

Toward Brand Image as Airline Hospitality Antecedent: Employing Partial Least Square Technique

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Abstract

The quality of the treatment customers receive during air transport has grown in importance in recent years, and in response, some airlines have been proactively demonstrating their hospitality capabilities. The purpose of this paper is to examine the impact a brand's image has on airline hospitality expectations. Although brand image is a topic that has been extensively studied, very little is known about the influence it has on airline service. This study attempts to investigate the influence of two specific dimensions of brand image: the impact of perceived price and perceived advertisements on passengers' airline hospitality expectations. This study evaluates a questionnaire survey of 546 air travellers that was conducted at Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA) in 2012. All the scales employed in this study were adopted from established measurements. Partial Least Squares (PLS) was used as the primary statistical analysis method to test the hypotheses of this study. The results indicated that perceived advertisements strongly and positively influence passengers' airline hospitality expectations. The more positive people's image is towards advertisements, the more customers expect from airline hospitality. In addition the study findings confirm the moderating effect of self-image (private hospitality) on perceived advertisement and passengers hospitality expectations.

Keywords: *Brand Image, Perceived Price, Perceived Advertisement, Airline Hospitality, Passengers*

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1. Introduction

Brand image refers to general consciousness of the brand achieved by understanding information from a variety of sources (Anonymous, 1998). Brand image is about the group of associations connected to the brand that customers kept in memory (Keller, 1993). Brand image as an explicit service promise (Zeithaml, 2009) has significant impact on customers' service expectations (Brodie et al., 2009; Kalamas et al., 2002). It is frequently assumed that brand image can contribute to an airline company's long-term profitability (Chen and Chang, 2008). The airline industry, as one of the fastest growing segments of the transportation industry, plays an important role in passengers' mobility, thus, investigating elements that can attract passengers to air travel need to be taken into consideration. The present study looks at the impact of brand image on passengers' expectations from airline hospitality. Understanding brand image impact will help airline managers make decisions about highlighting or diminishing the role of brand image on their airline quality expectations and image.

2. Brand Image

The brand traditional concept has been criticized by many scholars. This is because of too much concern about physical attributes and less attention to manufacturing strategies, thinking, and vision of the brand. Brand is about logo, signs or labels for physical differentiation and the perception towards a brand was so mechanical rather than concerning the fact that brands need to be connected to consumers' minds through their experience (Chernatony and Riley, 1997: 90). The new concept for brand is defined by Chernatony. Brand defined by Chernatony includes nine main themes namely: brand as a legal Instrument, logo, company, identity system, personality, relationship, adding value, evolving and image.

This perception shows that brand is something more than a visual label for differentiation, and is intangible, imagery and experiential. Although Chernatony defined new themes such as brand image for brand, the concept of brand image was not a product of the nineties. It was first introduced by the journal "The product and brand" in 1955 (Sandra, 2002). This study argues that brand name is not just a label used to differentiate among the product or service producers. It is a

composite symbol that stands for a range of attributes and ideas. It explains many things to the customer, not just by its literal meaning and the way it sounds but, more significantly, via the set of associations it has constructed and acquired as an object over a period of time (Gardener and Levy, 1955:35 cited in Sandra, 2002).

Different definitions have been proposed for brand image in various manners, but one common concurrence regarding brand image definition is a consumer's general consciousness regarding particular brands throughout the impact of a customer's reasoning or emotional perception (Aaker, 1996; Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990). Grönroos, (1984, 1990), also defined image as the way "customers see and perceive" a company or brand.

Although the brand image component is employed in various casual as well as technical applications, and its dimensions have been measured and categorized by many researchers, there are still disagreements regarding brand image measurements and dimensions (Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990). Scholars have also confirmed that brand image goes beyond physical boundaries and includes consumers' feelings, ideas, and attitudes toward the brand which have an impact on consumers' choice (Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990).

Brand image definitions are varied, and little consensus regarding the appropriate definition exist (Keller, 1993). Five group categories are defined for brand image. They are namely blanket definitions, symbolism, messages or meanings, personification, and psychological / cognitive dimensions (Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990).

They have defined *blanket definition* as a broad definition, while symbolism relates to *symbolic* meaning and imagery that consumers may have from the product or service in their mind. The *meaning and message* of brand image refers to psychological meanings that consumers ascribe to the product. The *personification* refers to give human attribution to the brand. The *cognitive or psychological elements* refer to concrete or mental effects; feelings, ideas and attitudes that consumers have about a brand. While *perception* is about information, which contains meaning, attributes, benefits and attitudes. Self-concept refers to self-image and relationship-communication of the brand image, referring to the relationship between brands and the consumers.

Dobni and Zinkhan's (1990) article has been cited by many studies. In fact, different researchers operationalized the brand image definition which has the most similarity to their study approach. Hur, (2009) has tried to define more than five categories for brand images. Pereira, (2009) refers also to Dobni and Zinkhan, (1990), in order to come up with the table of brand image concept based on five brand image defined categories (see Table 1)

Pereira, (2009) stated some conclusions for the brand image concept such as: (1) it is held by consumers, (2) it is a perceptual process resulting from interpretation, (3) it can be influenced by the marketing, context variables and characteristics of the receiver and (4) it is a perception of reality rather than reality itself. Regarding brand image categories suggested by (Dobni and Zinkhan, 1990), some of these are deeply interrelated, for instance, meaning has been categorized as one category, but it can be related to symbolism and personification, Moreover, cognitive and psychological elements are implicit in all definitions since the first conceptualizations.

Low and Lamb, (2000), stated that determination of brand image dimensions measurement is highly related to the service and product context. A number of investigators considered brand image as a uni-dimensional component (Ryu et al., 2008; Kwun and Oh, 2007). However, others suggest a multidimensional construction for brand image. For instance, Park et al. (1986) suggested three benefits for brand image, namely: experiential benefits, symbolic benefits and functional benefits known as brand-unique abstract meanings, (cited in Park, 2009). In addition, Hsieh, (2002), counts utilitarian, sensory, symbolic and economic dimensions for brand image in an automobile industry context. Product-related attributes are, in fact, intrinsic attributes of the products.

Researchers define brand image as symbolic and functional concepts (Bhat and Reddy, 1998; Dobbi and Zinkhan, 1990; Sirgy and Samli, 1985). Functional brand image is about product-related brand characteristics. In product classification, quality of design, reliability, as well as other core product features, is product-related characteristic examples which represent brand image from functional aspects (Grace and O'Cass, 2002).

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Table1: Toward an Understanding of Epistemology of the Brand Concept and Its Use in Tourism

Author(s)	Definition of Brand Image	Emphasis on Category
Gartner & Levy (1955)	the social and psychological nature of products'	Cognitive or psychological
Martineau (1957)	BI is a symbol of the buyers personality'	
Mayer (1958)	'the impression of a product in the mind of potential users and consumers'.	
Kotler (1991)	'the set of beliefs held about a particular brand	
Newman (1957)	"everything people associate with a brand"	Perception
Herzog (1963)	"the sum of the total impressions"	
Runyon & Stewart (1987)	" the product perception"	
Keller (1993)	'BI is a perception about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory'	
Levy (1959)	the symbols by which we buy'	
Sommers (1963)	perceived product symbolism'	Symbolism
Pohlman & Mudd (1973)	'symbolic utility'	
Biel (1992)	'the imagery of the user'	
Swartz (1983)	'the messages communicated by products'	
Durgee & Stuart, (1987)	'brand meaning'	Meaning
Friedmann & Lessig (1987)	'the psychological meaning of products'	
Aaker (1996)	'set of associations, usually organized in some meaningful way	
Sirgy (1985)	'personality image'	
Hendon & Williams (1985)	'brand personality' or 'brand character'	Personification
Upshaw (1995)	Upshaw (1995);	
Aaker (1996) and Aaker (1997)	'brand as a person'	
Patterson, (1999) and Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal (2006)	'brand image as an element of brand personality'	
Park, Jaworski & MacInnis (1986)	'the understanding consumers derive from the total set of brand-related activities engaged by the brand	Relationship/ Communication
Aaker (1996)	'Brand Image is significantly related to customers' self-concepts	Self- concept
de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley (1998); Solomon (1999)	'Brand Image is significantly related to customers' self-concepts'	

Source: (Dobi and Zinkhan 1990; Rosária Pereira 2009)

Kandampully and Suhartanto (2000), classified functional image based on image characteristics such as location, price, physical facilities, interior design, staff performance and the goods and services quality offered in the hotel context. Certainly, functional brand image is achieved throughout the products intrinsic product-related attributes from which, brands plan to convince a customer's needs as well as motivations.

Conversely symbolic brand image is about non-product related attributes of the brand. Hence, extrinsic brand characteristics please upper-level desires of clients like public appreciation wishes or personal expression, which leads to sustaining or enhancing their self-esteem (Keller, 1993). Therefore, features like external appearance, reputation, atmosphere followed by the layout are the patterns representing symbolic brand image characteristics (Kandampully and Suhartanto, 2000). One of the conclusions derived from the concept of brand image is that brand image is more perception oriented rather than reality oriented. This argument can be confirmed by the definitions presented by other studies.

Brand image is explained as "perception about a brand as reflected by the brand association held in consumers' memory" (Keller, 1993). Keller, (1993) has pointed out that brand association consist of four parts; (1) type of brand association (attribute, benefit and attitude), (2) likability of brand association, (3) power of brand association, and (4) exclusivity of brand association. In addition, brand image is defined as the consumers' sympathetic attitude towards a brand (Howard, 1994). It includes three items, that is, brand attitude, recognition, and confidence.

Brand image has a crucial position in product selection due to clients' efforts to strengthen their self-image by obtaining products with higher congruence with their self-image (Hur, 2009). Consumers may identify one brand as more desirable and have a preference for it compared with other rival brands, principally due to a variation in the image. This means that consumers' favourable brand image, has a powerful message impact compared to rival brand messages (Hsieh and Li, 2008). Hence, brand image is a significant element of their purchasing behaviour (Burmam et al., 2008). Other important roles of brand image are supporting brand value and financial concepts

associated with the value placed on a brand since brand image drives brand equity (Biel, 1992 cited in Hur, 2009). Previous research on brand image has been listed in Table 2 and 3.

Some other studies considered brand image as four basic elements of the marketing mix (Meenaghan, 1995). This study emphasized that, an “imagery development process” is settled when a company sends its brand identity, and what will be perceived by the consumers from that identity, is called brand image. So brand image and brand identity are relevant. To conclude, identity is sent and image is received and perceived. This statement shows that image and identity are interrelated and based on a company’s approach to represent its identity; the image will be shaped (Meenaghan, 1995).

Table2: Previous Research on Brand Image

Author(s)	Variable	Category	Brand Image Dimensions & Measurement
Timothy R.Graeff (1997)	Brand image, Self image, Brand attitude, Purchase intention, image congruence, Consumption situations	Budweiser & Heineken Beer	7 point scale → not at all to very much associated with describing the personality of the typical consumer of budweiser Beer → 50 pretest subjects were asked how related each of 50 different image dimensions → 10 image dimensions (brand personality) rugged-delicate; exitable-clam; masculine-feminine; Youthful-mature; formal-informal;economical-extravagant;unsuccessful-successful;modern-old fashioned ; tense-relaxed; urban-rural
Hofstede, Hoof, Walenberg & Jong (2007)	Brand image (Brand personality), Mood Boards, Job-sorting task	Four beer Brands	-Projective technique for brand image research -The SWOCC brand personality scales(Van den Berge,2002) → Competence, excitement, gentleness, ruggedness, annoyingness and distinctiveness
Bhat & Reddy (1998)	Brand image, Brand symbolism, Brand functionality	Watch sports shoes, cosmetics,Hair cream,Ice Cream	3 Factors → symbolic prestige (prestigious, distinctive, exciting, stylish, glamorous, expressive, sophisticated, unique, elegant ,successful, romantic) → Symbolic personality(make

			statement ,stand out in a crowd, expresses personality, symbolic, status symbol, best) → Functionality (practical, down-to-earth)
Martinez & Chernatony(2004), Martinez polo, & Chernatony(2006)	Brand image, Brand extentions, perceptions, marketing strategy	Nike-jeans & Camera puma jeans & camera	General Brand image (GBI) by Aaker(1996) product Brand image(PBI) → asked to write down the attributes or feeling they associated with sportswear products, a list of 15 associations, second pre-test → seven point likert scale, 5 associations(active, comfortable, functional, leisure and sport)
Van Reijmersda, Neijens &Smith (2007)	Brand image, Program image, Brand placement, Exposure frequency, Brand memory, Brand Attitude	TV Program,Slim fast Ad	On ascale ranging from 1(totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree), "I think slim fast is" → Healthy, fit, energetic, proud and unreliable
Ataman & Ulengin (2003)	Brand image, Self Volume	Beverage Product	5 points likert scale 1- "definitely not suitable for the brand and 5 "definitely suitable for the brand" → 23 image attribute → 16 image attribute → 3 factors
Low & Lamb (2000)	Brand image, Perceived quality, Brand attitude, Brand association	Calculator, shampoo and & other products	Pretest: write down any ideas, feeling or attitude that they associate with each product. → Different Items Ex) shampoo: final set of six brand image items were friendly/ unfriendly, Modern/ outdated, Useful/not useful, Popular/unpopular, Gentle/Harsh and artificial/ Natural
Cretu & Brodie (2007)	Brand Image, Company reputation, Product & service quality,Price & Costs, Customer loyalty	Shampoo	The seven point likert from Low and Lamb(2000) → "well known and prestigious", "fashionable and trendy", "having reputation for quality", "elegant", "useful", "Natural" and "sophisticated"
Hsieh (2002)	Brand Image	Automobiles	4 dimension : Sensory (exciting, fun to drive, good acceleration, styling, sporty), symbolic (Luxury features, Prestige), Utilitarian (made to last, reliability, safe in accident), Economic (good fuel economy,

			good dealer service).
Hsieh & Li(2008)	Customer perceptions of PR, Customer loyalty, Brand image	Insurance industry	<p>3- item scale adapted from Park et al.(1986)</p> <p>I feel that a company branding product possesses its practical function</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I feel that a company branding product possesses its practical function - I feel that a company branding product possesses a positive symbolic meaning - I feel that a company branding product can relate to the pleasant experience <p>➔ Functional needs: consumers self-concept and whether the product could satisfy self-esteem needs</p> <p>➔ Symbolic needs: consumers self-concept and whether the product could satisfy self-esteem needs</p> <p>➔ Experiential Needs: issues of stimulation, sensory pleasure, or novelty linked to products</p>

Source: The Antecedents and Consequences of Brand Image: Based on Keller's Customer-Based Brand Equity (Sang Hee Park, M.S, 2009)

Table 3: Previous Research on Brand Image in Hospitality Industry

Author(s)	Variable	Category	Brand Image Dimensions & Measurement
Kandampully & Suharanto (2000)	Customer loyalty, satisfaction, image	Hotel	<p>Image attributes: location, physical facilities, interior design, price, the quality of goods and services provided, and staff performance</p> <p>Image holistic: atmosphere, reputation, external appearance, and the layout</p>
Back (2005)	Image congruence, Customer satisfaction, Brand loyalty	Hotel industry	social and ideal social congruence were measured using subjective measurements, as adapted from Sirgy et al. (1997).
Wanke, Herrmann, & Schaffner (2007)	Brand name, Customers perception	Three hotels	<p>* pilot test: a list of 28 items from free associations</p> <p>➔ 60 subjects rated on the 28 items of 16 hotels ➔ six main dimensions: relaxation, indulging/pleasure, health/wellness, sports/fitness, entertainment/nightlife, and value for money</p>
Kim & Kim (2004)	Brand loyalty, Perceived quality, Brand image, Brand awareness	Restaurant	Brand image (frequented dining area, appropriate sound level, low price, prompt service, conveniently located, differentiated image, value for money, kind staff, cleanliness, cheerful and enchanting, a variety of events, feel comfortable to visit alone, long history, familiarity)
Kwun & Oh (2007)	Product quality, Service quality, Brand image, Brand awareness, Brand attitude, Brand familiarity, Brand fit	Four actual & two major lodging brand	<p>* two global measurement items that measured Image of extended brands (Oh, 2000; Selnes, 1993).</p> <p>➔ Overall, the image of the XYZ hotel is: Very bad–very good</p> <p>➔ Extremely unfavorable–extremely favorable</p>

Source: The Antecedents and Consequences of Brand Image: Based on Keller's Customer-Based Brand Equity (Sang Hee Park, M.S, 2009)

Therefore, when identity is influenced by marketing mix elements, brand image is shaped based on the marketing mix elements (Meenaghan, 1995; Faircloth et al., 2001; Roth, 1995). For instance, sometimes a product's attributes have a major role in shaping a consumers brand image, while when these attributes are not at a high standing level, other marketing mix factors such as price or promotion in general, and advertising in specific, will shape brand image in consumers' minds. Of course, the same process is expected for other services.

Dowling, (1986) explained brand image is formed by marketing mixed components by stating corporate image is influenced by price, product, distribution channel, after-sales service, advertising, employee attitude and concern about the environment, (Kim and Hyun, 2011). Brand image has also been operationalized as price in a service context (Alamro and Rowley, 2011). It is argued that price may have impact on consumers' choice of service, because it would signal quality to the customer's mind. That is why pricing strategy should be based on quality of the product, if the high quality is not coupled with high price it would have a negative influence on shaping brand image and brand preference.

Hence, we expect that marketing actions like promotion, channel performance, value-oriented price, and after-sales service, positively influence brand image. The importance of image and price could not be ignored by researchers as they have considered them as an antecedent of brand equity (Beristain and Zorrilla, 2011; Baldauf et al., 2009).

To conclude, brand image can be operationalized as the marketing mixed components or so called 4P's, but this present study has focused on brand image based on price and advertisement because of two reasons:

i. Scope of the study:

The scope of this study is to investigate brand image from a monetary and non-monetary perspective. This means price is considered as a monetary dimension for brand image, while advertisement is based on a non-monetary basis.

ii. Consistency with service expectation model:

On the other hand, based on Zeithaml et al. (2009) model, customers' service expectations have been fulfilled by two indicators, which are explicit service promises, and implicit service promises.

Explicit service promises are those promises that are completely declared, controllable and promised by a service provider such as its advertising and promotional techniques that the service provider is using, while implicit service promises are cues that have influence on what the service will and should be like. These quality cues are under price control while the tangibles are dominated with the service. Generally, the higher the price and the more extraordinary the tangibles, the more will be customers' service anticipation.

Hence, we can conclude that based on antecedents of customers' expectations, price and advertisement are those marketing mix components that are relevant to brand image and customers' expectations in the service contexts.

2.1. Perceived Price

Price has been considered as a good indicator from a consumer behaviour perspective. This means that its influence on purchase intention and consumers' perceived quality is undeniable. Since this influence is widespread, it is not only important in traditional markets, but also plays an important role in an online market as well (Degeratu et al., 2000). Studies have emphasized sensitivity towards price is higher in online business. This is due to the impact of online advertising which strongly signals price discount. While price and advertisement impact on customers' choosing behaviour are less powerful online compared to offline (Degeratu et al., 2000).

The association between price as a marketing mix component and quality is the area that many researchers are interested in, and many studies have covered that. For instance, the association between price discount and perceived quality was examined by Grewal et al. (1998). They pointed out that based on previous studies (Blattberg and Neslin, 1990; Dodson et al., 1978) and self-concept theory, which is part of attribution theory, if a buyer obtains a product on price cut, they frequently "attribute" that it was on discount due to it being a product of inferior quality. Therefore, they have hypothesized that "the higher

the price cut, the lower the purchaser quality perception, but this hypothesis has been rejected based on the findings of this study.

It has been shown that “price” and “promotion” as two components of a marketing mix, may have an impact of signalling quality to the customers (Linnemer, 2002). This is because dissipative advertising (joint with a high price) is an influential signal of quality when the marginal cost of production of high quality is low. If the amount of knowledgeable customers is low, quality is signalled only through a high price. However, if this proportion is intermediate, quality is signalled by both advertising and price.

The relationship between price and quality is frequently viewed in the reviews of marketing literature. In fact, price has been considered as an extrinsic cue and representative of goods benefit or quality (Blattberg and Winniewski, 1989; Kamakura and Russell, 1993; Milgrom and Robert, 1986). It is true that when consumers want to judge product or service quality, they rely on numerous cues such as brand name and price. It was argued that price is a signal of quality, especially when consumers are not familiar with the products or do not have experience of product use (Rao and Monroe, 1988). Therefore a positive relationship has been assumed by researchers between these two constructs, (Oh, 2000).

Some studies have investigated the price discount techniques in a retail context based on the product itself rather than finding its impact on another variable such as perceived quality (Lee et al., 2011). Findings propose that CD retailers ought to present a higher price cut on the focal item in comparison with the tie-in, in their product and pricing policies for bundling advertising and promotion. Other studies have also investigated price impact in the retailing context and argued that although price is a representative of higher quality (Yoo et al., 2000; Dodds et al., 1991; cited in Baldauf et al., 2009), it may not be true in a retailing context. The reason behind their statement was that for retailers, higher prices may have a contradiction with emerging consumer loyalty since loyal consumers frequently anticipate special prices from their suppliers (Feinberg et al., 2002 cited in Baldauf et al., 2009).

On the other hand, retailers also can offer good-quality products with reasonable prices for their customer such as Costco or Wal-Mart,

which could successfully apply this strategy, (Grewal and Levy, 2007). Temporary price reductions and price guarantees are two other strategies that retailers practice with their loyal customers, (Grewal and Levy, 2007). Hence, based on these arguments, they have hypothesized that in the retail context, price levels would have a negative impact on brand equity. The findings of this study are proven for other products with different consumers' uncertainty such as frozen concentrate juice, jeans, shampoo and personal computers. Results indicate that brand credibility decreases price sensitivity (Erdem et al., 2002).

Price has been considered as an important indicator in the automobile industry (Guohua Wu, 2011). Price is an important purchase indicator for customers in their decision making process. This study has found that the impact of a country's image is less than price. Indeed, the consumers' decision making process is based less on the country of manufacture, with other factors such as price, brand name, service and some intrinsic attributes like reliability and safety playing a more important role.

"Price sensitivity" has been considered as an element representing quality in grocery products. Since the price reduction in grocery stores can sometimes be based on expiration date, logical mind-set says that this strategy would bring about a negative evaluation about a product's quality by consumers. Findings show that this is only true for loyal customers and those who perceive low risk associated with perishables (Pramatari and Tsiros, 2011). In other words, although pricing strategy based on the expiration date seems to signal low level of quality for grocery products, this signalling is only true for loyal customers. On the other hand, in the food industry when consumers have less confidence regarding bundled food products quality, the price strategies influence her or his motivation for ordering bundled menus (Kwon and Jang, 2011).

Some studies have explored the association among price and quality from a cross-national perspective. Results indicate that consumers from different countries have different interpretations from the price-quality relationship (Zhou et al., 2002). Based on the market efficiency and consumers risk aversion; American and Chinese consumers react differently, meaning that Chinese customers have a

weaker price–quality plan than American customers. Chinese customers are more risk reluctant in comparison with their American counterparts. Conversely, in China, risk reluctant customers are more likely to employ price to assume product quality (Zhou et al., 2002).

Studies in other areas have also focused on the quality and consumer's behaviour (Lange et al., 2000). For instance, the behaviour of consumers who had to choose products under economic constraints has been investigated under two conditions. These 2 conditions are: (1) when perceived quality was on the basis of expectation produced by packaging images, versus (2) when perceived quality was on the basis of sensory experience in existence of packaging images.

Findings indicate that contestants who picked goods without testing made their choice more rapidly compared with those who have experience of tasting the product. On the other hand, results indicate that quantities are more influenced by perceived quality rather than price (Lange et al., 2000). Other researchers argue that in terms of extrinsic cues, price and COO are significant contributors to perception of wine quality than tasting and experience of drinking the wine (Veale and Quester, 2009).

Research which focused on 200 products indicated that there is a correlation between quality and price (Caves and Greene, 1996), while this correlation is expected to increase when there is a vertical differentiation between the products and would decrease when products are innovative and convenient.

The relationship between price sensitivity and dimensions of physical distribution service quality has been investigated. Findings shows that we cannot be absolutely certain that service quality dimensions have a negative impact on price sensitivity (Zeng et al., 2011). The relationship between price and quality in the medicine context demonstrates that there is an affirmative association between price and quality (Bate et al., 2011). Findings from 17 countries indicated that failing drugs (in terms of quality of ingredients, appearance and design) cost 13.6-18.7% lower than non-failing brands. This means that consumers have perceived price as a signal of quality. They suspected low quality drugs using some indicators such as (1) price of the drug (2) level of brand innovation and (3) design of the pharmacy.

But of course, none of these things are the perfect way to identify counterfeit and substandard drugs (Bate et al., 2011).

Because of the complexity of the relationship between price and quality, some studies have argued that is better to interpret quality and price independently using the “reason-based judgment” (Vlaev et al., 2009). Many economic researchers have also studied the relationship between these two components in different situations using relevant theories, specifically, price-quality theory (Sibly, 2007; Currier, 2007; Dubovik and Janssen, 2011; Mendez and Narasimhan, 2006; Besancenot and Vranceanu, 2004; Vörös, 2006; Kumar, 2002; Tomat, 2006; McKelvey, 2011; Brekke et al., 2010; Linnemer, 2002; Janssen and Roy, 2010).

We can conclude that the impact of price on quality perception is undeniable, but the positivity or negativity of the relationship is based on the context of the study and consumers typology. Therefore the present study postulated that:

H1: There is a positive relationship between perceived price and airline passengers' hospitality expectations.

2.2. Perceived Advertisement

Based on the essence and principles of service (intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity, perishability), advertising in the service context has a responsibility of making the service tangible in the mind of the service users. This would help to reduce perceived risk followed by attracting employees, capitalizing word of mouth, making service understandable, creating advertising continuity and promising what is possible (George and Berry, 1981). Furthermore, advertising has been mentioned as a main antecedent of brand preference (Alamro and Rowley, 2011).

Based on different operationalization of advertising in a service (*more specifically in tangibility*) and non-service context (*more based on using models such as hierarchy of effects, elaboration likelihood method “ELM” and “FCB” grid*), some researchers have tried to integrate advertising implementation for service and products, using the same FCB grid (Mortimer, 1999). FCB grid is used for considering different segments for service like products within which each segment needs its proper advertising strategy. For instance,

advertising for the tourism and hospitality industry, which is in a psychological quadrant of this model, would be different compared with insurance companies, which are based in the economic quadrant of the FCB grid.

This is because services are dealing with a different level of consumers' involvement and their thinking (rational) or feelings (emotional). This study argues that emotional bonds seem more relevant to services in the high involvement/feel quadrant. This is because service is experiential in nature (like hotels and hospitality services). Hence, implementation of the FCB grid or other advertising strategies, are based on their level of consumer involvement in service, experiential feeling or thinking of the service. Other studies have also mentioned other advertising strategies such as physical representation, documentation, and episodes (Mittal, 1999).

The importance of promotion and more specifically, advertising on shaping brand image is undeniable. In fact, one of the roles, identified for advertising in a service context is building a strong image (Mortimer, 1999). Different suggestions and frameworks have been introduced by researchers in order to build image using advertising. Some have emphasized building an image based on transforming intangible service attributes to tangible aspects. In other words, they believe that in order to build a good image in consumers' mind, a tangible representative of service is necessary (Shostack, 1977).

Advertising can help to achieve service tangibility by linking the service properties to subjective benefits of using that service. In other words, advertising uses emotional and experiential elements as representatives of service to shape an image in the consumers' minds (Mittal, 1999). Usage of emotional appeals in advertisements was discussed before by researchers such as Unwin, (1975) and Mortimer, (2002). Involvement of emotion in shaping image, helped develop a model of hierarchy of effects introduced by Young, (1981), which contains affective, conative and cognitive levels in a service context. This model helps service studies to assess service receiver emotional experiences.

The function of advertising on brand image development is confirmed by other studies (Meenaghan, 1995), by referring to two different schools of thoughts: cognitive and behavioural. The cognitive school

explains that the customer is a rational decision maker using a collection of mental as well as physical stages for purchasing. The cognitive school might be represented by the classical models of advertising impacts, namely the AIDA (Strong, 1925), STARCH (Starch, 1925), hierarchy of effects (Lavidge and Steiner, 1961) and DAGMAR (Colley, 1961). The second school of thought or so called “brand image school” is more based on symbolic, emotional and humanistic advertising (Meenaghan, 1995). This school argues that brand selection is derived from emotions along with sensitive consumers’ feelings towards brands. In addition it is about consumers’ images and understanding from the brand. The consumers’ emotional relationship with brand plays an important role in this school of thought.

An important reason for using advertising in brand image development is to show the quality of the goods or the quality of the service that is presented for the customers or service users. In fact, price and advertising have been considered as signallers of the quality (Fluet and Garella, 2002; Nelson, 1970, 1974; Moorthy and Hawkins, 2005; Shane and Weigelt, 1998; Caves and Greene, 1996; Yoo and Lee, 2000).

The association between advertising and quality is investigated in studies from different perspectives. The priority of advertising or price as an element of quality has been investigated (Fluet and Garella, 2002). They have argued that advertising plays a more important role when there is price competence in the market and there is not such a big difference between quality of the products and services in the market. While when there is a single-firm model and there is not much competency in the market, price is a determinant factor for signalling quality.

Other studies have also considered advertising as a signal of the quality, more specifically for experiential goods (goods where consumers cannot test the product quality prior to purchase). This is due to consumers supposing that high-quality goods are promoted more, compared to low-quality goods or services (Nelson, 1970; 1974). This means that advertising for experiential goods regardless of any advertising attribute, signals quality of the product. Meanwhile, other studies believe more in the impact of advertising repetition on

consumers' perceived quality (Moorthy and Hawkins, 2005). Moorthy and Hawkins' (2005) results are consistent with the marketing theory which argues that advertising efficiency is highly related to its content (message), execution (message conveyed by advertisement), and frequency (frequency of advertisement observation by consumer) (Batra et al., 1996; Kotler, 1997).

Studies indicated that manufacturers in the automobile sector use an above average level of advertising when prices exceed the full information case (Thomas et al., 1998). This means that the amount of advertising for higher price level products is more. Furthermore, managers in high-volume segments consider an advertising strategy when there are several similar rivals. Advertising has also been found to be effective on verifiable information about "quality attributes" (Caves and Greene, 1996).

From an economic perspective; Linnemer (2002), has investigated the relationship between price, advertising and quality. His findings show that dissipative advertising (joint with a high price) is an influential quality signal once the high quality production marginal cost is low. If the percentage of knowledgeable customers is low, quality is signalled only through a high price. However, if this proportion is intermediate, quality is signalled by both advertising and price. Other studies using signalling models have shown the relationship between price and advertising. They explain that when the price rate falls with the time period that the product is on the market; advertising increases over the same time period (Horstmann and MacDonald, 2003).

Linnemer (2002) has expanded the relationship between price, quality and advertisement on a continuum model rather than semantic model. This means that the relationship between advertising, price and quality has been investigated when quality and marginal costs are continuing variables (Linnemer, 2011). Findings show that the equilibrium amount of advertising increases with quality (for a given marginal cost) and decreases with marginal cost (for a given quality). More efficient types (lower cost and higher quality) advertise more.

Studying advertising and its relationship with quality, has been implemented not only in economic contexts but also in other contexts such as accounting and finance. For instance, studies investigated the

influence of advertising in shaping of goodwill by adding a quality attribute (Nair and Narasimhan, 2006).

Research in marketing and branding disciplines investigate the influence of advertising components on perceived quality of the products. Results indicate that most of the advertising components have a positive relationship with consumers' perceived quality, while the impact of these attributes on brand awareness, and brand association is considerable (Buil et al., 2011).

Marketing studies have shown that perceived advertising expense acts as a cue to quality. They conducted six experiments to prove the influence of advertising campaign expense on the represented product quality (Kirmani and Wright, 1989). This research focused on when and why perceived advertising expense influenced quality expectations. Findings showed that once it has caught consumer's attention, and when people are caught, they will interpret the effort they expend on a task as a sign of their true attitude toward that task. Thus, they reason that "if I invested a lot of effort, the task must have had high expected value to me." On the other hand, effort has been interpreted as a prominent factor in people's interpretations of someone else's success or failure on a task. This means consumers', based on the attribution theory, perceive effort as a quality signal.

Consumer's attitude towards advertising is investigated by studies. The reason for this attention is because interpretation of consumers' thinking and their understanding towards advertising can help to find consumers' reaction and response toward advertisement and help practitioners to use that in an industry (Yagci et al., 2009). Some studies have investigated the influence of attitude on advertising repetition. This means both advertising quality and quantity play an important role on shaping consumers' attitude (Olney et al., 1991). But some studies believe that the advertising techniques should totally be changed because it was not effective and caused an emergence of consumers' negative attitude towards the advertising message. Thus some studies proposed new platforms for advertising in order to foster positive attitudes toward advertising (Pyun and James, 2011).

To conclude, the role of advertising in representing and developing an image of the brand is undeniable. In fact, advertising signals quality to

the consumers and enhances their expectations from the service performance. Therefore the present study hypothesized that:

H2: There is a positive relationship between perceived advertisement and airline passengers' hospitality expectations.

3. Self Image (Private Hospitality)

Malhorta (as cited in Beerli et al., 2007) states that self-concept originates from classical Greek philosophy. However, Loudon and Della Bitta (as cited in Beerli et al., 2007) state that James is one of the self-identity theory founders, and in 1890, he defined self-identity as the "total sum of what a man thinks of himself, including his body and intellect, as well as his belongings, family, reputation, and work." Self-concept was initially one-dimensional. Later, it became essential to examine self-identity from a multidimensional viewpoint. Sirgy, (2000) affirms that self-image is complex due to individual differences. In fact, a single person may not react in the same manner in different situations (Beerli et al., 2007).

Self-congruity can be well thought-out as a natural expansion of self-concept. Consumers in general tend to choose products or brands that match their self-concept. This means that consumer or service receivers try to choose products or services, which have most commonality with his or her character. The greater the congruence, the greater the urge to purchase the product or service (Landon, 1974 cited in Yuksel and Riley, 2003). Self-image can be approached from different perspectives based on the study context: ideal and actual self-concept (Birdwell, 1986; Yuksel and Riley, 2003). The actual self is how a person sees himself, and a person may choose a product or service that is consistent with this view. While an ideal self-concept has been defined as an image of how a person likes to see herself, and this person will choose a product or service that is consistent with this ideal view (Yuksel and Riley, 2003). Researchers have found that either a person's actual or ideal self can be their dominant character. Therefore, both concepts of self are important.

When consumers match their self-image (either ideal or actual) with a product's image, it is called self-image congruity (Mark and Goode, 2001). Therefore, self-image congruity can be thought of as a natural expansion of an individual's self-concept. Consumers tend to choose

products or brands that match their self-concepts. This means that consumers choose products or services that fit their character. The greater the congruence, the more a consumer purchases a product or service (Landon, 1974 cited in Yuksel and Riley, 2003).

At least, four diverse approaches can be identified in self-concept studies that are connected to product image: (1) product image as it relates to the stereotypic image of the general product user; (2) product image's relationship with the self-concept; (3) sex-typed product image; and (4) differentiated product images (Sirgy, 1982).

Yuksel and Riley (2003) mention that the association between self-concept and product preference might change with diverse product groupings and based on the form of self-concept (actual versus ideal self). For instance, congruence between actual self-concept and product concept may not be considerable because consumers do not wish to portray themselves; they may want to superimpose their ideal self-concept in purchase circumstances when their actual self-concept is negative.

Researchers have investigated the impact of self-image congruity on brand preference and satisfaction in the U.K.'s jewellery market (Mark and Goode, 2001), and the relationship between self-congruity and loyalty has also been tested in a direct and indirect manner (Kressmann et al., 2006; Sirgy et al., 2008). The associations among self-congruity, perceived quality, and purchase intention have been identified, and self-congruity and perceived quality have a direct positive effect on purchase intention (Kwak and Kang, 2009).

Self-congruity may also have a negative relationship with other constructs. For instance, a person with a high level of self-congruity is more reluctant to accept product or service recommendations than consumers with low self-concept clarity. This means that strategies like word-of-mouth (WOM) advertising may not be useful and efficient for companies trying to target those who believe in themselves and what they perceive too highly (Lee et al., 2010). Heath and Scott, (1998) found that the theory of self-concept and its association with product image congruity is not proper for products with similar physical characteristics and symbolic imagery.

Sirgy et al. (2000) developed a theoretical position model for self-image congruence in a retailing context. Other researchers use self-

congruity theory to explain the impact that the social class image of a mall has on store quality perception. Chebat et al. (2006) shows that people with a high level of self-congruity evaluated the stores' look and service more than those who did not have high level of self-congruity. The role of image congruence has been investigated in the labour market as well. Image congruence between prospective employees and preferred employers has been investigated by Andreassen and Lanseng, (2010).

There are not many tourism-related self-congruence studies. Three of these studies concentrate on post-consumption variables (satisfaction, intention to return, and intention to recommend) (Kastenholz, 2004; Chon, 1992; Litvin and Kar, 2003), and Litvin and Goh (as cited in Beerli et al. 2007) identified two other studies related to pre-consumption variables and self-image congruence (motive to visit and destination choice). Other studies have investigated self-congruity theory and its impact on tourist destinations, and this research found that both ideal congruity and actual congruity have a positive effect on behavioural intentions (Usakli and Baloglu, 2011). The greater the harmony and congruity that exists among a destination's image and an individual's self-concept, the greater the tourist's intention to visit that destination (Beerli et al., 2007).

Implication theories of self-congruity regarding post-travel behaviour have also been investigated (Hosany and Martin, 2011). The Hosany and Martin, (2011), study model included: self-congruence, passengers' experiences of cruise ships, satisfaction, and behavioural intention. The study results explain self-image congruence's (actual and ideal) impact on passengers' experiences. However, self-image congruence indirectly influences customer satisfaction levels, and satisfaction has a positive relationship with the study respondents' propensity to recommend. This study helped to understand passengers' experiences on cruise ships and passengers' behaviour which offer significant managerial implications.

In the present study, self-image is conceptualized as the consistency and congruence between personal levels of hospitableness and the hospitality provided at the airline. Self-image from a hospitality perspective can also be investigated using private hospitality, which is based on the fact that each person practices a different type or level of

hospitableness based on religion, national customs, personal characteristics, etc. (O'Connor, 2005). O'Connor, (2005) argues that there is a general connection of hospitality with the word "natural." This means that every individual has a different variety and level of natural hospitality. Those who have a higher degree of natural hospitality, behave in a more hospitable manner.

Based on the above mentioned statement, we can argue that the person, who practices a higher level of natural hospitality, cares more about hospitality and treatment. Based on the definition of hospitality, a reciprocal relationship is expected, and a person may expect the same level of hospitality from others when he or she is their guest. Therefore, a person who practices a higher level of natural hospitality cares more about hospitality and treatment.

Ariffin and Maghzi, (2012) explain that private hospitality is concerned with the host's hospitality toward others in a private setting, such as a home. This domain is crucial because it is the point of reference people normally use to assess the hospitality level in commercial settings. The more hospitable the person is towards the guest, the more he or she would expect the same level of hospitality performance from others in private domain hospitality. Of course, this can be applicable to commercial hospitality as well. This means that when a person cares and pays attention to hospitality provision, he expects that a service provider performs the same level of natural hospitality in return. O'Connor, (2005) mentions that one quality or skill a person is born with is the capability, in varying degrees, to evaluate if one's host is being authentically hospitable. Therefore it is postulated:

H3: There is a positive relationship between the self-image (private hospitality) and airline passengers' hospitality expectations.

With reference to the statement that hospitality is a "reciprocal relationship" (Derrida, 2000; Heuman, 2005) as well as self-congruity theory, individuals who consider themselves as hospitable would expect others to behave or treat them with same level of hospitality in return. In this study it is logical to anticipate that the interaction between hospitality and price would heighten the expectation towards airline hospitality. Service receivers would expect more hospitable performance when they pay more, and this phenomenon is especially

true for a person considered as hospitable. In other word, a hospitable person would expect more from the price he or she pays compare to a less hospitable person.

H4: Self image (private hospitality) moderates the predicted relationship between perceived price and airline passengers' hospitality expectations.

Studies have shown that customers desire or look for goods or services that have an image that is well-matched with their perception of self (Sirgy, 1980; Belch, 1978; Dolich, 1969). In a nutshell, customers purchase or choose those goods that possess images most comparable to the images they either perceive or desire of themselves, compared to the situation where the congruence among them is not guaranteed. Also Hong and Zinkhan, (1995) confirmed that advertising that demonstrates congruence with one's self-concept generates a more encouraging attitude as well as purchase intentions towards the goods or services advertised rather than self-concept-incongruent ads. In accordance with self-congruity theory, if the advertising message is in congruence with consumer image, the consumer would expect more efforts for the fulfilment of the service promised by the service providers (Sirgy et al., 2000). In other words, the predicted effect of perceived advertisements on passengers' expectations of airline hospitality would be stronger for a hospitable person compared to a less hospitable person.

H5: Self image (private hospitality) moderates the predicted relationship between perceived advertisement and airline passengers' hospitality expectations.

4. Methodology

4.1. Data Collection

To collect the data, a structured questionnaire was distributed among air travellers at Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA), and 546 questionnaires were completed. All the scales employed in this study were adopted from established measurements. Partial least squares (PLS) was the main statistical method used to test the hypotheses.

Table 4 shows the gender sample, illustrating a relatively balanced sample of males and females in which 52.9% of the respondents were male, and 47.1% were female. Most of the respondents (39.2%) fall in

the age range of 20 to 30 years old and only 2.8% fall in the 60 and above range. With respect to academic qualifications, 19% of the respondents had obtained their postgraduate degrees, and a majority (45.6%) of the respondents had received a bachelor's degree. Of the respondents, 56.0% were employed while 17.6% of respondents were students. Most of the respondents fall into the two categories: below RM 2000 (26.2%) and RM 2000 to less than RM 4000 (30.8%). The majority of the respondents were Malay (52%), 14.3% were Chinese, 6.2% were Indian, 4.2% were other Malaysians, and 23.3% were non-Malaysians. Most of the respondents' (41.4%) main purpose of travel was for leisure.

Table 4: Profile of Respondents

Demographic Characteristics		N	Percent (%)
Gender			
i.	Male	289	52.9
ii.	Female	257	47.1
Age			
i.	Below 20	42	7.7
ii.	20 to <30	214	39.2
iii.	30 to <40	150	27.5
iv.	40 to <50	86	15.8
v.	50 to <60	38	7.0
vi.	60 & Over	16	2.8
Highest Level of Education			
i.	Postgraduate Degree	104	19.0
ii.	Bachelor Degree	249	45.6
iii.	Diploma	116	21.2
iv.	Secondary School	57	10.4
v.	Below Secondary	1	0.3
vi.	Other	19	3.5
Occupation			
i.	Student	96	17.6
ii.	Employed	306	56.0
iii.	Self-Employed	84	15.4
iv.	Unemployed/Retired	21	3.8
v.	Others	39	7.2
Monthly Income			
i.	Below RM 2000	143	26.2
ii.	RM2000 < RM5000	168	30.8
iii.	RM5000 < RM8000	99	18.1
iv.	RM8000 < RM11000	46	8.4
v.	RM11000 < RM14000	42	7.7
vi.	RM 14000 & above	48	8.8
Ethnicity			
i.	Malay	284	52.0
ii.	Chinese	78	14.3
iii.	Indian	34	6.2
iv.	Others(Malaysians)	23	4.2
v.	Non-Malaysians	127	23.3
Main Purpose of Travel			
i.	Leisure	226	41.4
ii.	Business	167	30.6
iii.	Other	153	28.0

The reliability test of the variables in this study is presented in Table. 5. The reliability test for all the variables recorded strong internal consistency with coefficient alphas above 0.8, which exceed the 0.7 alpha recommended for theory testing by Nunnally and Bernstein et al. (1994) and Nunnally (1987).

Table 5 presents the means and standard deviations for the variables in this study. All the variables were measured on a six-point Likert scale. The mean scores for all the variables range from 3.61 to 4.61. With regard to standard deviation scores, perceived price produced a score above 1.0 while the remaining variables have standard deviations below 1.0.

Table 5: Reliability Test

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Airline Hospitality	4.56	.885	22	0.96
Perceived Price	3.61	1.087	5	0.92
Perceived Advertisement	4.39	.996	4	0.91
Self Image(Private Hospitality)	4.61	.969	5	0.87

4.2. Measurement Items

Brand image is operationally defined as passengers' overall impression and perception toward a specific airline brand as reflected by its price and advertisement (adapted from Meenaghan, 1995). As Table 6 shows, perceived advertisement is measured using four items. Of these four items, two were adapted from Kalamas et al. (2002) and the other two were adapted from Megehee, (2009).

Five-item scales are used to measure perceived price. These two items were adapted from Oh (2000); Baldauf et al. (2009); Yoo et al. (2000) and Kim and Hyun (2011). The items used to measure brand image are shown in Table 6. All study items were measured using a six point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

4.3. Construct Validity

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), the construct validity refers to the degree to which the model employed in the study fits the theories being tested. Convergent validity and discriminant validity help to ensure the model's ability to measure the construct (O'Leary-Kelly and Vokurka, 1998). To ensure the construct validity, the loading and cross-loading of the items were investigated. Based on

Hair et al. (2010), the value of significant loading is 0.5 and above. The results in Table 7 show that all the items representing one construct are loaded highly on that construct while the other constructs are loaded much lower. Therefore, the construct validity was confirmed in the present study.

Table. 6: Measurement for Brand Image

Constructs	Items	Main Source(s)	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived Advertisement	1-All advertising concerning the airline that I have seen (on TV, radio, etc.) is seems to be positive.	Maria Kalamas, Michel Laroche, Adélaïde Cèzard(2002)	0.89
	2- All advertising concerning the airline that I have read (in newspapers, magazines, etc.) is seems to be positive.		0.96
	3-All advertising concerning the airline that I have seen and read is seems to be pleasant.	Carol M. Megehee(2009)	0.96
Brand Image	4-All advertising concerning the airline that I have seen and read is seems to be exiting		0.82
	1-The price charged by the airlines is very expensive.	Oh,H. (2000); Baldauf , et al.(2009); Yoo et al.(2000)	0.96 0.82 0.85
Perceived Price	2-The price charged by the airlines is very high	Oh,H. (2000); Kim, & Hyun (2011); Baldauf et al.(2009),	0.96 0.83 0.82
	3-The price charged by the airline seems to be very pricey	Yoo et al. (2000) Oh (2000)	0.94 0.96
	4- The price charged by the airline is seems to be very unreasonable	Oh (2000)	0.96
	5- The price charged by the airline seems to be very affordable	Oh (2000)	0.96

Table. 7. Loading and Cross Loading:

	Airhos	Price	Price * PHOS	AD	AD * PHOS	PHOS
AIRHOS1	0.7948	0.087	0.2358	0.3314	0.4422	0.4516
AIRHOS12	0.814	0.0991	0.2334	0.3219	0.457	0.4659
AIRHOS13	0.7577	0.069	0.1794	0.2975	0.3933	0.373
AIRHOS14	0.3167	0.0737	0.1587	0.1055	0.1733	0.1682
AIRHOS15	0.7757	0.0735	0.2023	0.3734	0.4491	0.3834
AIRHOS18	0.7866	0.0939	0.2301	0.3549	0.4473	0.4089
AIRHOS19	0.727	0.1293	0.2197	0.2859	0.3646	0.3352
AIRHOS2	0.8316	0.0859	0.2445	0.3397	0.4687	0.4641
AIRHOS21	0.7789	0.1045	0.254	0.3358	0.4488	0.4118
AIRHOS22	0.7828	0.0404	0.1832	0.3593	0.4694	0.4487
AIRHOS23	0.7824	0.0919	0.2035	0.311	0.411	0.41
AIRHOS25	0.7218	0.0321	0.1593	0.298	0.3861	0.3598
AIRHOS27	0.7521	0.1261	0.2787	0.3613	0.4738	0.4587
AIRHOS28	0.7892	0.0944	0.2636	0.385	0.4969	0.4763
AIRHOS3	0.8404	0.0797	0.2591	0.4005	0.4253	0.4082
AIRHOS30	0.6113	0.1133	0.2103	0.2865	0.3743	0.3236
AIRHOS4	0.8515	0.1017	0.2851	0.4272	0.3436	0.3233
AIRHOS5	0.8341	0.1074	0.2463	0.3528	0.4662	0.4583
AIRHOS6	0.6166	0.1258	0.2512	0.2269	0.3504	0.354
AIRHOS7	0.5793	0.121	0.2159	0.2192	0.3282	0.3242
AIRHOS8	0.8378	0.0925	0.2668	0.3672	0.4019	0.4995

AIRHOS9	0.7937	0.0694	0.2478	0.3527	0.4792	0.4971
BI1	0.0568	0.8602	0.4687	0.1675	0.155	0.0944
BI1*PHOSa	0.2631	0.4215	0.8724	0.2884	0.4565	0.4037
BI1*PHOSb	0.2818	0.4398	0.883	0.3065	0.4712	0.4114
BI1*PHOSc	0.2988	0.4158	0.8891	0.2635	0.4656	0.4358
BI1*PHOSd	0.2507	0.3403	0.8371	0.2267	0.4457	0.4931
BI1*PHOSe	0.2685	0.3271	0.8878	0.3058	0.4837	0.3077
BI2	0.017	0.8385	0.4579	0.1349	0.1021	0.0366
BI2*PHOSa	0.2595	0.4126	0.8853	0.2738	0.4407	0.4954
BI2*PHOSb	0.28	0.4286	0.8947	0.2935	0.4549	0.4024
BI2*PHOSc	0.2977	0.7056	0.9047	0.249	0.4517	0.3307
BI2*PHOSd	0.2348	0.3209	0.8366	0.204	0.42	0.4747
BI2*PHOSe	0.2586	0.3146	0.8947	0.2859	0.4615	0.4941
BI3	0.0615	0.8378	0.7073	0.1344	0.1323	0.0996
BI3*PHOSa	0.2919	0.3932	0.8262	0.2651	0.3569	0.3411
BI3*PHOSb	0.3097	0.3133	0.8343	0.2818	0.4671	0.3438
BI3*PHOSc	0.3229	0.3859	0.8373	0.2331	0.4593	0.3677
BI3*PHOSd	0.2692	0.3071	0.7789	0.1885	0.4294	0.3176
BI3*PHOSe	0.2888	0.3834	0.8217	0.2707	0.4669	0.4295
BI4	-0.0649	0.4667	0.3847	0.034	0.0205	0.0191
BI4*PHOSa	0.1606	0.4475	0.8336	0.1677	0.3278	0.4249
BI4*PHOSb	0.1776	0.4607	0.8482	0.1833	0.3435	0.4381
BI4*PHOSc	0.1878	0.4278	0.8432	0.1393	0.3307	0.452
BI4*PHOSd	0.1552	0.3921	0.7962	0.1157	0.3222	0.419
BI4*PHOSe	0.1616	0.4511	0.8366	0.1784	0.3432	0.4208
BI5	0.0345	0.6595	0.7107	0.1046	0.0984	0.0617
BI5*PHOSa	0.2442	0.5983	0.4559	0.236	0.4005	0.4632
BI5*PHOSb	0.2637	0.6117	0.4643	0.2533	0.4161	0.4742
BI5*PHOSc	0.2757	0.5787	0.4567	0.2086	0.4019	0.487
BI5*PHOSd	0.2252	0.5264	0.4056	0.1667	0.377	0.4468
BI5*PHOSe	0.2317	0.59	0.4395	0.2329	0.4001	0.4468
BI6	0.4013	0.1672	0.2503	0.8861	0.3507	0.322
BI6*PHOSa	0.3055	0.1542	0.409	0.366	0.8672	0.3553
BI6*PHOSb	0.3226	0.1802	0.4268	0.392	0.8887	0.3707
BI6*PHOSc	0.3531	0.1464	0.4322	0.363	0.9035	0.3096
BI6*PHOSd	0.4559	0.161	0.4507	0.3348	0.8114	0.3408
BI6*PHOSe	0.3018	0.1861	0.4563	0.3569	0.8862	0.3717
BI7	0.3908	0.1892	0.2502	0.9185	0.3633	0.3084
BI7*PHOSa	0.4096	0.1734	0.4201	0.4952	0.889	0.4584
BI7*PHOSb	0.4177	0.1914	0.4261	0.8103	0.8964	0.3607
BI7*PHOSc	0.4481	0.1595	0.4357	0.4823	0.9146	0.3042
BI7*PHOSd	0.4559	0.1802	0.4611	0.4584	0.8294	0.3447
BI7*PHOSe	0.497	0.2029	0.458	0.4775	0.8948	0.3623
BI8	0.3993	0.1628	0.215	0.9092	0.3646	0.3143
BI8*PHOSa	0.3267	0.1475	0.4044	0.3698	0.8871	0.4864
BI8*PHOSb	0.3319	0.1636	0.4075	0.3836	0.8921	0.4866
BI8*PHOSc	0.356	0.1317	0.4142	0.3507	0.9052	0.4257
BI8*PHOSd	0.4585	0.1543	0.442	0.336	0.826	0.3625
BI8*PHOSe	0.3035	0.1775	0.4385	0.3541	0.8902	0.2828
BI9	0.3636	0.1962	0.2906	0.8406	0.3297	0.3254
BI9*PHOSa	0.3116	0.1763	0.4602	0.343	0.8764	0.2925
BI9*PHOSb	0.3144	0.1878	0.46	0.3543	0.8793	0.2919
BI9*PHOSc	0.3363	0.1556	0.4619	0.7151	0.8828	0.2232
BI9*PHOSd	0.4366	0.1702	0.4703	0.5936	0.7888	0.2464
BI9*PHOSe	0.4778	0.1995	0.4752	0.3113	0.857	0.2708
PHOSa	0.4706	0.092	0.4685	0.3177	0.4454	0.8339
PHOSb	0.4005	0.1217	0.4895	0.3567	0.3802	0.8624
PHOSc	0.213	0.0643	0.4792	0.2688	0.3562	0.8885
PHOSd	0.3478	0.0936	0.4494	0.1752	0.3256	0.6839
PHOSe	0.4418	0.1307	0.2057	0.2218	0.2572	0.8091

The bold values represents items which loaded above the threshold value (0.5).

4.4. Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which the methods used to measure the same variable produced similar results (O’Leary-Kelly and Vokurka, 1998). Composite reliability, average variance extracted as well as factor loading can be used to measure convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). The composite reliability, as shown in Table 8, exceeds the suggested cut off point of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). The average variance extracted (AVE) exceeds the recommended value of 0.5 (Barclay et al., 1995). The (AVE) in the study were in the range of 0.5595 and 0.7905. The measurement model (Table 9) indicates that airline hospitality, a perceived price, perceived advertisement, and self-image (private hospitality) are valid according to parameter estimates and statistical significance.

Table 8: Measurement Model

Constructs	Measurement Items	Loading	AVE	Composite Reliability	Cronbachs Alpha
AIRHOS	1.AIRHOS1	0.794	0.5681	0.9658	0.9621
	2.AIRHOS2	0.831			
	3.AIRHOS3	0.840			
	4.AIRHOS4	0.851			
	5.AIRHOS5	0.834			
	6.AIRHOS6	0.616			
	7.AIRHOS7	0.579			
	8.AIRHOS8	0.837			
	9.AIRHOS9	0.793			
	10.AIRHOS12	0.814			
	11.AIRHOS13	0.757			
	12.AIRHOS14	0.316			
	13.AIRHOS15	0.775			
	14.AIRHOS18	0.786			
	15.AIRHOS19	0.727			
	16.AIRHOS21	0.778			
	17.AIRHOS22	0.782			
	18.AIRHOS23	0.782			
	19.AIRHOS25	0.721			
	20.AIRHOS27	0.752			
	21.AIRHOS28	0.789			
	22.AIRHOS30	0.611			
PP	BI1	0.860	0.5595	0.859	0.9202
	BI2	0.838			
	BI3	0.837			
	BI4	0.466			
PAD	BI5	0.659	0.7905	0.9378	0.9112
	BI6	0.886			
	BI7	0.918			
	BI8	0.909			
	BI9	0.840			
PHOS	PHOSa	0.833	0.6701	0.9098	0.8753
	PHOSb	0.862			
	PHOSc	0.888			
	PHOSd	0.683			
	PHOSe	0.809			

Table 8: Measurement Model (Interactional effects) (continue)

Constructs	Measurement Items	Loading	AVE	Composite Reliability	Cronbachs
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		Alpha			
PP* PHOS	BI1* PHOSa	0.872	0.7245	0.985	0.9842
	BI1* PHOSb	0.883			
	BI1* PHOSc	0.889			
	BI1* PHOSd	0.837			
	BI1* PHOSe	0.837			
	BI2* PHOSa	0.885			
	BI2* PHOSb	0.894			
	BI2* PHOSc	0.904			
	BI2* PHOSd	0.836			
	BI2* PHOSe	0.894			
	BI3* PHOSa	0.826			
	BI3* PHOSb	0.834			
	BI3* PHOSc	0.837			
	BI3* PHOSd	0.778			
	BI3* PHOSe	0.821			
	BI4* PHOSa	0.833			
	BI4* PHOSb	0.848			
	BI4* PHOSc	0.843			
	BI4* PHOSd	0.796			
	BI4* PHOSe	0.836			
PAD * PHOS	BI5* PHOSa	0.855	0.7637	0.9847	0.9836
	BI5* PHOSb	0.864			
	BI5* PHOSc	0.856			
	BI5 * PHOSd	0.805			
	BI5* PHOSe	0.839			
	BI6* PHOSa	0.867			
	BI6* PHOSb	0.888			
	BI6* PHOSc	0.903			
	BI6* PHOSd	0.811			
	BI6* PHOSe	0.886			
	BI7* PHOSa	0.881			
	BI7* PHOSb	0.896			
	BI7* PHOSc	0.914			
	BI7* PHOSd	0.829			
	BI7* PHOSe	0.894			
	BI8* PHOSa	0.887			
	BI8* PHOSb	0.892			
	BI8* PHOSc	0.905			
	BI8* PHOSd	0.826			
	BI8* PHOSe	0.857			
BI9* PHOSa	0.876				
BI9* PHOSb	0.879				
BI9* PHOSc	0.882				
BI9* PHOSd	0.788				
BI9* PHOSe	0.857				

Table 9: Model Summary Results

Constructs	Measurement Items	Loading	T-Value
AIRHOS	1.AIRHOS1	0.794	39.0525
	2.AIRHOS2	0.831	

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	3.AIRHOS3	0.840	50.3762
	4.AIRHOS4	0.851	57.1153
	5.AIRHOS5	0.834	60.5879
	6.AIRHOS6	0.616	48.8563
	7.AIRHOS7	0.579	18.8445
	8.AIRHOS8	0.837	17.5116
	9.AIRHOS9	0.793	50.3595
	10.AIRHOS12	0.814	40.9804
	11.AIRHOS13	0.757	40.9766
	12.AIRHOS14	0.316	30.2113
	13.AIRHOS15	0.775	2.696
	14.AIRHOS18	0.786	32.0657
	15.AIRHOS19	0.727	36.7511
	16.AIRHOS21	0.778	27.6841
	17.AIRHOS22	0.782	30.2659
	18.AIRHOS23	0.782	39.2296
	19.AIRHOS25	0.721	37.2228
	20.AIRHOS27	0.752	27.6944
	21.AIRHOS28	0.789	30.7762
	22.AIRHOS30	0.611	40.0607
			16.7518
PP	BI1	0.860	3.3009
	BI2	0.838	3.1595
	BI3	0.837	3.5573
	BI4	0.466	1.1877
PAD	BI5	0.659	2.3656
	BI6	0.886	65.1154
	BI7	0.918	82.5625
	BI8	0.909	90.976
	BI9	0.840	45.9156
PHOS	PHOSa	0.833	49.9507
	PHOSb	0.862	51.7207
	PHOSc	0.888	76.3241
	PHOSd	0.683	24.8052
	PHOSe	0.809	37.7125
PP* PHOS	BI1* PHOSa	0.872	78.7862
	BI1* PHOSb	0.883	87.7745
	BI1* PHOSc	0.889	86.3524
	BI1* PHOSd	0.837	53.8644
	BI1* PHOSe	0.837	84.1885
	BI2* PHOSa	0.885	83.8373
	BI2* PHOSb	0.894	92.9917
	BI2* PHOSc	0.904	96.5688
	BI2* PHOSd	0.836	51.6508
	BI2* PHOSe	0.894	79.5913
	BI3* PHOSa	0.826	37.7182
	BI3* PHOSb	0.834	41.0601
	BI3* PHOSc	0.837	39.2448
	BI3* PHOSd	0.778	32.7864
	BI3* PHOSe	0.821	38.1828
	BI4* PHOSa	0.833	42.0498

	BI4* PHOSb	0.848	46.4627
	BI4* PHOSc	0.843	43.6542
	BI4* PHOSd	0.796	38.5284
	BI4* PHOSe	0.836	41.3367
PAD *	BI5* PHOSa	0.855	53.6891
PHOS	BI5* PHOSb	0.864	53.8166
	BI5* PHOSc	0.856	52.3546
	BI5 * PHOSd	0.805	41.5643
	BI5* PHOSe	0.839	48.5489
	BI6* PHOSa	0.867	64.9675
	BI6* PHOSb	0.888	79.6866
	BI6* PHOSc	0.903	95.5526
	BI6* PHOSd	0.811	49.4055
	BI6* PHOSe	0.886	79.6145
	BI7* PHOSa	0.881	83.7186
	BI7* PHOSb	0.896	81.5304
	BI7* PHOSc	0.914	102.8085
	BI7* PHOSd	0.829	53.3817
	BI7* PHOSe	0.894	80.7873
	BI8* PHOSa	0.887	84.4126
	BI8* PHOSb	0.892	77.8939
	BI8* PHOSc	0.905	100.3599
	BI8* PHOSd	0.826	52.8185
	BI8* PHOSe	0.857	81.5809
	BI9* PHOSa	0.876	76.9253
	BI9* PHOSb	0.879	68.4161
	BI9* PHOSc	0.882	79.5365
	BI9* PHOSd	0.788	45.0165
	BI9* PHOSe	0.857	66.3303

4.5. Discriminant Validity

To ensure discriminant validity (which is the degree to which items can measure different constructs) correlational analysis among the construct measurements was employed. Compeau et al. (1999) states that the items should be loaded higher in the construct in which they belong. Table 10 represents the correlations among the constructs. Constructs correlation are less that (AVE) of each construct; therefore, discriminant validity exists among the constructs in the present study.

Table 10: Discriminant Validity

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. AIRHOS	0.5681					
2. PP	0.846	0.5595				
3. PP * PHOS	0.4377	0.5806	0.7245			
4. PAD	0.3568	0.7754	0.5607	0.7905		
5. PAD* PHOS	0.2005	0.1937	0.1186	0.1213	0.7637	
6. PHOS	0.2818	0.5024	0.3041	0.5819	0.7482	0.6701

4.6. Hypotheses Testing

The results of the hypotheses tests are presented in Figure 1 and Table 11. The R² value for passengers’ airline hospitality expectations is 0.393, which suggests that 39.3% of the variance in airline hospitality expectation can be explained by brand image dimensions, self-image (private hospitality), and the interactional effect of self-image (private hospitality). Perceived advertisement is positively related (b=0.451, p <0.01) to the level of customer’s airline hospitality expectations. In addition, self-image (private hospitality) also has a significant relationship (b=0.743, p <0.01) with customers’ airline hospitality expectations, and it has an interaction effect on the relationship between a perceived advertisement and passengers expectation of airline hospitality (b=0.291, p <0.01). The relationship between perceived price and passengers expectation from airline hospitality was found be not significant while self-image (private hospitality) does not have interaction effect on the relationship between perceived price and passengers’ expectation from airline hospitality. Thus, H2, H3, H5 were supported while H1 and H4 were not supported.

Table 11: Hypotheses Testing and Path Coefficients

Hypothesis	Relationship	Coefficient	t-value	Supported
H1	PPI ----> Airhos	0.172	0.8608	Not Supported
H2	PADI ----> Airhos	0.451	3.1608	Supported
H3	PHOS ----> Airhos	0.743	4.8363	Supported
H4	PP*PHOS ----> Airhos	-0.238	1.1721	Not Supported
H5	PAD*PHOS ----> Airhos	0.291	2.3487	Supported

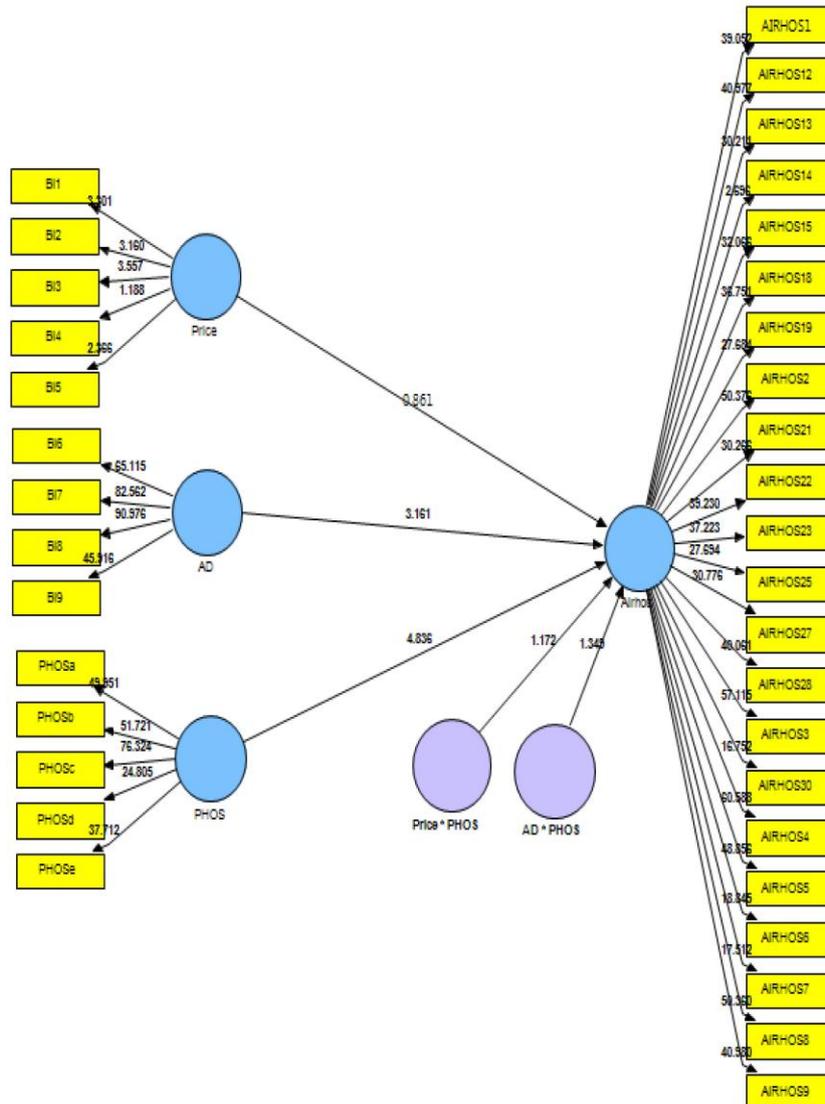


Figure1: Path Analysis

5. Discussion

This present study empirically examines the main effects of brand image (perceived price, perceived advertisement) on passengers' expectation of airline hospitality. From the analysis presented, it is

evident that only perceived advertisement has an impact on expectation towards airline hospitality.

5.1. The relationship among perceived price and passengers' expectation on airline hospitality (H1)

Among the plausible explanations for this result is that: (i) passengers of full service airlines are relatively less sensitive to price and therefore would not demand more for higher priced service. Passengers of full service airlines are likely to be more tolerant (larger zone of tolerance) on the price of the air ticket compared to the passengers of the low-cost carriers (Salleh et al., 2010). Bruning (1997) also confirmed that full service airline travellers' price sensitivity are lesser for the medium and high price ranges; however, their level of sensitivity are high for the low and medium price ranges. (ii) Hospitable service is mandatory and necessary in full-service airlines regardless of price. This is what highly reputable national carriers such as Singapore Airlines have practiced so far (Chan, 2000). (iii) Contextual Issues: Malaysians level of sensitivity toward hospitality is considerable. Hall (1998) described a high-context individual as someone who engages feeling in the relationship. Hall, (1998) considered Malaysians as high-context individuals stating that Malaysians prefer to fly on Malaysian Airlines (MAS) even though its air tickets are generally more expensive than some other airlines. This is due to the warmth and hospitality which brings a feeling of staying at home when travelling with MAS. Other studies have also confirmed the priority of service quality and hospitality over price for Malaysians (Gilbert and Wong, 2003).

5.2. The relationship between perceived advertisement and passengers' expectation on airline hospitality (H2)

The results of hypothesis testing showed that perceived advertisement significantly influences passengers' expectations towards airline hospitality. This result has consistency with the findings of previous studies which confirmed the association among service quality, advertisement, as well as consumers' expectations. Sirgy and Su (2000) have stated that advertising acts as a significant cue and source of information that affects tourists' impressions regarding the typical

patron of each destination. In addition, advertising is also used as an image restoration strategy in the airline industry in order to reduce culpability of the pilot's strike, (Cowden and Sellnow, 2002).

Airlines must make sure to fulfil the promises they have proposed in the advertisement. Airlines can portray their promises with appealing and pleasant slogans in order to persuade customers that the company is trustworthy. Indeed, the more appealing the advertisement, the higher the passengers' expectation from the airline. Appealing advertising can be in terms of selection of language, means, and images used (Kostrhunová, 2011). Usually the use of images or pictures in advertising supports the body copy (main text) of the advertisement in a way that indescribable features in written form (such as positivity or level of excitement) can be expressed. Also images can be considered as crucial elements for cultural references, especially when the advertisements promote a country whose culture is diametrically different from what people are used to, (Kostrhunová, 2011). For instance an advertisement for Thai Airways shows Asian women dressed in richly decorated national costumes resembling the "unique adventures" that the passenger can experience; hence the passengers will expect unique adventure from Thai Airways based on the message they got from the advertising.

In addition, other airlines have also used advertising to shape the passengers expectations. The director of market research for Singapore Airlines in an interview with the Sunday Times published in 1997 stated "Around the world the Singapore Girl remains a very positive marketing icon. She evokes the very best in Asian charm and hospitality." Singapore Girl has become synonymous with Singapore Airlines. A Singapore airline is an Asian airline, and Asia is known for historical gentle traditions together with well-mannered service. The Asian woman does not believe she is humiliating herself by performing the role of the courteous, pleasant and supportive hostess. Our aim is to transform those service traditions into in-flight hospitality (Chan, 2000). Furthermore the brand icon portrayed in the advertisement is also influential in shaping customers' expectation toward the brand (Chan, 2000).

An advertising message is an explicit service promise and based on Zeithaml et al. (2009), every type of explicit service promise has a

direct effect on service expectations or specifically, the desired as well as predicted services. Hence the positive impact of advertising on passengers' expectation of airline hospitality is comprehensive.

5.3. The Moderating Effect of Self Image (Private Hospitality) on the Relationship between Image Cues and Airline Hospitality (H4, H5)

In order to interpret moderating hypotheses results, a monetary versus non-monetary approach has been taken into consideration. There is a reciprocal relationship between private and commercial domains of hospitality (Lashley, 2000, 2008). Private hospitality has been considered as the basis for commercial hospitality. Since numerous commercial operations have developed from early domestic settings, the private hospitality domain is a significant environment for launching harmony, sympathy and reciprocity among host side and guest side (Lashley, 2000, 2008).

Although the impact and role of private hospitality on shaping commercial hospitality is undeniable, there are still debates about these two domains and their essence which have some contradictions with each other. Lashley (2008) has explained the contradictions between private and commercial domain of hospitality by looking into the origins of these domains. Private hospitality has its origins on generosity while the commercial domain is concerned with market and monetary aspects. A very good example showing the paradox that exists between these domains is Harvester Restaurants (Lashley, 2008). The instruction given to the front of house personnel was to "treat the customers as though they were guests in your own home". Bearing in mind links with the private domain of hospitality it is possible to understand the thinking, but the needs of a modern branded business for strict brand, portion and cost control limit the hospitality experience for both the server and the served. It would be a pretty rum domestic host who offered a guest another glass of wine provided they paid for it. The difficulties which many branded hospitality service operators face in offering a brand which meets guest security needs yet at the same times meets customers desires to be provided with personalized service is one outcome of the tensions present in commercialized hospitality.

This shows that beside the fact that the two domains are strongly interrelated, they have important conflicts in terms of the monetary aspect. In other words, although both domains' concern is provision of hospitality for the guest side, one follows a monetary approach (commercial hospitality: provision depends on a reciprocity based on money exchange and limits giving pleasure to guests which ultimately impacts on the nature of hospitable behaviour and the experience of hospitality. Both host and guest enter the hospitality occasion with a reduced sense of reciprocity and mutual obligation), while the other one's approach is based on a social and humanistic relationship (private hospitality).

The finding of this study has consistency with the discussions and debates existing in the hospitality arena and discipline. The findings of the present study show that private hospitality cannot have an impact on the hospitality offered in commercial settings (airline industry) when the image antecedents are from a monetary perspective; conversely, private hospitality can have impact on commercial hospitality when the passengers' image are from non-monetary aspects.

In addition, since the essence of private hospitality is about behavioural issues and interaction and reciprocal behaviour of the host with its guests in the private setting (in his/her home), it would have explanatory power on the relationships which have a similar essence with private hospitality. As the findings of the present study have shown, private hospitality could have a significant moderating impact on the association among non-monetary based image antecedents (perceived advertisement) and expectations toward hospitality in the airlines. This is because advertisement is about behavioural aspects and has consistency with self image (private hospitality) and expectations toward hospitality in the airlines.

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