FEMALE CONSUMERS' PURCHASE INTENTION OF FAIR TRADE TEXTILE AND CLOTHING HANDICRAFTS: THE ROLES OF A GEOGRAPHICAL INDICATION AND FAIR TRADE KNOWLEDGE IN A BRAND EQUITY MODEL

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by

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The undersigned, appointed by the dean of the Graduate School, have examined the dissertation entitled

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ATO	Alternative Trading Organization
BA	Brand Awareness
BS	Brand Association/Brand Image
CBBE	Consumer Based Brand Equity
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
EFTA	European Fair Trade Association
EC	European Commission
EPRS	European Parliamentary Research Service
EUIPO	European Union Intellectual Property Office
EU	European Union
FLO	Fairtrade Labeling Organization
FT	Fair Trade
FTF	Fair Trade Federation
FTK	Fair Trade Knowledge
GI	Geographical Indication
GIS	Geographic Information System
IFTA	International Fair Trade Alliance
ITC	Information Technology Community
NEWS!	Network of European Worldshops
NGO	Non-Governmental Organizations
PP	Willing to Pay a Price Premium
PQ	Perceived Quality
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SNS	Social Networking Service
TRIPS	Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights
UNCTD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UQ	Uniqueness
WFTO	World Fair Trade Organization
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization
WOM	Word of Mouth

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the effect of Geographical Indication (GI) certification and fair trade knowledge (FTK) on U.S. female consumers' perceived brand equity and purchase intention of fair trade (FT) textile and clothing handicrafts. Online experiments and a survey were conducted using the measurement items of perceived quality (PQ), brand awareness (BA), brand association (BS), uniqueness (UQ), willingness to pay a price premium (PP), purchase intention (PI), and FT knowledge level. The study results analysis indicated that consumers' willingness to a price premium for GI products and positive impact of FTK on the brand equity of FT handicrafts. In addition, the study findings also showed that increase in BS, UQ, and PP leads to the increase in PI. By exploring the relationship between GI, FTK, brand equity, and PI in FT textile and clothing handicrafts brands, this study contributed to the previously neglected literature and may help the sustainable management of FT textile and clothing handicrafts enterprises and organizations.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Handicrafts worldwide represent unique cultures and heritages of each country or region. Global handicrafts are high-value-added products created with traditional skilled labor for generations (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2012). Being associated with societies' histories, customs, and ways of lives, handicrafts are eloquent means to preserve rich cultures and heritages (UNESCO, 2012). In addition, handicrafts in many developing countries are the main sources of income and employment creation, particularly for marginalized individuals (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006; Bhatt, 2006; Haan & Serriere, 2002).

Despite these values and benefits, the handicraft market has been filled with commercial merchandises due to globalization (Harris, 2014). Mass production of counterfeit handicrafts in factories has also decreased the overall quality and undermined the traditional values, which has often caused to condemn and label handicrafts as low-quality and little economic value goods (Silva & Peralta, 2011). Besides, the creation of income and employment of handicraft to impoverished artisans has diminished since the profits have been appropriated by mass manufacturers with capital instead of the local traditional craftsmen groups (Harris, 2014). Their livelihoods have been threatened by counterfeits and knockoffs of mechanized products as handicrafts (Fowler, 2004). In addition, the nature of the handicraft industry exacerbates the vulnerable situation of artisans. They often are engaged in the informal sector where precarious working conditions and minimal

wages are prevalent (Basole & Basu, 2011; Scrase, 2003). Artisans usually work individually so they lack negotiating power and are under subordinate statuses in the value chain compared to private firms (Basole 2015; Basole & Basu, 2011; Scrase, 2003).

Consequently, there has been considerable attention to protect the livelihoods of artisans and preserve traditional knowledge and crafts by encouraging artisanal handicrafts in global markets (Basole, 2015). International institutions including World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) and UNESCO have initiated and promoted the integration of the traditional and cultural knowledge of into the current intellectual property regimes to discourage imitations, preserve craft skills, and further, create and build up brand identity of handicrafts (Finger & Schuler, 2004; WIPO, 2017). Several international organizations have strived to ensure that artisans are justly treated and valued in their craftsmanship, and WIPO has proposed a *Geographical Indication* (GI) label that protects traditional craft skills by certification. Artisan groups are also eager to obtain GIs on their handicrafts to certify the unique values and authenticity of their goods against mass-produced counterfeits. For instance, with the government leadership, India has granted 301 GIs registration since October 25, 2017 and as of January 2018, 610 GI applications has filed. Among the registered GIs in India, the proportion of handicrafts is 64 percent (Rana, 2018).

In addition, the World Fair Trade Organization (WFTO) and Fairtrade Labeling Organization (FLO) were founded in the early 1990s in order to preserve authenticity of traditional handicrafts and support the livelihoods of craftsmen in developing countries. More specifically, these FT organizations have worked to advocate decent wages and sustainable work environments for impoverished handicraft producers. FT movement and campaigns have been active in European and

Asian countries such as the United Kingdom, South Korea, and Japan (Andorfer & Liebe, 2012; Lee, 2014). Public schools in these countries educate FT to young generations (Davies & Crane, 2003). Many of these schools only use FT goods and encourage their students and employees to purchase FT products (Griffiths, 2014). Nowadays, consumers have more interest in FT tourism, which enables direct interaction with local FT producers and take in consideration of the consequences on social, economic, and environmental impacts of their tourism (Boluk, 2011a, 2011b; Cleverdon & Kalisch, 2000). Governments are also involved in the movement, recognizing the importance of FT and supporting FT social enterprises and organizations (Osterhaus, 2006). To date, more than 150 cities worldwide have been entitled to FT towns and Seoul in South Korea became the largest FT capital city in the globe in 2017 (Crowther, 2018).

Due to active FT movement and campaign, global sales of FT products have increased rapidly. According to Fairtrade America, the total sales of FT goods reached US$ 9.2 billion in 2017 (Freund, 2018) and US$ 6 billion in the U.S in 2016 (Fair Trade Certified, 2017). However, there arises a negative aspect in terms of the FT handicraft sector. While, in the early stage of FT, most of sales came from handicrafts, nowadays, the sales have been led mostly by FT food products such as coffee and cacao (Nicholls & Opal, 2005; Warrier, 2011). The sales of FT handicrafts have accounted for less than 1% of FT agricultural products (Fair Trade USA, 2017). This downturn in the FT handicraft market comes from the globalization of supply chain in the textile and clothing industry (Harris, 2014). Manufacturers build factories and hire workers in the countries where cheap labor forces are provided (Fowler, 2004). Raw materials such as cotton are produced and sourced in the most efficient way to reduce costs. In addition, automated mass production systems made it easy to

copy traditional handicraft products and consumers do not know who made them due to the complex and fragmented supply chain (Harris, 2014). The stagnant handcraft market is an expected result in this oversaturated market.

Revealing points in the handicraft industry in the least development countries are that female workers play the critical role of handicraft producers in order to meet family's basic need (Dhamija, 1981) and contribute to the revenue generation of the commercial handicraft sector (Almamari, 2015; Sustainable Development Goals Fund, 2017; Tran-Nguyen & Zampeth, 2004). Compared to other industries, female workers have absolutely high social participation and economic contributions. Tran-Nguyen and Zampeth (2004, p. 64) stated that *"the textiles and clothing sector is unquestionably one of the most gender-sensitive, as well as poverty-sensitive sector of production and trade for developing countries."* Furthermore, in terms of consumption in the textile and clothing sector, female consumers are also a major marketing target when considering their significant market size and purchase volume (Statista, 2020). Indeed, women are the main producers and consumers of handicrafts.

In light of all the circumstances, this study focuses on the FT handicraft sector, especially on textile and apparel items where intense competition, forgery, and social and environmental issues are controversial. A GI is a unique certification system to resolve the above issues in the handicraft market and promote FT handicraft. Also, women are the main producers and consumers of handicrafts in the textile and apparel sector. Thus, this study investigates the effects of GIs on FT textile and clothing handicrafts, targeting female consumers.

Statement of Problem

Nowadays, globalization and mass production in the fashion industry allows consumers to have a variety of choices when buying textile and apparel items, so low prices and high quality cannot guarantee a competitive advantage in the highly oversaturated market. Multi-national fashion firms with abundant capital power are taking more market share and inducing consumers to buy through various brand strategies. On the other hand, the handicraft sector is very small and informal (Basole 2015; Basole & Basu, 2011; Scrase, 2003) so professional branding and marketing strategies to appeal to consumers are hardly ever carried out. Because of these concerns, GI certification (WIPO, 2017) and FT campaigns (WFTO, 2019) are active for a branding purpose to support handicraft sector. It has been expected that artisanal handicrafts gain differentiation and competitiveness against mass-produced textile and apparel items through GI certification (WIPO, 2017). In addition to GIs, FT preserves cultural heritages and skills, originality, and sustainable practices (WFTO, 2020a) of handicrafts. However, limited research has been done to find the actual impact of GI and FT tags and how female consumers understand and perceive GIs and FT.

Purpose of the Study

Based on the brand equity theories and models of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) who are representative and renowned scholars in the brand equity field, many studies have been conducted on *consumer-based brand equity* (CBBE) and various revised models have been suggested. However, few studies have revealed what factors and variables affect the brand equity of FT textile and apparel handicrafts. Hence, the purpose of the study is to fill the critical gap in brand equity literature of FT handicrafts through the empirical research. That is, this study aims to investigate

the effect of GI certification and FT knowledge level on female consumer's perceived brand equity and purchase intention of FT handicrafts in textile and apparel industry. The specific research direction is as follows. First, the brand equity dimensions applicable to general FT textile and apparel handicraft companies were presented from the perspective of CBBE. Second, the relationship between GI certification and the dimensions constituting CBBE was reviewed for female consumers through previous literature and empirical study. Third, the relationship between FT knowledge and the dimensions constituting CBBE was reviewed for female consumers through previous literature and empirical study.

In this study, the experiment subjects were limited to female consumers as they are more interested and major consumers in textile and clothing than men (O'Cass, 2004). Textile and clothing handicrafts, such as dresses, shawls, and scarfs, are mainly targeted at female consumers. In addition, women play a role as an active influencer or advocate for those around them after purchasing FT products (Kumar, Petersen, & Leone, 2007; Popcorn & Marigold, 2000). Considering that female consumers are far more important than other consumer sectors in their dominance from the perspective of FT textile and clothing handicraft companies or organizations, the experiment in this study only included female consumers.

Through the investigation, it is expected that this study presents the actual benefits of a GI certification and the impact of FT knowledge depending on different knowledge levels. This study will also provide useful guidance in building brand equity for and increase positive influence on overall improvement of FT handicrafts industry.

Significance of the Study

Handicraft sector is of cultural and economic development importance. Thus, the supporters of handicrafts have tried to shed light on these aspects and this is the reason that GI certification and FT handicrafts have been encouraged at the international and national government level. However, much of the existing research on FT and GI certified handicraft have not empirically tested the actual quantitative effect of them. This study will fill the gap and further, provide valuable information for FT handicraft organizations by evaluating the effectiveness of GI certification and FT movement and campaigns to consumers. Specifically, examining CBBE and purchase intention will provide practical insights in promoting FT handicrafts and may contribute to overall brand equity and direct/indirect sales of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

Definition of Key Terms

Terms used in this study are defined as follows:

Brand: *"A brand is a distinguishing name and/or symbol (such as a logo, trademark, or package design) intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods from those of competitors"* (Aaker, 1991, p. 7). Brand is an intangible force driving consumers to ultimate purchase or consumption (Keller, 2013).

Brand Equity: *"A set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers"* (Aaker, 1991, p. 15).

Consumer Based Brand Equity: Consumers' differential response and recognition to a certain brand compared to a competitor's brand and the increase in

brand equity leads to profit increase (Keller, 1993; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Keller (2013, p. 69) said *"a brand has positive customer-based brand equity when consumers react more favorably to a product."*

Handicrafts (Artisanal Product): The products made by the craftsmanship of craftsmen (UNESCO, 2020). Handicrafts have the features and importance of *"utilitarian, aesthetic, artistic, creative, culturally attached, decorative, functional, traditional, religiously and socially symbolic and significant"* (UNESCO, 2020, n.p.).

Geographical Indication: *"A geographical indication (GI) is a sign used on products that have a specific geographical origin and possess qualities or a reputation that are due to that origin"* (WIPO, 2020, n.p.). Thus, GI certification is used as a means to protect producers, determine the authenticity of products, as well as protecting traditional knowledge and culture (WIPO, 2017). GI certified goods include agricultural products as well as handicrafts (WIPO, 2020).

Fair Trade: Trading through sustainable partnership with disadvantaged and marginalized producers in developing countries under the framework of conventional trade (Fairtrade International. 2020; WFTO, 2020a). Fair trade also includes certification systems for fair trade organizations and goods (Fairtrade International. 2020; WFTO, 2020a).

Fair Trade Knowledge: Fair Trade Knowledge (FTK) has not yet been clearly defined in academia. This study defined, based on the several prior studies, the consumer knowledge about its main principles and environmental and ethical standards pursued by fair trade as fair trade knowledge. Consumers with much knowledge of FT show a positive attitude toward FT products (Pelsmacker et al., 2006). Poncelet et al. (2005) stated that the perception of the quality and quantity of

fair trade information, the indifference towards fair trade products and the attitude towards the price level had a direct or indirect effect on the fair trade buying behavior.

Purchase Intention: Spears and Singh (2004, p. 56) defined the purchase intention as *"purchase intentions are an individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand."* According to the theory of planned behavior by Ajzen (1991), once a behavior intention is formed, it is likely to lead to actual behavior. The consumers with purchase intention make real purchases with a higher probability.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Handicrafts

The Definition of Handicrafts

Handicrafts are a significant productive sector and export goods for many developing countries (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006). Handicraft production is widely spread but there is an absence in a common definition of handicrafts (Yang et al., 2018). The definition debates can be defined to how the handcraft is made particularly handmade versus machine-made; what nature the handicraft has artistic feature versus simple crafts; what motivates the handicraft production cultural and traditional motives versus economic reasons (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006).

The agreement on a proper definition for handicrafts has become increasingly important as handicraft production is rapidly machine made and commoditized. Thus, a group of handicraft scholars defined handicrafts as "*a set of art-industry that the resultant hand-made product and object is designed and constructed by using local raw material and performing a part of basic production stages by hand and hand tools"* (Dhamija, 1981; Littrell & Dickson, 1999; Yang et al., 2018). Littrell and Dickson (1999) claim that each piece of handicraft expresses and presents artistic and intellectual creativity of its producer and such characteristic is the focal point for distinguishing machine and factory artifacts versus handicrafts. In 1997, the UNESCO, adopted a definition in International Trade Centre (ITC) Symposium on Crafts and the International Market. The UNESCO's definition captures its breath and depth in encompassing the diverse and complex nature of handicrafts:

> *"Artisanal products or handicrafts are those produced by artisans, completely by hand or with the help of hand-tools*

> *and even mechanical means, as long as the direct manual contribution of the artisan remains the most substantial component of the finished product. Their special nature derives from their distinctive features, which can be utilitarian, aesthetic, artistic, creative, culturally attached, decorative, functional, traditional, and religiously and socially symbolic and significant. They are made of sustainably produced raw materials and there is no particular restriction in terms of production quantity. Even when artisans make quantities of the same design, no two pieces are ever exactly alike"* (UNESCO & ITC, 1997, n.p.).

Handicraft items encompass furniture, jewelry, textiles, apparel and so on. In this study, however, textile and apparel handicrafts are focused on because these items have different characteristics compared to other handicrafts such as furniture and others. First, in the textile and clothing industry, women are at the center of the main production and consumption. Globally, the apparel sector is among the largest employers of female workers (Business for Social Responsibility [BSR], 2017). In addition to the traditional production system using Handloom, women are key employers who occupy a large portion of the clothing industry in the modern production systems (BSR, 2017; Tran-Nguyen & Zampeth, 2004). It is estimated that about 80% of the vast majority of garment workers are women (Clean Clothes Campaign [CCC], 2020b). Men's interest in apparel and fashion is increasing, but the market size of apparel products is still much larger for women than men's (Statista, 2020), and in apparel consumption, women buy and spend incomparably more than men (Stuart, 2019). Second, textile and apparel handicraft markets are highly oversaturated and vulnerable to competition with mass manufacturers. Due to global sourcing and mass production, traditional handicrafts are easily copied and produced at low cost. In the fashion industry, imitations, design piracy, counterfeits are pervasive (Marcketti & Parsons, 2016). Third, detrimental social and environmental practices are widespread. Many garment factory workers are exposed to the unsafe

and exploitative work environment (CCC, 2020a). The collapse of a garment factory in Bangladesh in 2013, which caused more than 1,134 and 2,600 injured people and a majority of them were female workers, explicitly shows the negative social impacts (Actionaid, 2019; CCC, 2020d). Even worse, the textile and clothing industry is the second most polluting industry (United Nations [UN], 2019). Tremendous water and chemicals are used to manufacture these goods and a majority of textiles and clothing end up in landfills every year (UN, 2019). Considering the detrimental impacts of the current textile and clothing industry, handicrafts have the potential to alleviate the issues.

Handicrafts and Cultural Heritages

Having a foundation in history, artisans have created distinctive cultural products rooted to ethnic traditions and their techniques have passed on for generations (Durham & Littrell, 2000). As such, handicrafts are highly connected to the customs and cultures in daily life of the people who create them. The materials used are generally indigenous, natural, and locally sourced. For example, Indonesian batik garments are closely linked to an Indonesian's daily life (UNESCO, 2009). Indonesians wear batik garments every day. For important ceremonies and rituals, certain types of batik design patterns are reserved for royal families, newborn infants, brides and grooms. The materials of batik costumes such as beeswax are locally sourced. Accordingly, batik is a significantly representative identity embracing Indonesians' religion, customs, traditions, culture, and more (Hengky, 2014; Situngkir, 2008). Indonesian government nominated October 2nd as National Batik Day and UNESCO designated their batik as a Masterpiece of Oral and Intangible Heritage of Humanity. Similar practices that handicrafts represent a country's culture,

tradition, and heritages can be found across the world, from Mayan back strap loom weavers in Guatemala (Gianturco & Tuttle, 2000) to a variety of handicraft Saris in India, Bangladesh, and Nepal (Divasa et al., 2007; Khan, 2016).

Economic, Social, and Cultural Consequences on Handicraft Development

These days, in many developing countries, the handicraft sector creates considerable employment and accounts for a large proportion of the export economy. Handicraft production has its existence across all areas in the current global economy and all times from pre-industrial to post-industrial age. Moreover, next to agriculture, the handicraft sector is the second largest source of employment in developing nations (Basu, 1995; Littrell & Dickson, 1999). Artisanal handicrafts production has flourished because they provide distinct advantages: small or no start-up capital, possible home production and more freedom, flexible work hours (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006). Unlike other manufacturing work, handicrafts production also offers seasonal employment and flexible small-scale production so providing employment to artisans with limited options who have kids or are physically challenged (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006).

Handicrafts are an integral part of a new knowledge-based economy. Regarding the significance of handicraft in economy, Shojanoori et al. (2015) states that in case it was possible to convert handicraft would into the capabilities powerful enough to generate constant currency revenue, the country's socio-economic sustainable development would be highly likely. Handicraft development can bring about more efficient wealth distribution and balanced development of underprivileged area. Dhamija (1981) believes that revival and development of handicraft can result in generative job creation for a variety of urban, rural and tribal populations. United

Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO, 2007) stated that handicrafts play a pivotal role in developing tourism, indigenous economy and job creation. UNIDO also argued that strengthening traditional industry is crucial to sustainable development of the communities where poverty has been deeply rooted. Therefore, much emphasis has been placed on the enhancement of culture in the national development plans as a tool to achieve sustainable development because cultural and traditional industries play key roles in the accomplishment of such strategies (UNESCO, 2007).

UNIDO (2007) highlights the impact of handicraft in creation of social capital and reducing poverty along with other achievements. They also state that it is logical to adopt coherent logistic, industrial, cultural and commercial policies, along with creating a perfect environment to develop and encourage such type of industry. The future development of handicraft is essential due to two reasons: first, inheritance of traditional culture in terms of preservation, maintenance, and also promotion of traditional handicraft, and second, to promote local cultures and industries and to find new development directions in this context (Lin & Li, 2010; Littrell & Dickson, 1999). Keane (2007) states that the practitioners of traditional and cultural industries, such as the handicraft sector, should be supported to export cultural goods to external markets because this leads to further protection of traditions, heritages, and culture against cultural imperialism in the world. Also, Yavari and Nourmah (as cited in Ahmad Bhat & Yadav, 2016) regard other consequences of handicraft development as reduced migration to cities, fringe income for marginalized population and consequently agriculture and husbandry boosting, further social equilibrium and the preservation of unique national identity.

The Characteristics of Handicrafts Market

Through local craftsmanship and materials, handicrafts represent uniqueness and heritages of a certain culture or community (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006). However, due to globalization, handicraft goods have been increasingly commoditized and artisans have competed with the products from everywhere (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006). Globalization has also shifted artisan crafts markets from strong domestic and local to international (Leibl & Roy, 2004). The manufacturing innovation of mass production utilizes machines and synthetic fabrics and has led to mass production of artisanal crafts whenever the goods are necessary and the demands exist. Almost similar looking counterfeit artisanal handicrafts can be produced with much cheaper costs and faster speed. No doubt, traditional artisan markets have suffered and the loss of their market and income have threatened the livelihoods of artisans (Bhatt, 2006; Liebl & Roy, 2004; Richard, 2007). Finding traditional artisan communities becomes rare and their handicrafts are more likely to be isolated from global market trends and competition, which is a challenge to those artisans seeking to export their goods.

Geographical Indication

Definition of Geographical Indication

According to the World Trade Organization's Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) agreement adopted in 1994, GIs are "*indications which identify a good as originating in the territory [of a member] where a given quality, reputation or other characteristic of the good are essentially attributable to its geographical origin*" (WIPO, 2017, n.p.). Thus, a GI can be used on goods that own a certain geographical origin and hold characteristics or a reputation comes from that

place of origin (WIPO, 2017). Frequently, GI certified products are named after the name of the place origin (WIPO, 2017). Accordingly, many GI products have place names or include words related to place of origin to identify and recognize the origin, qualities, reputations or distinctive features. The examples include “Roquefort” cheese from Roquefort-sur-Soulzon region in France, “Tequila” in Mexico, “Taita” baskets from Taveta County in Kenya, Salem silk clothes made in Salem in India, and so on (WIPO, 2017).

The number of traditional agricultural or handicraft goods that earned GI certification has increased. In the handicraft sector, GI has risen as a valuable element under the regime of Intellectual Property Rights (IPR) that supports and gives artisans an exclusive right over their creations.

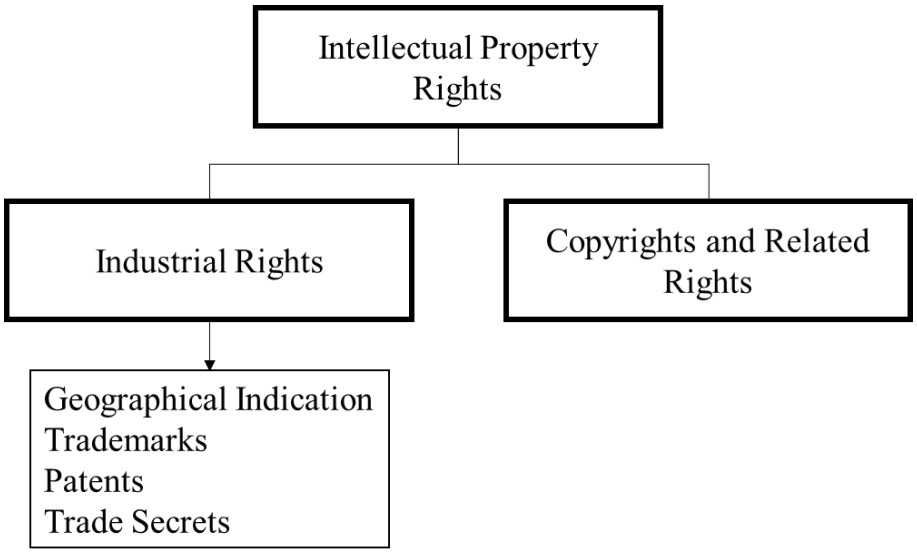

Figure 1. The Types of Intellectual Property Rights
Note. Adapted from Fibre2Fashion, 2020, Geographical Indications in India: International Protection for Indigenous Arts, p. 2.

The Benefits of Geographical Indication Certification

The GI certification can add significant differentiated market value to the artisanal handicrafts and compete with mass produced industrialized commodities

(Mevhibe & Ozdemir, 2012). Moreover, GIs allow artisans to protect traditional knowledge of products produced in rural areas and can be used as a way to preserve biodiversity by encouraging the sustainable use of natural raw materials (Mevhibe & Ozdemir, 2012). A consumer study conducted by the European Commission (EC) showed that approximately 40% of the consumers was ready to pay a premium amount of up to 10% if the product ensured a guarantee of origin (EC, 2003). A premium price for Jamaica Blue Mount Coffee guaranteeing the geographical origin also validates a similar case (Teuber, 2010). More such inferences can be drawn from French cheese, French wine, Italian Toscano oil, Australian wine and others, all of which have been able to command a premium. Confirming origins is major revenue drivers for the producers associated with the products (Agarwal & Barone, 2005; Babcock & Clemens, 2004). These are clear evidences that if a product can be certified with its origin, the certification can be a major boost to promote global exports. Moreover, GI certification protects community ownership and may be an important determinant in adding price premium (WIPO, 2017).

Geographical Indication Policy

UNESCO (2005) stated that signs, signals, symbols, and images are of greater importance in the post-industrial or Knowledge Society. Knowledge is considered to be the primary force of production and increasingly evolves into merchandise to be traded in the market (UNESCO, 2005). With this respect, previously neglected traditional and indigenous knowledge, especially in developing worlds, drew remarkable attention to development policy and international law (Basole, 2015). The knowledge systems have been studied for the contents, values, its benefits, epistemology, and so on (Basole, 2015). The idea has emerged that “poor people's

knowledge" can be an asset in the worldwide markets if the knowledge is fairly commodified and the rights to use the knowledge fall under the hands of actual producers and artisans (Cottier & Panizzon, 2004; Finger & Schuler, 2004). Accordingly, legal ownership in traditional and indigenous knowledge have developed as a mechanism to tackle appropriations and to secure that the communities producing the knowledge gain benefits accrued from commercial utilizations of the knowledge (Arewa, 2006). The main concerns of debates and discourses among international organizations and some government bodies are the protection and preservation of traditional and indigenous knowledge within the institutional framework of intellectual property rights and international trade (Arewa, 2006; Gervais, 2008). Renowned scholars in the fields of law and development have also engaged in the discourse on how traditional and indigenous knowledge protection mechanisms can be reconciled with international intellectual property rights regimes (Basole, 2015). Some scholars and policy-makers have suggested a GI as the preferred intellectual property to amalgamate traditional and indigenous knowledge with the global market (Das, 2010). Since being institutionalized as a part of the TRIPS agreement in the early 1990s, GI certification has gained increasing popularity to a wide array of fields including government agencies, international development organizations, policy makers, non-profit organizations (NPOs), and academics as a mechanism to protect the exclusive rights to use the traditional knowledge and, further, develops unique brands for global market (Rangnekar, 2007).

Many people in the U.S know what Navajo rugs look like and can distinguish the Navajo rugs from other rugs produced in different culture. However, the appearance attributes can be easily copied. Some Native American artifacts in the U.S. are produced outside of the U.S. in several nations in Asia such as China or the

Philippines (Fowler, 2004). In this sense, the intellectual property right like a GI can help the protection and standardization of authentic Native American as well as other artisanal handicrafts. In India, many policy makers believe that retaining GI certification for textiles and handicrafts can serve to protect disappearing traditional Indian crafts (Giovannucci et al., 2009). The registration of GIs is increasing in India and the central and local governments actively encourage registration (Giovannucci et al., 2009). India acknowledges that GI can protect millions of artisans and its heritages in handicrafts (Giovannucci et al., 2009).

Geographical Indication and Handicrafts

GI certification in the area of textile and apparel handcrafted items are of prime importance as it provides protection to the artisans by preserving the genuineness of craftsmanship and also improves the livelihood of artisans (Karim & Karim, 2017; Mevhibe & Ozdemir, 2012). GI certification has the potential to resolve the difficulties that powerless, but skilled artisans in developing countries (Basole, 2015). International organizations like the WTO, WIPO, and the World Bank proposed GIs to discourage the imitations of artisanal handicrafts thereby increasing the income of artisans and creating competitive brand identity (Finger & Schuler, 2004; WIPO, 2017). Aylwin and Coombe (2014) note that the GI registration in the handicraft sector is a part of the trend in developing countries including India. In addition, as the EU (European Union) became the fifth member of the Geneva Act of the Lisbon Agreement on Appellations of Origin and Geographical Indications in 2019, the Act went into effect (Class 46, 2019).

Geographical Indication and Fair Trade

Traditional and indigenous knowledge is usually collectively owned by a community and is not the property of an individual or companies (Basole, 2015). The knowledge is also inclined to own a strong local nature and has cultural and traditional significance for the community, society and nation at large. Therefore, a place-based, collective framework like GIs has been considered suitable for the preservation of the knowledge (Cottier & Panizzon, 2004; Das, 2009). To become eligible for a GI, a product must not only hold a place of origin but also comply with a strict collective set of criteria. The state bureaucracy and WIPO usually determine what constitutes authentic knowledge based on the criteria (Chan, 2011). These characteristics are closely linked to the discourse on FT (Basole, 2015) in that FT supports artisan empowerments, economic development, local traditions, and culture. Both the GI regime and FT emerged from the recognition and awareness of problems in the producers that are small sized and disadvantaged, especially in developing countries. Besides, like GI, the nature of FT is place based and collective.

Case of Geographical Indication in European Union

The EU has focused its policy capabilities for a long time on establishing an efficient EU-level system for intellectual property protection, and has led the policies relevant to GI, an area of intellectual property rights (Kim, 2018). However, EU-wide system of GI protection for non-agricultural products such as handicrafts is absent currently (EC, 2020a) although some EU member states have protected non-agricultural products with GI certification. Non-agricultural protection is only available at national or regional level through comprehensive legal schemes such as

consumer protection, trademarks, case-laws, and sui-generis GI system (European Parliamentary Research Service [EPRS], 2019).

In the absence of a unitary protection system across the EU for non-agricultural products such as handicrafts, EU institutions and bodies, such as the EC and EPRS, publish a variety of studies and reports on the necessity of introducing a system for non-agricultural products and the expected effects of application. In July 2015, the EC issued a green paper, *Making the Most out of Europe's Traditional Know-how,* addressing public consultation on a possible extension of GI protection to not only agricultural products but also other types of products (EC, 2017). EPRS (2019) claimed in its report, *Geographical Indications for Non-agricultural Product: Cost on Non-Europe Report,* that an EU-wide non-agricultural product GI protection applicable to all nations in EU could bring tremendous positive effects on producer groups, consumer communities, and society as a whole in terms of environmental, social, and economic aspects. Especially as economic impacts, EPRS (2019) argued added value effect on export both intra-EU and extra-EU on producer, availability increase of high-quality GI goods to consumer, and increased employment of 0.12 %, or 284,000 potential employment creation on society. Besides, 679 non-agricultural products were expected to register with potential GI (EPRS, 2019). Among them, 121 GIs related to textile and clothing are expected to be registered, and the contents selected based on the Harmonized System code are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. The Number of GIs in the Sectors Related Textile and Clothing in European Union

HS-2 digit Product Category	Number of Potential GIs	Number of Existing GIs	Total Number of GIs
Chapter 58 – special woven fabrics; tufted textile fabrics; lace; tapestries; trimmings; embroidery	50	11	61
Chapter 62 – articles of apparel and clothing accessories, not knitted or crocheted	27	1	28
Chapter 51 – wool, fine or coarse animal hair; horsehair yarn and woven fabric	15	2	17
Chapter 42 – articles of leather; saddlery and harness; travel goods, handbags and similar containers; articles of animal gut (other than silkworm gut)	15	0	15

Note. Adapted from European Parliamentary Research Service, 2019, *Geographical Indications for Non-agricultural Products: Cost of Non-Europe Report*, p. 20. Harmonized System (HS) is one of the European Union product classification systems: HS, Combined Nomenclature (CN), and Integrated Tariff (TARIC).

EPRS (2019) also stated that it is necessary to promote and increase the awareness of GI certification to the public. In order to inform consumers that GI protection is earned through a strict process from reputable institutions, consumers first need to be aware of what GI certification is. After all, the success of GI policy measures is significantly relying on effective marketing strategies (EPRS, 2019). EC (2020) argued that from the producer's point of view, GI protection builds a product's reputation, provides consumers with visibility, authenticity, and quality indication, and helps consumers to have a perception of uniqueness in the long run.

Case of Geographical Indication in India

In September 15, 2003, the Indian GI Act was first initiated in India with Indian government support (Das, 2010). India has been the most proactive nation to registration of GIs and as of August 4, 2020, the GIs registered account for 370.

The administrative tasks for GI registrations have been implemented in the Office of the Controller General of Patents, Designs & Trade Marks (CGPDTM) under the Department of Industrial Policy & Promotion in the Ministry of Commerce & Industry, which is in charge of patent, design, and trade marks in India. CGPDTM publishes Geographical Indications Journal on a regular basis, making notices relevant to GI application status and newly registered GIs (Intellectual Property India, 2019). In addition, CGPDTM publishes all applications received on its website regardless of the final approval of the GI registration, and the registered GI certifications are also posted on the webpage section of the Certificate of Registration so that anyone can view them. The documents submitted for the application include the story of the product's history and features, and maps for visually displaying the geographical scopes.

Although the Indian government has made tremendous effort to GI registrations and promotions, handicrafts consumers including Indian citizens and global consumers have little awareness of GI handicrafts due to lack of brand promotion and marketing (Das, 2010). Das (2010) states that although GI certified handicrafts earned credibility and values from their government and International organizations, gaining reputations and awareness in the global market requires additional branding and marketing efforts. Therefore, GI handicrafts in India also require differentiated marketing and branding strategies to appeal to global consumers

with their cultural and traditional features and uniqueness (Das, 2010; Kulkarni & Konde, 2011).

Fair Trade

History of Fair Trade

FT originated from the sustainable business practices of the two FT organizations, Ten Thousand Villages and SERRV in the late 1940s (Nicholls & Opal, 2005). In order to support and help the living of unprivileged and impoverished producers in developing countries, Ten Thousand Villages and SERRV first began to buy from and trade with the producers (Nicholls & Opal, 2005). These FT organizations like Ten Thousand Villages and SERRV paid fair wages to producers and focused on the empowerment of them. Also, there was intense voices at that time targeting multinational companies that conventional business models were fundamentally flawed and worsened exploitation and unfairness (Alter, 2007). The slogan, “Trade not Aid,” earned international acknowledgment in 1968 when being endorsed by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTD) to emphasize building sustainable FT relationship with the developing world (Alter, 2007).

Later in the 1960, FT organizations recognized that establishing long term and stable partnerships with producer groups is a key for the sustainable development of producers groups. In addition to building long term partnership, FT organizations also recognized the need to source and distribute FT products in a more organized manner. Thus, they created a network, Worldshops in multiple places in Europe and started introducing and selling handicrafts and agricultural products from impoverished communities to European consumers (Moore, 2004). In 1965, the first

FT organization was created and that same year, British Oxfam launched a program called “Helping-by-Selling” (Hockerts, 2005). The program sells handicrafts made and imported from artisans in developing countries in all Oxfam stores across the United Kingdom (Hockerts, 2005). Worldshops selling FT products expanded throughout Europe in the 1970s (Alter, 2007). In 1987, the leading European pioneers in FT, such as Oxfam in the United Kingdom and in Belgium and Gepa in Germany, associated and created a FT network, the European Fair Trade Association (EFTA) (Moore, 2004). Shortly after, the International Fair Trade Alliance (IFTA) was launched as a non-profit organization to gather FT producer groups and importers. The IFTA developed FT movement at worldwide level in a more institutionalized and formal manner (WFTO, 2015). FT movement and campaigns have been active and the current FT movement was structured in Europe in the 1960s (Alter, 2007).

Since the late 1980s, FT labelling movement has appeared. Being launched to promote FT goods in 1988, the FT labeling initiative was followed by international level FT organization (Alter, 2007). In 1988 in the Netherlands, the first FT certification, Max Havelaar was emerged to distinguish FT coffee from other conventional coffee. In 1997, many FT organizations joined Fairtrade Labelling Organization (FLO). The FT certifications and labels greatly motivated FT products to enter mainstream business, including large supermarket chains and to be visible to a majority of stores across Europe. This led to a tremendous increase in the sales of FT products (Raynolds, 2009). Currently, a wide array of products has FT certification marks on. The items with FT certification of FLO include cotton, coffee, cocoa, rice, bananas, fresh fruits, sugar, honey, nuts, wince, gold, footballs, and so on (Alter, 2007). In the U.S., the Fair Trade Federation (FTF) was established in 1992 with the mission of the following seven major principles. (Grimes, 2000).

> *"Payment of fair wages to artisans and farmers, the guarantee of employment advancement, environmentally sustainable production practices, public accountability, the creation of long-term trade relationships, the assurance of safe and healthy working conditions, and the advancement of technical and financial assistance from the North American marketer to the producer groups whenever possible"* (Grimes, 2000, p. 13).

The largest international FT organizations at present are Fairtrade International in Germany, WFTO in Netherlands, and FTF in the United States.

Principles of Fair Trade

Having been created in 1998, FINE is an association of the four main FT networks, FLO, WFTO, Network of European Worldshops (NEWS!), and EFTA. FINE created the most widely used FT definition as follows.

> *"Fair Trade is a trading partnership, based on dialogue, transparency and respect, that seeks greater equity in international trade. It contributes to sustainable development by offering better trading conditions to, and securing the rights of marginalized producers and workers - especially in the South. Fair Trade organizations (backed by consumers) are engaged actively in supporting producers, awareness raising and in campaigning for changes in the rules and practice of conventional international trade"* (WFTO, 2020a, n.p.).

FINE's FT definition encompasses a highly multifaceted concept, including three elements, (a) fairness, (b) trade, and (c) advocacy (Huybrechts & Defourny, 2008). The ultimate aim of FT is conducting trade in a *fair* way. The "fair way" includes the conditions that FT must comply with: fair price, social premium, long term partnerships, and pre-financing (Huybrechts & Defourny, 2008). The buyers of FT products generally pay half of product price at the time of product order to support

the production of impoverished producers. These FT conditions are designed to solidify the trading relationship towards empowerment of vulnerable small-scaled producer groups and further towards their social and economic development and upgrading. The second FT element is “Trade” because FT is basically about trade which contains production, import, transformation, distribution, and so on. FT puts great emphasis on these economic functions since many consumers in developed countries simply consider FT is helping impoverished people in developing countries. However, FT is “Trade, not Aid” (Sridhar, 2015). Advocacy is the last dimension of FT. The FINE network made up of the four major organizations, WFTO, FLO, NEWS!, and EFTA is all actively performing its advocacy roles by lobbying public authorities and criticizing and revealing unfair trading practices to the public (Huybrechts & Defourny, 2008). Creating a model framework for fair international trades is the intent of advocacy so the activities include FT educations to consumers and even to young generations to enhance their FT knowledge level. FT campaigns and movements also intend to promote ethical consumption practices and disseminate the messages to global citizens, which motivates the respectful choices for the environment, society, and humankind (Huybrechts & Defourny, 2008).

Fair Trade Handicrafts

FT handicrafts contain a rich and diverse cultural values and traditions worldwide. Being passed down through generations and using distinctive production techniques, centuries old heritages and history are in FT handicrafts and producers own unique talents and the materials for production are differentiated from massively manufactured products in factories (Dhamija, 1975; WFTO, 2018). Selyn FT artisan group in Sri Lanka have restored and reinvigorated its traditional handloom industry

by creatively combining traditional handicrafts with the modern styles (WFTO, 2018). The successful example of Selyn artisan group provided potentials for sustainable FT handicraft business (LeClair, 2003; WFTO, 2018). Such examples have been found in many FT handicraft practices of artisan groups.

Handicrafts have increasingly been enlisted to FT products and more businesses and organizations want to involve in transactions of FT handicrafts (WFTO, 2018). However, compared to the 1990's when handicrafts took up 80% in FT market so only 20% was agricultural products, the current proportion of handicrafts accounts for substantially small. The handicrafts share in FT market remained only 24% while FT food products took up 76% (WFTO, 2018). As such, the trend was reversed from 2002. Despite the shrunken FT handicrafts, handicrafts worldwide are crucial and valuable as they represent traditions, heritages, and cultures transmitted for hundreds or thousands of years (WIPO, 2017).

Oftentimes, FT handicrafts artisans are disadvantaged. Some of them are mothers raising and feed kids so cannot leave their home. Therefore, while taking care of arduous house work and making livings, they cannot engage in formal jobs (LeClair, 2003). Some artisans are physically challenged so cannot travel to other places to work. Handicrafts production is a primarily practical income generation tool to the unprivileged producers in the world (Sheikhi, 2015). However, due to their vulnerable conditions, in many cases, they are exposed to exploitations and making a decent income is extremely hard (Buren, 2011). They receive unfairly low wages for their production and even sometimes do not get paid. A local artisan group in Bali once exploited by getting paid meager wages while the middlemen sold the artisan made souvenirs at very high price to tourists (Mitra Bali Fair Trade, 2020a; Vial, 2016). The middlemen prevented local artisans being aware of the actual prices and

took advantage of the situation. Tourists around the world visit Bali islands in Indonesia to enjoy the attractions such as beautiful and pristine beaches, rich cultures, and traditional artisans (WFTO, 2018). The huge influx of tourists has remarkably increased handicraft souvenir demands. However, lack of information and language barriers deprived the artisans of the advantages. A local FT organization, Mitra Bali stepped in and dedicated to combating this unfair trading practice. Mitra Bali educated the producer groups about their rights and informed the actual value of their crafts and skills (Mitra Bali Fair Trade, 2020b; Vial, 2016; Wood, 2008). Consequently, Mitra Bali has initiated a change in the practices of handicrafts trades in Bali. Information sharing, artisan empowerment, FT campaigns reached thousands of artisan villages in Bali (Ten Thousand Villages, 2017).

Improvement of Fair Trade Knowledge

In some countries like the UK, Netherlands, South Korea, and Japan, FT is a popular agenda within schools (Andorfer & Liebe, 2012; Lee, 2014). Schools in the UK routinely promote FT as part of education on geography, global citizenship, and diversity, insisting that FT is a topic of ethical marketing supporting developing countries (Doherty & Taplin, 2008). In the UK, more than 1,000 schools are registered as FT schools, which means the schools are dedicated to supporting and promoting the FT brands (Fairtrade Foundation, 2012).

FT education at schools and to citizens are expanding substantially in South Korea (Park, 2018b) and also in Germany, more than 360 schools have been registered as FT schools (Sa & Song, 2018). These FT schools supply FT certified school uniforms, coffee, cocoa and other FT products to their students. These students practice what they learn at school and organize to put pressure on their parents and the

wider public to buy FT products (Griffiths, 2014). Moreover, the organized young people into groups put pressure on retailers to stock FT brands (Bourn, 2018). The Fairtrade Foundation in the UK has successfully encouraged children at FT schools to buy FT products and to raise awareness of ethical consumption among adults (Fairtrade Foundation, 2013).

Significant evidence has been found from previous studies that discourses on FT and the promotion of FT products within schools have broader and greater effects (Hunt, 2012). Children and young adults are able to understand and extend the concepts of FT and the relationships between producers, buyers, and consumers. Therefore, FT education can make a considerable contribution to learning about a wider and larger concept of global inequality and issues (Hunt, 2012). Furthermore, FT business in UK has greatly benefited from educating young generation about the concept of the linkage in FT to social justice agenda and ethical consumption practices. Some research obviously bears out the facts. Hunt's interview in 2012 with elementary school students educated about FT at school said they considered buying FT products as it was an important practice of ethical consumption mitigating global inequity and sustainability (Hunt, 2012). Lawson's (2018) research with English students at elementary and middle schools also revealed similar observations. Young generation was able to bring dramatic change by taking the lead and going one step further. They not only chose FT products for themselves but also encouraged others to fulfill the practices. The students called for stores and large supermarkets chains to stock more FT products, which resulted in the dramatic increase in the availability of FT products (Doherty & Taplin, 2008). This indicates FT knowledge can be increased through education and further increases brand equity and purchase intention of FT brands.

Along with FT education at schools for the young generation, a wide arrays of FT campaigns to inform consumers of FT and disseminate messages have been active. There has been responsible world citizenship education for consumers to raise awareness and consciousness in ethical consumption related to FT. FT Town campaigns also empower consumers to team up with each sector of community to explore the positive impact of FT purchasing (Fair Trade Campaigns, 2020). The consumers engaged in the FT Town movement have more enhanced knowledge on FT and are committed to sustainability and social justice through Fair Trade (Fair Trade Campaigns, 2020). The World Fair Trade Day in every second Saturday in May, being led by FT organizations across the globe, is an inclusive worldwide festival celebrating the tangible contributions of FT to sustainable development, especially shedding light on fair treatment and empowerment of marginalized producers and responsible trade and production (WFTO, 2020a). During the week of the fair trade festival, consumers have a chance to learn FT. FT advocates also use paid commercials to disseminate their message (WFTO, 2019). The FT fashion company, People Tree (People Tree, 2020), has made commercials featuring the actor, Emma Watson, and Oxfam's "Make Trade Fair" campaign featured the photos of famous musicians and actors (Lyon, 2006).

Handicraft, Geographical Indication, and Fair Trade

Figure 2 illustrates the supply chain landscape of the global handicrafts market and shows most of the artisan crafts sold in the United States and Europe market.

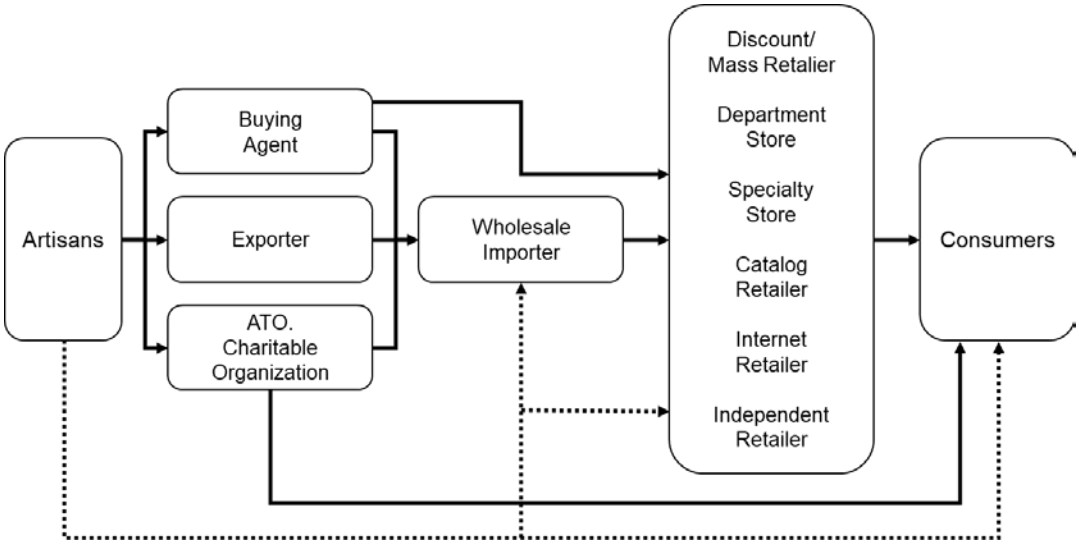

Figure 2. Handicraft Market Channels
Note. Adapted from Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006, *Global Market Assessment for Handicrafts: Volume 1*, United State Agency for International Development, p. 8.

The left box are artisans who work independently or in small groups to sell their goods in local markets and to buying agents or exporters (Richard, 2007). However, some artisans are subcontracted or employed by exporters (Bhatt, 2006). Buying agents are individuals or companies and responsible for all communications with the artisans and products (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006). Usually, based in close to production places, their responsibilities include sampling and ordering, production inspection and control, quality control, labeling, packaging, inland freight, payments, and others (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006). Exporters are companies and are located in the production nations. They may hire artisans directly or outsource the production to artisans or artisan groups and export the products in huge volume (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006). Typically, exporters are very knowledgeable about export procedures and have financing ability and, thus, having much stronger negotiation power than artisans (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006).

In the handicrafts market, the role of the Alternative Trading Organization (ATO) is worth noting. ATOs are later known as FT organizations. A majority of

ATOs work directly with artisans to ensure fair business partnerships with artisans (Moore, 2004). The business principles of ATOs include paying fair wages, safe and work conditions, and environmentally sustainable production (Moore, 2004). As well as being local intermediaries, ATOs may also play multiple roles such as importers, wholesalers, and retailers.

The significant connection between handicrafts and FT began in the 1940s when ATOs developed FT supply chains in developing countries to sell FT goods in Northern markets (International Fair Trade Alliance, 2005). The imported products were almost exclusively handicrafts and sold in retail outlets called “Worldshops” (Alter, 2007). ATOs played a significant role in disseminating FT concept by selling artisanal handicrafts produced in developing countries. The scope of FT extended to agricultural products only to offset a decline market for handicrafts in the early 1980s (Alter, 2007).

It is apparent that the presence of ATOs helped the livelihoods of a significant number of people in the developing countries. Similar to GI certification, first, FT organizations were able to assist specific groups, especially the marginalized population, thereby enabling them to have significant effects on the livelihoods of those receiving assistance (LeClair, 2002). Second, like GI certification, the FT movement emphasizes the preservation of traditional heritages, notably handicrafts (Basole, 2015). The acceleration of global trade tends to undervalue artisanal handicrafts and both GI regime and FT emerged from the recognition and awareness of problems in the artisanal handicraft industry (Basole, 2015). In general, producer cooperatives are the organizational form of craft-related fields, which facilitate transmission and exchange of traditional techniques and skills (LeClair, 2002). To sum up, FT has a lot in common with GIs, which pursue protection of local traditions

and culture, artisan empowerments, and economic development (Basole, 2015). The following part will discuss FT and GI more in detail.

Female Consumers and Fair Trade Textile and Apparel Handicrafts

Men and women behave differently, and the difference comes from disparate socialization processes that men and women go through (Blocker & Eckberg, 1997). In consumption, it is generally known that men's and women's behaviors are different, and women's purchase behaviors and behaviors after purchase are also different from men's. Previous studies on fashion product consumption revealed that women had more involvement (O'Cass, 2004) and fanship (Pentecost & Andrews, 2010) in fashion clothing goods than men. With regard to ethical consumption, women have higher beliefs the ethicality of counterfeiting (Carpenter & Lear, 2011), higher moral philosophies and ethical intentions (Bateman & Valentine, 2010), and more purchase intention for FT than men (Grankvist, 2013; Morrell & Jayawardhena, 2010). Female consumers are also more likely to engage in word of mouth (WOM) than male consumers (Morrell & Jayawardhena, 2010). With respect to behavior after purchasing products, women play a role as a direct information sharer based on the perception formed in specific brands, resulting in a natural WOM effect (Kumar et al., 2007). Women are three times more likely than men to recommend certain brands they know to acquaintances (Popcorn & Marigold, 2000). To sum up, extensive studies suggest that overall women have a greater influence on the purchase and ethical consumption of textile and apparel goods and FT products than men. Taking into account the research subject, this study focused on female consumers.

Brand Equity

A brand includes the names, terms, designs, symbols and a collection of those and informs consumers of a particular seller's product or service and distinguishes them from competitors (Keller, 1993; Kotler, 1994). Today, brands are defined in different ways according to the researcher's perspective, but evidently, a brand is understood as an important factor for both corporations and consumers (Baldauf et al., 2003). Brands not only build consumer familiarity, but also enable them to identify the provider of the product, and, thus, offering a sense of security and serving as an important decision-making tool for selecting goods or services (Crimmins, 1992). The concept of brand equity began to receive great attention as one of the approaches for evaluating the value of brands as the mergers and acquisitions between companies in the 1980s became very active (Aaker, 1996; Keller 1993; Srivastava & Shocker, 1991; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Brand equity is still drawing large attention as it brings profits and competitive advantages to firms (Steenkamp & Kashyap, 2010). Handicraft sector generally lacks business, branding and marketing skills (Virtanen, 2013). A majority of artisans reside in rural areas and have little access to the market. Therefore, creating and training workable business models are important to overcoming their challenges of survival. GI and FT are the representative tools to enhance the values of and promote handicrafts.

Definition of Brand Equity

As the differentiation of products becomes more difficult due to the generalization of technology and intense competition among companies, many companies recognize their brands as a valuable asset of a company, so this brand equity has recognized as a very influential and crucial concept on both business and

academic research fields (Lassar et al., 1995; Steenkamp & Kashyap, 2010). First appeared in the 1980s, the term, brand equity (Wahlgren et al., 1995) and became popularized by David Aaker's book, *Managing Brand Equity*. The definition of brand equity is divided into two parts, a financial perspective of a company (Mahajan et al., 1990) and consumers' perspective based on consumer perception and attitude toward the brand (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993), and more extensive research has been done on the latter.

Farquhar (1989) said that brand equity is an increase in product value due to the positive impression that a customer has related to a particular brand, and the value formed by marketing activities. The Marketing Science Institute (1989) defines brand equity as an aggregate that provides strong, lasting, and differentiating advantages over competitors. Srivastava and Shocker (1991) assume brand equity has two dimensions, brand strength and brand value. Aaker defines brand equity as *"a set of assets and liabilities linked to a brand's name and symbol that adds to or subtracts from the value provided by a product or service to a firm"* (Aaker, 1991, p. 5) while Keller said, *"brand equity is the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of a brand"* (Keller, 1993, p. 8). Simon and Sullivan's (1993, p. 28) definition of brand equity is *"the incremental cash flows which accrue to branded products over and above the cash flows which would result from the sale of unbranded products."* Lassar et al. (1995) argue that consumer based brand equity (CBBE) is not an objective assessment of a brand, but a consumer's overall perception and associated value to a brand, which is derived from the brand's own name value, independent of the brand's external attributes, and positively affect the financial performance of companies. Similarly, Yoo and Donthu (2001, p. 1) define brand equity as *"consumers' different response between a focal brand and an unbranded*

product when both have the same level of the marketing stimuli and product attributes." Brand equity also influences consumer confidence in the product and satisfaction after purchase (Yoo & Donthu, 2001).

Consumer Based Brand Equity Dimensions and a Model

The brand equity model has been extensively studied in the area of business and academia since the 1980s as a way to analyze a product's value, which is ascribed to the brand name (Aaker, 1991, 1996; Keller 1993; Srivastava & Shocker, 1991; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). The model is studied from two major perspectives, company and customer-based, and more comprehensive studies have been carried out on the latter. Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) are the most representative scholars who have studied the concept of brand equity based on the consumer point of view. In particular, their brand equity model illustrates the dimensions composing brand equity in a systematical way so many researchers have adopted the model in their study. Aaker's brand equity model consists of five dimensions, brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand association, and other proprietary assents (See Figure 3). Each dimension affects the formation of brand equity, and the value provided to consumers through enhanced brand equity directly affects the value of the company (Aaker, 1991).

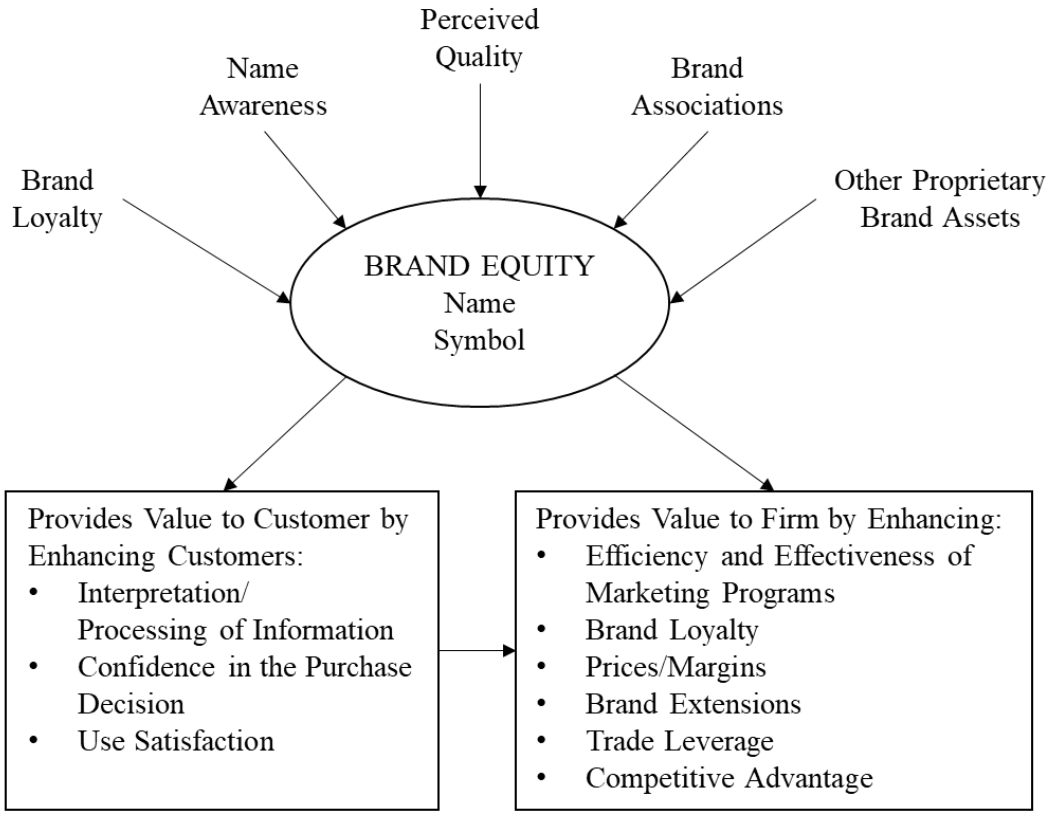

Figure 3. Aaker's Brand Equity Model
Note. Adapted from Aaker, 1991, *Managing Brand Equity: Capitalizing on the Value of a Brand Name*.

Keller (1993) considered brand equity as a multi-dimensional brand knowledge system and attempted to classify brand image in order to identify the intangible characteristics of brand equity more easily (See Figure 4). According to Keller (1993), brand image is a collection of consumer brand associations for a specific brand. So for instance, given the information of soda, consumers think of the Pepsi brand in the soda category. Keller (1993) said corporate marketers must first create and strengthen brand awareness, and then build a brand image composed of positive brand associations.

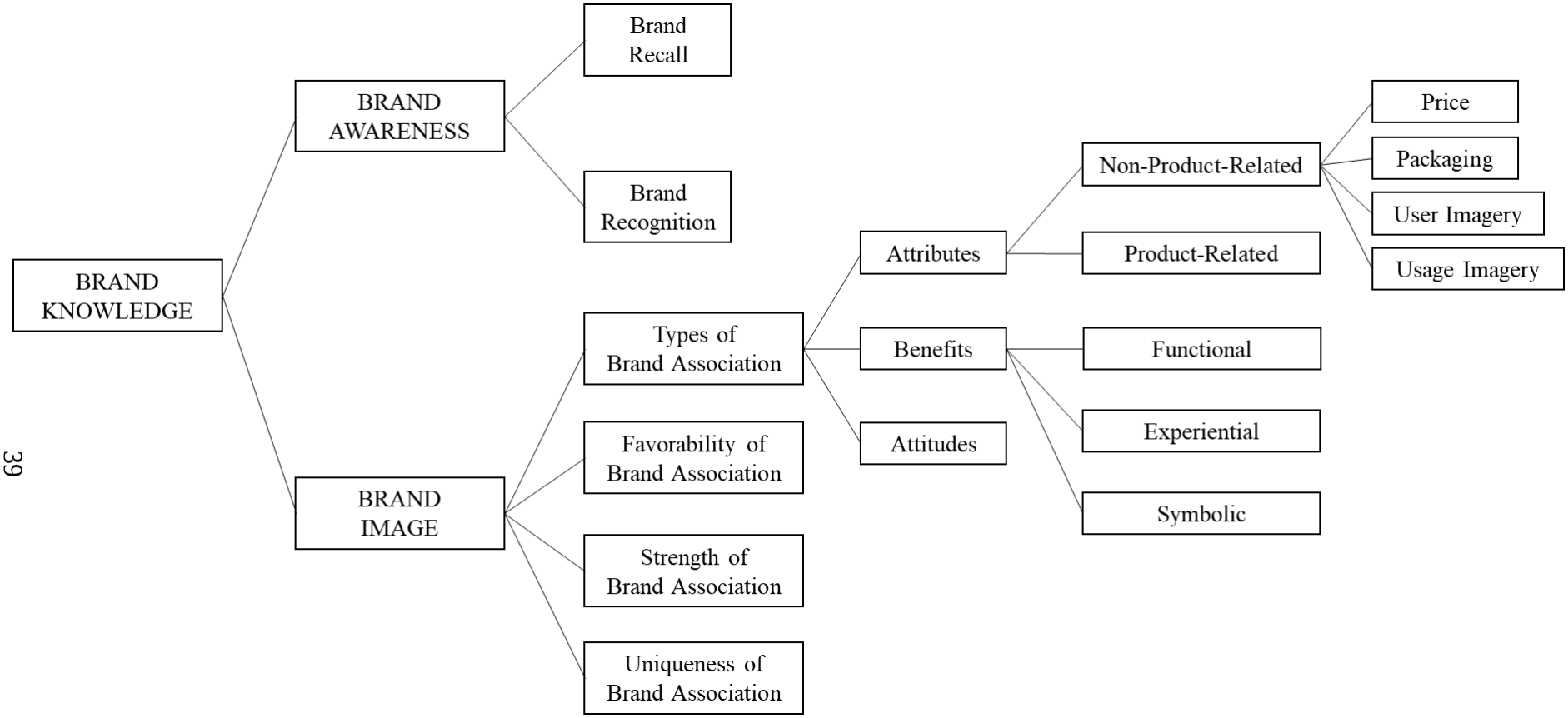

Figure 4. Keller's Dimension of Brand Knowledge
Note. Adapted from Keller, 1993, *Conceptualizing, Measuring, and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity*, p. 7.

As the importance of brand equity based on the consumer's viewpoint has greatly increased, many studies have been conducted to clarify what constitutes brand equity (Aaker, 1991, 1996; Keller, 1993; Srivastava & Shocker, 1991; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). While Aaker's dimensions are useful in assessing brand equity, the model that Keller developed focused on building brand equity (Song, 2013). Thus, multiple studies have combined the perspectives of Aaker and Keller (Netemeyer et al., 2004; Pappu et al., 2005). Farquhar (1989, p. 27) stated that a strong brand is built on three components: *"a positive brand evaluation, an accessible brand attitude, and a consistent brand image."* Blackston (1993) considered customer satisfaction and trust in a brand are the elements for building brand equity. Cobb-Walgren et al. (1995) adopted brand awareness, brand image, and perceived quality as the components of brand equity in a study to examine how brand equity affects consumers' brand choices. Sharp's (1995) brand equity dimensions included company/brand awareness, brand image, relationship with customers/existing customer franchise while Lassar et al. (1995) further refined the elements of brand equity into performance, social image, value, trustworthiness, and identification/attachment. Aaker (1996) extends his previous research to present The Brand Equity Ten and tools for measuring it. Yoo and Donthu (2001) said that brand equity consists of brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality, and brand quality. Baldauf et al. (2003) adopted brand awareness, brand loyalty, and perceived quality as dimensions of brand equity while Netemeyer et al. (2004) categorized related brand associations into brand awareness, organizational association, and so on and considered perceived brand quality, perceived brand value for the cost, uniqueness, and willing to pay a price premium as core/primary CBBE facets. After examining the relationship between the components of brand equity, Pappu et al. (2005) concluded that brand equity comprised brand

awareness, brand association, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. From the viewpoint of the perpetual assets of CBBE, Mishra and Datta (2011) included brand name, brand communication, brand association, brand personality, brand image, perceived brand quality, brand loyalty in brand equity. Nam et al. (2011) proposed a model consisting of brand awareness, physical quality, staff behavior, ideal self-congruence, brand identification, and lifestyle congruence to elucidate the relationship between consumer satisfaction, CBBE, and brand loyalty. Wang and Finn (2013) proposed the hybrid measurement model of CBBE consisting of brand loyalty, brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality, perceived value for the cost, uniqueness, and brand emotion in order to systematically integrate various existing CBBE dimensions. Table 2 summarizes the research focus and dimensions of previous research related to CBBE.

When reviewing these various previous studies, scholars have slightly different perspectives depending on the purpose of the research. But in most cases, scholars, in terms of consumer recognition, claim brand awareness, brand association (brand image), and perceived quality and in terms of consumers' behavior and attitude, claim brand loyalty as the major dimensions of brand equity. Keller (1993) said, to build strong brands, customers must first recall or recognize the brand, and consumers' positive brand associations lead to the purchase or repurchase of products and services, which results in brand loyalty.

Table 2. Studies of Consumer (Customer) Based Brand Equity

Author	Research Focus	Dimensions of Brand Equity
Keller (1993)	Conceptual model of brand equity from the perspective of the consumer	Brand Awareness, Brand Image
Blackston (1993)	Conceptual model for consumer-brand relationships for brand personality	Customer Satisfaction, Trust
Cobb-Walgren et al. (1995)	Effects of brand equity on consumer preferences and purchase intention	Brand Awareness, Brand Image, Perceived Quality
Sharp (1995)	Brand equity for professional service industries	Company/Brand Awareness, Brand Image, Relationship with Customers/Existing Customer Franchise
Lassar et al. (1995)	Developing and measuring customer-based brand equity scales	Performance, Social Image, Value, Trustworthiness, Identification/Attachment
Aaker (1996)	Developing measurement scales based on Aaker's The Brand Equity Ten	Brand Loyalty, Perceived Quality, Brand Awareness, Brand Association
Yoo & Donthu (2001)	Developing multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scales drawn from Aaker's and Keller's concepts	Brand Awareness, Brand Association, Perceived Quality, Brand Quality
Baldauf et al. (2003)	Relationships between brand equity and financial performance	Brand Awareness, Brand Loyalty, Perceived Quality
Netemeyer et al. (2004)	Developing measures of core/primary facets of consumer based brand equity	Perceived Brand Quality, Perceived Brand Value for the Cost, Uniqueness, Willing to Pay a Price Premium

Note. Source: Author's elaboration

Table 2. (Continued)

Author	Research Focus	Dimensions of Brand Equity
Pappu et al. (2005)	Improving current measurement scales of consumer based brand equity	Brand Awareness, Brand Association, Perceived Quality, Brand Loyalty
Mishra & Datta (2011)	Establishing the model for Perpetual asset management based on consumer based brand equity	Brand Name, Brand Communication, Brand Association, Brand Personality, Brand Image, Perceived Brand Quality, Brand Loyalty
Nam et al. (2011)	Investigating the relationship between consumer satisfaction, consumer based brand equity, and brand loyalty in the hotel and restaurant industry	Brand Awareness, Physical Quality, Staff Behavior, Ideal Self-congruence, Brand Identification, Lifestyle Congruence
Buil et al. (2013)	Testing and investigating relationship between the brand equity dimensions and consumers' responses	Brand Awareness, Brand Association, Perceived Quality, Brand Loyalty
Wang & Finn (2013)	Proposing the hybrid measurement model that systematically integrated various existing consumer based brand equity dimensions	Brand Loyalty, Brand Awareness, Brand Association, Perceived Quality, Perceived Value for the Cost, Uniqueness, Brand Emotion
Baalbaki & Guzmán (2016).	Conceptualizing and developing consumer-perceived consumer based brand equity scale	Quality, Preference, Social Influence, Sustainability
Çifci et al. (2016)	Comparing the validity of two prominent consumer based brand equity models in the retail industry	Perceived Quality, Brand Loyalty, Brand Awareness/Association (Yoo & Donthu, 2001), Brand Awareness, Physical Quality, Staff Behavior, Ideal Self-congruence, Brand Identification, Lifestyle Congruence (Nam et al., 2011)

Note. Source: Author's elaboration

Dimensions of CBBE for Fair Trade Textile and Clothing Handicraft

In order to select the dimensions for brand equity measurement of FT handicrafts, this study first reviewed the perceived quality, brand awareness, and brand association (brand image) and brand loyalty which have frequently been discussed in previous studies. Brand awareness and associations are influential components of CBBE because both well indicate the relationship and communication between company activities and consumers' reactions (Aaker, 1991; Aaker & Keller, 1990). Brand loyalty is *"the attachment that a customer has to a brand"* which indicates the extent of a consumer is willing to purchase a particular brand over the other brands (Aaker, 1991, p. 39). Brand loyalty is deemed as a crucial factor of business success as the success of a company counts on whether the consumers patronize the brand (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Aaker, 1991). Among these four components, brand loyalty is a favorable attitude that results from the continued purchase of a particular brand (Assael, 1992) and is defined as consumers' continued attachment level to a particular brand (Aaker, 1991; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). That is to say, if a consumer does not show a favorable attitude or attachment such as repeated purchases to a particular brand, it means that the consumer does not have brand loyalty to the brand (Sung, 2009). Brand loyalty is excluded from brand equity measurement in this study because brand loyalty is more likely to have the nature of outcome or result (Gupta et al., 2017; Kim, 2008) from satisfied consumers after purchasing products from a certain brand (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). The two dimensions, uniqueness (Davies et al., 2010; Littrell & Dickson, 1999; Nicholls & Opal, 2005) and being willing to pay a price premium (Andorfer & Liebe, 2012; Didier & Lucie, 2008; Loureiro & Lotade, 2005; Yang et al., 2012), are included as they serve positively to consumers' overall perception of FT brands. Finally, this

study considers the five dimensions, perceived quality, brand awareness, brand association (brand image), uniqueness, and willingness to pay a price premium (price premium) as brand equity measurements of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

Perceived Quality (PQ): Since not having enough information and motivation to objectively evaluate products, consumers have no choice but to evaluate the quality of products with limited information (Aaker, 1996). Zeithaml (1988) said that PQ is a subjective concept, distinctive from the inherent and objective quality of a product, and based on consumers' perception toward the overall excellence of a product. Aaker (1991) defines PQ as consumer perception about the overall quality or superiority inherent in goods or services and claims this PQ motivates consumer purchase and companies increase PQ in a variety of ways like differentiation and brand extension. PQ of consumers is influenced by various variables like having previous knowledge and experience, social background, income level, time pressure, and so on. (Holbrook & Corfman, 1985).

Brand Awareness (BA): BA refers to the consumer's recognition or recall of a brand in a variety of situations (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993). Consumers tend to buy the products of familiar brands, and many studies have emphasized that BA is a crucial factor with a very strong force that drives attachment and familiarity to consumers and leads directly to purchase (Aaker, 1991; Hoyer & Brown, 1990; Keller, 1993; Macdonald & Sharp, 2000). Nedungadi (1990) argues that consumers' high BA to a certain good allows the brand to be considered as an alternative at the time of purchase and increases the likelihood of choosing the brand without changing the consumer's perception toward the brand. Complementing the previous study, Keller (2001) defines BA as the ability of consumers to withdraw a particular brand from their memory and divides BA into unaided BA (brand recall) and aided BA

(brand recognition). Chen and He (2003) stated that BA plays a role as an association medium to recall a brand image, which can influence the consumer's decision making and lead to continuous buying behavior. In general, BA is enhanced through advertisements, promotions, sponsorships, marketing, and public relations, and so on, where brand symbols, logos, names, slogans, characters, and packages can be easily exposed to consumers (Keller, 1993).

Brand Association/Brand Image (BS): BS is related not only to product attributes, but also to intangibles, customer benefits, relative prices, lifestyles, qualities, competitors, countries, geographic scopes, and many others (Kim, 2019). As such, BS refers to everything associated with what comes to the brand, and often BS and brand image are used interchangeably or considered as the same concept (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993). Keller (1993, p. 3) regards the brand image as a set of BSs and defines brand image as *"perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory."* When a favorable and unique brand image is formed to consumers, strong brand equity can be established (Keller, 1993). Kotler and Keller (2006) stated that BS is how consumers perceives a company or its products, that is, a consumer's subjective perception of a particular product or property. Consumers recognize brands through a variety of BS processes, where BSs or images not only provide a relative advantage, but also can be an advantage that is hard for competitors to imitate (Carpenter & Nakamoto, 1989; Webster & Keller, 2004). For companies, a well-formed positive brand image can be a long-term asset by strengthening brand loyalty in consumers' minds (Nijssen & Agustin, 2005).

Uniqueness (UQ): UQ is the level of differentiation compared to other competing brands, and if a brand is not perceived as unique compared to its competitors, a price premium is not likely to be guaranteed. As such, UQ is regarded

to be a key element of the CBBE (Aaker, 1996; Agarwal & Rao, 1996; Netemeyer et al., 2004). Aaker (1996) claims that no matter how the brand is formed if consumers perceive a brand owns differentiation factors that are unique and original, a price premium can be set in the market. Previous research supports that brand UQ positively affects brand preferences and willingness to pay higher prices (Carpenter et al., 1994; Netemeyer et al., 2004).

Willing to Pay a Price Premium (PP): The price premium is a high price that leads to above-average profits for enterprises, and, for consumers, it is a true value of a product, that is, the price paid above the average market price (Buzzell & Gale, 1987). PP is considered the most important measure of brand equity (Aaker, 1996; Blackston, 1995). PP can be negative or positive as it is an added value to an average market price, which consumers' willingness to pay for a certain brand (Aaker, 1996). Agarwal and Rao (1996) considered a price premium as the measure that could best explain the choice of a certain brand at not only an individual level but also aggregated market shares. A study explains that a brand is able to have a premium price by giving trust to consumers because consumers can get a perceived value when having trust in the brand (Ba & Pavlou, 2002). The perceived value here means a consumer's overall evaluation of the product or service building on the benefits and satisfaction that the consumer gets from the product (Patterson & Spreng, 1997). BS is formed from direct experience recalls consumers' memories faster (Fazio & Zanna, 1981) and these accessible associations (PQ and perceived value for cost) guide to a specific brand (Netemeyer et al., 2004). As such, favorable perceived quality, perceived value for cost, and UQ are congruent with a greater PP for a brand (Netemeyer et al., 2004), and other studies support the viewpoint (Kirmani & Zeithaml, 1993; Sethuraman & Cole, 1997).

Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

In order to describe the potential relationship among GIs, FT knowledge, CBBE, and purchase intention, boundary objects theory and social learning theory are adopted in this study. Boundary objects theory explains how GI certification can represent the uniqueness and benefits of FT textile and clothing handicrafts to consumers. Explained based on the social learning theory, the effect of FT knowledge level implies that FT knowledge can enhance purchase intention and CBBE.

Boundary Objects Theory

According to Star and Griesemer (1989), boundary objects theory states that diverse social worlds meet, connect, and interact through standardization. Star and Griesemer (1989, p. 7) said that *"boundary objects are objects which are plastic enough to adapt to local needs and the constraints of several parties employing them, yet robust enough to maintain a common identity across sites."* Each group of actors understands social reality from a different perspective due to the heterogeneous nature of various actors. But boundary objects connect social worlds by rendering objects that hold elements from each social world. According to Carlile (2002), in new product development, boundary objects are helpful in building a *boundary infrastructure* (Bowker & Star, 1999) or "boundary process" (Carlile, 2002) where people handle information, skills, and knowledge over a given boundary. Similarly, in the case of GI certified FT textile and apparel handicrafts, boundary objects aid in representing product uniqueness and authenticity as well as differentiating the products from counterfeits. Besides effects, based on the boundary objects theory, GI certification allows to transmit and communicate the traditional knowledge of handicraft products to consumers for their informed purchasing decision.

Carlile (2002) argued that a boundary object functions in two-fold aspects, practical and political. It is practical because a boundary object must establish a set of shared rules or arrangements for representing and distinguishing heterogeneity and reliance at the boundary and political because it must expedite the transformation of the current knowledge in order that new knowledge is able to be developed and applied to resolve negative outputs. This practical and political nature of boundary allows an infrastructure or process where the current and new knowledge interact, are shared and lead to novel transformation of knowledge.

Eden (2011) also applied the boundary object concept in his food label research. He investigated how consumers perceive organic and functional foods through the labels attached. Eden (2011, p. 6) argued that *"boundary objects could link not only the worlds of scientists and nonscientists but the worlds of expert producers and lay consumers—worlds that are highly diverse because of the complexity of modern manufacturing systems."* Shackley and Wynne (1996) claimed in their climate change science study that boundary objects are effective where information is simplified for some actors, while maintaining complexity for other actors. Applying GI certification, the historical and complex traditional knowledge and skill of craftsmen is simplified and represented via the intellectual property regime and facilitates the transmission and communication to consumers. Certainly, consumers are able to perceive the boundary objects of a GI even if there is very little information addressed because a GI functions as a proxy for more complex information.

Boundary Objects Embodied with GIS

Geographic Information System (GIS) is a specialized computer database to conduct collection, storage, and analysis of spatial data (Steinberg & Steinberg, 2015). In 1854, John Snow in England indicated the locations of cholera patients on a map and discovered that the source of disease was a contaminated water pump on Broad Street (Snow, 1855; Steinberg & Steinberg, 2015). Snow's use of mapping in epistemology is a representative example in modern GIS (Steinberg & Steinberg, 2015). Since then, the attempts to understand our society and social phenomena in a spatial context have been ongoing (Steinberg & Steinberg, 2015) and GIS technology helps think of space as a place of "meaningful location," not mere space (Creswell, 2004). A variety of data information including demographics, cultures, history, and natural geography of the world can be visualized into maps using GIS (Steinberg & Steinberg, 2015). Such data are produced from various stakeholders and interest groups respectively, where some kind of boundary objects are involved (Harvey & Chrisman, 1998).

Boundary objects containing completely different and various human, social, and scientific thoughts are integrated and embodied through GIS for decision making in consequence of evaluation and analysis at various levels and perspectives (Harvey & Chrisman, 1998). Iterative construction of boundary objects leads to dynamic interactions by communicating the individual values of different social groups, mediating the differences between social groups, and connecting them together (Harvey & Chrisman, 1998). In terms of spatial context, GIs and FTs have in common that their focus is on marginalized, neglected, under-privileged communities.

The specification and visualization of the object that includes spatial meaning allow the viewer to have spatial thinking and analysis (Steinberg & Steinberg, 2015).

Spatial descriptions are also effective in conveying complex and diverse information to people, regardless of their cultural background or language, and can be quickly understood in less time (Steinberg & Steinberg, 2015). From this point of view, when the boundary object is visualized and delivered to the consumer through the GIS, the consumers can acquire the information more effectively through this spatial information.

Social Learning Theory

Learning is a relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs in consequence of experience or practice (Kimble, 1961). Domajn and Burkhard (1986) defined learning as a permanent change in behavior that occurs when an individual experiences various events in the surrounding environment. Hoch and Deighton (1989) argue that learning is a process by which consumers adopt new data to the beliefs they had in the past. Bandura (1977) presented the *Social Learning Theory* (SLT) as a general learning process by combining and integrating behavioral learning theory and cognitive learning theory. According to SLT, human behaviors result from the continuous interactions between each individual and its environment (Bandura, 1977). Thus, SLT claims that learning can occur, even in the absence of direct stimulus, active engagements, or direct experiences, that is, through observing the behavior of others or the directions of others (Bandura, 1977). More important, SLT explains how the observation of the behavior of others leads to the behavior of the observer. The important point is that the more likely the observed behavior leads to learning when the observation is more unique, more positively assessed, simpler to follow, more frequent, and more noteworthy (Bandura, 1977).

The learning processes in SLT goes through four stages: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation. The first step is attention and the level of attention is determined by an observer's cognitive ability, preference to the observed behavior, perceptual ability, and so on. Next, the information obtained from the observed behavior then enters the retention phase through the process of symbolic coding, cognitive organization, and symbolic rehearsal. The third is the reproduction stage transferring the learner to the actual action based on the observed information. At this stage, the images or linguistic symbols in the learner's memory serve as important factors. Finally, in the motivation phase, rewards such as achievement and self-satisfaction through learned behaviors lead to reinforcement of the observer's learning and motivate whether and how often the observer will continue the behavior.

Changing Consumerism through Social Learning

Numerous consumer behaviors are not merely associated with rational choices (McGregor, 2009). Oftentimes, complex behavioral patterns of consumers are emulated and learned from others (McGregor, 2009) and the copying and following of others' behaviors involve complex internal learning processes (Dahl, 2013). SLT has developed as a theoretical framework that concentrates on the dimension of consumer behavior (McGregor, 2007). The "social" in SLT implies the societal context where learning occurs. Individuals not only learn from personal and direct experiences, but also from watching the behaviors of others and the consequences of the behaviors (Bandura, 1977). In effect, people can learn behaviors, attitudes and even emotional reactions from observing other people. This SLT theory can be applicable to consumer behavior. If consumers imitate or follow the behaviors of other consumers, it means they have learned. Since learning happens from watching, emulating,

following, and adopting others' behaviors, SLT has to do with people's feedbacks, the patterns of responses, and applications to their environment (Badura, 1977).

In terms of SLT perspective, the purpose of consumer education is changing people's consumption behavior through learning by watching, not inevitably by doing (McGregor, 2009). Important, SLT assumes that people are more likely to consume in certain ways such as ethical or sustainable ways, even though no external rewards or validation are given because their internal values and beliefs merit their internal rewards (Bandura, 1977). In light of SLT's stance of internal moral reinforcement, people can be empowered consumers who engage in sustainable and ethical consumption. Based on the SLT, McGregor (2007) suggested that consumer education is useful to change the consumption of global citizens to more sustainable, responsible, and ethical ways. In that sense, FT education and campaigns to enhance FT knowledge can lead consumers to more ethical and sustainable consumption. McGregor (2005) also claimed that people are more likely to be empowered when feeling inclusiveness and informative, having a voice, being held accountable, being given opportunities to participate and build capacity and skillsets conducive to societal action and change (McGregor, 2005).

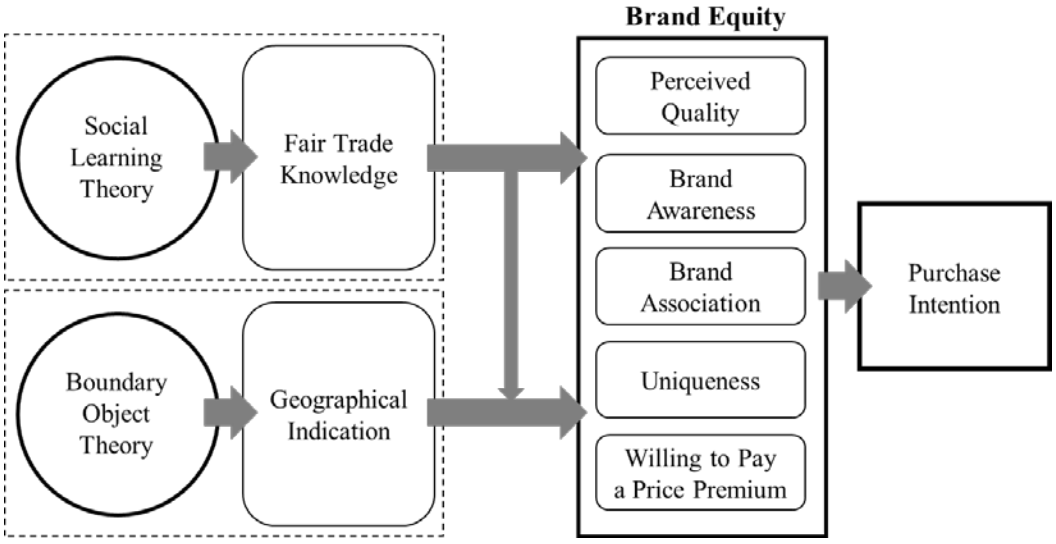

Figure 5. Theoretical Framework

The Relationship between CBBE and Geographical Indication

Consumers use various signifiers to recognize origin and authenticity, including physical attributes and/or places of consumption (Rangnekar, 2004). However, physical attributes and tangible features of goods can be easily copied so producers and manufacturers might be more concerned about transforming symbolic and service features that cannot be easily imitated (Rangnekar, 2004). Hence, the verification or certification like a GI is useful to have competitive advantages and differentiate from others. Moreover, it is more useful to ensure that other brand identities such as being GI label certified by reliable third parties (Rangnekar, 2004). In this respect, a GI certification adds and creates values of goods ingrained tradition, culture, and geography (WIPO, 2017) by facilitating consumer recognition. In addition, the recognition not only preserves the traditional craft skills but also safeguards and differentiate it from factory automation, thus providing authenticity and protecting the identity (EC, 2003; WIPO, 2017). When seeing a GI tag attached to goods, consumers are aware that the GI products are neither counterfeit nor factory commodities. Consumers recognize that GI tagged products are of better quality due

to their geographical origins (Addor & Grazioli, 2002). Therefore, GI certification functions as a boundary object, even if there is little or minimal information (Eden, 2011), thereby linking consumers and producers with trust (Eden, 2011). GI allows consumers to make purchasing decisions with reliable information and discern counterfeits or imitations.

Certifications or marks, such as eco-labels (Berry et al., 2012; Lee, 2016) and FT certification (Fairtrade Foundation, 2019) for FT goods, play a role in increasing trust in the products to consumers who know the labels. GIs have long been used as a sign of quality, even back to ancient Greece and Egypt. Kim and Kwon (2019) conducted a study of GI tagged agricultural products in South Korea. In the study, consumers who are knowledgeable and familiar with GIs perceived the products as overall superior. Other studies argue that GI tags and official recognitions of historical and traditional importance add values (Mevhibe & Ozdemir, 2012) and premiums (WIPO, 2017). Through GIs, consumers have more recognition of the indigenous products and pay more attention to the traditional knowledge from geographic origins thus differentiating GI goods. Moreover, one of the main benefits of GI for consumers is that they can be assured of product quality (European Union Intellectual Property Office [EUIPO], 2019).

Based on these perspectives, the first hypothesis is derived as follows.

H1: GI certification has a positive influence on consumers' *perceived quality* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts

The number of consumers, who are in favor of the companies that are willing to take responsibility for resolving environmental and social issues from globalization, have increased (Starr, 2009; Yoo, 2012). Based on these consumer

attitudes, empirical research continues that Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities, directly and indirectly, affect the corporate reputation and overall brand equity (Fatma et al., 2015; Hur et al., 2014). Another study claims that CSR also affects brand awareness and is known as a marketing strategy that helps build a positive brand image and brand association in the mind of the consumers (Maheshwari & Kumar, 2013). Consumers take pride in purchasing or using goods from ethical companies as their ethical consumption is in line with doing public good such as indirect donation and helping social problem solving (Harrison et al., 2005; Mohan, 2009). Besides, Larceneux et al. (2012) regard certification branding as a way of co-branding with product brands, and argue that certification branding can have a "halo effect" if it fosters strong positive associations. A GI not only secures the identity of the product but also provides authenticity and legal protection to it, thus protecting the producers against counterfeit products and unfair competition (Agarwal & Barone, 2005; WIPO, 2017). The ethical values and positive impacts, such as preserving cultural identity and traditional knowledge and protecting artisans' economic livelihoods (EC, 2003), that GIs pursue, will provide favorable drivers to consumers. Anson (2012) also argues that the unique identity from GIs is an important marketing tool for creating consumer awareness and loyalty.

Intense competition among companies requires close brand communication between consumers and companies and advertising narratives as communication tools are becoming increasingly significant to enhance brand awareness in advertising (Dias & Dias, 2018). As an advertising narrative, storytelling is one of the effective marketing strategies for building brand awareness and promoting brands. Unique storytelling can be perceived by consumers as a differentiating factor from other brands (Balkhi, 2018; Dias & Dias, 2018; Martinus & Chaniago, 2017; Ryu et al.,

2019; Yueh & Cheng, 2019). Lundqvist et al. (2013) claim that the brand story of a company helps reinforce the positive BS. GI certified textile and apparel handicrafts own not only its geographical origin but also its unique historical, cultural, traditional meanings and values, which can be effectively described through storytelling. A variety of contents and messages that a GI mark implicates can be transmitted to audiences with persuasive and compelling stories that may change consumers' consumption behaviors (Yueh & Cheng, 2019). In conclusion, the external and internal context of GIs is expected to have a positive impact on BA and BS in terms of the CBBE and thus, the second and third hypotheses were developed as follows.

H2: GI certification with storytelling has a positive influence on *brand awareness* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

H3: GI certification with storytelling has a positive influence on *brand association* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

Geographically limiting the production of a particular product through GI certification and official recognition of its inherent cultural and traditional significance is instrumental in increasing rise to the demand for the product in the global market (Verma & Mishra, 2018). It thus has a role to play in boosting the exports along with commanding premiums in the global market (WIPO, 2017). Modern consumers are greatly concerned about the geographical origin of products and pay attention to particular features present in the goods they purchase (Rangnekar, 2004). Oftentimes, the "place of origin" suggests to consumers that the goods will have a specific quality or values that they may care about. Anson (2012) argues for unique qualities, the specific characteristics of a region, and perceived uniqueness and distinctiveness as motivations for consumers to purchase GI products

and claims that this depends largely on the attitudes and preferences of consumers. Uniqueness is a fundamental property of GI products, which is the biggest difference from non-GI products, and the uniqueness allows for consumers to reduce product search costs and time (WIPO, 2013).

In terms of product price, GIs protect producers from unfair competition and copies and create a premium price to add value to the product (EC, 2020b; EUIPO, 2019). Consumers are prepared to pay more for such products (Rangnekar, 2004). Previous research reveals that GI products in the EU are priced 2.2 times higher on average than non-GI products (Seetharaman, 2017) and 40% of consumers surveyed in 2003 were willing to pay a premium of more than 10% of the product price (EC, 2003). Being willing to pay a premium for GI goods has been revealed in many studies although the extent of the premium would vary depending on each product and consumer experience (EPRS, 2019; Rangnekar, 2004).

Therefore, based on the premiums, added values, and uniqueness attached to GIs, the fourth and fifth hypotheses were derived as follows.

H4: GI certification has a positive influence on the *uniqueness* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

H5: GI certification has a positive influence on *willingness to pay a price premium* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

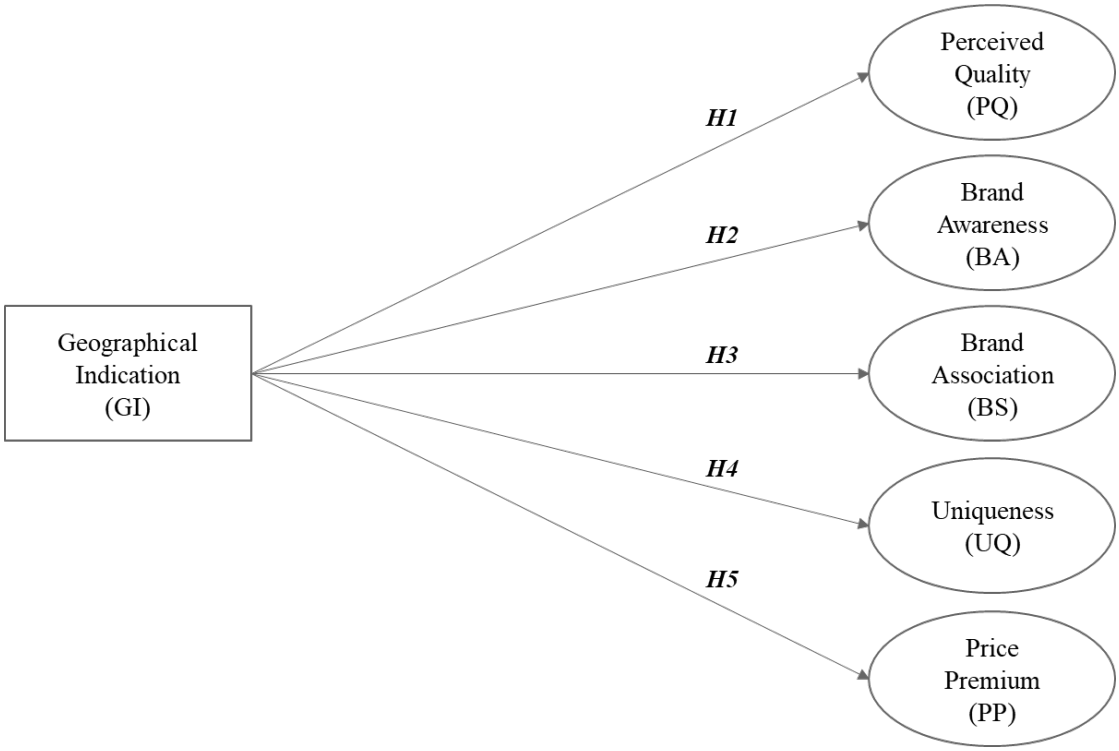

Figure 6. Conceptual Model for Hypotheses *H1 – H5*

The Relationship between CBBE and Fair Trade Knowledge

In today's consumerism, individualistic and altruistic values coexist so whether the entire supply chain of goods is sustainable and ethical is considered important consumption criteria (Jung, 2017). Accordingly, recent consumer education also calls for sustainability, ethical awareness, and social responsibility as global citizens (Jung, 2017; McGregor, 2005; Zhichkiene & Giedrimiene, 2014). In order to foster a rational and more conscious consumption culture, consumer education to enhance knowledge level of consumption effects has been carried out at home, school, government, and consumer organizations, and many studies have shown that this kind of education improves consumer knowledge and attitude (Kim & Yoon, 2019). McGregor (2007) claims that SLT embraces the idea that society plays a significant role in how people perceive themselves, others, and the world and how they interact or believe in that world, and how they learn. Learners can recognize the implications

of their actions in the marketplace. Since people are connected to each other, their actions in the marketplace have significant and profound influences on other people even the next generation (McGregor, 2007). Based on the SLT perspective, the aims of consumer education, campaigns, and movement in FT are to enhance their knowledge of FT and change their consumer behavior through learning by watching.

Alba and Hutchinson (1987) noted that consumers with more knowledge of the product know more about the attributes of the product than consumers with less knowledge, so they have more insight and understanding of the real values that the product owns. Johnson and Sathi (1984) argued that differences in consumers' knowledge level of a product resulted in different purchasing behaviors between consumers as the knowledge level influenced product choice. For instance, consumers with high knowledge of eco-friendly products have low motivation to search external information such as price, design, and convenience in selecting products (Moore & Lehman, 1980), while consumers with low knowledge of eco-friendly products are preferred the benefits relevant information (Maheswaren & Sternthal, 1990). Extensive surveys and evidence have indicated that FT education brings positive changes in raising awareness of ethical purchasing practices and buying FT products (Cleverdon & Kalisch, 2000; Griffiths, 2014). Nicholls and Opal (2005) argue that consumers who buy FT products believe solidarity and trust in FT. Also, some scholars say that solidarity and trust are important motivators for building brand equity and driving consumers to consume certain brands (Aaker, 1991; Delgado-Ballester & Luis Munuera-Alemán, 2005). Moreover, the people educated about FT encourage others to engage in FT movement, purchasing FT products and asking retailers to increase the availability of FT products (Doherty & Taplin, 2008; Park, 2015). Such effects of FT education are further strengthened through word of mouth

(WOM). WOM is known as a valuable advertising and promotional tool (Jahdi et al., 2017) and has a significant influence on the consumers' purchasing decisions (Glynn Mangold et al., 1999), Besides, along with traditional WOM, the impact of electronic WOM is increasing with the dominance of social networking service (SNS, Chu & Kim, 2011). Consumers often struggle with ethical consumption due to the lack of information during the purchasing process (Joergens, 2006), in which the positive WOM of FT education about FT goods can greatly motivate consumers to actual purchase behaviors. The study of Doherty and Taplin (2008) well illustrates the case by showing that those people who had FT education were more likely to buy FT products and even ask retailers to increase the availability of the products (Doherty & Taplin, 2008). The evidence from Hunt's (2012) research with elementary schools also indicated that more than half of the children interviewed considered buying FT products as an important practice related to global inequity and sustainability. Lawson's (2018) research with elementary and middle schools in England found similar observations from young people. Indeed, FT education can bring positive change by not only choosing FT products for themselves, but encouraging others to exercise the same practice and asking stores and large supermarkets chains to stock more FT products thus dramatically increasing the availability of products (Doherty & Taplin, 2008). Several studies have suggested that there is a direct or indirect correlation between brand equity and WOM. An empirical study on the relationship between WOM and brand equity for luxury goods found that positive WOM has a positive effect on BA and BS (Virvilaite et al., 2015). Positive or negative WOM on SNS affects PQ, BA, and BS (Murtiasih et al., 2014; Severi et al., 2014). In addition, consumers with a positive attitude toward ethical products are likely to pay more for FT products by adding monetary value to intangible ethical values (EC, 2010; Mai,

2014; Park, 2018a). According to a 2010 Eurobarometer survey to Europeans, 40% of respondents were willing to pay extra for products that could help protect the environment and developing countries (EC, 2010). Kapusuz and Kimzan (2016) claim that FT knowledge has a positive effect on willingness to pay a price premium.

By all accounts above, FTK gives consumers a positive PQ, BA, and BS with FT products, as well as a positive WOM effect and PP. Accordingly, the following four hypotheses are established.

H6: FTK has a positive influence on *perceived quality* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

H7: FTK has a positive influence on *brand awareness* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

H8: FTK has a positive influence on *brand association* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

H9: FTK has a positive influence on *willing to pay a price premium* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

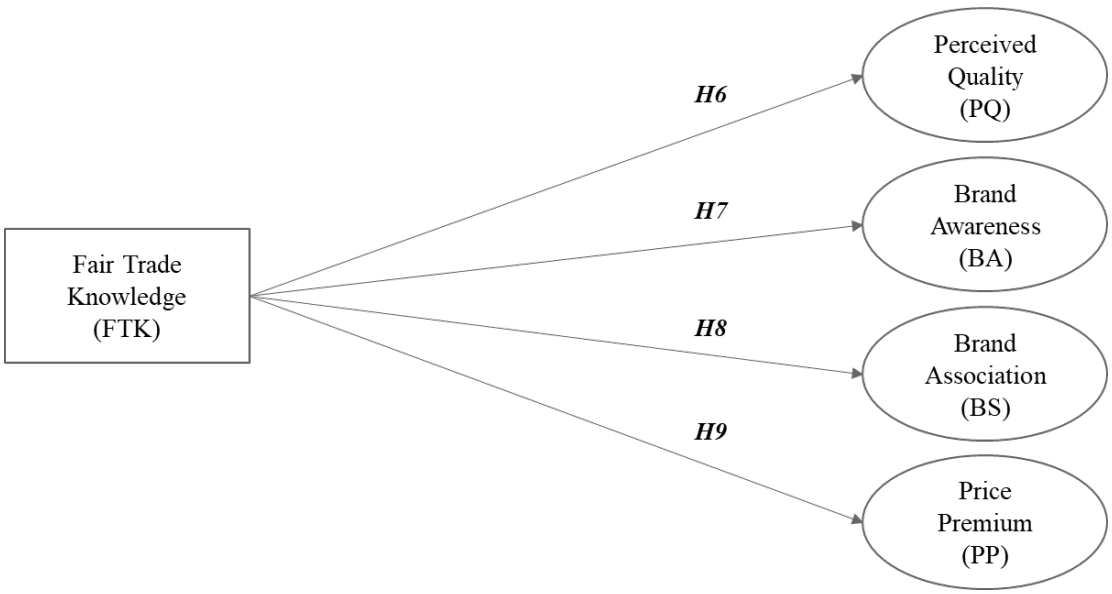

Figure 7. Conceptual Model for Hypotheses *H6 – H9*

Brucks (1985) stated that consumer knowledge plays a role in enhancing problem-solving ability to find, select, and evaluate products. As discussed earlier, FTK is expected to play a role as consumer knowledge. In addition, since GI and FT share the values such as artisan supports and empowerments, economic development, and local traditions and culture preservation, awareness of GI will also be strengthened or weakened depending on FTK level. Taken together, it can be assumed that the increase in FTK has an indirect effect on strengthening the relationship between GI and PQ, BA, BS, and PP. Accordingly, the following four hypotheses are established.

H10: The effect of GI certification on *perceived quality* is moderated by FT knowledge.

H11: The effect of GI certification on *brand awareness* is moderated by FT knowledge.

H12: The effect of GI certification on *brand association* is moderated by FT knowledge.

H13: The effect of GI certification on *being willing to pay a price premium* is moderated by FT knowledge.

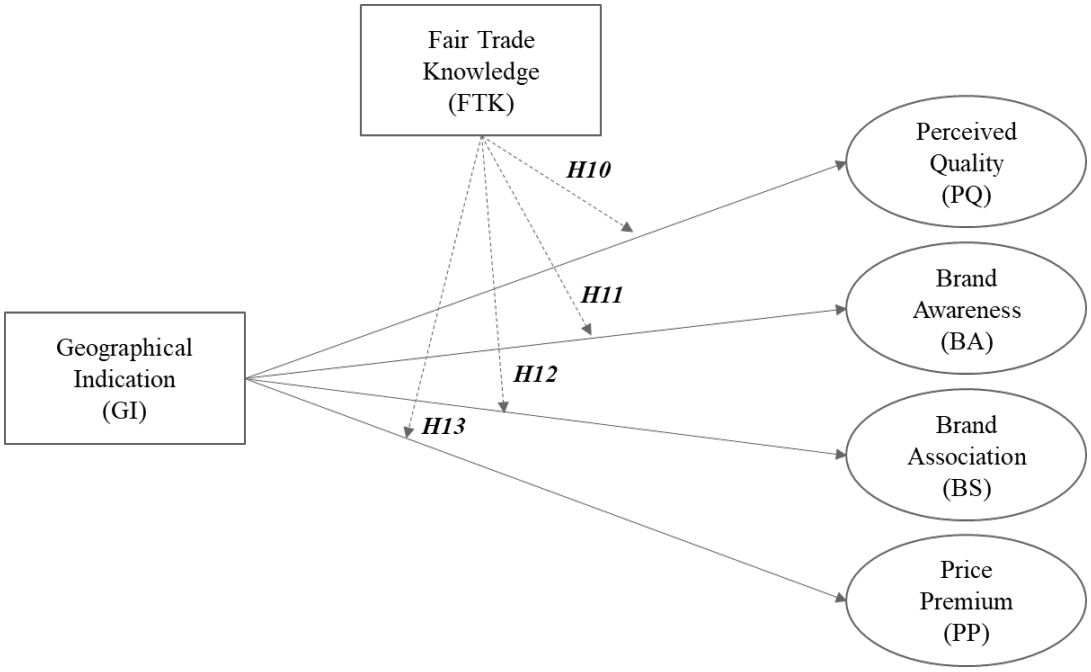

Figure 8. Conceptual Model for Hypotheses *H10 – H13*

The Relationship between CBBE and Purchase Intention

Purchase Intention (PI) refers to the consumers' planned future buying behavior and the likelihood that the beliefs and attitudes related to the purchase will be transferred to actual behavior. PI is considered as an important variable to measure a company's performance as it implies consumers' willingness to purchase a product (Taylor & Baker, 1994). Aaker (1991; 1996) believes that brand equity gives consumers confidence in purchasing decisions and satisfaction with use, thus resulting in increased repeat purchases and the enhancement of corporate value. Many studies regarding the relationship between PI and CBBE of Aaker (1996) and Keller (1993) have been conducted, and it has been found that PQ, BA, and BS have positive effect on PI (Atilgan et al., 2007; Chi et al., 2009; Esch & Langner, 2006; Jalilvand et al., 2011). PP has also been found to have a positive effect on consumer PI for a particular brand (Netemeyer et al., 2004). However, UQ does not directly affect PI,

but rather indirectly affects PI through the mediator, PP (Netemeyer et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2012).

Based on the above discussions, the following hypotheses were derived.

H14: *Perceived quality* has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

H15: *Brand awareness* has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

H16: *Brand association* has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

H17: *Being willing to pay a price premium* has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.

H18: *Uniqueness* has a positive indirect influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts via *being willing to pay a price premium*.

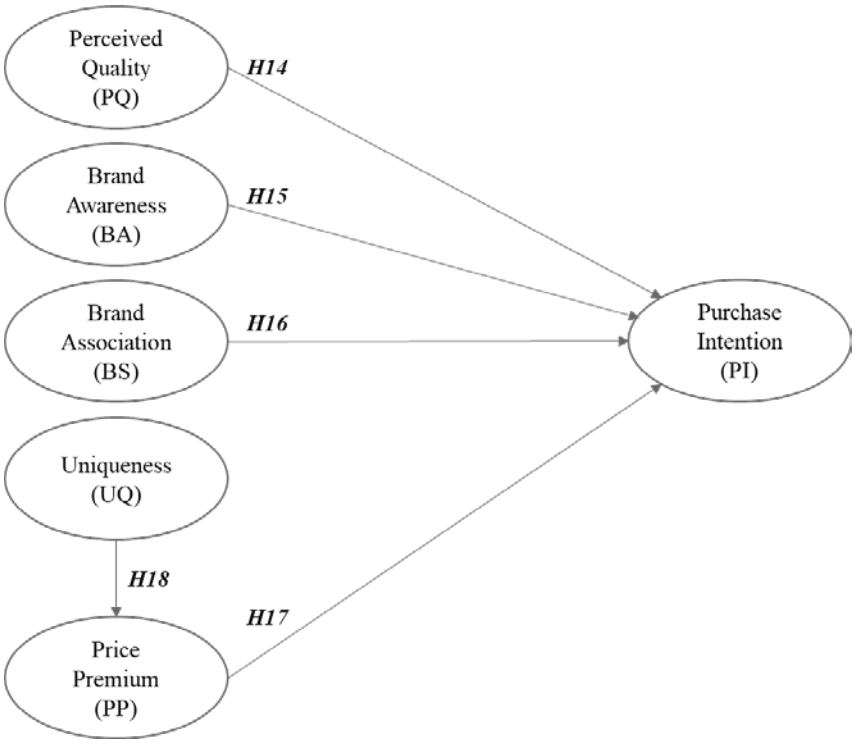

Figure 9. Conceptual Model for Hypotheses *H14 – H18*

Hypotheses and Fair Trade Handicrafts in Textile and Apparel

The globalized textile and apparel sector is highly complex and includes various stakeholders such as NGOs, governments, companies, producers and consumers (Boström & Micheletti, 2016). In the FT field, international FT organizations such as FLO or WFTO are leading the FT movements by developing and bolstering FT standards, certification, and campaigns. In the FT handicraft sector, efforts have been made and are bearing fruit. For the past decade, especially in the FT textile sector, FT organizations have worked hard to establish standards and produced positive results (Fairtrade International, 2020b; Vark, 2016). However, it is pointed out by industry experts who still predict that FT will not be able to achieve the same performance as non-food sectors in the textile and apparel industry (Vark, 2016). In order for the FT textile and clothing sector, where various stakeholders such as producers, consumers, middlemen, buyers, and supply chains are intertwined, to successfully settle in the FT market like FT food, it will require understanding from various angles about textiles and clothing industry. Boström and Micheletti (2016) identified businesses and consumers as key actors in the textile and apparel industry. Elbeshbishi and Al A'ali (2020) emphasized understanding of consumers by claiming FT and ethical consumerism as an inseparable relationship. The 18 hypotheses in this study (See Figure 10) derived from previous literature are intended to help understand and gain insights into FT handicrafts in the textile and clothing sector, especially from the consumer perspective.

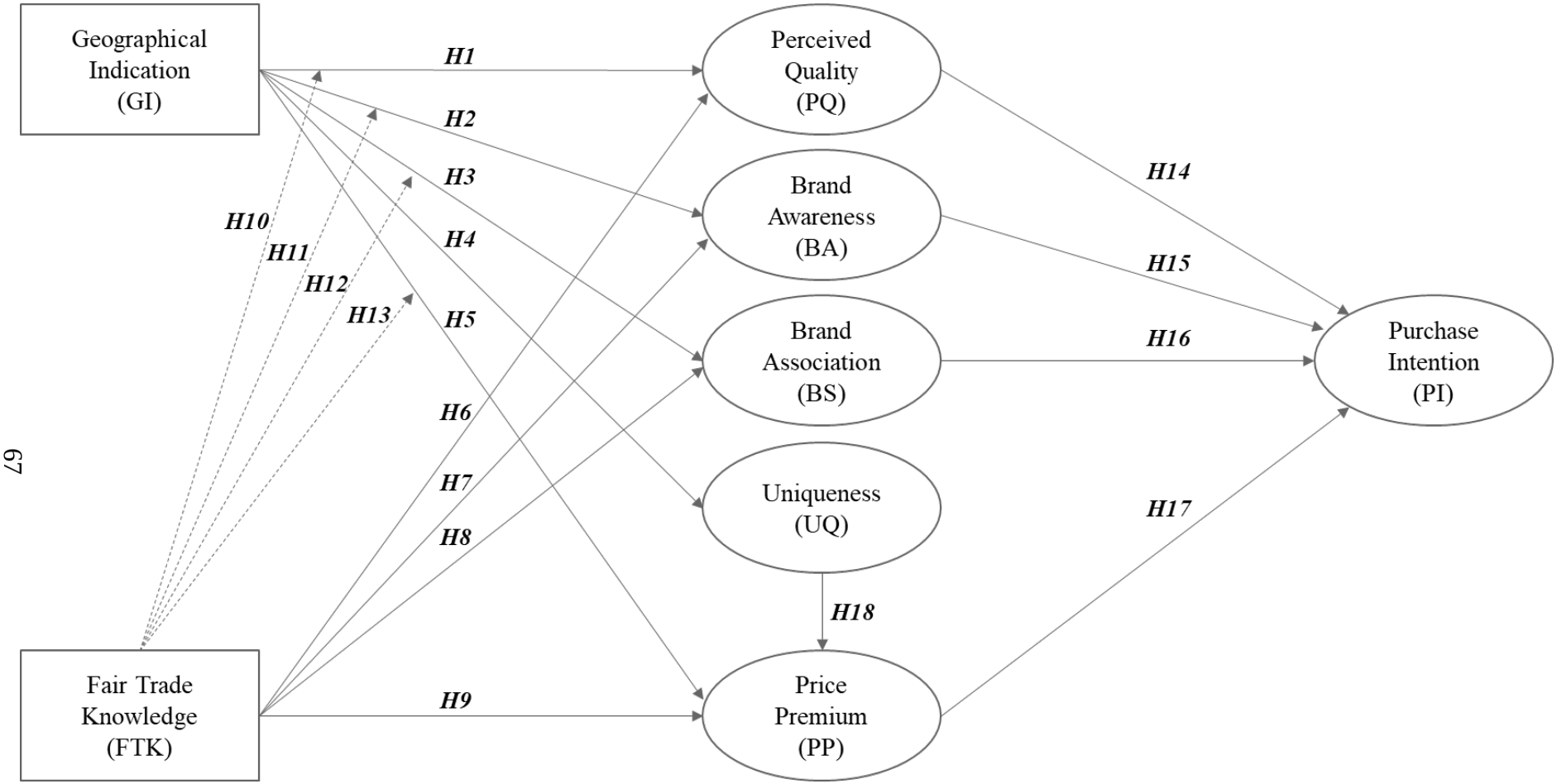

Figure 10. The Entire Conceptual Model for Hypotheses *H1 – H18*

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHOD

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of Geographical Indication (GI) certification and Fair Trade Knowledge (FTK) level on consumers' perceived brand equity and purchase intention. A web-based experiment was conducted on the website. The test participants were asked to look at webpage images of a mock brand inserted into survey and then asked to answer the survey questionnaire.

Instrument Development

The survey is divided into four categories: (a) the measurement of brand equity and purchase intention, (b) FTK measurement, (c) the subject's integrity, and (d) demographics. The questionnaire for measuring brand equity and purchase intention was adopted from the extensive previous literature and the studies reviewed in the literature review section of this study (See Table 3) while the questionnaire for the subject's integrity is developed by the author of this study. The questionnaire for measuring FTK levels was referenced from the previous measurements used in consumer research on FT products.

Measurement of Brand Equity and Purchase Intention

Perceived Quality (PQ): PQ items were adopted from Agarwal and Teas's (2001) study. In order to measure PQ, the researchers referred to Dodds et al.'s (1991) study and developed a total of five items. However, in this study, only four items were adopted and the item about durability was excluded because durability is somewhat

irrelevant to the brand equity of FT fashion handicrafts. The four items on a 7-point Likert scale range from “very low” (1) to “very high” (7).

Brand Awareness (BA): Yoo et al.’s (2000) BA measurement items were adopted for this study. Yoo et al.’s (2000) study developed six items but only three items were used in the survey. The item stating “I have difficulty imagining X in my mind” was excluded because it is reverse-scored and the reliability score of the item was not high enough in Yoo et al.’s (2000) study. The question, “I am aware of X,” was excluded because survey participants were not familiar with the virtual brand, Chandria. Also, the item, “I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of X,” was excluded because the mock brand in the experiment does not have any logos or symbols. The three items on a 7-point Likert scale rate the BA in terms of “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7).

Brand Association (BS): Based on the items from Tong and Hawley’s (2009) study, four items were developed in order to measure BS. The items on the 7-Likert scale range from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7).

Uniqueness (UQ): Three items were adopted from Netemeyer et al.’s (2004) and Su and Chang’s (2018) studies. In order to measure UQ, the authors developed three items asking consumers how they distinguish and differentiate the mock brand in the experiment from other brands. The 7-Likert scale of three items ranges from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7).

Willing to Pay a Price Premium (PP): The items from Netemeyer et al. (2004) and Dwivedi et al.’s (2018) study were adopted. Among the four items in the study, one item of an open-ended question, asking “How much they are willing to pay more,” was excluded. The 7-Likert scale of three items ranges from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7).

Purchase Intention (PI): Three items were adopted from Jalilvand et al.'s (2011) study. The 7-Likert scale of three items for PI ranges "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7).

Table 3. Instruments for Measuring Brand Equity and Purchase Intention of Fair Trade Textile and Apparel Handicrafts

Brand Equity	Item	Reliability	Reference
Perceived Quality (PQ)	PQ1. The likelihood that **X** would be reliable is: PQ2. The workmanship of **X** is probably: PQ3. The quality of **X**'s product is likely to be: PQ4. The likelihood that **X**'s product is dependable is:	α = .94	Agarwal & Teas (2001)
Brand Awareness (BA)	BA1. I know what **X** looks like. BA2. I can recognize **X** among other competing brands. BA3. Some characteristics of **X** come to my mind quickly.	ρc = .94	Yoo et al. (2000)
Brand Association (BS)	BS1. **X** has a very unique brand image, compared to competing handicraft brands. BS2. I respect and admire people who wear **X.** BS3. I like the brand image of **X.** BS4. I like and trust **X**, which makes textile and clothing handicrafts.	α = .70	Tong & Hawley (2009)
Uniqueness (UQ)	UQ1. **X** is distinct from other textile and clothing handicraft brands. UQ2. **X** really stands out from other textile and clothing handicraft brands. UQ3. **X** is unique from other textile and clothing handicraft brands.	α = .88	Netemeyer et al. (2004) Su & Chang (2018)
Willing to Pay a Price Premium (PP)	PP1. The price of **X** would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to another textile and clothing handicraft brands. PP2. I am willing to pay a higher price for **X** brand of textile and clothing handicrafts than for other brands of textile and clothing handicrafts. PP3. I am willing to pay a lot more for **X** brand of textile and clothing handicrafts than for other brands of textile and clothing handicrafts.	α = .83	Netemeyer et al. (2004) Dwivedi et al. (2018)
Purchase Intention (PI)	PI1. I would buy **X**'s textile and clothing handicrafts rather than any other brands' textile and clothing handicrafts available. PI2. I am willing to recommend others to buy **X**'s textile and clothing handicrafts. PI3. I am willing to purchase **X**'s textile and clothing handicrafts in the future.	α = .80	Jalilvand et al. (2011)

Note. **X** = brand name; α = Cronbach's alpha; ρc = Congeneric Reliability.

Measurement of Fair Trade Knowledge

A few studies have attempted to measure FTK in previous research. Littrell et al. (2005) measured FTK for FT consumers using both existing and specifically developed instruments for their studies. Based on prior research and focus group interviews, Poncelet et al. (2005) developed a measurement tool that classified FTK into three dimensions: (a) definition, (b) environment concern, and (c) social aspect. The FTK measurement items were used to both 1,141 Belgian FT and non-FT consumers. Among Poncelet et al.'s (2005) three dimensions, Pelsmacker and Janssens's (2007) used the three items in a FT study of Belgian consumers. Kapusuz and Kimzan (2016) adopted the Pelsmacker and Janssens's (2007) FTK measurement items in a study of Turkish consumers.

After reviewing comprehensive studies measuring FTK, this study adopted 10 instrument items (See Table 4) from the studies of Poncelet et al. (2005) and Pelsmacker and Janssens (2007). In the original studies, the survey respondents were asked to evaluate how much they agree on the statements regarding the effect of FT business practices and FT goods consumption. However, as the measurement method using the 7-Likert scale tends to be difficult to make a choice for participants who do not know about FT at all, the answers were simplified to select one of the three, "true," "false," and "I don't know." The correct answer to all questions was true, and both false and I don't know were treated as incorrect answers. This method, unlike Likert-scale, is used for assessment of consumers' objective knowledge (Gaskell et al., 1999; Park et al., 1994).

Table 4. Instrument for Measuring Fair Trade Knowledge Level

Item	Reliability	Reference
Definition	α = .85	Pelsmacker & Janssens (2007)
1. Fair Trade aims to create better trading conditions for workers in developing countries.		
2. Fair Trade endeavors to pay more honest prices to producers in developing countries.		
3. Fair Trade strives for sustainable development of excluded and/or disadvantaged producers in developing countries.		
Environment Concern	α = .81	Poncelet et al. (2005)
4. Fair Trade follows environmentally sustainable practices during production.		
5. Fair Trade does not use substances that have undergone genetic modifications.		
6. Fair Trade uses sustainable energy resources.		
Social Aspect	α = .84	Poncelet et al. (2005)
7. Fair Trade takes account of workers' social rights.		
8. In Fair Trade, workers are not exploited.		
9. Fair Trade companies maintain good working conditions and fair wages for workers.		
10. In Fair Trade, profits are not the only thing that matters.		

Note. α = Cronbach's alpha.

Subject's Integrity Measurement

In online surveys or experiments, some participants may accept to participate in a test to gain financial rewards but may neglect to answer questions or enter answers without reading questions (Chandler & Paolacci, 2017). Even minimal rates of random responses can largely distort study results (Chandler & Paolacci, 2017). As the experiment in this study was conducted online, it was difficult to know whether the subjects were appropriately exposed to experiment stimuli and/or whether they were engaged in the survey faithfully. Therefore, an item to measure participants'

integrity was developed as shown in Table 5. The test subjects were able to make multiple choices for the question and must select the first (Artisanal handicraft) and/or fourth (Traditional technique) answers to be correct. If the second (Unskilled work) and/or third (Originated from China) items were selected, it was determined that the subject has been unfaithful or neglectful to the experiment.

Table 5. Instrument for Integrity Screening

Item	**Possible Answer**	**True / False**
Which of the following items pertains to Chandria brand? (multiple choices)	Artisanal handicraft	True
	Unskilled work	False
	Originated from China	False
	Traditional technique	True

Demographic Items

Items to identify demographic characteristics of the experiment subjects were included at the end of the questionnaires. Collected information includes gender, age, racial information, education and income level, and place of residence.

Study

Experiment Outline

The test was conducted to explore how consumers' perception of GI and FTK level influence on the elements of brand equity and purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts. In the experiment, therefore, the mock brand, Chandria, was virtually created for both treatment and control groups. However, the stimulus, a GI certification mark and its descriptions were presented only to the treatment group. All participants in both groups were asked to answer the same questions, their perceived brand equity, purchase intention, and FTK level.

Experiment Design

A post-test-only control group design method was applied in the study because the experimental design is frequently used in marketing research (Malhotra et al., 2017). The experiment sample was randomly assigned. The treatment for the experimental groups is symbolized as:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \boldsymbol{R_1} & \boldsymbol{X} & \boldsymbol{O_1} \\ \boldsymbol{R_2} & & \boldsymbol{O_2} \end{array}$$

Note. $\boldsymbol{R_1}$ = Treatment Group, $\boldsymbol{R_2}$ = Control Group, $\boldsymbol{X}$ = Exposure to GI stimulus $\boldsymbol{O_1}$ = Measurement of Treatment Group, $\boldsymbol{O_2}$ = Measurement of Control Group

The GI stimulus was exposed to the treatment group ($\boldsymbol{R_1}$) and was not exposed to the control group ($\boldsymbol{R_2}$). $\boldsymbol{X}$ indicates the exposure to GI stimulus. The treatment effect ($\boldsymbol{TE}$) is obtained by:

$$\boldsymbol{TE = O_1 - O_2}$$

As a method of effectively delivering the GI messages and experimental stimulus to the test participants, a web-based digital storytelling using Geographic Information System (GIS) was developed. GIS enables authors to transmit their messages as stories to users thereby effectively functioning as a digital communication tool (Steinberg & Steinberg, 2015). Extensive study indicates that the stories of culture and histories can be effectively described through GIS (Man & van den Toorn, 2002; Hultman, 2007). The GIS software used in the experiment was Story Map created by Esri, a global GIS corporation, which provides easy editing methods and tools specialized in storytelling. Esri provides editing tools for creating Story Maps at ArcGIS Online (https://arcgis.com). Story Map is one of various GIS

web applications that can be created through ArcGIS Online, and seven templates of Cascade, Journal, Series, Shortlist, Swipe and Spyglass, and Map Tour are provided for easy Story Map creation. In this study, Cascade was selected as a template that can properly combine the mock brand description and map representation through GIS. Cascade provides the ability to display texts, photos, and maps dynamically according to the user's screen manipulation, thus placing each content in a form suitable for the experiment. In the treatment group, a four-step and in the control group, two-step Story Map were developed respectively. Figure 11 shows the stimuli for each group. The contents in Steps 1 and 2 were exactly the same for both groups. However, the treatment group additionally saw the contents of GI summary including GI mark, origin, and heritage of the virtual brand in Step 3 and Step 4.

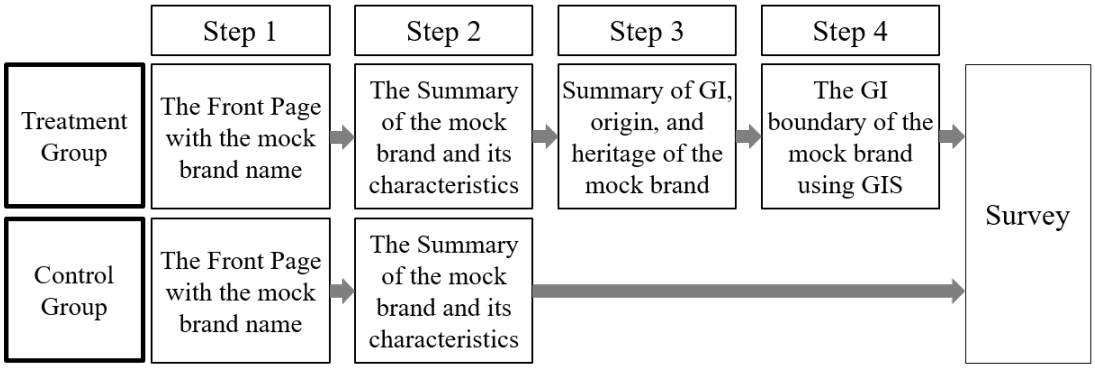

Figure 11. Experiment Process
Note. GI = Geographical Indication; GIS = Geographic Information System.

Using a GIS tool, a map embedded in Story Maps was created using ArcGIS Desktop 10.7.1, Esri's Desktop GIS software, in the following way. First, the GIS shapefiles of the states and districts in India were retrieved and collected from ArcGIS Online in order to be used for mapping. The collected shapefiles were then imported from ArcGIS Desktop, and several administrative districts were combined to create a

virtual boundary of the district. Next, eight marks representing the residence of artisans were randomly placed within the virtually created boundary of the district. Finally, among the Base maps provided by Esri, the World Terrain Base Map was selected as a background to increase the geographical visibility.

The Stimuli for Experiment

The same FT handicraft brand, Chandria, was exposed to both the treatment group and the control group. However, the item shown to the treatment group had a GI certification whereas the item shown to the control group did not have a GI certification.

Step 1: The mock brand name

In order to help visual recognition of test participations, a brand name and a short sentence explaining the brand, Chandria, were presented on the first page (See Figure 12).

Figure 12. The Front Page of Stimuli

Step 2: The characteristics of the mock brand

In order to help the understanding of the mock FT handicraft brand, a short product description was presented including brand history, traditional skills, and FT concept.

Step 3: GI stimulus

In order to help the understanding of a GI to the test subjects in the treatment group who normally were unfamiliar with GIs, the summary of GI was presented to the subjects including GI certification mark image. A GI certification mark and description, indicating the handicraft brand was accredited by reliable and reputable institutions, was presented to the subjects of the treatment group. The GI certification mark was virtually produced in a similar shape with reference to the currently used GI mark. As the geographical origin of the mock brand was in India, it was described that Chandria was registered to and certified by both WIPO and the Indian government. In addition, the geographical characteristics of the area were written in fictitious texts and exposed together on the map. In writing the fictitious texts, the documents of GI certified brands submitted to WIPO when applying for the GIs were used as a reference to better describe that the geographical origin, cultures, traditions, and heritages were closely related to the mock handicraft brand.

Step 4: Geographical boundary of a GI indicated using GIS

The geographic location and regional characteristics of the GI certified brand were made visually available to the subjects through the map. The geographic location was indicated by the boundary on the electronic map provided by Esri to distinguish it from the surrounding area (See Figure 13).

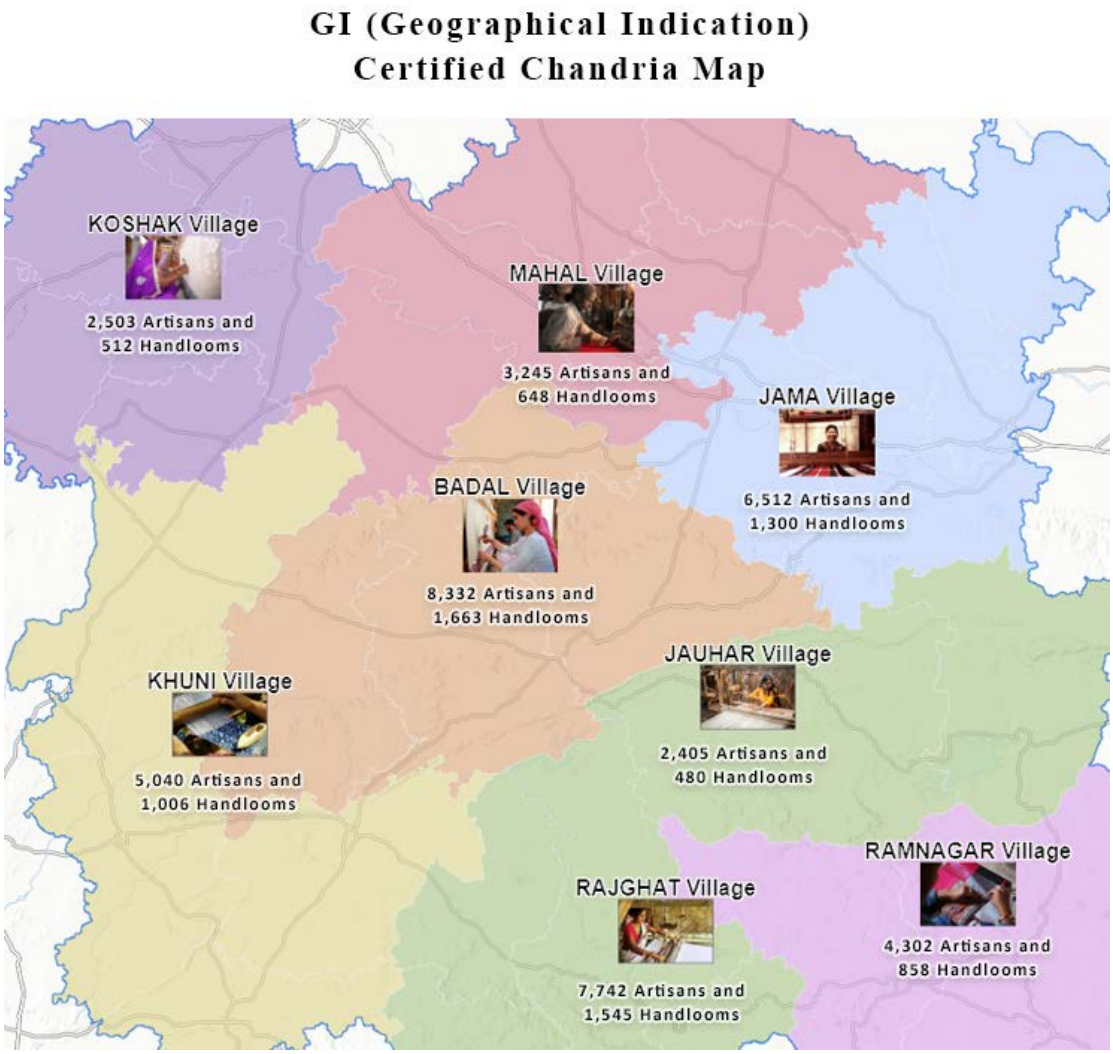

Figure 13. The Boundary of the Mock Brand's Geographical Indication in the Map

Experimental Manipulation

In order to mask the original intention of this study and achieve the purpose of the experiment, it was explained to the subjects that the test was for an understanding consumers' attitudes to FT handicraft products and the effectiveness of the online marketing method through the webpages. The test subjects, in addition, were asked to watch and read the test stimuli carefully via their personal desktop or laptop computer. Both treatment and control groups were asked to respond to the survey questionnaire after being exposed to the stimuli.

Experiment Sample

In the study, the experiment subjects included only female consumers. As stated in the literature review part, women buy far more textile and clothing goods than male consumers (O'Cass, 2004). The market for women in the industry is much larger than for others (O'Cass, 2004). In addition, female consumers are much more willing to purchase ethical or FT products than male consumers (Grankvist, 2013; Morrell & Jayawardhena, 2010). Therefore, considering the research subject and characteristics, only female consumers were considered for the experiment sample.

Data Analysis

Pre-test

The designed experiment was pre-tested to a small number of people in order to assess the clarity and suitability of the questionnaire and the mock brand contents. Dillman et al. (2009) recommends conducting a pre-test with a group of people similar to the actual survey sample or with experts of survey topic under the same setting. This way allows researchers to examine the needed time for survey, question wording, appropriateness of measurement items, possible obstacles that could arise, and so on. The pre-test administered to ten graduate students in textile and apparel major in the U.S. In addition, four professors in the U.S reviewed the survey questionnaire and provided feedback. Through this process, the survey and the mock brand websites were refined and modified several times to certify face and content validity.

Sample and Data Collection

Upon receiving approval from the University of Missouri Institutional Review Board, data collection was initiated. The data collection company, Qualtrics, gathered the soft launch data, which was ten percent of the total data. This process was a necessary last step to ensure the collected data was successful and aligned on the needs of the study. The soft launch data were collected from 30 survey participants so 15 completed from control and treatment groups respectively. When reviewing all completed responses in the soft launch data, discrepancies and data quality issues arose. Many respondents had wrong answers to an integrity measurement question and/or completed the survey too early, less than two minutes. This suggests that the respondents in the soft launch data did not read the linked website content carefully or were not engaged in the survey faithfully.

Based on the first soft launch results, it was assumed that survey participants felt too complex and time consuming on visiting the external website located outside of the survey platform. Thus, the mock brand website links were removed and instead, the brand website images were inserted directly to the survey platform so participants did not need to click and visit any website links and come back to the survey again. Besides, in order to ensure participants read the mock brand descriptions carefully, the timer, forcing respondents to stay on a certain page for a minimum period, was added. This method caused no complications or problems. After completing revisions, another soft launch data was administered to 30 test participants. The quality of data greatly improved this time. The medium time that each survey participant spent on the survey was 4.875 minutes and also most of them had right answers to integrity measurement questions. Therefore, the second soft launch data was included to the final data analysis whereas excluding the first one.

After finalizing the experiment design through two soft launches, the full experiment was launched and conducted online. An established data collection agency, Qualtrics, recruited survey participants who are 18 years or older female consumers and currently reside in the U.S. First, Qualtrics randomly selected samples from their survey panel and sent them a link for test participation. The people who received the link were able to participate in the experiment only when they agreed to do so. Once the test started, the subjects in the treatment and control groups were asked to watch the stimuli for each group and then allowed to answer the survey questionnaire after finishing watching. Due to the timer setting, the treatment and control groups were forced to view the stimuli at least two minutes and one minute respectively. Apart from this, the survey was designed to be completed only when participants answered all the questions without skipping any to prevent the possibility of missing data.

Data collection took place in July 2020. There is no general standard for sample size, but a small sample increases the estimation error, so at least 150 samples are required to structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In addition, the rules-of-thumb of the sample size of SEM method suggests that each estimated parameter requires five or 10 observations (Bentler & Chou, 1987) and each variable requires 10 cases according to Nunnally et al. (1967). The variables of this study were 21 in total, thus 110 – 210 samples were judged as the minimum sample size according to the previous researchers' guide on the sample size. As a result, a sample of 122 respondents from the treatment group, and 117 respondents from the control group were collected initially, which is a total of 239 samples. However, the respondents who had wrong answers to the survey integrity measurement question were excluded from the 239 samples. Accordingly, 104

respondents in treatment groups and 102 respondents in control groups were finally selected. Thus, the final sample size was 206 in total.

Data Analysis Procedure

The online survey data was stored in Qualtrics server after each participant completed the experiment so when all test processes were finished, the data in Qualtrics server were downloaded in comma-separated values (CSV) format. For analysis, afterwards, the data was cleaned, coded, and was analyzed using statistical software package, IBM SPSS Statistics 23 (SPSS) and IBM AMOS 21 (AMOS). The software package is widely used for analyzing SEM applications and this study applied SEM to analyze the collected data. As a method of performing SEM for data analysis, the two-step approach proposed by Andernson and Gerbing (1988) was followed as it has been widely applied in multiple studies (Hair et al., 2019). The two-step approach assessed a measurement model first and then a structural model. Throughout this study, the maximum likelihood, a predominant estimation method in SEM for model estimation, was used (Bollen & Noble, 2011). The following is a detailed description of the criteria for determining model suitability, analysis method, and procedures.

Guideline for Goodness of Fit: There are various goodness of fit measures for model evaluation in SEM. The goodness of fit index should not be sensitive to sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1995), and the model's parsimoniousness should be considered (Bae, 2017). Hair et al. (2019) recommended Chi-squared, Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) as a method for goodness of fit, Hoyle and Panter (1995) recommended Chi-Squared, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), and TLI, and Kline (2016) recommended

Chi-squared, CFI, and RMSEA. This study determined that the model was acceptable if CFI > .90, GFI > .90, TLI > .90 (Bentler, 1990; Tucker & Lewis, 1973), RMSEA < .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2016), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) < .08 (Kline, 2016).

Demographic and Descriptive Statistics: Demographic information of survey participants such as gender, age group, and educational background was analyzed. In addition, by performing descriptive statistics, survey results were compared by group.

Assumption of Normality: Assumption of univariate normality was tested with skewness and kurtosis values. Assumption of multivariate normality was tested with Mardia's coefficient, which is a multivariate measure of kurtosis (Mardia, 1970). To conduct SEM, skewness values lower than 3, and kurtosis values lower than 8 were considered acceptable (Kline, 2016).

Exploratory Factor Analysis: Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to identify the relationships between the variables and their compositions. The sampling adequacy for the factor analysis confirmed with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure and Bartlett's test of sphericity. If the KMO value is .90 or more than .90, the sampling is adequate (Kaiser, 1974). Cronbach's alpha (α), a reliability coefficient, was calculated to estimate the reliability of measurement items. If the value of Cronbach's alpha is equal to .60, the reliability is considered to be acceptable (Nunnally, 1978) and .80 or greater is preferred (Cortina, 1993). The validity of measurement items was evaluated with factor loading of variables and the item with low factor loading was excluded.

Assessing Construct Validity and Reliability: Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to evaluate the construct validity and reliability of the measurement items in this study adopted from previous research. Construct validity

consists of content validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Convergent validity and discriminant validity were evaluated by average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR). Fornell and Larcker (1981) stated that convergent validity is satisfied when the AVE is .40 or greater than .40. CR, similar to Cronbach's alpha, explains the internal consistency of the item scales (Netemeyer et al., 2003). The reasonable CR is .70 or more (Hair et al., 2019), and if this is satisfied, construct reliability is confirmed. Discriminant validity was tested by comparing between AVE and the squared correlation coefficient of six factors in the measurement model. Discriminant validity is confirmed when AVE is larger than squared correlation coefficient (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2019).

Tests of Measurement Equivalence: In SEM, latent mean analysis is performed to test the differences between multi-groups. As a prerequisite for performing latent mean analysis, the equivalence of the measurement model should be established (Chan, 2011; Milfont & Fischer, 2010). Therefore, a multi-group CFA was performed to verify that measurement equivalence between treatment and control groups was satisfied. Tests for equivalence were examined at three sequential levels and the construction and the order of sequences is as follows: configural invariance, metric invariance, and scalar invariance (Kline, 2016; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). These three sequences cannot be performed simultaneously, and must be done step by step in the order of configural, metric, and scalar invariance. For each step, a chi-square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2$) was performed to determine whether the assumption of equivalence (H_0) was satisfied.

Hypothesis Testing: The hypotheses developed in this study were tested by using measurement models and structural models constructed based on the hypothesized conceptual model of the study. First, in order to test the effect of GI, it

was tested through latent mean analysis whether the five latent variables composing brand equity (i.e., PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP) differ between the two groups. Second, whether FTK is positively and directly related to the four elements of brand equity (i.e., PQ, BA, BS, PP) was tested. Third, the interaction between GI and FTK was tested to check the moderating effect of FTK between GI and brand equity. Finally, the direct and indirect effects between five latent variables (i.e., PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP) and purchase intention (PI) were tested.

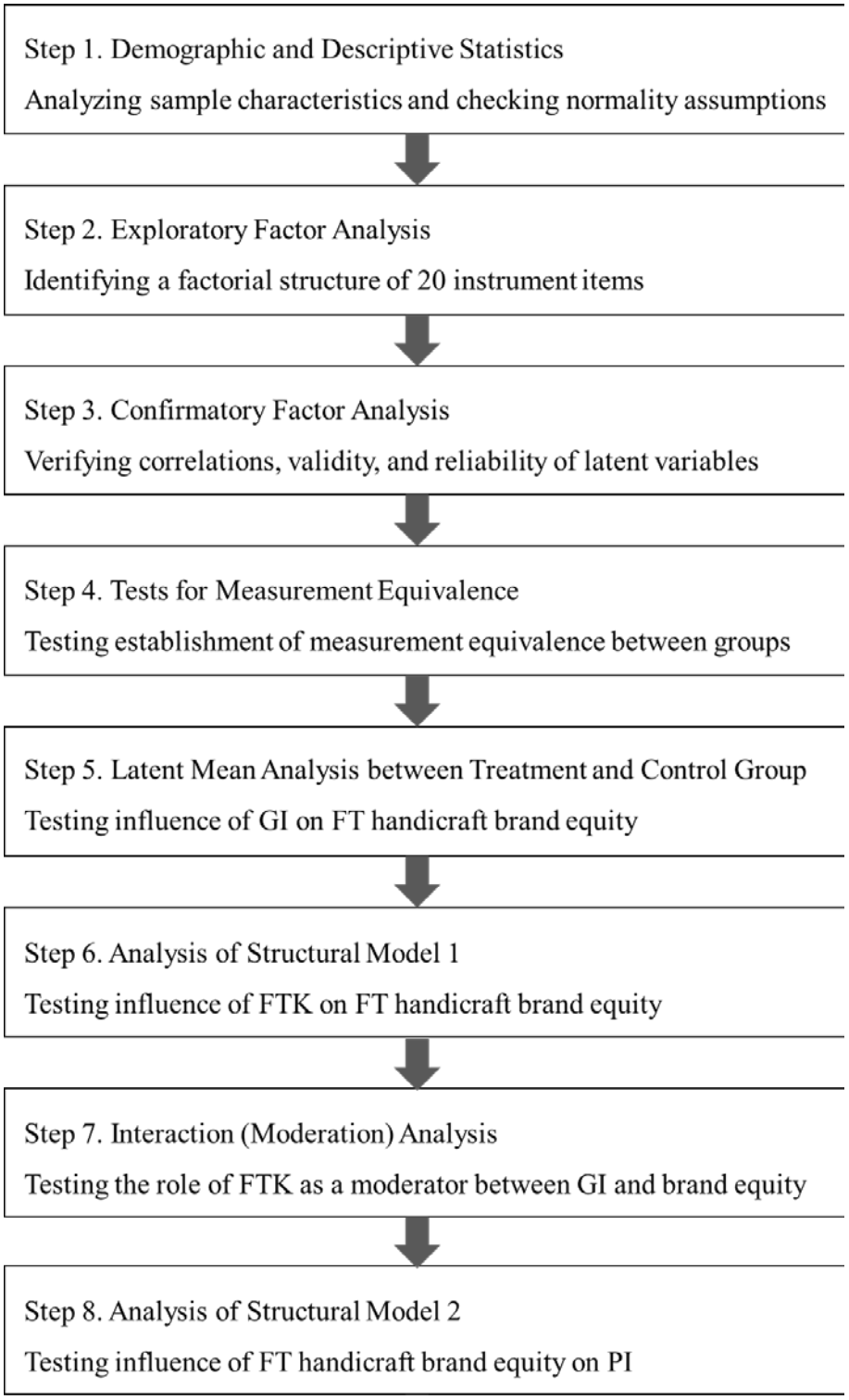

Figure 14. Data Analysis Procedure
Note. GI = Geographical Indication; FT = Fair Trade; FTK = Fair Trade Knowledge; PI = Purchase Intention.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In this chapter, in order to test proposed models and hypotheses in the study, the following analysis results are presented: (a) demographic, descriptive statistics, and assumption of normality, (b) results for the EFA, (c) results for the CFA, (d) results for the test of measurement equivalence, and (e) assessing research models and hypothesis testing.

Demographic, Descriptive Statistics, and Assumption of Normality

Demographic Descriptions

The demographic information of the survey sample was examined by the frequency of age, education, race, household income, and place of residence. The average age was 50.04 years. By age group, 45 respondents (21.8%) were between 60 and 69 years old, followed by 32 respondents (15.5%) were at the age of between 20 and 29, and 32 respondents (15.5%) between 70 and 79. The majority of the respondents were Caucasians (75.7%) with 156, followed by African American (13.6%) with 28, Asian (6.55%) with 10. Sixty-one participants had associate degrees (29.6%), fifty nine were high school graduates (28.6%), and fifty-five had bachelor's degrees (26.7%). The largest number of respondents with 69 (33.5%) was in the income level of more than $25,000 and less than $50,000, followed by 68 respondents (33.0%) with the income level more than $50,000 – $100,000.

Participants' residence was spread throughout the United States. Florida had the largest number of residents, followed by New York, Texas, California, New Jersey, Illinois, North Carolina, and Georgia. Figure. 15 shows the visualized result of

distribution of the sample's residence on the map using GIS technology. Also, Table 6 shows the detailed demographic description.

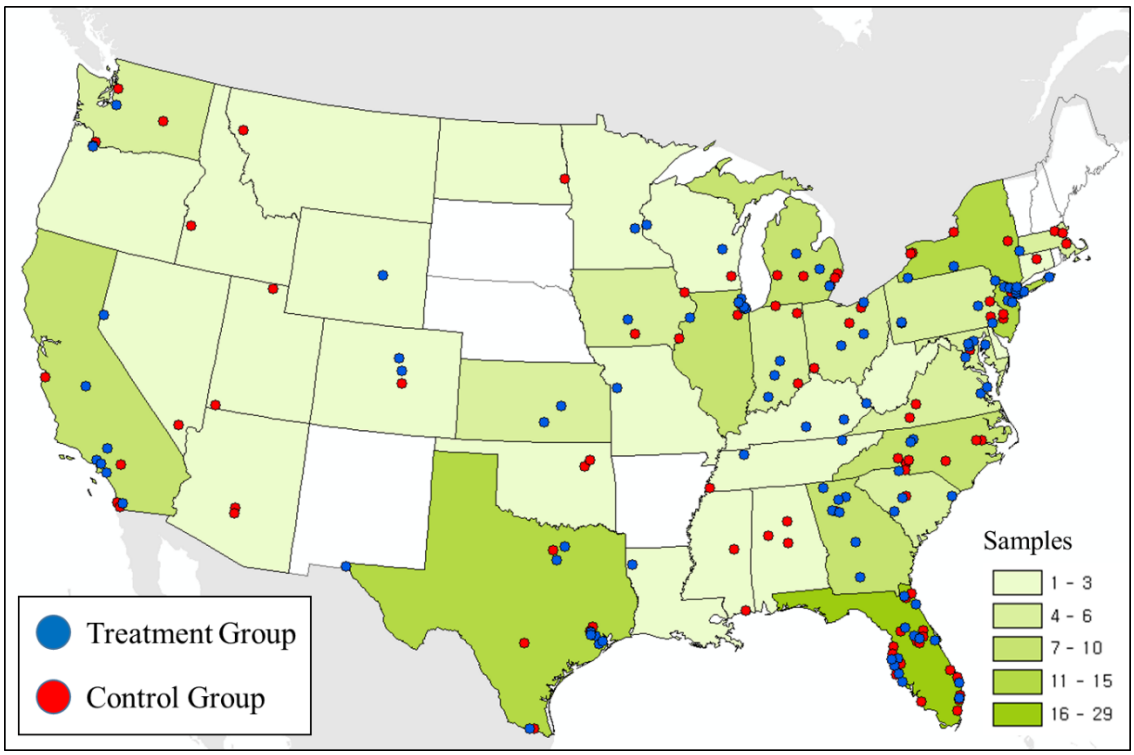

Figure 15. The Distribution of the Samples' Residence
Note. White indicates no sample.

Table 6. Demographic Descriptions

Item	**Group**		
	Treatment (*N* = 104)	**Control (*N* = 102)**	**Total (*N* = 206)**
Gender			
Female	104 (50.5%)	102 (49.5%)	206 (100%)
Age Group			
18 – 19	2 (1.9%)	2 (2.0%)	4 (2.0%)
20 – 29	20 (19.2%)	12 (11.8%)	32 (15.5%)
30 – 39	20 (19.2%)	11 (10.8%)	31 (15.0%)
40 – 49	20 (11.5%)	10 (9.8%)	30 (14.6%)
50 – 59	12 (11.5%)	15 (14.7%)	27 (13.1%)
60 – 69	21 (20.1%)	24 (23.5%)	45 (21.8%)
70 – 79	8 (7.7%)	24 (23.5%)	32 (15.5%)
Over 80	1 (1.0%)	4 (3.9%)	5 (2.4%)
Ethnicity			
African-American	16 (15.4%)	12 (11.8%)	28 (13.6%)
Asian	9 (8.7%)	1 (1.0%)	10 (4.9%)
Caucasian	71 (68.3%)	85 (83.3%)	156 (75.7%)
Latino or Hispanic	6 (5.8%)	3 (2.9%)	9 (4.4%)
Native American	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1 (1.0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.5%)
Two or More	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Other/Unknown	1 (1.0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.5%)
Prefer not to say	0 (0%)	1 (0%)	1 (0.5%)
Level of Education			
Less Than High School	4 (3.8%)	0 (0%)	4 (1.9%)
High School	28 (26.9%)	31(30.4%)	59 (28.6%)
Associate Degree	29 (27.9%)	32(31.4%)	61 (29.6%)
Bachelor's Degree	30 (28.8%)	25 (24.5%)	55 (26.7%)
Master's or Professional Degree	13 (12.5%)	13 (12.7%)	26 (12.6%)
Doctorate	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Prefer not to say	0 (0%)	1 (1.0%)	1 (0.5%)
Annual Household Income			
Less than $25,000	16 (15.4%)	16 (15.7%)	32 (15.5%)
More than $25,000 - $50,000	33 (31.7%)	36 (35.3%)	69 (33.5%)
More than $50,000 - $100,000	35 (33.7%)	33 (32.4%)	68 (33.0%)
More than $100,000 - $200,000	13 (12.5%)	11 (10.8%)	24 (11.7%)
More than $200,000	4 (3.8%)	0 (0%)	4 (1.9%)
Prefer not to say	3 (2.9%)	6 (5.9%)	9 (4.4%)

Descriptive Statistics

Table 7 indicates the descriptive statistics for the entire sample group, and Table 8 compares the descriptive statistics for treatment and control groups. Table 9 shows the Pearson correlation matrix of 20 items for PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP, and PI, and Figure 16 visualizes the correlation matrix. Additionally, the multicollinearity of the data was checked with variance inflation factors (VIF). In general, a VIF between 1 and 10 is considered to have no multicollinearity. All VIF of the items in this analysis was less than 10, so it was considered to have no multicollinearity (See Table 7).

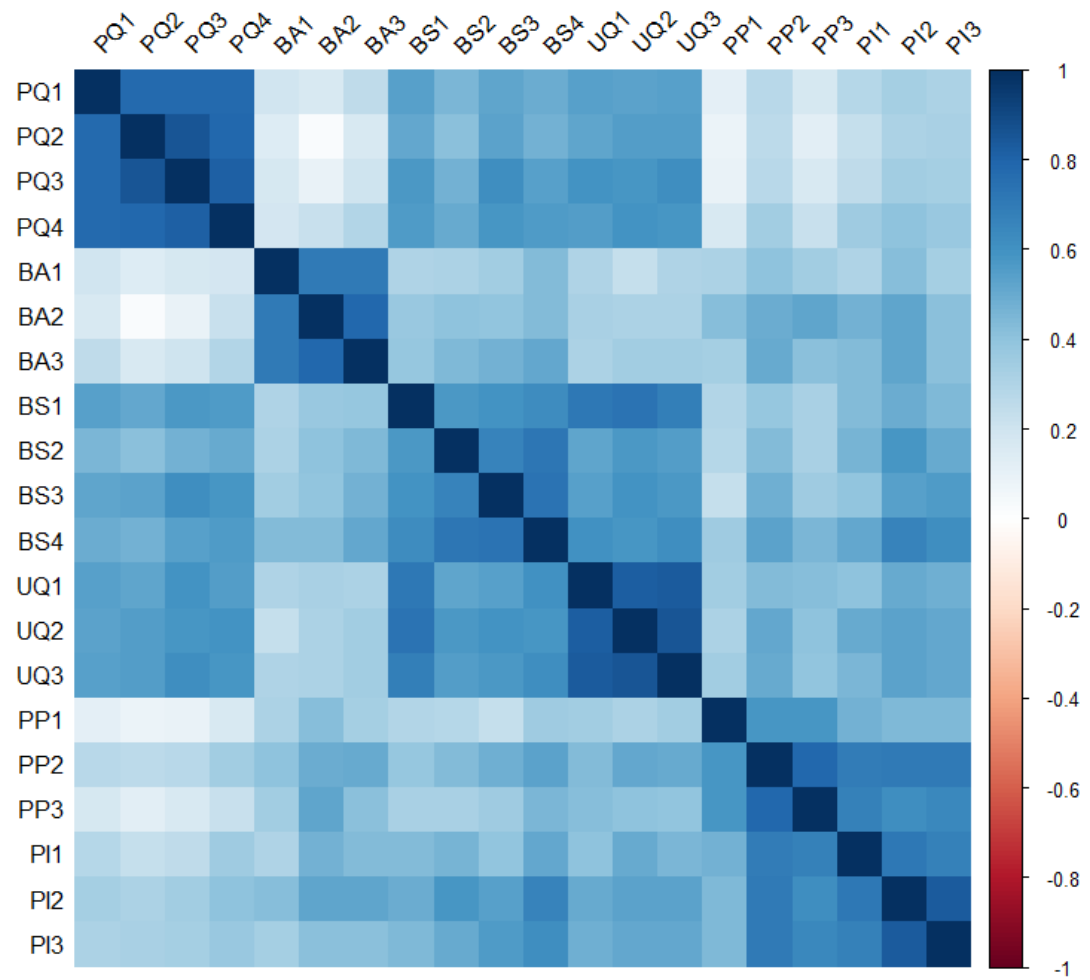

Figure 16. Visualization of Pearson Correlation Matrix among Variables
Note. PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics and Variance Inflation Factor

Items	Min	Max	Mean	*SE*	*SD*	VAR	Skewness	Kurtosis.	VIF
Brand Equity and Purchase Intention									
PQ1	1	7	5.772	.089	1.273	1.621	-.981	3.801	3.342
PQ2	1	7	6.087	.088	1.262	1.592	-1.505	4.923	4.824
PQ3	2	7	6.102	.078	1.115	1.243	-1.291	4.379	6.008
PQ4	1	7	5.937	.083	1.190	1.416	-1.228	4.403	4.376
BA1	1	7	4.888	.099	1.432	2.051	-.718	3.534	2.613
BA2	1	7	4.223	.110	1.583	2.506	-.097	-3.475	4.112
BA3	1	7	4.607	.105	1.506	2.269	-.501	-3.171	3.431
BS1	3	7	5.612	.076	1.089	1.185	-.278	-3.955	2.924
BS2	1	7	5.301	.090	1.287	1.655	-.342	-3.445	2.568
BS3	3	7	5.583	.081	1.165	1.357	-.314	-4.066	3.232
BS4	3	7	5.510	.081	1.168	1.363	-.265	-4.136	3.768
UQ1	2	7	5.612	.079	1.128	1.273	-.487	-3.556	5.340
UQ2	2	7	5.529	.085	1.212	1.470	-.442	-3.741	6.308
UQ3	2	7	5.670	.078	1.125	1.266	-.607	-3.343	5.006
PP1	1	7	4.471	.101	1.454	2.114	-.187	3.076	1.760
PP2	1	7	4.587	.102	1.462	2.136	-.534	3.259	4.245
PP3	1	7	4.194	.113	1.623	2.635	-.249	-3.445	3.830
PI1	1	7	4.694	.095	1.361	1.852	-.158	3.032	2.991
PI2	1	7	5.010	.091	1.307	1.707	-.349	3.361	4.815
PI3	1	7	5.078	.096	1.370	1.877	-.590	3.446	4.268
Fair Trade Knowledge									
True	0	10	6.796	.215	3.087	9.529	-.998	3.079	1.382
False	6	10	5.976	.269	3.869	14.970	-.865	-3.170	1.409
I don’t know	0	6	.820	.107	1.534	2.353	1.927	5.764	Excluded

Note. SE = standard error; *SD* = standard deviation; VAR = variance; VIF = variance inflation factor; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention. Kurtosis values were +3 added from SPSS reporting values.

Table 8. Comparison of Descriptive Statistics between Treatment and Control Group

Items	Treatment Group						Control Group					
	Min	**Max**	**Mean**	***SE***	***SD***	**VAR**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	***SE***	***SD***	**VAR**
Brand Equity and Purchase Intention												
PQ1	1	7	5.750	.124	1.260	1.587	1	7	5.794	.128	1.292	1.670
PQ2	1	7	6.029	.132	1.347	1.815	2	7	6.147	.116	1.172	1.374
PQ3	2	7	6.067	.114	1.160	1.345	2	7	6.137	.106	1.072	1.149
PQ4	2	7	5.875	.121	1.236	1.528	1	7	6.000	.113	1.143	1.307
BA1	1	7	4.933	.128	1.309	1.714	1	7	4.843	.154	1.553	2.411
BA2	1	7	4.394	.154	1.573	2.474	1	7	4.049	.157	1.582	2.503
BA3	1	7	4.644	.146	1.487	2.212	1	7	4.569	.152	1.532	2.347
BS1	3	7	5.644	.103	1.051	1.105	3	7	5.578	.112	1.130	1.276
BS2	1	7	5.365	.128	1.300	1.690	1	7	5.235	.126	1.276	1.627
BS3	3	7	5.654	.114	1.164	1.355	4	7	5.510	.116	1.167	1.361
BS4	3	7	5.587	.116	1.179	1.390	4	7	5.431	.115	1.156	1.337
UQ1	2	7	5.596	.110	1.119	1.253	3	7	5.627	.113	1.143	1.305
UQ2	2	7	5.481	.122	1.246	1.553	3	7	5.578	.117	1.181	1.395
UQ3	2	7	5.654	.114	1.164	1.355	3	7	5.686	.108	1.090	1.188
PP1	1	7	4.596	.138	1.411	1.991	1	7	4.343	.148	1.493	2.228
PP2	1	7	4.779	.148	1.507	2.271	1	7	4.392	.138	1.394	1.944
PP3	1	7	4.433	.162	1.653	2.733	1	7	3.951	.155	1.563	2.443
PI1	1	7	4.846	.130	1.320	1.743	1	7	4.539	.138	1.391	1.934
PI2	1	7	5.106	.128	1.307	1.707	1	7	4.912	.129	1.306	1.705
PI3	1	7	5.260	.140	1.428	2.039	1	7	4.892	.128	1.289	1.662
Fair Trade Knowledge												
True	0	10	6.971	.265	2.704	7.310	0	10	6.618	.341	3.438	11.823
False	6	10	5.990	.361	3.683	13.563	6	10	5.961	.403	4.069	16.553
I don’t know	0	6	.981	.159	1.619	2.621	0	6	.657	.142	1.432	2.049

Note. *SE* = standard error; *SD* = standard deviation; VAR = variance; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention.

Table 9. Correlation Matrix of Variables for PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP, and PI

	PQ1	PQ2	PQ3	PQ4	BA1	BA2	BA3	BS1	BS2	BS3	BS4	UQ1	UQ2	UQ3	PP1	PP2	PP3	PI1	PI2	PI3
PQ1	1																			
PQ2	.772**	1																		
PQ3	.779**	.857**	1																	
PQ4	.779**	.787**	.818**	1																
BA1	.197**	.140*	.175*	.188**	1															
BA2	.163*	.027	.098	.225**	.706**	1														
BA3	.256**	.162*	.207**	.294**	.705**	.782**	1													
BS1	.548**	.518**	.575**	.561**	.301**	.373**	.385**	1												
BS2	.459**	.419**	.475**	.503**	.315**	.403**	.449**	.571**	1											
BS3	.524**	.533**	.615**	.583**	.346**	.395**	.470**	.591**	.667**	1										
BS4	.495**	.476**	.544**	.564**	.434**	.437**	.514**	.621**	.722**	.735**	1									
UQ1	.546**	.524**	.598**	.552**	.302**	.322**	.314**	.719**	.528**	.544**	.603**	1								
UQ2	.534**	.553**	.584**	.598**	.236**	.319**	.344**	.737**	.573**	.596**	.580**	.829**	1							
UQ3	.546**	.553**	.614**	.589**	.304**	.315**	.343**	.683**	.554**	.579**	.619**	.832**	.851**	1						
PP1	.114	.081	.100	.164*	.316**	.422**	.334**	.298**	.284**	.232**	.355**	.341**	.315**	.346**	1					
PP2	.279**	.263**	.274**	.350**	.402**	.491**	.504**	.386**	.440**	.480**	.538**	.435**	.517**	.507**	.581**	1				
PP3	.173*	.123	.170*	.229**	.349**	.526**	.418**	.322**	.329**	.355**	.457**	.428**	.409**	.396**	.585**	.784**	1			
PI1	.280**	.237**	.255**	.356**	.308**	.478**	.431**	.440**	.465**	.393**	.513**	.402**	.507**	.459**	.470**	.694**	.678**	1		
PI2	.336**	.319**	.344**	.402**	.423**	.520**	.527**	.493**	.582**	.548**	.665**	.502**	.539**	.536**	.450**	.705**	.613**	.718**	1	
PI3	.318**	.326**	.340**	.371**	.338**	.410**	.419**	.442**	.501**	.562**	.616**	.484**	.513**	.517**	.442**	.708**	.649**	.677**	.836**	1

Note. Significance levels are * $p < .05$ and ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed). PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention.

Next, the distribution of correct and incorrect answers of 10 questions about FTK was analyzed (See Table 10). Among the three dimensions that make up the 10 FTK questions, the correct answer rate of question 4, 5, and 6, which are related to environmental concerns, was relatively lower than the correct answer rate of other questions such as FT definition and social aspect. In particular, the incorrect answer rate (60%) of question 5, “Fair Trade does not use substances that have undergone genetic modifications,” was higher than the correct answer rate (40%).

Table 10. The Distribution of Responses for Fair Trade Knowledge

Question	Response				
	True	***False***	***I don't know***	**Correct %**	**Incorrect %**
Definition					
1. Fair Trade aims to create better trading conditions for workers in developing countries.	167	10	29	81	19
2. Fair Trade endeavors to pay more honest prices to producers in developing countries.	151	19	36	73	27
3. Fair Trade strives for sustainable development of excluded and/or disadvantaged producers in developing countries.	153	12	41	74	26
Environmental Concern					
4. Fair Trade follows environmentally sustainable practices during production.	134	17	55	65	35
5. Fair Trade does not use substances that have undergone genetic modifications.	83	26	97	40	60
6. Fair Trade uses sustainable energy resources.	109	19	78	53	47
Social Aspect					
7. Fair Trade takes account of workers' social rights.	156	15	35	76	24
8. In Fair Trade, workers are not exploited.	155	16	35	75	25
9. Fair Trade companies maintain good working conditions and fair wages for workers.	160	12	34	78	22
10. In Fair Trade, profits are not the only thing that matters.	132	23	51	64	36

Note. *True* is correct answer; *False* is incorrect answer; *I don't know* is considered incorrect answer.

Assumption of Normality

The skewness and kurtosis of this study data satisfied the standard of skewness values < |3| and kurtosis values < |8| proposed by Kline (2015), and accordingly satisfying an assumption of univariate normality (See Table 7). However, as a result of checking the Mardia's coefficient using AMOS, the assumption of multivariate normality was not satisfied (*multivariate kurtosis* = 127.122, *critical ratio* = 32.294). Maximum likelihood, the estimation method in SEM, assumes multivariate normality of data. When multivariate normality is not satisfied, applying maximum likelihood estimation results in increases in statistics of chi-square and critical ratio (*C.R.*) in significance of coefficient (Bae, 2017). Hair et al. (2019, p. 769) state that *"Maximum likelihood estimation in CB-SEM is fairly robust against violations of normality, and procedures are available for parameter estimation with non-normal distributions."* Thus, this study used the maximum likelihood estimation and applied the bootstrapping approach which does not require data in normal distribution. The number of resampling when performing bootstrapping for analyses was set to 5,000 according to the recommendation of a previous study (Hayes, 2013).

Factor Analysis and Measurement Equivalence

Exploratory Factor Analysis

To explore the factorial structure in the data, all 20 items of the instrument were conducted to an EFA with maximum likelihood extraction and oblique (direct oblimin) rotation. The number of factors was fixed as six. Table 11 shows factor loadings of measurement items.

Table 11. Exploratory Factor Analysis of Measurement Items

Item	**Factor Loading**					
	Factor 1	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**	**Factor 4**	**Factor 5**	**Factor 6**
PP1	**.370**	-.092	.138	-.164	.141	.011
PP2	**.418**	.092	.100	-.057	**.404**	.000
PP3	**.950**	.042	.011	.026	.034	-.084
PQ1	.002	**.826**	.076	-.034	-.022	.013
PQ2	-.035	**.939**	-.073	-.003	.076	.048
PQ3	.042	**.863**	-.056	-.043	-.070	-.113
PQ4	.016	**.822**	.079	-.025	.026	-.023
BA1	-.028	.043	**.797**	.019	-.020	-.012
BA2	.111	-.08	**.877**	-.061	-.019	.030
BA3	-.046	.043	**.836**	.042	.063	-.07
UQ1	.104	.017	-.025	**-.869**	-.105	-.072
UQ2	-.036	.029	-.016	**-.921**	.094	.058
UQ3	-.031	.048	-.006	**-.858**	.064	-.006
PI1	.221	.057	.087	-.098	**.554**	.056
PI2	-.068	.007	.107	-.045	**.813**	-.118
PI3	.088	.039	-.071	-.005	**.764**	-.155
BS1	-.052	.080	.104	**-.594**	-.031	-.194
BS2	-.059	-.031	.054	-.136	.102	**-.645**
BS3	.037	.191	.061	-.024	.024	**-.627**
BS4	.102	.018	.020	-.016	.060	**-.802**
KMO and Bartlett Sphericity Test						
KMO = .922, Bartlett's χ^2 = 3710.596, *df* = 190, $p < .001$						
Goodness of Fit Indices						
χ^2 = 144.519, *df* = 85, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .058						

Note. The number of factors to extract is six. Extraction method is maximum likelihood. Rotation method is direct oblimin. Factor loadings were from the pattern matrix. Bold indicates factor loading > |.3|. PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention; *df* = degree of freedom; KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

The three items, PP1, PP2, and PP3, loaded onto factor three related to PP. Four items, PQ1, PQ2, PQ3, and PQ4, loaded onto factor two related to PQ. Three items, BA1, BA2, and BA3, loaded onto factor two related to BA. Four items, UQ1, UQ2, UQ3, and BS1, onto factor four related to UQ. The three items, PI1, PI2, and

PI3, loaded onto factor five related to PI. Three items, BS2, BS3, and BS4, loaded onto factor six related to BS. All items excluding BS1 were appropriately loaded onto each factor related to PQ, BS, BS, UQ, PP, and PI. However, factor loading of BS1 onto factor six related BS was low as -.194, whereas, in factor four, which was related UQ, the factor loading of BS1 was high as -.594. In addition, Table 9 showed that BS1 was strongly correlated with UQ1 ($\rho_{BS1,\ UQ1}$ = .719), UQ2 ($\rho_{BS1,\ UQ2}$ = .737), and UQ3 ($\rho_{BS1,\ UQ3}$ = .683). This is because the respondents recognized that the image associated with the word *unique* included in the question content of BS1 is similar to the attributes of the question context of UQ1, UQ2, and UQ3. Factor loading of .3 to .4 are minimally accepted (Hair et al., 2019). Thus, BS1 was removed from the study model. Table 12 shows the results of EFA performance after BS1 removal.

Table 12. Factor Loadings and Reliability after the Item Excluding

Factor	Factor Loading	Communalities	Variance %	Cronbach's α
Factor 1			49.465	.848
PP1	.365	.386	(49.465)	
PP2	.419	.735		
PP3	.950	.999		
Factor 2			15.626	.939
PQ1	.828	.726	(65.091)	
PQ2	.937	.848		
PQ3	.854	.876		
PQ4	.819	.783		
Factor 3			7.343	.890
BA1	.801	.620	(72.434)	
BA2	.869	.835		
BA3	.837	.781		
Factor 4			4.600	.939
UQ1	-.859	.820	(77.035)	
UQ2	-.990	.852		
UQ3	-.878	.855		
Factor 5			4.308	.896
PI1	.563	.726	(81.343)	
PI2	.816	.848		
PI3	.755	.876.		
Factor 6			2.973	.877
BS2	-.686	.641	(84.316)	(.881)[a]
BS3	-.684	.703		
BS4	-.808	.810		
KMO and Bartlett Sphericity Test				
KMO = .914, Bartlett's χ^2 = 3505.646, *df* = 171, *p* < .001				
Chi-square Test				
χ^2 = 129.213, *df* = 72, *p* < .001, RMSEA = .062				

Note. The number of factors to extract is six. Extraction method is maximum likelihood. Rotation method is direct oblimin. Factor loadings were from the pattern matrix. ( ) indicates cumulative percentile of variance. [a]Cronbach's α before BS1 excluding. PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention; *df* = degree of freedom; KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Six factors explained a total of 84.316% of the variance for the entire set of variables. An examination of KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity suggested that

correlation structure was adequate for factor analyses, KMO = .914 and Bartlett's χ^2 (171) = 3505.646, $p < .001$. The goodness of fit of the model was acceptable, χ^2 = 129.213, $df = 72$, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .062. Also, all factors had a Cronbach's $\alpha > .80$, which was indicating strong internal consistency of the respective measurement items.

Assessing Measurement Model

The measurement model was made with 6 latent variables (i.e., PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP, PI) and 19 measurement items, and CFA was performed (See Figure 17). The goodness of fit of the model was acceptable, χ^2 ($df = 137$, $N = 206$) = 252.953, $p < .001$, CFI = .967, GFI = .882, TLI = .958, RMSEA = .064, SRMR = .040. Next, AVE and CR were calculated to verify the convergent validity of measurement items. The cutoff values for AVE was over .40 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and for CR was over .70 (Hair et al., 2019). All values of latent variables appeared to be acceptable, AVE > .60, CR > .80 (See Table 13).

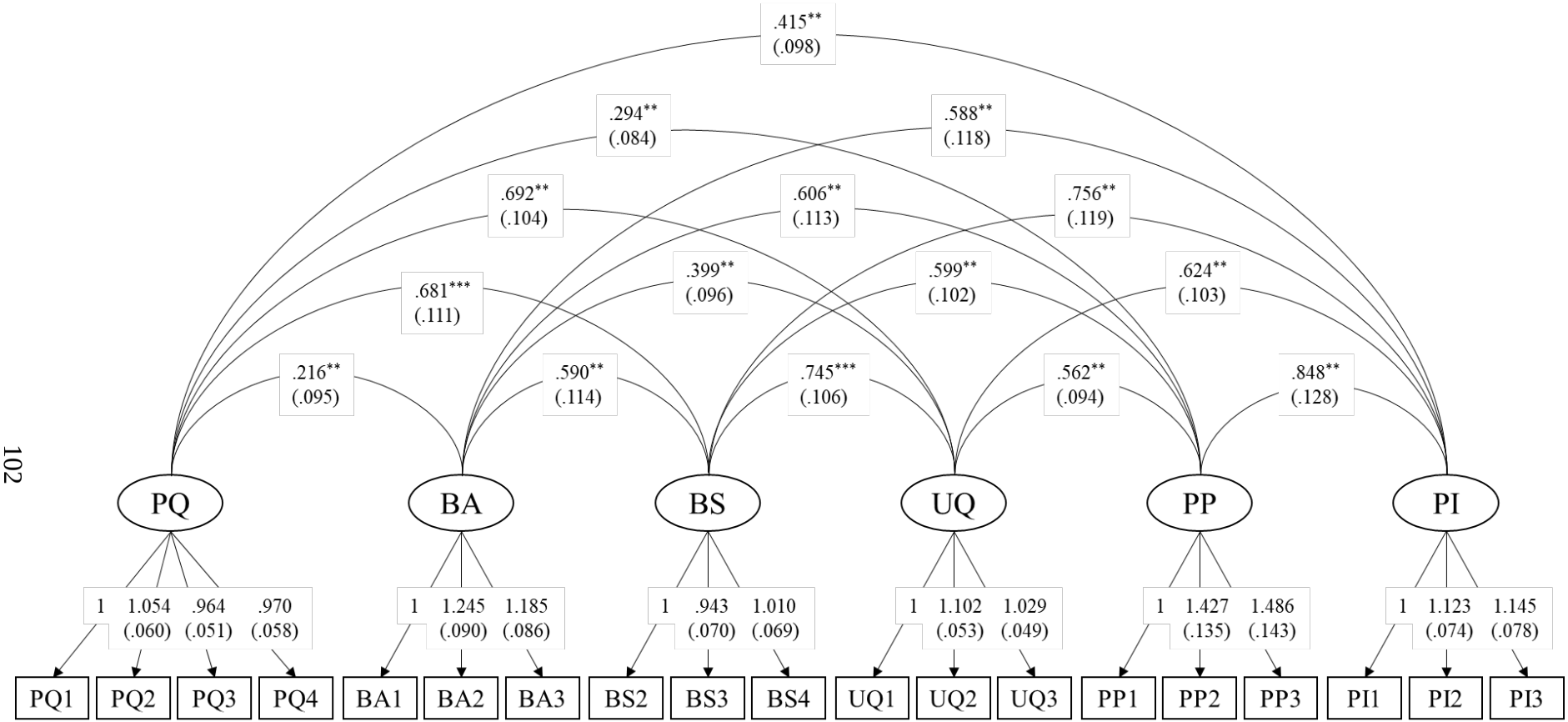

Figure 17. The Measurement Model with Correlations and Coefficients for Fair Trade Handicraft Brand Equity and Purchase Intention
Note. Significance levels are $^{**}p < .01$ and $^{***}p < .001$ (2-tailed). All path coefficients of measurement variables were significant, $p < .001$. ( ) = standard error; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention.

Table 13. The Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Latent Construct	**Path**			***B***	**β**	***SE***	***C.R.***	**Bootstrapping**			
								95% CI of *B*	**95% CI of β**	***SE*[a]**	***SE*[b]**
Perceived Quality	PQ1	→	PQ	1	.850				[.771, .908]		.034
AVE = .798	PQ2	→	PQ	1.054	.904	.060	17.638***	[.965, 1.171]	[.857, .940]	.052	.021
CR = .941	PQ3	→	PQ	.964	.936	.051	18.816***	[.870, 1.076]	[.886, .968]	.052	.020
	PQ4	→	PQ	.970	.882	.058	16.358***	[.885, 1.068]	[.807, .929]	.046	.031
Brand Awareness	BA1	→	BA	1	.788				[.698, .858]		.041
AVE = .732	BA2	→	BA	1.245	.888	.090	13.856***	[1.079, 1.491]	[.820, .935]	.106	.029
CR = .891	BA3	→	BA	1.185	.887	.086	13.853***	[1.035, 1.400]	[.831, .932]	.091	.026
Brand Association	BS2	→	BS	1	.800				[.718, .861]		.035
AVE = .710	BS3	→	BS	.943	.834	.070	13.398***	[.823, 1.086]	[.761, .890]	.067	.033
CR = .880	BS4	→	BS	1.010	.891	.069	14.571***	[.899, 1.155]	[.844, .927]	.065	.021
Uniqueness	UQ1	→	UQ	1	.898				[.845, .935]		.023
AVE = .837	UQ2	→	UQ	1.102	.921	.053	20.791***	[1.013, 1.201]	[.883, .952]	.048	.017
CR = .939	UQ3	→	UQ	1.029	.926	.049	21.073***	[.945, 1.130]	[.890, .954]	.047	.016
Willing to Pay a Price Premium	PP1	→	PP	1	.645				[.485, .776]		.074
AVE = .664	PP2	→	PP	1.427	.916	.135	10.601***	[1.131, 1.941]	[.867, .952]	.200	.021
CR = .853	PP3	→	PP	1.486	.859	.143	10.212***	[1.196, 1.964]	[.790, .910]	.198	.031
Purchase Intention	PI1	→	PI	1	.787				[.687, .860]		.044
AVE = .756	PI2	→	PI	1.123	.921	.074	15.142***	[.975, 1.343]	[.872, .958]	.093	.022
CR = .903	PI3	→	PI	1.145	.895	.078	14.634***	[.989, 1.375]	[.844, .934]	.098	.023
Goodness of Fit Indices: χ^2 (*df* = 137, *N* = 206) = 252.953, *p* < .001, CFI = .967, GFI = .882, TLI = .958, RMSEA = .064, SRMR = .040											

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. Significance level is *** *p* < .001 (2-tailed). AVE = average variance extracted; CR = composite reliability; *B* = unstandardized estimate; β = standardized estimate; *SE* = standard error; *C.R.* = critical ratio; CI = confidence interval; [a]Unstanardized; [b]Standardized; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention. [ ] indicates confidence interval using 5,000 bootstrap samples at 95% bias-corrected percentile.

To test discriminant validity of measurement items, squared correlation between latent variables and AVE were examined, and the results are shown in Table 14. The discriminant validity was confirmed as AVE values were higher than the squared correlations in the majority of cases (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2019). However, the correlation coefficient between PP and PI was .848. Also, the value of squared correlation was .719, which was higher than the value of PP's AVE, .664.

Table 14. Squared Correlations with Average Variance Extracted

Latent Variable						
	PQ	BA	BS	UQ	PP	PI
PQ	**.798**					
BA	.047**	**.732**				
	(.095)					
BS	.464***	.348**	**.710**			
	(.111)	(.114)				
UQ	.479**	.159**	.555***	**.837**		
	(.104)	(.096)	(.106)			
PP	.086**	.367**	.359**	.316**	**.664**	
	(.084)	(.113)	(.102)	(.094)		
PI	.172**	.346**	.572**	.389**	.719**	**.756**
	(.098)	(.118)	(.119)	(.103)	(.128)	

Note. Significance levels are ** $p < .01$ and *** $p < .001$ (2-tailed). ( ) indicates standard error. Bold indicates AVE; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention.

Tests for Measurement Equivalence

In order to perform multi-group CFA, five models were created: configural, measurement, scalar, structural, and residual invariance. Table 15 indicates the evaluation results of the model.

Table 15. Comparison of Goodness of Fit Test for Multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model	χ^2	***df***	**CFI**	**TLI**	**RMSEA**
Model 1 (Base Model) Configural Invariance	438.326	274	.953	.941	.054
Model 2 Measurement Invariance	450.799	287	.953	.944	.053
Model 3 Scalar Invariance	467.731	306	.954	.948	.051
Model 4 Structural Invariance	486.611	327	.954	.952	.049
Model 5 Residual Invariance	512.554	346	.952	.953	.049

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. *df* = degree of freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

The configural invariance model (*Model 1*) constraining the paths shows that whether the latent constructs are indicated by certain measurements held across two groups (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The measurement invariance model (*Model 2*) with constraining factor loadings of items on the constructs shows that whether the relation of latent constructs with measured indicators held across two groups (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The goodness of fit of the *Model 1* with all parameters free was acceptable (χ^2 = 438.326, *df* = 274, CFI = .953, TLI > .941, RMSEA = .054). The goodness of fit of *Model 2* was also good, and it improved compared to *Model 1* (χ^2 = 450.799, *df* = 287, CFI = .953, TLI > .944, RMSEA = .053). A chi-square difference test showed that the χ^2 difference between *Model 1* and *Model 2* was not statistically significant, so metric invariance was confirmed, $\Delta\chi^2$ (*df* = 13, *N* = 206) = 12.472, *p* = .489. Next, *Model 3* was created and scalar invariance was tested. The scalar invariance model (*Model 3*) with constraining factor loadings and intercepts of

items on the constructs shows that whether the intercept means of items that load on the latent construct hold across two groups (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). The goodness of fit of *Model 3* was acceptable and increased compared to *Model 2* (χ^2 = 467.731, *df* = 306, CFI = .954, TLI > .948, RMSEA = .051). A chi-square difference test showed that the χ^2 difference between *Model 2* and *Model 3* was not significant, so scalar invariance was also established, $\Delta\chi^2$ (*df* = 19, *N* = 206) = 16.932, *p* = .594. Generally, conducting configural, metric, and scalar invariance is sufficient for establishing measurement equivalence (Milfont & Fischer, 2010). Thus, it turned out that comparing the two groups in the same measure of conceptually similar way was valid. In the subsequent test of structural invariance ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 18.880, *p* = .593) and residual invariance ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 25.943, *p* = .132), there was no significant difference in χ^2 between models. Table 16 shows the results of chi-square test for fit indices differences between models.

Table 16. The Results of Invariance Tests

Invariance Test (Δ)	**$\Delta\chi^2$**	**ΔCFI**	**ΔTLI**	**ΔRMSEA**
Measure Invariance				
Model 2 – Model 1	12.472 (*df* = 13, *p* = .489)	.000	.003	-.001
Scalar Invariance				
Model 3 – Model 2	16.932 (*df* = 19, *p* = .594)	.001	.004	-.002
Structural Invariance				
Model 4 – Model 3	18.880 (*df* = 21, *p* = .593)	.000	.004	-.002
Residual Invariance				
Model 5 – Model 4	25.943 (*df* = 19, *p* = .132)	-.002	.001	.000

Note. *df* = degree of freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Hypothesis Testing

The Effect of Geographical Indication

The mean difference of latent variables between the treatment group exposed to GI and the control group not exposed to GI was analyzed, and based on these results, the effect of GI on PQ, BA, BS, UQ, and PP was examined. In estimating the latent mean directly, it is necessary to assume the latent mean of one group as zero and then measure the relative size of the latent mean of another group. Therefore, in this study, the relative latent mean of the treatment group was measured after assuming that the latent mean of the control group was zero. *Model 3*, which was confirmed scalar invariance, was used to conduct the analysis. In latent mean analysis, the effect size is presented through Cohen's *d*. If Cohen's *d* is lower than .20, it indicates the small effect while higher than .80 is considered as a large effect (Cohen, 1988). Table 17 shows the results of latent mean analysis. The goodness of fit of the model was acceptable, χ^2 (*df* = 300, *N* = 206) = 459.051, $p < .001$, CFI = .955, TLI > .948, RMSEA = .051, SRMR = .048.

Table 17. The Results of Latent Mean Analysis

Hypothesis	Latent Variable	Latent Mean		Polled Variance	Cohen's *d*
		Control	Treatment		
H1	PQ	0	-.090	1.173	-.077
H2	BA	0	.159	1.252	.127
H3	BS	0	.150	1.082	.139
H4	UQ	0	-.052	1.034	-.050
H5	PP	0	.289*	.887	.326
	PI	0	.241	1.134	.213
Goodness of Fit Indices χ^2 (*df* = 300, *N* = 206) = 459.051, *p* < .001, CFI = .955, TLI = .948, RMSEA = .051, SRMR = .048					

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. Significance level is * *p* < .05 (2-tailed. PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention; *df* = degree of freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

Among the five latent variables (i.e., PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP) constituting FT textile and clothing handicraft brand equity, only PP showed statistically significant difference between the two groups, *p* = .039, latent mean = .289. The Cohen's *d* value of PP was .326, which was confirmed as the medium effect size. Therefore, the hypothesis *H5* below was supported.

***H5*: GI certification has a positive influence on *willingness to pay a price premium* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.**

The rest of the hypotheses *H1*, *H2*, *H3*, and *H4*, were rejected.

The Effect of Fair Trade Knowledge

To test the relationship between FTK level and PQ, BA, BS, and PP, a structural model was created and the model was assessed (See Figure 18).

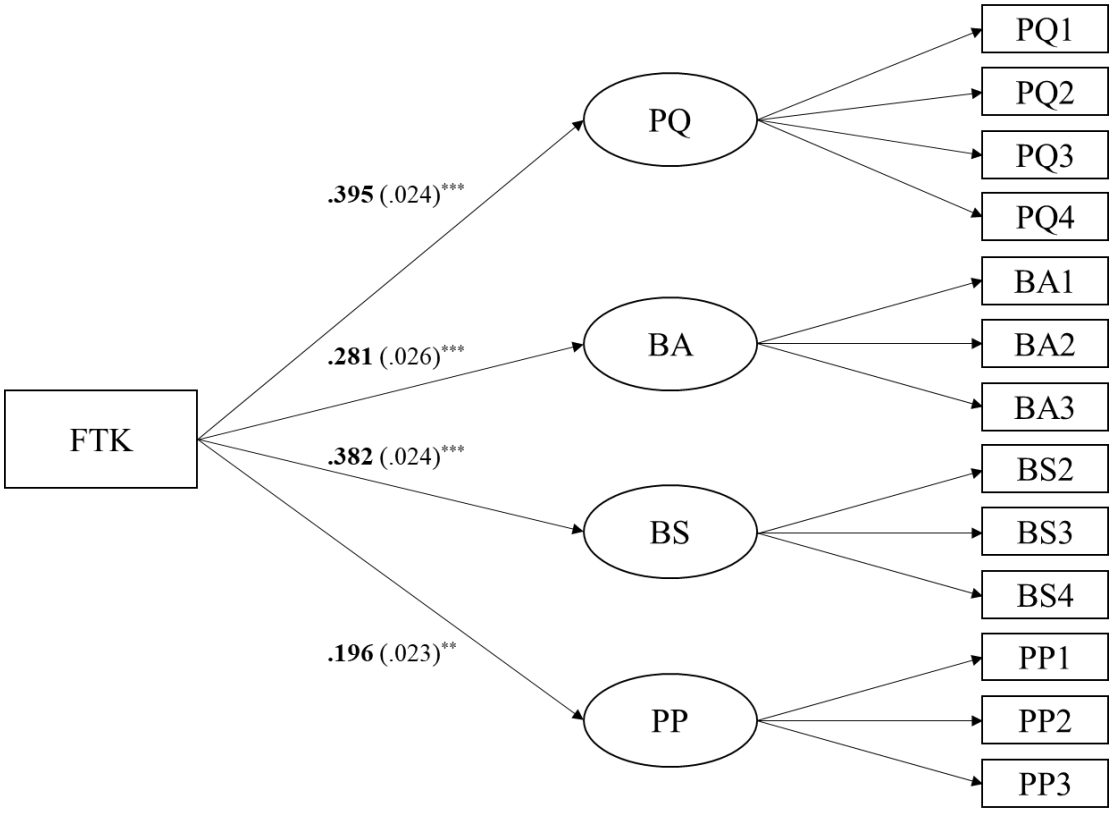

Figure 18. The Structural Model for Fair Trade Knowledge and Brand Equity with Path Coefficients.

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. Significance levels are $^{**}p < .01$ and $^{***}p < .001$ (2-tailed). Bold indicates standardized estimate. ( ) indicates standard error. FTK = Fair Trade Knowledge; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness, BS = Brand Association; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium.

As a result of the assessment, the goodness of fit of the model was acceptable, χ^2 (*df* = 68, *N* = 206) = 123.468, CFI = .973, TLI = .964, RMSEA = .063, SRMR = .044 (See Table 18).

Table 18. The Results of Assessing Structural Model for Fair Trade Knowledge and Fair Trade Handicraft Brand Equity

Hypothesis	**Path**			***B***	**β**	***SE***	***C.R.***
H6	FTK	→	PQ	.138	.395	.024	5.780***
H7	FTK	→	BA	.103	.281	.026	3.872***
H8	FTK	→	BS	.126	.382	.024	5.304***
H9	FTK	→	PP	.060	.196	.023	2.631**
Goodness of Fit Indices							
χ^2 (*df* = 68, *N* = 206) = 123.468, *p* < .001, CFI = .973, TLI = .964, RMSEA = .063, SRMR = .044							
Squared Multiple Correlation							
R^2 on PQ = .156, R^2 on BA = .079, R^2 on BS = .146, R^2 on PP = .156							

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. Significance levels are ** *p* < .01 and *** *p* < .001 (2-tailed). *B* = unstandardized estimate; β = standardized estimate; *SE* = *standard error*; *C.R.* = critical ratio; FTK = Fair Trade Knowledge; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness, BS = Brand Association; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; *df* = degree of freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

Table 19 showed 95 percentile confidence intervals of *B* and β using the bootstrapping approach.

Table 19. The Results of Bootstrapping for Fair Trade Knowledge and Fair Trade Handicraft Brand Equity

Path			***B***			**β**		
			95% CI	***SE***	**Sig.**	**95% CI**	***SE***	**Sig.**
FTK	→	PQ	[.078, .204]	.032	.000	[.242, .523]	.071	.000
FTK	→	BA	[.050, .156]	.027	.000	[.137, .412]	.069	.001
FTK	→	BS	[.078, .177]	.025	.000	[.246, .510]	.067	.000
FTK	→	PP	[.016, .108]	.023	.006	[.050, .326]	.070	.007

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. *B* = unstandardized estimate; β = standardized estimate; *SE* = standard error; CI = confidence interval; Sig. = significance level; 000 = $p < .001$; FTK = Fair Trade Knowledge; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness, BS = Brand Association; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium. [ ] indicates confidence interval using 5,000 bootstrap samples at 95% bias-corrected percentile.
β

The results confirmed a positive influence of FTK on PQ ($p < .001$, *C.R.* = 5.780). The unstandardized estimate (*B*), which is a structural coefficient and indicates the amount of positive influence, was .138. The standardized estimate (β) was .395. The squared multiple correlation (SMC) presenting the explanation power of FTK and PQ relationship, was .156. The results also showed a positive influence of FTK on BA ($p < .001$, *C.R.* = 3.872). The values of *B*, β, and SMC were .103, .281, and .079 respectively. FTK and BS were positively related ($p < .001$, *C.R.* = 5.304) and the values of *B*, β, and SMC were .126, .382, and .146 respectively. The results indicated a positive influence of FTK on PP ($p < .001$, *C.R.* = 2.631). The value of *B* was .060, β value was .196, and SMC was .156.

Taken together, FTK positively impacts on PQ, BA, BS, and PP and thus supports the following hypotheses.

***H6*: FTK has a positive influence on *perceived quality* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.**

***H7*: FTK has a positive influence on *brand awareness* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.**

***H8*: FTK has a positive influence on *brand association* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.**

***H9*: FTK has a positive influence on *willing to pay a price premium* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.**

Interaction between Geographical Indication and Fair Trade Knowledge

In order to examine the moderating effect of FTK on the relationship between GI and consumers' perception of four elements of brand equity (i.e., PQ, BA, BS, PP), the interaction between GI and FTK was tested. The value of the interaction term was calculated by multiplying a variable of main effect and a variable of moderating effect. A mean centering method was used to solve multicollinearity problems that could occur in the analysis process, and thus, a mean centered variable was created and named as MC_FTK. The mean centered variable in the study, MC_FTK, was calculated for both treatment and control groups. The mean of FTK for the treatment group was 6.971 and for the control group was 6.681. In the analysis of FTK moderating effect, GI was a variable that distinguishes the treatment group from the control group, and the control group was coded 0 and the treatment group was coded 1. As stated above, interaction term was calculated by multiplying a variable of main effect and a variable of moderating effect. Therefore, by multiplying two variables, GI and MC_FTK, a new variable and interaction term, GI*MC_FTK, was created. The

structural model developed based on the conceptual model of this study is shown in Figure 19 below.

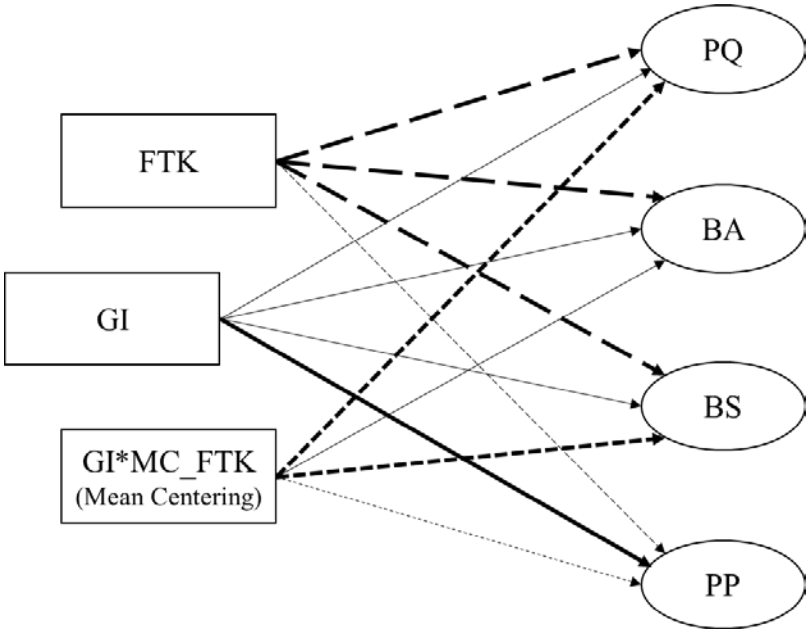

Figure 19. The Structural Model for Interaction between Geographical Indication and Fair Trade Knowledge

Note. Bold line is a path that is statistically significant, $p < .05$ (2-tailed). GI = Geographical Indication; FTK = Fair Trade Knowledge; GI*MC_FTK = Interaction between GI and FTK (mean centering); PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness, BS = Brand Association; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium.

The goodness of fit of the structural model was acceptable, χ^2 (*df* = 86, *N* = 206) = 134.714, *p* < .001, CFI = .978, TLI = .969, RMSEA = .053, SRMR = .041 (See Table 20).

Table 20. The Results of Assessing Structural Model for Interactions between Geographical Indication and Fair Trade Knowledge

Hypothesis	**Path**			***B***	**β**	***SE***	***C.R.***
H10	GI*MC_FTK	→	PQ	.127	.226	.047	2.700**
H11	GI*MC_FTK	→	BA	.081	.138	.053	1.526
H12	GI*MC_FTK	→	BS	.098	.184	.047	2.094*
H13	GI*MC_FTK	→	PP	.051	.103	.045	1.126
	GI	→	PQ	-.122	-.057	.141	-.867
	GI	→	BA	.128	.057	.159	.805
	GI	→	BS	.116	.057	.140	.831
	GI	→	PP	.277	.146	.138	2.010*
	FTK	→	PQ	.090	.258	.029	3.079**
	FTK	→	BA	.070	.193	.033	2.124*
	FTK	→	BS	.087	.264	.029	2.983**
	FTK	→	PP	.037	.122	.028	1.325

Goodness of Fit Indices

χ^2 (*df* = 86, *N* = 206) = 134.714, *p* < .001, CFI = .978, TLI = .969, RMSEA = .053, SRMR = .041

Squared Multiple Correlation

R^2 on PQ = .191, R^2 on BA = .093, R^2 on BS = .169, R^2 on PP= .065

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. Significance levels are * *p* < .05 and ** *p* < .01 (2-tailed). *B* = unstandardized estimate; β = standardized estimate; *SE* = standard error; *C.R.* = critical ratio; GI = Geographical Indication; FTK = Fair Trade Knowledge; GI*MC_FTK = Interaction between GI and FTK (mean centering); PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness, BS = Brand Association; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; *df* = degree of freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

Table 21 showed 95 percentile confidence intervals of *B* and β using the bootstrapping approach.

Table 21. The Results of Bootstrapping for Interaction Term

Path			***B***			**β**		
			95% CI	***SE***	**Sig.**	**95% CI**	***SE***	**Sig.**
GI*MC_FTK	→	PQ	[.007, .256]	.063	.040	[.012, .434]	.108	.041
GI*MC_FTK	→	BA	[-.017, .181]	.050	.100	[-.028, .304]	.084	.097
GI*MC_FTK	→	BS	[.010, .191]	.047	.033	[.021, .350]	.085	.029
GI*MC_FTK	→	PP	[-.041, .146]	.047	.264	[-.083, .287]	.094	.273
GI	→	PQ	[-.384, .146]	.138	.367	[-.179, .068]	.064	.381
GI	→	BA	[-.181, .450]	.162	.413	[-.081, .199]	.072	.417
GI	→	BS	[-.163, .390]	.141	.433	[-.080, .190]	.069	.438
GI	→	PP	[.017, .567]	.141	.035	[.006, .286]	.072	.040
FTK	→	PQ	[.019, .173]	.039	.008	[.054, .462]	.104	.009
FTK	→	BA	[-.003, .145]	.038	.060	[-.011, .382]	.100	.063
FTK	→	BS	[.022, .153]	.033	.012	[.068, .449]	.097	.011
FTK	→	PP	[-.009, .095]	.026	.108	[-.034, .284]	.081	.118

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. *B* = unstandardized estimate; β = standardized estimate; *SE* = standard error; CI = confidence interval; Sig. = significance level; GI = Geographical Indication; FTK = Fair Trade Knowledge; GI*MC_FTK = Interaction between GI and FTK (mean centering); PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness, BS = Brand Association; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium. [ ] indicates confidence interval using 5,000 bootstrap samples at 95% bias-corrected percentile.

There are two types of moderators, pure and quasi moderators. A pure moderator interacts with an independent variable but has minor relation with a dependent variable (Cohen et al., 2013; Sharma et al., 1981). A quasi moderator has interaction with an independent variable, as well as being an independent variable itself (Sharma et al., 1981). The analysis results confirmed positive influence of GI*MC_FTK (interaction term) on PQ ($p < .01$, *C.R.* = 2.700, *B* = .127, β = .226) and BS ($p < .05$, *C.R.* = 2.094, *B* = .098, β = .184). In addition, the results showed a

positive influence of FTK on both PQ and BS. That being said, FTK is a positive quasi-moderator on the relationship between GI and PQ, as well as between GI and BS. However, the analysis indicated no moderating effect of GI*MC_FTK on BA and PP.

Therefore, the two hypotheses, *H10* and *H12*, were supported, while *H11* and *H13* were rejected.

***H10*: The effect of GI certification on *perceived quality* is moderated by FT knowledge.**

***H12*: The effect of GI certification on *brand association* is moderated by FT knowledge.**

Figure 20 below indicates the magnitude of moderation effect (interaction) of GI*MC_FTK on PQ and BS, which was estimated based on unstandardized estimates (*B*) of GI*MC_FTK, GI, and FTK. The slopes of the graphs below show how much each group's PQ and BS increase due to the FTK's moderating effect when FTK increases by one unit.

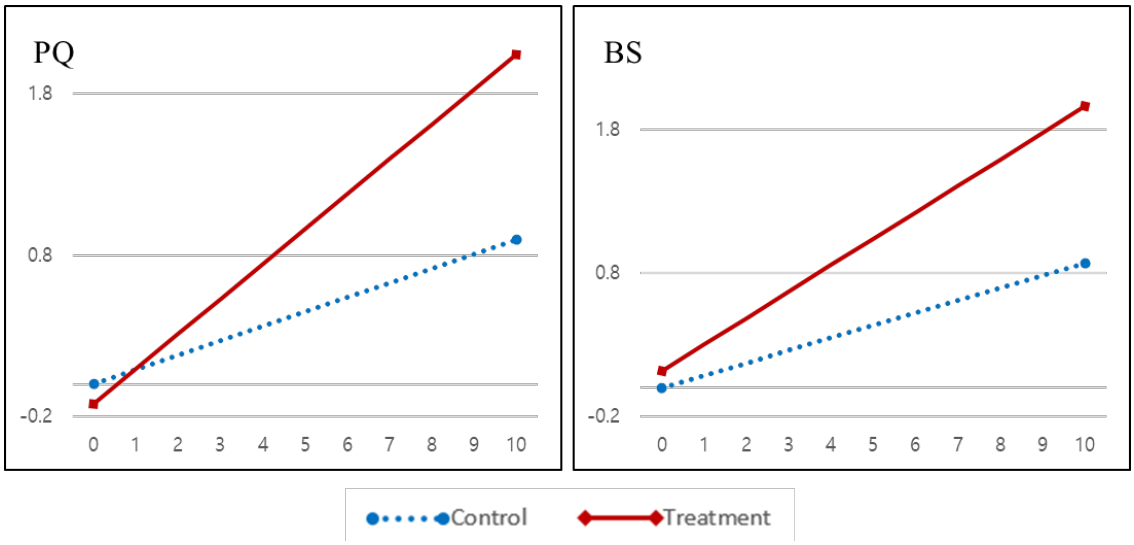

Figure 20. Comparison of Moderating Effect by Fair Trade Knowledge for Perceived Quality and Brand Association

Note. Axis X indicates Fair Trade knowledge (FTK) level and axis Y indicates an estimation. PQ = Perceived Quality; BS = Brand Association.

Structural Relationship between Fair Trade Handicraft Brand Equity and Purchase Intention

Based on the hypothesized conceptual model indicating female consumers' perception of FT handicraft brand equity (i.e., PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP) is positively related to PI, a structural model was established and assessed (See Figure 21).

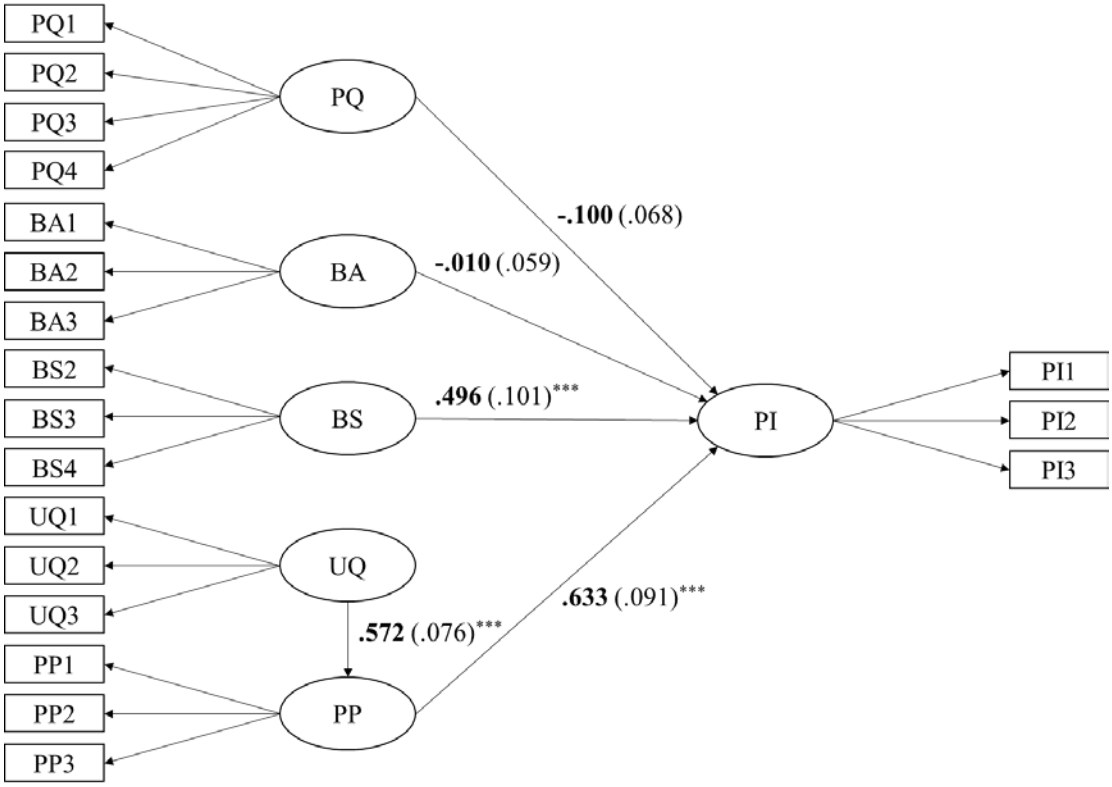

Figure 21. The Structural Model for Fair Trade Handicraft Brand Equity and Purchase Intention with Path Coefficients.

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. Bold indicates standardized estimate; ( ) indicates standard error. Significance level is *** $p < .001$ (2-tailed). PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention.

The goodness of fit of the structural model was acceptable. χ^2 (*df* = 141, *N* = 206) = 303.612, *p* < .001, CFI = .953, TLI = .943, RMSEA = .075, SRMR = .082 (See Table 22).

Table 22. The Results of Assessing Structural Model for Fair Trade Handicraft Brand Equity and Purchase Intention

Hypothesis	**Path**			***B***	**β**	***SE***	***C.R.***
H14	PQ	→	PI	-.095	-.100	.068	-1.396
H15	BA	→	PI	-.009	-.010	.059	-.148
H16	BS	→	PI	.494	.496	.101	4.906***
H17	PP	→	PI	.699	.633	.091	7.707***
H18	UQ	→	PI	.526	.572	.076	6.908***
Goodness of Fit Indices							
χ^2 (*df* = 141, *N* = 206) = 303.612, *p* < .001, CFI = .953, TLI = .943, RMSEA = .075, SRMR = .082							
Squared Multiple Correlation							
R^2 on PI= .801, R^2 on PP = .327							

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. Significance level is *** *p* < .001 (2-tailed). *B* = unstandardized estimate; β = standardized estimate; *SE* = standard error; *C.R.* = critical ratio; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention; *df* = degree of freedom; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

The results indicated positive influence of BS (*p* < .001, *C.R.* = 4.906, *B*=.494, β = .496), PP (*p* < .001, *C.R.* = 7.707, *B* = .699, β = .633), and UQ (*p* < .001, *C.R.* = 6.908, *B* = .526, β = .572) on PI. The squared multiple correlation (SMC), presenting the explanation power of UQ and PP relationship, was .327. The SMC, presenting the explanation power of FT handicraft brand equity (i.e., PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP) and PI relationship, was .801. However, PI had no statistically significant relationship with PQ and BA. Table 23 estimates confidence intervals of direct and indirect effects of five brand equity latent variables on PI, using bootstrapping approach. The indirect

effect of UQ on PI was statistically significant ($p < .01$, $B = .368$, 95% CI of B [.252, .521], $\beta = .362$, 95% CI of β [.271, .468]).

Table 23. Confidence Intervals of Direct and Indirect Effects for Purchase Intention

Path			Direct Effect		Indirect Effect	
			B	**95% CI**	**β**	**95% CI**
PQ	→	PI	-.095 (-.100)	[-.260, .026][a] [-.254, .030][b]		
BA	→	PI	-.009 (-.010)	[-.181, .167] [a] [-.192, .179] [b]		
BS	→	PI	.494 (.496)***	[.313, .720] [a] [.314, .701] [b]		
UQ	→	PI			.368 (.362)**	[.252, .521] [a] [.271, .468] [b]
PP	→	PI	.699 (.633)**	[.468, 1.074] [a] [.496, .756] [b]		

Note. Estimation method is maximum likelihood. Significance levels are ** $p < .01$ and *** $p < .001$ (2-tailed). B = unstandardized estimate; ( ) = standardized estimate; CI = confidence interval; [a]Unstandardized CI; [b]Standardized CI; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention. [ ] indicates confidence interval using 5,000 bootstrap samples at 95% bias-corrected percentile method;

Following the above results, the three hypotheses, *H16, H17,* and *H18* were supported, and *H14* and *H15* were rejected.

***H16*: *Brand association* has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.**

***H17*: *Being willing to pay a premium* price has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.**

***H18*: *Uniqueness* has a positive indirect influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts via *being willing to pay the price premium*.**

Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Table 24 summarizes the hypotheses of this study (*H1 – H18*). Among the five hypotheses testing the effect of GI on FT handicraft brand equity, one hypothesis (*H5*), GI certification has a positive influence on *willingness to pay a price premium* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts, was supported. This result is consistent with the previous study (EC, 2003; Seetharaman, 2017) asking consumers whether to pay price premium on FT products. Hypotheses *H6 – H9* testing the effect of FTK on PQ, BA, BS, and PP were all statistically significant. These results support extensive prior studies (Cleverdon & Kalisch, 2000; Doherty & Taplin, 2008; Griffiths, 2014; Nicolls & Opal, 2005) that consumers' high interest in and understanding of FT have a positive impact on FT products. Among the hypotheses *H10 – H13* testing the moderator effect of FTK on the relationship between GI and PQ, BA, BS, and PP, the hypotheses, *H10* and *H12* were supported.

Finally, as a result of testing the direct and indirect effect of PQ, BA, BS, UQ, and PP on purchase intention (PI), the effect of BS, UQ, and PP on PI were supported. These results support various previous studies on the positive relationship between brand equity and PI (Atilgan et al., 2007; Esch & Langner, 2006; Jalilvand et al., 2011). Additionally, the indirect effect of UQ on PI (Netemeyer et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2012) was supported.

Table 24. Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses	Results
The Effect of Geographical Indication	
H1: GI certification has a positive influence on consumers' *perceived quality* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts	Rejected
H2: GI certification with storytelling has a positive influence on *brand awareness* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	Rejected
H3: GI certification with storytelling has a positive influence on *brand association* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	Rejected
H4: GI certification has a positive influence on *uniqueness* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	Rejected
H5: GI certification has a positive influence on *willingness to pay a price premium* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	**Supported**
The Effect of Fair Trade Knowledge	
H6: FTK has a positive influence on *perceived quality* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	**Supported**
H7: FTK has a positive influence on *brand awareness* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	**Supported**
H8: FTK has a positive influence on *brand association* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	**Supported**
H9: FTK has a positive influence on *willing to pay a price premium* of FT textile and clothing handicrafts	**Supported**
Interaction between Geographical Indication and Fair Trade Knowledge	
H10: The effect of GI certification on *perceived quality* is moderated by FT knowledge.	**Supported**
H11: The effect of GI certification on *brand awareness* is moderated by FT knowledge.	Rejected
H12: The effect of GI certification on *brand association* is moderated by FT knowledge.	**Supported**
H13: The effect of GI certification on *being willing to pay a price premium* is moderated by FT knowledge.	Rejected

Structural Relationship between FT Handicraft Brand Equity and Purchase Intention	
H14: *Perceived quality* has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	Rejected
H15: *Brand awareness* has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	Rejected
H16: *Brand association* has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	**Supported**
H17: *Being willing to pay price premium* has a positive influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts.	**Supported**
H18: *Uniqueness* has a positive indirect influence on the purchase intention of FT textile and clothing handicrafts via *being willing to pay the price premium*.	**Supported**

Note. GI = Geographical Indication; FT = Fair Trade; FTK = Fair Trade Knowledge; PQ = Perceived Quality; BA = Brand Awareness; BS = Brand Association; UQ = Uniqueness; PP = Willing to Pay a Price Premium; PI = Purchase Intention.

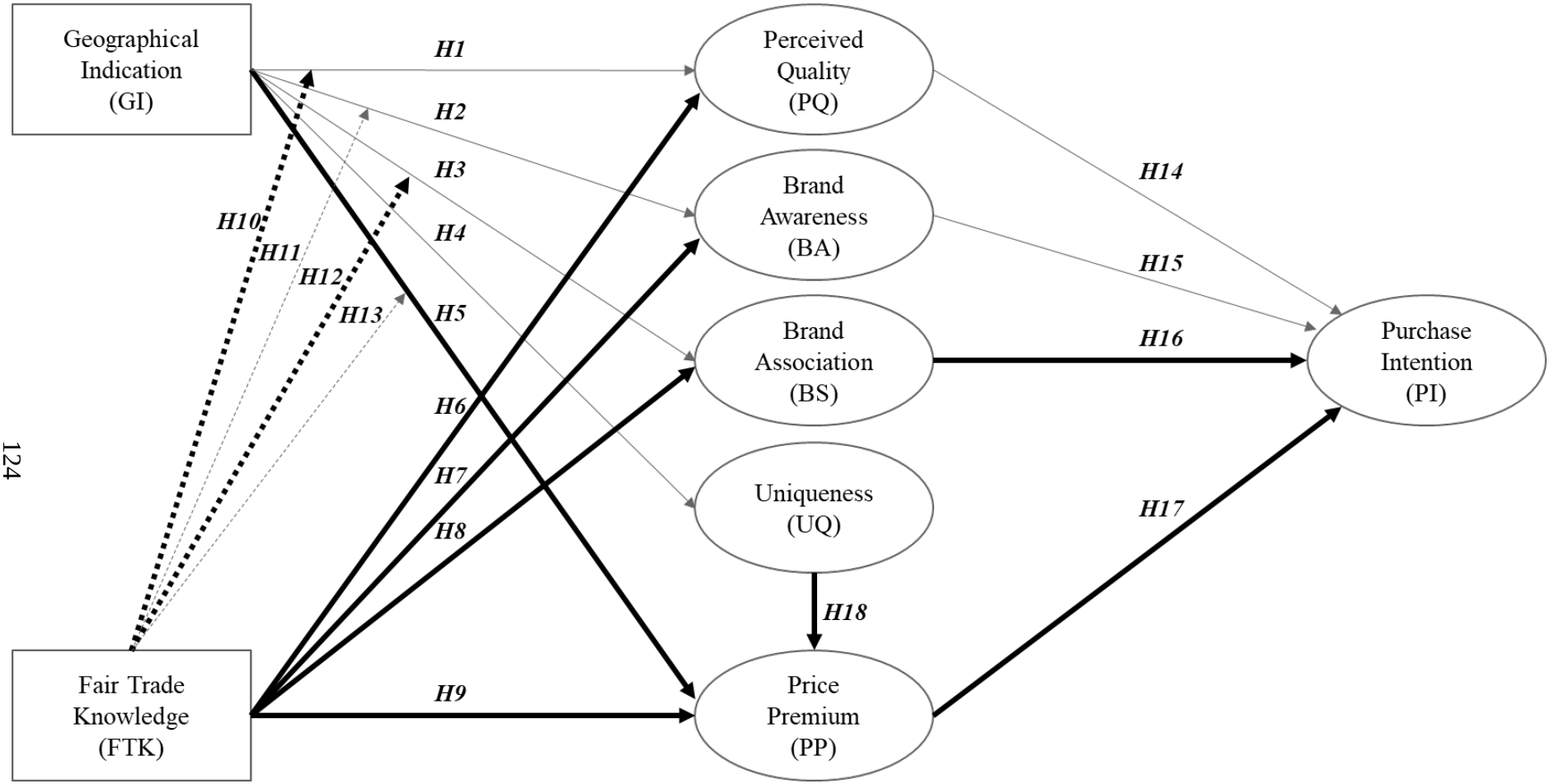

Figure 22. The Results of Hypothesis Testing
Note. Bold line indicates a hypothesis accepted.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

The contents of this chapter are composed of the following three sections: (a) general study overview, (b) contributions and implications of the study, and (c) the study limitations and future research opportunities.

Overview of the Study

Handicrafts are of great importance as means of protecting traditions and culture, and generating employment and income of marginalized people in developing countries, and high-value-added products produced by artisans (Barber & Krivoshlykova, 2006; Bhatt, 2006; Haan & Serriere, 2002; UNESCO, 2012). International organizations, *Fair Trade* (FT) organizations, and related NPOs have long recognized this importance and wanted to protect handicraft through participation and promotion in global markets. For instance, as a certification sign, *Geographical indication* (GI) guarantees high quality for products with geographical origin and protects them from counterfeits (EPRS, 2019). In addition, a wide array of consumer educations under the initiatives of the FT organizations also promote the understanding of sustainable environmental and social impacts of FT and the sales of FT goods by encouraging consumers to avoid the products produced through exploitation of producers' rights and safety such as low wages and unsafe working conditions (Davies & Crane, 2003; Griffiths, 2014). On the consumer side, the interest in ethical consumption, which refers to the act of ethically desirable consumption considering the consequences of individual consumption behavior on environment and society (Manchiraju & Sadachar, 2014), has emerged worldwide (Starr, 2009). In

this regard, in order to satisfy the needs of proactive consumers pursuing ethical consumption and sustainability, it is necessary to build a *consumer-based brand equity* (CBBE) for FT products.

Based on CBBE concepts of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) and previous literature, therefore, this study proposed a brand equity model consisting of five dimensions of CBBE, *Perceived Quality* (PQ), *Brand Awareness* (BA), *Brand Association* (BS), *Uniqueness* (UQ), and *Willing to Pay a Price Premium* (PP), for FT textile and apparel handicrafts. In addition, the relationships between GI, *Fair Trade Knowledge* (FTK), each brand equity dimension, and Purchase intention (PI) were investigated. Eighteen hypotheses were developed and statistically tested through the experimental method. A virtual FT handicraft brand, Chandria, and its website was created. Geographic Information System (GIS) technology was used in the creation of Chandria website to effectively convey its geographical characteristics to survey respondents. A survey questionnaire was created based on various previous studies on brand equity, purchase intention, and fair trade knowledge.

An online survey was conducted for female consumers by commissioning a survey specialized company, Qualtrics. A total of 239 people answered the questionnaire. The experiment was conducted in a post-test-only control group design in which respondents first saw the images of the virtual brand website and the stimuli created in the study, and then answered the survey questionnaire. Out of 239, the data from 206 experiment subjects were collected and analyzed, excluding 33 unfaithful responses. Of these, 104 people viewed the brand website images that contained GI stimuli, and the other 102 people viewed the brand website images without GI.

The collected data was first examined through demographic and descriptive statistics, and Pearson correlation matrix. Next, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and

confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were performed to quantitatively verify the validity and reliability of the measurement items for the brand equity dimensions suggested in the study. The results showed that the overall validity and reliability of the measurement items for the five brand equity dimensions, PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP, and PI, were verified.

Based on the hypothesized conceptual model presented in this study, a structural model was developed. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was applied as a quantitative statistical method in order to test hypotheses from the structural model. The two-step approach proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) was followed for SEM performance. Maximum likelihood, a predominant estimation method in SEM, assumes multivariate normality of data. However, the data in this study did not satisfy the assumption of multivariate normality, so a bootstrapping approach, which does not require normally distributed data, was applied to supplement.

The hypotheses tests were divided into four categories: (a) the effects of GI on brand equity, (b) the effects of *Fair Trade Knowledge* (FTK) on brand equity, (c) FTK as a moderator on the relationship between GI and brand equity, and (d) the relationship between brand equity and purchase intention. As a result of the analysis, several major findings came out, and the following three sections are the descriptions of the important findings.

The effects of GI are described in this first section. After watching the website images of the mock brand, the mean differences of the 7-Likert scales answered in the questionnaire between the treatment group exposed to GI and the control group not exposed to GI were tested by latent mean analysis. In comparison of the mean differences, the mean of the control group was set to zero and the relative mean size of the treatment group was compared. The results showed that, only in PP, the mean

of the treatment group was statistically significantly greater than that of the control group. This result supports existing empirical studies conducted several times in the EU region that are willing to pay a price premium for GI products as GI tags protect producers from unfair competition and copies (EC, 2003; EPRS, 2019; Rangnekar, 2004; Seetharaman, 2017).

The effects of GI on PQ, BA, BS, and UQ were rejected. The potential reasons can be assumed as follows. First, GI certification has a fundamental property that guarantees product quality and uniqueness (EC, 2020; EUPIO, 2019), but what GI symbol means depends entirely on the perception of each consumer. Certification marks that are still less known to consumers, such as GI certification, can be difficult to gain immediate trust from consumers (Norberg, 2000). Next, several scholars claimed that the two CBBE dimensions, BS and BA, partially share and often overlap their concepts (Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Also, Song (2013) argued that BA and BS are low for unfamiliar brands, so unfamiliar brands require a completely different brand equity model from the existing brand models. From this point of view, therefore, in the case of unfamiliar brands like Chandria in this study, the consideration of brand familiarity may be necessary prior to construction of consumer-based BA and BS.

This second section addresses the effects of FTK. FTK was measured by asking survey participants to respond with “true,” “false,” and “I don't know” to 10 questions of the scale developed in previous research, and the perfect score is 10. The FTK questions were divided into three dimensions: (a) definition, (b) environmental concern, and (c) social aspect. The sample of this study indicated a relatively low percentage of correct answers in environmental concern. It is assumed that the terms, such as genetic and sustainable energy, in the questions with respect to environmental concern were somewhat unfamiliar to the general public.

This study has suggested four hypotheses that an increase in FTK would have positive effects on PQ, BA, BS, and PP. The relationships between FTK and PQ, BA, BS, and PP were made into a structural model and the hypotheses from the model were tested. The results show that an increase in FTK had positive effects on all of PQ, BA, BS, and PP. In addition, FTK had positive effects on PQ and BS through interactions with GI. These results explain that FTK, which has been increased through FT education, has direct and indirect impacts on consumers' decision-making in consumption, enhancing understanding of FT brands, and consequently promoting the sales of FT goods. For that reason, this study assumed that FTK plays a role as consumer knowledge based on the several research revealing the impacts of consumer knowledge on understanding, exploration, selection, and evaluation of products (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Brucks, 1985; Johnson & Sathi, 1984). The trust and solidarity in FT strengthened by FTK are assumed to have given direct or indirect motivation to enhancing the CBBE despite the fact that Chandria is unfamiliar to consumers (Aaker, 1991; Delgado-Ballester & Luis Munuera-Alemán, 2005; Nicholls & Opal, 2005). In addition, the result supports that consumers interact through social learning (Bandura, 1977) so FT consumption has a virtuous cycle resulting in another FT consumption (Doherty & Taplin, 2008; Hunt, 2012; Park, 2015).

This third section discusses the relationship between FT textile and clothing handicraft brand equity and purchase intention. The structural model was developed and tested whether the increase in the five dimensions (i.e., PQ, BA, BS, UQ, PP), that constitute the FT handicraft brand equity presented in this study, leads to actual consumer purchase intention. The results indicated that the increase in BS (Jalilvand et al., 2011), UQ, and PP (Netemeyer et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2012) leads to the increase in PI. This finding is consistent with the previous studies that strengthening

CBBE increases consumer purchase intention. In particular, PP revealed a strong positive influence on PI (B = .699), which supports Netemeyer et al.'s (2004) study that the more consumers who are willing to pay a price premium, the more they will actually purchase. Also, in the analysis results of this study, PQ and BA showed negative influence on PI in the structural model, but this was not statistically significant. Consumers show a higher purchase intention to familiar brands (Kamins & Marks, 1991), thus, it is assumed that the unfamiliarity of the virtual brand has an impact on the relationship between FT handicraft brand equity and PI. For example, PQ is affected by previous knowledge and experience, social background, income level, and so on (Holbrook & Corftman, 1985), and unfamiliarity for a particular brand increases perceived risk and may consequently affect PI (Rose et al., 2016). In general, FT textile and apparel handicraft brands are likely to be unfamiliar to consumers. Therefore, future study may further explore how brand unfamiliarity affects each brand equity dimension and PI through additional research on the variables such as perceived risk, which were not covered in this study.

As a result of the above, some of the direct and indirect effects and relationships between GI, FTK, FT textile and clothing handicraft brand equity, and PI were revealed. These findings presented positive directions to enhance the value and sales of FT textile and apparel handicrafts companies. In order to increase purchase intention, which is the ultimate goal of FT textile and apparel handicraft organizations, it is necessary to increase the company's brand equity as well as appealing premium value of GI certification to consumers. In addition, as the results of the study revealed that FTK had positive effects on the brand equity of FT companies directly or indirectly, this finding suggests the importance of FT education to reinforce FTK among consumers.

Contributions and Implications

This study provides several implications for brand equity dimensions of FT textile and apparel handicrafts, the relationship between GI and FT brand equity, and the relationship between FT education and brand equity from the perspective of female consumers. In the section below, the contributions and implications of this study are discussed in terms of theoretical and industry aspects.

Theoretical Contributions and Implications

The importance of brand equity in the industrial products market such as food, home appliances, and clothing led by large corporations is widely known and there are many related studies. However, there are scarce brand equity studies with respect to FT products, especially textile and apparel handicrafts. Also, few studies have recognized the effects of GI on brand equity whose attributes are very similar to FT. The studies with respect to how FT knowledge, one of consumer knowledge, plays roles in building brand equity are scarce. In the circumstances, this study revealed the relationship between GI, FTK, and brand equity, which were previously lacking in the literature, and explained the following three academic and theoretical contributions.

First, the dimensions of brand equity model in FT textile and apparel handicraft brands were suggested. Many brand equity studies have targeted the brands that are already mature or familiar. A majority of FT handicraft companies and organizations in the textile and apparel sector are small in their size and the studies looking at the sustainability of the small business sector in terms of building and enhancing brand equity are currently insufficient. Based on Aaker (1991) and Keller's (1993) brand equity theory and model, this study investigated how a company with

FT and/or GI certification can build brand equity while maintaining globalization and sustainability of consumption. The ultimate purpose of building brand equity is to encourage consumers to purchase a company's product, which is called purchase intention (PI) from a consumer psychology perspective. Therefore, this study also looked at the relationship of how the brand equity of FT textile and clothing handicraft companies leads to PI. The quantitative analysis results of this study support the previous research that the enhancement of brand equity leads to PI. That being said, the brand equity model of FT textile and apparel handicrafts brands is not fundamentally different from the brand equity presented previous theory and empirical research in several studies and shares significantly similar concepts.

Second, the influence of GI was quantitatively examined. Many studies have been conducted on the importance, value, and influence of GI in terms of policy, business, and consumers. However, with regard to the consumer aspect, which is the main concern of this study, most of the consumer studies are centered on European Union (EU) consumers and food products and there are few studies on non-food products such as textile and apparel handicrafts. This study assumed the positive influence of GI on PQ, BA, BS, and PP in hypotheses, but statistical analysis indicated that only PP had a positive effect on GI. The specificity of the mock brand created in the study, the demographic characteristics of the sample group, and lack of familiarity with the brand may have some negative effects on the statistical significance. In particular, it may have been difficult to show a large difference between the two experimental groups of the study, the treatment group and the control group, since the experiment subjects had to acquire knowledge about the virtual brand for a short period of time while having little or no brand familiarity. However, as a certification, GI has been shown in many studies to play a positive role in inducing

consumers to purchase (Addor & Grazioli, 2002; Kim & Kwon, 2019; Mevhibe & Ozdemir, 2012; WIPO, 2017). Considering that there are various variables influencing the elements of brand equity, a more in-depth study on the relationship between GI and brand equity components that did not show statistical significance in this study is deemed necessary.

Third, the effects of consumers' FTK on brand equity components were quantitatively identified. FT food products such as coffee and bananas are already popular and especially in Europe (EPRS, 2019), those products can be easily found in large supermarket chains (Dam, 2019). The awareness of FT has also increased compared to the past. However, many consumers still recognize FT products only in food. FT education will not only improve overall understanding of FT, but also help open consumers' eyes to the diversity of FT products such as handicrafts, gold, flowers, and others.

According to *Social Learning Theory* (SLT), individuals learn not only by direct experience, but also by observing the behaviors of others (Bandura, 1977). People imitate the actions of others, and it is the same when it comes to consumption (McGregor, 2009). The ethical consumption behavior of others may change the consumption behavior of other consumers who observe it (McGregor, 2009). Thus, increasing consumers' understanding and knowledge of FT can affect not only the consumers having FT relevant knowledge, but also other consumers' consumption behavior. This study found positive relationships between FTK and PQ, BA, BS, and PP among the dimensions of brand equity. This suggests the importance of FTK as one of consumer knowledge, and supports the need to strengthen the knowledge through continuous FT education. However, despite the statistical significance, the low path coefficients and squared multiple correlation (SMC) suggests that there may

be additional explanatory variables affecting on the brand equity beside from FTK. It is necessary to examine the magnitude of the influence again through additional empirical studies in the future.

Industry Contributions and Implications

In the past, large-scale manufacturing systems led by globalized corporations dominated the market, but small-scale production such as slow fashion is gradually satisfying diverse consumer needs (Fletcher, 2010; Jung & Jin, 2014, 2016). FT handicraft goods serve as a niche market that meets the diverse needs of consumers. However, the current FT textile and apparel handicraft market is still small, and the growth rate is relatively slow compared to FT food products. Due to the lack of marketing resources such as advertising and public relations, they are in need of a systematic and efficient management strategy. Additionally, the *COVID-19 pandemic*, a worldwide outbreak in early 2020, is also rapidly increasing the management difficulties of small sized FT handicrafts companies in textile and apparel industry that lacks basic physical strength (European Apparel and Textile Confederation, 2020; Fair Trade Advocacy Office, 2020). In this unfavorable market environment, this study guided the direction of future business management by revealing the composition of brand equity from the perspective of female consumers for FT textile and apparel handicrafts brands. In this regard, three practical implications of the research results are presented as follows.

The first is what brand equity components should be built with priorities. The constituent elements of FT handcraft brand equity in the textile and clothing sector presented in this study were quantified through statistical analysis of a sample group. Based on the analysis results, these companies will be able to prioritize and have ideas

which brand equity elements to include to target consumers and to reinforce to have a greater influence on consumers' purchase intention. Particularly noteworthy is the brand equity dimension of PP, which showed the greatest influence on PI. PP refers to consumption perception of consumers who are willing to help developing countries or pay a price premium on intangible value (EC, 2010; Kapusuz & Kimzan, 2016; Mai, 2014; Park, 2018a). Unlike the traditional buying behavior of buying the best quality products at a lowest price, consumer intentions of willingness to pay price premiums will play a positive role in making the ecosystem of small FT companies sustainable. In particular, in terms of textile and clothing handicraft products (O'Cass, 2004; Pentecost & Andrews, 2010), ethical consumption behavior (Bateman & Valentine, 2010; Carpenter & Lear, 2011), attitude toward FT products (Grankvist, 2013), word of mouth effect (Morrell & Jayawardhena, 2010), female consumers' purchasing power is much greater than that of male consumers, so it is recommended to strengthen promotion and marketing to female consumers.

Second, in the experiment of this study, the narrative for GI and FT certification was created based on storytelling and demonstrated the possibility of building brand equity with storytelling. Brand story plays a positive role as a communication tool with consumers (Balkhi, 2018; Dias & Dias, 2018; Lundqvist et al., 2013; Martinus & Chaniago, 2017; Yueh & Cheng, 2019). GI is a symbol of certification that includes a variety of characteristics of certain products. A GI mark contains geographical origins of a product, history, craftsmanship, producer stories and life styles, and so on. FT certification also includes fair prices and wages, transparency of trade, protection of producers' human rights, and so on. These certifications can convey the meaning and values of the product to consumers by the indication or mark on the product itself, and further can be enhanced with storytelling

which makes the product more appealing to consumers. It has been confirmed in the cases of Nike's 30th anniversary of Air Jordan (Wahbe 2019), TOMS Shoes (Roncha & Radclyffe-Thomas, 2016), and Uber Eats (Reynolds, 2019) that a good brand story can spread in a short time through social networking services (SNS), which is a high-impact media such as Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter, and may increase consumers' desire to purchase. Also, consumers favor the companies that are actively responsible for wellbeing of consumers and society, and if the quality and price of products are similar, they have a greater intention to purchase the products of companies that are more active in social responsibility activities (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Creyer & Ross, 1997). Apart from direct advertising and promotion of products, if companies are able to combine the origins of companies and products that other competitors do not have, and the stories of producers with good storytelling, it will stimulate the five senses of consumers and elicit their purchase intention (Yueh & Cheng, 2019).

Third, promoting fair trade education can result in more consumption of FT textile and clothing handicrafts. Modern consumers want to buy products that have values to them, and express the values through using the products (Angus & Westbrook, 2019; Lee & Chung, 1998). Consumption of FT goods is regarded as a reflection of consumers' ethical value and this is defined as ethical consumption (Manchiraju & Sadachar, 2014). Consumption of ethical goods and services, particularly active in the United Kingdom and Western Europe, has steadily increased over the past decade despite the economic downturn (Ethical Consumer, 2019). As a variety of socially problematic events such as environmental destruction, labor exploitation, and unequal profit distribution occur behind profits pursuit of large global fashion companies (CCC, 2020c), consumer awareness has increased and

ethical fashion such as FT and eco-friendly fashion has also emerged (Joergens, 2006). Globalization in various industries is accelerating, and ethical consumption accordingly changing its patterns can be further strengthened through continuous consumer education. This study explained from the perspective of social learning (Bandura, 1977) that the increase of FTK through FT education will encourage changes in consumption behavior. Based on the evidence of many studies that consumers' knowledge and attitudes are improved through education (Kim & Yoon, 2019), consumers' ethical consumption behavior and active FT education encourage expanding the overall size of the FT market.

Study Limitations and Future Research Opportunities

This part addresses several limitations of the study, which may suggest future research opportunities.

First, the sample of the experiment was concentrated on a specific country, gender, and age in the study. The experiment sample was limited to US residents due to experimental stimuli and questionnaires described in English. Expanding the scope of the sample to diverse societies and cultures such as Asia and Europe and exploring the similarities and differences its results can help build FT textile and apparel handicraft brand equity from a global perspective. Also, only female consumers who are expected to have high interest in fashion and FT were included. Expanding the research target to men and examining the differences between genders may provide potential opportunities to establish a brand and marketing strategy that can communicate regardless of gender. Although the sample of the study was randomly selected through a panel of Qualtrics, a specialized survey organization, 139 out of 206 survey participants aged 40 or older, who are baby boomers and Gen X,

accounted for 67.5% in the entire sample. Thus, the two generation groups, Gen Y who are born between 1981 and 1996 and Gen Z who are born between 1995 and 2015, were not sufficiently encompassed. The research about generational differences in business activities such as product purchase, marketing, and online shopping shows similarities and differences between baby boomers, Gen X, Gen Y, and Gen Z (Lissitsa & Kol, 2016; Nicholas, 2009; Sullivan & Hyun, 2016; Wood, 2013). Therefore, future study may apply systematic sampling, which is not biased to a specific age group by evenly assigning the number of populations by age group. Looking at differences by age group will be meaningful in that it can reveal whether there is any difference in CBBE according to generations.

Second, there are some limitations due to the stimuli used in the study. The stimuli were created virtually, but in order to describe the tradition, culture, and history of the mock brand, existing traditional handicrafts in India were referenced. Depending on an individual, there may be favors or prejudices toward certain countries. The brand information exposed in this study was limited to brand history, tradition, fair trade, and GI certification, and was created as a static webpage in order to conduct the survey and experiment. However, many companies actually use various channels such as a product label, traditional media, video platform like Twitch and Youtube, and SNS like Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter to communicate with consumers for the purpose of enhancing their brands (Appel et al., 2020; Godey et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2019). Thus, it is suggested to create stimuli containing additional contents and diverse channels that can affect brand equity in further study.

Third, the literature suggested that there are several different forms of FT textile and clothing handicrafts organizations (Alter, 2007). The forms include non-profit, social enterprises, private enterprises, and others. Consumers' perception to a

particular brand is bound to change depending on how an organization is operated and how its profits are distributed. Although, the mock brand in the experiment was described as fair trade handicrafts, this study did not specify the organizational type. Given the popular trend of social enterprises in fair trade, Future research is recommended to further explore how the organizational characteristics affect consumers' perception to FT brands.

Fourth, despite the time and space constraints, this study tried to visualize and help understanding of the mock brand's GI certification to consumers as close to reality as possible by utilizing Esri Story Map and GIS tool. The statistical results, however, showed that PQ, BA, and BS were not statistically significant with GI except PP. In spite of all the efforts, time and space constraints may have negatively affected the results of the study. Technological tools themselves may function as facilitative or obstructive boundary objects in translating knowledge or practices across communities (Fox, 2011). The potentials for future research may adopt more improved technologies in order to overcome the constraints.

Fifth, the study was conducted as a post-test-only control group design. The data in this study collected from the responses to the questionnaire immediately after the survey participants were exposed to stimuli. Because of its simplicity and convenience, a post-test only control group design is one of the most preferred experimental methods in marketing research (Malhotra et al., 2017). However, the bias inherent in each participant is not controllable with the method and this may cause different study results. Future research may apply another experiment design such as pre-test–post-test control group design, allowing the comparisons of before and after exposure to stimuli, and compare data results with post-test-only control group design.

Finally, the sample of this study was collected through Qualtrics. Collecting samples from a huge population of American female consumers would have been very difficult without going through specialized agencies like Qualtrics. Also, Covid-19 negatively impacted on experiment sample gathering and limited the research method to online platform. The online survey can be biased due to survey participants' selective memory, attributions, and exaggeration. A mixture of online and offline methods can greatly diminish some bias and constraints, so future study is highly recommended to apply both online and offline methods.

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APPENDIX

Institutional Review Board Approval and Consent Form

Institutional Review Board Approval

Institutional Review Board
University of Missouri-Columbia
FWA Number: 00002876
IRB Registration Numbers: 00000731, 00009014

482 McReynolds Hall
Columbia, MO 65211
573-882-3181
irb@missouri.edu

June 03, 2020

Principal Investigator: Eunmi Lee
Department: Textile and Apparel Mgmt

Your IRB Application to project entitled THE EFFECTS OF A GEOGRAPHICAL INDICATION ON PURCHASE INTENTION OF FAIR TRADE TEXTILE AND CLOTHING HANDICRAFTS: THE ROLES OF CONSUMERS' PERCEIVED BRAND EQUITY AND FAIR TRADE KNOWLEDGE was reviewed and approved by the MU Institutional Review Board according to the terms and conditions described below:

IRB Project Number	2020361
IRB Review Number	260663
Initial Application Approval Date	June 03, 2020
IRB Expiration Date	June 03, 2021
Level of Review	Exempt
Project Status	Active - Exempt
Exempt Categories (Revised Common Rule)	45 CFR 46.104d(2)(i)
Risk Level	Minimal Risk
Approved Documents	Survey with consent

The principal investigator (PI) is responsible for all aspects and conduct of this study. The PI must comply with the following conditions of the approval:

1. **COVID-19 Specific Information**
   Enrollment and study related procedures must remain in compliance with the University of Missouri regulations related to interaction with human participants following guidance at research.missouri.edu/about/covid-19-info.php
   In addition, any restarting of in-person research activities must comply with the policies and guiding principles provided at research.missouri.edu/about/research-restart.php, including appropriate approvals for return to work authorization for individuals as well as human subject research projects.
2. No subjects may be involved in any study procedure prior to the IRB approval date or after the expiration date.
3. All changes must be IRB approved prior to implementation utilizing the Exempt Amendment Form.
4. The Annual Exempt Form must be submitted to the IRB for review and approval at least 30 days prior to the project expiration date to keep the study active or to close it.
5. Maintain all research records for a period of seven years from the project completion date.

If you are offering subject payments and would like more information about research participant payments, please click here to view the MU Business Policy and Procedure: http://bppm.missouri.edu/chapter2/2_250.html

If you have any questions or concerns, please contact the MU IRB Office at 573-882-3181 or email to muresearchirb@missouri.edu.

Thank you,
MU Institutional Review Board

Consent Form (Treatment Group)

Explanation of Research Study

Principal Investigator: Eunmi Lee, Ph.D. Candidate

Advisor: Zhao Li, Ph.D.

Textile and Apparel Management, University of Missouri

Dear participants,

Welcome to the survey questionnaire! This is a research survey that investigates how Geographical Indication (GI) certification affects consumers' brand equity of fair trade textile and clothing handicraft brand. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary and you are free to refuse to participate or stop the survey at any time. This survey will take approximately 5 minutes. Your privacy and information will be protected as this survey is anonymous.

I would like to thank you for taking the time to fill out the survey. If you have any questions concerning this research project, please contact: Eunmi Lee at 302-264-0762 or by email at el2dm@missouri.edu and/or Dr. Zhao Li at 573-882-9638 or by email at zhaoli@missouri.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, please contact the University of Missouri Institutional Review Board (IRB) Office at 573-882-3181 or by email at irb@missouri.edu

If you want to talk privately about your rights or any issues related to your participation in this study, you can contact University of Missouri Research Participant Advocacy by calling 888-280-5002 (a free call), or emailing MUResearchRPA@missouri.edu.

By clicking this option **I agree** that I am 18 years or older and am willing to participate in this study.

Consent Form (Control Group)

Explanation of Research Study

Principal Investigator: Eunmi Lee, Ph.D. Candidate

Advisor: Zhao Li, Ph.D.

Textile and Apparel Management, University of Missouri

Dear participants,

Welcome to the survey questionnaire! This is a research survey that investigates consumers' brand equity of fair trade textile and clothing handicraft brand. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary and you are free to refuse to participate or stop the survey at any time. This survey will take approximately 5 minutes. Your privacy and information will be protected as this survey is anonymous.

I would like to thank you for taking the time to fill out the survey. If you have any questions concerning this research project, please contact: Eunmi Lee at 302-264-0762 or by email at el2dm@missouri.edu and/or Dr. Zhao Li at 573-882-9638 or by email at zhaoli@missouri.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a participant, please contact the University of Missouri Institutional Review Board (IRB) Office at 573-882-3181 or by email at irb@missouri.edu

If you want to talk privately about your rights or any issues related to your participation in this study, you can contact University of Missouri Research Participant Advocacy by calling 888-280-5002 (a free call), or emailing MUResearchRPA@missouri.edu.

By clicking this option **I agree** that I am 18 years or older and am willing to participate in this study.

Survey Instruments

Part 1: Questions on Webpage of Brand CHANDRIA

This section asks you some questions about the webpage you see above. Please answer the following questions based on your impression of CHANDRIA.

Question 1.

	Very Low (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	Very High (7)
The likelihood that CHANDRIA would be reliable is	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The workmanship of CHANDRIA is probably	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The quality of CHANDRIA's product is likely to be	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The likelihood that CHANDRIA's product is dependable is	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Question 2.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I know what CHANDRIA looks like.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I can recognize CHANDRIA among other competing brands.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Some characteristics of CHANDRIA come to my mind quickly.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Question 3.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
CHANDRIA has a very unique brand image, compared to other competing textile and clothing handicraft brands.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I respect and admire people who wear CHANDRIA.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like the brand image of CHANDRIA.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like and trust CHANDRIA, which makes textile and clothing handicrafts.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Question 4.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
CHANDRIA is distinct from other textile and clothing handicraft brands.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
CHANDRIA really stands out from other textile and clothing handicraft brands.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
CHANDRIA is unique from other textile and clothing handicraft brands.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Question 5.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
The price of CHANDRIA would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to another textile and clothing handicraft brands.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I am willing to pay a higher price for CHANDRIA brand of textile and clothing handicrafts than for other brands of textile and clothing handicrafts.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I am willing to pay a lot more for CHANDRIA brand of textile and clothing handicrafts than for other brands of textile and clothing handicrafts.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Question 6.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I would buy CHANDRIA's textile and clothing handicrafts rather than any other brands' textile and clothing handicrafts available.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I am willing to recommend others to buy CHANDRIA's textile and clothing handicrafts.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I am willing to purchase CHANDRIA's textile and clothing handicrafts in the future.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Part 2: CHANDRIA is a Fair Trade textile and clothing handicraft brand. This section asks you some questions about your Fair Trade Knowledge. Please answer the following questions based on your knowledge about Fair Trade.

Questions.

	True	False	I don't know
Fair Trade aims to create better trading conditions for workers in developing countries.	○	○	○
Fair Trade endeavors to pay more honest prices to producers in developing countries.	○	○	○
Fair Trade strives for sustainable development of excluded and/or disadvantaged producers in developing countries.	○	○	○
Fair Trade follows environmentally sustainable practices during production.	○	○	○
Fair Trade does not use substances that have undergone genetic modifications.	○	○	○

Fair Trade uses sustainable energy resources.	○	○	○
Fair Trade takes account of workers' social rights.	○	○	○
In Fair Trade, workers are not exploited.	○	○	○
Fair Trade companies maintain good working conditions and fair wages for workers.	○	○	○
In Fair Trade, profits are not the only thing that matters.	○	○	○

Part 3: Knowledge about CHANDRIA

This section asks you a question about CHANDRIA brand. Please answer the following question. You can choose multiple items.

Which of the following items pertains to CHANDRIA's brand? (multiple choices)

- ☐ Artisanal handicraft
- ☐ Unskilled work
- ☐ Originated from China
- ☐ Traditional technique

Part 4: Demographics

This section collects demographic information. Please answer the questions below.

What gender do you identify as?

- ◯ Male
- ◯ Female
- ◯ Short answer space

- ◯ Prefer not to answer

What is your age?

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

I am _ _ _ _ years old.

Please specify your ethnicity.

- ◯ Caucasian
- ◯ African-American
- ◯ Latino or Hispanic
- ◯ Asian
- ◯ Native American
- ◯ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ◯ Two or More
- ◯ Other/Unknown
- ◯ Prefer not to say

What is the highest degree or level of education you have completed?

- ◯ Less than high school
- ◯ High school
- ◯ Associate degree
- ◯ Bachelor's degree
- ◯ Master's or professional degree
- ◯ Doctorate
- ◯ Prefer not to say

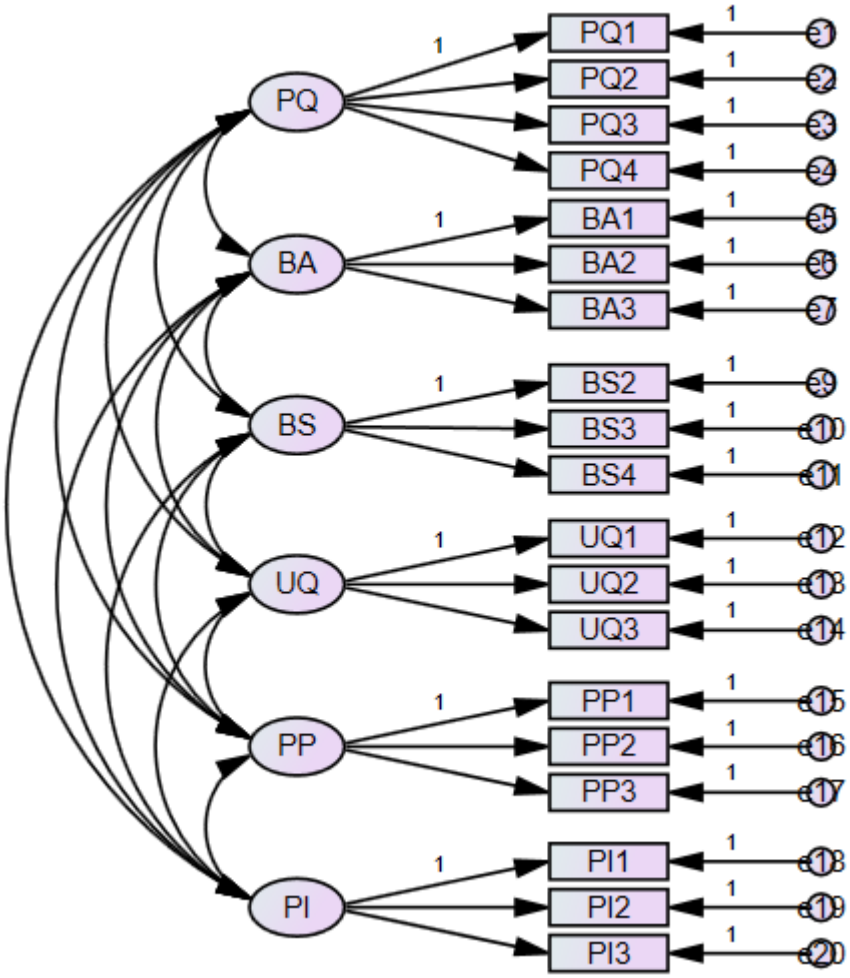
What is your annual household income?

- ◯ Less than $25,000
- ◯ $25,000 - $50,000
- ◯ More than $50,000 - $100,000
- ◯ More than $100,000 - $200,000
- ◯ More than $200,000
- ◯ Prefer not to say

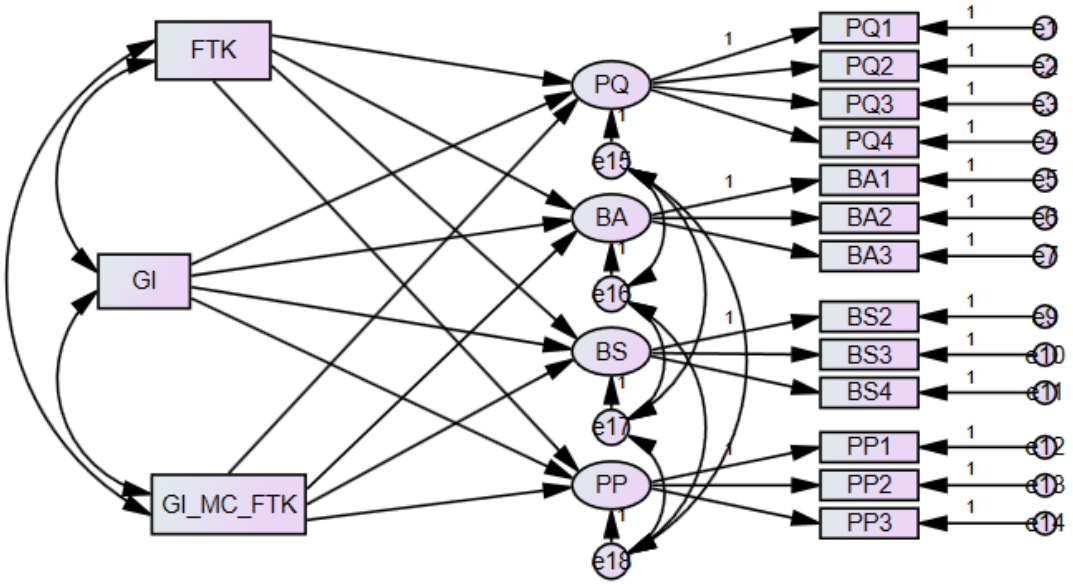
In what state do you live? (Answer in case you reside in the U.S.)

Measurement and Structural Models using AMOS

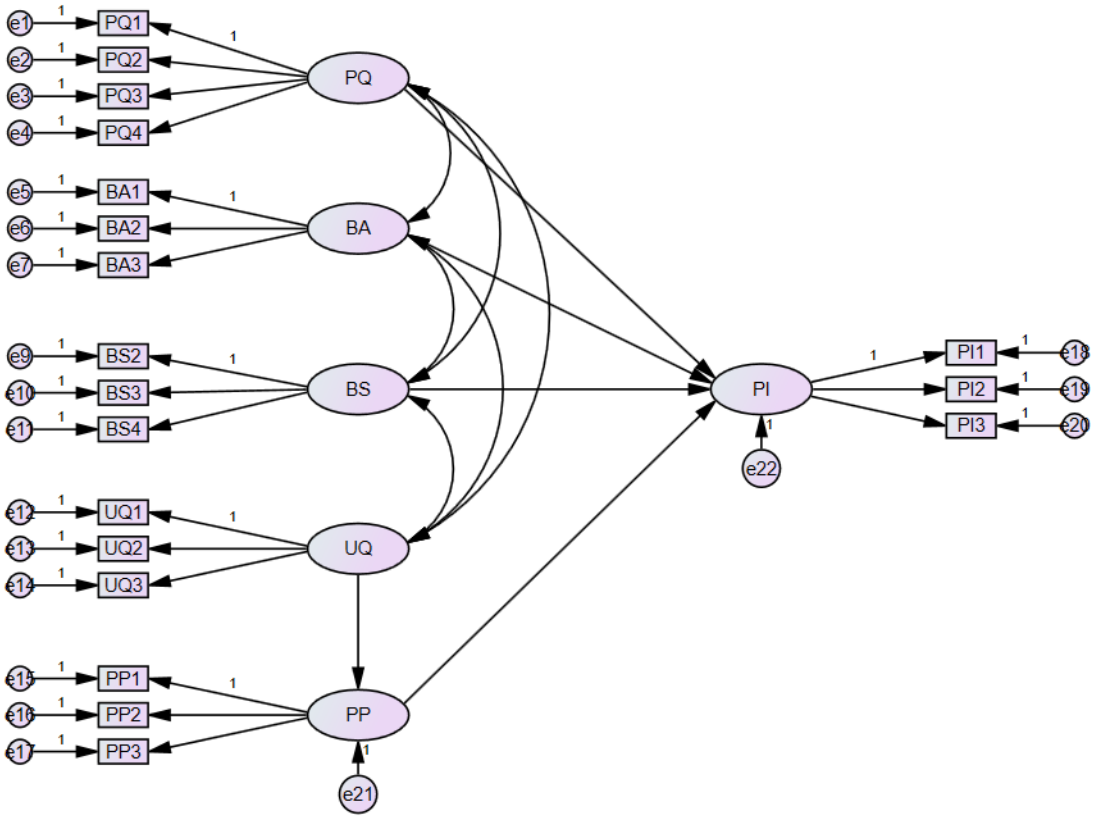
Measurement Model for Fair Trade Handicraft Brand Equity and Purchase Intention



Structural Model for Fair Trade Knowledge Moderating Effect



Structural Model for Fair Trade Handicraft Brand Equity and Purchase Intention



VITA

Eunmi Lee completed her masters from the University of Delaware in 2017 with a graduate certificate in socially responsible and sustainable apparel business. Her research interests include sustainable business practices, quantitative analysis of ESG (Environmental, Social, and Governance).

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