



OULUN YLIOPISTO
UNIVERSITY of OULU

OULU BUSINESS SCHOOL

Anna Alakuijala

BRANDING IN TEMPORALLY RESTRICTED CAMPAIGNS

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Author Alakuijala Anna		Supervisor Saraniemi, S., D.Sc.(Econ. & Bus. Adm.) Pohjosenperä, T., M.Sc.(Econ.&Bus.Adm.)	
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<p>Abstract</p> <p>The importance of branding has been recognized for a long time in the business. During the last decades also other areas have utilized branding. Usually brands are connected to the long-term value, but there are several business situations where brands are used in temporally restricted conditions. Examples of those are single or recurrent branded campaigns. Varied temporal dimensions have been used in the business research. However, there is no much research on branding from the temporality point of view.</p> <p>The aim of this study is to better understand branding in campaigns, which have temporal restrictions. The phenomenon is approached from three directions. At first, there are studied different brand definitions. In this study the brand is understood as social and dynamic interaction process among stakeholders. Through this process, differentiating attributes and added value are associated with the brand. Another aspect is the temporality theory. In addition to standardized and horizontal time, also episodic and vertical time dimensions are concerned. These are merged with the brand definition to provide the theoretical framework. The brand is added to the temporal view as a process containing events, which are points of vertical dimension, brand interaction.</p> <p>The third approach is through the context of this study, health and political campaigns. They are selected because of their different temporal nature. Health campaigns represent usually single, non-recurrent campaigns, while political campaigns are cyclic and periodic. The campaigns are studied conducting the integrative literature research. The systematic process of searching and evaluating articles is followed by the thematic analysis. The analysis is based on themes included to the theoretical framework: brand, interaction among stakeholders and temporality.</p> <p>The findings of this study show that branding in temporally restricted campaigns is done in phases. There are different objectives and forms of the brand interaction in the each phase. The study also provides a classification for stakeholders for describing different interaction in the phases. Different stakeholder groups participate to brand interaction during the pre- and post-campaign periods, while all groups are participating during the campaign period. The campaign related events can be divided to major and minor. The major events define the periods and the phases of the campaigns, while minor events occur during the periods, but are affecting to the brand.</p>			
Keywords Branding, temporality, interaction, integrative literature research			
Additional information			

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1 INTRODUCTION

This study concerns branding in temporally restricted situations. It means studying branding in conditions, which has restricted timeframe or episodic nature, for example campaigns. The phenomenon is approached from three directions: through general branding theory and from temporality theory perspective in addition to studying branding in campaign context. Next there will be a short introduction to the topic including research objectives, key concepts and short summary of research methodology.

1.1 Introduction to topic

The importance of the brand for a company is a recognized matter in marketing research (Schultz & de Chernatony 2002, Balmer & Grey 2003, Keller & Lehmann 2006, Madden, Fehle & Fournier 2006, Fischer, Völckner & Sattler 2010). Even if branding has usually been connected to commercial products and services, branding has applied also to other entities, like people and ideas (Aaker 1996, Evans et al. 2005, Phipps, Brace-Govan & Jevons 2010). When talking about brands, people usually refer to long-term value (Yoo, Donthu & Lee 2000, Keller & Lehmann 2006, Madden et al. 2006, Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Basu & Wang 2009). However, there are also many business situations, where time is somehow restricted. Business can be temporary, like in one time campaigns (Marland 2003, Bauman, Bowles, Huhman, Heitzler, Owen, Smith and Reger-Nash 2008, Lloyd 2008, Parker 2012) or single events. On the other hand, business can have recurrent phases or episodic nature, like annual sport events (Erickson & Kushner 1999) or regularly repeated political campaigns (Marland 2003, Kim, Rao & Lee 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Silverstein 2011, Parker 2012).

In social marketing context branding is connected to lifestyle or change of behaviour. Challenge for branding in social marketing is to ensure that people perceive value and immediate benefits of intended behaviour. (Keller 1998, Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Asbury, Wong, Price & Nolin 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evans, Blitstein, Hersey & Renaud 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Lee & Hecht 2009.) Branding has been

studied in social marketing context, for example in health campaigns, from its early days. First examples of public service campaigns that have branded characteristics are from 1960s and 1970s. However strategic use of branding in public health is relatively new phenomenon. (Evans et al. 2008.)

In political context, politicians or political parties can be seen as brands. Voters choose among politicians like commercial products or services. Parker (2012) states that individuals can become brands periodically, whereas brands of political parties are usually long-term. (Lloyd 2008, Guzman & Sierra 2009, Phipps, Brace-Govan & Jevons 2010, O'Cass & Voola 2011, Parker 2012.) There has been recently shift towards identification of individual candidates instead of party identification, when doing voting decisions (Lloyd 2008). Natural temporal rhythm in politics, provide an interesting platform to study political context from temporal point of view (Kim et al. 2009). O'Cass and Voola (2011) present reasons to use short-term approach in political campaigning. These reasons refer to uncertainty and munificent nature of political environment.

In this study, temporally restricted brands are studied in campaign context, more precisely in health and political campaigns. For being able to conduct an effective literature review, there was need to restrict context somehow. Without restriction, most of retrieved articles in search process were concerning advertising campaigns of brands. Since aim is to study branded campaigns instead of campaigns of brands, context was framed to campaigns types, which are usually branded (Bauman & Chau 2009). Health and political contexts also differ from each other from temporal perspective. As mentioned earlier, political campaigns have regular cyclic nature. On the other hand, health campaigns are usually non-recurrent (Marland 2003, Bauman et al. 2008, Lloyd 2008, Parker 2012). When selecting two different contexts, there is possibility to get more varied view of campaigning.

Even if many examples of temporally restricted situations can be found in the real life, and the phenomenon evidently exists, hardly any branding research about it cannot be found (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Rindell 2013). There are some researches, which touch on the phenomenon in one of the example situations (Erickson & Kushner 1999, Asbury et al. 2008, Garcia-Gonzalez & Schwartz 2012,

Parker 2012, etc.), but the deeper understanding of the phenomenon is missing and phenomenon is still quite unstructured. There can be found only few campaign related studies where both branding and temporal aspects are described at good level (Smith 2001, Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Asbury et al. 2008, Evans et al. 2005, Parker 2012). However, objectives of those researches were different than analyse branding especially from temporal perspective and in temporally restricted situations. There are several temporal dimensions used in business research (Halinen & Törnroos 1995, Medlin 2004, Plakoyiannaki & Saren 2006, Hedaa & Törnroos 2008, Halinen et al. 2012), but in branding research only few of those were considered (Halinen 1998).

1.2 Research objectives and research questions

The aim of this research is to better understand branding in campaigns, which have temporal restrictions. The phenomenon is approached from three directions, see figure 1. At first, there is need to discuss brand definitions and secondly consider how temporality can be connected to branding. The third approach to phenomenon is through examples of temporally restricted campaigns in health and political context. The phenomenon at the scope of this study can be found from intersection of those aspects.

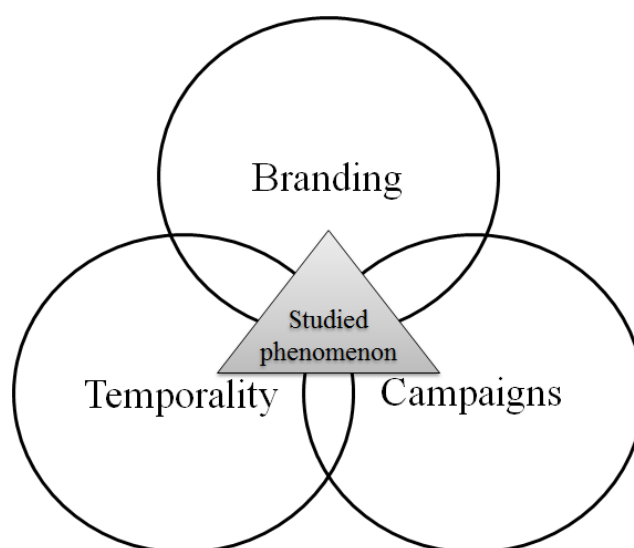


Figure 1. Three approaches to phenomenon under study.

For being able to crystalize the aim of the study there is made a research question, which combines all three aspects of the study. The main research question of this study is

What kind of branding there is in temporally restricted campaigns?

It can be distinguished to two sub-questions

How branding can be understood in the temporal context?

How branding is described in the campaign related research?

The first sub-question is answered through theoretical part of this study. Theoretical framework is constituted based on previous research in branding and in temporality areas. Thus the first sub-question is related to two aspects of this study (see figure 1). The second sub-question is targeted to third aspect of this study (figure 1). Integrative literature review is used as method to answer it. The answer to the main research question is got by linking together answers to sub-questions.

1.3 Key concepts

This chapter summarizes the key concepts of this study. Detailed description of theory behind definitions is discussed in chapter 2.

Brand and Branding

In this study, brand is understood as a dynamic and social process, where meanings associated to brand are generated through stakeholder interaction over time. These associations differentiate the brand and add extra value to a product or a service. (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Gregory 2007, Merz, He & Vargo 2009.) In this interpretation brand becomes close to branding, which shares same definition in verbal role.

Horizontal and vertical time dimensions

The *horizontal dimension* of time, capturing sequence of *episodes* and *events* in relation to past, present and the future, is connected to physical dimension of time (Halinen 1998, Mason & Leek 2012). *Standardized time* corresponds to clock time or calendar time and is used to account and measure chronological time (Kavanagh & Araujo 1995, Mason & Leek 2012).

The *vertical dimension* represents social aspect of time and refers to social group's tendency to create cultural, organizational and individual time constructions, which become shared meanings of the time continuum. It can be viewed as cyclical and recurrent. (Halinen & Törnroos 1995, Halinen 1998, Ancona, Okhuysen & Perlow 2001, Medlin 2004.)

Process

In this study process is viewed as sequence of timely interlinked events, which can be relevant or irrelevant in relation to process (Van De Ven & Poole 2005, Plakoyiannaki & Saren 2006, Halinen, Medlin & Törnroos 2012, Halinen, Törnroos & Elo 2013).

Campaign

Campaign is a process for generating specific outcome usually within specific time period through set of organized communicative activities (Salmon & Atkin 2003: 450).

Interaction

Interaction is defined as used in branding literature. It is a social and dynamic communicative process between two actors (Mertz et al. 2009, Ballantyne & Aitken 2007).

1.4 Research methodology

This study is qualitative research, which is relevant when prior insight about phenomenon is modest, as described in the introduction. In that situation research tends to be exploratory and flexible. The aim is usually to generate understanding of the phenomenon under study. Approach in this study is rather subjectivist in objectivism-subjectivism continuum. Interpretations depend on subjectivist view of researcher and there may be alternative approaches available. (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2005: 58, 202, Alasuutari 2011: 38.) Limitations based on the subjective approach are considered in the chapter 5.3. The analysis method of the study is based on themes introduced in the theoretical part. Thus, this study can be classified as theory bounded research using abduction in drawing conclusions. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2002: 95–102, Eskola 2001: 136–137.) Detailed description of used method and philosophical foundations of it is described in chapter 3.

Since there is no much existing literature about phenomenon under study, there is need to approach it through key concepts. At first there will be theoretical discussion about brand definitions, in addition to temporality theories in business context. In addition to temporality research in marketing context (Plakoyiannaki & Saren 2006, Quintens & Matthyssens 2010), also organizational and network related temporality research are reviewed (Kavanagh & Araujo 1995, Medlin 2004, Hedaa & Törnroos 2008, Halinen et al. 2012, Mason & Leek 2012, Peters, Vanharanta, Pressey & Johnston 2012). The aim of theoretical discussion about branding and temporality is to provide theoretical framework.

Theoretical framework is applied to branded campaign context, especially to health and political campaigns. Campaigns are selected as context of the study due to temporal aspect included into them, derived from the definition of campaigns (see chapter 1.3). As discussed in introduction, health and political campaigns are selected as context because of having different nature from temporal point of view (Marland 2003, Bauman et al. 2008, Lloyd 2008, Kim, Rao & Lee 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Silverstein 2011, Parker 2012). Campaigns are studied using integrative literature review for campaign related articles. Integrative literature review is systematic process to search and evaluate articles included into review (Torraco

2005). The process of integrative literature review is described more detailed in chapters 3.2 and 3.3. Intent of review is to identify articles concerning branded campaigns and having temporal aspect. Thematic analysis is then used to study included articles. Themes used in the analysis phase are based on theoretical framework.

1.5 Structure of the study

In introduction, there are first shortly described background and motivation of topic, in addition to the research goal and research questions. Also a summary of the key concepts and short description of the research method are represented. Chapter 2 begins with discussion about brand definition, concerning both evolution of definitions and various definitions introduced in the last decades. Branding theory is followed by temporality theories in business context. Temporality theories are assorted based on their nature. Next there is represented the theoretical framework, which combines branding and temporality theories applicable for this study's scope.

The used research methodology, theoretical basis and actual implementation, is represented in chapter 3. At first there is discussion on philosophical foundations of qualitative research following with theoretical basis of integrative literature research. Also implemented search process and included articles are described. Used analysis method is presented at the end of the chapter 3. Analysis results and their connection to theoretical framework are discussed in the chapter 4. At first results of thematic analysis are discussed separately from the health and the political context. Then there are represented synthesised results of this study for getting answer to the research question. Theoretical contribution and managerial implications of this study are discussed in the chapter 5. Also quality evaluation, limitations of this study and suggestions for the future research are considered.

2 THEORY OF THE BRAND AND TEMPORALITY

2.1 Alternative definitions of brand and branding

There is no consensus how to define terms brand and branding in academic research (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Jones & Bonevac 2013). This chapter represents the evolution of concepts brand and branding, and discussion about branding conceptions introduced in the last decades. In this study, there is aim to stay on the general level, when discussing branding. There will not be outlining either on B2B nor B2C context. Also the customer can be seen as B2B customer or the end customer.

As part of her historical analysis of term brand, Stern (2006) studied concept brand from *grammar point of view*, which from the one side means studying word's function in sentences. She has classified viewpoints of concept 'brand' in research depending on whether it is used as a noun or a verb. As an *entity*, brand is used as *noun* in phrases referring to people, place, things or ideas. When used as *verb*, brand refers to *processes* of firm, which are used to give meanings to products i.e. naming, targeting or positioning the product or communicating product's benefits. This kind of dual-function terms are flexible in means that they can be combined to other terms forming multiword phrases, like brand reputation, brand identity and brand commitment. They can be also used in phrases in verbal role, like branding power or branded product. In this study, brand definitions are also analysed from the grammar point of view. (Stern 2006.)

2.1.1 Evolution of branding as concept

Meanings of the concepts brand and branding, and the logic of them, have been *evolved* during the past decades. The concept brand was first introduced at the beginning of 1900s. At first, the brand was considered as a firm-provided property of goods, but during the 20th century the concept has evolved towards value co-creation activity of firm and all its stakeholders. According to Merz, He and Vargo (2009) it is possible to identify four, partially overlapping, eras of defining brand and branding. The first one was the *Individual Goods Focus Era* at the beginning of the

20th century. From 1930s to 1990s there was the *Value-Focus Brand Era* followed by the *Relationship-Focus Era* during 1990s–2000. The current era, since year 2000, can be nominated as *Stakeholder-Focus Brand Era*. Merz et al. have summarized all these eras from four point of views: brand, orientation, resource and brand value. (Merz et al. 2009.)

During the *individual goods-focus brand era*, the brand was seen as identifier and both customers and brand as operand resources. The brand value was understood as value-in-exchange connected to output orientation. The *value-focus brand era* introduced the concept brand image, meaning that the brand was seen as a functional or a symbolic image. Customers were still operand resources whereas the brand was viewed as an operand resource having also value itself. Output orientation was still the prevailing viewpoint. In the next era, the *relationship-focus brand era*, focus was in process orientation and the brand was seen as knowledge, a relationship partner or a promise, depending on the research focus. Both the brand and the external or the internal customers were seen as operand resources and the brand value was the value-in-use of the external and the internal customers. (Merz et al. 2009.)

At the beginning of the 2000s, collective and dynamic processes connected to the brand consumption were prevalent in the academic research. In their research Merz et al. (2009) connect the current view of the brand logic to the service dominant logic of marketing introduced by Vargo and Lusch (2004). Merz et al. see that brand logic is process-oriented logic, where all stakeholders are endogenous to the process. In their summary of the branding logic, they see the brand as a dynamic and social process where all stakeholders and the brand itself are operand resources. Brand value is constructed dynamically through social interactions between stakeholders and thus co-created in the stakeholder ecosystem. The relationships between the brand and stakeholders form networks instead of dyadic relationships. Merz et al. also emphasize the effect of the brand community research to the discussion of brand value co-creation processes. In the brand community discussion, brand value is co-created in these communities by dynamic interaction between customers and the brand. On the other hand, according to Merz et al., all stakeholders, despite of being part of brand community or not, contribute to a brand's value. (Merz et al. 2009.)

2.1.2 Brand as an entity

Keller and Lehmann (2006) state, that in its basic level, brands are markers for the firm's offerings. However, brand has also role when determining the effectiveness of firm's marketing efforts as channel placement or advertising. In addition to those *functions*, they consider brands belonging to the financial asset of a firm. They separate brand's roles for customers from functions to the firm. For customers, brands play helping role by simplifying choice, promising certain quality level, reducing risk and creating trust. The concept of branding they usually connect to the strategy or bring out as co-branding by referring to something that a firm does. (Keller & Lehmann 2006.) Thus Keller and Lehmann see brand as *noun* instead of process, while branding is naturally a verb. By simplifying customer's choice brand can be seen as *identifier* and *differentiator*.

Jones and Bonevac (2013) have considered 'brand of branding'. They have criticized existing definitions of brand and branding to be inadequate. In narrowest sense, a brand has been understood as a name, a graphic image, or a combination of both. They see that the brand is typically communicated through name, which however is just a label. In their point of view, brand is a *definition* of a particular company or product, indicating that brands give meaning to names and logos. They justify their perspective with clarity and well-understood structure of concepts. The definition of term branding is derived directly from definition of brand. Thus Jones and Bonevac state that branding is synonymous to concept defining, which is, in other words, placing something to more general category and *differentiating* it in this category. They crystallize activity of establishing the brand as defining a product and its differences to alternatives. Their approach to branding means that everything a company says or does can be linked to branding, justified with understanding that everything people say or do defines them. (Jones & Bonevac 2013.) It means that they understand term branding as activity like Merz et al. (2009), while term brand is *not an activity* in their approach.

Davies and Chun (2003) have studied *metaphors* of brand to understand the concept. The word 'brand' itself is a metaphor with original meaning of branded identification mark. There are three main metaphors connected to brand: metaphor of brand as a

person, brand as an *asset* or brand as a *differentiating mark*. According to Davies and Chun there are several sub-metaphors connected to each root metaphors. Brand as a person is connected to personality, *relationships* with brand, loyalty, reputation and values. Brand as differentiating mark instead refers to brand as name, logo, symbol or emblem. Brand as asset means that it represents intangible financial *value* or economic power and shall be treated as something to be invested in, protected or can be bought, sold or rented. The emergent metaphor of the brand is brand as *role*, which refers to the brand in different roles like brand as family, brand as warrior, brand as partner, brand as underwriter or brand as seducer. (Davies & Chun 2003.)

Davies and Chun (2003) also separate metaphor and term from each other. According to them, term has a special meaning and clear definition, but metaphor is used to expand and extend meanings. They also distinguish four life cycle phases for metaphors leading to last phase where metaphor dies and word becomes to the term. Certain metaphors of brand have transformed to terms with special meaning different from the original one. According to Davies and Chun, these terms are brand loyalty, brand equity and brand personality. In summary, their viewpoint differs from Keller and Lehmann (2006), Merz et al. (2009) and Jones and Bonevac (2013), because they did not give any definition for brand, likely because they see the brand as metaphor instead of the independent concept.

De Lencastre and Côte-Real (2010) start with brand's *juridical definition*, where brand is considered as an *identifying* sign. They define three main dimensions for the brand. The first one is the brand as sign itself, the next is the marketing object referring to the sign and the final is market's response to the sign. They seem to understand brand as *noun* referring to it with phrases "brand as intangible asset of organization", "brand as *distinguishing* label" or "identifying sign". Branding they see as a concept, which brings together organization's marketing actions. Nevertheless they have also adopted *stakeholder* view to branding. (De Lencastre & Côte-Real 2010.)

2.1.3 Process view of branding

As described earlier, Merz et al. (2009) view concept brand as a *process*, more specifically a *dynamic* and *social* process, what is in line with process-oriented interpretation of the stakeholder-focus brand era. They (2009: 340) also state that “brand constitutes a *value co-creation* activity involving all *stakeholders* and the firm“. On the other hand, they see brand as (operant) resource or object of active creation process. In that interpretation, brand is a subject or an object of a phrase instead of a verb. However brand as an activity of process is more dynamic construction. Merz et al. (2009) refer to the notion of branding with phrases: branding practices, managerial efforts or dyadic relationship between customers and firms. They also suggest viewing branding as cultural phenomenon driven by incongruity and synergy within all firm’s stakeholders. Thus, in their conceptualization branding is evidently doing, but also a phenomenon. Brand defined as a process or an activity becomes close to branding, in this regard that both are referring to *doing or activity*. (Merz et al. 2009.)

Ballantyne and Aitken (2007) look branding from the service-dominant logic point of view like Merz et al. (2009). They state that branding is basically a form of communicative *interaction process*, where firms try to strengthen the meanings for their value propositions. They also discuss time-logic of branding, referring to the open-ended logic of marketing exchange as set of interactive episodes over time instead of separate transactions. Since the nature of brand relationships is open-ended, the individual meanings associated with the brand are part of wider *stakeholder associations* of brand. They see brand-marks as *communicative devices* which stimulate recognition, reputation and meaning associated with brand over time. Meanings are generated through interactions and exchanges between a firm and all its stakeholders. (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007.)

Gregory (2007) emphasizes the active engagement of *stakeholders* to the brand development, as partner role instead of target. Stakeholders are seen integral to the *process*. Her perspective is corporate brand view and she uses the concept *negotiated brand* describing the contribution of stakeholders. The negotiated brand recognizes that organizations will initiate the branding process with identifying its values, which

are blend of managerial vision and internal stakeholder views. Values are the communicated to internal and external stakeholders, who both are considered as partners. Aim is to initiate the cyclic iteration process of stakeholder engagement, common knowledge providing and action based on the knowledge, for creating corporate brand. (Gregory 2007.)

2.1.4 Definition of brand and branding

As a summary, brand and branding can be seen from multiple viewpoints depending on which aspects are emphasized. However, common things in all views are that a brand has *identification* (Keller & Lehmann 2006, De Lencastre & Côte-Real 2010) and *differentiating* (Davies & Chun 2003, Keller & Lehmann 2006, De Lencastre & Côte-Real 2010, Jones & Bonevac 2013) roles, and there is extra *value added* (Davies & Chun 2003, Keller & Lehmann 2006 and Merz et al. 2009) to product or service through associations connected to brand. Brand name and logo were seen as *tool to communicate* that extra value (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, De Lencastre & Côte-Real 2010, Jones & Bonevac 2013).

On the other hand, brand definitions described earlier can be divided to two main categories based on the orientation. Part of them (Davies & Chun 2003, Keller & Lehmann 2006, De Lencastre & Côte-Real 2010, Jones & Bonevac 2013) see brand as an *entity*, i.e. an object or a subject of a phrase. When brand is seen as an entity, there is need to have corresponding verb, branding, referring to the action connected to the brand. The brand as an entity can be connected to the stakeholder view (De Lencastre & Côte-Real 2010) or the customer oriented view (Keller & Lehmann 2006).

Other viewpoints (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Gregory 2007, Merz et al. 2009) see brand as a *process*. As a process, brand becomes closer to the verb branding, and meanings of them are almost same referring both to the *social* and *dynamic interaction* process. Looking at contribution, brand seen as a process was connected to the stakeholder point of view (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Gregory 2007, Merz et al).

The brand definition used in this study is in line with the process view of branding, but containing also common aspects of branding. Thus, brand is defined as a dynamic and social process, where value adding and differentiating meanings associated to the brand are generated by stakeholder interaction episodes over time. The brand name and logo are seen as a communicative tool referring to value adding meanings of the brand. This notion is based mainly on Ballantyne's and Aitken's, Gregory's and Merz's et al. definition of the brand, while also De Lencastre and Côte-Real 2010 and Jones and Bonevac 2013 share view of brand mark as a communicative tool.

2.2 Time and temporality

Time is a fundamental dimension, which humans use when constructing and interpreting reality or conceptualizing and understanding processes (Halinen 1998, Halinen, Medlin & Törnroos 2012). However, time as complex and varied concept, is a tricky term to define and even more problematic to understand coherently and explicitly in social science research, including marketing (Hedaa & Törnroos 2008, Halinen et al. 2012). Understanding the concept of time is also one of the basic ontological questions, inspired philosophers for a long time. Halinen and Törnroos (1995) state that the ontology of time concerns the assumptions about time, like its existence, nature and importance for the phenomenon under study. This study focuses on *time in the business context*, especially connected to branding, without trying to give an exhaustive philosophical soul-searching about time from ontological point of view.

Halinen (1998) states that when studying temporal phenomenon, one has to consider at least assumptions concerning the concept of time, key temporal phenomenon and used process theories explaining development. Many studies focus on change. The process perspective draws attention to the conceptual description of process and its content. The process may be described with dynamic concepts, defined to temporal modes like *past, present and future*. (Halinen & Törnroos 1995, Halinen 1998.)

This chapter begins with discussion of few basic terms connected to temporality, like moment, event, past, present, future and process. Then there is discussed dualistic

nature of time and more complex categorizations of temporality. Process views of temporality are introduced at the end of the chapter.

2.2.1 Basic concepts of time

Next there is discussion about few basic concepts included to the temporality theory. Most focal of them, like event and process, are described more detailed in chapters 2.2.2 and 2.2.3. The fundamental concept is a *moment*, which is used to define the others. The moment can be defined as “the time taken for a thought to emerge and be acted upon” (Medlin 2004:186). According to him *event* includes at least two moments, where the first one is a moment of perception and the second one a moment of cognition. Event is the period required for interaction. Hedaa and Törnroos (2008:323) define event as “an outcome of human acts or changes caused by nature” describing it with dualistic characteristics for example intensive–extensive, frequent–infrequent, present–absent, single–multiple, overlapping–distinct or sequential–simultaneous, relevant–irrelevant.

According to Halinen and Törnroos (1995) *present* can be understood only through history and future. However, the definition of present is not trivial due to continuity of time and thus humans need to base their perception of present, as an acceptable period, on the past and the future. Medlin (2004) has tried to find solution by using concept of moment. He states that minimum period of present is thus at least two moments, when looking from the interaction point of view. On the other hand, when thinking about present from past and future perspective, the present starts at the completion of the past and is completed at the beginning of the future. In other words present is defined as a period between two events, one past and other anticipated in the future. According to Medlin events change the state of reality, for at least one actor. Certain interactions are leading to long periods of present (like geological events), while others can be seen as short present like Internet business. He sees *past* time holding the memories and interpretations of the events. According to him, the past is subjective because of people have varied interpretations of events in the past. He sees that there are many possibilities for the *future* time and only one of them can realize. However, all possibilities shape the future at some level. Thus past can be described as interpretation while future refers to potential. (Medlin 2004.)

Halinen, Törnroos and Elo (2013) define a process as interlinked events, where others are relevant and others irrelevant from the process point of view. Thus they see events as key elements to the process. They also support Van De Ven's and Poole's (2005) and Halinen's et al. (2012) conception of process as sequence of events. In this definition time is a characteristic of an entity. Plakoyiannaki and Saren (2006) share Pettigrew's (1997, p. 338) process definition as "the sequence of individual and collective events, actions, and activities unfolding over time in a context". In this study process is viewed as timely sequence of interlinked events.

2.2.2 Multi-dimensional nature of time

Time is a fundamental construct for variety of theories. In natural sciences, time is seen as linear, chronological and clock-based. It is objective, universal, independent, homogenous, quantifiable, divisible, natural and spatial. Time is often used as independent variable in x-axis. In social sciences time is understood to be socially constructed in addition to linear, absolute time. Kavanagh and Araujo (1995) are one of the first who have adopted the idea of *socially constructed time* to the organization research. Since Kavanagh's and Araujo's research, there has been widespread consensus that time is multidimensional phenomenon (e.g. Halinen & Törnroos 1995, Medlin 2004, Plakoyiannaki & Saren 2006, Hedaa & Törnroos 2008, Halinen et al. 2012). Most of those views are also interconnected by describing same dimension of temporality with different phrases.

As mentioned above, the perspective of sociology emphasizes the idea that time is socially constructed, and chronological time is one of the social constructions, which also include non-chronological means of time. Kavanagh and Araujo (1995) divide temporality to the five categories, which are networked time, inscribed time, folded time, durable time and dynamic time. Networked time represents multiplicity of local times. Inscribed time is connected to inscribing the process attempting to create scripts like routines or norms related to time. Folded times refers to actors ability to fold time backwards and forwards. Kavanagh and Araujo also state that standard time is prerequisite for emerging economic and social organizations. According to them it is not possible to coordinate economic and social activities without standardized time forms. However, when looking behind standardized time forms,

there can be found heterogeneous networks of human and material elements, which are actively constructing the standard time. When networks then grow and become more standardized, they will also become durable. Dynamic time refers to micro-actors ability to grow with respect to size and power, and impose own versions of spatial and temporal organizations. These micro-actors then enact own versions of the past and the future, and chronological codes. (Kavanagh & Araujo 1995.)

According to Halinen and Törnroos (1995) researchers often refer to time with expressions like dynamics, process and longitudinal. Dynamic expression is related to physical and linear time describing time-relatedness of the episodes and the processes. This differs from dynamic time introduced by Kavanagh and Araujo (1995). Process instead, can be understood as series of actions, which are performed for achieving a particular result, often referring to the change or transition. Term longitudinal is often used when talking about methods, which actually enable the study of process. Halinen and Törnroos state that linear time notion is too narrow for describing interactive business relationships. For emphasizing the dualistic nature of time, they introduce the concept *relational time*, which means that time can be distinguished to *horizontal* and *vertical* dimensions. The horizontal dimension means past, presence and future, while the vertical dimension refers to cultural, organizational, individual, physical and natural time. According to them, time is perceived differently in different cultures and people groups. (Halinen & Törnroos 1995.)

Halinen (1998) distinguishes time to *physical* and *social dimensions* in her study of relationship development. Physical dimension of time refers to absolute, chronological characteristic of time, whereas social dimension can be viewed as cyclical and recurrent, connected to learning in subjective experiences in organizations. This supports Halinen's and Törnroos' (1995) concept of relational time in business networks, distinguishing horizontal and vertical dimensions of time. The horizontal dimension, including past, present and future phases, can be understood to refer the physical dimension of time, whereas the vertical dimension can be connected to social aspect. (Halinen 1998.)

Medlin (2004) shares Halinen's and Törnroos' (1995) and Halinen's (1998) idea of the *horizontal* and the *vertical time*. He refers to the vertical time as variations in social, cultural and organizational perspectives of relationships. Medlin extends Halinen's study by combining time and interaction together. He states that time can be seen as a container or as a measure. According to him, time is a context for business interaction and not the other way around. He justifies his statement by matter that business interaction can change through time, but not opposite. Time provides boundaries to current and potential interaction by constraining, shaping, and patterning it. Past, present and future separation of time, provides measurement and ordering of the events. Thus Medlin lists three ways how to examine the time related to business interaction: time can be seen at first as containing business interaction, secondly at a way to measure interactions in business, and thirdly how forms of time, like past and future, can be used to give meaning sense to business networks. (Medlin 2004.)

Also Araujo and Easton (2012) have studied temporality in business networks. As Halinen and Törnroos (1995), Halinen (1998) and Medlin (2004) also they have *dualistic approach* of time. They understand time as social and natural, subjective and objective, tensed and un-tensed, kairós or chronos, agency and structure. They argument, that narratives are used to combine various temporality notions, for making sense to choices and history and linking past, present and future. Thus dualistic temporality notions affect also to our understanding of actions in the business networks. (Araujo & Easton 2012.)

Ancona, Okhuysen and Perlow (2001:513) define time as “a non-spatial continuum in which events occur in apparently irreversible succession from the past through the present to the future”, in their study of state of temporal research in organizational context. They have categorized time related researches to three categories named as *conceptions of time*, mapping activities to time, and actors relating to time. The first category contains various ways to describe and characterize the continuum, including clock time, cyclical time, event time, and life-cycle. Clock time describes continuum as linear, whereas in cyclical time events have repeating nature. Event time refers to human tendency to use events as reference point categorizing things to happen before or after the event. Events can be divided to predictable and unpredictable based on

their nature. Socially constructed time refers to social groups' ability to create different types of time constructs, which become shared meanings of the continuum. This is in line with Halinen's and Törnroos' (1995) vertical dimension of time. (Ancona et al. 2001.)

According to Ancona et al. (2001) activities or events can be mapped to time describing the order but also time allocation between activities or events or transformation in activity. Single *activity mapping* means scheduling, duration and pace of activity. Repeated activity mapping illustrates intervals between similar activities in addition to single activity characteristics. Intervals can be regular or irregular. Transformation can happen inside one activity, meaning that activity changes to another activity for example through learning. Multiple activity mapping connects multiple actions in time studying their time allocation, ordering and synchronization. Sometimes order is pre-established, while sometimes it is not. Ancona et al. (2001) also state that even if there is objective, physical component of time, the experience of it still varies within condition and actors. Their notion supports Kavanagh's and Araujos's (1995) idea that groups and organizations have own temporal perceptions.

Ancona, Goodman, Lawrence and Tushman (2001) have studied time as research lens in the organizational management research by putting time and timing in the centre. They share Ancona's, Okhuysen's and Perlow's (2001) perception that time is allocated across activities, but also activities are scheduled, accelerated and shifted in time. They also represent dualistic time conception, like Halinen and Törnroos (1995), Halinen (1998), Medlin (2004) and Araujo and Easton (2012), where time is on the one hand objectively interpreted through exact, linear and measured clock time, but also individual's subjective experience. (Ancona et al. 2001.)

Peters, Vanharanta, Pressey and Johnston (2012) have studied how *structuration theory of sociology* helps understanding time in the business networks. Structuration theory concerns change and continuity processes in addition to maintenance and creation of ideas and structures. In the structuration theory a social system is a relatively enduring set of practices, interaction patterns and social relationships. Based on that conception, they see time as progressive, sequential, unidirectional and

cumulative. They define time as a sequence in which actions occur extending from the past to the future through the present. The absolute or physical time, like days, hours, minutes, they connect to the linear time, while the natural time, meaning day, night and seasons are seen as cyclical. Peters et al. conceptualize time as a *subjective experience* in addition to objective view like Araujo and Easton (2012). The subjectivist perspective of time is socially constructed, while objectivist point of view sees time as a neutral medium. Here the objectivistic view of time relates to rational, concrete and metric time with observable and measurable stages. Time is also connected to the pace of change. (Peters et al. 2012.)

Peters et al. criticize the natural science's way to use time as proxy variable (Kavanagh & Araujo 1995), since they see that relationship development and length of time are not necessarily linearly or causally related. The process models examine the relationship development with terms referring to the dynamic relational content, like commitment, trust and exchange. They also mention, that either conceptualization of time, objectivist or subjectivist, cannot fully illustrate time as a dimension of the *events*. They state that chronological time concepts restrict our understanding of deep and complex inter-relationships in processes, and simplify causal relations too much. They see time as irreversible and on the other hand having reversible qualities like routines and recurrence. This is in line with Araujo's and Easton's (2012) perception that some processes and their outcomes are irreversible like the life span of human. Other processes they see as reversible, because of having recursive events and routines associated.

Also Orlikowski and Yates (2002) use *temporal structuring* to understand and study time in organizations. According to them time can be experienced through process of temporal structuring in organizations. Temporal structures are used to give rhythm to people's everyday practices. Structures can be clock-based or event-based, calendar based or seasonal. These temporal structures are shaped but also shaping human actions. Thus they are not independent of human actions but not fully determined by them. This view forms a bridge between objective and subjective understanding of time, because of recognizing people's active role in shaping temporality, but also acknowledging that people's actions are shaped by structural conditions, which are outside their control. (Orlikowski & Yates 2002.) The objective perspective,

represented also by Araujo and Easton (2012) and Peters et al. (2012), understands time as existing independently of human actions. Thus it can be experienced a constraint on actions. The subjective perspective sees time as socially constructed and experienced through cultural interpretations. The objective viewpoint tends to overlook the role of human actions in shaping individual's experiences of time. The subjective point of view instead downplays shaping of objectified expectations of time to human actions. (Orlikowski & Yates 2002.)

Orlikowski and Yates (2002) introduce *practice-based perspective of time*, which views time as experienced through temporal structures, which people impose in recurrent practices. Practice-based perspective also emphasizes people's ability to see time as event-based or clock-based, or both depending on enacting temporal structure at the moment. Events can be external to the society like natural phenomenon, designated by calendar like birthdays, for reifying chronological rhythms like fiscal year end and shaped by community like wedding year. Practice-based perspective shows how the social actor's recurrent practices shape temporal structures, which people experience as "time" in everyday life. Practices are at the same time shaped by existing temporal structures, which influence organization's expectations of time. (Orlikowski & Yates 2002.)

According to Orlikowski and Yates (2002), practice-based perspective of time blurs distinction between linear and cyclic time (Halinen & Törnroos 1995, Halinen 1998, Peters et al. 2012), by pointing out that it depends on the viewpoint and observation moment, whether perspective is objective or subjective. When observation period changes for example from a week to a year, cyclical aspect becomes more salient instead of linear one. Similarly, length of observation affects to see phenomenon as one-time event or part of ongoing cycle. Thus the moment or length of observation in addition to point of view affects to what researchers see. When selecting period or type of study, researchers also choose temporal structures. Also open-ended and closed temporal orientations are properties of temporal structures enacted at moment by community. Thus people are not restricted to either of them, but rather enacting both types depending on activities and pressure at the moment. For example a project may be scheduled so long that people enact open-ended structures, while near the

mid-point on ending deadlines people may shift to closed temporal structure. (Orlikowski & Yates 2002.)

Mason and Leek (2012) have used quantitative method when examining series of interaction episodes. They have focused on communication practices that are performed and adapted in a relationship over time. They also use Medlin's (2004), Halinen's (1998) and Kavanagh's and Araujo's (1995) idea of horizontal and vertical time in addition to standardized and planned time. Like Medlin in his research, also they use concept horizontal time capturing sequence of episodes and events in relation to past, present and the future, while vertical time represents the human perceptions of business relationship context (see Halinen 1998). Standardized time corresponds to clock time or calendar time (Kavanagh & Araujo 1995) used to account and measure chronological time. Planned time refers to procedures, strategies and planned activities. (Mason & Leek 2012.)

Time influences to the actor's judgement of the interaction episodes and thus forms the relationship atmosphere. Relationships also develop through time, and thus original actors may forget the episodes or reinterpret them. There may be new actors in relationships and they are not aware of former episodes or may add new meanings to them. Like Orlikowski and Yates (2002) Mason and Leek (2012) see that time and practices are inseparable. They also share Orlikowski's and Yates' understanding of time as experienced in organizations through process of temporal structuring, which characterizes people's engagement in the everyday life. Producing and reproducing temporal structures are part of engagement and they are used to orient, guide and coordinate ongoing activities. (Mason & Leek 2012.)

Mason and Leek (2012) connect together main forms of time: horizontal time (Medlin 2004), vertical time (Halinen 1998), standardized time (Kavanagh & Araujo 1995), planned time and interaction episodes. Essential parts, applied in this study, are illustrated in the figure 2. According to Mason and Leek, interplay between horizontal, vertical, standardized and planned time has a vital role when determining adopted and adapted communication practices in relationships. They state that communication practices of actors are adopted and developed by intersection of planned and standardized time when planned time is re-written at the specific point

of standardized time. That procedure affects the relationship atmosphere described with vertical time. Similarly understanding horizontal time, i.e. past, present and future, affects to interpretation of vertical time.

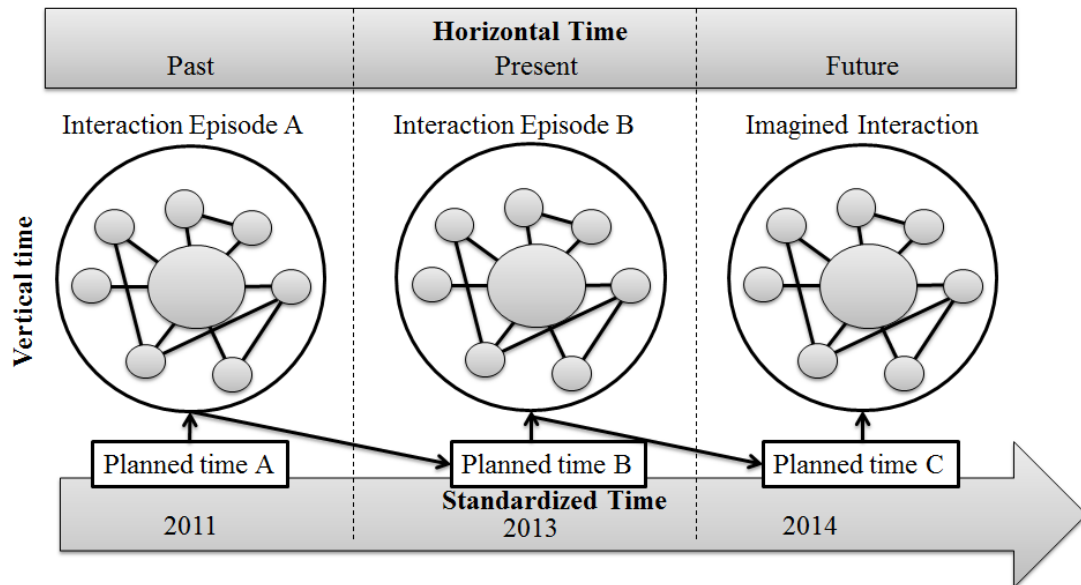


Figure 2. Interaction episodes connected to temporal forms (adopted from Mason & Leek 2012).

2.2.3 Process view of time

Quintens and Matthyssens (2010) have evaluated *process dimensions of time* in marketing case studies. They suggest concentrating on duration, timing, frequency, pace and ordering in addition to steps and stages in time related studies in marketing. They use term ‘time’ when indicating a specific moment as well as duration. They focus on linear dimensions of time describing processes with timing, duration, frequency, pace, divisibility, flow and order. Other elements are dependent on divisibility, which can be discrete or continuous. Discrete means ability to divide time to measurable unit, while continuous perspective time cannot be split up. Clock time is one example of divisible time. Timing means the moment at which process, phenomenon or part of process starts or finishes or data is recorded. Process can also be divided into sub-processes, which each have starting and ending points. Beginning and ending are also crucial when discussing about frequency and pace. Pace indicates change in duration of events, while duration measures how long one particular state lasts and frequency repetition of the sub-processes. Quintens and Matthyssens use

Mosakowski's and Earley's (2000) conception of frequency. According to them it can be connected to novel, cyclical and punctuated time, where novel means no or very little repetition and cyclical apparently many reiterations. Punctuated time is intermediate alternating novel events with cyclical ones.

Hedaa and Törnroos (2008) have developed a model of *event networks* for understanding temporality in business networks. It is based on the fact that the business networks are connected to ongoing processes existing in past, present and future in relation to space and time. They define event as "an outcome of human acts or changes caused by nature" (Hedaa & Törnroos 2008:323). From business network point of view, events can be seen as temporally specific outcomes of actions performed by actors. Events have on the one hand nature of past-loadedness referring to network actor's memories or experiences, and on the other hand future-loadedness describing expectations in addition to hope and fear connected to the future. The present can be seen as based on past events but also possible futures. Their point of view considers events as building blocks, or basic units, of social time. Both events and social time are context-bound, relational and embedded, but also based on variations in actors' perceptions, interpretations and positions in the network. Thus the event-network is temporally and socially constructed connection of processes and events, of which humans have their own interpretations. They describe event network with interconnected triads formed by events, acts and actors. Those triads are connected to each other with links between events and actors. Thus event networks is connection of processes and events though time and in time. (Hedaa & Törnroos 2008.)

According to Hedaa and Törnroos (2008) the smallest unit of event network analysis is an *event dyad*, which means two interrelated events. Actors, human or nature, are key mediators of events in the event network, making links between triads in network. Human actions can be seen unintended or intended, whereas natural events are non-intentional. Similar events in the network can be differentiated with their position in space and time, and connected events can be separated by time. The event network can be modelled as flow of multiple, interconnected events. In the network events are the way to trace process and change. (Hedaa & Törnroos 2008.)

Halinen, Medlin and Törnroos (2012) state that *event time* can be distinguished from absolute time, viewed as ultimate independent factor used in x-axis (Kavanagh & Araujo 1995, Peters et al. 2012 and Halinen et al. 2012), and seen as social time. They support Peters's et al. criticism that linear time is inadequate when trying to explain business phenomenon. It just separates events from each other making them as unconnected observations. Events are, however connected in social time and receiving their meaning by human connections to past, present and future events in the event network (Hedaa & Törnroos 2008). Thus Halinen et al. also share opinion that events have relative nature in relation to past, present and future. They see that events form the event-time, which emphasizes human perspective of time, and understands time as socially and individually constructed. Halinen et al. suggest using event-time together with standard clock-time to have better understanding of processes in the business networks. Humans notice time flow in respect to passing events. There the nature of an event is critical to understanding of time flow. According to Halinen et al., time flow is not necessarily continuous even if it is ongoing. It is neither necessarily composed of equal intervals, but punctuated by events. Time flow is one directional towards to the future, even if there are cycles of times. Cycles are not repeating of time, but rather time is flowing and cycles of events are repeating in the flow. They also state that rate of time flow can be experienced as quick or slow and even changing. (Halinen, et al. 2012.)

Another aspect of a human and social viewpoint of time is *periods*. Humans use periods, like past, present and future or year, month and week, to categorize the time flow. A period can be seen as socially constructed part of time flow, which has stabilized meaning. Periods are essential for classifying portions of time flow but also understanding clock or calendar time. Usually lengths of periods are unequal, except the periods connected to clock time. Since periods are derived from time flow (part of it), also they have directional nature from one period to another, but also within a period. Periods are used to stabilize the time flow by differentiating the flow into periods or discrete points of time. (Halinen et al. 2012.)

Halinen, Medlin and Törnroos (2012) see that human time, especially time as periods and flow, is a key denominator of processes in business and one of the key concept, which humans use when trying to understand change and physical or social reality.

The process defines actors, activities and resources in the business network at each time. Time and space are constructed in interaction process between the business actors. Both event time and clock time, connected to human time, define how the process is evolving and becomes punctuated in people's mind, and clock time allows synchronization of processes. Combination of time flow and periods provide the rich access to understanding the business networks and relationships. (Halinen et al. 2012.) Interplay between process, business network space and human time is illustrated in the figure 3. It can be seen that human time is also connected to horizontal time concept, referring to past, present and future (Medlin 2004, Mason & Leek 2012), in addition to clock time, which refers to standardized time (Kavanagh & Araujo 1995). Business networks can be studied as snapshots in time.

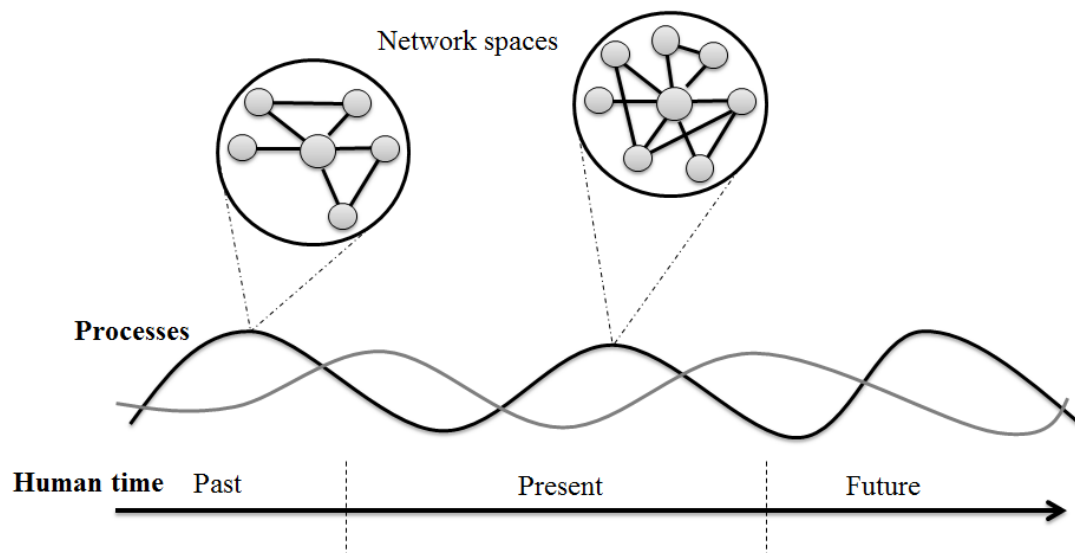


Figure 3. Interplay between process and human time (adopted from Halinen et al. 2012).

Plakoyiannaki and Saren (2006) have researched how temporal factors are incorporated in the CRM context. They share Pettigrew's (1997, p. 338) process definition as "the sequence of individual and collective events, actions, and activities unfolding over time in a context". There is also temporal interconnectedness behind this definition, meaning that process study occurs over time. Like Ancona et al. (2001), Plakoyiannaki and Saren see that time provides a framework to explain and understand organizational processes. They also share Halinen's and Törnroos' (1995) idea of relational time emphasizing social, cultural and environmental frameworks, which make up individual's and group's experience of time. However, since

individuals have subjective experience of time, Plakoyiannaki and Saren propose that past, present and future are not necessarily in chronological order as temporal modes. Instead they are interconnected and partially overlapping. Plakoyiannaki and Saren see that the chronological time conception limits the possibilities to understand complex and dynamic phenomena, like relationship processes. According to them when studying relationships, time shall be conceptualized as evolutionary and focus shall be on non-linear and cumulative learning in addition to retention and selection processes. (Plakoyiannaki & Saren 2006.)

2.3 Branding in temporal framework

This study analyses brand as a dynamic and social process, where meanings associated with brand are generated by internal and external stakeholders through interaction episodes over time. According to Halinen et al. (2012) there is challenge when studying processes: it shall be attended interaction at all levels to explore how processes are enacted through time periods and time flow. They state that it is essential to connect processes from different levels with events for making sense of processes. Another challenge, they mention, is that there are several micro-level processes parallel and creating upper level process. Networks also include multiple actors and their views on time and process. (Halinen, Medlin & Törnroos 2012.) As discussed earlier in this chapter, time is multi layered concept, which entails challenges to understanding temporal phenomenon. In this study focal temporal constructs are combined to study branding. As Halinen et al (2012) state, combination of time flow and periods can provide richer understanding of business relationships and networks. Hedaa and Törnroos (2008) also suggest connecting event to study of process and time in business relationships.

Theoretical framework of this study, represented in the figure 4, is based on the illustration of the interaction episodes connected to the main temporal forms (Mason & Leek 2012) presented in the figure 2Figure 2, at page 29. It combines multiple dimension of temporality by linking horizontal, vertical and standard temporal constructs to interaction episodes. Planned time is left out of this study's scope. This study focuses on branding, which is a social and dynamic interaction process of the brand's stakeholders. The process aspect of branding is emphasized by adding the

process view of time to the existing framework. Although branding process can be seen as cyclic (Gregory 2007), it is represented with process curve (see figure 3Figure 3 in page 32) including interlinked events (Halinen et al. 2013). As Halinen et al. (2012) state, time flow is one directional, even if there are cycles of times. These cycles are not repeating of the time, but rather time is flowing and cycles of events are repeating in the flow. Snapshots of the network space (see figure 3Figure 3 in page 32), which can be connected to the special events in time, are from the stakeholder network of the brand. As mentioned at the beginning of chapter 2.2.1, events are periods required for interaction. Thus interaction is connected to events in the figure 4.

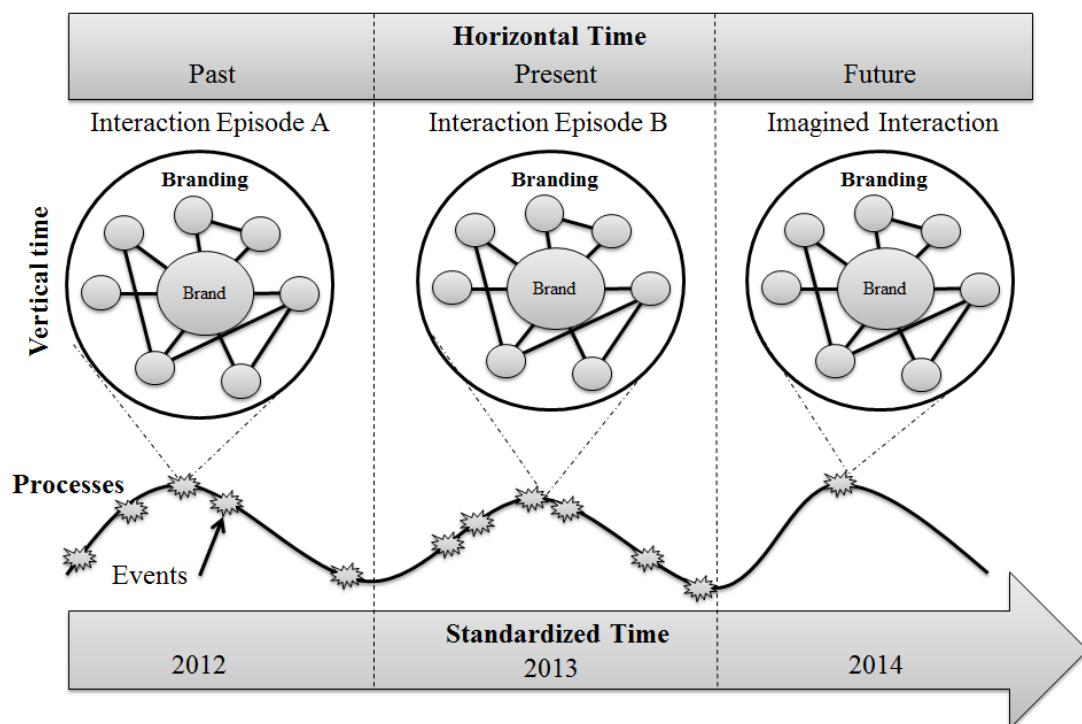


Figure 4. The branding process in the temporal framework.

3 RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter discusses qualitative research as a research method of this study. At first there is discussion about nature and methodological foundations of the qualitative research. Used methodology, integrative literature review, is described at first from the theoretical perspective following the actual implementation process of this study. The search process and description of included articles are presented in own sub-chapters. There is also description of the used analysis method, thematic analysis.

3.1 Qualitative research

Ghuri and Grønhaug (2005: 110) have listed differences between qualitative and quantitative research. Emphasis in the qualitative research is on *understanding* instead of on testing and verification. In qualitative research approach is *interpretation* and rational, while quantitative research has logical and critical approach. Also observations are in natural settings instead of controlled measurement. Ghauri and Grønhaug also state that the qualitative research is rather *subjective* and orientation is often *exploratory*. The perspective is more holistic and generalizations are done by comparison of properties and contexts of individual organism instead of population membership. They summarize that qualitative research is mixture of the rationality, intuitivism and exploratorism. The skills and experience of the researcher play an important role in the analysis of data. They also mention that the qualitative research is often focused on social processes instead of social structures. When comparing qualitative and quantitative research, also Eskola and Suoranta (1998: 14) describe qualitative research, among other views, as subjective, inductive and understanding. Hirsjärvi, Remes and Sajavaara (2009: 161) describe qualitative research aiming to study the phenomenon as holistic as possible. Also they connect subjectivist view to qualitative research due to value premises affecting understanding. Researcher and what is known are connected to each other seamlessly. They state that the qualitative research aims to reveal facts instead of verifying existing statements. Also Hirsjärvi et al. describe the qualitative research as inductive and *flexible*. Methods are qualitative, like observation, interviews or analysis of texts. Target group is usually selected purposefully and cases are seen unique.

Aim of the qualitative research is to understand the world through concepts. It is in line with the general purpose of the research. For achieving this purpose there is need for theoretical concepts in addition to their empirical counterparts. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 74) In academic research findings are not seen as results but instead leadings. For interpreting and combining these leadings it is possible to get beyond them to achieve results. Clear research method is way to distinguish findings and conclusions. The method refers to those practices and operations, which researcher has used to produce findings, but also rules, which are used to interpret findings. (Alasuutari 2011: 78–82.) In generally research methods refer to systematic and focused collection of data for obtaining information from them to solve a particular research problem. Methods differ from data collection techniques, which refer to step-by-step procedure followed to gather data and analyse them for finding answers to research questions. In qualitative research, findings are not arrived by statistical methods or other procedures of quantification. However, that is not only difference between qualitative and quantitative research. They differ also with respect to perspectives on knowledge and research objectives. (Ghuri & Grønhaug 2005: 109.)

Ghuri and Grønhaug (2005:58, 88) have distinguished three types of research design based on the problem structure. When the problem is structured, research can be either descriptive or causal, while with unstructured problems there is need to have exploratory research. Thus when research problem is not well understood, more or less exploratory design is adequate. That approach allows needed flexibility to study. If problem is only modestly understood, the purpose of research is to obtain understanding. According to Ghuri and Grønhaug (2005: 110–111, 202) qualitative research is useful when there is aim to uncover and understand a little known phenomenon since they can lead to hypothesis building and explanations. The aim is to explain different aspects of the problem area. Alasuutari (2011:231) states that the qualitative research is useful in feasibility studies, which can be continued in deeper level later. As described in the chapter 1.1, the research problem of this study is not very well understood and structured, but rather there is little existing knowledge of the phenomenon. Thus, the qualitative research is appropriate approach in this study.

In qualitative research there is more freedom for researcher to conduct research. That allows more flexibility in planning and implementing the research. For that reason,

there is also need to document decisions concerning study, for making it possible to assess the research. As mentioned early, qualitative research is often considered subjective, while quantitative research is seen as objective. However, there is no need to make sharp separation between these two approaches, but instead thinking them as two ends of objective-subjective continuum. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 20–21, Alasuutari 2011: 32) The subjective role of researcher in this study can be seen especially in analysis and interpretation phases. The analysis is done based on researcher's subjective view. However, decision process is described as well as possible to make assumptions affecting to analysis visible.

The main research types in qualitative research are based on the interest of the study. Research can be interested in characteristics of language, finding on regularities, understanding meaning of texts or action, or reflection. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2009: 165–166.) This study is basically finding regularities in the studied phenomenon. Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005: 111) list three major components of qualitative research. One is data, another is interpretative or analytical procedure referring to techniques to conceptualize and analyse the data. The last part is report, which can be written or verbal. Following chapters describe qualitative data and special aspects of analytical procedure in qualitative research.

3.1.1 Data in the qualitative research

Qualitative data is in a simplified manner some kind of *text*, no matter how it is originated. Usually there is rather small amount of cases analysed, but then they are analysed as thoroughly as possible. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 15, 18.) Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005: 204) listed main differences between quantitative and qualitative data. According to them qualitative data is usually based on *expressed meanings* instead of meanings derived from numbers. The collection of qualitative data results to *non-standardized* data, which requires classification into categories, while quantitative data is already standardized. Analysis is done through conceptualization.

One choice in research is to use *secondary data* instead of collecting own data. Examples of secondary data are ready-made statistics, personal documents, organizational documents, press releases and bulletins and former research reports,

which are used in this study. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 117.) According to Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005:91) secondary data is useful when aim is to better understand and explain research problem. Secondary data can be distinguished based on its source. Reports of departments, warranties, invoices, complaints, brochures or catalogues are examples of secondary data from internal sources. Data from external sources can be divided into commercial or published data. Commercial data can be panel research, scanner research, monitors or in-shop research and reports. Into published secondary data are included books and articles, general statistics, industry statistics, annual reports and research reports. In this research, *scholarly articles* are used as secondary data. They belong to the published secondary data originated by the external sources. Origin of the data is meaningful when assessing the reliability of data.

Advantages of using secondary data are saving money and time in addition to easy access to data. However data is collected for another study with different objectives, probably not completely fitting to the research problem. Thus it is important to identify what is studied and what is already known about topic. When using secondary data, it is need to remember that data is collected for different purpose, which may lead to situation that information can be either exaggerated or biased, especially when data is originated by companies themselves. However, information collected by other organizations, can be more neutral including not only positive information but also negative. On the other hand scope of information may be different than the scope of the current research. Also reliability of information shall be questioned.

3.1.2 Analysis in the qualitative research

The aim of the analysis in the qualitative research is to create *clarification* to data and thus *produce new knowledge* about the phenomena under research. The analysis aims to summarize data without losing its essential content. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 137.) Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005: 202) state that the main emphasis in qualitative research is usually on gaining insights and constructing explanations or theory. Hirsjärvi et al. (2009:224) distinguish analysis methods to two main

categories. According to them, analysis can aim to *explaining* or *understanding*. Qualitative analysis is usually used when trying to understand phenomenon.

There are several methods to analyse qualitative data. Hirsjärvi et al. (2009: 224) and Eskola and Suoranta (1998:160) have classified methods to quantitative techniques, *thematic analysis*, typing, content analysis, discursive analysis and discussion analysis. In this research analysis is done using themes. Used method is described more precisely in the chapter 3.5. However, being successful thematic analysis need to have interaction between theory and empirical research, the integrative literature research in this study. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 175.)

According to Eskola and Suoranta (1998: 150–151) there are two alternatives to see *relationship of analysis and interpretation*. On the first hand, it is not possible to distinguish analysis and interpretation in qualitative research, but instead describing deduction process with hermeneutic circle. On the other hand, analysis phase can be seen separate from interpretation at least in technical level. Thus analysis is seen as phase to highlight the relevant part of data by for example coding it and interpretation is done based on the coded or classified data. Also Alasuutari (2011: 39) share the last view describing that reducing the findings and resolving the riddle can be separated, even if not totally. Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005: 206) mention four components of data analysis. The first is data collection followed by partially parallel data reduction and data display. The last part is conclusion drawing and verifying. They see that there is interaction among last three phases. Thus they represent view, which merges two relationships of analysis and interpretations, presented by Eskola and Suoranta (1998: 150–151). Analysis and interpretation are seen as separate phases but interacting with each other. In this research, analysis can be seen as separate from interpretation especially from technical point of view. The first phase of analysis was to separate relevant expressions from the used literature, without making any further conclusions or interpretations from them. Interpretations and conclusions were made based on that separated data. Detailed description of the analysis process is presented in chapter 3.3.

For staying at the scope of the research during the analysis phase, it is need to proceed gradually, and to concentrate on relevant parts of qualitative data. There are

again two ways to do coding or reduction of data in the analysis phase. It can be done without theoretical pre-assumptions or based on selected theoretical point of view. In the last view, data is seen as representative of specific phenomenon and is looked through specific theoretical lens. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 151–152.) In this research, concepts from the theoretical framework are used to keep focus in analysis phase and selected articles are looked especially through concepts represented in the framework.

There are two main ways to draw conclusions in research: *induction* and *deduction*. Induction is based on empirical evidence, while deduction is based on logic. In inductive reasoning general conclusions are drawn from empirical observations while in deduction conclusions are drawn using logical reasoning. Hypothesis are built on existing knowledge and then tested with empirical scrutiny. Hypothesis are either accepted or rejected. However Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005:16) state that processes of induction and deduction are not totally exclusive of each other, but induction includes elements of deduction and vice versa. (Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2002: 95–97, Ghauri & Grønhaug 2005: 15–16.) Tuomi & Sarajärvi (2002:97) also introduce the third type of drawing conclusions: *abduction*. In abduction there are used themes when searching findings from the data. According to the previous classification, analysis of this study is abductive. There are themes based on the theoretical framework used in the analysis phase.

In the qualitative research it is possible to start study without pre-assumptions. That kind of *grounded theory* aims to constructing theory based on the data. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 19.) The theory can have dualistic nature in qualitative research, as a tool or as a goal. When seeing theory as a tool, it is used in making and representing interpretations from data. As a goal, there is need to proceed from individual observations to the general interpretation. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 83.) However, Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2002: 95–102) and Eskola (2001: 136–137) mention three roles of the theory in the qualitative research. According to them, there can be grounded theory, *theory based* or *theory bounded* approaches. They describe grounded theory as a method where theory is derived from the data without defining analysis units beforehand. Theory based analysis starts from the theory, which is tested with the empirical research. Theory bounded analysis is described as analysis with

connections to theory, but not directly risen from it. Theory bounded analysis is close to abduction, while grounded theory is inductive and theory based analysis usually deductive. This research is basically theory bounded in its nature. There is the theoretical framework, which is used to guide the literature research. Studied themes in the literature research are based on the theory, even if conclusions are drawn rather in inductive way inside those themes.

3.2 Theoretical basis of integrative literature review

This chapter discusses theoretical basis of the integrative literature research. The integrative literature review is the only kind of literature review, which allows studying different methodologies together. There can be for example experimental and non-experimental researches or theoretical as well as empirical literature included into same review. It is broadest type of the review methods. (Whittemore & Knafl 2005.) Torraco (2005) has represented guidance to write an integrative literature review. According to him, it is used to review, criticize and synthesize the literature in integrative way for generating new perspectives and frameworks for the topic. He sees it as a distinctive form of research. He states that, in addition to reconceptualization of mature topics, the integrative literature review is useful to aim preliminary conceptualization for new topic. In that case, the integrative literature review is used to generate synthesized model based on existing literature or new conceptual model offering novel perspective. Thus, the integrative literature reviews fits well to this study.

Torraco (2005) emphasizes the importance to follow accepted conventions to conduct integrative literature review. Researcher shall describe how the used literature was selected, analysed, synthesized, and reported. In the literature review the literature can be understood as data of the research. In addition to identify literature, also criteria to include or exclude literature, shall be described. According to Torraco, review can be done using single phase or staged approach. In the staged review researcher at first studies abstracts and then conducts in-depth review for the selected literature.

The literature is examined through particular lens, determined in objectives of the research. This helps researcher to concentrate on specific aspects of used literature. Critical analysis of the literature is part of the integrative literature review. In addition to that, aim is to synthesize the literature by integrating existing ideas and thus create new model for the topic. Both of these aspects, critical analysis and synthesis, mean that the integrative literature review is not just reporting previous literature, but rather a creative activity providing a new framework. The integrative literature research is theoretical research where data analysis is replaced by conceptual reasoning. (Torraco 2005.) Also Whitemore and Knafl (2005) have distinguished the integrative review method from other review methods.

Levy and Ellis (2006) have defined process of literature review sequential steps of collecting, knowing, understanding, applying, analysing, synthesizing, and evaluating the literature. The aim is to provide a firm basis to a topic. Output shall demonstrate some new knowledge about topic. They distinguish literature review to three steps: input, processing and output. Whitemore and Knafl (2005) have proposed methodological strategies to the integrative review method. Literature search process of an integrative review should be clearly documented in the method section including the search terms, used databases, additional search strategies, and the inclusion and exclusion criteria for determining relevant primary sources. Evaluating quality of primary sources in an integrative review is complex. (Whitemore & Knafl 2005.)

Levy and Ellis (2006) have proposed to use peer-reviewed articles as major basis of the literature review for providing sufficient theoretical background and leading to additional references of the topic. Also usage of conference proceedings should be limited to those, which are referenced in articles in quality journals. In addition to quality, it is important that articles are applicable for the study. This is ensured with include and exclude criteria, which shall include only relevant articles related to the phenomenon under investigation. (Levy & Ellis 2006.)

Search process can be done as queries on scholarly literature databases like ABI/INFORM® or Elsevier®/ScienceDirect®. The first technique is keyword searching referring to queries using specific words or phrases, i.e. keywords.

Keyword search can be improved by using backward and forward search for achieving higher quality results. Backward search refers to reviewing references of articles from keyword searching or articles, which authors of those have earlier published. Forward searching means reviewing articles, which have cited already included articles. (Levy & Ellis 2006.)

Strategies to analyse data in integrative reviews are one of the least developed aspects of the process. However, systematic and analytic method should be identified before undertaking the review. Constant comparison method is overarching approach consisting of data reduction, display, data comparison, conclusion drawing, and verification. Extracted data is compared item by item for categorizing and grouping similar data. Subsequently, these categories are compared proceeding to the analysis and synthesis process. There is need to determinate overall classification system for data by dividing primary sources into logical subgroups. Classification can be done based on chronology, settings, sample characteristics or predetermined classification. First data is simplified, abstracted and organized as individual sources. Data display means assembling data from multiple primary sources to subgroups. Then there is iterative process to identify patterns, themes and relationships in data meaning data comparison. The final phase of analysis includes synthesis of important elements and conclusion drawing. (Whittemore & Knafl 2005.) Detailed description of the analysis in this research, is presented in chapter 3.5.

3.3 Search process

Actual search process for this study was conducted at the end of February and the beginning of March in year 2014. Help of information specialist at University of Oulu was used to improve the quality of the search process. Search process was done using two main database interfaces: EBSCOhost Research Databases and ProQuest. Used databases via EBSCOhost were EconLit with Full Text, Academic Search Premier, Communication & Mass Media Complete, CINAHL, Business Source Complete and EconLit. ProQuest databases were ABI/INFORM Complete, MEDLINE®, ProQuest Social Science Journals, ProQuest Sociology, Social Services Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts and Worldwide Political Science Abstracts. Apart from those, search was conducted also in Scopus database.

Search process started with keyword search (Levy & Ellis 2006). There was need to concentrate on specific topic of campaign due to mainly advertising campaign related research. The aim was to study branded campaigns instead of studying advertising campaigns of brands. Two different type of campaigns were selected for getting wider view of phenomenon. Thus used phrases in keyword search were *brand** and *campaign** connected to words *health* or *politic**. Proximity search operators limited to five words (N5 in EBSCOhost, NEAR/5 in ProQuest and W/5 in Scopus) were used to connect health or politic* to campaign. See more detailed in Appendix 1.

In addition to free keywords, also thesaurus lists of EBSCOhost and ProQuest databases were used. Applicable keywords were searched with phrases *brand** and *campaign**. In EBSCOhost Research Databases thesaurus search was conducted in Business Source Complete, Communication & Mass media Thesaurus and Academic Search Premier databases, whilst in CINAH , EconLit and EconLit with Full Text there were no results in thesaurus glossary with keywords brand* and campaign*. In ProQuest databases thesaurus was used with ABI/Inform complete, MEDLINE and Worldwide Political Science Abstracts and campaign* related searches. There were no results with brand*, so free keyword search was used for brand and connected to campaign related thesaurus searches.

At first, there were done separate premier searches with brand*, campaign* connected to health, and campaign connected to politic* (in ProQuest free keyword search campaign* connected to health OR campaign connected to politic*). In ProQuest databases there was need to limit brand* search to articles including brand* in abstract, because of too big amount of results. At the second phase, premier searches were combined for finding articles containing both aspects. Then there were include criteria based limitations used to enhance quality of articles and ensuring that articles are sufficiently up-to-date. Also language related limitations were used.

Pre-defined include and exclude criteria were applied in the search process to improve applicability and quality of the articles (Levy & Ellis 2006). In this study, staged review is used method to include and exclude articles (Torraco 2005). The first phase to exclude articles was during the search process. Articles published after year 1995 in peer reviewed scholarly journals, and in English or in Finnish, were

included to search results. Thesis were excluded. Sequence of search and exclude/include activities is described in figure 5. There can be seen also amount of articles after each phase.

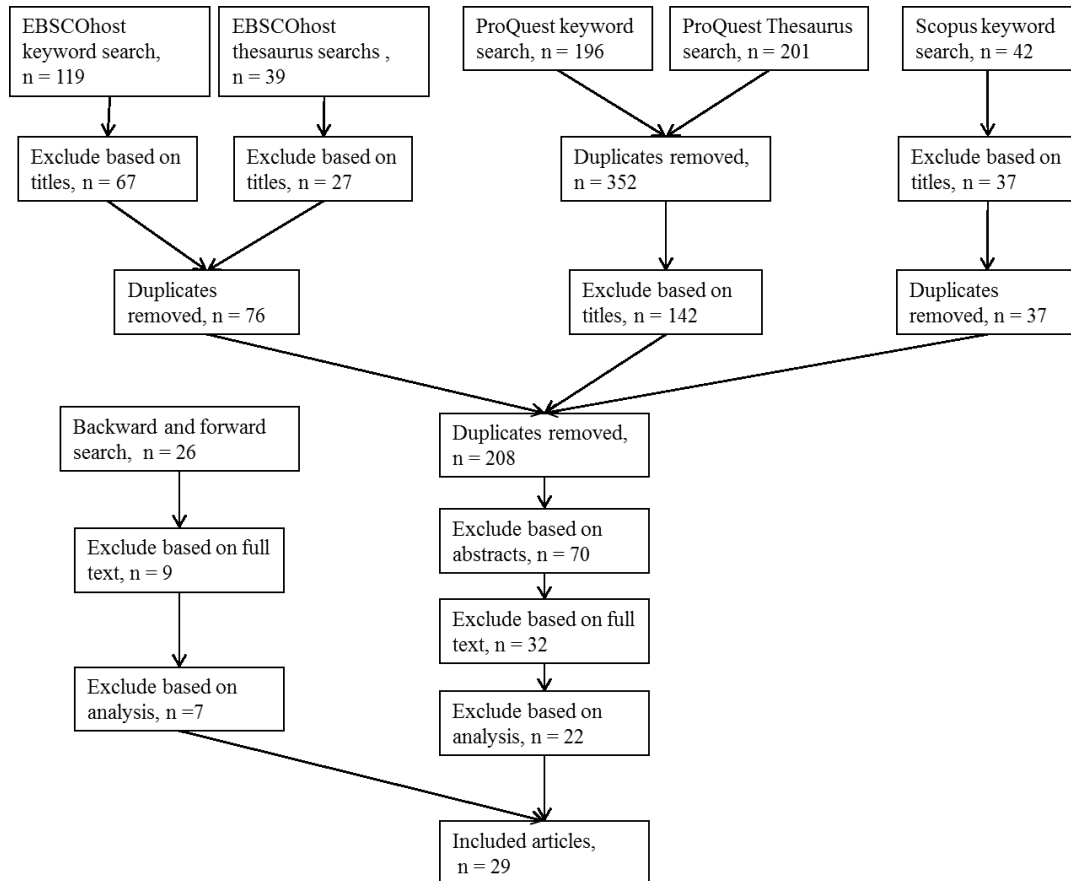


Figure 5. Sequence of search related activities in integrative literature review.

The second phase was to remove duplicates and exclude non-relevant articles based on titles. There was slightly different process with handling ProQuest results compared to dealing with results from EBSCOhost databases and Scopus. Due to big amount of data from ProQuest databases, duplicates were removed before studying article titles. Removing duplicates means excluding exact duplicates of article to have only one instance of each. At this phase articles, which were clearly not in this study's scope, were excluded. Articles were excluded if concerning product or corporate branding, place branding, or advertising campaigns. Also articles describing general politics or health without branding and campaign aspects were excluded. The aim was to implement all phases of excluding carefully and not to

exclude unclear instances too early without being sure that they do not belong to scope of this study.

The next phase of excluding was done based on article abstracts and using the same exclude criteria than in previous phase. However, now there was more information about content of articles available for reasoning exclude decision. For unclear cases, rough look to full text was applied especially studying whether there were branding or campaigning dealt. At this phase there was possibility to exclude articles also using temporal criteria as temporally restricted branding. Articles concerning permanent branding (especially in politics) or missing point of campaign were excluded. In health context there were excluded articles concerning especially brand as partner. Also short articles or articles with poor references were excluded if noticed already in this phase.

In full text phase criteria to include only articles concerning campaign branding and temporal aspect was used more strictly. Many of excluded articles described permanent branding of political parties. Those were excluded due to missing temporal restriction point of view. In health context most of excluded articles were description of health campaign mentioning branding only in minor role. At this phase quality was one of the most impacted exclude criteria. Very short articles or articles with missing or poor references were excluded. Because of the nature of the integrative literature research allowing different type of articles included into same review (Whittemore & Knafl 2005), there were no criteria concerning research methodology.

In summary, include and exclude criteria was:

- + Published after year 1995
- + Peer reviewed articles in scholarly journals
- + In English or in Finnish
- + Both campaign branding and temporal aspect
- Thesis
- Product/corporate/place branding, brand as partner
- Permanent branding
- Advertising campaigns

- No branding and campaign aspects
- Quality criteria (short, poor references)

Backward and forward reference searches (Levy & Ellis 2006) were used as additional search strategies implementing evaluate and include criteria, described earlier, at the same time of search process. Backward search was done based on titles of references of included articles. Again abstracts and full texts were studied for being sure whether article belongs to this study's scope. Forward search was conducted similarly based on included articles, but searching articles, which have used those in their references. However, there were no many articles to include in backward and forward referencing due to duplicates of already included articles or not having both branding and temporal (not permanent campaign) aspect available. Detailed description of included 29 articles is provided in the next chapter.

3.4 Description of included articles

This chapter describes included *29 articles* and summarizes (see tables 1 and 2) them to get better view of the data used in the analysis phase. Articles concerning health campaigns and political campaigns are divided into own tables due to context dependent differences. Common columns in tables are location, research design, reporting of method and amount of references. There are also additional columns describing campaign brand and campaign area for health related articles.

From tables can be seen that there are 14 the health campaign related articles and 15 the political campaigning articles, describing mainly presidential candidate campaigns. Major of the articles, 17 of 29, are qualitative either with well reported method in 7 articles or being descriptive reviews (10 articles) without explicit method definition. In all 12 articles using quantitative approach, method was well reported. Among health related articles methods are better reported than in political articles. There are also two systematic literature reviews included into health campaign articles and two reviews, without systematic method reporting included to political articles. Other articles describe single health campaign or single political campaign period. Amount and use of references is rather good in all articles, 20 of them having more than 30 references.

Most of the studies are located into USA, but in political category there are almost same amount of studies in UK. Weakness of included articles in political category is that all of them describe western democratic system, which represents only one kind of temporal system. They have usually fixed and regular temporal rhythm, which may bias results. That limits the applicability of results as described later in last chapter of this study. In health category there are studies in several health areas, physical activity dominating due to several articles concerning VERB campaign, which is one of most studied branded health campaigns (Bauman & Chau 2009).

Table 1. Summary of health campaign articles included to integrative literature review.

Authors	Campaign brand	Research design	Area	Location	Method reported	References
Asbury et al. (2008)	VERB	Description	Physical activity	USA	no	26
Ashfield-Watt (2006)	5+ a day	Quantitative analysis	Nutrition	New Zealand	yes	24
Bauman & Chau (2009)	review	Systematic review	Multiple campaigns	Multiple locations	yes	95
Baumann et al. (2008)	VERB	Quantitative analysis	Physical activity	USA	yes	37
DeBar et al. (2009)	HEALTHY	Description	Nutrition/diabetes	USA	no	25
Evans (2008)	review	Systematic review	Multiple campaigns	Multiple locations	no	72
Evans et al. (2005)	truth	Quantitative analysis	Tobacco control	USA	yes	30
Evans et al. (2008)	review	Systematic review	Multiple campaigns	Multiple locations	yes	32
Huhman et al. (2005)	VERB	Quantitative analysis	Physical activity	USA	yes	36
Huhman et al. (2008)	VERB	Quantitative analysis	Physical activity	USA	yes	22
Lee & Hecht (2011)	keepin'it REAL	Quantitative analysis	Drug resistance	USA	yes	49
Price et al. (2008)	VERB	Quantitative analysis	Physical activity	USA	yes	48
Stadler & Hlongwa (2002)	loveLife	Observational	HIV/AIDS	South Africa	yes	25
Vallone et al. (2011)	EX	Quantitative analysis	Tobacco control	USA	yes	28

Table 2. Summary of political campaign articles included to integrative literature review.

Authors	Location	Research design	Method reported	References
Baines & Egan (2001)	USA	Qualitative/Grounded theory	yes	25
Gurâu & Ayadi (2011)	French	Qualitative/content analysis	yes	41
Guzmán & Sierra (2011)	Mexico	Quantitative analysis	yes	48
Lloyd (2008)	UK	Qualitative/Grounded theory	yes	55
Marland (2003)	USA	Descriptive	no	68
O'Cass & Voola (2011)	general	Review	no	95
Parker (2012)	USA	Quantitative analysis	yes	51
Phipps et al. (2010)	Australia	Qualitative/Case study	yes	69
Seidman (2010)	USA	Descriptive	no	43
Silverstein (2011)	USA	Descriptive	no	13
Smith (2001)	UK	Review	no	36
Smith (2009)	UK	Quantitative analysis	yes	68
Smith & French (2009)	UK	Descriptive	no	99
Smith & French (2011)	UK	Quantitative analysis	yes	44
Zavattaro (2010)	USA	Descriptive	no	19

3.5 Description of analysis method

The analysis method of this study is described in this chapter. The key characteristic of analysis is to break complex whole into constituent parts, which are sorted and reconstituted through analytical operations. Analysis is used to clarify problem and gain understanding. (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2005: 206–212.) Alasuutari (2011: 38) mentions two part of qualitative analysis. At first data is reduced and then interpreted. Material shall be viewed from specific point of view based on the theoretical framework of the study. It is important to concentrate on relevant parts of data even if different point of view may highlight different part of data. Data is reduced to manageable amount of rough findings, which are combined by searching connections. In the qualitative research, there is need to have connections without exceptions. Possible exceptions need to be proportioned into wholeness by raising abstraction level. (Alasuutari 2011: 38–48.)

Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005: 20– 212) describe components of data analysis, *data reduction*, *data display* and *conclusion drawing*. They describe those as interactive model where each component affects to others. Data reduction is focusing, abstracting and transforming data to be manageable and give meanings. When reading texts, they need to be simplified and abstracted for creating meanings from the mass of words. This is identifying of themes and patterns, which leads to understanding and explanation of phenomenon under study. However, it is need to have careful approach in this phase, because alternative explanations are possible in most cases. (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2005: 206–212.)

In this research data is analysed using three main themes according to theoretical framework of study. These themes were *branding*, *interaction among stakeholders* and *temporality*. Branding was chosen as one of themes for getting rough view about brand definitions lying behind researches. Interaction among stakeholders is essential part of branding in the theoretical framework and is thus used to operationalize branding in the analysis phase. In addition to previous, also temporal expressions were collected separately. These themes are not totally separate, but rather being partially overlapping and inter-connected. Thus same expressions may belong to under several themes. Branding theme included expressions, which explicitly were connected to brand or branding. Interaction was interpreted based on its definition as explicit expressions of interaction, but also communication, dialogue and involvement related expressions. Also stakeholders mentioned in the literature were collected separately under. Theme of temporality included all time related expressions.

At the first phase, articles were analysed from the themes point of view. Findings related to themes were marked to articles as notations. At this phase all articles were analysed separately based on the same rules, described above. Also literature of the health and the political context were analysed separately. Next data belonging to each theme were collected to same table using original expressions. At that phase expressions were removed from the context, but if there was possibility to misunderstand expressions later, short description of the context was added. After collecting thematic results together, they were simplified and abstracted to highlight main point of each article. This was still done separately to each article and to each

theme category. Original expressions were replaced with more common ones, originated from theoretical part of this study, for getting coherent view of themes. Then it was possible to see connections and contradictions between articles in same context, health or political. Analysis results are discussed and described more detailed in next chapter. The last part, drawing conclusions based on analysis, is described at chapter 4.4.

4 RESULTS

In this chapter there are described analysis results. The chapter is organized discussion based on the analysis themes: *branding*, *interaction among stakeholders* and *temporality*. The health and the political related analysis are still separated when discussing each theme. Aim of the chapter 4.4 is to draw conclusions of analysis and combine results of both contexts together. In addition to that, interplay of the theoretical framework and analysis results is discussed.

4.1 Branding in campaign related research

Because of used exclude and include criteria (see chapter 3.3, page 46) in search process, there was the branding view present in all articles. Most of the articles described branding in campaigns at good or moderate level, even if there were also not so well documented branding views, too. Explicit definitions of branding were found over a third part of articles, while most of articles expressed branding connected to marketing actions and communication. Detailed description of branding in included articles is presented next. Branding views can be divided to two groups in both contexts. Brand was seen simplified as a communicative tool, but on the other hand there were more multidimensional views of branding.

4.1.1 Brand as communication tool in the health campaign research

Brand definitions of health campaign related literature are discussed in this section. In narrowest sense, the brand was seen as a *tool* to integrate campaign activities and theme (DeBar et al. 2009, Bauman & Chau 2009, Lee & Hecht 2009). It was used to remind the campaign message and representing campaign's essential characters (Ashfield-Watt 2006, DeBar et al. 2009). Those viewpoints can be connected to definitions of the *brand as an entity*. When defining the brand as an entity, it was considered as a differentiating mark or a label, or an identifying sign. (Davies & Chun 2003, Keller & Lehmann 2006, De Lencastre & Côte-Real 2010, Jones & Bonevac 2013.) Following paragraphs discuss these views of branding more detailed.

DeBar et al. (2009) describe the design of social marketing based communication in HEALTHY campaign. HEALTHY promotes nutrition and physical education in schools. In their study brand is seen as one *principal element of communication* in addition to other core elements (for example posters and banners), messaging, sponsored events, media, theme enhancers and peer communication. They see brand merely a graphic *logo* or campaign *name* even if it has an own *identity* representing the essential characters of the campaign. The aim of the brand, from their point of view, is to provide look and feel, which helps to unify and integrate campaign activities. (DeBar et al. 2009.)

Bauman and Chau (2009) refer to the brand connected to *well-branded messages* or the campaign theme, in their review of mass-media and new-media campaigns promoting physical activity. They recommend the mass-media campaigns to have a clear and standardize brand. Ashfield-Watt (2006) mentioned brand *logo* and *colours* as drawing attention and reminding campaign message, in her study concerning awareness and understanding of campaign 5+ a day. She discusses mainly brand awareness and ways to increase that. In their evaluation of a national anti-smoking mass-media campaign, Vallone, Duke, Cullen, McCausland and Allen (2011) have noted that branding can enhance the public health campaign's impact. Thus all the messages in EX campaign were branded. However they do not define anyhow, what they mean with the concept brand.

Lee and Hecht (2011) mention branding as an effective strategy in health prevention, in their study of mechanisms explaining the brand equity in the keepin' it REAL campaign. They have defined brand as *associations* connected to a product or a service and communicated through a *logo* or a symbol, like Keller (1998). They have adopted Asbury's et al. (2008) view that marketers create the brand and thus define how consumers think and feel about product. However, their view is that the brand is located to consumer's mind. Lee and Hecht share Aaker's (1996) idea of *added value* connected to advantages and benefits, which are perceived through the brand and associated to the product or the service. In the public health context they define brand as a set of health behaviour linked beneficial associations in the individual's mind. (Lee & Hecht 2009.)

Lee and Hecht (2009) describe brand in the keepin' it REAL (kiR) campaign as building positive image and appealing benefits through multiple components, which engage youth. They see the brand logo and name as important elements to capture the theme of the campaign and connect the target audience. They see peer social models as essential part of branding campaigns. The branded messages are delivered by them through branding health behaviour attached to role models. According to their study, branded messages affect through social cognitive process. Associations in the minds of audience are also seen as the essential part of branding in their study. (Lee & Hecht 2009.)

4.1.2 Interactive branding in the health campaign research

The brand was seen also more diverse way in the health campaign related literature. In addition to a *communicative tool* or a differentiating symbol, there was *value adding* views to branding present (Asbury et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008). Also *relationship* with the brand was mentioned (Asbury et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008). Researches describe development of the brand through relationship or *interaction* (Evans 2008), which refers to brand as a *process* (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Gregory 2007, Merz et al. 2009). The multidimensional views of branding are discussed in this sub-chapter.

Asbury et al. (2008) have studied brand development *process* in a youth media campaign, VERB™. They see branding strategy as essential part of VERB™. They describe launching new unknown brand nationally and building brand equity in addition to protecting and maintaining brand's integrity. Also they share Aaker's (1996) definition of brand as a *differentiating* symbol, where positive *value adding* attributes are *associated* to the product. Branding is seen as a process of associating those with the product. They see that by creating the brand, companies define how consumers feel and think when seeing the brand's logo or symbol. Thus the brand is a *symbolic entity* where individuals can project their self-image. Multiple attributes can be associated with the product by branding. The brand can be used to develop *relationship* and emotional connection with consumers. In the health context Asbury et al. replace product with health-related behaviour. (Asbury et al. 2008.)

According to Asbury's et al. (2008) study, developing the brand of VERB™ was iterative and multi-faceted process including study of the target audience and definition of the brand concept. For the VERB™ brand concept there were tested several various alternatives of name and brand attributes. After defining the key attributes, first task was to create brand awareness for VERB™, new unknown brand, through advertisement, partnering and other communication. The VERB™ campaign also paid attention to maintain integrity of the brand by developing guidelines for the partners how to use and communicate the brand. The essential of brand development in VERB™ was to build relationship between the product and consumers. (Asbury et al. 2008.)

Also Huhman et al. (2005) have studied VERB™ campaign effects, but because of their point of view they do not have so explicit brand definition. Instead it is seen that they share Asbury's et al. (2008) view of branding. However, they mention the VERB™ brand several times in their report, referring to it with expressions 'brand name' or connecting it to branded platform for advertising messages. In addition to them, Price et al. (2008) have focused on VERB™ campaign, but describing marketing efforts to campaign's secondary audience, parents. They refer the VERB™ brand mainly similar to Huhman et al., in addition to mention brand identity when dealing with the secondary audience possibility to compromise brand, if connected to wrong reference group. They also studied brand awareness of VERB™ among the secondary audience. Bauman et al. (2008) have studied VERB™ from hierarchy-effect-model point of view referring brand also as name or connected to awareness. By assessing tweens' understanding and awareness of the VERB™ campaign messages Huhman et al. (2008) have referred brand with awareness, in addition to the brand name.

Evans et al. (2005) have evaluated truth™ brand. They define brand, based on Aaker (1996) and Keller (1998), as set of attributes or *associations*, which consumer has for a product or a service, or in that case behaviours connected to truth™. Establishing the high level of brand equity and brand awareness is one of the truth™ campaign's objectives. They share view of the brand being a *symbolic device*, which allows consumers to project their self-image (see also Asbury et al. 2008, Keller 1998) and which *adds value* to the product or the service. Evans et al. emphasize the

development of the truth™ brand and creating appealing identity, instead of just delivering messages related to the campaign topic. They also mention the use of brand name as *distinguishing* feature. Evans et al. (2005) also discuss *process* of building brand. They refer to Aaker's (1996) view that brand building is to establish a distinct and clear image, which *differentiates* the brand. The successful brand creates recognized identity, which is something more than a set of attributes. They also use Aaker's view that in addition to a service or a product, brand can be a person, an organization or a symbol. (Evans et al. 2005.)

Evans et al. (2008) have studied branding in their systematic review of the public health branding. Their point of view is that branding builds *relationships* between customers and products or services, or in the health context with lifestyles. They share view that brand *adds value* to a product by providing benefits in exchange. In the public health context brand can be seen as *associations* connected to the health behaviour or lifestyle. When defining the brand they also share Keller's (1998) notion that brand *differentiates* a product or a service from others, and a symbol is a *tool to communicate* brand value to customers and thereby encourage exchange and build relationships between customers and the brand. However, Evans et al. see that branding is more than communicating with customers and persuading them to purchasing. In addition to that, the brand *positions* products and creates associations. Brand's effectiveness can be measured through those associations, in the public health context based on associations between individuals and branded health messages and adoption of health behaviour. (Evans et al. 2008.)

In their review, Evans et al. (2008) noticed that all messages were branded only in part of the studied campaigns. Half of studied campaigns branded some of the messages and components in the campaign. Relatively few of the campaigns utilized tailored messaging. Most of the branded campaigns in their study were mass-media campaigns but also community outreach and community mobilization type of campaigns used branded elements. Thus, they conclude that branding can be used in the diverse type of communication campaigns and applied to the multiple channels. According to their study branding was used especially in well-funded campaigns, such as HIV/AIDS or tobacco control in addition to communicating nutritional behaviour. (Evans et al. 2008.)

Evans (2008) describes branding as a health promotion strategy in his review of social marketing. He emphasizes *personal interaction* as a basis of brand instead of virtual interaction. Evans represents *relationship* and *value adding* point of view to branding, like Evans et al. (2008). He also sees that brands, as *identifiers* of products, enhance loyalty towards the products or the services. Evans, using Aaker's (1997) idea, mentions the brand's personality dimension to associate and identify consumers with the products or the services. He sees that in the health context branding creates the value for audience by creating positive associations to the health behaviour or health campaign brands. He also describes that brands represent promises, which will be realized to individuals by connected with the brand. (Evans 2008.)

Evans (2008) mentions truth™ as example of a creative branded campaign, which provides alternative behavioural models through advertising and promotion. He lists similar approaches in nutrition, physical activity and HIV/AIDS related campaigns. Branding is used to influence the public debate and thus the public opinion. Many of these campaigns used multi-channel strategy including relationship-building, community outreach and mass-media. He also encourages using co-branding with trusted brands as one of the strategies.

4.1.3 Brand as communicative tool in the political campaign research

Similar to the health campaign literature, there were basically two kind of branding views in the political campaign literature. Simplified views, described in this section, saw brand as a *communication tool* carrying *differentiating* and *identifying* associations (Marland 2003, Seidman 2010, Zavattaro 2010, Silverstein 2011). Again these views can be connected to aspect of brand as an entity (Davies & Chun 2003, Keller & Lehmann 2006, De Lencastre & Côrte-Real 2010, Jones & Bonevac 2013).

Silverstein (2011) conceptualizes the brand in marketing language as parallel to messages in politics in his study of political messages in U.S. year 2008 election. According to him, political campaigns are currently branding their messages. In addition to that, there is possibility to affect also to the opponent's brand. However, he does not define the brand more precisely. Marland (2003) mentions *distinguishing*

and *identification* functions of the brands. He's view is that the brand of a political candidate is seen connected to the umbrella brand of a political party. Each candidate has own campaigns within constraints of the umbrella brand. According to Guráu and Ayadi (2011) political brands are built through campaign messages, which should *individualize* candidates in relation to others.

Smith and French (2011) have analysed changes in the consumer perceptions of the leader brands in UK election by using brand-mapping approach and measuring brand image strength. They see that when choosing among political brands, users use same cognitive processes than with commercial brands. These cognitive processes the connect brand *name* and *logo* to the brand *associations*. They share Guzmán's and Sierra's (2009) view that political leaders can be seen as brands, with consistent and coherent personalities and wider meaning in voters' minds. Thus they see leaders as separate, but important political brands, having an own brand image with associations in consumer's mind. (Smith & French 2011.)

Seidman (2010) instead have a visual point of view to, especially related to the Obama's campaign. He sees that *visual elements* supported the unique positive brand and generated excitement for the candidate. He defines good branding as recognizable and unique, *identifying* a product or a service and connecting it with the audience. It also creates loyalty. According to Seidman, Obama's logo achieved all those functions of the brand. The logo was used to communicate and reinforce the brand. (Seidman 2010.) In addition to Seidman, also Zavattaro (2010) has studied Obama's brand. He refers to the brand with *image* and *symbol* associated with the candidate. He sees that there is danger when relying too much on candidate branding. The brand image is associated with identity creation of candidate. Zavattaro states that if there was overreliance of branding, Obama would become from actual leader to an image of leader, and from political campaign model to image-centric candidate model. (Zavattaro 2010.)

Parker (2012) has studied brand strength of presidential candidates in U.S. using multi-dimensional brand equity construct. He sees that the political candidates have similar role as signalling devices and in consumer's decision process as the product brands have. He has adopted the consumer behaviour brand equity model sharing

idea that brands are *symbols* having special meaning and *value added* to them. Brands have *differentiating* function through their identity. Parker also explicitly notices that *individuals* can become *brands periodically*, which is in line with view of this study. The candidate brands are defined by *associations* connected to the political leaders. He sees the candidate name representing the brand and having associations connected. He connects brand awareness and brand associations to the memory constructs, where associations represent brand related positive and negative information in consumer's mind (see Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Smith & French 2011). Brand associations have significant role affecting to the brand equity. (Parker 2012.) Smith (2001) has studied factors which influence to political parties and their leader's brand image. He discusses importance of building and managing brand over time. He mostly draws parallels between brand building and image development. Like Smith and French (2011), Silverstein (2011), Parker (2012), he has a view that *associations* and *added value* are linked to the brand name and *logo*

4.1.4 Interactive branding in the political campaign research

There were also more diverse views to branding in the political campaign research. In those views, *value adding* role (Smith 2001, Lloyd 2008, Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, O'Cass & Voola 2011) and *interaction* with the brand (Lloyd 2008, Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Smith 2009, Smith & French 2009) were highlighted. These viewpoints come close to the definition of brand as a process (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Gregory 2007, Merz et al. 2009). Views are described more detailed in the next paragraphs.

Phipps et al. (2010) have defined the brand as an *identifiable* service, product, place or person, in their study of consumer's role in political branding. Another essential part of the brand definition was that users need to perceive *added value* connected to the brand. Phipps et al. connect the political party's brand to the corporate brand, whereas the brand of politician is referred as brand image and personal brand equity. They also emphasize the political *consumers' role in communicating* the brand to other voters. So they see that consumers participate to brand building in politics. They separate the brand image of the political party and the brand image of politicians. According to their view, the political brand is derived mostly from

individual politicians brand images, which are developed through interactions with political consumers. However, those are influenced by the brand of the political party in addition to the political climate. They see that politicians still have control over their brand image. This control can be achieved through representing views of community, being seen functions in community, and through other tasks belonging to their representation. In summary, it can be viewed by co-creation of the brand through community group interactions with politicians at local level. Phipps et al. classify brands as ever-changing entities. (Phipps et al. 2010.)

O'Cass and Voola (2011) have adopted resource-based view to describe political party capabilities, which include also political branding orientation. They see political branding orientation as customer-linking capability, referring to *relationship* based nature of the brand. O'Cass and Voola see differentiation as one of the function of the political brand. They see branding as a *process* to generate and sustain shared brand sense and *value* to stakeholders, including voters. Political leaders and a party are seen as a brand. The brand belongs to the most valuable assets and competitive advantage in the political arena (O'Cass & Voola 2011, Vargo & Lusch 2004). *Distinctiveness* of the brand is manifested in *logo*, consistent image and reputation, which are presented through brand communication. They see that in political marketing brand symbolism and value adding are relating to the developing of the key symbolism linked to emotions of voters. (O'Cass & Voola 2011.)

Guzmán and Sierra (2009) have used Aaker's (1997) *brand personality* theory connected to candidate personality framework, in their study of brand image of presidential candidates in Mexico. They see a political candidate as a brand, which voters follow. They define the brand having own values and traits, and built on three pillars: candidate's physical attributes, personality of candidate and candidate's promised *benefits* to voters. The brand image of the candidate is built through *communication* and *interaction* with voters. (Guzmán & Sierra 2009.)

Lloyd (2008) sees a party or a politician as a brand in her study of negative campaigning and its effect on consumer brand *relationship*. However, she mostly does not make separation between those. She states that the role of individual candidates has become recently more important in voting decisions. She also uses the

concept negative brand referring to negative campaign of the political brands. She mentions that there are varieties of ways how electorate *interact* with the political brands. Consumer's choice among brands is seen as a crucial element of their dialogue with the political system. Lloyd has defined brand as a sum of *benefits*, both functional and symbolic, that consumers perceive to *differentiate* products and services from another. She sees that brands have more complex role in the political context than just acting as a badge of identification for brand owner or consumer. The brand equity in politics is seen connected to voter's preferences. She also mentions the brand's role to support consumer's identity definition. Individuals became partisans of the political brands when their identity is connected to the brand's identity. However, she simplifies the differentiation function of the brand by seeing it connected only to colours and logos, carrying special meanings. She classifies logos and colours as basic elements of the political brand identity. The brand identity is seen as a vehicle when communicating complex messages to consumers. From the consumer point of view, brands can be seen as reference points used to minimize risk in choices. Thus a political candidate, seen as a brand, can act as a risk reducer in voter's mind. Brands also facilitate consumers' choice by being mental shortcuts to functional and psychological functions connected to the political system. Essential of Lloyd's study is interaction between consumers and the political brands, similar to interacting with the commercial ones. (Lloyd 2008.)

Smith (2009) and Smith and French (2009) have studied political parties as brands, but at the same time they also mention political candidates or party leaders as brands. They describe interaction between the party brand and the leader as a brand, in addition to consumer's *interaction* with the political brands. Smith mention the political party's brand as umbrella branding in relation to individual politician's brand (see also Marland 2003). Smith and French also mention that using the brands in politics may have unwanted effects like narrowing the political agenda or increasing confrontation. They have consumer perspective to brands, meaning that brand image is located to consumer's memory (see also Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Smith & French 2011, Parker 2012). Smith and French mention brand's influence on consumer's behaviour. They share the political brand definition of Smith and French (2011) and Parker (2012), defining political the brand as a name or a *symbol* where voters attach meanings over time for *differentiating* purposes. Seeing signs of the

brand, like a party leader in television, activates these associations. Consumers perceive benefits in relation to the political brand through interaction with brands. Smith and French (2009) also describe dyadic relationship between the brand and the consumer as part of political brand communities. These relationships are maintained through personal interactions. They also (see Lloyd 2008) mention the self-expression functionality of the brand to project voter's personal traits with brand personality (Aaker 1997).

4.2 Interaction and stakeholders in campaign related research

Campaign related interaction was present in all the included articles with good or moderate description of interaction forms. Most campaign related articles described communication originated from campaign organization even if bidirectional interaction was also discussed. Detailed description of interaction among stakeholders in articles is presented as follows. Descriptions are divided to two groups in both contexts depending on brand's role in communication.

4.2.1 Communicative role of the brand in health campaign research

Vallone et al. (2011) studied EX, a mass-media campaign concerning smoking cessation. In addition to traditional mass-media *communication* tools and Internet, partnership with the national public health organization, corporations and foundations was concerned, especially from funding and service availability point of views. (Vallone et al. 2011.) Lee and Hecht (2011) described keepin' it REAL campaign as school-based intervention, which has used several ways to involve and engage youth. These ways include several *communication* channels and events, role plays and discussions. Also *peer* models were used to present the campaign message through *interaction between stakeholders*.

In her study of 5+ a day campaign, Ashfield-Watt (2006) mentioned television and print media as ways to generate most awareness for the campaign. In addition to that, campaign used branded goods to get awareness. Thus there was multi-media approach used to communicate the brand. Information delivered at schools to the target audience, schoolchildren and pre-schoolers, stimulated *interaction between*

children and their parents when discussing campaign message. Parents also mentioned school newsletters as one *communication* channel targeted to them. According to Evans et al. (2005) the truth™ campaign had *interaction* related objectives, like encouraging youth to pass truth™ brand values *to peers*. The aim of communication with peers is to create diffusion effect and thus spread the campaign message. As *communication* tools, there are mentioned television, nationwide advertisement and creative material used in these. (Evans et al. 2005.)

In summary, brand's communicative role in campaigns described above was to increase interaction among stakeholders. Brand communication was used as way to increase brand awareness and stimulate interaction among peers or at community and national levels. There was mentioned also communication between target audience (tweens) and their parents or peers (Evans et al. 2005, Ashfield-Watt 2006, Price et al. 2008, Lee & Hecht 2011).

4.2.2 Interactive role of the brand in health campaign research

When reviewing mass-media and new-media campaigns, Bauman and Chau (2009) discussed mass-media *communication* in addition to web and Internet based communication used in the health campaigns. The mass-media campaigns tend to use traditional media, like newspapers, television, radio, billboards and public service announcements. Then target is to reach large groups for *stimulating interpersonal communication* leading to change. Also public and private *partners* were used. Especially support from government and community was seen as one success criteria. The new-media campaigns are more *interactive* in their nature. Many of the campaigns are hybrid format having face-to-face components, print components and web-based components. (Bauman & Chau 2009.)

Stadler and Hlongwa (2002) mentioned open *communication at community* and national level as a key success factor for the health campaigns. Campaign loveLive combined media, education, health service, outreach and support programmes to deliver campaign messages and *interact with audience*. It focused particularly on communication and tried to increase awareness and public knowledge in addition to encourage open communication among community members. Communication in the

community and in the national level is explicitly mentioned among objectives of liveLoce campaign. Stadler and Hlongwa also mention communication existing independently of the campaign due to increased awareness of the campaign topic. (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002.)

Stadler and Hlongwa (2002) describe interaction among target audience during campaign phases. After teaser and reveal phases of loveLive campaign, there was still hesitancy to discuss topic, whereas next phases succeed to promote discussion and debate by supporting honest and open *dialog between teenagers and their parents*. The aim of the campaign was also to provide resources and support to the parents to increase dialogue. In addition to dialogue between the teenagers and the parents, the campaign aimed to increase interaction with friends, family, peer-educators and other people. Stadler and Hlongwa state that response to campaign messaging is at interpersonal level. (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002.)

Stadler and Hlongwa also mention that communication strategies focusing on participation provide more opportunities and lead to action. Thus they are keys to effective communication and dialogue. Participation can be achieved with several activities, like participation to planning, design and implementation of the campaign. They also discuss non-message driven interventions, which are referring to peer counselling, forums, motivational training and media education. The phase of building brand awareness was followed by shifting campaign focus to convert awareness into action. This was done by creating national conversation about the campaign topic, which required cultivation of community networks in addition to personal networks. There were media events, like LoveTrain, used to generate publicity and partnership with high profile folk used. Also games and festivals were used. (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002.)

When studying branding in the VERB™ campaign, Huhman et al. (2005), Asbury et al. (2008), Bauman et al. (2008), Huhman et al. (2008), Price et al. (2008) describe VERB™ campaign's *interaction*. The VERB™ delivers its message using *mass-media, promotions* in schools and community and *partnership* with celebrities and athletes. They also discuss commercial marketer's aim to create relationship between the brand and consumers and thus increase emotional connectedness and

involvement. VERB™ encouraged the target audience to participate already in the brand development phase, where plans were evaluated in focus groups with tween audience. Trendsetting tweens and parents were also used to gather ideas. Huhman et al. (2008) highlighted *communication* development, increasing partnership and *events* providing opportunities to physical activities in subsequent years of VERB™ campaign to encourage *participation*. VERB™ targeted campaign message also to secondary audience, parents, for encouraging them to support tweens in physical activities. (Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008., Bauman et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008.)

Price et al. (2008) especially showed up increased *interaction between parents and tweens* due to co-viewing advertisement targeted to primary audience, tweens. Asbury et al. (2008) also discuss need to create innovative ways to provide target audience direct contacts with product (in this context lifestyle change). In VERB™ this was done with outreach activities and events with promotional materials. In addition to that, Bauman et al. (2008) also emphasize synergy between campaign and environmental changes including policies and access to services. (Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008.)

DeBar et al. (2009) mention visual and verbal *communication*, directly and indirectly, in addition to *events* and premiums as HEALTHY campaign communication ways. There was also student *peer communication* used to influence normative student environment and to generate *word-of-mouth* about the campaign topic. Students were encouraged to participate by using student-generated content in campaign communication in the last phases of the campaign. Also input from students and school personnel in addition to campaign staff and expertise was used to develop and implement the campaign. *Participation* was also seen in continuing minor events during the campaign, in addition to special events at the beginning and at the end of the campaign. DeBar et al. explicitly mention the aim to involve students and other stakeholders and to encourage to use participatory approach. Also (see Stadler & Hlongwa 2002) DeBar et al. state that individuals tend to change their behavioural more by discussing of the campaign messages than by just viewing them. Communication of HEALTHY campaign was coordinated in the each phase

according to themes and in relation to other school activities and schedule. (DeBar et al. 2009.)

Evans (2008) and Evans et al. (2008) described relationship between the brand and consumers as a way to increase value of promoted behaviours. Creative messaging, online communication, activities and other special *events* can be used to provide behavioural alternatives. In addition to *outreach* paid *media* they mention earned media and unpaid media and public service announcements as channels. Internet and social media are used to create social networks and social diffusion of messages. They describe aim to influence on *public debate* and policy as one of the targets of the health campaigns. Also partnership with government and community-based groups in addition to commercial business partners can be used. Apart from partnering with the business operators, the health campaigns need to compete with commercial messages representing unfavourable lifestyle. Also indirect messaging through *interaction with parents and family* is mentioned. (Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008.) Evans et al. (2008) highlight participating community members and local staff to tailor messaging and channels to cultural norms and local community. Some campaigns were also classified as community mobilization type.

Common thing in interaction descriptions above was that there were explicit descriptions of interaction between brand and stakeholders presented (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002). Brand's role was more than stimulating interaction between stakeholders through communication. Examples of interaction between brand and stakeholders were use of new media to create social networks (Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Bauman & Chau 2009) and different activities or outreach events (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Asbury et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008). Also participation to branding was mentioned (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008., Bauman et al. 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009).

4.2.3 Communicative role of the brand in political campaign research

Few studies of political campaign research concentrated only on brand communication, while most of them had interaction aspect. According to Smith

(2001) political actors can influence their imago by *communication*. He listed communication related marketing tools as advertising, personal selling, sales promotions, partnership with celebrities in addition to text messages, direct mail and Internet. Celebrities were especially used at election time to increase awareness and improve image by associations. However, Smith states that whatever is success of marketing actions, events are still main determinant of political images. (Smith 2001.) Also Smith and French (2011) have highlighted television debate, advertising and uncontrolled events impact on candidate brands. In debates leading candidates come across reaching wide audience via television. They mention negative campaigning as form of personal attack advertisement (see later Lloyd 2008, Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Silverstein 2011). Events, especially uncontrolled, are those which generate the public debate and media coverage. (Smith & French 2011.)

Silverstein (2011) has discussed both positive and negative campaigning (see also Lloyd 2008, Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Smith & French 2011). He describes mass democracies systems, like US, using multi-channel and multi-modal *communication* to the target audience. He also highlights that each period has its own circumstances also in relation to communication technology. Current campaigns exist in different communicative environment than for example Lincoln's. New technologies have shaped political communication in campaigns in such way that currently there is need to have multi- and cross-media campaigns. Mediating role of press is also mentioned as having critical role when broadcasting messages. He discusses opponents' negative anti-messages as one expression of political interaction. Also reactive campaigning is seen as one form of negative campaigns. Silverstein (2011) sees political life as sequence of public and private staged events, like communicative extravaganzas, which are focused on positive or negative messages. The aim is to develop own positive message and opponent's negative one. (Silverstein 2011.)

4.2.4 Interactive role of the brand in political campaign research

Smith and French (2009) have studied political branding in UK. In addition to *interaction between voters and political brand* they also describe interaction between

party leader, party and its policy. They discuss consumer's memory activation process when seeing party leaders on television or reading them from newspaper. Also brand awareness is affected by seeing the brand on action. Their study also concerns interactions for building relationships between the brand and consumers. Party activists form strongest relationships with political brands in political brand communities, where direct interaction is possible with the brand and with users of the brand. In the political arena, party conferences and constituency meetings are one forum for interaction in addition to *online interaction*. Smith and French also mention Obama's campaign as successful example of online strategy to create social networks among activists and friends of them. These social networks are also potential for local canvassing and for providing benefits to partisan voters, which are increasingly important for political brand relationships in the future. (Smith & French 2009.)

Smith (2009) discusses consumer's level of *involvement* with the brand, which affects to how information is stored and processed in consumer's memory. He also mentions that brands have impact on brand personality through action. As *communication* tools, he mentions only film biographies and advertising, especially when discussing negative advertising towards personality of opponents. He also discusses *interaction* between party leader (as a brand) and the party. (Smith 2009.)

Guray and Ayadi (2011) have investigated *communication* strategy of French presidential candidates. They see that communication with the general electorate, party members, media and funding sources is central to the political marketing. They also discuss *interaction* between political system and media. Guray and Ayadi specify political marketing mix as different compared to classical communication mix, due to negative advertising and influence of media exposure. Central message of the candidate is seen as important element of the campaign. Message can be declined in various textual and visual forms. Internet and viral marketing, in addition to traditional media, are discussed as interactive and real-time tools used intensively in the campaign. People were encouraged to participate using new media interactive tools like, blogs, discussion forums, chat and email. (Guray & Ayadi 2011.)

Guray and Ayadi (2011) describe interaction change over campaign phases. In the pre-campaign period there is interaction mostly with own party members due to candidates aim to differentiate them in the own party. Also interaction with media is increasing. Whilst in second phase, when candidates are presenting their political program, they interact both with the general electorate and the own party members via series of media appearances. The final phase is described as confrontation, and then there is continuous debate between the main candidates and communication has emphasized role included also criticism to the opponent. There is also need to attract new voters. (Guray & Ayadi 2011.)

Guzmán and Sierra (2009) describe current election environment having *mass communication* nature, where various communicative tools, like web pages, social networking sites, blogs and emails in addition to *face-to-face* meeting and traditional advertising, are used to build brand. Agreeing Guray and Ayadi (2011) Internet is mentioned as an *interactive* tool, which provides opportunity to connect with the potential voters. Internet enables bidirectional information flow. Guzmán and Sierra mention negative communication about opponent like others (Guray & Ayadi 2011, Silverstein 2011). (Guzmán & Sierra 2009)

Lloyd (2008) has focused on negative campaigning, mentioned also by Guzmán and Sierra (2009), Silverstein 2011 and Guray and Ayadi (2011). She mentions that there are various ways, how the *political brands can interact with the electorate*. She concludes that respondents interact with the political brands similarly to the commercial brands. Marland (2003) has similar view than Lloyd mentioning that there can be aggressive *interaction between competitors*. He also mentions promotional activities, which are similar to commercial brands. However, Marland mentions that due to periodic nature of political system, there can be time gaps in interaction. (Marland 2003, Lloyd 2008.) O’Cass and Voola (2011) describe promotional activities as facilitators for brand. They discuss brand identity creation and development in *interaction with target customers*. They also connect the value of the brand with interaction between organization and customers. They mention Internet and new technologies usage in campaigning. (O’Cass & Voola 2011.)

Phipps et al. (2010) have studied engaged consumer's *communication* role to political brand equity and described *interaction between them and politicians*. According to them, democratic process is dependent on voter's participation. Highly involved consumers have an important role in communicating brand message to other voters as *peer communication*. They state that political brand image is built through interactions and participation of consumers. In addition to supporting the brand message, consumers can reject it and create own. Also politicians' reactions and responses to interaction have impact on the political brand. Apart from interaction between individuals and politicians there is community group interaction with politicians. According to study of Phipps et al. politicians can build the stronger brand with more interaction with consumers and community groups. The relationship with politicians can be developed for example by attending community functions or giving opportunities to approach. Candidates with strong relationship with communities had intensive interactions and high involvement with them. Also consumers, who had strong relationship with the candidate, helped to develop the brand in community by brand advocating and word-of-mouth. Interaction with the candidate also shifted focus from overall brand of the party to the individual politician. (Phipps et al. 2010.)

Seidman's (2010) point of view is visual design of campaign *communication*. For example a logo can be used in variety of official campaign material, but also spread virally, like Obama's when used unofficially. Obama's campaign has used as successful example of using both old and new technologies, with visuals, and creating social networks with voters. (Seidman 2010.) Also Zavattaro (2010) has studied Obama as a brand. Again there are social media tools mentioned as good example to get people included to conversation and way to *connect with voters*. It was also used for pushing predetermined image to massive audience with little monetary effort. Social media was way to keep *dialogue* active and get citizens feel that they are part of conversation and connected to the candidate. (Zavattaro 2010.)

In summary, mostly there were mentioned interaction with political brand and voters (Marland 2003, Lloyd 2008, Smith & French 2009, Smith 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Zavattaro 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011, O'Cass & Voola 2011). Also interaction among stakeholders as way to build the brand was described especially concerning

active party members contribution to branding (Smith & French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011). Interactive nature of Internet and new media was considered in few studies (Smith & French 2009, Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Guray & Ayadi 2011). Special form of interaction with brand and one stakeholder group was negative interaction between opponents (Marland 2003, Lloyd 2008, Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Guray & Ayadi 2011).

4.3 Temporality in campaign related research

Temporality is not so evidently seen in research papers than branding, since there are multiple expressions related to it. Mainly it is referred with restricted timelines (standardized time) of campaigns, events or different phases of the campaign. Appearance of temporal aspect varied a lot between researches, however all studies included temporal aspect at least at some level because of the exclude criteria (see 3.3, page 46). Descriptions are organized based on the event and horizontal time related discussion, and periodical aspects of temporality in both contexts. However, these dimensions are closely interlinked, and there is not possibility to exclusively distinguish expressions of them from each other. Thus there are standardized or horizontal time and events mentioned also when describing phases or periods of the campaigns.

4.3.1 Events and horizontal time in the health campaign research

Horizontal time was expressed with descriptions of duration of the campaigns and with references to standardized time. DeBar et al. (2009) described HEALTHY campaign, which was the *three year* campaign implemented in five phases across five semesters in a middle school. There were also campaign related events mentioned. *Minor events* were arranged during whole HEALTHY campaign, while *major events* were used at the launch and the end of campaign. The purpose of final event was to remind audience about campaign's goals and encourage persisting behavioural changes initiated by campaign in addition to thank participants about their efforts. (DeBar et al. 2009.) Also Vallone et al. (2011) mention campaign *launch event* in their study of EX campaign.

Bauman and Chau (2009) refer temporal context with phrases *duration* and *persistence* of the campaign. In Evans's (2008) study of children's media use related social marketing campaign temporal aspect can be seen as campaign implementation *timelines*. Ashfield-Watt (2006) uses standardized time referring to introduction of campaign, 5+ a day, at early 1990s. In addition to previous, also Stadler and Hlongwa (2002) mention formal launch of loveLive campaign. In first two year of campaign, majority of audience recognized loveLive brand.

The VERB™ campaign was *launched* at June 2002 (Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2005) for *lasting* approximately 4 years (Asbury et al. 2008). Asbury et al. identified the VERB™ brand development process taken 1 year before the campaign launch. In addition to that it takes time to create awareness for new the rand among the target audience, both primary (tweens) and secondary (parents and teachers). Brand awareness increased at first three years of the campaign, though major increase happened at first year and was quite constant after that. Among secondary audience increase was more significant *during* each year. There was continuing tracking activities during whole campaign, but being more frequent at the first two years. Because of that, Asbury et al. support Bauman and Chau (2009) for having multi-year commitment for developing and implementing effective branded campaign. (Asbury et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008.)

4.3.2 Periods in health campaign research

DeBar et al. (2009) described phases of the campaign in their study of communication design and conceptual underpinnings of HEALTHY campaign. The campaign was organized as five *sub-campaigns* having each an own theme. Each sub-campaign presented sequenced, consistent and repetitive messages related to the main campaign objectives and using the common HEALTHY brand. Some campaign elements varied among *phases*, while some of them, like exterior banners, posters, messages in school premises, peer-communication, premiums and theme enhancers, where present during the whole main campaign. However, content of them varied according to sub-campaign theme. At the beginning phase also interior banners were used to increase campaign awareness. At the last phases students were encouraged to

participate more by taking student-generated media into campaign elements. (DeBar et al. 2009.)

Also Vallone et al. (2011) described distinctive *phases* of the campaign in their study of national smoking cessation campaign EX. At first there were pilot campaigns before the national campaign launch. On the other hand they refer phases when describing different impacts of the campaign to the target audience during first two years of the campaign. According to them the first months of the campaign increase campaign awareness, next there will be attitude change and then behaviour change. They mention that also EX campaign varied advertising efforts across the campaign period. The campaign advertisement reach and frequency was highest at the beginning of campaign to generate awareness. (Vallone et al. 2011.)

Like DeBar et al. (2009) Bauman and Chau (2009) identified use of *sub-campaigns* in their review of physical activity related mass-media and new-media campaigns. According to them, WHO also recommends use of phases and sequential initiatives. Bauman and Chau, like Vallone et al. (2011), describe sequential physical activity related campaign with *phases* of awareness raising, attitude and social norm change, and finally call to action. These phases respond the stages of health behaviour change from recognition, acceptance and understanding, through confidence and intention to behaviour change. So they have adopted staged approach to campaigns. As result of their study, they do not support single shot-term campaigns referring to isolated and not coordinated campaigns without branding, but just delivering the message. (Bauman & Chau 2009.)

In their studies of VERB™ campaign Asbury et al. (2008), Baumant et al. (2008), Huhman et al. (2005), Huhman et al. (2008) and Price et al. (2008) have described *phases* of the campaign. As Bauman and Chau (2009) and Vallone et al. (2011), Huhman et al. (2005) and Bauman et al. (2008) identified three phases of the campaign process from initial awareness through attitudinal change towards behavioural change. They suggest having mid-point goals for phases. At the *first phase* after the launch, there was need to create awareness for the campaign among primary (tweens) and secondary (parents) audience with advertisements and associating the VERB™ brand with other already popular brands (Asbury et al.

2008, Huhman et al. 2005, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008). According to Bauman et al. (2008) mass-media with large budget was major component used to communicate in the first year of the VERB™ campaign. During the first year, focus of advertising was on influencing social norms rather than changing attitudes. Amount of dialogue in first year advertisement was smaller than in later years. (Bauman et al. 2008.)

The campaign message and media mix of VERB™ developed after first year to appeal another segment than in the first year, and to encourage participation (Huhman et al. 2005, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008). Promotions at schools began after the first campaign year (Asbury et al. 2008). In addition to that local programs and events were important in the *later years of the campaign*, when focus of the VERB™ was to create practical and attractive opportunities for activity (Bauman et al. 2008). Also partners were adjusted to fit better to the new target segment. Inclusiveness and diversity were emphasized in mainstream communications in subsequent years of the campaign. (Huhman et al. 2008.)

There was significant change in communication to the secondary audience of the campaign. Visual branding elements were not used after first year in communication targeted to the parents. That is because there was possibility to affect unfavourably to brand identity by connecting the brand to too old reference group. (Price et al. 2008.) Popular athletes and celebrities were engaged to VERB™ campaign throughout it. Also advertisements were consistent with the VERB™ brand at all stages of the campaign for preserving its brand equity. Messages were delivered to all target groups even if some of them were emphasized in the different phases of the campaign. (Asbury et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008.)

Ashfield-Watt (2006) has studied 5+ a day –campaign. After few years of launch, the campaign got an own logo, for getting wider awareness among consumers. Increasing awareness was the first step in the campaign, like also Asbury et al. (2008) mentioned. There was significant increase of awareness during the first years of the campaign. She also mentions *pre- and post-campaign periods*.

When describing aims of loveLive campaign also (see Bauman et al. 2008, Bauman & Chau 2009 and Vallone et al. 2011) Stadler and Hlongwa (2002) mention identification and awareness as first aims of the campaign, followed by engagement, dialogue and debate among stakeholders leading to behavioural change. Stadler and Hlongwa described loveLife's first year focusing on creating brand awareness. LoveLive used a four *phase* multi-media approach. The campaign started with teaser designed to create curiosity and anticipation, and followed by a reveal campaign, which was consistent with the liveLove brand. In next phase, called Phase II, use of media, including TV series, and advertisement were increased. Also talk line was introduced to encourage audience to interaction. At last phase, phase III, media was still used with new themes and new TV series was launched. However, Stadler and Hlongwa mention that teaser and reveal phases resulted to low recall and failure to connect them with the broader campaign in phases II and III. The phase II had better success regarding to recall and promoting debate and discussion. There were own themes for each phase and also media targeting was adjusted if needed. (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002.)

4.3.3 Events and horizontal time in the political campaign research

In their study of communication strategies in French presidential election, Guray and Ayadi (2011) refer to temporality with expressions '*before*' and '*during* the election campaign'. Guzmán and Sierra (2009) mention the more intensive and aggressive nature of campaign *during* last months. Also Zavattaro (2010) and Smith and French (2011) used *duration* of the campaign as temporal expressions in the study of the Obama's brand. They referred implicitly that there are *starting* and *ending points* of the campaign. Lloyd (2008) mentions *time constraints* connected to General Election period and *limited time frame* of the campaign. She distinguishes the short-term gains and long-term impacts of negative campaigning. Also Parker (2012) makes difference between permanent long-term campaigning of political parties and short-term and periodical branding of candidates as individuals, like Marland (2003), Guray and Ayadi (2011) and O'Cass and Voola (2011). Referring to candidate's campaign, Parker uses phrase *during* like others (Zavattaro 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011). In addition to Zavattaro (2010) and Smith and French (2011), Smith and French (2009) have mentioned *duration* of general election or campaign in their

study of UK political brands. They also mention that political brands are developed over time by consumers attaching meaning to the brand symbols and names over time.

In Guray's and Ayadi's (2011) description of campaign, *events* are mentioned as defining limits of campaign phases. The second phase of the campaign started from official party nomination and ended to the first round's results. Also the Election Day was mentioned as culmination point of the campaign. They also refer to political events occurring in the specific period of time. Trend of those events, like candidate nominations, TV debates or political program presentations, is accelerating towards the Election Day. In the last part of the campaign period, frequency of events was significantly higher than at the early days of the campaign. Guray and Ayadi (2011) mention political communication's continuous nature, which refers to continuous time (Ancona et al. 2001, Quintens & Matthyssens 2010), and discuss long-term strategic perspective of political marketing, even if their study focused on the restricted campaign period prior to 2007 election. (Guray & Ayadi 2011.)

When studying analogy to selling candidates like soap, Marland (2003) compares elections to purchases, which occur every four or five years in fixed periods. Between these *events*, there are periods with fluctuating activity. Silverstein (2011) mentions elections as complex *events* located to electoral cycles. He also states that every cycle has its own historical circumstances partially due to accidental events and political climate. There are also public and private political events connected to campaigns, and thus politician's life can be seen as sequence of events punctuated by elections.

Smith (2001) also mentions the *launch* of the campaign. He describes *events* impact on politician's and parties image, stating that in the political context they have greater impact than in the business. Length of impact of events to the brand image also varies depending on the event type. However, he mentions that it is not possible to show direct causality between event and image changes, even if there is strong evidence existing. According to him, many of these events are uncontrollable and may have negative impact on image. One example of positive uncontrollable events, he mentioned, is surprising appearance of a celebrity to the party's office. He

distinguishes events to political and politically related for separating events not originated by official political system but affecting to it (for example events in politician's family, previous example of an uncontrollable event or events in foreign countries affecting to the political system). (Smith 2001.)

According to Smith and French (2011), a campaign has single *starting* and *ending points*. Their study concerns the period between announcements of election to the Election Day. They also describe *political events* as part of the campaign, distinguishing uncontrolled events, sometimes damaging ones, from planned ones. Smith (2009) has described impact of *controllable* and *uncontrollable events* to the brand image. With controllable events, he refers to planned and scheduled political events, whilst uncontrollable events are in relation to political system but happen accidentally (see example of Smith 2001). Event's impact to the brand image depends on the media coverage of them, since brand image building requires right messages communicated over time. Like Smith and French (2011) and Guray and Ayadi (2011), also O'Casey and Voala mention *events* and movements as part of the campaign.

4.3.4 Periods in political campaign research

Guray and Ayadi (2011) describe *pre-campaign period* of studied election relatively long, even if there was also difference regarding to that between two main candidates. They define pre-campaign period starting at the point when candidates were known by public or appealed on the political scene. They separate *three main phases* of the political campaign. Phases start from party nomination of the candidate, continue with the presentation of the political program of each candidate, and are finally leading to the confrontation between main candidates at second round. They also describe communication strategy applied by candidates as coherent dynamic process, which integrates central messages and media mix used in three main stages of campaign. Difference between candidates was also seen in relation to message usage during the phases. Some of them used the same message and posters with small variations during the whole campaign, whether others changed slogans or visual look and feel between phases. There were also identified changes in media-

mix when moving from a phase to another. Increased use of channels enabling interaction was seen at the last phase. (Guray & Ayadi 2011.)

Guray and Ayadi also presented different communication objectives for each phase. During the first phase, aim was to differentiate candidate's image and clarify political vision within the own party. At the same time candidates started to progressively increase their media exposure to achieve public recognition and attention. During the second phase from official party nomination to the first round's result, there was time to present own political program appealing to party members and the general electorate. Candidates used media appearances for that purpose. The final confrontation phase, after results of the first round, emphasized attraction of other candidates' voters. At this phase, communication was partially criticism to the other candidate. It was also essential to use brand for individualizing candidate in relation to other candidate. Discourse between candidates becomes more extreme when campaign progress. Peak of the final phase is reached just before the Election Day in the TV debate. Even if describing each phase separately Guray and Ayadi state that phases are not absolute, but instead elements of each phases can be seen in others. (Guray & Ayadi 2011.)

Marland's (2003) temporal view to the campaign is to bring out *repetitive* and *periodical* aspect of the political system. He mentions that election campaigns are occurring short-term with little preparation time. He describes election *cycle* as being stop-and-go type. He states that periodical nature of political system, also affects to relationships, because of timely gaps between interactions. Like Guray and Ayadi (2011), also he refers to long-term democratic objectives of parties. (Marland 2003.) In addition to previous researchers, Phipps et al. (2010) describe process of electioneering in addition to formal campaign *period* and electoral *cycle*. Like Guray and Ayadi (2011), he brings out continuing nature of political environment.

Seidman (2010) describes importance of Obama's visual campaign during the primary race *before the official campaign period*. There is also used phrase 'primary battle' referring to that *phase*. He also presents that amount of media usage was highest just before the Election Day. Obama's campaign was more positive than opponent's one during the final month of the campaign. However, there was

considerable boost given by TV spots at the end of the campaign. (Seidman 2010.) Parker (2012) discusses brand awareness and brand equity development over time and in different *phases* of campaign or in early stages of the public campaign. In addition to that, he refers to campaign cycle occurring every four years.

Also Silverstein (2011) describes *regular cyclic* nature of political system, like Marland (2003) and Parker (2012). Since located in U.S. they see political system as four-yearly cyclic, which culminates each time to the Election Day. Silverstein uses ice-hockey regular season and playoff anomalies to describe *phases* of the election process. He distinguishes the primary campaign and the national campaign of the candidate referring to same than Guray and Ayadi (2011) with first two phases of their description. Like Seidman (2010) also Silverstein highlighted negative campaigning at the end of campaign. However, as opposite to Seidman, he point out that also Obama used negative messages in his campaign, but as humorous contrasts to his issues. Anyway, there was change in tone of messages and intensity of the campaign just before the first debate. (Silverstein 2011.)

Smith's (2001) study concerns the brand image change over time in UK 2001 context. He has studied political brand's image change during the administrative *period* between two elections. He refers to the official or actual campaign period, meaning last part of administrative period. He mentions that actual campaign period related to year 2001 election was eventful. (Smith 2001.) Smith (2009) mention that use of advertising is usually concentrated on the campaign *period* of general election referring to period prior Election Day. Smith and French (2011) have analysed changes in consumer's perceptions of the leader political brands at the beginning and the end of the political campaigns in UK 2010 General Election. Thus, their study concerns the *period* between announcements of election to the Election Day. They refer the party brand being continuous over long periods due to permanent campaign of them, whereas party leader's brand is connected to the campaign before the election time. They also refer to the *stages* of election, even if not describing them more. However, they mention that candidates concentrate on narrower group of ideas when the Election Day neared. According to their study, brand image changes over time due to branding strategy. (Smith & French 2011.)

4.4 Branding in temporally restricted campaigns

Here are described the main findings from the articles included to the integrative literature review. Discussion is concentrating on the matters, which were present in the most of articles. Synthesis of studied themes, *branding*, *interaction among stakeholders* and *temporality*, is made between the health and the political context. Also interconnections between themes are discussed. At first branding theme is introduced to get reconstituted view about branding in the campaigns. Then there is presented description of interaction among stakeholders in the campaign context. It is followed by discussion about temporal aspects related to branding and interaction. For getting better view of the nature of interaction, also stakeholder's roles are discussed in the main level. Finally there is synthesis of campaign related branding, including interaction and temporal content, connected to the theoretical framework of this study. Aim is to get deeper understanding about branding in temporally restricted campaigns.

4.4.1 Summary of branding aspects in campaign research

Table 3 summarizes different views of branding in campaigns related literature. The most important aspect of branding in both contexts was to see the brand as *adding value* and generating benefits to customers. Brand was also seen as *identifying* and *differentiating* through associated attributes. The name or symbol of the brand was seen as a *tool to communicate* those attributes and added value. Also *relationship* and *interaction* aspects were present in the included articles. Branding views were not representing only one aspect of branding but instead of that they were combinations of these dimensions, as seen in table 3. Studies also used the broad definition of the brand seeing it as person in political context (e.g. Evans et al. 2005, Phipps et al. 2010) or as life-style in health campaign context (e.g. Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evans et al. 2008).

Table 3. Branding dimensions in campaign related research.

Dimension of branding	Related researches
Tool to communicate	Smith 2001, Huhman et al. 2005, Ashfield-Watt 2006, Asbury et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, Bauman & Chau 2009, Bauman et al. 2009, DeBar et al. 2009, Smith 2009, Smith & French 2009, Seidman 2010, Zavattaro 2010, Lee & Hecht 2011, Smith & French 2011, Parker 2012
Identifying and differentiating role	Marland 2003, Evans et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Lloyd 2008, Smith 2009, Smith & French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Seidman 2010, Gurâu & Ayadi 2011, O'Cass & Voola 2011, Parker 2012
Added value	Smith 2001, Asbury et al. 2008, Evans et al. 2005, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Lloyd 2008, Phipps et al. 2010, O'Cass & Voola 2011
Relationship and interaction	Asbury et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Lloyd 2008, Price et al. 2008, Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Smith 2009, Smith and French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, O'Cass & Voola 2011

When summarizing classification of chapter 4.1, there can be distinguished two views for branding in campaigns related research. These views were common in both contexts. On the simplified manner the brand was considered as a communicative tool (Marland 2003, DeBar et al. 2009, Bauman & Chau 2009, Seidman 2010, Zavattaro 2010, Silverstein 2011). Aim of branding was to create distinguishing identity to the brand, either to health behaviour or a politician. In these views, brand logo, symbol or name had emphasized role instead of value connected to the brand. The brand was connected to branded messages or events in the campaign, aiming to connect different elements of the campaign together and reminding the campaign messages (Ashfield-Watt 2006, Bauman & Chau 2009, DeBar et al. 2009, Vallone et al. 2011). Also political messages were branded similarly to health campaign messages (Seidman 2010, Silverstein 2011, Gurâu & Ayadi 2011). These viewpoints can be connected to the entity view of branding (Davies & Chun 2003, Keller & Lehmann 2006, De Lencastre & Côte-Real 2010, Jones & Bonevac 2013).

The other view emphasizes interactive role of branding in addition to seeing symbol or logo as a communicative tool. Many of these researches described added value in relation to the brand (Asbury et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Lloyd 2008, Phipps et al. 2010, O'Cass & Voola 2011). There was also a process view of branding present in these articles (Asbury et al. 2008). The process was also connected to development of the brand together with stakeholders. These views

mentioned differentiating and identifying role of the brand similarly to more simplified views (Asbury et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Lloyd 2008, Smith 2009, Smith & French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, O’Cass & Voola 2011). Interactive views of branding can be connected to definition of the brand as a process (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Gregory 2007, Merz et al. 2009).

So, based on the integrative literature view, the brand, in its broad meaning, can be seen as a set of associated attributes adding value, identifying and differentiating products or service. Association and value adding are happening through interaction and relationships. The brand name and symbol can be seen as a tool to communicate associations and value. At the beginning of this study, the brand was defined as a dynamic and social process, where value adding and differentiating meanings are generated through stakeholder interaction over time. Even if branding view in the campaign related research is not exactly same than the process view of branding in this study, there are same elements present. However, instead of being in the central of the brand definition, the process is seen as way to develop the brand. Strong stakeholder view is nevertheless present in studied articles.

4.4.2 Stakeholders in the campaign research

Part of the articles located the brand to the consumer’s mind (Lloyd 2008, Smith 2009, Smith & French 2009, Lee & Hecht 2011), which of course represents only part of the stakeholders, but anyway broadens the brand development from the brand owner to wider aspect. There was mentioned wide range of stakeholders in articles under study. The summary of presented stakeholders in the campaign related research is presented in table 4.

Table 4. Stakeholders in campaign related literature.

Stakeholder	Related research
Target audience	Smith 2001, Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Evan et al. 2005, Ashfield-Watt 2006, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Lloyd 2008, Price et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Smith 2009, Smith & French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Seidman 2010, Zavattaro 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Lee & Hecht 2011, O’Cass & Voola 2011, Silverstein 2011, Smith & French 2011, Vallone et al. 2011
Parents, family, friends	Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Huhman et al. 2005, Ashfield-Watt 2006, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Lee & Hecht 2011
Peer models	Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Evan et al. 2005, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Vallone et al. 2011
Partners	Smith 2001, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, Bauman & Chau 2009, Vallone et al. 2011
Competitors	Marland 2003, Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Lloyd 2008, Smith 2009, Guray & Ayadi 2011, O’Cass & Voola 2011, Silverstein 2011
Community	Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Evans et al. 2008, Bauman & Chau 2009, DeBar et al. 2009, Smith & French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Zavattaro 2010
Government	Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008, Bauman & Chau 2009, Vallone et al. 2011
School personnel	DeBar et al. 2009
Campaign staff, experts	Asbury et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Seidman 2010, O’Cass & Voola 2011, Silverstein 2011, Zavattaro 2010
Party activists	Smith 2009, Smith & French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Silverstein 2011
Media	Asbury et al. 2008, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Vallone et al. 2011

When looking at common nominators of stakeholders, they are divided in this study to eight main groups based on their relationship with the brand and the target audience. In addition to *target audience*, other groups are *inner circle of target audience* or *brand*, *extended circle of audience* and *brand*, *partners*, *competitors* and *environmental stakeholders*. Stakeholder groups are presented in the figure 6. These groups are not totally separate, but rather partially overlapping. Same stakeholders can belong to the different groups depending on the viewpoint. However, these groups form an interaction network related to the brand. Stakeholders are grouped in this study for making it easier to describe interaction among stakeholders over time.

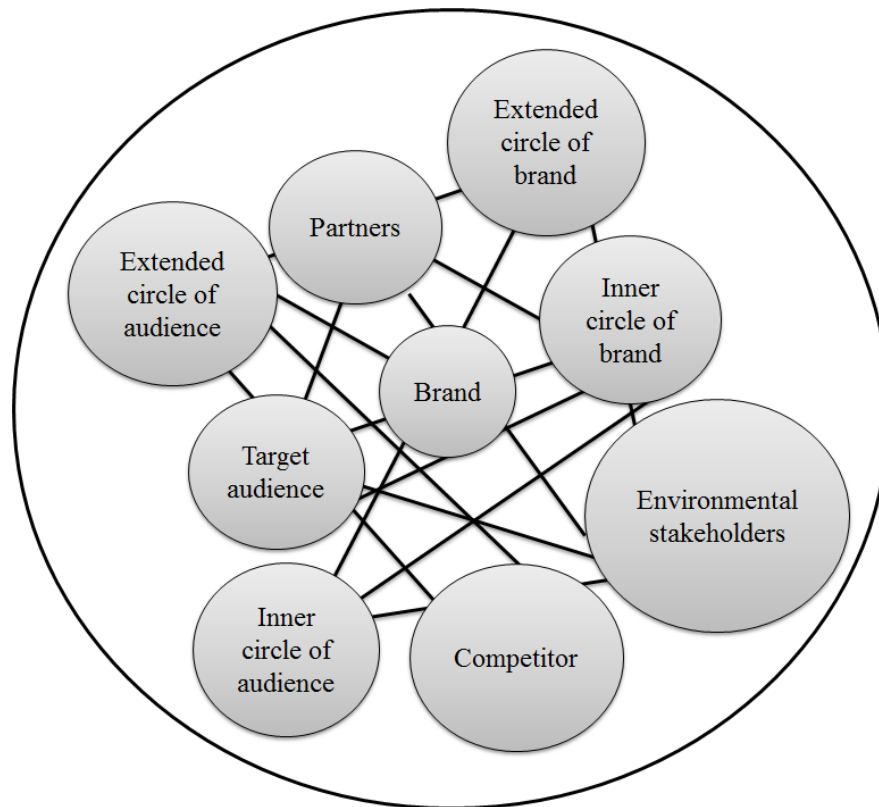


Figure 6. Stakeholder groups of the brand in the campaign context.

The target audience means customers, referring to consumers in the health campaigns and voters in the political context. *The inner circle of the target audience* contains people, which are most powerful individuals connected to the target audience, i.e. family members and friends. This group is quite often a secondary audience of the campaign due to possibility to affect to the target audience. *The inner circle of the brand* depends on the context. In the health campaign, there are no personal stakeholders of the brand as opposite to the political context, where politicians are seen as brands. In the health context the inner circle of the brand includes campaign staff and experts. In the political context it includes also party organization and active party members, in addition to the inner circle of the politician, like family members and friends. In most cases the inner circle of the brand is not seen as audience, but rather part of the campaign organization at least in supportive role. They can also act as peer-communicators with possibility to create value to the brand.

The extended circle means people and organizations near to the *audience* or the *brand*, but without personal relationship. It refers to community members, which can be divided to supporters and others in the both contexts. In the political context supporter are voters of the candidate and others can be seen as potential voters. The extended circle can be considered as audience in relation to the brand. *Partners* have impact on the brand's value due to supportive role, whereas *competitors* may have opposite role. There are variety forms of partners depending on context and interaction. Examples of partners are other brands (co-branding), community members acting as partners (for example school personnel or local staff) or role models, which may be peer-educators, celebrities and athletes. In the health context, competitors are alternative lifestyles or competing commercial brands (Evans 2008, Evans et al. 2008,). *The environmental group* is most loosely connected to the brand, but belongs to stakeholders because of participating to the brand related interaction. Those are policy, government and general political system, media and funding sources in the both contexts. In the health context, also health organizations belong to this group.

4.4.3 Interaction in the campaign research

Various forms of interaction were presented in articles are summarized in table 5. It can be seen that main form of interaction is media communication, including television, radio, Internet, printed media, etc. Also promotions were highlighted separately from other forms of interaction. Events were outreach events or other types of branded events aiming to encourage target audience to participate. (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Asbury et al 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Lee & Hecht 2011.) These three types of interaction can be seen as interaction with the brand, while peer interaction and partner interaction are interaction between stakeholders.

Table 5. Forms of brand related interaction in the campaign research.

Form of interaction	Related research
Media communication	Smith 2001, Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Marland 2003, Evans et al. 2005, Huhman et al. 2005, Ashfield-Watt 2006, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evan et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, Bauman & Chau 2009, DeBar et al. 2009, Guzmán & Sierra 2009, Smith 2009, Smith & French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Seidman 2010, Zavattaro 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Lee & Hecht 2011, O’Cass & Voola 2011, Silverstein 2011, Vallone et al. 2011, Parker 2012
Promotions	Smith 2001, Marland 2003, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Evan et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, Lee & Hecht 2011,
(Outreach) events	Smith 2001, Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Evan et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Smith & French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Lee & Hecht 2011, Silverstein 2011,
Peer interaction	Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Evans et al. 2005, Huhman et al. 2005, Ashfield-Watt 2006, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Smith & French 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Seidman 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Lee & Hecht 2011,
Partner interaction	Smith 2001, Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, Bauman & Chau 2009, Vallone et al. 2011

As described in chapter 4.2, interaction can be divided into interaction, where the brand is participating, and interaction among other stakeholders but related to branding. Interaction with the brand includes marketing communication through various media tools, also interactive. There are also branded outreach events and other forms of direct contact with the brand and stakeholders. Interaction can happen also between stakeholders like peer communication, public debate or discussion among stakeholders. Also that kind of interaction is in crucial role in branding and achieving campaign goals. Thus the brand’s role in those cases is to stimulate interaction among stakeholders.

Many of the articles emphasized participation and partnership in brand building (Smith 2001, Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Evan et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, Bauman

& Chau 2009, DeBar et al. 2009, Smith 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Lee & Hecht 2011). Brand development was seen as a process, in line with this study's definition of branding. Communication and partnering, as part of interaction, were included. One important aspect was to create awareness and recognition to brand through communication and partnering, i.e. interaction. Creating awareness was especially connected to temporality aspect, seeing it as first task after brand development (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Evans et al. 2005, Ashfield-Watt 2006, Asbury et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Seidman 2010, Parker 2012). There was also mentioned that meanings are associated to brand over time (Smith 2009, Smith & French 2009).

4.4.4 Temporality in the campaign research

As summarized in the chapter 4.3 the one finding related to the temporal aspect of branding in the both contexts, was that clear *campaign period* exists, with *pre-* and *post-campaign periods*. Restricted timeframe of the campaign was also mentioned in the descriptions of campaign durations. (Smith 2001, Marland 2003, Ashfield-Watt 2006, Asbury et al. 2008, Evans 2008, Lloyd 2008, Bauman & Chau 2009, Smith 2009, Phipps et al. 2010, Seidman 2010, Zavattaro 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Smith & French 2011, Parker 2012, Vallone et al. 2011.) The pre-campaign period was described as planning time having interaction only with restricted group of stakeholders, mainly with the inner circle of the brand and partners. On the other hand, interaction in the post-campaign period exists only between stakeholders, without the brand participation. However, value of the brand depends on that interaction.

Another main finding was that, no matter of the campaign context, there can be found distinguishable *phases* during the campaign period (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Bauman & Chau 2009, Seidman 2010, Vallone et al. 2011, Silverstein 2011, Parker 2012). There may be own objectives, themes or messages in the each phase connected to varying communication channels or target audiences at each phase. Some elements of the campaign communication, like partnership and usage of advertising, stayed same in all phases (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Asbury et

al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, Price et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009), while other varied.

Identified *phases* are slightly different in the health and the political context. In *health context* targets of those are related to behavioural change, objective of the health campaigns. At first there is need to *increase awareness*. Next aim is to create *change in attitudes*, achieved via interaction among stakeholders (DeBar et al. 2009). The final phase is targeting to *changes in actions*. These phases arise in health related to reach and frequency of advertisement. During the first phase mass-media communication is used to reach large populations. At first phase interaction is mainly *brand originated* and amount of *dialog is low*. Also the brand related interaction among stakeholders without the brand participating is low at first and there may be hesitancy to discuss campaign topics especially sensitive ones. (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Bauman et al. 2008, Vallone et al. 2011.)

At the second phase aim is to *increase interaction among stakeholders* and generate more discussions both in the inner circle of target audience, in extended circle (community level) and in the environmental group (nation-wide debate). Aim of the final phase is to change behaviour. This is tried to achieve with increased frequency of campaign related *branded events* and other ways to encourage participation. There is also need to remind the campaign message and encourage persisting changes to the post-campaign period, when there is no interaction with the brand. In the health context there are no official turning points from the phase to another, instead lines between phases are not clear. Interaction in the phases is described in the figure 7.

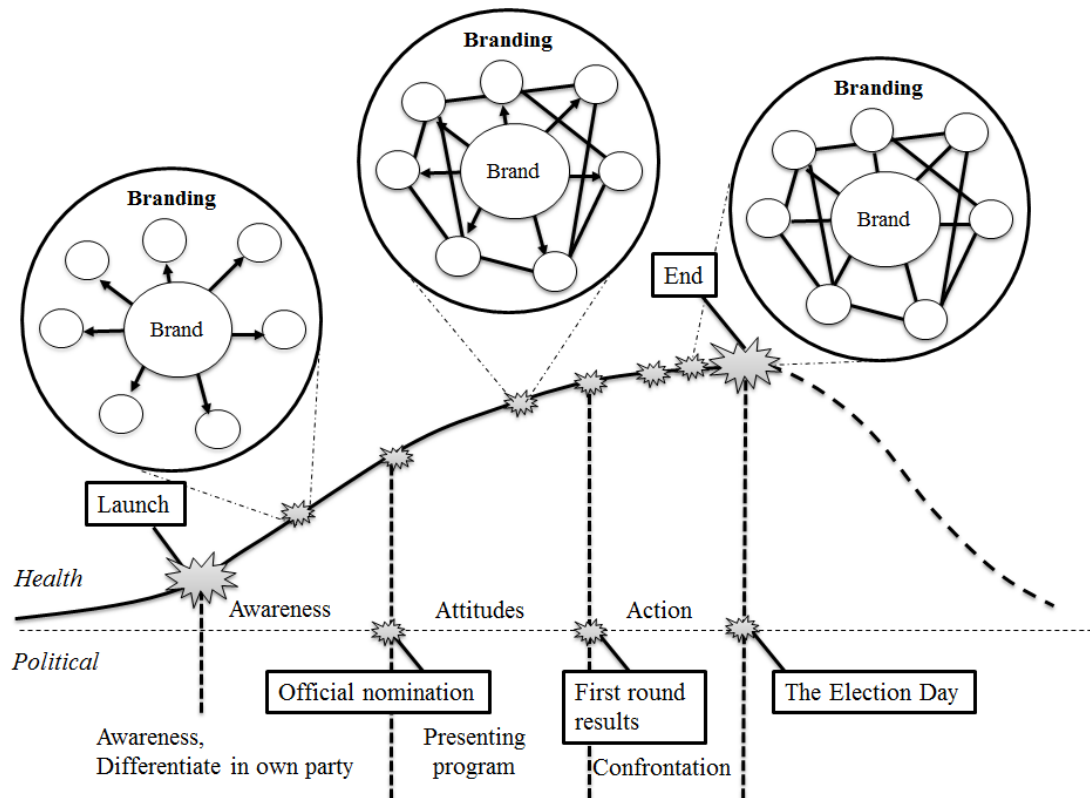


Figure 7. Interaction in different phases of the campaign.

In the *political context* there are more explicit time points between *phases*, whereas start of the campaign is not so clear (see figure 7). The first phase starts when candidates begin to have recognition and publicity, and it lasts to the official candidate nomination of the party (Guray & Ayadi 2011, Silverstein 2011). It is a phase of primary campaign where aim is to create image and *differentiate* candidate in own party and gradually start to *increase media awareness*. Main interaction is in the inner circle of the brand and in part of the extended circle. This is much related to the first phase in the health context. The second phase from party candidate nomination to first round election results is time for national campaign and presenting candidate's political program (Guray & Ayadi 2011, Silverstein 2011). At that phase most important stakeholders are members of own party but also general electorate, belonging to the extended circle. The last phase is final confrontation phase, between two rounds of the election. It is time to attract on other's voters in addition to differentiate to the opponent candidate. There is a lot of *interaction between opponents*. Also criticism, called negative campaigning, is presented towards the opponent. Discourse is extreme in that phase leading to peak just before

the Election Day. (Guray & Ayadi 2011, Silverstein 2011.) Intensity and frequency of interaction vary among phases, having highest levels at the end of the campaign.

Health campaigns and political campaigns also differ from each other in relation to temporality. Many articles described the clear *beginning* of the health campaign, referred as a campaign launch (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Vallone et al. 2011). Whereas, clear *end points* of the campaigns were not usually mentioned, even if the ended campaign period, with pre- and post-campaign periods, was discussed. In the political context instead, there was not so clear starting point for the campaign, but one single event, The Election Day, which acted as end point of the campaign. Political campaigns are also described, in addition to being periodical, also cyclic and repetitive in their nature (Marland 2003, Phipps et al. 2010, Silverstein 2011, Parker 2012).

Events as interaction points were also discussed in studied articles. The most often there were mentioned a launch event as starting point of the campaign, and the Election Day as the end of the campaign. (Smith 2001, Stadler and Hlongwa 2002, Marland 2003, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Silverstein 2011, Vallone et al. 2011.) There were also minor events during the campaign having varied frequency during the campaign period in relation to the campaign phases. At the end of the campaign, frequency of events was highest. Events were also classified as uncontrolled and controlled in addition to public and private (Smith 2001, Smith 2009, Silverstein 2011, Smith & French 2011).

Figure 8 presents findings described earlier, but now in relation to the theoretical framework. It presents branding in a single, temporally restricted campaign, with clear pre- and post-campaign periods. Figure can be seen as example of a health campaign. There are also included special events, launch and end, which define interaction episodes, i.e. campaign periods. Minor events do not define periods, but happen inside of period. Instead of that minor events affect to brand. In the figure also frequency of the events varies during the campaign period, being highest at the end of the campaign. Phases during campaign period are not described in this figure.

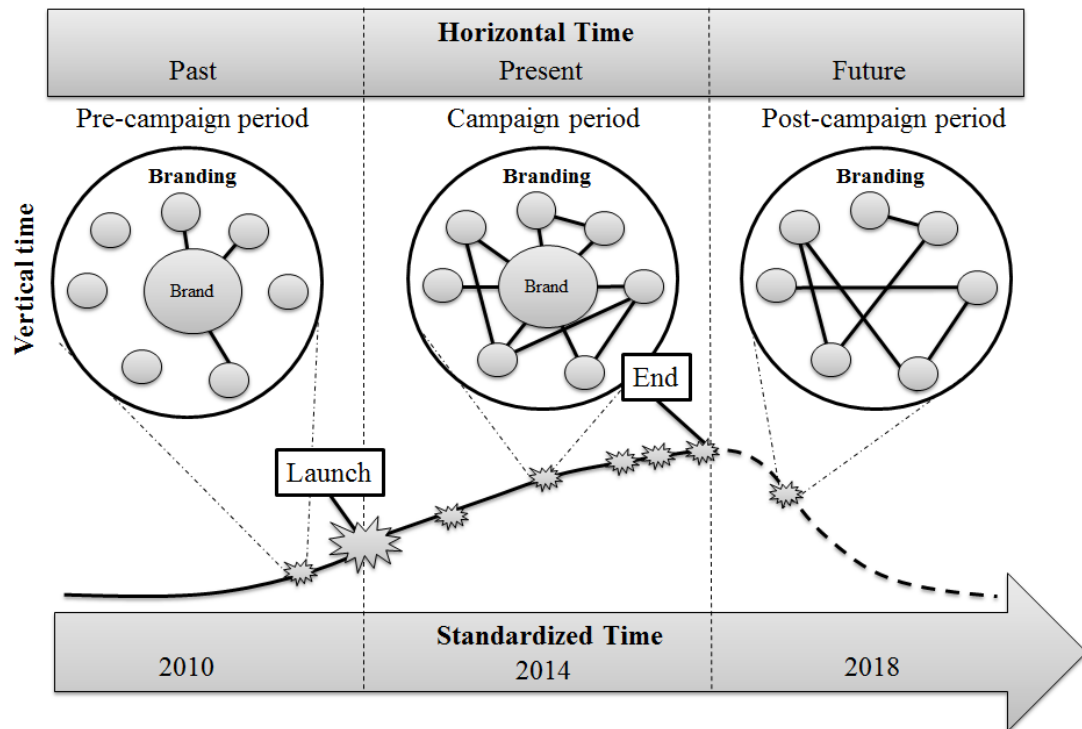


Figure 8. Branding in temporally restricted campaigns.

When looking at branding, as an interaction process among stakeholders, there can be seen different types of interaction in figure 8. In the pre-campaign period, interaction exists within the inner circle of the brand and with partners without including target audience and groups related to it into interaction. In the campaign period, interaction is major and among all stakeholder groups. However, figure 7 (page XX) shows that there is variation in interaction during that period, too. In the post-campaign period, the brand is not anymore participating to brand related interaction due to the end of the campaign. However there may be still minor interaction related to brand among other stakeholders. Different forms of interaction can be seen as expression of vertical dimension of time. In the chapter 2.2.2, vertical dimension was defined as representing social aspect of time having shared meanings of the time continuum. Also phases of the campaign with different targets represent vertical dimension of time. There are special meanings, from awareness to action, for each phase in relation to campaign context.

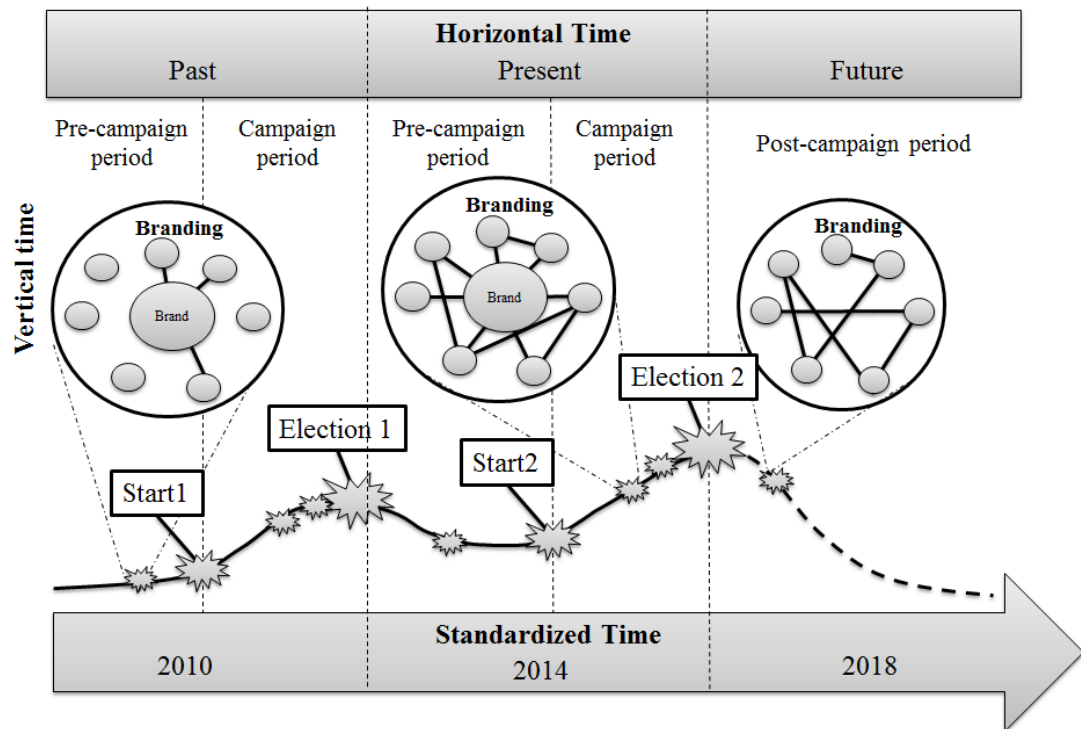


Figure 9. Branding in recurrent campaigns.

Figure 9 presents the campaign process in recurrent campaigns, referring to the political context. It differs from the single campaign process in relation to cyclic and periodical nature. There are clear pre- and post-campaign periods seen in the health context, but in political context those depend on the other cycles. In this case there are several recurrent campaign periods having similar kind of recurrent vertical time dimensions. If there is one-time campaign in the political context, curve may look similar to the health context, but with other specialties related to the political system (clear end point and distinctive phases during the campaign). Thus in the periodical case, there are multiple special events defining periods. It can be seen that depending on used time frame, episodic time of the theoretical framework has different expressions. If only campaign period is studied, episodic time appears as phases of the campaign. While, studying longer period, episodic time refers to pre- and post-campaign periods in addition to campaign period.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Theoretical contribution and managerial implications of this study are described in this chapter. Also limitations of study and suggestions for future research are discussed.

5.1 Theoretical contribution

The aim of this study was to better understand branding in temporally restricted campaigns. There was need to structure the phenomenon and provide the framework for looking at branding from temporal point of view. In this study, theoretical framework was used to study branding in the health and the political campaigns. Aim of using these contexts was to get deeper understanding of branding in the contexts, which differ from each other regarding to temporal aspect. Temporal nature of the health campaigns is restricted, but campaigns are usually nonrecurring. However, political campaigns are typically cyclic and recurrent.

One theoretical contribution of this study is in relation to first sub-question: *how branding can be understood in the temporal context?* Theoretical part of this study looks at branding from temporal perspective. It combines previous researches of branding and temporality to present the *theoretical framework*. The framework provides multidimensional view to temporality, which also positions branding to temporal context. It combines various temporal aspects used in business research (Kavanagh & Araujo 1995, Halinen 1998, Medlin 2004, Mason & Leek 2012, Halinen et al. 2013). In addition to standardized and horizontal time dimensions, also vertical and episodic dimensions of time are considered. In addition to those, there is presented process view of branding (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, Gregory 2007, Merz et al. 2009), seen as sequence of interlinked events.

The second sub-question of this study was: *how branding is described in the campaign related research?* It was answered through integrative literature review of the health and the political campaign related research. There were found *common* traits of temporally restricted branding. A finding was that usually there are partially overlapping phases during the temporally restricted campaigns in the both contexts

(Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Marland 2003, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, Huhman et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Bauman & Chau 2009, Seidman 2010, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Vallone et al. 2011, Silverstein 2011, Parker 2012). Campaigns had separate objectives for the each phase. At first, aim was to create awareness and distinctive identity to the brand, using mainly one directional communication originated from the brand. During the second phase, aim is to stimulate interaction among stakeholders for achieving attitudinal change in relation to healthy behaviour or the political message. In final phase aim was to generate actions among target audience, behavioural change or voting decision in the context of this study.

For achieving these targets, there is also different brand interaction in each phase, based on the target (DeBar et al. 2009, Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Bauman et al. 2008, Vallone et al. 2011). When creating awareness, there is need to reach large audience. Instead importance of the dialog was low. After gained awareness, there is need to increase interaction among stakeholders for strengthening brand. In the final phase stakeholders are encouraged to participate using branded events as forum for interaction. Also intensity and frequency of interaction varied between phases. There was peak or boost seen at the end of the last phase.

However, also *differences* were found between non-recurrent and recurrent branding mainly related to the start and the end point, but also the pre-campaign and the post-campaign periods. Partially these differences are due to the context of the campaigns. In the health contexts, clear beginning of campaigns as a launch event was usually mentioned (Stadler & Hlongwa 2002, Huhman et al. 2005, Asbury et al. 2008, Bauman et al. 2008, DeBar et al. 2009, Vallone et al. 2011). However, there was not so evident end point of the campaigns visible. On the other hand in the political system, there are recurrent and pre-determined election days, which shape the campaign periods. Because of the public nature of the political system, there is no so evident starting point for the whole campaign period. The Election Day makes a clear end point to the political campaigns (Marland 2003, Guray & Ayadi 2011, Silverstein 2011, Smith & French 2011). In summary, campaign related events can be divided to two categories. Major events are those, which shape periods defining the start and the end point of periods. In addition to those, major events also define

phases during the campaign. Minor events exist during the periods acting as container of brand interaction. Another difference between contexts was that there are more clear phases found during the campaign period in the political context, due to official and fixed events of candidate nomination and elections. In the health context, phases during the campaign period are not so distinguishable, even if they exist.

In addition previous, this study also represents the *classification of stakeholders* in the brand network. Classification is used to describe stakeholder interaction in the different phases and periods. This classification groups stakeholders to the *target audience*, the *inner circle of the target audience* or the *brand*, the *extended circle of the audience* or the *brand*, *partners*, *competitors* and the *environmental stakeholders*. In the pre-campaign period, being mainly planning phase of branding, the brand is not interacting with the target audience and large popularity. However, there is branding interaction with the inner circle of the brand and probably with partners. During the campaign period, interaction is highest and occurring between the brand and all stakeholder groups, but also among stakeholders. In the post-campaign period the brand does not participate anymore to interaction, so there may be interaction only between stakeholders.

Thus, this study provides a tool to research branding from temporal perspective. In addition to that, framework was tested in the health and the political campaign contexts to achieve deeper understanding of branding in temporally restricted campaigns. The main research question of this study was: *what kind of branding there is in temporally restricted campaigns?* In summary, branding in temporally restricted campaigns is done in phases during the restricted campaign period, no matter whether periods are recurrent or not. These phases have own targets and various forms of interaction among stakeholder groups related to those targets. Branding starts with creating awareness, as usually when launching a new brand. Due to restricted timeframe, campaigns have also the end point, which affects to branding. There is need to achieve campaign goals during the restricted time frame. In the post-campaign period the brand does not participate to interaction and value of brand depends on brand related interaction among stakeholders. For stimulating that, there is often need to have some kind of boost in branding at the end phase of

campaign. The most important temporal dimensions in campaign research were events and episodic time in addition to vertical time seen through brand interaction.

5.2 Managerial implications

In this section, there are discussed managerial implications of this study. They are derived from the conclusions Main managerial implications of this study concern specialty, which temporal restrictions bring into branding. Usually non-recurrent temporally restricted campaigns start with *launching a new brand*. First, there is need to create awareness to the brand. In the health campaigns, this was achieved using brand originated communication without large amount of dialog. The aim was to reach large populations. Due to the end point of the campaign it is needed *to achieve branding targets during the limited timeframe*. From managerial perspective, it is important to take into account when identifying targets to the campaign. In the health context, target was to generate changes in lifestyle or behaviour. Target in political context was also leading to action, election decision realized at specific time point. Different *phases during campaign* period shall be also identified. In campaigns studied in this research, there were usually three phases recognized during the campaign period. Each period had own objectives and branding strategies related to those objectives. Branding strategies again affect to form of brand related interaction and stakeholders participating to it. Also target audience may vary between phases.

After the end point of the campaign, the brand is not anymore participating to brand related interaction. For preserving value of the brand, there is need to have brand related interaction among other stakeholders in the post-campaign period. From managerial point of view, this means that there is need to consider ways to *preserve interaction after the end of the campaign*. In campaigns studied in this research, frequency and intensity of branding related interaction increased at the end of the campaign period. There is also need to *recognize stakeholder groups* in the own brand network. These groups are needed to plan branding in different phases of the campaign. This study provides grouping system, based on stakeholder's relationship to brand or target audience. It was noticed that stakeholders participated to brand interaction varied during the pre- and post-campaign periods in addition to phases during the campaign. There is also need to recognize most powerful stakeholder

group in relation to the target audience. That group, called the inner circle of the target audience, can be used as a secondary audience of campaign. However, the inner circle of the brand may be used as additional partners for providing added value to branding by active participation to brand interaction.

In this study events were divided to *major and minor events*. Major events are those, which define the campaign period and phases during the campaign. Minor events instead exist inside of these periods and phases, without shaping the temporal framework but affecting to brand. From managerial perspective there is need to identify, which campaign related events are major and minor. Managerial decisions concern also taking advantages of different types of events. Major events are special events having own objectives and shall be used as special interaction situations in branding. It was also noticed that frequency of minor events increased at the end of the campaign for boosting branding in the final phase.

Also *temporal nature of campaign* shall be considered. There are differences between one time campaign and recurrent, cyclic campaigns. In non-recurrent campaigns, there are identifiable pre- and post-campaign periods in addition to the campaign period. As mentioned early, these need to be considered in managerial branding strategies. The pre-campaign period is planning phase of the campaign. There are only few stakeholder groups participating to the brand interaction, especially inner circle of brand and partners. In post-campaign period, brand itself is not participating to interaction, but value of brand may exist based on interaction among other stakeholders. Brand's role was to stimulate brand related interaction among stakeholders, and due to missing of stimulation interaction may fade out over time. In recurrent campaigns, situation is a bit different. There are several repeated campaign periods, having own pre- and post-campaign periods. Thus, the post-campaign period of the previous campaign is at least partially overlapping to the pre-campaign period of following campaign cycle. Due to that there is situation, where post-campaign period of earlier campaigns affects to the pre-campaign period of the current campaign. This legacy branding needs to be considered in planning of new branded campaign. Legacy may be positive or negative, depending on the result of the previous campaign.

5.3 Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

Reliability of the qualitative research is closely connected to the reliability of the research process. The premise is to admit subjective approach in the research. For improving reliability of the research process, there is need to document it at sufficient level, which refers to level that other researchers can reproduce process using the same premises. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 210–217.) Hirsjärvi et al. (2009: 231) describe reliability of the research with respect to repeatability of the research. The process of this study is described in detailed level in chapter 3.3 and 3.5. There is documented data collection method, integrative literature review, but also used analysis method and process of analysis.

One aspect to consider quality of the research is to look at *sufficiency* of data. In qualitative research it is not possible to assess sufficient amount of data in advance. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 215.) However, there are few rules for amount of the qualitative data. *Saturation* is used to make sure that there is enough data available for research. Saturation refers to the situation where more data does not bring more information about studied phenomenon, but same findings are repeated. Researcher shall keep that in mind during the research process. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 62–63, 215.) In this study, literature research ended to the point where same articles and campaigns began to repeat and thus there was situation that literature can be considered as saturated at sufficient level.

Another aspect is *framing* of the data, since usually there is endless amount of data available. In qualitative research, framing of the data is made using theoretical coverage instead of statistical criteria. The basic idea is to see on case as an example of more general level phenomenon. In that point, it is useful that structured theoretical framework is guiding the collection of data. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 64–65.) In this study, framing can be seen in exclude criteria (see page 46). They are used to outline data according to the theoretical framework and themes included into it, to temporally restricted campaigns.

Another aspect to assess the quality of research is *validity*. According to Hirsjärvi et al. (2009: 231) it refers to research's ability to study what was intended. Validity of

the qualitative research refers to internal and external validity. *Internal validity* means harmony of theoretical concepts while *external validity* refers to relationship of interpretations and used data. Findings are externally valid when they represent research subject as it is. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998: 212–213.) Also Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005:65) discuss internal and external validity. They describe internal validity with question whether the results within the study are true. External validity refers to question whether findings can be generalized.

Generalization problem in qualitative research is often resolved by referring to other researches in topic. However, dealing with the generalization problem is not separate phase in the research process, but instead whole process is constructed to take that into account. (Alasuutari 2011: 245–248.) Alasuutari (2011: 248–249) describes generalization view in qualitative research using hourglass metaphor. At first there can be wide phrasing of a question, while case analysis is rather narrow. At the end analysis is expanded to concern broad ensemble. According to Eskola and Suoranta (1998:68) generalization in qualitative research is based on endurance and depth of conclusions, instead of data size and key ratios, like in the quantitative research. In the qualitative research, transferability represents generalization, referring to applying theoretical concepts and findings to another case.

In qualitative research, there is aim to generate meta-findings based on data. Then phenomenon is explored in more general level than a single case. This is achieved by collecting several expressions of the same phenomenon and defining research subject to include variation among them. When thinking of explanation in qualitative research, the most important thing is that reasoning is accurate in relation to used data. (Alasuutari 2011: 237–243.) Alasuutari (2011:243, 26–263) refers to this with expression local explanation. This means that reasoning shall be coherent, internally logical and as many findings as possible shall be in line with it. According to Alasuutari, local explanation is in core of the research, but study does not end to that point. Instead researcher shall continue to more general conclusions using the theoretical framework.

Even if this study has focused on the health and the political campaign context, findings, without context related specialities, can be applied to other temporally

restricted branding, too. This statement is based on the previous principles of generalization in the qualitative research. After studying branding in two different contexts in integrative literature review, findings are located to the theoretical framework for achieving higher level understanding of phenomenon. There are presented meta-findings related to studied phenomenon, branding in temporally restricted campaigns, based on the synthesis of findings in single cases. Variations among findings from single campaign cases are included into meta-findings. However, there are still few context related findings, which cannot be generalized, but those are described distinctively.

The main limitation of this study is partially poor quality of included articles in the integrative literature review (Levy & Ellis 2006). Since, there are not much branding research available with temporal aspect, there was need to use also descriptive articles without proper method description into review. On the other hand, also branding was not properly defined in all articles. Since proper stakeholder point of view was missing in included articles, there may be some parts of interaction not evident. However, this study can be seen as first attempt to clarify the phenomenon and a good starting point for future studies. If wanted to get more accurate view to the phenomenon, there is need have systematic empirical research on branding from temporal aspect. There is also possibility to study one of the temporal aspects deeper without taking notice to all dimensions of temporality. Also stakeholder interaction related to branding can be studied separately. In this study it is considered only when describing branding related interaction from temporal point of view. One suggestion for future research would be to study post-campaign interaction related to brand.

There was also limited amount of researches in studied area. Many of the articles are representing same researches point of view at least in references. All the included articles in the political context, described western democratic system, where cycles are usually regular and election periods precisely determined. This can be seen as one limitation of this study, which may bias results. If cycles in political systems are not regular there may be some differences in the campaign process.

In addition to limitations mentioned above, view of this study was subjective, which may affect to interpretations and aspect of this study. Depending on the definition of

branding or the temporal framework there may be alternative findings available. In this study, branding was seen as stakeholder interaction process and thus there were seen brand related interaction among stakeholders also in pre- and post-campaign periods. If the brand was restricted only to interaction with customers, there would not be any brand related interaction outside the campaign period. Again, seeing brand merely as a label or a sign, there would probably be founded different temporal restrictions to brand. One suggestion for the future research would be to study more deeply how brand is understood in campaign research. Even if it has been considered at some level in this study, deeper analysis of that is out of scope of this study. Also the brand value in temporally restricted campaign could be studied more deeply.

Also used temporal period affects to findings (Orlikowski & Yates 2002). Already in this study, there are differences in the episodic dimension of time depending on whether considering period during the campaign or longer period including pre- and post-campaign periods. If analysing only the campaign period, episodic time appear as phases of campaigns. Whereas, when taking longer time under analysis, episodic time includes pre- and post-campaign periods in addition to the campaign period. Again findings related to branding and interaction among stakeholders differs in relation to the analysis period.

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Appendix 1

SEARCH HISTORIES OF INTEGRATIVE LITERATURE REVIEW

EBSCOHost keyword search

#	Query	Limiters/Expanders	Last Run Via	Results
S6	(brand*) AND (S1 AND S2)	Total duplicates removed	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - EconLit with Full Text; Academic Search Premier; Communication & Mass Media Complete; CINAHL; Business Source Complete; EconLit	119
S5	(brand*) AND (S1 AND S2)	Limiters – Published Date: 19950101- 20141231; Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - EconLit with Full Text; Academic Search Premier; Communication & Mass Media Complete; CINAHL; Business Source Complete; EconLit	169
S4	(brand*) AND (S1 AND S2)	Limiters – Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - EconLit with Full Text; Academic Search Premier; Communication & Mass Media Complete; CINAHL; Business Source Complete; EconLit	175
S3	(brand*) AND (S1 AND S2)	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - EconLit with Full Text; Academic Search Premier; Communication & Mass Media Complete; CINAHL; Business Source Complete; EconLit	931
S2	brand*	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - EconLit with Full Text; Academic Search Premier; Communication & Mass Media Complete; CINAHL; Business Source Complete; EconLit	609,573
S1	health N5 campaign* OR politic* N5 campaign*	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - EconLit with Full Text; Academic Search Premier; Communication & Mass Media	82,006

Complete; CINAHL; Business
Source Complete; EconLit

Business Source Complete Thesaurus search

#	Query	Limiters/Expanders	Last Run Via	Results
S10	S1 AND S4	Total duplicates removed	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	2
S9	S1 AND S4	Limiters - Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	3
S8	S1 AND S4	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	4
S7	S1 AND S3	Limiters - Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	2
S6	S1 AND S3	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	5
S5	S1 AND S2	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	0
S4	DE "PUBLIC service advertising"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	1,539
S3	DE "POLITICAL	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases	2,937

	advertising"		Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	
S2	DE "POLITICAL campaign organizations"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	20
S1	DE "BRANDING (Marketing)"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Business Source Complete	11,589

Communication & Mass media Thesaurus search

#	Query	Limiters/Expanders	Last Run Via	Results
S10	S3 AND S4	Limiters - Published Date: 19950101-20131231; Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	11
S9	S3 AND S4	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	25
S8	S2 AND S4	Limiters - Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	7
S7	S2 AND S4	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	13
S6	S1 AND S4	Limiters - Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	15
S5	S1 AND S4	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases	21

			Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	
S4	brand*	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	19,757
S3	DE "POLITICAL advertising"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	1,517
S2	DE "PUBLIC service advertising"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	527
S1	DE "POLITICAL campaigns"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Communication & Mass Media Complete	2,290

Academic Search Premier Thesaurus search

#	Query	Limiters/Expanders	Last Run Via	Results
S17	S2 AND S6	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	0
S16	S1 AND S6	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	0
S15	S2 AND S5	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	0

S14	S1 AND S5	Limiters - Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	0
S13	S1 AND S5	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	2
S12	S2 AND S4	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	0
S11	S1 AND S4	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	0
S10	S2 AND S3	Limiters - Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	0
S9	S2 AND S3	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	1
S8	S1 AND S3	Limiters - Peer Reviewed Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	2
S7	S1 AND S3	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	4
S6	DE "ANTI-rape movement"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search	36

			Database - Academic Search Premier	
S5	DE "POLITICAL advertising"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	3,625
S4	DE "ANTI-smoking campaigns"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	81
S3	DE "POLITICAL campaigns"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	30,594
S2	DE "CO-branding"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	117
S1	DE "BRANDING (Marketing)"	Search modes - Boolean/Phrase	Interface - EBSCOhost Research Databases Search Screen - Advanced Search Database - Academic Search Premier	1,933

Scopus keyword search

#	History Search Terms	Document results
S7	(TITLE-ABS-KEY(brand*)) AND (TITLE-ABS-KEY(politic* W/5 campaign*)) AND (LIMIT-TO(DOCTYPE, "ar"))AND (LIMIT-TO(LANGUAGE, "English")) AND (LIMIT-TO(SRCTYPE, "j"))	17
S6	History Search Terms(TITLE-ABS-KEY(brand*)) AND (TITLE-ABS-KEY(politic* W/5 campaign*))	22
S5	History Search Terms(TITLE-ABS-KEY(brand*)) AND (TITLE-ABS-KEY(health* W/5 campaign*)) AND (LIMIT-TO(DOCTYPE, "ar"))AND (LIMIT-TO(LANGUAGE, "English")) AND (LIMIT-TO(SRCTYPE, "j"))	27
S4	History Search Terms(TITLE-ABS-KEY(brand*)) AND (TITLE-ABS-KEY(health* W/5 campaign*))	34
S3	History Search TermsTITLE-ABS-KEY(politic* W/5 campaign*)	2,421

S2	TITLE-ABS-KEY(health* W/5 campaign*)	4,835
S1	TITLE-ABS-KEY(brand*)	58,342

ProQuest keyword search

Set#	Searched for	Databases	Results
S1	brand* AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	ABI/INFORM Complete, MEDLINE®, ProQuest Social Science Journals, ProQuest Sociology, Social Services Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Worldwide Political Science Abstracts	138412*
S2	ab(brand*) AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	ABI/INFORM Complete, MEDLINE®, ProQuest Social Science Journals, ProQuest Sociology, Social Services Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Worldwide Political Science Abstracts	21356*
S3	(health* NEAR/5 campaign*) AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	ABI/INFORM Complete, MEDLINE®, ProQuest Social Science Journals, ProQuest Sociology, Social Services Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Worldwide Political Science Abstracts	6783*
S4	(politic* NEAR/5 campaign*) AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	ABI/INFORM Complete, MEDLINE®, ProQuest Social Science Journals, ProQuest Sociology, Social Services Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Worldwide Political Science Abstracts	15859*
S5	(ab(brand*) AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)) AND ((health* NEAR/5 campaign*) AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231))	ABI/INFORM Complete, MEDLINE®, ProQuest Social Science Journals, ProQuest Sociology, Social Services Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Worldwide Political Science Abstracts	65°

S6	(ab(brand*) AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)) AND ((politic* NEAR/5 campaign*) AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231))	ABI/INFORM Complete, MEDLINE®, ProQuest Social Science Journals, ProQuest Sociology, Social Services Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Worldwide Political Science Abstracts	131°
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* Duplicates are removed from your search, but included in your result count.

° Duplicates are removed from your search and from your result count.

ABI/Inform complete Thesaurus search

Set#	Searched for	Databases	Results
S1	SU.EXACT("Political campaigns") AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	ABI/INFORM Complete	796°
S2	brand* AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	ABI/INFORM Complete	72226*
S3	(SU.EXACT("Political campaigns") AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)) AND (brand* AND peer(yes) AND stype.exact("Scholarly Journals") AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231))	ABI/INFORM Complete	89°

* Duplicates are removed from your search, but included in your result count.

° Duplicates are removed from your search and from your result count.

MEDLINE Thesaurus search

Set#	Searched for	Databases	Results
S1	MESH.EXACT("Health Promotion")	MEDLINE®	51010*
S2	MESH.EXACT("Health Promotion") AND peer(yes) AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	MEDLINE®	28706*
S3	brand* AND peer(yes) AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	MEDLINE®	45425*
S4	ab(brand*) AND peer(yes) AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	MEDLINE®	7319*
S5	(MESH.EXACT("Health Promotion") AND peer(yes) AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)) AND (ab(brand*) AND peer(yes) AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231))	MEDLINE®	88°

* Duplicates are removed from your search, but included in your result count.

° Duplicates are removed from your search and from your result count.

Worldwide Political Science Abstracts thesaurus search

Set#	Searched for	Databases	Results
S1	SU.EXACT("Political Campaigns") AND peer(yes) AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	Worldwide Political Science Abstracts	2630°
S2	brand* AND peer(yes) AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)	Worldwide Political Science Abstracts	1374°
S3	(SU.EXACT("Political Campaigns") AND peer(yes) AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231)) AND (brand* AND peer(yes) AND la.exact("English" OR "Finnish") AND pd(>19951231))	Worldwide Political Science Abstracts	24°

° Duplicates are removed from your search and from your result count.