

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Abstract This chapter discusses the theoretical background related to this research. It consists of an explanation on the concept of behavioural intention, behavioural intention as a decision making process and antecedents of behavioural intention. Aligned with the research purposes, the antecedents of behavioural intention include satisfaction, service quality, perceived sacrifice, trust, image and perceived value.

Keywords Behavioural intention • Satisfaction • Service quality • Perceived sacrifice • Trust • Image • Perceive value

2.1 Introduction

Before 1930s, companies did not think much of consumer behaviour and efforts to understand it had not been encouraged. Firms' sole purpose was to produce (Lynd 1936). Adam Smith avowed this statement in his explanation on mercantilism which put the needs of the producers above all else (Kucukaksoy 2011).

After Georgescu-Roegen (1936) analyzed *the theory of choice*, entrepreneurs started to think of how to understand consumer behaviour and use it as marketing weapon (Gowdy and Mesner 1998). Georgescu-Roegen (1936) stated that transactions happened in the market is not as simple as supply and demand curves which only consider price and quantity. In the same year, Lynd (1936) also showed how supply and demand curves are irrelevant because of their underlying assumptions. Furthermore, Lynd (1936) argued that productions should be directed by consumer behaviour because goods scarcity is no longer an issue since the spread of production machinery, confusing consumer rationality with dynamic needs, and the fact that the consumers seemed to enjoy their instability.

'Consumer behaviour refers to the behaviour that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs (Schiffman and Kanuk 1994)'. Engel et al. (1994)

defined consumer behaviour as *'behaviours that are directly involved in the action of obtaining, consuming, and spending our products and services, including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions'*. Meanwhile Solomon (2012) stated that *'the field of consumer behaviour covers a lot of ground: It is the study of the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires'*.

One of the study subjects of consumer behaviour is consumer behavioural intention. Nowadays, it becomes one of the most widely discussed subjects in marketing literature. This is not surprising since the ability to well-managed consumer behavioural intention creates competitive advantage for firms. Literature shows that favourable behavioural intention results on insensitivity towards price (Lai and Chen 2011) and attractiveness of competitor (Gummesson 2008). Furthermore, behavioural intention is believed to be a mediating variable between customer satisfaction and economic benefits like profitability, market share and income (Clemes et al. 2008). Firms that can satisfy their customers but fail to create favourable behavioural intention among their customers will not obtain significant profits.

2.2 Understanding Behavioural Intention

According to the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), behavioural intention is a predictor of future behaviour (Ajzen 1991). Zeithaml et al. (1996) divide behavioural intention into five, which are: loyalty, switch, pay more, external responses and internal responses. Bush et al. (2004) argued that behavioural intention consists of brand loyalty, positive word of mouth (WOM), and switching and complaining behaviour. Furthermore, Bloemer et al. (1999) broke up behavioural intention to WOM, purchase intention, price sensitivity and complaint behaviour. Yang and Peterson (2004) concluded that most researchers view behavioural intention represents customer loyalty. Fornell (1992) explained that customer loyalty is formed by two kinds of intentions; repurchase intentions and the intention to recommend the product to others. Thus, the concept of behavioural intention proposed by Yang and Peterson (2004) and Fornell (1992) refers to the intention to repurchase and recommend. Further, the concept of behavioural intention is also referred as attitudinal loyalty (Sanzo et al. 2007; Jaiswal and Niraj 2011; Aurier and Lanauze 2011, 2012) or loyalty intention (Olsen et al. 2013; Chiou et al. 2009; Chiou and Shen 2006; Yen and Lu 2008).

In the context of public land transport services, some researchers already conducted study on passengers' behavioural intention, such as Jen and Hu (2003), Wen et al. (2005), and Lai and Chen (2011). They unanimously agree that behavioural intention represents customer loyalty, which consists of the intention to repurchase a product/service and recommend it to others. Thus, passengers' behavioural intention represents to what extent public transportation passengers

will reuse and recommend public transport (Jen and Hu 2003; Lai and Chen 2011). The more favourable behavioural intention of the passengers, the more their intention to reuse public transport and recommend it to others and vice versa.

2.3 Behavioural Intention as Consumer Decision Making Process

Behavioural intention reflects consumer decision-making process for keeping loyal to a product he or she consumed and even become 'informal' marketing agent for the product (Egan 2011; Solomon 2012). Generally, there are two paradigms concerning consumer decision-making process. First paradigm is the rational paradigm. The paradigm sees consumer decision-making process as a rational process which uses all available information and the decision is made based on 'cost-benefit' consideration for each alternative of decisions (Solomon 2012). Rational decision-making process involves some steps that are shown in Fig. 2.1.

Second paradigm is the irrational paradigm. The irrational paradigm explains why consumers often do not choose the rationally best product available at the market. The irrational paradigm consists of two perspectives, which are behavioural influence perspective and experiential perspective. The first perspective refers to the view that see decision-making process based on 'only' a learned response to environment cue while the second perspective believes that decision-making process is a subjective process and it is naturally hard to be explained, whereas consumers' decision is made mostly based on the emotional bond (Solomon 2012).

In accordance with previous Sect. 2.2 explanation, behavioural intention represents consumer loyalty towards certain product. The consequence of the concept is that consumers never feel like being forced to have relationship with the products they consumed. Consumers have favourable behavioural intention is not caused by lack of alternative. 'Lack of alternative' will keep customer to reuse the product even though he/she doesn't willing to recommend and even reuse it. More clearly, this research differentiates consumers with favourable behavioural intention and the ones with lack of alternative even though both might seem loyal to reuse certain products.

Based on the TPB proposed by Ajzen (1991), we argue that consumers who reuse product due to lack of alternative will certainly switch to other products if they have the ability to do so since the lost of their perceived behavioural control. On the other hand, consumers with favourable behavioural intention will perceive the existence of other alternatives as scarce and become insensitive with the cost-benefit considerations of other alternatives (Gummesson 2008). In other words, even though there are competitors those offers rationally better products, consumers with favourable behavioural intention will not change their preferences.

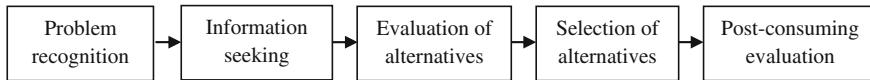


Fig. 2.1 Rational decision-making process (Mowen and dan Minor 2002; Solomon 2012)

Based on previous explanation, we can conclude that behavioural intention is an irrational decision-making process. Earl's (2012) auto ethnography research confirmed that consumers tend to make decision related to their consumption on automotive products, which serves the same functional utilitarian needs with public transports, irrationally and did not compare objective costs and benefits between alternatives. Furthermore, Earl (2012) found that consumers chose to buy vehicle rather than rent vehicle even though renting is rationally more beneficial than buying vehicle in the research context.

Consumer decision to be loyal to certain product is part of irrational decision-making process. However, whether it is due to inertia, 'we buy a brand out of habit merely because it requires less effort' (Solomon 2012), or emotional bond is still being debated among experts (Solomon, 2012). In relationship marketing literature, the view that favourable behavioural intention shows consumer inertia was popularized by Sheth and Parvatiyar (1995). However, Bagozzi (1995) and Peterson (1995) seemed to reject the argument. Furthermore, recent literature in relational marketing, a field that discusses how marketers develop relationship with customers, shows that favourable behavioural intention reflects emotional bond between consumers and their chosen products (Zhou et al. 2012). Thus, this research perceives public transport passengers' behavioural intention as the result of irrational decision-making process that suggests emotional bond between passengers and their chosen mode of transportation. Favourable behavioural intention indicates strong emotional bond between passengers and their chosen public transport. More favourable behavioural intention of the passengers shows stronger emotional bond between them and their chosen public transport and vice versa.

2.4 Antecedents of Behavioural Intention

Relationship marketing literature adopts the principles of success chain management to explain behavioural intention (Bruhn 2003). It stated that a consequence variable is the result of interrelated relationship of antecedent variables, just like a chain (Bruhn 2003). More clearly, consequence variable is affected by an antecedent variable which is also influenced by another antecedent variable and so on until we find the tip of all variables which supposed to represent valuation of service provider's input (Bruhn 2003). This research refers the tip of antecedent variables as 'initiation variable'. Thus, antecedents of behavioural intention consists of initiation variable and other antecedents variables.

In the context of behavioural intention, service provider's inputs are the responds of service provider on consumer apparent needs. At first, it was intended to fulfil only functional utilitarian needs which relate to products' instrumental and functional aspects (Falk et al. 2010). More clearly, service providers promised products' attributes and functional benefits, which are evaluated by consumers using cognitive evaluation, to meet the needs (Shimp 2010; Solomon, 2012). Related to this matter, marketing scholars, especially researchers on service marketing, then argued that service quality represents the performance of service providers in fulfilling functional utilitarian needs which were mostly evaluated using cognitive assessment rather than affective assessment (Chang and Wang, 2011; Dodds 2002). Therefore, it was not surprising when we found literatures on behavioural intention generally considered service quality as initiation variable (Lien and Yu 2001; Al-Rousan et al. 2010; Cronin et al. 2000; Liu et al. 2005; Huang, 2009) and it also happened in the context of public land transport (Lai and Chen 2011; Wen et al. 2005).

Literature studies on consumer behaviour have already identified that human needs develop beyond functional utilitarian needs to hedonic experiential needs (Solomon 2012). Hedonic experiential needs are related to the emotional aspects of product, such as how the product can become the part of consumers' life or how the product can show consumers' self-identity (Shimp 2010; Falk et al. 2010; Solomon 2012). Falk et al. (2010)'s research on quality-satisfaction relationship included variable that represents the performance of service provider in carrying out activities that fulfil consumers' hedonic needs aside from service quality. Integrated marketing communication literature even developed a marketing communication model called as Hedonic Experiential Model (HEM), which emphasizes the importance of integrated marketing communication that focus on product's emotional aspect (Shimp 2010). Thus, the input of service provider is no longer focused on the effort to satisfy functional utilitarian needs, but also hedonic experiential needs.

Image is a variable that represents the performance of service provider in satisfying hedonic experiential needs (Falk et al. 2010). Image illustrates what is in consumers' minds related to certain product/brand/object/service provider (Sondoh Jr et al. 2007; Andreassen and Lindestad 1998; Bloemer and de Ruyter 1998; Bridson and Mavando 2011). Unlike service quality, image is evaluated by consumers using affective assessment (Zins 20010; Andreassen and Lindestad 1998).

To our knowledge, research on public land transport passengers' behavioural intention that involves 'image' as one of the in the context of land transportation was nonexistent (Wen et al. 2005). Even so, literature on consumer behaviour shows that product image can form emotional bound which is the root of favourable behavioural intention (Kandampully and Hu 2007; Nguyen and Leblanc 1998; Chen and Tsai 2007; Ryu et al. 2008). Furthermore, in the context of automotive industry, which serves the same functional utilitarian needs with public transports, Shimp (2010) cited the existence of ads that are more dominated by efforts to accentuate the image of the products than their functional features. Relational marketing literature also denotes how Harley Davidson emotionally

bounded to the brand image (Pugliese and Cagan 2002). Empirically, researchers also confirmed the important role of image in the formation of emotional bound with automotive products (Zhou et al. 2012). Therefore, it was understandable when Wen et al. (2005) suggested ‘image’ as antecedent variable of public land transport passengers’ behavioural intention.

It is generally known in the practice of marketing that service provider not only responded consumers’ needs, but also charged monetary price and even forced consumers to make non-monetary sacrifices, such as time (Zeithaml 1988). Marketers have long used the formula of 4P marketing mix (product, place, promotion and price) (Gronroos 1994). The management of price and place is an attempt to make ‘sacrifices’ made by consumer become competitive. Researchers of behavioural intention, especially the ones who dwell on value theory paradigm, argued that before consumers possess favourable or unfavourable behavioural intention, they would consider the costs and benefits of a product (Zeithaml 1988). Consumers use cognitive assessment in evaluating sacrifices needed to consume certain product (Dodds 2002). Moreover, marketing literature introduced the variable of perceived sacrifice to represent the result of consumer evaluation process toward the amount of sacrifice in consuming a product (Zeithaml 1988). Some researchers on behavioural intention then added that variable as initiation variable of behavioural intention (Shukla 2010; Sheu 2010; Ruiz et al. 2008; Dodds 1991; Monroe and Chapman 1987), including in the context of land transportation (Jen and Hu 2003; Wen et al. 2005).

As explained before, behavioural intention is part of a chain that involves some antecedent variables. This article has already recognized three initiation variables, namely service quality, perceived sacrifice and image. Beside those three variables, based on study on previous researches, we have also identified some antecedent variables that mediate the relationship between initiation variables and behavioural intention, which are satisfaction (Molinari et al. 2008; Dahiyat et al. 2011; Kuo et al. 2011; Chuang and Cheng 2010; Lee and Lin 2005; Caruana 2002; Bloemer et al. 1998), trust (Aydin and Ozer 2005; Caceres and Paparoidamis 2007; Flavian and Guinaliu 2006), and perceived value (Lai and Chen 2010; Wen et al. 2005; Chang and Wang 2011; Tam, 2012). Based on above elaboration, this research expected that those six variables can explain behavioural intention of paratransit passengers. Descriptions of each variable and their relationship will be discussed in Sects. 2.4.1–2.4.6.

2.4.1 Service Quality

In service business, an important element that widely discussed in literature is service quality (Yusoff and Ismail 2008). Zeithaml (1988) defined quality as ‘the consumer’s judgement about a product [or service]’s overall excellence or superiority’. Further, marketing literature agreed that service quality show to what extent service performance matches consumers’ expectations (Gronroos 1984,

1994; Parasuraman et al. 1985, 1988). If service performance matches or exceeds consumers' expectations, they will have favourable assessments toward service quality (Parasuraman et al. 1988).

In the context of public transports research, the definition of service quality in the marketing field is also adopted. For example, Transportation Research Board (1999, 2004) stated that 'service quality is a measure of how well the service level delivered matches customer expectations. Delivering quality service means conforming to customer expectations on a consistent basis [Lewis and Boom (1983 in Berry 1983)]'. Thus, the public transports passengers will have favourable perception of service quality if the performance matches or exceeds their expectations and the perception will be unfavourable if the service quality fall below the expectations.

Service marketing literature suggests that service quality is seen as multidimensional constructs (Berry et al. 1985; Parasuraman et al. 1985), but there is no consensus on the exact nature and measures of the constructs' dimensions (Brady and Cronin 2001). Nevertheless, the dimensions widely used by many researchers to measure the dimensions of service quality were identified by Parasuraman et al. (1985, 1988, 1991) and known as SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al. 1988).

Parasuraman et al. (1985) found that the dimensions of service quality consist of 10 dimensions, namely reliability, responsiveness, competence, access, courtesy, communication, credibility, security, understanding/knowing the customer and tangibles. In their subsequent study, Parasuraman et al. (1988) summarized the 10 dimensions into five dimensions namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. The five dimensions had been tested and the results proved that these dimensions have high validity and reliability (Parasuraman et al. 1991). The five dimensions are known as SERVQUAL and the explanation can be seen in Table 2.1.

Although SERVQUAL has been applied by many researchers, the model of service quality is still criticized as described in the writings of Buttle (1996). For example, criticism of SERVQUAL is due to its generic nature. SERVQUAL is believed to be applicable to all types of industry (Ladhari 2009). In fact, some empirical studies suggest that the SERVQUAL dimensions are not stable in the context of a certain service industry (Carman 1990; Headley and Miller 1993; Mels et al. 1997; Durvasula et al. 1999). Furthermore, SERVQUAL dimensions only consider functional quality dimension, but not the technical quality dimension (Lagrosen et al. 2004). Therefore, many researchers are developing new models to fill the gap, such as Wen et al. 2005; Perez et al. 2007; Lai and Chen 2010.

The literature also shows that there are many researchers who identified and measured the dimensions of service quality for public land transports. Nevertheless, there is not yet a consensus among researchers about the dimensions of the public transport service quality. Some researchers adopted SERVQUAL dimensions, such as Gule (2009), Wijaya (2009), Perez et al. (2007), and Randheer et al. (2011). Meanwhile, other researchers proposed different dimensions. For example, Prasad and Shekhar (2010) used eight dimensions, namely tangibility, reliability, assurance, responsiveness, empathy, service product, social responsibility and

Table 2.1 Five dimensions of service quality

No	Dimensions	Explanation
1	Tangibles	‘Physical facilities, equipment and appearance of persone’
2	Reliability	‘Ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately’
3	Responsiveness	‘Willingness to help customers and provide prompt service’
4	Assurance	‘Knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and coincidence’
5	Empathy	‘Caring, individualized attention the firm provides its customers’

(Parasuraman et al. 1988)

Table 2.2 Service quality dimensions that are not taken from SERVQUAL

Author(s)	Dimensions	Transportation type	Country
Lai and Chen 2011	Core service and psychical environment	Mass rapid transit	Taiwan
Prasad and Shekhar 2010	Assurance, empathy, Reliability, responsiveness, tangibles, comfort, connection and convenience	Railways	India
Joewono and Kubota 2007	Availability, accessibility, reliability, information, customer service, comfort, safety and security, fare and environmental impact	Paratransits	Indonesia
Hu and Jen 2003	Interaction with passengers, tangible service equipment, convenience of service and operating management support	Bus service	Taiwan
Wen et al. 2005	Onboard amenity, crews attitude, station performance, operational performance	Bus service	Taiwan
Caro and Garcia 2007	Personal interaction, design, physical environment and outcome	Urgent transport service	Spain
Transportation Research Board (1999, 2004)	Safety, comfort, ease of using the system, convenience, performance/reliability, facilities and value	Train/bus	USA

service delivery. Lai and Chen (2011) proposed two dimensions of service quality which are core services and physical services. Table 2.2 shows the dimensions service quality that proposed by researchers who do not adopt the SERVQUAL.

2.4.2 Perceived Value

Value can be considered as the basis for all marketing activities (Holbrook 1994; Yang and Peterson 2004). In short, value is a customer’s overall assessment of the usefulness of a product based on perceptions of what was gained and sacrificed

(Zeithaml 1988). Perceived value gives an overview of the customer's perception of a company in considering what they want, and believe that they get benefits from a product (Woodruff 1997). In line with the previous opinion, Slater and Narver (1994) said that value is the customer's perceived quality adjusted with the relative price of the product. Moreover, value can be used as an indicator of emotional bond formed between customers and manufacturers in which the customers found that the product provided an additional value for them (Butz and Goodstein 1996).

From some of the definitions and concepts of value above, we may conclude that 'value is a trade-off between what the customer receives (e.g. quality, benefits, worth, utilities) and what he or she gives up to acquire and use a product (e.g. price, sacrifices)'. Therefore, 'customer value is a customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situations' (Woodruff 1997).

In the context of public land transportation, perceived value is also understood as passengers' assessment on a comparison between the benefits and sacrifices (Lai and Chen 2010; Wen et al. 2005; Jen and Hu 2003). Thus, the passengers perceived value will increase if passengers' evaluation of the 'difference' between benefits and sacrifices yield positive result (meaning the benefits are higher than costs). Consequently, passengers perceived value will decrease if the passengers' assessment of the 'difference' between the benefits and cost generate negative result (meaning the costs outweigh the benefits).

2.4.3 *Satisfaction*

One of the most famous concepts that were built from various disciplines such as marketing, consumer research, psychology, economic wealth and economics is satisfaction (Akbar and Parvez 2009). Satisfaction has become popular topic in the marketing literature in the last 30 years (Gallo 2011). Many definitions had been proposed to operationalize this construct.

Woodruff (1993) stated that customer satisfaction tend to be treated as consumer attitudes in evaluating goods or services. This definition was confirmed by Bitner and Zeithaml (2003). They stated that satisfaction is 'customer evaluation of a product or service in terms of whether the product or service has met their needs and expectations'. In line with Bitner and Zeithaml, Day (1984 in Tse and Wilton 1988) also view satisfaction as 'the customer's response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations (or some other norm of performance) and actual performance of the product as perceived after its consumption'. Hunt (1977 in Letcher and Neves 2010) defined customer satisfaction as 'the favourableness of individual's subjective evaluation of the various outcomes and experiences associated with buying it or using it'. Based on these definitions, we can conclude that satisfaction is an assessment of customers'

emotional affection on the overall performance of a product or service in fulfilling their expectations. Customers will be satisfied if the overall performance of the products meet or exceed expectations and vice versa (Kotler and Keller 2012).

This assessment (satisfaction) is holistic, covering all aspects related to public transport services—including not only the services, but also prices and situation (Zeithaml and Bitner 2003)—and is affected by the accumulated experience of the past, in contrast to service quality (Lai and Chen 2010). Service quality is a cognitive assessment, based on specific aspects of the service and it is transactional in nature (Parasuraman et al. 1988; Cronin and Taylor 1992). Given the conditions, it is not surprising that some empirical studies showed that service quality does not affect customer satisfaction (e.g. Oh 1999; Chen and Tsai 2007). Customers who have favourable perceived service quality are not necessarily satisfied since there are other factors which may upset them, such as prices or situation factor.

Researchers in the field of public land transport services also understand that passenger's satisfaction is the result of affective (emotional) evaluation on the overall performance of the public transport services in meeting their expectations (Lai and Chen 2010; Wen et al. 2005). Thus, passengers' will be satisfied if they emotionally feel that the overall performance of public transport services meet or exceed their expectations. In contrast, they will be dissatisfied if they emotionally feel that the overall performance of public transport services does not meet their expectations.

2.4.4 Trust

Relationship marketing literature has identified that trust is a variable that plays an important role in building relationships with customers (Berry 1995; Morgan and Hunt 1994; Palmatier et al. 2006). Furthermore, Wilson (1995) mentioned that 'trust is a fundamental relationship model building block and as such is included in most relationship models'. Literature also called trust under different names, such as trustworthiness, credibility, benevolence and honesty (Palmatier et al. 2006).

Some researchers have tried to propose definitions of trust. Although different, trust, generally, has been defined in one of the two possible ways: (1) as a willingness or intention to depend on the trustee (i.e. a trusting intention) and/or (2) as a confident belief or expectation (i.e. a trusting belief) (Dickey et al. 2007).

One of the researchers who support the first view of trust is Moorman et al. (1993). They defined trust as 'willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence' (Moorman et al. 1993). This definition was also used by Berry (1995), a marketing expert who is considered to have a major contribution to the birth of the field of relational marketing.

Morgan and Hunt (1994) criticized the first definition of trust, especially the definition of Moorman et al. (1993) above. Morgan and Hunt (1994) stated that the willingness or intention to depend on the trustee is the outcome of trust and not the part of the definition of trust as behavioural intention is considered as the

outcome of attitude, but not the part of the definition of attitude itself. Given that, Morgan and Hunt (1994) stated that trust is ‘existing when one party confidence in the exchange partner’s reliability and integrity’. The view of Morgan and Hunt (1994) on trust was followed by other relational marketing researchers, such as Palmatier et al. (2006) and Aurier and N’Goala (2010).

Palmatier et al. (2006) explicitly stated that the definition of trust is ‘confidence in an exchange partner’s reliability and integrity’. Thus, customer’s trust is customer’s confidence in the service provider/brand’s reliability and integrity. Boon and Holmes (1991) stated that trusting beliefs involve perceptions that the other party will act in ways favourable to the trustor. Furthermore, Hagen and Soonkyoo (1998) found that perceptions involve trusting beliefs that the other party has ethical, efficacious or favourable characteristics. Although researchers expressed trust in different ways, in general, they view trust as a confident belief. Furthermore, in general, it can be stated that trust is the confidence that other party will behave in a favourable or positive characteristics.

The literatures on public land transport service are also looking at trust as a confident belief (Wen et al. 2005). Given this, passengers’ trust will increase if they believe that public transport will act in favourable and positive characteristics. In contrast, trust will decline if the passenger’s do not believe the integrity and reliability of public transports.

2.4.5 Image

Image is one of the most important variables in the world of marketing communications (Shimp 2010). Image is an indicator used to measure the effectiveness of an integrated marketing communications program (Shimp 2010). Furthermore, service marketing literature identified image as an important factor in the overall evaluation of service (Grönroos 1984; Gummesson and Grönroos 1988).

Many experts tried to examine image and diverse definitions identified in the literature. Below are partial definitions of image contained in the marketing literature:

- The global impression (overall impression) that is in the minds of consumers (Zimmer and Golden 1988)
- Brand image is ‘perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory’ (Keller 1993)
- ‘Associations and meanings connected with an organization’ (Balmer 1998)
- ‘The net result of all the experiences, impressions, beliefs, feelings and knowledge that people have about a company’ (Aaker 1996 in Bridson and Mavondo 2011).

Although scholars defined image in different ways, in general, it can be concluded that image is consumer’s mental picture (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990) of the offering which includes symbolic meanings consumers associate with a specific

product or service (Padgett and Allen 1997). Based on above definition, the image functions ‘to define the product for consumers and differentiate the firm’s offering’ among competitors (Padgett and Allen 1997). Thus, in the context of public land transport services, image is passengers’ mental picture of the offering which includes symbolic meanings consumers associate with a specific land transport service. Passengers will have positive image of public land transport if they have positive mental picture toward public land transport. On other hand, passengers with negative mental picture toward public land transport will have negative image of public land transport.

According to Markus (1977), image is believed to have similar characteristics to the self-scheme in which humans develop the knowledge system to interpret their perceptions of a company/product. In other words, image formed in the mind of the consumer through a procedure where information was processed and prepared in a sense on the basis of stored category (Kosslyn 1975; MacInnis and Linda 1987). Furthermore, Andreassen and Lindestad (1998) stated that image can be formed from the consumption experience from time to time or from information supplied by companies like advertising or direct sales.

Marketing literature has identified conflict related to whether the image affects consumer evaluations of the consumption or the other way around. For example, Selnes (1993) looked at image as the dependent variable of perceived service quality and customer satisfaction while Andreassen and Lindestad (1998) argued that the image is an independent variable and proposed that image has a positive influence on customer perception of the perceived service quality and customer satisfaction.

The first view, which assumes that consumer evaluation affects image, is acceptable for consumption context that based on functional utilitarian need. In that particular context, consumers focused on aspects of how the product is capable of fulfilling its functions. Therefore, the central part of the brain, the ventral putamen, will be activated so that the evaluation results will be objective because the consumers’ evaluation will only based on the experience of consumption (Shimp 2010).

On the other hand, in the context of consumption based on hedonic experiential needs, other parts of the brain, namely the medial cortex prefrontal will be activated if there are clues that indicate hedonic aspects, such as image (Shimp 2010; Solomon 2012). This will make the consumer’s evaluation of a product biased. Consumers will evaluate the positive experience of consumption of products if there is information indicating that the product is in line with the positive things that he believed (Solomon 2012). In this context, the product information will be evaluated as a single integrated part with consumption experience (Wilcox et al. 2011). Thus, the image will affect consumer evaluations on consumption and not the other way around. Furthermore, according to Grönroos (1988 in Andreassen and Lindestad 1998), image plays as a filter that affects the perception of the company’s operations, where it can form the ‘expected quality’ of a consumer.

Empirically, this has been proven by a study which evaluates consumer ratings of Cola products (Coca Cola and Pepsi). Coca Cola is known to have a better image than Pepsi. At the time of blind tests, in which participants were not

informed which Cola brand products they consume, the result showed that the ventral putamen was activated and consumers chose Pepsi rather than Coca Cola because Pepsi taste better than Coca Cola. However, when consumers were told Cola brand products they were going to consume, results showed that the medial prefrontal cortex was activated and consumers chose Coca Cola instead of Pepsi (Shimp 2010; Solomon 2012).

As described at the beginning of Sect. 2.4, 'means of transport' meet not only functional utilitarian needs, but also hedonic experiential needs. Furthermore, even marketing literature identified automotive products are more likely to meet hedonic experiential needs rather than functional utilitarian needs (Earl 2012). This is also reinforced by transportation literature that shows that growth of private vehicles always in harmony with the growth of income (Cox 2010). This condition indicates that means of transport has become part of a lifestyle than a person's mobility needs. With that in mind, this study adopts the view that image affects consumer evaluations on consumption and not the other way around.

2.4.6 Perceived Sacrifice

The concept of perceived sacrifice stems from an understanding about the importance of price paid by the consumer. Furthermore, pricing literature mentioned that the willingness to pay depends not only on the value obtained but also the price that consumers should pay (Nagle and Hogan 2006). In general, prices are often seen as the exchange value of a product or service. More clearly, price is often defined by the number of the price paid by the consumer for a product or service. In the academic world, the early outlook on prices is also oriented on the money actually incurred by a person or a monetary price. However, this view was then refuted firmly by Zeithaml (1988) with his means-end model. He revealed that the price paid by the consumer is not only monetary price, but also non-monetary price such as time, searches, efforts and psychological burden. He declared that price is 'what is given up or sacrificed to obtain a product [or service]' (Zeithaml 1988). Thus, the concept of prices can also be referred to as perceived sacrifice.

Researchers in the field of public land transport passengers' behavioural intention are also considered that sacrifice includes not only monetary sacrifice but also non-monetary sacrifice (Wen et al. 2005; Lai and Chen 2011). Thus, they have identified the importance of perceived sacrifice. They argued that perceived sacrifice has indirect effect on behavioural intention through perceived value (Wen et al. 2005; Lai and Chen 2011).

Following Zeithaml (1988), in general, researchers on the field of public transport passengers' behavioural intention defined perceived sacrifice as both monetary and non-monetary sacrifices which must be paid by passengers to obtain public transport services (Wen et al. 2005; Lai and Chen 2010). Passengers of public transport will have higher perceived sacrifice [have unfavourable perceived sacrifice] if they have to do high sacrifices in order to get the service.

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