than a year would sufficient and that they will really train their new hires how to conduct business internally. Finally, throughout the careers of their managers, businesses choose to depend on ongoing education by offering a steady stream of specialized corporate seminars[7]–[10]various brands may survive in the same industry because they speak to various segments' value curves and not all customers are the same. Groups create brand portfolios for this reason. The Volkswagen Group and GM both have a variety of automobile brands.

Breaking the law and moving quickly

The MBA example also highlights a different problem: in order to construct a brand, one must immediately gain notoriety in order to erect barriers to entry. By deviating from the two-year requirement, instead was able to produce twice as many graduates as a US school of comparable size, and to do it in half the time. From the instances above, many lessons should be learned:

1. The first is that all brands begin as non-brands with no recognition or reputation. They did, however, have a successful idea as a foundation. Finding a disruptive innovation is necessary to launch a brand.
2. Second, the greatest way to lead a market is to create one. The well-known pioneer advantage is this. The norms and rules that breed herd behavior in the marketplace must be broken, nevertheless, in order to establish a market.
3. Thirdly, time is a crucial component of success. The victors go out in front and move quickly to quickly close the gap on the entering rivals.
4. Fourth, it's crucial to get criticism quickly in order to widen the distance between yourself and the competitors. As a result, there are more resources available for marketing, communication, and word-of-mouth.
5. Fifth, contrary to what is often said in marketing circles, a brand belongs to the client and not to the maker or retailer. A brand represents ideals, but as we all know, what is really valuable depends on the client. Being market-focused and considering the target's value curve are essential. The next issue is how to handle this value curve better than the current rivals. The ideal strategy is to cause a disturbance and violate market norms.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the interdependence between brand and company development. Establishing a strong foundation for company success requires building a strong brand. Businesses may

build a strong brand and promote sustainable development by establishing a distinct brand identity, building a brand-centric culture, concentrating on consumer demands, distinguishing via innovation, and maintaining consistent brand communication. For firms looking to create a strong brand and succeed in the cutthroat business environment of today, understanding the tactics and factors for brand and company creation is essential. These graduates now serve as its referees inside businesses. Recently, it strategically increased its productivity by producing twice as many graduates annually, highlighting its market dominance. It also made the decision to build a branch in Asia in order to capitalize on its already well-known brand.

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CHAPTER 8

COMPARING BRAND AND BUSINESS MODELS: COLA DRINKS

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ABSTRACT:

Cola drinks have become iconic brands in the beverage industry, representing not only popular carbonated beverages but also embodying distinct brand identities and business models. This abstract presents a comparative analysis of the brand and business models of cola drinks, focusing on two major players in the market: Coca-Cola and PepsiCo. The research highlights that both Coca-Cola and PepsiCo have established strong brand identities that resonate with consumers worldwide. These brands evoke emotions, memories, and cultural associations, creating a sense of loyalty and preference among consumers. The brand identities of Coca-Cola and PepsiCo are built upon long-standing histories, memorable advertising campaigns, and consistent brand messaging, which have contributed to their global recognition and success.

KEYWORDS:

Brand Loyalty, Carbonated Beverages, Distribution Channels, Market Segmentation, Marketing Campaigns, Packaging Design, Product Differentiation.

INTRODUCTION

Comparing several brands and business approaches within the same category is intriguing. This demonstrates how brand image alone is insufficient to explain market leadership. The study must take into account structural elements including manufacturing costs, the nature of the competition, and the sector's trade structure. Why not use the highly symbolic subject of colas for analysis? Unlike other soft drinks, colas as a commodity have achieved remarkable "DE commoditization" success. The biggest brand in the world, Coca-Cola, also participates in this market.

What exactly is a soda? In a material sense, it is made up of carbonate, flavorings, a sweetener, and water. Brands are struggling in the fruit juice sector; in Germany, hard-discount labels control more than 50% of the market. The same thing is happening in the UK and across Europe, where, in contrast to the US, distribution is more concentrated and items with bargain labels are not always of worse quality. How to distinguish a product like orange juice that appears generic is the challenge businesses confront. In addition, orange juice's high raw cost puts pressure on profits, which in turn reduces the amount of advertising spending that can be justified when store own-labels and unbranded generic items are undercutting market pricing.

There are not many methods to find a good economic equation in the fruit juice business. Tropicana has a premium pricing approach that is based on ongoing product innovation and a premium brand. These value innovations raise the cost per liter that customers pay. It is the market leader in the premium segment and a global brand, but it only has a small volume presence in each nation[1]–[3].

Procter & Gamble, as usual, used advanced technology to distinguish their product. Although Sunny Delight comprises nearly entirely artificial components, it was presented as a rival in

the fruit juice industry. These produced a flavor and texture that outperformed those of all other natural fruit juice rivals. It also provided moms with vitamins. Procter & Gamble developed an inventive product that was suggestive of orange juice and was undoubtedly assumed to be orange-based by certain customers thanks to its name, color, and logo.

Coca-Cola is a strange, nearly-black beverage with a secret recipe that from the beginning set the physical and psychological conditions for a non-fully substitute product. Additionally, since it is an artificial product rather than a natural one, the brand has come to be linked with the item, which has no other name. Since then, it has evolved into the standard for a whole class of cola beverages. Taking use of the pioneer advantage, the Coca-Cola brand has followed a single goal for more than a century, now on a global scale: to continue the growth of the cola category. It was first in rivalry with American sodas, followed by other soft drinks, and is now up against nearly all other forms of beverages, such as water in Europe and tea in Asia. The refreshing relationship connecting people worldwide is the core of the Coke brand. Being created from a syrup that is cheap to transport, very effective, and incredibly resistant to temperature and time helped the company's brand become the most popular beverage in the world. It is unquestionably a fantastic physical product. Additionally, the acidity/sweetness ratio has been tuned to perfection so that consumers may consume several glasses or cans without being full. Because cola syrup is so inexpensive to make, big margins and hence high marketing costs may be used to further its top-of-mind positioning. Profit may be situated at the corporate level and pressure can be applied on bottlers/distributors to follow a high-volume strategy if they want to be profit. It is resold to bottlers for five times its manufacturing price.

The three components of the strategy—availability, accessibility, and attractiveness—remain constant and are used to build the firm through expanding the category. Most people concentrate on communication, yet these three levers are the secret of Coke's dominance: The distributive lever of availability is used initially. Put Coke within easy reach. The goal is for Coke to be available everywhere: in bars, fast-food outlets, canteens, shops, vending machines in streets and public spaces, refrigerators in offices, and soon, classrooms. It is crucial to understand that maintaining an active presence on premises is essential to growing both the business and the brand image. A drink's prestige is enhanced and consumption habits are formed when it is present on-site. Additionally, unlike various stores that do not endorse a brand solely but instead provide their consumers an option, on-premise customers do so, giving the brand a laminotomy.

Because of this, Coke partners with McDonald's and other like-minded businesses throughout the world. One prerequisite for this kind of exclusive agreement is that the supplier offers the outlet access to its whole array of soft drink brands in exchange for stocking them. The goal is to make it difficult for any soft drink competitors to enter the market. One should not overlook access to the bottlers while competing on availability, since there are often just a few reputed bottlers in many nations. Controlling this bottler will ensure that competition does not enter the market. On the other side, it is a strategy for eliminating competition, as was the case when the Venezuelan bottler who had previously handled Pepsi chose to work for Coke. Operations for Pepsi in Venezuela were shut down within a day. The cost is determined by accessibility: Sloke at the price of tea in China, India." This is made feasible by the volume-based approach, the cheap cost of producing syrup, and its simplicity in transportation. Economies of scale increase competitive pressure, if not act as a barrier to entrance. The Coca-Cola Corporation can afford to have its local businesses lose money in order to sustainably increase a high per capita consumption rate since the profit is situated at the corporate level. In order to eliminate competitors from the market, the corporation also

applies severe pricing pressure to the whole market. For instance, it seems that trade distributors are given special discounts on Coke if they favor the company's other brands, such as Fanta, Minute Maid, and Aquarius. Due to alleged anti-competitive actions, the Coca-Cola Company is now being sued by European authorities.

The third component is attractiveness, which is a communication problem. Although Coke's advertising is prominent, the majority of the money goes into non-media communication. Let's not forget that cheap manufacturing costs enable share-of-mind dominance. Last but not least, Coke's reputation is not that of a commodity but rather of a bond: it fulfills both concrete and abstract promises that make it unique, far more so than its original secret recipe. Pepsi-Cola, Coca-Cola's primary rival globally, has precisely the same brand and commercial strategy. It differs from Coke since it entered the market more subsequently and did not originate the category. Its brand reputation and market dominance are lower as a rival. Price, product, and image are its three main areas of competition with the leader. At the consumer level, it is a dime less expensive than Coke, but this puts more pressure on profitability.

Product: Since Coke is not the benchmark, Pepsi is bolder and continuously improves the product to outperform it in terms of flavor and palatability. In the majority of blind testing, its recipe is actually preferable to Coke. It forced Coca-Cola Corporation to introduce New Coke in 1985 as a replacement for traditional Coke, the country's water, in what has been called the "marketing blunder of the century." Due to a need for innovation, it began using line extensions like Diet Pepsi before Coke.

Pepsi is more recent than Coke. Because of its advertising posture, Pepsi has become the beverage of choice for the younger generation by capitalizing on Coke's one long-term flaw. 'The soft drink for today's taste and experiences' is how Pepsi describes itself. The PepsiCo Company had to expand into restaurants and fast-food franchises in order to ensure Pepsi-Cola's presence on premises and get over Coke's entrance restrictions.

Even more difficulties have faced Coke's competitors. Less than two years after he drove into New York's Times Square in a tank to announce his challenge, Richard Branson of Virgin declared defeat in its campaign against Coca-Cola and Pepsi in the United States in February 2000. Reviewing the branding and business models that Coke and Pepsi share makes it clear why Virgin Cola failed everywhere except in the UK, where it was first produced. Even then, it only captured 5% of the market. Branding is insufficient. Cott's, a Canadian firm that was able to produce excellent syrup and creates the cola marketed under Loblaw's President's Choice private label, was acquired by Virgin Cola. Compared to Coke or Pepsi, it offered a lower price.

However, Virgin Cola was never able to contact the market or get distribution. Branson's whole plan was to use the Virgin umbrella brand to save costs on advertising and enable a lower pricing. Virgin's sole brand asset is its core brand, which has been expanded to other sorts of categories and has therefore earned significant global recognition, unlike the two top carbonated soft drink businesses, who both adhere to a product brand policy. Virgin had a small sales staff, which was a clear disadvantage for trade marketing and store-by-store direct relationships, as well as a low level of advertising and selling a huge volume on promotions. Last but not least, Virgin Cola was unable to compete in the market without a wide range of soft drinks to back it up. This is required to enter the on-premise consumption market and is also the only practical approach to create a truly national sales force.

Extension failures are often explained away right away as being due to some image-based reason why the brand cannot expand to the new market. The brand and corporate viewpoint

demonstrate to us how flimsy this justification is. The reason for the failure was not the Virgin brand, but rather Virgin's inability to compete on the same brand and economic model as its two Goliath rivals. Fairy stories are one thing, but typically, David dies.

Virgin Cola was not sufficiently distributed; in Europe, for example, it was never sold at the major multiple stores. In the upscale bars and eateries, it wasn't properly marketed. It would have required a new sales force and a fresh portfolio of brands and goods to perform better in terms of distribution. It may be argued that they should have sought out partnerships with soft drink producers eager to create a branded cola. Without advertising, the majority of the cola's sales were made via promotions. If it provides a foundation for a long-term preference, it is debar. Additionally, Virgin wants to be seen as the rival to Coca-Cola. However, Pepsi already had this position on the global market. And last, how well-known is the Virgin brand outside the UK among young people?

What other name or business model is there in this market? Two alternative business strategies are still in existence today: trade-focused and ethnic colas. The New York Times ran an item titled "Ire at America Helps Create the Anti-Coke" in its issue from Sunday, January 12, 2003. This revealed that a young entrepreneur of Tunisian descent had founded Mecca Cola. He specifically targeted Muslims in France and, eventually, other nations. This company had two advantages. The first was well received by the Muslim community right away because of its identity, which is built on a sense of belonging and indignation over what is seen as an imperialist beverage and brand. The second was a direct presence in the community's particular distribution channel, which included several small convenience shops with extended hours of operation.

Since only long-term durability will be able to demonstrate its effectiveness, it is too early to make that determination. Sales, though, are soaring. It's interesting how other colas have thrived using the same strategy, capitalizing on local identities and communal sentiments, whether they be religious, ethnic, or geographic. For instance, two beverages targeted towards areas with strong identities and even separatist movements are Corsica Cola and Breiz'h Cola. Where else might this style be replicated: Irish cola? Scotch coke? Regional institutions are resurrected in the age of globalization to combat what is seen as a loss of essence, spirit, and quality of life. Such efforts gain access to local distribution or the local stores of several national merchants. No business owner or management wants to run the risk of offending the neighborhood customers that frequent their establishment[4]–[6]. A unique and intriguing alternative brand and business approach have been developed by Monarch Beverage Company. It is entirely trade-oriented, ensuring access to contemporary distribution on a global scale. However, it goes beyond only supplying cola for store brands. This strategy really promotes branding.

To escape Coke and Pepsi's control is the issue facing several merchants. With a few no exceptions, own labels' market shares regrettably remain quite low. This is likely due to the fact that private labels seem to be phony cola when compared to the original. Saving money by purchasing their own brand of sodas exposes parents to criticism from their kids. In a market that has been DE commoditized by brand image, private labels have no image. The American ideal, authenticity, and enjoyment are all important to Coke's brand identity. Pepsi also connotes youth and has the same associations, but to a lesser level. In the viewpoint of the young, affluent customers, own-label products do not provide such value. They foster animosity.

Two former vice presidents of marketing for Coca-Cola founded The Monarch Beverage Company in Atlanta, Georgia, USA. It was able to make a quality cola syrup with the

assistance of a former Coca-Cola scientist. Most importantly, it concentrated on the issue of the customer: to raise the percentage of its own labewith profit, rather than concentrating on the end-consumer and risking the danger of not having access to mass distribution. Own-labeled products would not be eaten even if they were given away for free because they lack authenticity, a guarantee of quality and flavor, and a failure to supply the proper intangible qualities. Monarch has developed a portfolio of products that all look American and are produced by a really American corporation situated in Atlanta, the city that is home to the Coca-Cola corporate headquarters. These trademarks, which are owned by Monarch, are distributed to several shops under license. Therefore, each large multichannel retailer has a unique brand for its activities globally that sets it apart from its rivals. American Cola, for instance, is sold at Carrefour. Monarch produces the syrup in accordance with the requirements of each store. The business offers the name and the goods; it gives its clients the freedom to choose their own bottlers, pricing, and marketing strategies. Negotiations are conducted at the company level with the category global manager, thus there is no need for a nation sales force. The advantages of broadening the viewpoint on competitive strategies to include elements other than communication and brand image have been shown by this in-depth examination of different brand and business models. Gaining brand leadership requires the coordination of many levers within a workable economic equation. The genuine state of brand equity is as a result.

DISCUSSION

New information on the growth of distributors' brands is released every day. On November 28, 2006, Carrefour introduced its line of mobile phones under its own name, complimenting the capabilities of its Orange network in an effort to make it a channel for fostering customer loyalty that would be lucrative and conducive to expansion. The 218 hypermarkets operating under the Carrefour brand, which get one million daily visitors, carried the deal. This is not a unique occurrence. Everywhere, distributors' brands are growing and now control the market in several ostensibly mass-consumption sectors. For instance, 400,000 tonnes of self-service packed ham are sold annually in France. Without nation brands, the hard-discount circuit alone sells 100,000 tonnes. Two-thirds, or 200,000 tonnes, of the 300,000 tonnes sold at big and medium-sized shops are "low-cost products" marketed under the store brand. Only 100,000 tonnes of the top brands Fleury Michon, Herta, Madrange, Sara Lee, etc. are still available. In Germany, wholesalers' brands are used to sell 45% of organic goods.

Distributors' brands are becoming a component of the competitive environment in other sectors after being relegated for so long to the mass consumption sector: even the mass prestige goods retailer Sephora has implemented a voluntary policy of own-name items during the last three years. Automobile equipment, agricultural cooperatives, pharmaceutical organizations, and other industries use distributors' brands.

Following in the footsteps of the Monored and Sainsbury's brands, they have evolved from being only the cheapest items to innovators that are fast to provide customers things that keep pace with the newest trends in society. These are often now inseparable from the shop, so Picard stores only under the distributor's name. Customers visit Picard and purchase Picard. The Body Shop solely offers its own distributor's brand now that it is a member of the l'Oréafamily. When bargain clothing started to appear in the United States, Gap shifted its business model from being the exclusive retailer of Levi Strauss and carrying jeans in all sizes. Now that Gap exclusively offers Gap, Decathlon seems to have been influenced by this move. Ikea, Habitat, Roche and Bobois, Crate & Barre, and William Sonoma are more examples. Since its founding, Marks & Spencer's has followed the same policy.

It is true that Asian businesses are fighting to provide distributors' brands and low-cost goods in the B2B market. Therefore, a Facom key for a mechanic costs \$10, but if created in Taiwan, it just costs \$3. The tubular motors for the electric automation of Bubbendorf's blinds are now produced in Asia. Recently, it installed automations made by Somfy, the industry leader; as a result, Somfy is now its major rival. Office Depot and Guilbert have predicated their success in the office furniture market on distributors' brands: in addition to the so-called mandatory items, they also sell products under their own names. And is it not paradoxical that the same large corporations who lament the growth of distributor brands nonetheless choose to purchase items under the Niceday brand from their Guilbert supplier? Simply put, they are criticizing customers for doing what they themselves practice: spending restraint.

Brand development for the distributor

Recent academic research has not given distributors' branding enough consideration. Distributors' brands were seen as "non-brands," luring clients who were price conscious since the producer's brand was the sole standard of comparison. Additionally, the distributor's brand has been less well-known in the US than it has been in Europe. In truth, no distributor dominates in the United States, with the exception of Wal-Mart; distribution is local, and national brands still have influence in the distribution channel. Because of this, distributors' brands have historically been associated with cheap, inferior alternatives in the United States, a judgment that failed to fully account for the occurrence.

The fact that the most recent book about distributors' brands to be published in the United States chose the term "private label" rather than "trade brands" for its title is telling because the term "private label" categorizes the distributor's brand as a distinct entity, and not using the term "brand" as a result fails to account for the true reach of distributor's brands. Even though they don't seem to be brands like the others, people see them as brands and are now loyal to them. However, this situation has recently changed, as can be seen from a recent interview with Russ Klein, the executive director of 7-eleven, the store that pioneered the concept of the convenience store some 79 years ago. He attests, "Private label has changed to the point where retailers are using it as the premium brand in some cases." One illustration of this is Tesco. In this approach, the distributor's brand, which is handled with vigor and desire, enhances the store's reputation. However, as we will see below, the distributors' brand problem has changed, and the current challenge is how to make the shop itself the brand.

When the producer's brand is not the volume leader on the shelf, the distributor's brand often ends up being the only real rival. Too many brand managers still haven't come to terms with the fact that their brands are niche. Their rival is not the other "big" brand, but rather the distributor's considerably less expensive goods, which are becoming more and more equivalent in quality. The distributor's brand, the producer's brand, and now the lowest-priced items are 60% less expensive and are all available on the shelves of hypermarkets and supermarkets, which only serves to make matters worse. This increases the need to move quickly and establish the big producer's brand firmly and unwaveringly on its two points of differentiation: innovation and quality and emotion-added value[7]–[10].

All nations, from the wealthiest and most developed to developing nations, have distributors' brands. Hard discounts and low-cost goods are expanding quickly in Eastern nations. But the hard discounters were also a surprise for mass distribution in Western Europe's highly industrialized nations; their growth in France barely stabilized this year. Yet they are wealthy nations. Thus, the distributor's brand is not a phenomenon associated with poverty. Migros is the top food brand in Switzerland, which has one of the highest per capita earnings in the world, ahead of Nestlé. Given that Migros is a major distributor with locations in every

community, this is not unexpected. Every every time, Migros solely sells Migros goods. Germany is the most powerful nation in Europe, and although its residents like their luxury vehicles, they purchase the majority of their food from Aldi and Lidl cheap stores, which virtually always carry high-end private-label goods. It is difficult to believe that Germans would purchase low-quality items. A Canadian retailer called Loblaw's has made a name for itself with its President's Choice product line. At Carrefour, Albert Heijn in Holland, and Ika in Scandinavia, the narrative is the same.

Distributors now oversee their brand portfolios as part of a category and store overall goal. For each category, they must choose their "brand mix" and decide which kind of brand to offer: a producer's brand or a distributor's brand? The latter may provide a variety of affordable items, a line of products with a good value, or own brands with greater positioning flexibility—possibly even a really premium positioning.

It is true that there are differences to be drawn between quite disparate realities within the meaning of the catchphrase "distributor's brand." All of the distributor's brands and items are organized along two axes: the level of value added and the relationship to the shop. Low-cost goods, rapidly created by mass-distribution numerous merchants to compete with the success of the so-called "hard-discount" German and French stores, are at the bottom of the added value scale. These goods are the outcome of a basic understanding of what constitutes quality: inexpensive sardines have the legal right to be called sardines but make no pretense at being anything else. Their low cost is attained by buying the lowest sardine lots at fish auctions all around the globe. There is not a single gram of honey in inexpensive gingerbread. This should not be confused with the business practices of hard discounters like Aldi and Lidl, who worked with industrialists to establish precise quality specifications in an effort to obtain respect quality despite the extremely low prices. The manufacturer hired will produce just one reference in astronomical quantities. Items like Tesco Finest, which, for example, provides fresh fruit juices prepared less than three days earlier and with a limited shelf life, and Monoprix Gourmet, which, as its name implies, offers items with high experiential value, are at the opposite end of the added value spectrum. As its name implies, Loblaw's President's Choice range in the US and Canada sets high standards for quality.

A distributor's brand may either have the name of the shop or its own name in terms of its nomenclature connection to the store: one or the other. As a result, Tex and BlueSky are "Carrefour products" available in the supermarket. There are, of course, exceptions when the retailer supports its own goods: at Auchan items marketed at children are signed Rik et Rok, but the Auchan emblem is prominently displayed on the front of the container.

The major brands have long looked down their noses at the distributors' brands and refused to grant their novel items the revered moniker of "brands." That would amount to a kind of *lèse-majesté* and call their historical hegemony into question. Up until this point, the major brands have led and controlled the market. For them, retailers served as distributors, a phrase that is telling since it focuses more on logistics and transportation than it does on the ability to create an all-encompassing offer, stage-manage the shelves, or grow a company by maximizing upstream and downstream profits. Stores also insist on being referred to as shops for this reason. Since the growth of the distributor's own brand represents the demise of a certain marketing strategy, it is much more difficult to accept and raises issues that go well beyond the issues with acquiring market share, for which businesses have not yet fully prepared. We may look at either their management or their reputation with customers to determine the precise nature of the distributor's brand.

Distributor handled similarly to the manufacturer

From a managerial perspective, the brands of distributors are, in general, just brands. They have all the characteristics of a brand, but they also must simultaneously adapt to two separate limitations. They must find their position in the distributor's marketing mix, where they now play a significant role in generating identity, distinctiveness, and customer loyalty. Additionally, they often base their marketing strategy on affordability, even when, unusually, they are positioned in a premium market.

Because of this, management of these brands lacks the same degree of independence as a producer's brand. They base their standing on the company's. Their pricing is often positioned compared to two customer benchmarks: the prices of major brands and those of products with steep discounts. Formally, the distributor's trademark often takes the shape of an umbrella brand, such as Tesco, Auchan, or Carrefour items. It's true that some private labels market themselves as standalone, themed brands without mentioning the retailer. It offers seafood under the Captain Cook brand and processed meats under the Monique Ranoux trademark. The supermarket company Intermarché has its own vessels and plants. Under the Reflets de France brand, Carrefour offers a selection of more than 100 regional items.

To focus on the store brand, also referred to as the banner, it typically covers a large number of products, or even shelves. Through its extension, it brings a service of practicality to the customer, who can find it by navigating from shelf to shelf. It serves as a decision-maker across the shop and acts as a common component. On the other hand, the manufacturer's brand denotes expertise; as a result, its expansion is inherently more constrained. The French company Fleury Michon, which specializes in fresh delicatessen items and processed meat, would never consider selling jam. The maker's mark is supported by a trade, an expertise, and a savoir-faire that are materialized via innovations and drive its evolution.

This does not imply that a distributor may use their brand as a catch-all for anything. We believe that this should be done in accordance with a category that builds reputation primarily for those goods that are seen as similar to one another since they are either complementary or interchangeable. Putting everything under one name is not a goal in and of itself; the brand exists to provide value for consumers, not to make money. According to this perspective, it is illuminating that the major grocery chains create a portfolio of umbrella brands to cover the whole of their product line while simultaneously aiming for a high level of customer engagement. Similar to how George is the men's clothes brand at Wal-Mart, Miss Helen is the feminine cosmetics and hygiene brand at Monoprix. Contrarily, Monoprix, like Tesco, wants to be associated with new consumer trends like organic, sustainable development, gourmet, openness to the globe, healthy eating, etc.

The challenge of controlling the store brand completely like a brand is explained by the distributor's brand's multifaceted nature. There is no brand without positioning, therefore First Line at Carrefour represented the newest advancements in computers, white goods, hi-fi, and television at the lowest price. The buyers, not the marketers, often have the sway among the major distributors. The former respond by taking advantage of chances and maximizing the price differential between the buy and the sell, and this is their main strength. From a marketing perspective, all aisles must have the essential brand consistency, which extends well beyond the logo. The brand must adhere to its positioning and platform at all times. These two viewpoints are headed toward one another. In order to avoid having to develop an individual marque for them, the shop brand is sometimes requested to lend its name to goods that are not totally consistent with its perspective. Additionally, the distributor's brand is prone to supplier whims. Returning to First Line, this company never really took off because,

despite how simple it is to copy the best Bonne Maman jam, it is challenging to sell high-definition plasma displays for less money. In the high-tech sector, there are simply no vendors that can provide such items. Due to this, Carrefour decided to discontinue First Line at the end of 2005, keeping just its lowest-priced brand, BlueSky.

Talking about brands would be incomplete without including innovation. In actuality, the nation's main brand's role is to promote advancement via innovation, change, fashion, design, and other factors. This calls for marketing competence and long-term consideration of the stated or implicit expectations of potential customers. They also possess the main industrialists' knowledge. As a result, Fleury Michon introduced preservative-free hams in 2006 in line with the brand's mission statement since they represent the future, even if today's consumers are unaware of it. Being a brand means taking the lead and planning far into the future for the client. It took three years of research and development to locate bouillons that could provide the same preservative function, therefore eliminating chemical preservatives means replacing them with natural preservatives. Prior to the mad cow problem a few years ago, Fleury Michon was able to innovate by providing ham steaks. Additionally, it is the manufacturer of turkey ham and other odd goods.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, a comparative examination of the cola beverage industry's brand and business models, concentrating on Coca-Cola and PepsiCo. Both businesses have developed distinctive brand identities and deploy powerful marketing techniques, but their business structures and strategic priorities are different. Insights into the dynamics of the beverage industry and the tactics used by these renowned brands to retain their market dominance and customer appeal may be gained by understanding the subtleties of brand and business models in the context of cola drinks. The study also recognizes the continual efforts made by both businesses to adjust to shifting customer preferences and market circumstances. To accommodate the rising demand for healthier options, Coca-Cola and PepsiCo have created healthier beverage options, such as low-sugar or zero-calorie alternatives. In order to meet changing customer expectations and business responsibilities, they have also adopted sustainability programs that concentrate on packaging and environmental standards.

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CHAPTER 9

DISTRIBUTOR'S BRAND INNOVATES FOR SUPPLY CHAIN

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ABSTRACT:

In today's competitive business landscape, distributors play a critical role in the supply chain, connecting manufacturers with end consumers. This abstract explores the concept of distributor's brand innovation, highlighting how distributors can leverage their unique position to innovate and create value in the marketplace. The research emphasizes that distributor's brand innovation goes beyond traditional distribution functions. Distributors have the opportunity to establish their own brands and differentiate themselves in the market by offering unique products, services, or customer experiences. By doing so, distributors can expand their value proposition, enhance customer loyalty, and unlock new growth opportunities. A popular counterargument is that distributors' brands were the first to launch a packaging innovation, such as flipping shampoo bottles upside down to correspond with their actual placement in the bathroom. However, the distribution brand does not seek to innovate due to the very design of its economic model: its price is obtained by using the manufacturer's brand's efforts and investments to its advantage and profiting from its strong position in the relationship, meaning that the manufacturer needs the store much more than the store needs the manufacturer.

KEYWORDS:

Customer-Centric, Distribution Channels, Entrepreneurship, Market Disruption, Market Research, New Product Development, Partnership.

INTRODUCTION

No, since it lacks the tools to do so. It operates on the premise of light marketing in order to save expenses associated with the many product lines, and it swiftly copies the innovations of successful manufacturers in order to capitalize on what is already effective. In reality, the qualities of the successful product to be reproduced account for up to 80% of the product requirements of subcontractors entrusted with producing a distributor's brand goods. The remaining 20% of the criteria, in the opinion of the retailers, will serve as a means of distinction based on the values of the particular store.

However, it is vital to cut costs in marketing and R&D in order to swiftly emerge on the shelves with an identic offer at a 30% reduced price. The distributor's brand business model is one of copying, of imitation done to the nth degree [1]–[3]. Today, the big box shops want instant access to the same innovation for their own brand when new food, hygiene, and maintenance goods are released.

Reflets de France and Escapades Gourmand's are the two brands most often used as examples to demonstrate the ability of distributor brands to innovate. We are aware that this revolutionary idea entails revitalizing the manufacturing of 100 regional recipes, having them manufactured by SMEs in these areas, and combining them under a single brand, offered in all of the Carrefour Group's shops. Reflets de France is a real brand in this regard because to its creative idea, target market, price positioning maintained across the board, distinctive

visual identity, high level of taste quality, and imaginary quality. For instance, Gap, which was the exclusive retailer of Levi's, started selling its own store brands before gradually ceasing to sell anything else. However, it became important to precisely define a brand idea, with the shop emerging as the venue for the expression and experience of the brand. The idea was described as anti-fashion by Gap. Decathlon follows suit. It is indicative that Decathlon gave up its store brand and organized everything under a portfolio of private labels it referred to as "passion" brands in order to emphasize its identity as a designer/manufacturer with its own shops. Below, we give an intriguing instance of a distributor who later became a designer [4]–[6].

Consumer relationships with distributors' brands

Let's now consider the issue from the perspective of the customers themselves. Consumers in developed nations see distributors' brands as authentic because they consistently pair appealing pricing with aspects of brand recognition and image. Customers often respond with Asda or Decathlon when given the traditional awareness question. The ratings are exactly as high when asked whether they plan to purchase them or buy them again. It is no coincidence that brands from distributors and items with the lowest prices have a disproportionately large market share on most shelves for mass consumption. Some distributor brands might eventually produce the "typicabrand effect," as shown by Forbes, which considers the United Kingdom, a pioneer in this industry for many years. The Brandz research claims that a consumer's closeness to a brand progresses from a sense of presence to a sense of relevance to a sense of performance and a glaring advantage, and ultimately to a true emotional connection. It's noteworthy that Marks & Spencer and Boots, two distributor companies, made it onto Brandz's list of the top 10 English brands.

Of course, we may assert that there is a halo effect—an emotive transfer—from the shop to its goods. Boots and Marks & Spencer are well-known, historic retailers in the United Kingdom that have earned their customers' confidence and respect through the years. However, the distributor's brand is specifically relying on this halo effect as a lever. New and unheard-of insight into the subject is provided by research conducted by one of our HEC doctoral students on the sources of engagement with the brand depending on whether it is a producer's or a distributor's brand. In order to evaluate consumer interaction with the Carrefour brand with that of the major brand in the same category, C Terrasse worked on four product categories. More than only repeat business is involved in brand engagement. Panedata has long shown that items from distributors have recurring purchase rates that are at least as high as those of well-known brands. The same is true for engagement; both DOBs and nationabrands have high claimed levels of involvement. Engagement, also known as persona involvement, evaluates a strong connection with the brand, which means that if the brand were absent, the customer would choose to wait rather than purchase a substitute. There is no substitutability for the consumer. The opposite is indifference, or sensitivity to even a little price increase. There are two sources for this interaction. The first is attachment, which is here defined as a strong sense of closeness, and the second is contentment, which is defined as a sense of difference in product performance.

However, there is an intriguing distinction between how a distributor's brand functions and how a manufacturer's brand functions. The happiness brought about by a distributor's brand raises the credibility of all the distributors' brands, at least in terms of attitude, as C. Levy's study on the influence of distributors' brand trials on attitudes indicated. Customers are more likely to purchase Tesco chocolate biscuits if they try Carrefour chocolate cookies, which are in direct competition with Pepito, the market leader. Because they do not seem to provide discriminating or even overwhelming reasons for visiting one shop over another, distributors'

brands have a difficult time fostering loyalty to the retailer, as is often found in research. In addition, they do not rank as the primary criteria among persons who live on the edge of the two "regular customer" zones when the reasons for purchases are examined. Therefore, the distributor's brand has a less impact on how it sets itself out from the competitors than the manufacturer's brand, which exclusively benefits the manufacturer. These outcomes have once again been found in relatively recent studies [7]–[9]. This does not imply that all distributors' brands are seen equally, however, since the reputation of the shop is reflected first and foremost in the brand of the distributor on anything bearing its name.

Early distributor brands in the mass market are nearly invariably the result of a disagreement between the distributor and the maker. In order to fill a vacuum left by the distributor's dissatisfaction with the subpar treatment it gets, the distributor has its products manufactured elsewhere and then distributes them either under its own brand or under a private label. The atmosphere of contention still exists, especially as brands today often rely on a relatively small number of distributor customers for 60% of their sales (as is the case in Europe, for example). 16% of Procter & Gamble's global revenue comes from just one customer: Wal-Mart. In certain cases, the concentration is considerably higher: more than 10% of Nike's sales in Europe are attributed to Decathlon. Additionally, these distributors' brands are in line with their global expansion, enabling them to meet the need for high-quality goods at competitive costs in new markets.

Customers exercise choice

They pick which product categories—those in which they are least involved—will provide the most temptation to purchase distributors' brands. Keep in mind that brands exist somewhere that consumers believe there is a significant risk of buying. In contrast, if customers see minimal danger, they are drawn in by the distributor's brand, especially if they believe that distributor to be well-known and to project a high level of quality. For instance, distributors' brands currently predominate in the butter segment. The fact that low-cost or distributors' brand products account for 75% of all processed meat sold in self-service stores in France suggests that product development is a source of concern and that customers need the assurance that comes with a well-known brand name. In every situation when the customer demands higher performance, the producer's brand wins out. The same is true in cases when the product has taken on the role of a symbolic "badge": once again, the distributor's brand falls flat, unless it has evolved into a personal statement.

Consumers are making the leap now because of positive prior experiences; there are distributors' brands for PCs, 120 bicycles, hi-fis, and household goods. Customers could choose a Sony or Samsung television for their living room, but they may be more intrigued by a BlueSky in the kitchen or a child's bedroom. For home computers, the same is true. Delis assembles products and markets them under the name of its distributor. Its items are, however, "Inteinside" guaranteed. The brand of the distributor really depends more on supply than demand. There is no other method to increase return on investment when distribution is concentrated and the size of the domestic market makes it economically feasible, as we will analyze later. On the one hand, when trade concentration advances in the once independent industry, the first step is to purchase in bulk to lower buying costs. After that, a collective store name is used. The core of the store's product line must, however, consist of a collective range if there is to be a collective name. The last phase is logical since the distributor's brand, which initially only represents a small portion of the offer, can only increase. It serves as an integrating element.

Keep in mind that distribution expansion is done over time by eliminating rival channels or business models, followed by the rivals themselves. This is how small retailers completely disappeared in several categories in Europe after being displaced by supermarkets and hard discounters, which was how distributors first began to expand.

As a result of distributors turning to the international market and cost-cutting measures, such as trade marketing and effective customer response modes, this road has come to an end. The distributor uses its brand, finastage, to increase ROI. Last but not least, we must remember what the large distributors sometimes refer to as upstream marketing. Given that SMEs are responsible for creating the distributors' brands, huge retailers might portray themselves as unbiased supporters of local and regional SMEs fighting against global corporations.

Everyone is aware that mass distribution sometimes has a bad reputation. Society as a whole is paying a heavy price for the devastation of town centers and whole suburban zones caused by the crushing of small companies. The main firms in distribution and their large bulk purchases have pounced on the globe like hunting hounds in their desperation to establish themselves as the cheapest, motivated by a single idea: to constantly find it cheaper and import it as rapidly as possible. This pursuit, driven by customers who are only too glad to cut costs in the short term, has resulted in the closure of businesses, of whole industries, and of entire towns, creating thousands of jobless people. This social holiday has mainly gone forgotten. The pay in mass distribution is among the lowest in the nation. Although the shop owners are wealthy, there are few opportunities for a cashier to get a raise over a ten-year period due to the pricing war.

Mass distributors employ two levers to help themselves feel better about themselves since they are aware of the harm they are causing to society. Either they flatter national pride like Carrefour, who has successfully exported their goods over the globe, or they portray themselves as the protector of SMEs like Leclerc, who provide the vast majority of distributors' brand items. SMEs will be salvaged by mass distribution after being destroyed by global corporations. Given that this preference for SMEs results from the large industrial companies' refusal to generate DOBs, we are aware that it is only temporary. There are no SMEs where they do this. All boards of directors of the large industry groups are now asking themselves.

The distributor's brand's financial equation

The brand of the distributor is a logical step in the development of a distributor in a market that is competitive. It meets the necessity to retain ROI when all other options have been used up. Alternately, it could have been the main element of differentiation from the start. In order to comprehend why establishing the distributor's brand is a wise move at a certain point in a distributor's development, let's take another look at the ROI concept.

Other factors, such as the hard-discount circuit, also explain why distributors with distributors' brands would continue to promote them. Between 1995 and 2006, this kind of commerce, which is based on a low-cost business model, expanded significantly. It offers prices that are 30% less than those of wholesalers' brands, near to home, with a new store popping up every day in the town or shopping center. Due to the lower-priced items that the larger retailers have learned to put into their aisles in large quantities in order to keep customers in the store, it seems that the turnover per square meter of this mode of distribution is presently declining, or has at least stabilized since 2006. Their unitary margin has since decreased.

DISCUSSION

In France, this has been made up for by the implementation of the Galland law: only volume markdowns, not the backroom margin of large brand items, may be passed on to the customer. This prevented brand vs. brand pricing battles and even made price increases simpler. This backstage margin, which covers the cost of the distribution services, may total 40% of the asking price. The Galland law's unfavorable impacts have been minimized since 2006 because to a new circular that allows the distributor to reinject the backdoor margin it earned to lower rent rates. These margins must now be protected by the DOB since shops are no longer able to do so. The distributor's brand, a refuge of non-comparability, is the only remaining route to regaining financial health. This is why there will eventually be more DOB references available. What distributor brand is best for a store? What percentage of the sales, aisle, and shelf should it make up? The answer is primarily dependent on the store's strategy, which is in turn a function of the market's level of competition and the margin supplied by manufacturers of branded goods relative to that provided by the distributor's brand.

Take Decathlon as an example. Like many others, this business started out as a straightforward brand distributor. With more consideration given to product design and production planning over time and even the purchase of raw materials the store's purpose has become simpler to accomplish, albeit manufacturing is still outsourced. The Decathlon brand gradually gained ground in areas where other businesses were struggling. However, it is compelled to live alongside well-known brands in sports like tennis, golf, skiing, and running. Decathlon gave up its single brand in 1998 in favor of a portfolio of passion brands after realizing that a single, homogeneous brand reduced the appeal of the shop itself and, therefore, the number of customers. These brands now account for more than 50% of turnover. The shop's ultimate goal is to dominate the sports brand industry, therefore it constantly promotes its niche brands via competition in sports. Major brands are still needed by Decathlon in certain categories, but less so in others. It will have achieved its goals if its brands develop into actual brands, following the lead from Gap, which transitioned from being a basic shop to a store brand and then to a pure brand with its own stores. As inexpensive textile shops began to develop in the United States, this move was itself the result of a brand distributor's assessment of the future profitability of the textile market.

Therefore, the portion given to DOBs is the outcome of a voluntary approach rather than an optimization. However, research has examined how the rise in the DOBs' part of the offer affects frequency. The frequentation index for a small supermarket is continuously declining; it is 140 when the DOB offer is located between 8 and 18% of the whole offer and 79% when it reaches the segment between 47% and 57% of the offer. Similar circumstances apply to a big supermarket. For a small hyper-market, the frequentation index similarly decreases as the percentage of DOBs grows, but beyond 20% of DOBs, the frequentation index climbs again: it goes from 87% to 99% for a DOB offer rate of 22% to 29%. The frequentation index increases with the DOB range for huge hypermarkets! With an average DOB rate of 19%, the best frequentation is found, and for every additional percentage point of DOBs, the frequentation index decreases once more.

The distributor's brand's three phases

After a choice has been made, the brands of distributors go through three phases of company development: ablative, imitative, and identification. The first stage is referred to as reactive or offensive; historically, it is the outcome of the great industrialists' refusal to accept a sale. Many own-brand items are created in this way. It is enhanced by locating holes in the product lines of the big companies, however. The large brands don't have much to offer in these

categories since it's not in their business plan, but a category management method may identify them rapidly. These holes must be closed.

The second step is imitation. Here, the distributor looks at the brand portfolios of its rivals and sets out to copy them, creating the identical goods that its rivals generally provide. The distributor's brand core offer is built using this emulative process, built from all the references shared by all the distributors' brands. It should be noted that this is also often the period in which the distributor decides to copy, trait for trait, the packaging of the brand items it is targeting due to a lack of investment in its own distributor's brand identity. The goal of this copycat strategy is obvious: to purposefully siphon off market share from the major brands by giving one's own distributor's brand greater exposure and by raising the average price of the major brands to draw customers to the distributor's brand.

This imitational or "copycat" approach verges on trademark infringement, and it sometimes gives rise to legal actions brought by offended and aggrieved manufacturers who claim that their brand rights have been violated, unfair competition has occurred, or economic parasitism has occurred. It just takes a quick stroll through the aisles of a mass retailer to see how much the text and brand packaging resemble one other. However, conflicts that result from the designers' overzealousness are often settled peacefully. The distributor also takes solace in the fact that category codes rather than brand codes are the problem. This strategy, which dominates mass distribution, aims to create uncertainty by capitalizing on the typical shopper's attention span in the aisle. By failing to pay attention, the customer may choose the distributor's brand over the goods bearing the name brand. In Vivo has calculated that, for mass-market goods at hypermarkets, buyers spend 7 seconds on each purchase since speed is important to them. An average attention span rushed consumer might be misled by packaging that purposefully bears striking similarities. According to our investigation examining distributor companies' imitative brand packaging, the following elements had a less role in aisle unconscious recognition than others:

1. Colour.
2. packaging design.
3. Key concepts.
4. e.g., name, typography, etc.

Distributors' house brands perfectly mimic this: Calicoré's and Ricoré's packaging is both yellow. On Pepito, the market leader in children's biscuits, there is a picture of a little Mexican. The children's brand Rik & Rok from Auchan has a very similar, among other things.

The stronger the perceived similarity in trade dress, the more the consumer infers that the producer of the two products is one and the same, and the more confidence the copy inspires, as shown by our results when the private label copy/origin product pairs are placed in decreasing order of similarity.

The Decathlon situation

Few retailers reveal as much about contemporary distribution as Decathlon, and its own brands are crucial to its expansion. According to a recent study, Anglo-Saxon university research shows that European distributors offer their brands more shelf space than US distributors do. The US distributors divide up store space based on a straightforward calculation for short-term profit. It is true that distributor brands are regarded as "sub-brands"

and have a bad image in the United States. They do not let the shop to be positioned or for customers to develop loyalty by being attached to the business. The scenario is different in Europe and Canada, where distributor's brands have a combative purpose very early in their brand histories: striving not to start a price war, but to deliver the customer real value. Consider Migros, the largest chain in Switzerland, which sells Migros-only goods rather than those made by Nestlé, the largest food corporation in the world with headquarters in Switzerland. Since this is the ideal approach to get customers to try the product and so start a cycle of loyalty creation, the long-term strategic component takes priority in this situation when choices about shelf space allocation are made.

In our opinion, the main distinction between the strategies used by distributors themselves in the United States and Europe is that, while in the former, the store's brand is sold alongside major brands, in the latter, it becomes the store of the brand, with a few other brands alongside it. Decathlon has evolved into a brand designer that manages its own distribution. This sets it apart from the sports offered by Sports Unlimited or Wal-Mart. To remind us that the principles of sport prevent sacrificing anything for money, even its lowest-priced items are labeled as "best-price technical" products. Below this price point, a football ceases to be a true football in terms of quality and security. However, Decathlon won't selit in order to preserve its reputation as the company with the lowest prices.

Gap might also serve as an example of this approach, which turned the shop into a brand. The concept behind Decathlon's plan to cut its primary manufacturer brand to 10% of sales in the running is the same as Gap's. Already, all of the backpacks, sleeping bags, and tents used for camping are privately manufactured goods. Decathlon must do much more than just purchase and sell in order to be successful. It must also invent, create, set up its own manufacturing schedules, and choose its own partners. Due to this, Decathlon is now the fifth-largest manufacturer of sporting products worldwide. The combination of design, manufacturing, and distribution is its business model.

Thirty years ago, Decathlon was just a straightforward bargain shop. It solely and only sells branded goods in its stores. Today, store brands account for more than 55% of Decathlon's sales, despite the fact that, in keeping with its corporate culture, the firm never refers to store brands when discussing passion brands. Here, the term "passion" refers to a genuine knowledge of the brand in sports, not just a catchphrase. Internally, the sports brand is first developed; it is a real culture. Those that are enthusiastic about it then spread it outside. Furthermore, Decathlon is one of the few retailers that takes its own brands seriously. Decathlon demonstrates how, rather than the other way around, the organization must be able to adapt to the brand. Finally, Decathlon implements its brand strategy globally, which is more difficult given that the company has left the United States and dominates its home market of France by a considerable margin. However, Decathlon is just now making its debut in China, where its goods are made.

Giving as many people as possible access to the joy of sport is Decathlon's mission. Vitality, honesty, brotherhood, and responsibility are the guiding principles. Although it is a low-cost business, it has always prioritized product quality above maximizing profits. Customer satisfaction, not pricing, is what cultivates loyalty. It also serves as the chain's strongest line of defense against the advent of food-related discounters like Wal-Mart Sport. This strategy is effective because Decathlon is not only the first brand that French consumers think of when they think about bicycles, but it is also the one that must be considered when making the next purchase, with a consideration score double that of the brand of the first producer. MicheLeclerq launched the shop in 1976. It swiftly chose the distributor's brand choice, capitalizing on the widespread recognition of the Decathlon brand and its sway over

the market. Decathlon aims to use sport to improve as many of its customers as possible. The shop is situated on the hedonistic side of sports and creates really comfort items with a focus on safety and wellness. It is a joy diffuser.

The bulk of these success aspects, including the site quality, could not be used in the discount chain purchased, which was a key contributing reason to the loss experienced in the United States. Second, before the shops could be "Decathlonized," the US bargain retailer underwent a name change to Decathlon. Finding young individuals who are really committed to their shop and are enthusiastic and motivated is difficult in the United States, a nation with a low unemployment rate. After 23 years of continuous development, France's turnover per square metre decreased in 1999 for the first time ever. The diagnosis was straightforward: a monopolistic situation and a brand with "Soviet-like" characteristics were produced by the strategy of a single brand, Decathlon, which was extensively emphasized in all of its outlets [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the capacity of distributor brand innovation as a tactical strategy to provide value and stand out in the market. Distributors may innovate and build their own brands by taking use of their position in the supply chain, delivering distinctive goods, services, or consumer experiences. The brand innovation of the distributor creates new opportunities for expansion, profitability, and improved client connections. Successful distributor brand innovation in today's changing business climate depends on adopting a customer-centric approach, working with partners, and being aware of market trends. The elements of its success in France were similar to those of any store: the caliber of its store locations, the selection, historically low prices, remarkable computerized logistics that prevent stock breakdowns by supplying stores once or twice daily, young, helpful, and competent salespeople, and lastly, the freedom to choose, with aisles that were so thoughtfully designed that customers could go without the salesperson.

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CHAPTER 10

IMPORTANT FACTORS FOR SUCCESS OF DISTRIBUTORS' BRANDS

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ABSTRACT:

Distributors' brands have emerged as significant players in the marketplace, offering alternative products and services to consumers. This abstract explores the factors that contribute to the success of distributors' brands, shedding light on the key drivers for market penetration and customer acceptance. The research highlights that distributors' brands can achieve success by leveraging certain critical factors. Firstly, a deep understanding of customer needs and preferences is paramount. Distributors must conduct thorough market research to identify gaps, unmet demands, and emerging trends. By aligning their brand offerings with customer expectations, distributors can position themselves as relevant and appealing alternatives in the market. The pace of innovation in a sector, on the other hand, is recognized to have an impact on the penetration of distributors' brands since it necessitates the constant renewal of product lines and is linked to extensive advertising. Increasing their pace of innovation is perhaps the most natural response for producers when they are faced with distributors' brands.

KEYWORDS:

Brand Positioning, Competitive Pricing, Consumer Trust, Distribution Network, Effective Marketing, Product Quality.

INTRODUCTION

As usual, the acts of the competitors also contribute to the growth of a new brand. In Germany, for instance, distributors' brands command a significant portion of the cosmetics industry. The opposite is true in France, despite the fact that both are among the more developed nations. Leaving aside any potential differences in how the two nations see beauty, one reason may be found by looking at the competition. L'Oréal has lured other companies into a fight in France that is based on scientifically validated performance and is funded by massive advertising expenditures. Nivea is the top national brand in Germany and it places a lot more emphasis on gentleness, empathy, and personal connections than it does on rationality and a track record of success. We think this explains why distributors' brands have found it simpler to gain traction there since customers haven't seen much of a difference between them and Nivea [1]–[3].

1. The variables influencing the market share of distributor brands have been examined by Hoch and Banerji.
2. The distributor chooses extended production runs because of the potential market's size, the industry's large margin, the cheap advertising costs, the capacity to provide quality, and the price sensitivity of customers.
3. However, these authors also claim that brand expansion for distributors doesn't seem to be hindered by market fragmentation.

As has been noted, the majority of the aforementioned factors including a lack of innovation, huge margins, and little advertising are connected to management deficiencies among the manufacturers. The door is opened to the brands of distributors when the brand is viewed as a "cash cow." Additionally, a lot of brand firms are eager to produce distributors' branded goods. For instance, the Michelin Group produces the tires at Norauto; it is unimaginable that they would be low-quality goods. In this sense, the success of distributors' brands is influenced by the supply effect as well as a lack of competition from well-known companies that are too used to large profit margins and do not innovate. Be aware that surveys on distributor brand consumers show that their uptake has now touched many demographic groups. However, there is a core focus of persons with poor quality sensitivity and little financial resources. Even though they were given a biscuit that was obviously subpar, in C. Lewi's thesis at HEC, 18% of these participants chose to purchase it regardless since it was inexpensive. They were also the ones that didn't detect the flavor change the most.

The works of Garretson and Ajawadi provide an intriguing new line of inquiry: in their view, consumers who reject distributor brands are those who equate cost with value. For them, the quality is determined by the price. It should be noted that families with many adolescents still living at home are those that buy at hard discount the most often and have the largest average baskets.

The DOB marketing mix should be optimized

As a result, the idea of a distributor's brand is diverse, giving the shop a variety of options for promoting its overall offer. The capacity of each kind of distributor brand to grow its market share at the expense of the segment's top brands and to lessen their pricing differences in order to enhance profitability has been examined in research. In a mock shop, more than 500 moms were given the option of choosing between a distributor's brand of chocolate cookies or the market leader. According to four factors, this decision differed from one consumer to the next:

I The first phrase talks with packaging that is not a replica of Pepito's and a DOB that bears the business name, so putting its reputation into play. It is functioning authentically as a brand. What are the findings? The distributor product is in most demand in this area. Even if the price difference is smaller, it is also the strongest, hence the profitability is highest. It's interesting to note that demand does not grow when the price is reduced; rather, it actually declines to 28% when the price is reduced even more, perhaps due to the worry that this pricing causes in moms. The DOB is said to act most like a legitimate brand when it is most lucrative and hazardous to national brands[4]–[6].

The second line displays a store brand copy, which is the most typical representation of a distributor's brand in superstore food stores. In this case, demand only rises if the price falls. Although it meets 38% of pure demand again, it does it at a much lower price this time, thus profitability isn't as high as it was with the prior line. The third line is an example of a "counterbrand," in which the shop name is missing and an unidentified brand is used to identify the goods. Additionally, it has little choice but to slavishly replicate the packaging of the market leader in an effort to confuse consumers and persuade them to believe that the items are identical because of how similar the packaging is. With the best purpose to acquire scores for the distributor product at the intermediate price level, demand follows an inverted U-shaped curve. The fourth line's retailer is not identified, although the packaging is distinct from that of the leader. In this instance, the distributor's brand resembles a lesser-known, unheard-of brand, and the customer lacks a framework for judging it. Therefore, it is not unexpected that price is the only driving force since demand increases as the price decreases. The items at the

lowest prices are often those designed to compete with those sold on the hard-discount circuit. What conclusions can we make from this study? The distributor's brand benefits when it acts like a real major brand, but it must have the resources to do so. Not everyone can be Tesco or Decathlon.

The real-brand issue for distributors

The distributor's brand is unique compared to the others, as was already said. It must convey the ideals of the shop, position itself in relation to the major brands, and eventually provide a "plus" when contrasted to inexpensive goods. Therefore, it is more akin to a quality-price relationship. It is possible to extend its shelf space and have a large number of products emerge in order to boost financial results, which may give the appearance of a Soviet-style shop. However, it is preferable to raise the client's desire for it.

Keep in mind that a strong brand is created via the intangible; it is manifested in the real world and serves as the foundation for long-lasting relationships and a shared set of values among its customers. During this process, the store's first objective should be to define its goal and vision: what aspects of its consumers' lives does it want to change? While it will be vital to compete on pricing, choice, and service, it will also be necessary to have an internal energy, which may be discovered via the vision and conflict that the business chooses to take on as its own. What conflict faces the majority of stores? When an organization lacks a critical mass, it is vital to make up for it with goodwill and, therefore, with the strength of the brand.

Once this has been established, it must be put into practice on a 360-degree basis, not only with items bearing the distributor's name. What service improvements, for instance, will be implemented in shops and elsewhere? These are the ones that spread the word, make clients become brand ambassadors, and advance the company's viewpoint.

Distributors must innovate more quickly and receptively than multinational corporations because of their size and inertia, which prevents them from innovating until they are certain that the idea will be successful since it can be used globally. Obviously, they cannot keep up with technological advancement. Customers, however, do not anticipate this from them; on the contrary, it is their responsibility to make customers' life more enjoyable, if not bearable. This is accomplished by acknowledging the fragmented nature of the client segments and the need of the distribution brand's adaptation to this variability. Second, the distributors must be trend-setters; it is their responsibility to set the standard for environmental responsibility, organic food production, fair trading, and other issues. These are fundamental movements that threaten the current order. Distributors face significantly lower risk since their brands should be divided into various sectors. Client by client is how a tight emotional bond is developed[7]–[9].

DISCUSSION

The brand shop must expand its services to include personalities. Keep in mind the wise words of Howard Schultze, the man who founded Starbucks. When asked how Starbucks, which will soon have more locations worldwide than McDonald's, has been so successful, he responded, "We are not in the business of coffee serving people, but of people serving coffee." Starbucks does not sell coffee to customers; rather, it is at their service and provides them with high-quality coffee that is served in recyclable cups and made with fair-trade coffee beans in a calm, peaceful environment by staff who are genuinely happy in their jobs. Starbucks didn't need to promote since its consumers took care of it, which is an understandable situation. It's time to stop referring to "distributors"; instead, the goal should

be to provide clients with "life centers," engaging and energizing locations where they can also go shopping. As the saying goes, "The tai does not wag the dog." The challenge is making the shop a brand in and of itself. Among distributors, the brand manager is now responsible for ensuring the consistency of all the brand project's operations rather than just managing DOBs. This assumes the existence of a brand initiative with a vision, goal, deeply held corporate values, and execution outside of the physical shop and its own private label items.

Competing with the brands of distributors

People usually ask us how to compete with distributors' brands, which are the top rivals of the major brands, as seen by their market share. Procter & Gamble Europe has long assumed that Unilever, Henke, and Colgate are its rivals. These long-time allies share the same business strategy, cultural references, and even HEC MBAs. The customer has a distinct perspective. Additionally, it has been seen that too many price-based promotions heightened customer awareness of prices and encouraged them to test distributor brands before moving on to less expensive options. There are several degrees of reaction to the aforementioned query, some tactical and others entail a redesign of the business model rather than the brand. Brands fall prey to unfair competition from distributor brand items in industrialized nations, which take the shape of imitations of their distinguishing emblems. The design and packaging firms hired for the purpose are aware that this copying is not random. According to excellent brand principles, the nation brand product is utilized as a brief, not for what to avoid, but rather for what the rival should most resemble. When rivals precisely mimic the qualities of the targeted brand product as well as its distinguishing features, even with a few minor variations, they boost the likelihood that their "me-too" product will succeed. The imitation must be likely to confuse a customer with ordinary attention in order to be deemed an unfair threat.

Imitations may originate from the product's own distributors or from rival companies, and the appropriate reaction will depend on the circumstances. In reality, the majority of large businesses would be hesitant to take legal action against their distributor if they felt that one of the distributor's branded items, when paired with one of their own branded products, was copying it too closely and amounted to an unfair business practice. It is true that the second stage of a distributor's brand policy implementation often entails copying the targeted market leader reference by reference and shelf by shelf. Even within a same organization, distributors' brands could plagiarize one another. Since Decathlon and Auchan are both part of the same company, bicycles offered at Auchan superstores share a striking similarity. Actual legal actions taken against the distributor are much more uncommon. Large corporations, many of whose goods are supplied by the distributor, are wary of Pyrrhic victories and would rather compile a dossier in an effort to avoid legal action and settle disagreements peacefully. The dossier contains material that might be used as legal evidence if necessary since it is really feasible to develop a scientific strategy to demonstrate plagiarism. There are 2 techniques.

The first focuses on the legal definition: an imitation is illegal if it may lead a consumer with average attention span to get confused. Without explicitly asking consumers whether they would be puzzled by the imitation, there are two approaches that may show such a risk of misunderstanding. The first is the employment of a tachistoscope, which 'flashes' an image of the text at customers at first quickly and then more slowly. The number of times the copy is mistaken for the original is then counted after they have just been asked to describe or identify what they have seen. The second way is beginning with a computer-degraded picture of the duplicate and gradually building it up using software. What consumers believe they can see on a computer screen. These two techniques either restrict the amount of time that

customers are exposed to the product before gradually lengthening it or start with low-quality images and gradually increase the resolution to build a convincing replica of consumers with average attention spans. We have discovered confusion scores of 40% using the first strategy. The second strategy disregards the notion of confusion. Judges do not really employ the idea of perplexity, while giving it lip service in their decisions. Instead, they focus on a lot of obvious similarities. They are more interested in similarities than differences. By asking one group of customers to describe the original and another group of consumers to describe the replica, it is possible to demonstrate objectively that the two are too similar. For each of the two goods, an analysis is done of the features that were cited first, second, third, and so on, as well as the degree of agreement between the aspects that each group named first.

Once it has been determined that the pre-judice really exists, contact with the distributor has to be made at a senior management level in order to emphasize the gravity of the situation. Additionally, this is the level at which consideration of long-term interests is most appreciated. The distributor needs major brands to provide its shelves a vibrant appearance, as well as the value advances the brands bring to the category and the profits they provide. To reach the client, the manufacturer requires the distributor. The producer-distributor relationship is more hostile at lower management levels. The result of such engagement is the alteration of the disputed distributor product's trade dress or packaging.

Generally speaking, brand management has to prepare for these occurrences and put the brand in a good position to defend itself. As a result, a brand's color must also be internally defended for it to be defensible. For instance, the brand's product lines are often split; as a result, each sector is designated by a distinct color. By doing this, it becomes harder to assert that a certain color defines the brand. Because distributors usually start by making red packaging for their own colas, red is no longer the color of the Coca-Cola brand if a Coke and a Diet Coke come in silver and red, respectively.

In general, the brand must adapt by being innovative and making frequent changes to its packaging and distinctive elements. However, it is important to constantly keep in mind that the purpose of these changes is to provide the customer with additional value. A side consequence of this everlasting movement is the difficulties it causes for copies. In order to effectively protect them and make them recognizable to customers with ordinary attention spans, the brand must accentuate and radicalize the indicators of its own individuality on the design front. 'Original Irish Cream' and 'Bailey's the original' are printed twice on the front label of the often replicated Bailey's, which is noteworthy.

Reiterating the Dangers

Discount items, DOBs, and Asian imports are initially introduced into the categories with little perceived risk. Reminding individuals of the dangers and encouraging renewed interest in the subject are common initial responses. One book, for instance, became the buzz of France in 2005 despite its intimidating cover featuring two dietitians and its size. It was covered extensively in the news and on television. The reality is that this book made clear a fact that large distribution would much like to keep quiet: the healthiest goods are not the cheapest. By pushing through uncomfortable concessions, where client health and pleasure scarcely factor in, the price is drastically reduced. The cost is all that counts. We discovered here that inexpensive gingerbread doesn't include honey and other things.

In 2006, Bic conducted a similar campaign among tobaccoists. The company is recognized as the market leader in disposable products including razors, ballpoint pens, and lighters. Every product is marketed under the same name, Bic, according to its one umbrella brand policy. In essence, it is a business that depends on its sales team. The disposable lighters

industry in Europe thrived on its reputation and made minimal promotional expenditures, helped by its market dominance. This careful spending had one disadvantage, though: for years, there had been no way to explain to buyers why they should choose a Bic lighter. At fact, up until that point, Bic was the only product available at cigarette shops and gas stations. In 2004, Chinese goods with the PROF brand entered the market. Retailers purchased these goods for 50% less than Bic and offered them for the same price as a Bic lighter. Retailers were making more money because they were selling just PROF, and Chinese goods were more enjoyable since their decorations changed three times a year. Consumers did not voice any complaints; instead, they were pleased to see more entertaining things on the shelf.

Replicating the perceived danger was decided upon. Chinese lighters are really harmful; for instance, if they are left on a car's back shelf, they may explode. Bic lighters, which are outstanding quality items, don't experience this. The issue is that perception governs reality in marketing. Although Bic had undoubtedly saved money by keeping the benefits of the product a secret, doing so had undermined the brand and made it easier for Chinese imports to gain popularity within the trade, which was ignorant of the Bic lighter's far better level of safety and the risk posed by Chinese lighters. To spread the message and remind its distributors of their legal obligations in the event that a Chinese lighter they supplied caused physical injury to a customer, Bic published a magazine for them. At the same time, it made steps to tighten the standards for products approved for sale in Europe.

Reduced costs

Producers are aware that their brand no longer supports the price differential that it provides on the shelf as a result of a decline in their market share. It is alluring to lower the cost in an effort to reestablish the price-perceived value ratio that has been lost. Although sensible, this strategy has several downsides. Nothing is simpler than reducing prices. What will they do if an Asian rival offers prices even lower? Reduce them once again, using which budget's funds? Shouldn't the focus be on raising quality and pricing to recreate value? Additionally, in many shops, customers do not even glance at the large names since, to them, the price is too high by definition. They wouldn't even be aware of the price reduction. The predicted impact on sales wouldn't materialize. Without the advantages of greater quantities, the price and thus the margins would be reduced.

According to an intriguing research, because the market is fragmented, luxury companies shouldn't be concerned with DOBs. Statistic study, on the other hand, revealed that following the implementation of DOBs, their sales were less price-dependent and their turnover grew. On the other side, the intermediate brands saw a decline in sales and a rise in price sensitivity. At this point, several conclusions start to emerge. First off, the days of gradual price hikes after the introduction of new goods are gone. After putting pricing at the center of the invention, a value analysis is important.

Big non-premium companies need to be careful to build a ladder that will allow them to grow penetration via a product at an affordable price, and then practice trading up, once the customer is aware of the brand's goods' quality. It must be acknowledged that the challenge is how distributors will respond to these tiny or economy-priced items, which directly compete with their DOBs, whose strategic importance to their margins has previously been established. Because Procter & Gamble had acquired all of Colgate Palmolive's washing powders, it chose to employ Gama as a "fighting brand." Gama's pricing was cut by 25% in the second quarter of 2006, from \$6.65 to \$4.95 for a 27-measure tub. Gama established itself as a "everyday low price" brand by charging less than some DOBs. The goal was to get hard-discount shoppers back into the superstores since research indicated that they were

drawn to the cheapest washing powders in particular. In only four months, sales climbed by 54%, boosting market share from 3% to 5.4%. In order to compete with the goods of the extreme discounter Aldi, always reduced its pricing in Germany, going from an index of 240 to 197, with Aldi's index at 100. However, the impact of price reductions on leading brands cannot be assured. Aldi's market share was constant at around 45%. Market share for Always changed from just 24.7% compared to 21.7%. It wasn't successful. However, Pampers had success with the same strategy: by shifting from index 131 to 116, the market share increased from 31.1 to 42.2 percent, while Aldi's product fell from 53.9 to 45.9 percent. The far lower price differential for Pampers than for Always is an important distinction between these two scenarios. Does it make sense for luxury companies to reduce their prices?

The low-cost revolution must be faced

It would be difficult to undervalue the development of lowest and hardest discounts as a fundamental feature in developed societies. Hard discount is more than simply a price; it is a business strategy that provides a condensed selection or a trimmed-down service at an incomparable cost. Additionally, it forecasts a change in consumer mindset and a crisis of added value. It calls into question brands and marketing as a whole. Because of this, no organization should believe that it is immune to this phenomena.

Hard discount has been successful in securing close to 12% of the market share over the course of 15 years, even in the nation that pioneered the hypermarket and where this kind of trade is now dominating. Given that the price difference between top brands and discounters in the food industry ranges between 30% and 50%, it is clear that this corresponds to a volume share of between 18% and 24%. Of fact, these s may be significantly higher depending on the category. For instance, the hard discounters have a market share of about 16.5 percent of the pre-packaged cold meats industry. There is more to a hard discount than simply the cost. It's a novel method of doing commerce, with unique shops in either German or French. The most recent European surveys show that 62% of households now frequent hard-discount food stores. The situation will eventually come to an end, however, as the market is segmented: for food goods, a threshold of 20% in value market share should be anticipated. The main retailers have developed distinct hard-discount-style retail brands specifically for the DIY market. The dynamic is also seen in the textile industry as well: whereas traditional discount shops were previously well-known, new hard-discount merchants are now appearing.

These data demonstrate that hard discount cannot be reduced to a phenomena that just affects low-income populations. It reflects the desire of customers who could afford to shop elsewhere to un-complicate, un-complicate, and regain control. It exerts significant pressure on companies with little added value, on ordinary brands, and on brands with weak enough dream values. For those who are not constrained by a lack of resources, hard discount recommends returning to a certain level of simplicity. Hard discount is the pursuit of life purification, pollution removal, and freedom from externally imposed limitations brands, since this expanding type of distribution favors the discounters' own items above their own lines of goods. The difficulty caused by the amount of space already reserved for distributors' brands in the hypermarkets and supermarkets is made worse for the main brands by this additional deterioration of their accessibility on shop shelves. Indeed, this increasingly low-priced rivalry, which draws customers to other stores, is putting even retailers' brands in danger. Because of this, they have been reinforced, making them even more of a threat to the well-known brands. In fact, compared to nation a brand, the distributor's brand is currently often 35% less expensive in 2007. However, as its quality rises, so does its competitiveness.

The hard-discount craze is likely to catch on. Everyone looked for a solution to make more wiser purchase judgments in regards to a percentage of their consumption in order to ultimately improve their purchasing power painlessly. This will have an impact on telephone and internet communications, transportation, gasoline, clothes, and other sectors. No business is immune to this phenomenon since customers have evolved into extremely adap, situational, and pragmatic buyers. They are perfectly capable of doing their shopping at Harrods and a hard-discount retailer on the same day. Thus, competition in the modern era is more expansive; it is no longer limited to peers, identic brands, or other comparable venues. It is open and inclusive, much like the contemporary customer. Consumers will undoubtedly find themselves re-evaluating companies and their added value as they explore with new platforms[10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the main elements that support the brands of distributors. Distributors can increase market penetration and win over customers by comprehending their needs, providing high-quality products, articulating a compelling value proposition, building a solid brand reputation, putting effective marketing strategies into practice, and optimizing distribution networks. By embracing these elements, distributors' brands may stand out in the market, compete successfully with recognized names, and develop enduring bonds with happy consumers. Hard discount is both a requirement and an opportunity for those who are better situated in society. It provides a different way of life by allowing customers to do their daily shopping within ten minutes of their house, relieving them from the annoyances of having too many options. Hard discount is a return to reality rather than asceticism.

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CHAPTER 11

EXPLORING THE BRAND DIVERSITY: AN ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT:

Brand diversity is a concept that encompasses the variety of brand types present in the marketplace. This abstract explores the different types of brands and their strategic implications, shedding light on the importance of understanding brand diversity in today's competitive business landscape. The research highlights that brands can take on various forms and serve different purposes. Firstly, there are product brands, which are associated with specific tangible goods or services. Product brands focus on delivering functional benefits and meeting customer needs in a particular product category. These brands often differentiate themselves based on quality, features, price, or performance, aiming to create customer loyalty and gain market share. Sector managers themselves are asking these questions about how to tailor brand principles to particular industries because they are aware of how brand logic, its use cases, and brand activation strategies will vary depending on the markets they are targeting. This is devoted to these variations.

KEYWORDS:

Corporate Brand, Family Brand, Global Brand, Licensed Brand, Local Brand.

INTRODUCTION

What happens to these brand values in certain markets? Given the differences between industries as diverse as industry, business-to-business, and prescription drugs on the one side and the world of service and luxury on the other, the subject is one that merits consideration. Are the same mechanisms used to regulate online brands? What should we make of the brand's rise in industries like fresh fruit, which was hitherto the purview of generic goods or a diversity deriving from regional preferences and nature? Finally, we should look at these recent additions to the brand domain: nations, cities, educational institutions, as well as television programs and sports. Interest in premium brands has increased recently. They are, in fact, the total opposite of low cost since the corporation is allowed to set its pricing as high it wants. What does a bottle of RoyalaSalute set you back at a Shanghai nightclub? The solution is S 1,000. Financiagroups were created to relaunch luxury brands since, because to the ability of its creator, B. Arnault, who paid a modest price for a fading star named Dior, the world's leading luxury goods company, LVMH, was founded. Then he acquired Vuitton, which is now the most financially valuable luxury brand in the world[1]–[3].

What, however, is luxury? How does it differ from high-end products like Nespresso coffee, Callaway golf clubs, Victoria's Secret undergarments, and Belvedere bourbon? These brands are typical examples of people trading up as they go up the spectrum. Although some companies do have a little amount of luxury, luxury is found elsewhere. Let's go back to its origins. The term "luxury" comes from the Latin luxatio, which means "distance" or "a great distance." Between premium and luxury, there is a distinction. To go back to the definition of luxury, buyers want to stand apart. King Louis XIV of France was the first luxury manager. The power of money has now taken the place of the aristocracy. Recent riches give more than limitless buying power everywhere in China, Russia, the United States, and Dubai; they grant

power, plain and simple. Giving those in positions of power the perks that go along with it is the essence of luxury. For in our democratic democracies, the power must be turned off. Once upon a time, a noble's name alone signaled the impassable barrier separating him or her from the common person. The border still exists today, and it has to be recognized.

Victoria's Secret or Belvedere vodka are not gifting that Russian oligarchs, Chinese billionaires, or Wall Street's golden boys give to their spouses. They desire Dom Perignon's replacement, Krug's le Clos du Mesnil, Elit by Stolichnaya, Dior, la Perla, or Elit by Stolichnaya. Power and luxury both strive for the ultimate. In order to take advantage of the foundational process R. Girard described: desire born of following a model, the luxury business mode seeks to surpass this niche. For people who want to sometimes add a little luxury to their life and spice up the monotony of the daily grind, luxury firms are skilled at developing more approachable product lines. These are the 'day trippers' of luxury. This gave rise to the luxury industry. Luxury may differ as much between the East and the West. Even though everyone can see where it is, it is always moving. Luxury may vary. A humble person's idea of luxury is a once-a-year meal at a nice restaurant. You are using your anabaeas to purchase a Ferrari for one of the City's rich boys. Playing tennis with the best in the world or purchasing a Picasso are the two options available to Bailgate's.

Our study has looked more deeply into how people perceive luxury. When asked about how they define luxury, respondents had a wide range of answers. Four notions of luxury, each with a most recognizable brand, are revealed via analysis of the characteristics that, in their eyes, characterize luxury. According to this international sample of wealthy young executives with considerable financial resources, the first category of luxury is the one that is most similar to the general hierarchy that emerged from our research. It more than any other form of product pays prominence to the object's beauty, perfection, and originality. Rolls-Royce is the company that most exemplifies this kind of luxury, although Cartier and Hermès also exhibit similar traits. The second definition of luxury in the globe values originality and sensuality in goods. Gucci, Boss, and J.P. Gaultier among its high-end "prototypes." The third conception of luxury places a higher weight on reputation abroad and timelessness than on any other characteristics. Porsche, with its unchangeable design, Vuitton, and Dunhill serve as its icons. The fourth kind, and last, appreciates the perception of exclusivity associated with brand ownership and consumption. They see Chivas as the model for the brand that the chosen few will buy.

Mercedes falls within this group as well, which may seem odd considering the brand's recent growth more than 1,300,000 Mercedes automobiles are currently sold annually around the globe. Our survey, however, was conducted in 1998, a time when Mercedes manufactured barely 700,000 vehicles annually and its dynamism and product attractiveness were questioned. This is what sparked the revolution that is well known. The fact that it serves as a symbol for this fourth category of luxury attests to the brand's issues. A few years ago, its sole potential market was among people seeking luxury not a sensory experience, but rather status—the symbol of membership in a wealthy class and a desire to flaunt it. However, it should be noted that the Mercedes S Class, which is very costly and laden with prestige, is the most popular in China, India, Brazil, and Russia. These vehicles are effectively unreachable.

DISCUSSION

Two different approaches to luxury brand building

There are various ways to get there, but there is only one success—the commercial one. Examining "new luxury" companies like Ralph Lauren, Calvin Klein, and DKNY shows that

success in the luxury industry may happen quickly even without having a lengthy lineage like Christian Dior or Chanel Givenchy. Although these more recent companies have not yet shown their capacity to endure and flourish beyond the passing of their creators, their commercial success is proof of their appeal to consumers all around the globe. There are two distinct business models for brands that we must separate. The first category is for companies that have a "history" behind them, while the second one is for brands that, in the absence of a personal past, have created a "story" about themselves. It is not surprising that these businesses are situated in the US since this young, modern nation has a long history of mastering the craft of creating dreams from fiction. Hollywood and Disneyland were both developed in the United States, after all.

Furthermore, European luxury brands place a lot of emphasis on the actual product as a factor in their success because they are rooted in a craftsman-based tradition based on rare, unique pieces of work, whereas US brands focus much more on merchandising and the atmosphere and image created by the outlets dedicated to their brand in terms of customer contact and distribution. The division between "history" and the final result on the one hand, and "stories" and distribution on the other, is what we perceive. Let's look more closely at and contrast these two brands' and businesses' business models. The luxury pyramid could serve as a representation of the first brand and business model. The griffe, which is the artist's signature inscribed on a one-of-a-kind creation, is located at the summit of the pyramid. This explains why it is afraid of duplicates the most. On the other side, brands often have a phobia of fakes or counterfeits. A "manufacture" in its etymological meaning, which is regarded as the only warranty of a "good-facture," is the second level, which is that of luxury brands created in small batches inside a workshop. Hermes, Rolls-Royce, and Cartier are a few examples. The third level is one of efficient mass manufacturing, and here is where we find YSL Diffusion clothing, Dior cosmetics, and Yves Saint Laurent cosmetics. At this stage of industrialization, brand recognition creates an atmosphere of intangible additional qualities for pricy, high-quality items, yet these products progressively start to resemble the rest of the market. Its name so connotes widespread prestige.

The interconnections between the three levels serve as the foundation for luxury management in this paradigm. The continuation of griffes rests on their incorporation into financial groups that can provide the first level's resources and on their licensing to industrial groups that can develop, market, and distribute goods globally at the third level. Profit is generated at this level and is the only way to ensure that the substantial investments in the griffe are profi. To revive the dream centered on the brand, these investments are required. Dreams are sated by reality; the more we purchase a premium brand, the less we daydream about it. As a result, rather paradoxically, the more a premium brand is bought, the more its aura has to be replicated forever.

Luxury based on stories and history

Two brand building patterns are evident from an analysis of luxury brand tactics. The first is built on excessive emphasis on product quality, a cult of product and legacy, and history with a capital H, of which the brand is the contemporary manifestation. The second is of American provenance and, in the absence of a similar history of its own, is not hesitant to make one up. Ralph Lifshitz changed his name to Ralph Lauren and adopted the characteristics and persona of the Great Gatsby, a member of the ultra-chic Bostonian high society. These newer businesses also understood the significance of the shop in establishing a setting, providing an authentic impression, and making the brand's principles apparent there. Disney and Hollywood, two creators of the fantastical, were created in America.

The psychology of forging documents

The rate of counterfeiting is rising. Due to the profits, it delivers at the edge of intellectual property and trademark protection rules, it has grown into a global enterprise involving organized organizations and falling under Mafia activities. Additionally, it has discovered a new distribution channel through the internet and its online markets, including e-Bay. However, there must be consumers if there is a market.

The phenomena are related to occulture in Asia. Everyone is aware of how widespread counterfeiting is in China. No trademarks are protected. Chinese society traditionally rewards those who share and demonizes those who keep things to themselves. In traditional Chinese education and pedagogy, faithfully copying the master's work is appreciated. Furthermore, even the concept of property did not exist in the monopolistic economy that dominated Chinese thought for 50 years, and it was typical to find many Chinese enterprises with the same name. Let's not forget to mention that local customers may only access the fakes. Everyone wants to signal to their neighbors in these countries that they have finally arrived. The Western brands are well-known, but few people genuinely recognize them, so they do not realize they are purchasing a fake. This assertion has been supported by research: local customers who choose a knockoff or a replica do so because they are unfamiliar with the original[4]–[6]. Western customers toy with imitations and counterfeits and are completely aware of which is the real deal. Five motives are revealed by our qualitative investigation into this phenomenon: the impression of obtaining a deal since everyone is aware that Nike and high-end goods are produced in factories in the underdeveloped globe.

When both the original and the imitation are made in China, as is the case for several Vuitton items, these purchasers contest the quality difference. These are consumers who are quite discriminating. They only purchase Vuitton bags that are "identical" to the original, praising the quality of the replica. This quality, together with the affordable price, allows them to carry the replica every day in front of friends who won't be able to tell the difference. A very nice replica Bulgari watch that closely resembles the real one the buyer currently possesses will be given to one of her children without hesitation for their 15th birthday. Interestingly, buyers sometimes own a genuine original themselves. This makes them experts and elevates the replica selected for its near resemblance. They are knowledgeable about the subject. The concept of adding color to functional items: imitation Ralph Lauren polo shirts, even if they are close duplicates, are sui for home tasks like gardening or vehicle washing. Since they cannot or will not pay the greater price for the real, some customers voluntarily purchase the counterfeit. Since they are not really devoted to the brand, they believe it is unnecessary or excessive to spend \$60 on a Ralph Lauren polo shirt.

Some people who buy fakes do so for 'moral' reasons as well. They are outraged by the expense of the original and claim that because it was made in a south-east Asian factory, the cost price must be very low. For these customers, it is ethically accept to steal from this company in return since it is engaging in open theft, as shown by a comparison of its sales price to its cost price. Instead of taking home a cheap Thai souvenir that will just wind up in a drawer, they offer their friends an authentic gift: a beautiful copy that is almost distinguishable from the genuine kind. This gift usually shocks the receiver and starts discussions about whether the imitation is excellent or low quality. Finally, it will definitely be put to use. This kind of present, nevertheless, is growing riskier since it is seen as receiving stolen items by European customs when it is brought home by a traveler.

The battle against fake goods

Without having to show that the customer is confused, counterfeiting is the exact, trait-for-trait replica of the brand and its distinctive features. It is important to report and punish offenders. However, in certain nations where it is more than tolerated, if not accepted, longer-term action is required—collective action at the Justice or Foreign Ministries' levels. Relationships between states are involved—initiatives at the World Trade Organization level, for instance, to collectively raise awareness of the need to create local eco-systems. Promotion of the original brand in the relevant nation. The 'real brand' must be made known to the public in order for them to recognize it from imitations.

In the countries of origin of visitors, counterfeiting is advertised. Western customers need to be informed that counterfeiting is associated with Mafia organizations and the laundering of drug money in their own countries. Additionally, it is legally binding: bringing a fake house renders one complicit, making it a felony that is subject to legal sanctions. This battle is always evolving, requiring subtlety and a highly developed strategic awareness. *Lacoste v. Crocodile Garments* is a prime example. At a press announcement in Hong Kong in November 2003, Crocodile Garments said that it had reached a deal with the Lacoste shirt company. In fact, the Crocodile Garments company registered a crocodile symbol in Hong Kong in the 1970s—a precise imitation of the Lacoste crocodile, but facing left instead of right—and has since been profiting from this brand and the "Crocodile" retail chain in Hong Kong, Singapore, and now China. Lacoste brought the case before the appropriate courts in Singapore and China with the law on its side. Even if the rulings were consistently in favor, they went unheeded in practice.

Hundreds of other counterfeits also appeared in China at this period, like Cartelo International, which has over 600 shops. Lacoste and Crocodile Garments reached a rational and practical compromise. The latter business understood that China would ultimately take harsh action against the counterfeiters as a result of mounting pressure from all sides to abide by the WTO regulations. In order to prevent legal action against it, the written deal stipulated that Crocodile Garments would also take over as Lacoste's licensee in Hong Kong. Lacoste demanded in return that the knockoff crocodile adopt a more rounded form, be enclosed in a circle, and stop being green like the fabled original crocodile from 1933. The two businesses created a united front against a hundred other local counterfeiters by signing this arrangement.

Service Companies

There is no distinction between the brands of goods, services, or businesses. These are not legal differences; they are economic ones. The law does not really assist us in understanding either how brands and the branding process function or what the distinctive features among the many actors are by concentrating just on branding per se, i.e., on signs exclusively. There are service brands, such as BT, Club Med, Marriott's, Hertz, Ecco, Manpower, Visa, and HEC. Each one, whether it is vehicle rentals, temporary employment, computer services, leisure activities, hospitality businesses, or higher education, reflects a particular group of characteristics that are reflected in a very definite, if intangible, form of service. However, the brand era seems to be only beginning in several service areas.

Either they do not yet see themselves as a part of it or they have just recently begun to realize it. It's intriguing to see this progression since it shows what the brand strategy entails and emphasizes the unique challenges of branding an intangible business. The banking sector is a good illustration. Customers of banks would likely be unable to respond if asked which bank brands they were familiar with. They are familiar with bank names, but not bank brands. This

is significant: for the general public, these names are corporate names or company signs associated with a particular location rather than trademarks denoting a particular service. Prior to recently, bank names either denoted the corporation's owner, a particular location, or a certain client group that was entrusted with the customers' assets. Name contraction is sometimes an indication that a brand idea is taking shape. As an example, Banque National de Paris has changed to BNP.

According to some observers, this is only an attempt to make the name simpler to recall, in keeping with the advertising axiom that short signatures make it easier to identify the signer. These acronyms have undoubtedly had an influence, but they seem to reduce branding as a whole to a simple writing and printing process that only exists within the context of communication. These bank names start to signify some form of contract as opposed to just a person or location as they get more and more contractual. This contract may appear as certain "bank products" in order to be seen. But the reason they have chosen to create a legitimate brand is neither explained or justified by these obvious and simple-to-copy items. They are only an external embodiment of the brand. The ties that form between a client and a banker under the aegis of the brand are the key to what distinguishes banks from insurance firms.

The fact that services are invisible sets them apart from product brands as our last point. What other evidence does a bank have besides clients or consultants? Service brands have a structural disadvantage in that they are difficult to depict. Service brands utilize slogans for this reason. It makes sense since slogans are loud; they serve as the brand's profession or calling. Slogans are required for both internal and external communications.

The brand establishes its behavior norms via a slogan, and if these criteria are broken, the client has the right to be unsatisfied. Claiming to be the bank who cares or the bank with a smile is insufficient. The individuals who provide and execute the service must thoroughly internalize these qualities. The inherent and unavoidable variability of people is a difficulty for the brand strategy in service businesses. For the whole organization to "live the brand," brand alignment has become crucial. The process through which organizations begin to see themselves as brands is known as brand alignment.

When it comes to the service industry, consumer interactions with the company's employees, sales representatives, and other personnel at points of contact completely determine the brand experience. The same is true for Starbucks as it is for HSBC or Citibank. Crucial is also Dell. Actually, this firm does not produce computers; rather, it is a service provider that identifies each client's needs and builds the product to meet those needs. At Dell, very little money is spent on R&D. In order to effectively listen to and respond to consumers, further efforts are focused on organizing the business by client segment. People, not robots, are what make this process work.

In the service industry, branding requires two forms of recognition. People must accept the brand values as their own inside the organization. It's important to internalize the process. It entails outlining and defending these principles to each employee inside the organization. Additionally, it entails motivating one's own self-discovery of how these values may alter daily behavior. At the customer level also implies that customers recognize these values as ones they are drawn. It's important not to ignore one thing. In the service industry, brand management entails not only providing a distinctive experience but also making sure that the customer's delight can be ascribed to the appropriate brand. Because of this, the layout and branding of all points of contact are crucial. Businesses, shopping malls, internet, and other such venues must all represent the brand. It is insufficient to just display one's emblem on the front entrance[7]–[10].

The service brand's human element

There is no distinction between internal and external services. In other words, the brand is formed by what is hidden behind it. As a result, passengers of the airline communicate with its workers for a total of 14 hours during a return journey from Tokyo to Paris. Instead of a few seconds of covert promotion, the brand is carried by the attentive individual. Passengers quickly forget about the frustrating delays that start off slowly and ruin the best-laid intentions of the executives because of this. If not the staff' courtesy, what has given Starbucks its stellar image throughout the world? Contrarily, Evian is visible in bottles, stores, and advertising for items. The plant and its employees are never seen.

The service brand is built internally as the first result of this. Orange is developed by many hours spent teaching every worker how to act in accordance with Orange's standards and ideals. This applies to all client touch points, including in-person, over the phone, and online. The second consequence is that staff members cannot be expected to serve clients well if they are not satisfied with their own performance. Howard Schultz, the company's creator, innovated by addressing the concerns of many part-time employees, such as by providing decent health insurance coverage, in order to establish the laid-back, welcoming attitude that distinguishes Starbucks. The 'factory' is located in the shop, which is another crucial difference between services and goods. The post office or a restaurant are examples of places where services are produced and consumed. Because they affect expectations and sentiments, little details are crucial and must be attended to. The popularity of architecture and interior design reflects the need for more control over how the immediate environment affects what is known as the customer experience, and therefore, customer pleasure. Since individuals provide services, the brand is at danger from their unpredictability. Since the brand stands for consistent and reliable quality, it is crucial to establish strong behavioral standards that are backed by extensive training. As an alternative, clients and the agents themselves might continue to develop a personal connection that is based on mutual recognition. The requirement to shift workers around, however, contradicts with this second strategy.

Brands for services, procedures, and employment

In the services industry, any significant brand must be connected to the establishment of internal and customer-facing procedures in order to fulfill its main role. To use the example of accounting and audit consultancies, being a "Mazar" signifies a desire to set oneself apart from the well-known "big four," who are all Anglo-Saxon and provide a distinct culture.

To give greater regularity and improve the customer experience, it is still important to homogenize the internal operations. The brand is more than just a connection connecting radically autonomous agencies to provide the sense of scale; it also refers to the sharing of a shared professional vision. Making the immaterial concrete is crucial in the service industry, which is why common methods are crucial.

Given that the raw material of service is the personality and competency of the employees, it follows that this has an effect on what is often referred to as the employer brand. The challenge for the employer brand is to build its image among top executives or students by focusing on similar values rather than higher remuneration.

Fresh food is the brand and nature

The loss of fresh produce in large quantities gave rise to several brands of food products for mass consumption. In the process of canning sweetcorn, peas, and gherkins, Green Giant, Saupiquet, d'Aucy, Amora, Bonduelle, and other brands were created. Veges were first frozen

by Findus. Ham in plastic wrap was made by Fleury Michon. Therefore, the great brands emerged by offering development and pragmatism, specifically tied to the removal of the vicissitudes of fresh product and the disadvantage of its perishable nature.

CONCLUSION

In the changing business environment of today, brand variety is vital. Brands have realized the value of standing out from rivals and attracting certain target markets as customers have gotten more discriminating and the market has become more saturated. As a result, several brand kinds with distinctive traits and business models have emerged. It has well-known, enduring conventional brands that are often equated with trust, dependability, and a solid reputation. These companies consistently provide high-quality goods or services, which has helped them develop a devoted client base. They also have a thorough grasp of their target market. Despite having a small market share and quantity, they have clearly adopted an innovative strategy: they have joined the growing movement against unhealthy eating patterns that encourages consumers to consume fresh produce every day. However, due to the inherent fluctuation in fresh fruit brought on by the whims of nature, some consumers would rather have greater predictability and regularity. The suppression of perceived danger, namely the qualitative risk of pleasure and taste, is where we locate the brand's essence.

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