MASTERARBEIT

„Reputation of Franchise Systems- an empirical comparison of McDonald's and Burger King in Turkey"

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INTRODUCTION

Franchising is a business model which is growing very fast; the growth this system is the fastest growing in Europe is Turkey. It can be considered also a successful market entry model which has its own factors or differences with licensing, JV or any other model.

Franchising is a successful way in business practice which is relatively new in the business world. It is one of the most popular methods to expand new markets and to create chain stores at national level, and it is also a very important market entry mode at international business level. Due to its newness still the "power relations" between franchisor-party which gives right to use a business model, or product name/brand-and franchisee, party which gets right to use business model or product name/brand-are still yet not so well defined.

So, the definition of the term "franchising" can be as follows:

> *Roughly speaking it is: an agreement in which one of the parties (the franchisor) grants the other party of the deal (the franchisee) the right to be able to use its trademark and/or trade-name, and share some of its business systems, production and working processes, to let the franchisee produce and market a certain product and/or service according to fixed specifications.*

The profit of the franchiser from such a model is very fast business expansion and earnings at minimum capital outlay. I have chosen franchising because it is a relatively new business model, and it is the fastest-growing model Europe-wide in Turkey. On the other hand, it is a market entry mode itself at international level. In the first part I give a definition of franchising, determinants of it at both national and international level, and then some facts about Turkey.

Reputation is a relatively new concept in management. It is proceed by Prof. Charles Fombrun for the first time in his famous work “Reputation. Realizing Value from the Corporate Image” which was published by Harvard University Press in 1996. Based on this age of this concept there is still not one exact definition of this term. Besides effects of it are still not so good examined. I have tried to give as many as possible definition found in literature because I do believe that ignoring some of them would lead to miss the important points. Lacking consensus on definition makes it harder to work with this concept. The whole second chapter is about the definition of franchising and also differences and relations between reputation, corporate identity and corporate image.

I hope I could managed to aggregate the whole published data about this concept and made it clear for the reader. In spite of disagreement on the definition of this term, all researchers agree that it is one of the most important company assets.

By its very nature it is one of the intangible assets like brand, patent etc. Unlike many other intangible assets it cannot be bought or sold; it can just be created. Creation of reputation is harder than creating one of the other assets. From the Resource-Based Theory point of view reputation is valuable, rare and inimitable hence it is a resource to create and protect. Lacking transferability of reputation just creates higher stakes in both lose or win cases. So, on the one hand, it makes a company more open to the risk of losing it; on the other hand, it makes a company more valuable for its customers. Hence intuatively we can assume that reputation has a certain effect on:

repurchase intention of customers;

word of mouth (WOM); and

loyalty of customer to the brand.

Therefore I have developed three more hypotheses:

Reputation is positively related to higher repurchase intention.

Reputation is positively related to better word of mouth (WOM).

Reputation is positively related to higher loyalty of customer to the brand.

Customer satisfaction is another term I use in my research. In spite of lack of consensus about its name – "customer satisfaction", "consumer satisfaction" or simply "satisfaction"– and its definition, or maybe too many definitions, I could extract the data which is based on theoretical research. Deficiency of a proper definition is creating a huge problem in measurement of satisfaction. Work on proper definition and measurement is generally done by the American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI – www.theacsi.org). I have explained their model in the third section as well. In spite of not having a clear definition of satisfaction and its measurement, its effect on the below-mentioned concepts is known:

repurchase intention of customers;

word of mouth (WOM); and

loyalty of customer to the brand.

Therefore I have developed three more hypotheses:

Customer satisfaction is positively related to higher repurchase intention.

Customer satisfaction is positively related to better word of mouth (WOM).

Customer satisfaction is positively related to higher loyalty of customer to the brand.

Here I have tried to create a minimalistic model, i.e. I believe that these would be enough to be able to leave effects of culture and sector/branch-related differences, which can create potential research biases, but in similar research with different countries or different working branches these factors must be taken into account to be able to create a more realistic model.

To be able to minimize potential biases based on these culture and sector-related differences I have chosen my business chain sample quite small.

Just two chains which:

- have the same home country;

- are working in the same host country; and

- are in a similar or the same sector.

I do think such a simplification will be enough to avoid complications which can be created by the above-mentioned factors.

FRANCHISING

Franchising is a relatively new business model in comparison with other models. Started to come in history in mid 19th century, brought by Isaac M. Singer (1811–1875) who found a new model of sewing machine but had no enough money for distribution investments. Another bis issue was that it was possible to use his machine without training, so he created his own model by charging licensing fees to people who would own the right to sell his machine in certain regions across the U.S., and he found money for financing his production. The people who paid money for a license were able to teach future customers how to use the sewing machine. This led to the creation of the first commercially successful sewing machine in history.

The definition of a franchise is quite simple: it can be defined as a legal agreement between a parent company (the franchisor) and it's local outlet (franchisee) to be able to sell franchisor's products and/or it's services under the parent's trademark for making use a production process which has been developed by the franchisor. A franchisor's contracts are uniform across all franchisees who join the chain at the same time.

Franchising is generally by service business, and it means sharing a trademark but using the same production processes. This is a permanent and widespread form of organization. As a form of organization, such as restaurant franchising appears larger and has a presence in the consumer space, accommodation. Sectors in those franchising is often used are :business services,

- hiring seasonal worker,
- cleaning services,
- printing/ copying services, and
- tax and accounting services

(Michael,S.C.,2011,p.1)

“New growth areas, home care, business signage and child development and education.” (Michael,S.C.,2011,p.1)

Franchising is a new working model, found in the 20th century by manufacturers' local distribution of their own products. Two types of franchising can be seen in market:

1. Product franchising:

In the product franchising type, the franchisee, the inventor who buys franchising rights, sales the products which are provided by the franchisor, the company which produces products. A good example could be gasoline retailing and selling other products in gas stations.

2. Business franchising:

The other format is called business franchising, which boomed has came into being by entrepreneurs in the 1950s and has found a very large usage in services branches. (International Franchise Association 2004, p.7). "When sales from product franchises such as gas stations and soda bottlers are combined with business format franchises such as restaurants and dry cleaners, franchise chains represent for over forty per cent of retail sales" Michael, S. C., 2011, p.1).

How does franchising work? Franchising as a business format works as follows: a franchise is a legal agreement between the franchisor – the person who owns the production process and/or a trademark (such as McDonald's) – and the businessowner (franchisee), who wants to sell/produce the products and/or services with the franchisor's trademark using a production process which is used by the franchisor and other franchisees. When the contract is signed for franchising there is a one-time franchise fee paid by the franchisee. The franchisee gets the necessary services for operating the unit such as blueprints for production process, training and – sometimes if it is needed – construction management and/or case support.

After the opening of the production unit/outlet, the franchiser gives some inspection to be able to ensure the standard of operations are being kept to a certain level, for instance “marketing services” (Michael, S. C., 2011, p.1) and access to trademarks. In return, the franchisee is obliged to pay a royalty based on the amount of sales, generally between 1–10% (Michael, S. C., 2011, p.1) and a royalty fee for marketing activities 0–6% (Michael, S. C., 2011, p.1), commonly known as the advertising fee. Despite important exceptions, generally speaking franchisees do not sell products which belong to the franchiser; the franchisee compensates the franchiser for the trademark and management of it. The franchise chain has components units franchised by local operators (franchisees), and units belong to the franchiser. Both parties have the same production process and selling by using the same trademark.

There are three crucial economic questions regarding franchising. They are: (1) why do the investors are using “the franchising” form?; (2) which factors are determining the special contract terms and conditions chosen by investors as part of their business contract?; and (3) what determines the ownership of nee outlets, i.e. whether the franchiser will be a new owing and operating opened outlet or independent franchisee? (Klein, B., 1995, p.1).

Franchising is a business practice which grew rapidly in the last decades and which has experienced “unprecedented growth during the last two decades both in the United States and abroad” (Alon & McKee, 1999, p.2). According to the US Department of Commerce, the number of franchise formats grew up to 1000% – tenfold – between the years 1972–1988.

We have to differ the franchising as “business format” and “product/trade name franchising”. The main difference between these two formats, i.e. product/trade-name franchising and business franchising, is that the concluding which are offering a method of business operation or business system which is a part of a strategic plan for growth and continual guidance of the firm.

Franchising is a very flexible model which can be adapted to different branches and countries. This property makes it easy to use but hard to control because to be able to open an outlet the franchiser needs to find people to work with; on the other hand, the nature of this system is highly sandardnized, and it is a real challenge for international environments. “With the increased diversity of countries in which franchisers sought potential outlets came the need to develop a systematic way to evaluate potential host countries” (Alon, I., 2005, p.94). This internationalization model must consider four crucial factors for country analysis including (1) economic, (2) demographic, (3) distance and (4) political variables (Alon, I. and McKee, D., 1999, p.1). These are the categories which were used to define the environmental variables which were discussed in the literature of international franchising.

International franchising is not licensing, exporting, or foreign direct investment. It is an entry mode itself: in international management franchising is an exclusive market entry mode for these reasons:

1. the traits of the business do not change unconcerned of who is the owner; and

2. the ownership of the outlet can be very easily transformed, even after the operation’s set-up and with no need any evident differences. Shane advocates (1996, p.86) the usage of franchise contracts seems to be a crucial long-term strategic preference in its own legal and management rights for and international firm in service industry.

The Economic Dimension

The most important economic factors which are mentioned in the international franchising literature are “(1) economic growth, (2) the individual income, 1996), and (3) the urbanization level” (Alon, I. and McKee, D., 1999, p.3). The average income of society, more specifically disposable income, regulates whether an average citizen consists the franchise that is proposed and determines the existence of proper market potential.

The Demographic Dimension

The important demographic factors are “(1) population growth, (2) the size of the middle class (Arthur Andersen, 1996), and female labour force participation (Yavas, 1988)” (Alon, I., 2005, p.98). It is reported by Arthur Andersen (1996) that the deciding factor between those the size of middle class if host country is fitting to an American franchise system. In small population countries, but with necessary middle class e.g. Kuwait or Israel, US-based franchises have an important market mostly in services (Alon, I., 2005, p.98).

According to Arthur Andersen (1996), 62% of franchisers claimed that growth of country population is an important or very important factor in host country choice. A relatively faster population growth than the other potential markets means that there is an expected potential growth of the franchise system (Alon, I., 2005, p.98).

In the last decades, women in developed countries have ended their traditional roles as housewives and moved into labour markets. “Franchisers who tailored their services to the time constraints and household services, such as fast food restaurants and cleaning services, have thus proliferated” (Alon, I., 2005, p.98). The number of women who enter the labour markets is increasing in most of the developing countries hence the demand of same type service increases. According to Yavas (1988) the hypothesis that the higher ratio of females entering the labour force is positively related to the total of international dining franchises. As a result, the higher the proportion of female work force participation, makes the host country more attractive for the international franchiser.

The Distance Dimension

In international management the distance dimension has two dimensions: (1) physical distance and (2) cultural distance. One of the most cited factors during the expansion of US-based international franchise systems is “physical distance”.This is the main reason of most of

US based franchisers are preferring to choose or are planning chose Canada as the first step of their international expansion not surprisingly second choice by Mexico (Arthur Andersen, 1996) in (Alon, I. and McKee, D., 1999, p.5). Fladmoe-Lindquist (1996) managed to pose the physical distance problem from the point of view of administrative efficiency theory. In this expansion communications technology has a crucial importance, but lacking perfect standardization across and among the potential host countries because of hardware, software connectivity and transmission-related regulations differences. makes it an important obstacle of expansion will; in addition, physical distance creates complicated logistical support problems, especially if the goods/raw materials have to be brought from the home country. Arthur Andersen (1996) reported that 3.8 per cent of franchisers planning international franchises and 21 per cent of franchisers with existing international franchises rated proximity to the United States as the primary reason for choosing a host country (Baena,V., 2012, p.55). There are two possible measurements which can be used for physical distance: either it can be measured in absolute term – meaning distance between two countries – or by using travel time.

Cultural distance is different from physical distance. Cultural distance is inequality in cultural values and working methods, e.g usage of language influence. These differences affect the day-to-day operations way of contract negotiations, recruitment process and also the shape of the franchise set-up. The ability of transferring of the franchise system is strongly related to cultural distance between the home and host countries' cultures. The real strength of the franchise working model is high natural standardization, but this case limits the ability to transfer it to foreign cultures. Cultural distance has a great influence on internal managerial and operational business practices, communication and performance evaluations, and also supply of an attractive service to local customers. Cultural distance can be measured by Hofstede's four measures of (1) power distance, (2) individualism/collectivism, (3) uncertainty avoidance, and (4) masculinity. The measure of Hofstede can be found for 55 different countries and is being highly cited in the management literature.

The Political Dimension

"Political risk refers to the internal or external events emanating from government or society that negatively affect the business environment" (Alon, I., 2005, p.100). Internal factors in this context are causes which are influenced by the host country, while external events in this context are causes related with the home country, or by another third country or the global political environment.

Internally generated risk factors from a political point of view are:

> "(1) governmental regulations and red tape" (Kostecka, 1988,), in (Alon, I., 2005, p.99);
>
> "(2) political stability;
>
> (3) the proliferation of bribery; and
>
> (4) ownership restrictions" (Justis and Judd, 1989) in (Alon, I., 2005, p.99).

The external environmental political risk-related influencing factors for international franchise systems are:

> "(1) foreign exchange controls and
>
> (2) import restrictions" (Justis and Judd, 1989) in (Alon, I., 2005, p.100).

According to Burton and Cross (1995, p.45) companies which are working with franchising contracts can and often do significantly important investments to the subsystem in their host country investments. According to research done by Arthur Andersen (1996), investment in a foreign franchise system is $680,000 in the average. For instance McDonald's invested over $50 million in a Russian venture of its own before even being able to open the first store (Love 1995). Hence the old assumption about international franchising, which was saying that franchising that does not involve capital outlay as an entry mode so it does not have any political risk can be wrong.

Part of political risk can be import restrictions, also possible restrictions on remittance of future payments from the host country of the franchisee. This situation may have significant effect on profitability or feasibility of operation because many franchisers are also suppliers of the raw material of their franchisees, “therefore increasing their exposure to exchange rate risk and import restrictions” (Alon, I., 2005, p.100). In spite of high use of local supply sources by foreign franchisees, often import is also a necessary activity for them because it is required to buy capital material and also in some cases raw material. Hence a long-term continuous relation which can be effected by political circumstances between franchiser and franchisee is a necessity. Foreign Exchange rates can also be part of the political dimension. Royalty payments and amounts can be influenced by fluctuations of foreign exchange rates due to political risk.

Franchising in Turkey

Introduction

Turkey, which is located on two continents – Europe (3% of land) and Asia (97% of land) – is a developing country with enormously fast market growth based in its very young population structure:

0–14 years: 26.2%
15–64 years: 67.4%
65 years and over: 6.4% (2012 est.) (www.cia.gov 25.03.2012).

High population growth rate – 1.197% (2012 est.) (www.cia.gov 25.03.2012) and high GDP p.a. (14.700 $) (www.cia.gov 25.03.2012) makes it attractive long term for franchisers.

The main big cities and their populations are Istanbul 10.378 million, Ankara (capital) 3.846 million, Izmir 2.679 million, Bursa 1.559 million and Adana 1.339 million (2009) (www.cia.gov 25.03.2012).

(www.cia.gov 25.03.2012)

Major economic data for Turkey is :

GDP (purchasing power parity):

$1.087 trillion (2011 est.)

$1.003 trillion (2010 est.)

$919.7 billion (2009 est.)

note: data are in 2011 US dollars

GDP (official exchange rate):

$778.1 billion (2011 est.)

GDP - real growth rate:

8.5% (2011 est.)

9% (2010 est.)

-4.8% (2009 est.)

Inflation rate (consumer prices):

6.5% (2011 est.)

8.6% (2010 est.)

Labor force - by occupation:

agriculture: 25.5%

industry: 26.2%

services: 48.4% (2010)

(www.cia.gov 25.03.2012)

Franchises in Turkey

Turkey is a country that is exciting for those interested in international business. It is a country with an increasing average growth rate of 6% p.a. continuously in the last five years. It is the world's fastest-growing economy and is regarded as one of the best countries for foreign investments between emerging markets. These positive developments have a greater impact with falling inflation rate (around 7%) and growing income per capita ($5.500 as of April 2007) (cf. http://www.franchise.org/franchise-news-detail.aspx?id=36376 25.03.2012). The country has a population of 70 million people, 54 per cent of the population under 30 years old and 29 per cent are between 30 and 50 years of age (cf. http://www.franchise.org/franchise-news-detail.aspx?id=36376 25.03.2012).

Based on these developments, the U.S. Commercial Service – which is a branch of the U.S. Dept. of Commerce in Turkey – thinks that it is a very good time for franchise companies to examine and consider eventually starting to look for franchises and starting to operate in Turkey. We shall dually note that the U.S. Commercial Service helps a growing amount of Turkish companies or potential investors who are looking for new investment areas and ask for assistance to institution to be able to determine and to spread out their investment portfolio.

The “franchise” concept was used for the first time in the early 1980s – after investment of McDonald’s more in 1986 – in Turkish market terminology. Until recent economical developments, most of the market entries were in the dining branch; eventually entries were more in other services (cf. http://www.franchise.org/franchise-news-detail.aspx?id=36376 25.03.2012).

Nowadays, franchising concepts are used mostly in coffee and food chains, and then comes real estate, car repair ciders care, education etc. Domestic and foreign-based franchise brands in the country, with a turnover of around 1.5 billion euros. Accelerate the market penetration of domestic and foreign brands in Turkey, as in 2010 this number is expected to reach $10 billion. The number of brands in the market with the main franchise, this being about 50 brands of the U.S. 200th (cf. http://www.franchise.org/franchise-news-detail.aspx?id=36376 25.03.2012).

Approximately 4,000 businesses work as a franchise or sub-franchise. In the past two years, more and more franchises are on the market, and many Turkish companies start their own franchise concepts. Most of the large commercial banks in the system send off franchise systems support loans. These loans are usually food, maintenance, facilities management or franchise clothing targeted action plan related operations. (cf. http://www.franchise.org/franchise-news-detail.aspx?id=36376 25.03.2012)

Fast food and coffee chains franchises

In spite of the existence of many American fast food/coffee chains in Turkey, the demand of Turkish investors stays high because of: i.) high population and ii.) high growth rate of young population across the country (http://www.franchise.org/franchise-news-detail.aspx?id=36376 25.03.2012). The other factor that has a high effect on high demand of such investments is the growing number of shopping malls; all malls are so designed that having a food court, hence Turkish investors are looking for new invesment alternatives. As last it can be advocated that American cuisine is highly popular especially with the young generation – students and young professionals.

Real-estate franchises

One of the fast-growing industry branches in Turkey is construction. High demand in housing construction is expected. The housing stock of the country is 16.200.000; 83,8% of it is on the borders of towns and cities. According to estimations, 2.5 million houses are still needed; demand for houses until 2015 will be 900.000.The current house shortage is 300.000; in the short term it is expected to be 500.000.

Another crucial factor that is expected to increase demand for real estate is acceptance of mortgage law by Parliament in 02.07. This is expected to increase the number of households which can afford new housing projects (cf. http://www.franchise.org/franchise-news-detail.aspx?id=36376 25.03.2012).

Child-care/education franchises

Because of young families, around 15% of the Turkish population is of primary school age. The number of women who are working is increasing. These two factors create high demand for childcare centres and/or kindergartens and other children's education/development centres (http://www.franchise.org/franchise-news-detail.aspx?id=36376 25.03.2012).

As can be understood, franchising is quite a flexible business model with very high adaptability to cultures, depending on the product or service sold, e.g. a franchise for selling pork in Arabic countries will be a definite failure. On the other hand, because of high product and work process standardization, it is quite cheap as a new investment for franchisees and a relatively safe and cost-efficient way as a market entry mode to the international markets.

The real risk is property rights if law for it is not good organized in host country, i.e. because of high standardization of products or business processes must be shared and if property is law of host country is not properly organized then it is risk for product or service to be stolen.

REPUTATION

Introduction

Competition increases world and sectors wide. It does not matter if a company is producing cars or food, or they insure people or companies, they all feel incremental competition pressure on themselves based on a globalization wave. Hence new concepts are developed by them to be on the edge, to be better than their competitors. Reputation is one of these new terms which is considered nowadays as most important asset of a corporation. It needs to be created at any cost and be managed properly for the survival of the company in today's high competition world.

It is not easy to define the core contents of reputation or to find out what specifically is needed to be able to achieve a good reputation. At last, proof how valuable reputation is, and/or catalyst power to be able to reach corporate goals is often used at best. As it is constructed as so vulnerable and so hard to manage, the real question is if such high concentration on reputation is really necessary. Does it pay the trouble back? The answer to this question is "no", if reputation is thought of as just another fancy management affectation, and it is perceived as the catwalk or as PR or as an image management in cover. The answer to the question is "yes" if it is understood that there is accurate/fair value (for the company and/or its stakeholders) in concentrating and managing the company reputation.

To have a good/high/favourable reputation is to be more attractive than others in the perception of a company's stakeholders because these parties usually decide to enter into a partnership with the firm based on this perception-reputation (Carmeli, A. and Freund A., 2002, p.52). The connection between work and workplace behaviour and perceived external cachet. "Managers are increasingly aware of the importance of their corporate image as an intangible asset" (van Riel, C. B. M., Stroeker N. E. and Maathuis, O. J. M., 1998, p.314). Increasing cognizance of reputation was not able to bring a suitable definition for it yet. In spite of an increasing amount of research on reputation, there is still no definition of the term "reputation" for which there is a consensus.

“In sociology, prestige is the preferred term, in economics, it is reputation, in marketing, image, and in accountancy and law, goodwill” (Shenkar, O. and Yuchtman-Yaar E., 1997, p.1361).

In the following table, some of definitions of reputation are cited and sorted alphabetically by authors’ names, just to show the stage about the discussion of definition on this construct. “Moreover, the modules most often included in definitions will be extracted” (Helm, S., Gobbers K-L. and Strock, C., 2011, p.5).

Selected definitions of corporate reputation Authors’ definitions of corporate reputation

(2001, p 29)	overall evaluation of a company over time"
Herbig and Milewicz (1995a, p 5)	"Reputation is the estimation of the consistency over time of an attribute of an entity"
Highhouse et al. (2009, p 783)	"Corporate reputation is a global, temporally stable, evaluative judgment about a firm that is shared by multiple constituencies"
Post and Griffin (1997, p 165)	"Corporate reputation is a synthesis of the opinions, perceptions, and attitudes of an organization's stakeholders"
Wartick (1992, p 34)	Corporate reputation is "the aggregation of a single stakeholder's perceptions of how well organizational responses are meeting the demands and expectations of many organizational stakeholders"
Wilson (1985, p 27)	"In common usage, reputation is a characteristic or attribute ascribed to one person (firm, industry, etc.) by another [. . .] Operationally this is usually represented as a prediction about likely future behaviour"
Yoon et al. (1993, p 215)	"A company's reputation reflects the history of its past actions [. . .] andaffects the buyer's expectations with respect to the quality of its offerings"

(Helm,S.,Gobbers K-L.,Strock,C.,Reputation Management ,2011,p.6)

Table 1

Corporate Reputation, Corporate Identity and Corporate Image

Especially in early works the terms reputation and corporate image are used as synonyms (Gotsi, M. and Wilson, A. M., 2001, p.24). Scholars named as “analogous school” like Bernays, 1977; Boorstin, 1961; Boulding, 1973; Budd, 1969; Crissy, 1971; Enis, 1967; Gates and McDaniel, 1972; Kennedy, 1977; Martineau, 1958; Schafhauser, 1967. Martineau (1958) defines the concept of image (p.47) as “the sum of functional qualities and psychological attributes that exist in the mind of the consumer”; according to Boulding (1956, p.5) image is the “subjective knowledge”. Additionally, in one of Kennedy’s (1977) the early and yet very influential research on the concept reputation, she tends to interpret corporate image and corporate reputation as the same (Gotsi, M. and Wilson, A. M., 2001, p.24). Literally it is written in her work: “an image, whether of a product or company, takes many years to cultivate” (Kennedy, 1977, p. 24) and she advocates that the nomenclature used in studies of corporate image is pretty diverse in the meaning that different words may define the same concepts.

Corporate Identity

The conventional definition of the term “identity” – from an organizational point of view – can be seen in the work of Albert and Whetten (1985); it is “central, distinctive and enduring” (in Whetten, D. A. and Godfrey, P. C., 1998, p.27) for every organization. This definition represents the concept of corporate identity at the “appearance and behaviour” (Fombrun, C., 1996, p.399) standard of both hence combining both visual presentment and symbols related to the organizational structure with the members’ behaviour and actions. It is seen as the most important even crucial “corporate identity is a major concern of CEOs” or the basic character of the firm (Melewar and Jenkins 2002, p.76). Identity can be also defined as an organizational structure’s innate character, and a description about “what the organization is” affects everything the organization says, does and produces (Balmer J. M. T., 1995, p.25). It is said that there is not so much empirical testing in the corporate identity field; managers have a tendency to focus on tangible aspect-like corporate communications or design rather than research.

Therefore we can think about corporate identity on two levels: (1) **the tactical level**, i.e. it contains visual applications of organizational symbols which remind identity to the internal and external organization-related parties, for instance, the logo of the organization, related trademarks, different marketing materials, website etc., and (2) **the strategic level** of organizational behaviour and organizational culture which is a necessary base for the optimal possible achievement of the organization. "It seems that the discourse between researchers in academic literature will continue, but it is obvious that main points of definitions are: i.) internal culture, ii.) values and iii.) behavior of an organization" (Helm, S., Gobbers K-L. and Strock, C., 2011, p.48).

Corporate Image

Generally speaking definitions of corporate image are focused on the feelings and opinions about the organization that is existing in the minds of its environment. However, other scientists from the branch of organizational behaviour have different definitions such as the internal stakeholders' u comprehension about perceptions of external parties (Dutton, J. E. & Dukerich, J. M., 1991, p.543). Another angle from which image can be interpreted is "what comes to mind" (Gray, E. R. & Balmer, J. M. T., 1998, p.696) when a stakeholder hears the name of the organization or how she responds to its logo.

Assuming that corporate image can be understood as the "mental interpretation" (Bennett and Gabriel, 2003, p.276) regarding an organizational structure, then it must be linked to the external factors of people's perceptions, but this situation must not stop it being recreated and consciously managed by the organizational PR, marketing and communications activities. Definition of image in marketing literature is as follows: "the summary of images held by external constituencies" (Hatch, M. J. & Schultz, M., 1997, p.359). Hence image can be thought of as a very complicated logical picture which exists in the perceptions of related stakeholders which must be created by a total of visual hints manipulated on purpose by the organization. In contradiction to traditional views of organizational behaviour which are focused on "'individuals' in the organization" (Dutton, J. E. & Dukerich, J. M., 1991, p.542) perceptions of external stakeholders think of the organization rather than what they actually think .

Based on these definitions, it can be assumed generally speaking corporate image is in the perceptions of the stakeholders, when in fact corporate identity is in the organization. “Intangible assets”, according to Sveiby, can be classified as “employee competences”, “internal structures” and “external structures” in the balance sheets of companies (Sveiby, 1995). Corporate identity, brand and reputation belong to the “external structures” in his system (Nyárády and Szeles, 2004) (Csordás, T., 2008, p.8; PhD Thesis). Easily, a common difference that now can be made is corporate identity can be thought of as “what a firm is” and “image is what a firm is perceived to be” (Helm, S., Gobbers K-L. and Strock, C., 2011, p.49).

In spite of need of further research to explain and understand all dimensions of the image construct, there is general agreement that it represents the sum of a “person’s beliefs, ideas, feelings and impressions” (Dowling, 1986; in Press, M. & Cooper, R., 2003, p.47) about an organization and results in “the set of meanings” (Dowling, 1986) through which people know, describe, remember and relate to an organization.

The definition which is accepted widely of organizational identity given by Albert and Whetten (1985) can be used as a good starting point. In their study organizational identity “refers only to what members believe in good faith to be most central, enduring, and distinctive” (Albert & Whetten, 1985) “features of their organization” in (Lerpold, L., Ravasi, D., van Rekom, J. and Soennen, G., 2007, p.2). Broader speaking, the suggested typical question for organizational identity can be, “Who are we, as an organization?”

A reason for competing definitions of organizational identity is “identity-as-shared perceptions among members versus identity-as-institutionalized claims available to members” (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.395). When it comes to the term identity there is such a wrong perception that organizations are just sums of individuals or certain groups.

Hence, organizational identity is “self-conception as a member of a particular organization and, thus, attitudes, motives, goals, and practices” (Hogg & Terry, 2000, p.125). This angle comes with important questions about how participants perceive their organization as well as how which of the members are really important in the definition and interpretation of organizational identity.

Whetten’s view is -Whetten (2002)- parallel to this view, called for a “conception of organizational identity that is unique to identity and uniquely organizational” (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.396). Specifically, he advocates that conceptions of an identity of an organization (in comparison with identity of the group) should be counted for unique status of organization as social actors.

The most fundamental necessity of a social act to be able to conceive of identity is that it has to include a direct self-referent. The significance of an obvious conceptual connection between the terms “identity” and “self” is mentioned in James’s (1892) early differentiation between the “I” (self) and the “me” (self-concept), and Mead’s (1934) discussion of the same distinction led to an understandable theory of identity formation. Identity is central in understanding of the self that identity is often considered the same with human beings’ self-concept and/or self-definition.

Czamiawska stressed that in her book “Narrating the organization: dramas of institutional identity” (1997) any observation made to “the self”, independent if we are referring to organizational self or individual self, is not likely due to the reason that identity can be perceived as “self definition” of the considered social actor. In Czamiawska’ words, the social accountability requirement can be considered as the same at both personal and organizational levels: “Only the mies of the accounting seem to be different”(pp. 45–46).

Preference of scholars who work identity is functional definitions: “Identity is what identity does” (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.399). The most fundamental need of expression of identity for social accountability and social intercourse purposes is the differentiation and specific comparison of the self and the other. According to Tajfel (1972) this is a human need to be able find her “own place in society” (p. 293). The distinction between self and other puts the organizational identity research activity between its social environment, related with explicit and implicit relationships with other social interaction groups, and the organization itself.

Because of the necessity of organizational continuity, organizational identity creates the stability end of stability-flexibility dimension and helps to define elements and activities of an organization. In this regard, organizational identity functions like a constitution – the organization’s definition about itself demonstrates the core theory that belongs to the entity. “In a constitution-like manner, an organization’s self-definition satisfies its members’ inherent needs for (a) a ‘court of last resort’ in matters pertaining to their membership rights and responsibilities and (b) a set of authorized ‘ultimate whys’ for planning, explaining, and justifying collective action” (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.399). It follows that, although there are provisions for change in these charters, they are, by design, extremely difficult to satisfy.

The “principle of optimal distinctiveness” which is defined by Brewer (1991) helps to expand our knowledge of the uniqueness of functional requirement. Brewer claims that the people’s self-definitions have two fundamental necessities:

i. a need for assimilation (How are we similar to others?) and

ii. a need for uniqueness (How are we different from others?).

Another important factor to be put in count is natural difference between human being-as person-and organizations. It is broadly accepted between organizational researchers that organizations are approved as both social actors and structures – that they are created as social tools shaped by their creators for specific purposes, i.e. in the subject of identity, organizations cannot be thought of as the equivalent of individuals'. “There are characteristics that predate the identity articulation process (such as gender, ethnicity, physical characteristics, family status, and birth order)” (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.396). Hence, we can advocate that when in fact the identity of human beings is constructed by society, organizations themselves are social constructions.

One conclusion of this examination is that organizational identity is duly to be understood as “a set of categorical identity claims (who or what we claim to be, categorically) in reference to a specified set of institutionally standardized social categories” (Heugens, P. P. M. A. R. and Kroezen, J. J., 2010 in Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.396). Another conclusion is that for the practical sameness argument to hold, the idea of organizational identity must be valued for the acquiring of the functional sameness of human beings’ assigned, or inherited, characteristics as “part of the organizational identity formation process” (Burke, R. J., Martin, G. and Cooper, C. L., 2011, p.114). The research on institutional theories of organizations gives important insights related to the origin and nature of claims of organizational identity.

The gravity centre of the modern application of institutional theory into the research of organizations resulted with suggestion that organizations are being derived from available, existing social institutions (Friedland & Alford, 1991; Zucker, 1988). Social institutions can be perceived of as social forms and related with social norms. The component of concoction determined by these recipes which are referred to as construct routines and logics, and more generally, are thought as organizational forms.

In identity terms, “the selection of organizational forms makes up” (Smith, D. G. and King, B. G., 2006, p.34) a self-categorization process whereby the organization’s “memberships in identity categories or groups are declared” (Smith D. G. and King, B. G., 2006, p.34). Some examples for different types of organizational identity categories can be i.) religious organization vs business organization; ii.) public vs private ownership of the organization; and iii.) regional vs global domain. The result of total of these chosen ways-options- forms by the answer of the question “What type of organization/social actor are we forming?” (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.399).

There is another method in which institutional theory gives information for concept as social actor of organizational identity. Institutional theory claims that organizations do not have to be just derived from social institutions; additionally, as they evolve and get more mature, they evolve into institutions which have their own rights. For instance Selznick (1957, p.17) proposed the following conclusions on the topic: “In what is perhaps the most significant meaning, ‘to institutionalize’ is to infuse with value beyond the technical requirement of the task at hand”; “as institutionalization progresses, the enterprise takes on a special character and this means that it becomes peculiarly competent to do a particular kind of work” .

The relations between elements of institutional theory and comparable elements of a self-definition of a human being have been clarified by Brewer and Gardner (1996) with this sentence: “These different aspects of the self refer to different levels of inclusiveness of the conceptualization of the self – the shift from “I” to “we” as the focus of self-definition” (p.84). According to Brewer and Gardner the social self means: “those aspects of the self-concept that reflect assimilation to others or significant social groups” (1996, p.83) and the personal self is “those aspects of the self-concept that differentiate the self from all others” (1996, p.83). They claimed that the research about individual identity has firmly altered away from its natural focus which was on the personal self and defined by the exclusive qualities of individuals.

Brewer and Gardner (1996) advocated in their work that the social self has two different dimensions. These are the collective self and the relational self. The collective self which “reflects industrialization of the norms and characteristics of important reference groups and consists of cognitions about the self that are consistent with that group identification”(p.83) and the public self which “represents those aspects of the self-concept most sensitive to the evaluation of significant others and consists of cognitions about the self that reflect interactions and relationships with those others” (Brewer and Gardner (1996, p.83). Like many other scholars who are working on identity Brewer and Gardner (1996) also claim that group identification is the main point of the social identity of human beings; they advocate that the social self comes out from social bonds which are related to memberships in interrelated groups and from common identity-defining factors – for instance demographic factors – shared with other group members of supposed groups.

As a result identity requirement of social actors is crucial for persuasive social relation in the group and social acceptance by the group. "An organization's self-definition specifies how the organization is both similar to and different from other organizations" (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.400). Organizational forms which are chosen by its founders and following leaders help to shape the organization's joint identity claims, i.e. characteristics which are common in an organization of a certain type. Additionally it is possible to claim that the institutionalization method of an organization is nexus in an organization's hereditary need for differentness.

Organizational Image and Reputation

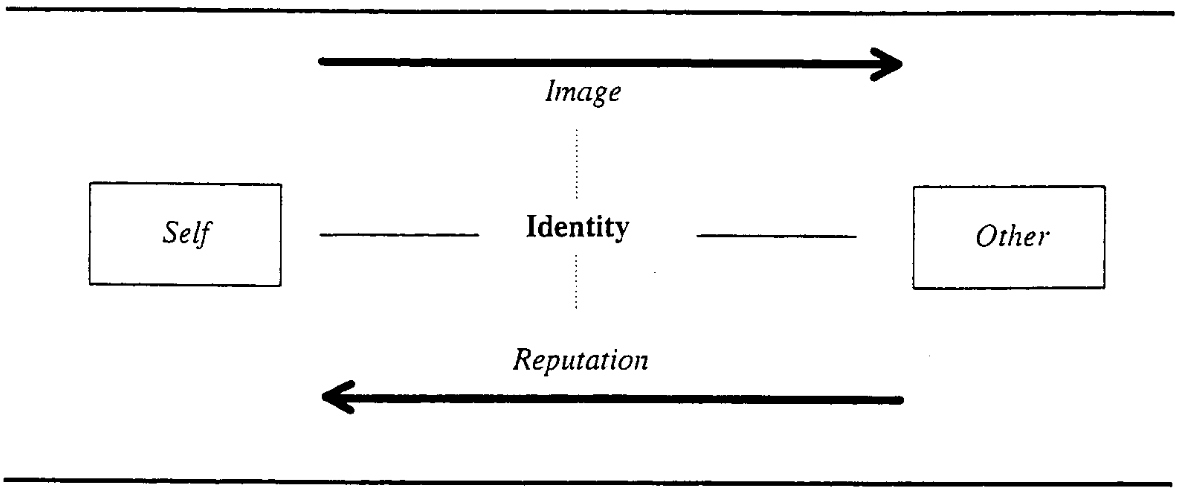
After explaining social actor perception now I will try to differentiate and also try to explain the relations between corporate identity, corporate image and corporate reputation. At the widest degree, there are some researchers who have used all of these concepts as if they are the same, when in fact some other scholars have claimed that they are different but also closely related. As a matter of fact, researchers have claimed that: "(a) reputation is a combination of identity and image (Davies, Chun); (b) identity leads to image, which leads to reputation (Patton et al., 1994); (c) image is the equivalent of what some define as reputation (Wartick, 2002); and (d) identity is the equivalent of what some refer to as image (Wartick, 2002)" (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.401).

Lack of clear consensus on: i.) definition of reputation, ii.) relation between mentioned concepts causes lacking ability of a proposition with multiple constructs. Here I will give the definitions of image, and I will use the definitions of reputation which are already given.

In literature there are three given definitions of concept organizational image: "(a) what members think outsiders think about their organization" (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.400), "(b) what outsiders think about an organization" (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.400) and "(c) what members present or project about their organization to influence how others think about the organization" (Bemstein, 1984) (Whetten, D. A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.400). It is obvious how important the image concept is to our comprehension of identity and reputation, and it is easy to understand how likely it is that different image definitions could be bewildered with existing conception of the other two; lack of consensus regarding definition of image worsens the possible research related to any combination of the above-mentioned subjects.

If we take a bigger picture, the components of identity, image and reputation concepts are the most important elements of effectiveness, which has crucial importance to the success of a firm, or of a self-managed project. Based on this foundation, image and reputation are perceived as elements of a balanced communication's method between the organization-group (self) and appropriate stakeholders (other). This reciprocal exchange of communications is being used as a device for regulation to be able to keep up a plausible level of agreement between the activities of the organization and identity claims of it. Therefore, if all the components of this self-regulatory process function as it is being modelled, agreement within organizations is settled and predictability-based trust between stakeholders is being created.

In the research for individual identity, this process is called to as self-presentation (Leary, M. R. and Tangney, J. P., 2012 p.542). Reputation which is complimentary to the image can be thought of as feedback from other parties which has a certain effect on the credibility of an organization's self definition. The findings of Baumeister (1998) are similar. "Speaking of this process", he wrote, "it is not merely an idle curiosity, however, but part of a process of changing the self to bring it up to meet [specified] standards" (p.717). For further development of the identity-based concepts of image and reputation shown in Figure 2. (Whetten, D.A. and Mackey, A., 2002, p.400).



(Whetten, D.A.,Mackey,A.2002,p.400). Table 2

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

Customer satisfaction is a widely used concept in the whole marketing world. In spite of wide usage, definition of it is still a problem. Everyone knows its definition until you ask them what it is. In literature the difference consumer satisfaction and customer satisfaction is not defined; that's why they have been used interchangeably in this text.

First of all I want to discuss problems and different definitions of "customer satisfaction", and then I will discuss the relation of it with other concepts like "brand commitment", "purchase indentation" and "WOM (word of mouth)".

Despite of duration and work until today work since famous Carodozo's (1965) – An experimental study of customer effort, expectation, and satisfaction ¬– there is still no agreement on a definition of the term "consumer/customer satisfaction". According to Oliver (1997) this definitional problem is paraphrased in literature as "everyone knows what [satisfaction] is until asked to give a definition. Then it seems, nobody knows" (p. 13). Most of the research on consumer satisfaction is focused on testing different customer satisfaction models, because of assumption satisfaction definition is made (e.g. Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988; Tse & Wilton, 1988; Oliver, 1993; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Spreng, MacKenzie, & Olshavsky 1996) while considerations of a proper satisfaction definition have received little or no attention. The natural result is that the literature is filled with different concepts and operation-related definitions of the term consumer/customer satisfaction; for some of the definitions see Table 4. While it has been suggested in the work of Peterson & Wilson (1992), "Studies of customer satisfaction are perhaps best characterized by their lack of definitional and methodological standardization" (Giese, J. L. and Cote, J. A., 2000, p.1).

Aspects of customer satisfaciton

Reason of lacking definition of customer satisfaction is existence of different angles of it. These different points of view about satisfaction create huge definition difficulty, generally because it is strictly connected to the whole consumption experience (Oliver, 1997, p.13):

- Satisfaction with events that happen during consumption.
- Satisfaction with final outcome.
- Satisfaction with level of satisfaction received.

Hence, satisfaction can be imagined as a combination of single events which are heading to an outcome which describes satisfaction as second step they lead to a total conclusion of the consumption experience. An understandable definition of "customer satisfaction" as a concept regarding "pleasurable fulfillment" is given by Oliver (1997):

"…Satisfaction is the consumer's fulfillment response. It is a judgment that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provided (or is providing) a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfillment, including levels of under- or over fulfillment…" (Siskos,Y. and Grigoroudis, E., 2010, p.4).

Most definitions of customer satisfaction refer to a response as an evaluation process-during consumption, i.e.

- a "fulfillment response" (Oliver 1997, p.13);
- "affective response" (Halstead, Hartman & Schmidt 1994, p.122);
- "overall evaluation" (Fornell 1992, p.11);
- "psychological state" (Howard & Sheth 1969, p.145);
- "global evaluative judgment" (Westbrook 1987, p.260);

- “summary attribute phenomenon” (Oliver 1992, p.242); and
- “evaluative response” (Day 1984, p.496).

Nevertheless, there is lack of agreement regarding the concept of the nature of the summary-final outcome. According to researchers who are working on this subject, consumer satisfaction is either a

- “cognitive response” (e.g. Howard & Sheth 1969, p.122; Tse & Wilton 1988, p.204) or
- “affective response “(e.g. Halstead, Hartman & Schmidt 1994, p.122; Westbrook & Reilly 1983, p.258).

A final inconsistency appears in the terms which are used as a classification for this concept. Researchers in this field have used different terms for the concept satisfaction as determined by the final user:

- “consumer satisfaction” (e.g. Cronin & Taylor 1992; Oliver 1993; Tse & Wilton 1988; Westbrook 1980);
- “customer satisfaction” (e.g. Churchill & Surprenant 1982; Halstead, Hartman, & Schmidt 1994; Smith, Bolton, & Wagner 1999); and
- “satisfaction” (e.g. Kourilsky & Murray 1981; Oliver 1992; Oliver & Swan 1989).

These terms – customer satisfaction, consumer satisfaction and satisfaction – have been used interchangeably, with quite limited, if any, plausible reason for the use of any particular term.

The lacking consensus on the definition of satisfaction brings along three hard-to-solve problems for the satisfaction researcher: i.) selecting the suitable definition to a study, ii.) “operationalizing the definition” (Giese, J. L., and Cote, J. A., p.1) and iii.) lacking ability to interpretation and comparison of empirical results. These problems are affecting the fundamental structure and results of marketing research and testing theory.

Clarification of the conceptual domain is crucial while testing and discussing theory. An important part of the clarification process is the definition of the concepts of interest and making clear why this approach is appropriate. It is not necessary to have a consensual definition in each and every study. “However, if multiple definitions for a construct exist, then researchers must explicitly define and justify the definition selected” (Giese, J. L. and Cote, J. A., 2000, p.1).

Lacking definition’s consensus creates big troubles when it comes to developing valid measures for satisfaction. Proper definition of theoretical meaning and a proper conceptual domain are needed to be able to develop appropriate measures and to be able to obtain valid results. If the customer satisfaction definition is not clear, or lacking, then it is clear/justified that measures used are clear or valid.“Marsh & Yeung (1999) claimed in their research that the “underlying nature of the measured ... construct are changed by the context within which they appear” (p.53). For sure the definition and measuring problems become more serious as the scale of the job becomes more global naturally. Hence, the “chameleon effect” defined by Marsh and Yeung (1999, p.49) in their work is very aggressive in customer satisfaction research. Generally speaking there is no definition of the concept satisfaction, neither guidance to create one, nor measurement in global scale; this means every researcher has to create her/his own concept of all those three based on cues of market, products constructs etc.

Operational and Conceptual Definitions of Consumer Satisfaction in Literature

Some definitions of customer satisfaction which can be seen in literature are listed in the table below. There are three accepted categories which are mentioned in the marketing literature of all the definitions presented. “As it can be seen there are different definitions based on response on consumer, focus point of researcher and time of consumption of service/material and also all these definitions are evolved in time, since Cardozo’s classical article in 1965” (Giese, J. L. and Cote, J. A., p.5).

Source	Conceptual Definition	Response	Focus	Time
Oliver 1997	a judgment that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provided (or is providing) a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfillment, including levels of under- or overfulfillment (p. 13)	Fulfillment response/judgment	Product or service	During consumption
Halstead, Hartman, and Schmidt 1994	A transaction-specific affective response resulting from the customer's comparison of product performance to some prepurchase standard (e.g., Hunt 1977; Oliver 1989) (p. 122).	Affective response	Product performance compared to some prepurchase standard	During or after consumption
Mano and Oliver 1993	(Product satisfaction) is an attitude - like postconsumption evaluative judgment (Hunt 1977) varying along the hedonic continuum (Oliver 1989; Westbrook and Oliver 1991) (p. 454).	Attitude - evaluative judgment Varying along the hedonic continuum	Product	Postconsumption
Fornell 1992	An overall postpurchase evaluation (p.11).	Overall evaluation	Postpurchase perceived product performance compared with prepurchase expectations	Postpurchase
Oliver 1992	Examined whether satisfaction was an emotion. Concluded that satisfaction is a summary attribute phenomenon coexisting with other consumption emotions (p. 242).	Summary attribute phenomenon coexisting with other consumption emotions	Product attributes	During consumption
Westbrook and Oliver 1991	A postchoice evaluative judgment concerning a specific purchase selection (Day 1984) (p. 84).	Evaluative judgment	Specific purchase selection	Postchoice
Oliver and Swan 1989	salesperson) a function of fairness, preference, and disconfirmation (pp. 28-29).		Salesperson	During purchase

Tse and Wilton 1988	The consumer's response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations (or some norm of performance) and the actual performance of the product as perceived after its consumption (p. 204).	Response to the evaluation	Perceived discrepancy between prior expectations (or some norm of performance) and the actual performance of the product	Postconsumption
Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins 1987	Conceptualized as a feeling developed from an evaluation of the use experience (p. 305).	Feeling developed from an evaluation	Use experience	During consumption
Westbrook 1987	Global evaluative judgment about product usage/consumption (p. 260) Also cited Hunt (1977).	Global evaluative judgment	Product usage/consumption	During consumption
Day 1984	the evaluative response to the current consumption event...the consumer's response in a particular consumption experience to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations (or some other norm of performance) and the actual performance of the product perceived after its acquisition (p.496).	Evaluative response	Perceived discrepancy between prior expectations (or some other norm of performance) and the actual performance of the product	Current consumption event ... particular consumption experience ... after its acquisition
Bearden and Teel 1983	No conceptual definition. A function of consumer expectations operationalized as product attribute beliefs (Olson and Dover 1979) and disconfirmation (p. 22).			During consumption
LaBarbera and Mazursky 1983	Postpurchase evaluation. Cited Oliver's (1981) definition: An evaluation of the surprise inherent in a product acquisition and/or consumption experience (p. 394).	Evaluation	Surprise	Postpurchase Product acquisition and/or consumption experience

Westbrook and Reilly 1983	An emotional response to the experiences provided by and associated with particular products or services purchased, retail outlets, or even molar patterns of behavior such as shopping and buyer behavior, as well as the overall marketplace (p. 256). An emotional response triggered by a cognitive evaluative process in which the perceptions of (or beliefs about) an object, action, or condition are compared to one's values (or needs, wants, desires) (p. 258).	Emotional response	Experiences provided by and associated with particular products or services purchased, retail outlets, or even molar patterns of behavior such as shopping and buyer behavior Perceptions of (or beliefs about) an object, action, or condition are compared to one's values	Postpurchase
Churchill and Surprenant 1982	Conceptually, an outcome of purchase and use resulting from the buyer's comparison of the rewards and costs of the purchase relative to anticipated consequences. Operationally, similar to attitude in that it can be assessed as a summation of satisfactions with various attributes (p. 493).	Outcome	Comparison of the rewards and costs of the purchase relative to anticipated consequences	Implies after purchase and use
Oliver 1981	An evaluation of the surprise inherent in a product acquisition and/or consumption experience. In essence, the summary psychological state resulting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectations is coupled with the consumer's prior feelings about the consumption experience (p. 27).	Evaluation Summary psychological state Emotion	Surprise Disconfirmed expectations coupled with the consumer's prior feelings	Product acquisition and/or consumption experience

(Giese,J.L.,Cote,J.A.,p.5-8) **Table 3**

Measuring Customer Satisfaction

The greatest problem of lacking consensual on definition of customer/consumer satisfaction is its measurement. Neither antecedents nor consequences are yet well defined, and they are indeed a matter of discussion. In this work I will include just one model American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI). The American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI) is a countrywide-used autonomous benchmark of customer/consumer satisfaction to be able to guarantee the high quality of products and services for last users of them used across consumers in the United States of America.

"The American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI) is a new type of market-based performance measure for firms, industries, economic sectors, and national economies" (Fornell, C., Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E.W., Cha, J. & Brynatt, B. E., 1996, p.7).

Researchers also showed that the the American Customer Satisfaction Index can be a useful tool in preparing both over time and cross-sectional benchmark studies. Results of the researches showed that:

(1) customization is a more decisive factor rather than reliability in determination of customer/consumer satisfaction (Fornell, C., Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E. W., Cha, J. & Brynatt, B. E., 1996, p.9);

(2) customer expectations have greater importance in branches in those variety of both production and consumption is rather lower (Fornell, C., Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E. W., Cha, J. & Brynatt, B. E., 1996, p.9); and

(3) “customer satisfaction is more quality-driven than value- or price-driven” (Grönfeldt, S. and Stroher, J., 2006, p.98). The researchers finish their work with a discussion of the applications of the ACSI for people in leading positions such as “public policymakers, managers, consumers, and marketing in general” (Fornell, C., Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E. W., Cha, J. & Brynatt, B. E, 1996, p.9).

Roughly 70,000 consumers are surveyed every year about the products and services used by them the most; “the survey data serve as inputs to an econometric model that benchmarks customer satisfaction with more than 230 companies in 47 industries and 10 economic sectors, as well as over 100 services, programs, and websites of federal government agencies” (http://www.theacsi.org/about-acsi/about-acsi 22.01.2012).

The time-tested, scientific structure of the ACSI provides key perception across the entire consumer experience. Micro level in this meaning is company level, macro level is market and GDP (gross domestic product) level. It has been found that at micro level higher customer satisfaction has a positive impact on earnings and stock returns in comparison with competitors. At macro level higher customer satisfaction has a positive effect on customer spending and GDP growth. (http://www.theacsi.org/about-acsi/about-acsi 22.01.2012).

HYPOTHESIS

Customer Satisfaction and Brand Loyalty

A definition of brand loyalty is: 1. "The situation in which a consumer generally buys the same manufacturer-originated product or service repeatedly over time rather than buying from multiple suppliers within the category" (http://www.marketingpower.com/ _ layouts/ dictionary. aspx? Dletter =b 25.04.2012). 2. "The degree to which a consumer consistently purchases the same brand within a product class" by American Marketing Association (http://www. marketingpower.com/ _layouts/ dictionary. aspx?dletter=b 25.04.2012).

In literature there are plenty of papers which refer to the relation between customer satisfaction and brand loyalty. (Bowen, 2001; Sivadas and Baker-Prewitt 2000; Hallowell, 1996; La, Yi. 2004, Caruna, 2002 etc.)

Fornell (1992) advocates in his research that high customer/consumer satisfaction generates increased customer loyalty for the brand and firm; and customers will have less tendency to be affected by competitors; "if firms are not able to demonstrate a link between customer satisfaction and economic performance, then firms may abandon the focus on customer satisfaction measurement" (Sivadas and Baker-Prewitt 2000, p.75).

Grant (1998) found in his ACSI research that there is a positive correlation between stock market returns and customer satisfaction. Sivadas and Baker-Prewitt (2000) and Fornell et al. (1996) also offer some evidence of the linkage between customer satisfaction and loyalty.

Therefore:

H1: *High customer satisfaction has a positive relation with brand loyalty.*

Customer Satisfaction, Purchase Intention and WOM

Satisfaction is positively related with

- "repurchase intentions" (Anderson & Fornell, 1994, p.22);
- "likelihood of recommending a product or service" (Anton, 1996, p.23); and
- "loyalty, and profitability" (Anton, 1996, p.23).

Dissatisfaction has been seen as a primary reason for customer loose and/or discontinuation of buying. For example, in his work Anton (1996, p.47) suggests that "customers switch suppliers because they are not satisfied with the company's perceived value, relative to the competition."

A high level of customer satisfaction provides the customer with constant positive experience and creates commitment-inducing bonds. "When consumers are satisfied with the brand, they will have positive emotional connections with it (Fournier, 1998, Keiningham et al., 2006), as in affective commitment to the brand" (Lee, K-Y., Huang, H-L. and Hsu,Y-C., 2007, p.163).

Therefore:

H2: *High customer satisfaction is positively related to high purchase intention.*

"We posit that a favorable relative attitude will result in consumers recommending a product or service, repurchase intentions, and loyalty"(Sivadas and Baker-Prewitt, 2000; p.4).

Therefore:

H3: *High customer satisfaction is positively related with WOM..*

Reputation and Brand Loyalty

As one of the valuable intangible assets of a corporation, corporate reputation has received very high attention from academics and also the business community. On the other hand, the inemitability of factors which are effecting corporate reputation make it complicated for both parties to define, measure and hence work with it; "one country or area could hardly been replicated in another place due to its culture and environment-dependent characteristic, thus good corporate reputation is of great importance in corporate core competence." (Zhang, Y., 2009, p. 28).

The gravity centre of corporate reputation has two main points. These are

- corporate behaviours and
- corporate social responsibilities.

Therefore if corporate reputation exerts an impact on customer loyalty and if yes, what is the interaction mechanism between them has been an interesting and meaningful research topic. Some researches advocate – in spite of lacking empirical research – that a good corporate reputation helps to benefit the company in two ways:

- by shortening the business establishing time, lowering transaction cost and creating high revenues by attracting potential customers (Zhang,Y., 2009, p.28); and
- a good corporate reputation can help the company to reach to new markets and also can be useful by promoting the sales of new production (Zhang, Y., 2009, p.28).

"Excellent corporate reputation could save the cost of establishing trust with new customers and help improve transaction efficiency" (Xu Jinfa, 2005, p.47).

Trust is an inseparable with of corporate reputation (Davis Young, 1997, p.13) and "is also an important prerequisite for the formation of customer loyalty" (Zhang, Y., 2009, p.28).

Therefore:

H4: *Reputation is positively related with high brand loyalty.*

Reputation and Purchase Intention

A customer exhibiting higher purchase intentions is likely to stay longer with the supplier firm and have lower sensitivity to price changes. In particular, researchers are recognizing the critical role of price premium as a favourable characteristic of customer commitment as well as an important contributor to firm revenue (e.g. Bendixen, Bukasa & Abratt, 2004; Kumar, Bohling & Ladda, 2003) (Kie, H.T. and Xie,Y., 2007, p.3).

Therefore:

H5: *Reputation is positively related with higher purchase intention*

Reputation and WOM(Word-of-Mouth)

The quality-improving result of reputation might have been explained by the fact that companies which have low product quality will be punished by it's customers, who are going to engage themselves in negative word of mouth (WOM). On the other hand, customers who perceive the company to have a good reputation are to be expected to have more tendency to be engaged in positive WOM (word of mouth) than those customers who are not convinced that the company has a good reputation (Walsh, G., Mitchell, V-W., Jackson, P. R. and Beatty S. E., 2009, p.190), i.e. those companies which have very good reputations will excite very positive WOM; meanwhile companies which have very poor reputations may excite negative WOM. This idea is supported by Sundaram, Mitra and Webster (1998), who found eight motives for word of mouth, one of them being “helping the company”. It is likely that companies with a good reputation can create a goodwill reservoir for themselves which can involve customers acting as advocates of the company.

Therefore:

H6: Reputation is posivitely related to WOM

Generally speaking:

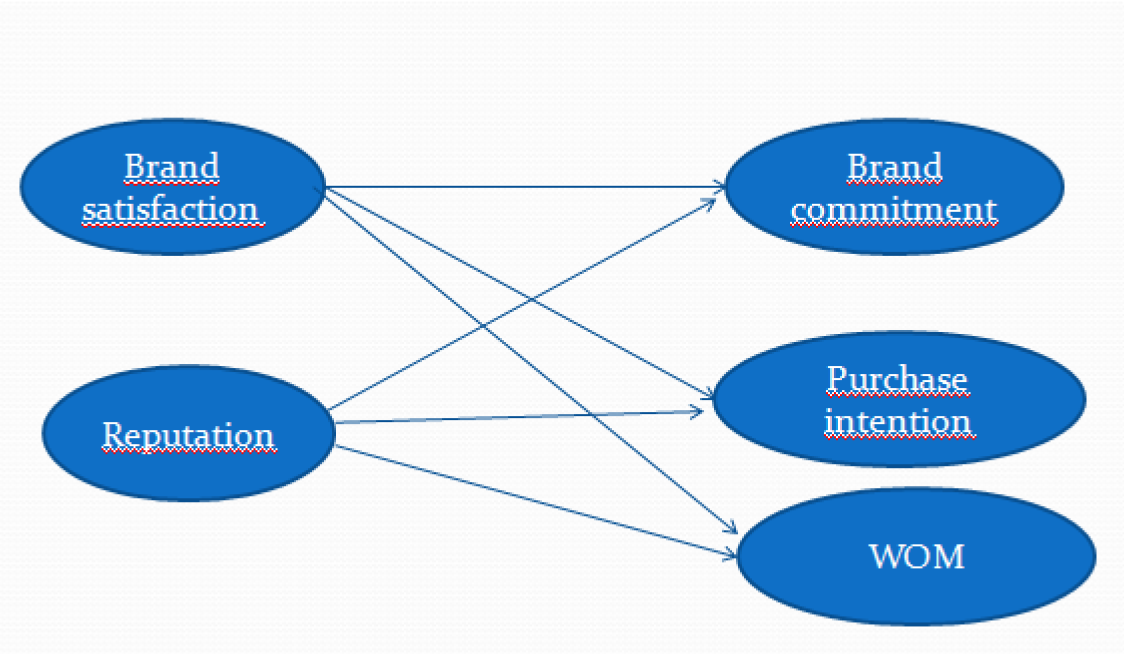


Table 4

Methodology

This is an empirical work, based on collected data from different McDonald's and Burger King outlets in Istanbul/Turkey. Four outlets were chosen randomly and questions were asked of 10 people chosen randomly.

The first stage of research was collecting necessary data. It will be seen easily that collected data is from 4 different outlets or each brand. These outlets and people who answered these questions were randomly chosen.

The second step was input of data and preparing descriptive statistics. As can be seen in the data, all of these people are young people. The reason for this situation is the age-based preference of Turkish people; mostly young people prefer fast food restaurants in Turkey. Data had been input to SPSS program and all analysis are done using it. Hence descriptive statistics are seen in the first row.

The third step was aggregation of data. There was more than one question for each concepts hence aggregation of these questions was necessary. A precondition of data aggregation is to avoid multiculinarity. For understanding if there is high correlation between two question I needed to check correlation between question, so bivariate correlations can be seen after descriptive statistics.

The fourth step was checking correlation between aggregated data, because a precondition of linear regression is non-existing correlation, hence you can find the bivariate correlations between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention, customer satisfaction and WOM, and customer satisfaction and brand loyalty; reputation and repurchase intention, reputation and WOM, and reputation and brand loyalty.

The last step or research was to check linear regression between the concepts mentioned in the hypothesis, so customer satisfaction and repurchase intention, customer satisfaction and WOM, and customer satisfaction and brand loyalty; reputation and repurchase intention, reputation and WOM, and reputation and brand loyalty.

Item Statistics

Item statistics

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
COMPUTE Satisfaction=(var6 + var8 + var9)/3	4,6596	1,52513	47
COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5	5,1021	1,27918	47
COMPUTE Brand_comm=(var16 + var17 + var18 + var19 + var20 + var21)/6	3,5426	1,45399	47
COMPUTE WOM=(var12 + var13 + var14 + var15)/4.	4,0957	1,26894	47
COMPUTE Purchase_int=(var10 + var11)/2	3,1915	,88804	47

Table 5

All Standard statistics for dependent and indipendent variables used in the model are as written in the table above. The next stage is to check reliability ad scales for used variables in the model.

Cronbach's Alpha

To be able to check reliabilty of empirical results Cronbach's alpha test hed been made. This test is done in three steps.

First step was alpha between all dependent and independent variables, second test was alpha between independent variables –satisfaction and reputation, third step was test between all depenend variables-WOM, purchase intenion and brand commitment.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,850	,858	5

Table 6

As it is written above first step was Cronbach's alpha test for all dependent and independent variables of model. There are 2 independent and three dependent variables as can be seen from pic above.

Cronbach's **α** for all model is **0,850** which indicates high level of internal consistency for scale of used model.

Next step is to check the reliabilties of dependent and independent variables seperatly. Firstly indipend variables- satisfaction and reputation.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,860	,862	2

Table 7

Cronbach's α for all models is 0,860 which indicates a high level of internal consistency for scale of independent variables used in the model.

The last step is to check α value for dependent variables of model-purchase intention, WOM and brand commitment.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,759	,763	3

Table 8

Cronbach's **α** for all model is **0,759** it is below 0,8 which indicates just enough level of internal consistency of used dependent variables of model.

Descriptrive Statistics

		Frequency	Prozent	Valid Prozent	Kumulative Prozent
Valid	Men	34	42,5	43,6	43,6
	Women	44	55,0	56,4	100,0
	Total	78	97,5	100,0	
Missing	System	2	2,5		
Total		80	100,0		

Table 9

As can be seen from the table, 42,5% – 34 of 80 – of chosen people are men, 55% – 44 of 80 – are women and 2.5% – 2 of 80 – gender has not been mentioned. Gender can be seen also from the graphic below:

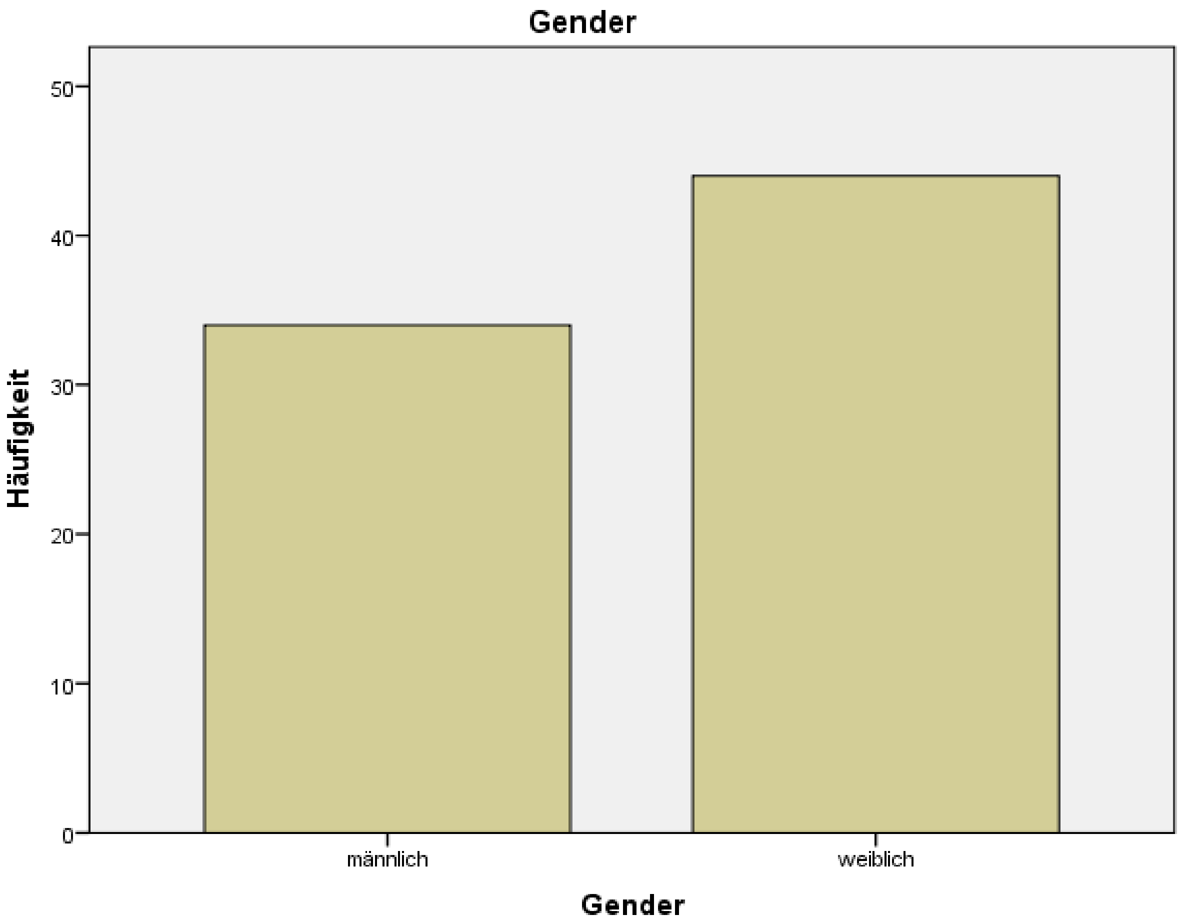


Table 10

As can be seen from the table below, the age of Burger King and McDonald's customers is quite young. It is between 19 and 30, and the average of this group is 24.5. Just one person did not mention her/his age; 79 people gave their ages.

In the second table these ages can be seen as a graphic also. The highest age seen is 26.

Age

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	19	3	3,8	3,8	3,8
	21	4	5,0	5,1	8,9
	22	6	7,5	7,6	16,5
	23	13	16,3	16,5	32,9
	24	6	7,5	7,6	40,5
	25	2	2,5	2,5	43,0
	26	20	25,0	25,3	68,4
	27	7	8,8	8,9	77,2
	28	12	15,0	15,2	92,4
	30	6	7,5	7,6	100,0
	Gesamt	79	98,8	100,0	
Fehlend	System	1	1,3		
Gesamt		80	100,0		

Table 11

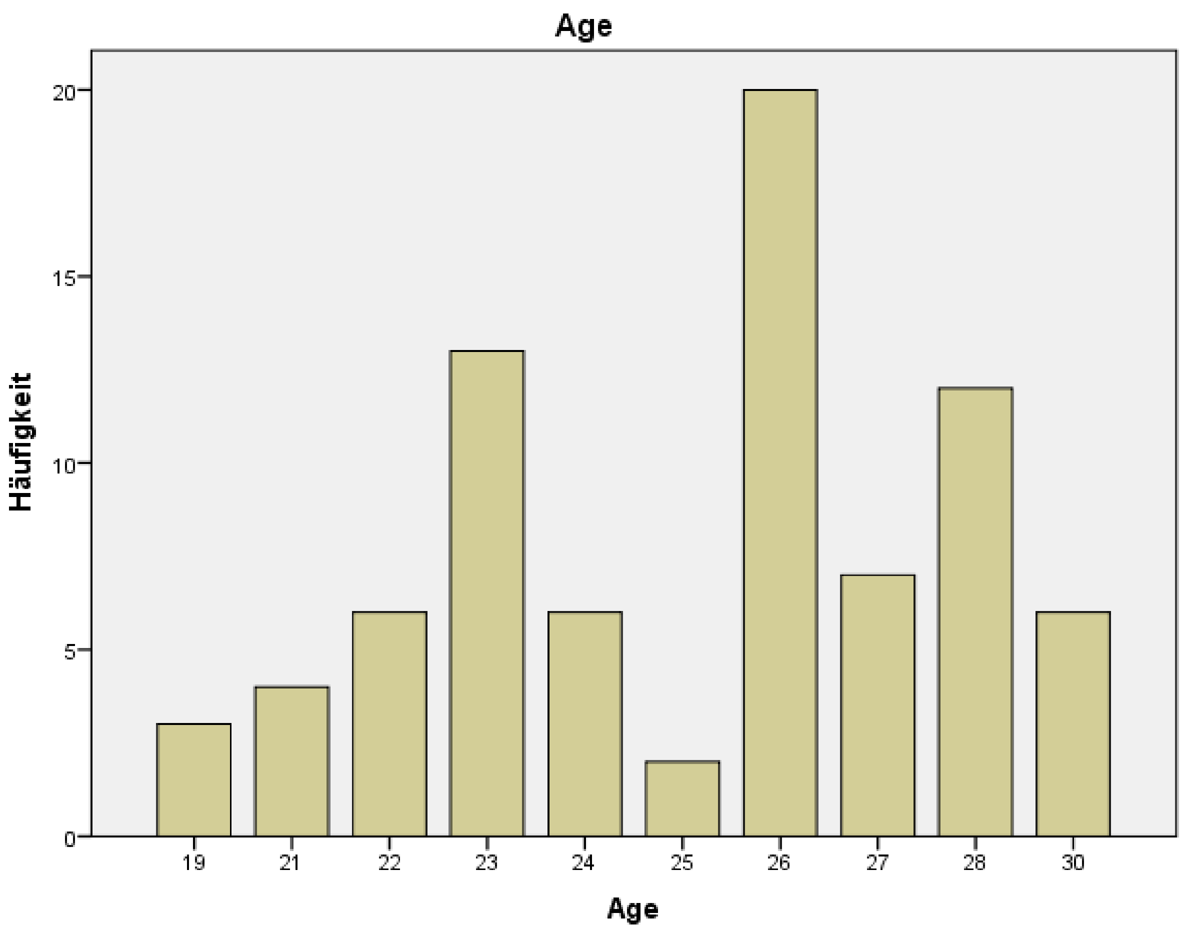


Table 12

From education point of view most people who are dining in Burger King and McDonald's are high educated people.

More then 90% of people dining in these restaurants have high school education or more. Just around 2% of people have primary education and 7% have other kinds of education. Hence I can advocate that we are subjects of this research are young people with high education.

Table 13

Education

		Häufigkeit	Prozent	Gültige Prozente	Kumulierte Prozente
Gültig	Primary Education	1	1,3	1,8	1,8
	High School	18	22,5	32,7	34,5
	Bachelor	15	18,8	27,3	61,8
	Master	17	21,3	30,9	92,7
	Other Education	4	5,0	7,3	100,0
	Total	55	68,8	100,0	
Fehlend	System	25	31,3		
Gesamt		80	100,0		

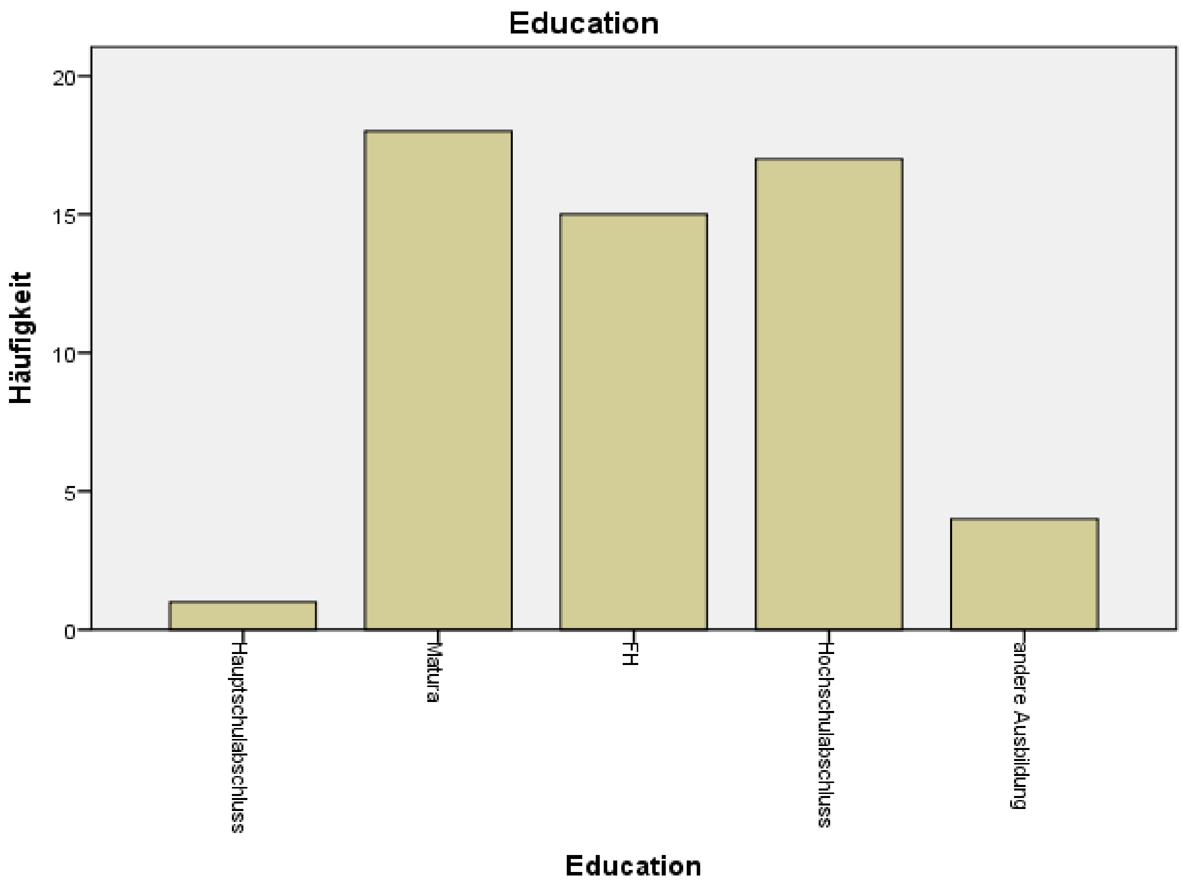


Table 14

Corelations

In the following documents the bivariate correlations between the questions can be found. Before aggregating the data, I needed to check relations in between, and avoid any high correlations. In this model, just in one case the Pearson correlation was higher than 0,9. Hence one of questions had been deleted by me.

Reputation

Corelations (Pearson)		overall perception of all experiences	perception compared to other franchise restaurants	good long-term future	good market standing	high visibility
overall perception of all experiences	Pearson corelations	1	,707**	,638**	,537**	,494**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)		,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	79	78	77	77	78
perception compared to other franchise restaurants	Pearson corelations	,707**	1	,669**	,651**	,642**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000		,000	,000	,000
	N	78	78	77	77	78
good long-term future	Pearson corelations	,638**	,669**	1	,866**	,793**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000		,000	,000
	N	77	77	77	76	77
good market standing	Pearson corelations	,537**	,651**	,866**	1	,854**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000		,000
	N	77	77	76	77	77
high visibility	Pearson corelations	,494**	,642**	,793**	,854**	1
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	,000	
	N	78	78	77	77	78

Table 15

Corelations

			overall perception of all experiences	perception compared to other franchise restaurants	good long-term future	good market standing	high visibility
Kendall-Tau-b	overall perception of all experiences	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,661**	,508**	,465**	,404**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000	,000
		N	79	78	77	77	78
	perception compared to other franchise restaurants	Corelations coefficient	,661**	1,000	,597**	,551**	,517**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	78	78	77	77	78
	good long-term future	Corelations coefficient	,508**	,597**	1,000	,770**	,690**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	77	77	77	76	77
	good market standing	Corelations coefficient	,465**	,551**	,770**	1,000	,778**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.	,000
		N	77	77	76	77	77
	high visibility	Corelations coefficient	,404**	,517**	,690**	,778**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	78	78	77	77	78
Spearman-Rho	overall perception of all experiences	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,780**	,644**	,585**	,509**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000	,000
		N	79	78	77	77	78
	perception compared to other franchise restaurants	Corelations coefficient	,780**	1,000	,714**	,658**	,621**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	78	78	77	77	78
	good long-term future	Corelations coefficient	,644**	,714**	1,000	,867**	,790**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	77	77	77	76	77
	good market standing	Corelations coefficient	,585**	,658**	,867**	1,000	,871**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.	,000
		N	77	77	76	77	77
	high visibility	Corelations coefficient	,509**	,621**	,790**	,871**	1,000

		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	78	78	77	77	78

Table 16

Customer satisfaction

Corelations

		satisfaction with restaurant	pleasure with restaurant	favorably disposed towards restaurant	brand experience positive
satisfaction with restaurant	Pearson corelations	1	,905**	,894**	,812**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)		,000	,000	,000
	N	79	78	78	79
pleasure with restaurant	Pearson corelations	,905**	1	,942**	,859**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000		,000	,000
	N	78	78	77	78
favorably disposed towards restaurant	Pearson corelations	,894**	,942**	1	,827**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000		,000
	N	78	77	78	78
brand experience positive	Pearson corelations	,812**	,859**	,827**	1
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	
	N	79	78	78	79

Table 17

Corelations						
			satisfaction with restaurant	pleasure with restaurant	favorably disposed towards restaurant	brand experience positive
Kendall-Tau-b	satisfaction with restaurant	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,841**	,804**	,747**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	79	78	78	79
	pleasure with restaurant	Corelations coefficient	,841**	1,000	,871**	,796**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	78	78	77	78
	favorably disposed towards restaurant	Corelations coefficient	,804**	,871**	1,000	,760**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000
		N	78	77	78	78
	brand experience positive	Corelations coefficient	,747**	,796**	,760**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	79	78	78	79
Spearman-Rho	satisfaction with restaurant	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,922**	,880**	,830**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	79	78	78	79
	pleasure with restaurant	Corelations coefficient	,922**	1,000	,927**	,886**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	78	78	77	78
	favorably disposed towards restaurant	Corelations coefficient	,880**	,927**	1,000	,837**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000
		N	78	77	78	78
	brand experience positive	Corelations coefficient	,830**	,886**	,837**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	79	78	78	79

Table 18

Purchase intention

Corelations			
		highly likely dine at brand again	intend to dine in future
highly likely dine at brand again	Pearson corelations	1	-,154
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)		,282

	N	79	51
intend to dine in future	Pearson corelations	-,154	1
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,282	
	N	51	51

Table 19

Corelations

			highly likely dine at brand again	intend to dine in future
Kendall-Tau-b	highly likely dine at brand again	Corelations coefficient	1,000	-,391**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,002
		N	79	51
	intend to dine in future	Corelations coefficient	-,391**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,002	.
		N	51	51
Spearman-Rho	highly likely dine at brand again	Corelations coefficient	1,000	-,451**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,001
		N	79	51
	intend to dine in future	Corelations coefficient	-,451**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,001	.
		N	51	51

Table 20

WOM

Corelations

		recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	recommend to dine out	gladly talk about experiences	seek other franchised restaurants to patronize
recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	Pearson corelations	1	,892**	,486**	,429**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)		,000	,000	,000
	N	79	78	79	79
recommend to dine out	Pearson corelations	,892**	1	,566**	,508**

	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000		,000	,000
	N	78	78	78	78
gladly talk about experiences	Pearson corelations	,486**	,566**	1	,587**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000		,000
	N	79	78	79	79
seek other franchised restaurants to patronize	Pearson corelations	,429**	,508**	,587**	1
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	
	N	79	78	79	79

Table 21

Corelations

			recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	recommend to dine out	gladly talk about experiences	seek other franchised restaurants to patronize
Kendall-Tau-b	recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,789**	,396**	,362**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	79	78	79	79
	recommend to dine out	Corelations coefficient	,789**	1,000	,473**	,453**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	78	78	78	78
	gladly talk about experiences	Corelations coefficient	,396**	,473**	1,000	,449**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000
		N	79	78	79	79
	seek other franchised restaurants to patronize	Corelations coefficient	,362**	,453**	,449**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	79	78	79	79
Spearman-Rho	recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,886**	,470**	,410**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	79	78	79	79
	recommend to dine out	Corelations coefficient	,886**	1,000	,549**	,510**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	78	78	78	78
	gladly talk about experiences	Corelations coefficient	,470**	,549**	1,000	,533**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000

		N	79	78	79	79
	seek other franchised restaurants to patronize	Corelations coefficient	,410**	,510**	,533**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	79	78	79	79

Table 22

Brand Commitment

Corelations

		commit to patronize	willing to pay higher price	buy brand next time dining out	intention to keep purchasing brand	values of system match my own	brand and I appear to share similar values
commit to patronize	Pearson corelations	1	,520**	,700**	,679**	,742**	,661**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)		,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	77	77	76	75	76	76
willing to pay higher price	Pearson corelations	,520**	1	,495**	,411**	,600**	,657**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000		,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	77	79	78	77	78	78
buy brand next time dining out	Pearson corelations	,700**	,495**	1	,827**	,800**	,602**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000		,000	,000	,000
	N	76	78	78	77	78	78
intention to keep purchasing brand	Pearson corelations	,679**	,411**	,827**	1	,746**	,645**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000		,000	,000
	N	75	77	77	77	77	77
values of system match my own	Pearson corelations	,742**	,600**	,800**	,746**	1	,832**

	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	,000		,000
	N	76	78	78	77	78	78
brand and I appear to share similar values	Pearson corelations	,661**	,657**	,602**	,645**	,832**	1
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	
	N	76	78	78	77	78	78

Table 23

Corelations

			commit to patronize	willing to pay higher price	buy brand next time dining out	intention to keep purchasing brand	values of system match my own	brand and I appear to share similar values
Kendall-Tau-b	commit to patronize	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,443**	,620**	,590**	,665**	,545**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
		N	77	77	76	75	76	76
	willing to pay higher price	Corelations coefficient	,443**	1,000	,440**	,339**	,515**	,573**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,000
		N	77	79	78	77	78	78
	buy brand next time dining out	Corelations coefficient	,620**	,440**	1,000	,723**	,671**	,486**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	76	78	78	77	78	78
	intention to keep purchasing brand	Corelations coefficient	,590**	,339**	,723**	1,000	,634**	,515**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	75	77	77	77	77	77
	values of system match my own	Corelations coefficient	,665**	,515**	,671**	,634**	1,000	,734**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	,000	.	,000
		N	76	78	78	77	78	78
	brand and I	Corelations	,545**	,573**	,486**	,515**	,734**	1,000

	appear to share similar values	coefficient						
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	76	78	78	77	78	78
Spearman-Rho	commit to patronize	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,526**	,703**	,687**	,745**	,646**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
		N	77	77	76	75	76	76
	willing to pay higher price	Corelations coefficient	,526**	1,000	,525**	,415**	,615**	,677**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,000
		N	77	79	78	77	78	78
	buy brand next time dining out	Corelations coefficient	,703**	,525**	1,000	,818**	,775**	,600**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	76	78	78	77	78	78
	intention to keep purchasing brand	Corelations coefficient	,687**	,415**	,818**	1,000	,741**	,635**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	75	77	77	77	77	77
	values of system match my own	Corelations coefficient	,745**	,615**	,775**	,741**	1,000	,832**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	,000	.	,000
		N	76	78	78	77	78	78
	brand and I appear to share similar values	Corelations coefficient	,646**	,677**	,600**	,635**	,832**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	76	78	78	77	78	78

Table 24

Experience

Corelations

		recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	recommend to dine out	gladly talk about experiences	seek other franchised restaurants to patronize
recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	Pearson corelations	1	,892**	,486**	,429**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)		,000	,000	,000
	N	79	78	79	79
recommend to dine out	Pearson corelations	,892**	1	,566**	,508**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000		,000	,000
	N	78	78	78	78
gladly talk about experiences	Pearson corelations	,486**	,566**	1	,587**
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000		,000
	N	79	78	79	79
seek other franchised restaurants to patronize	Pearson corelations	,429**	,508**	,587**	1
	Signifikanz (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	
	N	79	78	79	79

Table 25

Corelations

			recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	recommend to dine out	gladly talk about experiences	seek other franchised restaurants to patronize
Kendall-Tau-b	recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,789**	,396**	,362**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	79	78	79	79
	recommend to dine out	Corelations coefficient	,789**	1,000	,473**	,453**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	78	78	78	78
	gladly talk about	Corelations coefficient	,396**	,473**	1,000	,449**

	experiences					
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000
		N	79	78	79	79
	seek other franchised restaurants to patronize	Corelations coefficient	,362**	,453**	,449**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	79	78	79	79
Spearman-Rho	recommend to dine at franchised restaurant	Corelations coefficient	1,000	,886**	,470**	,410**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	.	,000	,000	,000
		N	79	78	79	79
	recommend to dine out	Corelations coefficient	,886**	1,000	,549**	,510**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	.	,000	,000
		N	78	78	78	78
	gladly talk about experiences	Corelations coefficient	,470**	,549**	1,000	,533**
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	.	,000
		N	79	78	79	79
	seek other franchised restaurants to patronize	Corelations coefficient	,410**	,510**	,533**	1,000
		Sig. (2-seitig)	,000	,000	,000	.
		N	79	78	79	79

Table 26

Regressions

H1: *Customer satisfaction is posivitely related to brand loyalty.*

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
1	Regression	64,386	1	64,386	45,542	,000[a]
	Residual	97,551	69	1,414		
	Total	161,937	70			

a. Predictors : (Constants), COMPUTE Total_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5
b. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE Brand_loyalty=(var16 + var17 + var18 + var19 + var20 + var21)/6

Table 27

The first hypothesis was advocating that higher brand satisfaction has a positive relation to brand loyalty, and as can be seen in the table for these franchise systems there is a significant relation between these terms. As can be seen from the table, significance value for $\alpha = 0,05$ is 0,000 hence effect of satisfaction on loyalty exists and the relation in between can be shown as follows.

Higher customer satisfaction creates higher brand loyalty. The coefficients of model are as follows:

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandarnized Coefficients		Standart coefficient	T	Sig.
		Regresion coeffient B	Standart error	Beta		
1	(Constants)	,839	,431		1,949	,055
	COMPUTE Total_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5	,624	,093	,631	6,748	,000

Table 28

Brand loyalty = 0,839 + 0,624x Total Satisfaction.

H2: *Customer satisfaction is posivitely related to purchase intention.*

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6,057	1	6,057	8,149	,006[a]
	Residual	34,193	46	,743		
	Total	40,250	47			

a. Predictors : (Constants), COMPUTE Tot_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5
b. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE Purchase_int=(var10 + var11)/2

Table 29

The second hypothesis was advocating that Customer Satisfaction has a positive relation to the repurchase intention of customers. Basically speaking, high customer satisfaction causes higher repurchase intention. We can see from the table above that this hypothesis can be accepted, significance in $\alpha = 0{,}05$ number is 0,006. Hence we can say that satisfaction effects positively repurchase intention of customers.

The values of the regression equation are as follows:

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandarnized Coefficients		Standarnziered Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Regresion coefficinetB	Standart error	Beta		
1	(Constants)	2,100	0,380		5,523	0,000
	COMPUTE Tot_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5	0,238	0,083	0,388	2,855	0,006

Table 30

Purchase intention = 2,1+0,238x Customer Satisfaction.

H3: *Customer satisfaction is posivitely related to WOM.*

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	Sig.
1	Regression	82,541	1	82,541	86,890	,000[a]
	Residual	69,346	73	,950		
	Total	151,887	74			

a. Predictors : (Constants), COMPUTE Tot_Sat_Rev =(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5
b. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE WOM=(var12 + var13 + var14 + var15)/4.

Table 31

The third hypothesis was advocating that brand satisfaction has a positive relation to Word of Mouth (WOM), and as can be seen in the table for these franchise systems there is significant relation between these terms. As can be seen from the table, significance value for α= 0,05 is 0,000 hence effect of satisfaction on loyalty exists, and the relation in between can be shown as follows.

The values of the regression equation are as follows:

Model		Unstandarnized Coefficients		Standarnziered Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Regresion coefficinetB	Standart error	Beta		
1	(Constants)	,983	,332		2,960	,004
	COMPUTE Tot_Sat_Rev =(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5	,688	,074	,737	9,321	,000

a. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE WOM=(var12 + var13 + var14 + var15)/4.

Table 32

WOM = 0,983 + =,688 x Satisfaction

H4: Reputation *is posivitely related to brand loyalty*

ANOVA[b]

Modell		Sum of Squares	df	Mean of Squares	F	Sig.
1	Regression	73,202	1	73,202	68,736	,000[a]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	78,808	74	1,065		
	Gesamt	152,010	75			

a. Predictors : (Constant), COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5
b.Dependent Variable: COMPUTE Brand loyalty=(var12 + var13 + var14 + var15)/4.

Table 33

The fourth hypothesis was advocating that a higher reputation will create higher Brand loyalty, and as can be seen in the table for these franchise systems there is a significant relation between these terms. As can be seen from the table, significance value for α= 0,05 is 0,000 hence effect of satisfaction on loyalty exists, and the relation in between can be shown as follows.

The values of the regression equation are as follows:

Coefficients[a]

Model		Nicht standardisierte Coefficients		Standardisierte Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Regresion CoefficientB	Standart error	Beta		
1	(Konstante)	,688	,384		1,79	,139
	COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5	,676	,085	,694	7,948	,000

a
a. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE Brand_comm=(var16 + var17 + var18 + var19 + var20 + var21)/6

Table 34

Brand loyalty = 0,688 + 0,676 x Reputation

H5: *Reputation is posivitely related to purchase intention*

ANOVA[b]

Modell		Sum of Squares	df	Mean of Squares	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8,238	1	8,238	13,744	,001[a]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	28,170	47	,599		
	Gesamt	36,408	48			

a. Predictors : (Constant), COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5
b.Dependent Variable: COMPUTE Purchase_int=(var10 + var11)/2

Table 35

The fifth hypothesis was advocating that reputation is posivitely related to Purchase intention and as it can be seen in the table for these franchise systems there is significant relation between these terms. As it can be seen from table significance value for **α= 0,05** is **0,001** hence effect of reputation on Purchase intention exists and the relation in between can be shown as follows.

The values of regresion equation are as follows:

Coefficients[a]

Modell		Nicht standardisierte Coefficients		Standardisierte Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Regresion CoefficientB	Standart error	Beta		
1	(Konstante)	1,508	,468		3,222	,002
	COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5	,330	,089	,476	3,707	,001

a.Dependent Variable: COMPUTE Purchase_int=(var10 + var11)/2

Table 36

Purchase Intention = 1,508 + 0,330 x Reputation

H6: *Reputation is posivitely related to WOM*

ANOVA[b]

Modell		Sum of Squares	df	Mean of Squares	F	Sig.
1	Regression	73,202	1	73,202	68,736	,000[a]
	Nicht standardisierte Residuen	78,808	74	1,065		
	Gesamt	152,010	75			

a. Predictors : (Constant), COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5
b.Dependent Variable: COMPUTE WOM=(var12 + var13 + var14 + var15)/4.

Table 37

Modell	Sum of Squares	df	Mittel der Quadrate	F	Sig.

The sixth hypothesis was advocating that reputation is positively related to Purchase intention, and as can be seen in the table for these franchise systems there is significant relation between these terms. As can be seen from the table, significance value for α= 0,05 is 0,001 hence effect of reputation on WOM exists, and the relation in between can be shown as follows.

The values of the regression equation are as follows:

Coefficients[a]

Model		Nicht standardisierte Coefficients		Standardisierte Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Regresion CoefficientB	Standart error	Beta		
1	(Konstante)	,618	,413		1,496	,139
	COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5	,673	,081	,694	8,291	,000

a.Dependent Variable: COMPUTE WOM=(var12 + var13 + var14 + var15)/4.

Table 38

WOM = 0,618 + 0,673 x Reputation

1	Regression	65,996	2	32,998	23,430	,000[a]
	Residual	94,360	67	1,408		
	Total	160,356	69			

a. Independent Variables : (Constants), COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5, COMPUTE Total_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5
b. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE Brand_loyalty=(var16 + var17 + var18 + var19 + var20 + var21)/6

Table 39

As it can be seen, there are 6 hypothesis in this model. They contain 2 independent variables and three dependent variables. In this step I want to present effect of those variables together. Here you can see the causal relation between both independent variables-satisfaction and reputation-and brand loyalty:

Satisfaction has a significant effect on Brand loyalty on the other hand Reputation has no causal relation with loyalty with α =0,05. The model is:

Brand loyalty = 1,020 – 0,122 x Reputation+0,716x Satisfaction

ANOVA[b]

Coefficients a

Modell		Unstandarnized Coefficients		Standarnized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Regression coefficient B	Standard error	Beta		
1	(Konstante)	1,020	,502		2,029	,046
	COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5	-,122	,147	-,119	-,835	,407
	COMPUTE Total_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5	,716	,140	,726	5,110	,000
a. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE Brand_loyalty=(var16 + var17 + var18 + var19 + var20 + var21)/6						

Table 40

ANOVA[b]

Modell		Sum of Squares	df	Mittel der Quadrate	F	Sig.
1	Regression	89,953	2	44,976	57,934	,000[a]
	Resudial	54,344	70	,776		
	Total	144,296	72			

a. Independent Variables : (Constants), COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5, COMPUTE Total_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5
b. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE WOM=(var12 + var13 + var14 + var15)/4.

Table 41

As can be seen, there are six hypotheses in this model. They contain two independent variables and three dependent variables. In this step I want to present the effect of those variables together. Here you can see the causal relation between both independent variables – satisfaction and reputation – and WOM:

Both satisfaction and reputation have a significant effect of WOM. As can be seen from the table, significance for satisfaction is ,000 and for Reputation is 0,01 with WOM with $\alpha = 0{,}05$. Both variables are significant but satisfaction has a stronger significance. The model is:

WOM = 0,274+ 0,520x Reputation+0,275x Satisfaction

Coefficients a

Modell		Unstandarnized Coefficients: Regression coefficient B	Unstandarnized Coefficients: Standard error	Standarnized Coefficients: Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Konstante)	,274	,369		,742	,461
	COMPUTE Total_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5	,520	,100	,558	5,192	,000
	COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5	,275	,104	,284	2,649	,010

a. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE WOM=(var12 + var13 + var14 + var15)/4.

Table 42

ANOVA[b]

Modell		Sum of Squares	df	Mittel der Quadrate	F	Sig.
1	Regression	10,847	2	5,423	9,626	,000[a]
	Resudial	24,791	44	,563		
	Gesamt	35,638	46			

a. Independent Variables : (Constants), COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5, COMPUTE Total_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5
b. Dependent Variable: COMPUTE Purchase_int=(var10 + var11)/2

Table 43

As it can be seen, there are 6 hypothesis in this model. They contain 2 independent variables and three dependent variables. In this step I want to present effect of those variables together. Here you can see the causal relation between both independent variables-satisfaction and reputation-and Purchase intention:

In spite being close to 0,05 satisfaction has significant effect on Purchase intention on the other hand Reputation has no causal relation with loyalty with α =0,05. The model is :

Purchase intention = 1,259+ 0,199x Reputation+0,200x Satisfaction

Coefficients a						
Modell		Unstandarnized Coefficients		Standarnized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Regression coefficient B	Standard error	Beta		
1	(Konstante)	1,259	,474		2,654	,011
	COMPUTE Total_Sat_Rev=(var22 + var23 + var24 + var25 + var26)/5	,199	,096	,331	2,079	,043
	COMPUTE Overall_Rep=(var1 + var2 + var3 + var4 + var5)/5	,200	,113	,282	1,771	,084

Table 44

CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this work was to research if there is a causal relating between customer satisfaction-repurchase intention, customer satisfaction-WOM, customer satisfaction-brand loyalty, reputation-repurchase intention, reputation-WOM, reputation-brand loyalty.

To be able to avoid biases similar companies were chosen. Culture and sector-related differences would be an important factor in such research, but I wanted to minimize them, hence these two companies were chosen:

- Both have same home country;
- Both are working in same host country;
- Both are in similar or same sector.

Developed hypotheses were:

Customer satisfaction is positively related to purchase intention..

Customer satisfaction is positively related to word of mouth(WOM).

Customer satisfaction is positively related to high brand loyalty.

Reputation is positively related to repurchase intention.

Reputation is positively related to word of mouth(WOM).

Reputation is positively related to loyalty of customer to the brand.

To be able to understand if there is a causal relation in between a simple linear regression was needed. To create this regression fulfilling all necessary preconditions I needed to check bivariate analyses, and to be able to start to work I needed to aggregate all given data.

After checking regressions I have found that:

H1: *Customer satisfaction is positively related to high brand loyalty.*

There is significant relation between customer satisfaction and brand loyalty.

The equation is as follows:

Brand loyalty = 0,839 + 0,624x Total Satisfaction.

H2: *Customer satisfaction is positively related to purchase intention.*

There is significant relation between customer satisfaction and purchase intention.

The equation is as follows:

Purchase intention = 2,1+0,238x Customer Satisfaction.

H3: *High customer satisfaction is positively related to WOM.*

There is significant relation between customer satisfaction and WOM.

The equation is as follows:

WOM = 0,983 + =,688 x Satisfaction

H4 : Reputation is positively related to Brand loyalty.

There is significant relation between reputation and Brand loyalty.

The equation is as follows:

WOM = 0,688 + 0,676 x Reputation

H5: *Reputation is positively related to high purchase intention.*

There is significant relation between reputation and purchase intention.

The equation is as follows:

Purchase Intention = 1,508 + 0,330 x Reputation

H6: *Reputation is positively related to WOM.*

There is significant relation between customer satisfaction and WOM.

The equation is as follows:

WOM = 0,618 + 0,673 x Reputation

Based on the significance of my regression analysis, I can advocate that there is a causal relation between customer satisfaction-repurchase intention, customer satisfaction-WOM, customer satisfaction-brand loyalty; reputation-repurchase intention, reputation-WOM, reputation-brand loyalty.

The next step was examining the effect of two independent variables together. After examining using the same values I have found out that:

Brand loyalty = 1,020 – 0,122 x Reputation+0,716x Satisfaction

With clear significance of satisfaction and no significance of reputation.

WOM = 0,274+ 0,520x Reputation+0,275x Satisfaction

With significance of both variables, and higher significance of satisfaction.

Purchase intention = 1,259+ 0,199x Reputation+0,200x Satisfaction

With clear significance of satisfaction and no significance of reputation.

Based on this information I can advocate that short-term income goals like repurchase intention and brand loyalty are caused by satisfaction, and reputation has no effect on them, but to be able to create a long-term stable success and/or competitive advantage a company needs reputation.

It is seen that there is a certain trade-off between reputation and customer satisfaction. Two things necessary to be able to find -correlation between reputation and customer satisfaction- and causal relation between reputation/customer satisfaction and WOM/repurchase intention/ brand loyalty are given. This information can be used to find the optimal resources allocation point for creating reputation or customer satisfaction, i.e. to reach a balance point of these two concepts.

Reputation especially is necessary for long-term sustainable success. If an organization has a good reputation then its customers tend to share their good experiences with other people and create a positive WOM; quasi-customers are becoming the company’s advertisement representatives. Lacking ability to buy or/and sell reputation can lead to a competitive advantage from the resource-based theory point of view. Hence good reputation is valuable, inimitable and rare. On the other hand, bad reputation can affect people in exact way but other direction and create big losses for organizations.

Finally I would like to indicate for researchers who will continue to work on this subject that there is a factor deduction is used for this work, dimensions of culture are hadn't been mentioned. Just to be able to avoid potential culture- and also branch-related biases, companies are chosen so that there won’t be any difference in their: i.) branch, ii.) host country and iii.) home country.

Hypothesis	Regression Equation
H1	**Brand loyalty** = 0,839 + 0,624x Total Satisfaction.
H2	**Purchase intention** = 2,1+0,238x Customer Satisfaction.
H3	**WOM** = 0,983 + 0,688 x Satisfaction
H4	**Brand loyalty** = 0,688 + 0,676 x Reputation
H5	**Purchase Intention** = 1,508 + 0,330 x Reputation
H6	**WOM** = 0,618 + 0,673 x Reputation

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APPENDIX A : ABSTRACT

For a long time it has been known that customer satisfaction has an effect on the income, profit and long-term existence of a company. Nowadays a second concept comes into the mind of scholars and managers: reputation. Is there any separation between these two concepts? Does reputation matter? Can they exist together? What are the effects and results of their absence and existence? In this paper I have tried to answer these questions. I have developed six hypotheses based on these questions on mind.

To be able to research the questions above I have written six hypotheses related to those topics. In these, Reputation and Customer satisfaction were independent variables, and I had three dependent variables: brand loyalty,WOM (Word of Mouth) and repurchase intention. The concrete hypotheses are :

- Customer satisfaction is positively related to repurchase intention.
- Customer satisfaction is positively related to word of mouth(WOM).
- Customer satisfaction is positively related to loyalty of customer to the brand.
- Reputation is positively related to repurchase intention.
- Reputation is positively related to word of mouth(WOM).
- Reputation is positively related to loyalty of customer to the brand.

APPENDIX B : ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Seit langer Zeit ist gewusst, dass die Kundenzufriedenheit wirkt das Einkommen, den Gewinn-und die langfristige Existenz von Unternehmen. Heutzutage gibt es einen zweiten Begriff kam in dei Welt, von Wissenschaftlern und Managern "Ruf". Gibt es eine Trennung zwischen diesen beiden Konzepten? Hat Ruf los? Können sie zusammen existieren? Was sind die Effekte und reuslts ihrer Abwesenheit und Existenz? In dieser Arbeit habe ich versucht, diese Fragen zu beantworten. Ich habe sechs Hypothese thsese Fragen auf den Geist entwickelt.

Um die oben geschrieben Fragen untersuchen zu können, habe ich 6 Hypothese mit diesen Themen geschrieben, in denen Reputation und Kundenzufriedenheit waren unabhängige Variablen und ich hatte drei abhaengige Variablen definiert Markentreue, WOM (Word of Mouth) und Kaufintention. Hypothesen sind:

- Es gibt positive Beziehung zwischen Kundenzufriedenheit und Kaufintention.
- Es gibt positive Beziehung zwischen Kundenzufriedenheit und Mundpropaganda (WOM).
- Es gibt positive Beziehung zwischen Kundenzufriedenheit und Loyalität der Kunden an die Marke.
- Es gibt positive Beziehung zwischen Reputation und Kaufintention.
- Es gibt positive Beziehung zwischen Reputation und Mundpropaganda (WOM).
- Es gibt positive Beziehung zwischen Reputation und Loyalität der Kunden an die Marke.

APPENDIX C: LEBENSLAUF

ANGABEN ZUR PERSON

Fikret Selchuk Ismail

Wien (Österreich)

Geburtsdatum | Staatsangehörigkeit

BERUFSERFAHRUNG

01/02/2013 – 17/05/2013

Verwaltungsangestellter

Verein Türkische Eltern in Österreich

Annehmen eines eingehenden Anrufe;
Begrüßung ankommenden Gäste;
Geben notwendigen Informationen über laufende und künftige Kurse und / oder Prüfungen;
Folgen den monatlichen paymentsFollow bis die Prüfungsgebühr Zahlungen.

01/08/2007 – 01/01/2009

Buchhalter

Summa Libya

Eingabe aller Materialrechnungen;
Vorbereitung aller taegliche/wöchnetliche/ monatliche Berichte;
Kontrolle aller Forderungen;
Vorbereitung von wöchentliche Zahlungsliste.

Tätigkeitsbereich oder Branche Baugewerbe / Bau

01/01/2007 – 31/07/2007

Administration department chief

Summa Moldova

Kontrolle aller Dokumenten-Arbeitsbewilligung;Arbeitserlaubniss; Wohngenehmigung; Visen-aller ausländischen Mitarbeiter.Informieren alle Ämter nach nötige Regulierungen.
Dauernde Suche nach potenzialen lokalen Mitarbeiter für schnelle Reaktion der Mitarbeiternotwendigkeiten.Schaffen einen Database und Vorevaluierung der Mitarbeiter.
Vorbereitung der Anfragen der Human Resources Abteilung des Hauptquartiers für nötigen türkischen Mitarbeitern.
Willkommen diejenige Mitarbeitern,die kommen zum ersten in die Region, und ihnen zu helfen,auf gleiche Weise diejenige Mitrabeitern,die verlassen zu regeln.
Alle Personalakten der Mitarbeiter aktuell zu halten,erfüllen alle nötige Aufgaben für Rechte der türkischen Arbeitnehmer und senden diese Informationen dem Hauptquartier.
Kontrolle ob die Organisation für Fahrkarten,Reisepässe,Hotels, Fahrzeuge beschaffen usw.für die Mitarbeiter der Baustelle richtig und zuverlässig gemacht werden.
Erfüllen aller Aufgaben für Verlängerung der Reisepässe, der Visen, der Genehmigungen, Mietverträge usw.
Ergreifen alle nötige Maßnahmen für Arbeitsschutz in der Baustelle.
Leisten alle nötige Job im Bezug auf Ernaehrung und Transport der Mitarbeiter.
Sichern dass alle Dienstleistungen wie Wartung,Reparatur,organisatorische Aufgaben,Sicherheit und

Hosting an Standarte anpassend sind.
Sicherstellen dass,die Reinigung,Ernaehrung und Konsummaterialien das Büro-Lager nach Notwendigkeit pünktlich und wirtschaftlich sind.
Sicherstellen dass,alle Art von Dokumenten wie Arbeitserlaubnisse,Lizenz und Zertifikate,das innerhalb der Baustelle benötigt werden können aktuell sind.

Tätigkeitsbereich oder Branche Baugewerbe / Bau

14/03/2006 – 31/12/2006

Finance chief assistant

Summa Romania

Leistung aller Bezahlungen nach Regelungen der Firma;
Führung der tägliche Cash-und Bank-Operationen und halten die Dateneinsetze in die Grundlagen der Deputy Finance Manager;
Organisieren die tägliche Bar-und Bankzahlungen und den täglichen Bar-und Bankzahlungsbericht und benachritigen den verbundenen Mitarbeiter;
Alle job-bezogene und persönliche Vorauszahlungen zu halten;
Vorbereitung der Lohn-und Gehaltslisten nach dem Personal Zeiterfassung und zahlen dem lokal Personal die Löhne,senden die türkische Lohnabrechnung der Beschäftigten in Hauptquartier auf Zeit

Tätigkeitsbereich oder Branche Baugewerbe / Bau

01/03/2005 – 25/08/2005

Call center agent

Mondial Assistance

Tätigkeitsbereich oder Branche Insurance

15/06/2003 – 15/09/2003

Work&Travel program,worked in Cordova/AK/USA

SCHUL- UND BERUFSBILDUNG

01/02/2010 – 15/05/2013

MSc

EQF level 7

University of Vienna

Universität WienMasters in International Business Administration, Spezialisierung und Operations Research. Kompetenzen: Die Quantifizierung der Geschäftsprozesse und die Suche nach optimalen Arbeitsbedingungen; ErweiterteKenntnisse der Optimierung aller Arten von quantifizierten Daten-Standortplanung Problem; HandlungsreisendenProblem-, Transport-Problem usw.

Fortgeschrittene Kenntnisse in Excel Nutzung in Lösung von oben genannten Probleme und lineare Optimierung.

01/10/1998 – 01/06/2005

BSc

EQF 6

Marmara University

Controlling

15/09/1994 – 01/06/1998

Gebze Anatolian Technical High School, Gebze/Kocaeli (Türkei)

Spezialisationmedizinische Elektronik.

04/07/2011 – 04/09/2011

Teleset S.r.l, Targoviste (Rumänien)

Praktika in Produktionsabteilung von Unternehmen.

23/07/2002 – 27/08/2002

Colgate Palmolive, Gebze/Kocaeli (Türkei)

Praktikain Logistikabteilung des Unternehmens.

23/07/1996 – 01/09/1996

Camiş Ambalaj Sanayi, Istanbul (Türkei)

Praktikain R&D Abteilung.

PERSÖNLICHE FÄHIGKEITEN

Muttersprache(n) Türkisch

Weitere Sprache(n)

	VERSTEHEN		SPRECHEN		SCHREIBEN
	Hören	Lesen	An Gesprächen teilnehmen	Zusammenhängendes Sprechen	
Englisch	C1	C1	C1	C1	B2
Deutsch	C1	C1	C1	C1	B2
Bulgarisch	B1	A2	A1	A1	A1

A1&2: elementare Sprachverwendung - B1&2: selbstständige Sprachverwendung - C1&2: kompetente Sprachverwendung
Gemeinsamer Europäischer Referenzrahmen für Sprachen

Computerkenntnisse

Gute Kenntnisse in:
Word-Document, Excel-Calc, Power Point-Präsentation
Ich habe beide MS Office und Open Office für lange Zeit benutzt ,ich kann jetzt beide in derselben Ebene nutzen.
Outlook

Führerschein B