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Article

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The Effect of Star Chef Image on Reputation, Familiarity, and Loyalty

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: This paper explored the Star Chefs' images among customers who visit their restaurants in order to understand the effect of such images on familiarity, reputation, and loyalty.

Design/methodology/approach: The study data were collected from the target customers of South Korean Star Chef restaurants. Representative South Korean Star Chefs appearing on South Korean TV programs who are running their own restaurants were contacted and told about the objective of this study. Of the nine Star Chefs contacted for cooperation, six Star Chef restaurants agreed to join this study.

Findings: First, the Star Chef's image had a significant influence on familiarity and reputation. Second, the Star Chef's familiarity had a significant influence on reputation, and the Star Chef's familiarity had a significant influence on loyalty. Last, the Star Chef's reputation had a significant influence on loyalty.

Research limitations/implications: This study is the image and reputation were examined by personifying the brand. This type of study could not include all the different human characteristics. Additionally, there are some difficulties in generalizing this study worldwide. Because there are only a few chefs that appear on TV programs in South Korea.

Originality/value: The importance of service quality and environment has been highlighted in previous studies of restaurants, but studies of chefs who provide services are limited.

Keywords: Star Chef, Image, Familiarity, Reputation, Loyalty

I. Introduction

There is an increasing number of South Korean entertainment shows associated with cooking. Each major South Korean broadcasting network has been actively producing television content centered on cooking, encompassing culinary demonstrations, restaurant critiques, and even narrative dramas

interwoven with cooking motifs. Recent popular cooking-related TV shows in South Korea can generally be categorized into two main genres: Mug-bang (eating broadcasts) and Cook-bang (cooking broadcasts). Some introduce food available in specific regions and demonstrate cooking that non-professional cooks can do in their homes. Not only Star Chefs but also other entertainers appear in the former type of program, and Star Chefs demonstrate various cuisines they know about in the latter. Furthermore, soap operas and movies with the theme of cooking (e.g., Daejanggeum and Shikgaek etc.) are being

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exported, and the format of cooking programs that have been successful in South Korea (e.g., *Please Take Care of My Refrigerator*) is often exported as well.

The increase in media about food has led to the emergence of star chefs (Zopiatis & Melanthiou, 2019). Several chefs who appear in the media are gaining recognition from customers and gaining popularity.

A star chef can be said to be a chef who becomes famous through media appearances (Giousmpasoglou et al., 2020). Due to these changes, professional cooking gained social status, and star chefs became valuable assets for restaurants. Therefore, the South Korean Star Chefs themselves (such as Edward Gwan, Lee Yunbok, Sam Kim, Choi Hyeonseok, Yang Jaejoong) who are operating their own restaurants have become a brand. In recent years, the names of some famous chefs who gained popularity and became public figures have become brand names, and such branding has become an important means for business.

Star Chefs have been studied in various ways, for example, as brand chefs (Kim et al., 2007), celebrity chefs (Hansen, 2008; Henderson, 2011; Tonner, 2008), and Star Chefs (Addison, 2010). The concept of Star Chef explored in the literature is commercially used as the right path as suggested by the Star Chef (Tonner, 2008). The branding of a Star Chef is done by the chef him/herself or used as a marketing tool (Byrne et al., 2003), similar to how a well-known person is used for marketing communication (Thomson, 2006). This type of marketing results in an increasing number of restaurant visitors, depending on the value and intensity of the Star Chef brand (Brownlie et al., 2007).

Customers recognize the brand with a positive impression created by using specific images associated with high quality and value (Richardson et al., 1994). In other words, customers judge the quality and value of the brand based on its image (Jacoby et al., 1971). Similarly, they measure the quality and value of the brand based on their overall recognition of the Star Chef's image in terms of

interpersonal relationships, cooking skills, and creativity (Fang et al., 2013; Kuroshima, 2010; Zopiatis, 2010).

Familiarity has attracted researchers' interest for decades, as it has a special effect on customers' decisionmaking (Bettman & Park, 1980). Familiarity reflects direct and indirect knowledge that is available for individuals (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987). It might be derived from not only information directly obtained by using the product in person but also external information, such as advertisement or word-of-mouth (Gursoy, 2001).

The image of the brand that is created by interactions with customers influences the reputation of the brand (Walsh et al., 2009). Reputation influences the connection with customers, and the importance of creating a good reputation is increasing (Becker et al., 2013). The reputation of a Star Chef created by his/her interactions with the customers (Fombrun & Van Riel, 2003) is based on the Star Chef's activities over time (Balmer & Greyser, 2003). Customers' intent to visit or consistently visit the restaurant is created by the good reputation of the Star Chef (Aaker, 1996).

The importance of service quality and environment has been highlighted in previous studies of restaurants, but studies of chefs who provide services are limited (Chen et al., 2016). Therefore, we explored the Star Chefs' images among customers who visit their restaurants in order to understand the effect of such images on familiarity, reputation, and loyalty. By doing so, the image management of Star Chefs can be directed, and the marketing strategy for consistent growth for a rapidly increasing franchise system can be based on such image management.

II. Literature Review and Hypotheses

A. Image

It has been widely known that brand image plays a key role in customers' decisionmaking (Grönroos,

1984; Lee & Jin, 2019). Brand image is recognition of the brand associated with the memory of customers' thoughts and emotions (Park, 2018; Keller, 1993).

Hsieh and Li (2008) argue that an intensive brand image creates better and more specific brand messages than the competitor's brand does. Therefore, brand image ultimately facilitates interactions with customers via smooth communication, including the service diversity, reputation, name, and ideology of the business (Fatema et al., 2015). Customer satisfaction with interactions results in a positive customer image or business reputation (Esch et al., 2006; Loureiro & Kastenholz, 2011).

Star chefs also brand themselves and create an image. The image of these star chefs plays an important role in the success of the restaurant industry (Okumuş et al., 2007). A star chef's image can have a significant impact on the perception of a restaurant and customer preferences. According to previous research, the star chef image is closely related to the overall perception and reputation of the restaurant (Graeff, 1996). This study highlights the importance of managing and cultivating a positive image of star chefs to attract and retain customers.

The image of a star chef encompasses various aspects such as culinary expertise, personality, and public personality. This is not only about cooking skills, but also the ability to communicate with the public and maintain an attractive media presence for the culinary experience.

Zopiatis (2010) states that the cooking skills of a chef and communications with other staff are important in improving the performance of a restaurant. Because the image of the chef in particular, rather than of the other restaurant staff, is considered to be the customers' overall perception of the interpersonal relationships, skills, cooking, and creativity of the chef (Fang et al., 2013; Kuroshima, 2010; Lin & Lin, 2006; Zopiatis, 2010), the Star Chef needs to understand the strengths and weaknesses of his/her image in order to improve (Barich & Kotler, 1991).

The first step of image formation is completed already when customers are familiar with the brand

(Srivastava, & Kamdar, 2009). Chen (2010) insists that brand image has direct or indirect effects on brand equity, which consists of brand awareness, perceived quality, brand association, and brand loyalty (Aaker, 1996), and brand association consists of brand awareness, familiarity, popularity, organizational associations, and brand image (Netemeyer et al., 2004). Therefore, we propose a positive relationship between Star Chef's image and familiarity.

H1: A Star Chef's image has a positive influence on the Star Chef's familiarity.

According to previous studies, company image has influenced company reputation (De Chernatony, 2001; Foroudi et al., 2014; Gray & Balmer, 1998). Fillis (2003) argues that brand image and brand reputation are influenced by brand identity. A positive company image perceived by customers positively influences the valuation and assessment of the company and improves company reputation (Walsh et al., 2009). Therefore, it can be said that the Star Chef's image influences his/her reputation.

H2: A Star Chef's image has a positive (+) influence on his/her reputation.

B. Familiarity

Familiarity has attracted researchers' interest for decades, since it has a special effect on customers' decisionmaking (Bettman & Park, 1980). Brand familiarity is highly valued in brand marketing, as a part of the brand signatures from the viewpoint of customers (Mulyanegara et al., 2009).

Because familiarity is a simple result of accumulated experiences with product categories or consumption (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987), a wide range of familiarity reflects various experiences with product categories in terms of purchased products and consumptions (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Familiarity reflects direct and indirect knowledge available to individuals (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987). Familiarity with a product or

brand as an accumulation of customers' experience with the product (Hoch & Deighton, 1989) implies customers' understanding of the product and its characteristics, as well as their ability to evaluate the quality of the product (Herrera & Blanco, 2011).

A brand that is familiar has perceptual or behavioral advantages over an unfamiliar brand (Tellis, 1988). New information about a familiar brand promptly assimilates into a previous knowledge system and even helps to address incomplete information more efficiently (Tellis, 1988). Such familiarity acts as a mechanism to reduce uncertainty (Gursoy, 2001). In other words, customers' recognition of risk could be eased by familiarity (Bhattacharjee, 2002). Customers with a lack of familiarity and a high level of risk will choose other channels (Black et al., 2002).

Brand familiarity is a primary component directly related to the time consumed in processing the brand's information (Baker et al., 1986). Customers take less time when purchasing from familiar brands than from unfamiliar ones (Biswas, 1992). A less familiar brand easily modifies the schema with new stimuli, whereas a familiar brand is less influenced by new information, because it has an already established robust schema (Musante, 2006). When new information does not comply with previous brand knowledge and customers have a robust schema, new information might be distorted or ignored in order to maintain the underlying schema (Crocker et al., 1984). It might be derived from not only information directly obtained by using the product in person but also external information, such as advertisements or word-of-mouth (Gursoy, 2001). In other words, familiarity can be a comprehensive meaning that includes the propensity to consume, prior knowledge, and intensity of faith. In addition, the degree of familiarity as a subjective evaluation by customers is presented as the degree of interdependence, frequency of contact, robust relationship, various activities, and long-term relationship, according to Kelley et al. (1983). Familiarity consumes a large proportion of the quality of the relationship (Clark & Reis, 1988).

Brand familiarity, as the knowledge about the

brand, was facilitated by the frequency of customers' brand-related experiences (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987). Brand familiarity refers to the awareness of brand knowledge that is remembered by customers and derived from customers' previous experiences with the brand. It plays an important role in the efficiency of image delivery (Carrillat et al., 2005).

A familiar brand can attract customers' interest. Ha and Perks (2005) demonstrated that brand familiarity influenced customer satisfaction and brand trust. Laroche et al. (1996) insist that brand familiarity influences brand appraisal in traditional stores. In addition, Darby and Schlenker (1989) argue that familiarity felt by people facilitates the formation of a good reputation. In other words, reputation for friendly people is well appreciated (Nakra, 2000). Therefore, we propose a positive relationship between Star Chef's image and his/her reputation.

H3: A Star Chef's familiarity has a positive (+) influence on his/her reputation.

Well-known brands might have the advantage of being favored over unfamiliar brands (Colombo & Morrison, 1989). Holehonnur et al. (2009) argue that brand awareness has a significant relationship with brand equity. In addition, familiar brands have positive influences on the intent to purchase the brand via the confidence in and attitude towards the brand (Laroche et al., 1996). Therefore, it can be said that the Star Chef's familiarity influences the loyalty to the Star Chef.

H4: A Star Chef's familiarity has a positive (+) influence on loyalty.

C. Reputation

Reputation emerges by the overall inference on emotional responses that are created by the customers' recognition of each component (Grund, 1996). It could be good, poor, trustworthy, or faithful depending on the specific component of the topic (Brown, 1998).

Since business reputation is related to business performance, including the customers' intent to purchase, a good reputation can become an intangible asset of the business (Andreassen, 1999; Yoon et al., 1993). A business's reputation is generally considered by customers before deciding on a purchase (Zeithaml, 2000).

For example, customers often have difficulty remembering specific restaurants and tend to be reluctant to visit unfamiliar restaurants. The reputation of the chef could become an intangible asset of the restaurant. As a result of the direct and indirect experiences as well as of information received (Ruth & York, 2004; Yoon et al., 1993), the reputation has been formed from the chef's past behaviors (Weigelt & Camerer, 1988).

Company image is the mental imagery of individuals, whereas reputation is the judgmental, overall evaluation by customers (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001; Herbig & Milewics, 1994). In marketing studies, company reputation is perceived as a dynamic concept that includes the brand company image and company fame, and the establishment and management of the company's reputation were found to take time (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001).

Although marketing researchers have studied attitude as an influential factor for brand loyalty (Wang et al., 2016), brand reputation is another important factor influencing loyalty (Arslanagic-Kalajdzic et al., 2017). Increased reputation causes customers' loyalties to the brand and increases the potential for customers to recommend the brand to others (Wang et al., 2003). Several studies on company reputation demonstrated that a good company reputation had a positive influence on company performance, customer behavior (Fombrun & Van Riel, 1997), and customer loyalty (MacMillan et al., 2005; Dick & Basu, 1994). Therefore, we propose a positive relationship between a Star Chef's familiarity and loyalty.

H5: A Star Chef's reputation has a positive (+) influence on loyalty.

D. Royalty

Brand loyalty, one of the most important brand equities, is having a better attitude toward the specific brand than toward the competitor's brands (Hanzaee, & Andervazh, 2012). A positive attitude should come first when customers purchase the brand. However, brand attitude and intent to purchase cannot be developed unless the brand is recognized (Rossister & Perey, 1991). Therefore, customers seem to decide to purchase familiar and well-established brands only (Keller, 1993). Increased brand loyalty accompanies increased brand value (Utama, 2019).

Brand loyalty is defined as commitment to a target brand, not an individual or a group (Galan-Ladero et al., 2013). It is derived from an individual's general tendency towards the brand (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Dick & Basu, 1994). It is similar to customers' brand commitment (Fournier, 1998) and is simultaneously a result of brand trust (Moorman et al., 1992). Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004) insist that loyalty is volunteers' feelings of affection and commitment to the organization that they are supporting. As a power to influence customers who purchase the same product or brand and decide to switch over to the competition's brands, brand loyalty has a positive relationship with brand image (Yoo Donthu, & Lee, 2000). Marshall (2010) argues that brand value can be raised by customer support that is created or maintained by brand loyalty on a long-term basis.

Companies become more competitive by securing loyal customers (Pham, 2019). Therefore, securing customer loyalty by managing relationships with customers would help companies to create long-term investment and profitability (Samadi & Yaghoob, 2009). It also enables companies to resist situations or marketing that could cause brand switchover behavior (Oliver, 1999). Accordingly, brand loyalty leads to repeated purchases and positive word-of-mouth (WOM), and ultimately to future profit (Caruana, 2002).

III. Research Design

A. Sample Collection

To validate the study model and hypotheses, data was collected via questionnaires for each variable. The study data were collected from the target customers of South Korean Star Chef restaurants. Representative South Korean Star Chefs appearing on South Korean TV programs who are running their own restaurants were contacted and told about the objective of this study. Of the nine Star Chefs contacted for cooperation, six Star Chef restaurants agreed to join this study. A questionnaire study was conducted for 14 days from 01 to 13 April 2023, by the staff of a survey-specialized agency who were trained for this study. Questionnaires were dispensed to South Korean customers who were leaving the restaurants after finishing their meal. A total of 330 copies of the questionnaire (55 copies per restaurant) were distributed to six restaurants. The customers who participated in the survey received a small gift. A total of 306 copies were returned, but two incomplete copies were used for post-hoc analysis, giving a 92.1% response rate.

The statistics and analyses of the survey responses were conducted by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 and the Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) version 21.0, as follows. First, a frequency analysis was conducted to characterize the samples. Second, a confirmatory factor analysis for confidence and validation was conducted to confirm the reliability of the measured items. Third, the relationships of the Star Chef's image, familiarity, reputation, and customer loyalty were analyzed by using a structural equation model.

B. Measures

Each item was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by 'disagree strongly' and 'agree strongly'. First, a Star Chef's image was defined as the Star Chef's ability to smoothly communicate with

customers based on his/her professional cooking skills. It was measured by nine items that were adapted for this study from the items used by Chen et al. (2016). The Star Chef's familiarity was defined as the degree of familiarity with the Star Chef. It was measured with six items that were adapted for this study from McCracken (1989). The Star Chef's reputation was an indicator of the Star Chef's reliability and was measured with three items that were adapted from Han et al. (2015). Customer loyalty was defined as the customers' willingness to tell others about the Star Chef in a positive way and to revisit the Star Chef's restaurant. It was measured with three items adapted from the word-of-mouth intention used by Babin et al. (2005).

IV. Empirical Analysis

A. Profiles of Participants

The general demographics of the 304 respondents in this study are provided in Table 1.

The gender distribution was 57.2% (174) males and 42.8% (130) females. Approximately 52.3% (159) of the respondents were not married; 47.4% (144) were married. For age, the largest proportion was those in their 30s at 37.2% (113), followed by those in their 20s at 29.6% (90), 40s at 21.1% (64), and over 50s at 12.2% (37) in descending order. For occupation, those who performed administrative/office work had the largest proportion, at 59.5% (181), while professional was at 11.2% (34), students at 7.2% (22), sales/service jobs and housewives at 6.9% (21), other/unemployed at 4.9% (15), and technical/production jobs at 3.3% (10) in descending order. For the highest level of education, the largest proportion were undergraduates and university graduates at 69.7% (212), followed by lower than high school at 12.5% (38), higher than postgraduate at 10.2% (31), and vocational college and vocational college graduates at 7.2% (22) in descending order. For monthly average income per household, the

Table 1. Profile of the sample ($n = 304$)

Characteristic		n	%	Characteristic		n	%
Gender	Male	174	57.2	Marital status	Married	144	47.4
	Female	130	42.8		Unmarried	159	52.3
Age	20-29	90	29.6		No answer	1	0.3
	30-39	113	37.2	Monthly income level	Less than KRW 1 million	5	1.6
	40-49	64	21.1		KRW 1 - 1.99 million	14	4.6
	More than 50	37	12.2		KRW 2 - 3.99 million	85	28.0
Family members	1 person	37	12.2		KRW 4 - 5.99 million	107	35.2
	2 people	35	11.5		KRW 6 - 7.99 million	43	14.1
	3 people	83	27.3		Over KRW 8 million	49	16.1
	4 people	127	41.8		No answer	1	0.3
	5 people	16	5.3	Job	Student	22	7.2
	Over 6 people	6	2.0		Office work	181	59.5
Education level	High School	38	12.5		Professional	34	11.2
	Vocational (two-year) college	22	7.2		Sales/Service	21	6.9
	University	212	69.7		Technical	10	3.3
	Postgraduate school	31	10.2		Housewife	21	6.9
	No answer	1	0.3		Other	15	4.9

largest proportion of KRW was 4.00 - 5.99 million at 35.2% (107), followed by 2.00 - 3.99 million at 28.0% (85), over 8 million at 16.1% (49), 6.00 - 7.99 million at 14.1% (43), 1.00 - 1.99 million at 4.6% (14), and less than 1 million at 1.6% (5) in descending order. For the number of family members, 4 people took the largest proportion at 41.8% (127), followed by 3 people at 27.3% (83), 1 person at 12.2% (37), 2 people at 11.5% (35), 5 people at 5.3%, and 6 people or more at 2.0% (6) in descending order.

B. Measurement Model

To validate convergent validity and discriminant validity of the measures, measurement model analysis was conducted in all the study units included in this model.

The analysis described in Table 2 found a fit index of $\chi^2 = 143.812$ ($df = 71$, $\chi^2/df = 2.026$, $p = 0.000$), $RMR = 0.065$, $CFI = 0.978$, $NFI = 0.957$, $GFI = 0.932$, $AGFI = 0.900$, and $RMSEA = 0.05$, all

appropriate for use in the structural model analysis. Meanwhile, the factor load was more than 0.6 and significant ($t > 2.00$), which demonstrated convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). In addition, composite construct reliability (CCR) and average variance extracted (AVE) of study units were found to meet the standards (CCR 0.6 or more, AVE 0.5 or more) suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Bandura (1986), and AVE was higher than the square of the relation value ($AVE > r^2$), which demonstrated discriminant validity. The Cronbach's α for each factor as 0.882 confirmed that confidence was obtained.

In addition, to validate common method bias of the same method, the Harman's one-factor test was conducted (Nie et al., 2015). In the one-factor test, a total variation of a single factor was compared to χ^2 and the freedom degree of the models controlled and uncontrolled by a single factor, as suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986). As a result, the total variation of a single factor was not more than 50% with $\chi^2 = 1024.271$ and $df = 77$ in a one-factor model (vs. multidimensional model: $\chi^2 = 143.812$ and $df = 71$ in a multidimensional model), which

Table 2. Results of confirmatory factor analysis^a

Items	Standardized factor loadings	CCR ^b	AVE ^c	Cronbach α
Image		0.871	0.623	0.891
Star chefs cook delicious food. *	-			
Star chefs are professional.	0.803			
Star chefs are innovative.	0.790			
Star chefs have aesthetic sense.	0.842			
Star chefs have good interpersonal relationship. *	-			
Star chefs are good at communication. *	-			
Star chefs have an ability to answer cooking-related questions.	0.773			
Star chefs can speak foreign language. *	-			
Star chefs can explain unique cooking methods.	0.733			
Familiarity		0.825	0.772	0.909
I can notice the food cooked by star chefs.	0.879			
I am familiar with food cooked by star chefs	0.916			
I can associate food cooked by star chefs with the price or quality.	0.840			
Reputation		0.848	0.715	0.882
Star chefs are reliable.	0.868			
Star chefs have gained good reputation.	0.812			
Star chefs are honest.	0.855			
Loyalty		0.894	0.805	0.924
I tell others about the restaurants run by star chefs in positive way.	0.859			
I recommend the restaurants run by star chefs to others.	0.914			
I recommend my friends or relatives to try the restaurants run by star chefs.	0.917			

^a $\chi^2 = 143.812$ (df = 71, $\chi^2/df = 2.026$, p-value = 0.000), RMR = 0.065, CFI = 0.978, NFI = 0.957, GFI = 0.932, AGFI = 0.900, RMSEA = 0.058

^b Composite construct reliability

^c Average variance extracted

* Items were deleted during confirmatory factor analysis.

suggests that the multidimensional model was a better fit than the single-factor measurement model (Lee et al., 2014).

C. Correlation Analysis

The results of the correlation analysis to examine the direction of the relationship between the measures of this study with single dimensionality, as demonstrated by the validity and reliability analysis, and the depth of their correlation, demonstrate that the direction of the relationship between the study units suggested that the study model and hypothesis were consistent, as described in Table 3.

D. Structural Model and Hypotheses Testing

As a result of validating the overall model between the study units, such as the Star Chef image, familiarity, reputation, and loyalty, used in this study with the structural equation model (SEM), the fitness was found as $\chi^2 = 136.014$, df = 71 ($\chi^2/df = 1.916$, p = 0.000), RMR = 0.061, GFI = 0.939, AGFI = 0.910, NFI = 0.960, CFI = 0.980, and RMSEA = 0.055. In addition, accounting for endogenous variables by using exogenous variables (R2) showed that the reputation was 0.774 (77.4%), familiarity was 0.130 (13.0%), and loyalty was 0.672 (67.2%).

The structural model analysis was conducted to validate the hypothesis about the relationships

between the study units, such as the Star Chef's image, familiarity, reputation, and loyalty; the results are provided in Table 4.

First, the Star Chef's image had a significant influence on familiarity (Hypothesis 1) at $p < 0.001$ ($\beta_1 = 0.361$; $t = 5.706$) and reputation (Hypothesis 2) at $p < 0.001$ ($\beta_2 = 0.623$; $t = 11.766$). Second, the Star Chef's familiarity had a significant influence on reputation (Hypothesis 3) at $p < 0.001$ ($\beta_3 = 0.436$; $t = 9.400$), and the Star Chef's familiarity had a significant influence on loyalty (Hypothesis 4) at $p < 0.001$ ($\beta_4 = 0.225$; $t = 3.814$). Last, the Star Chef's reputation had a significant influence on loyalty (Hypothesis 5) at $p < 0.001$ ($\beta_5 = 0.654$; $t = 9.971$).

V. Results

A. Theoretical Implications

This study validated the relationship between the Star Chef and customer loyalty by using the human brand image of the celebrity. Specifically, it analyzed the effect of the image of Star Chefs that appeared on South Korean TV with a familiarity and reputation that facilitated loyalty in customers.

Images had a greater effect on reputation than familiarity, and reputation had a greater effect on loyalty, which differed from the arguments by Carrillat et al. (2005) that familiarity has an important role in the efficiency of image delivery. Furthermore, this study approached the relationship between brand image and brand equity empirically studied by Chen

Table 3. Correlations, mean, standard deviation, AVE, R^2 (Squared correlations)

	Image	Reputation	Familiarity	Loyalty
Image	0.623 ^a	0.483 ^b	0.130 ^b	0.370 ^b
Reputation	0.695 ^{**}	0.715 ^a	0.346 ^b	0.500 ^b
Familiarity	0.361 ^{**}	0.588 ^{**}	0.772 ^a	0.375 ^b
Loyalty	0.608 ^{**}	0.707 ^{**}	0.612 ^{**}	0.805 ^a
Mean	5.284	4.814	4.099	4.683
S. D.	0.922	1.046	1.367	1.139

^{**} $p < 0.001$, ^a = AVE, ^b = Squared correlations

Table 4. Standardized structural estimates

	Path	Standardized estimate	t-Value		
H1	Image → Familiarity	0.361	5.705	***	Supported
H2	Image → Reputation	0.623	11.766	***	Supported
H3	Familiarity → Reputation	0.436	9.400	***	Supported
H4	Familiarity → Loyalty	0.225	3.814	***	Supported
H5	Reputation → Loyalty	0.654	9.971	***	Supported
R^2	Familiarity		0.130(13.0%)		
	Reputation		0.774(77.4%)		
	Loyalty		0.672(67.2%)		
Model fit	χ^2		136.014		
	df		71		
	p-value		0.000		

*** $p < 0.001$

$\chi^2 = 136.014$, $df = 71$ ($\chi^2/df = 1.916$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$), $RMR = 0.061$, $GFI = 0.939$, $AGFI = 0.910$, $NFI = 0.960$, $CFI = 0.980$, $RMSEA = 0.055$

(2010), with the subdivision of brand equity and familiarity.

Although some studies have considered reputation to be a precedent factor of image (Pae & Lee, 2015), our study has suggested image as a precedent factor of reputation, which is consistent with an argument by Fillis (2003) and Foroudi et al. (2014) that brand identity influences brand image and reputation. Brand image is the customers' brand imagery, whereas brand reputation involves customers' appraisal (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001; Herbig & Milewics, 1994). In other words, brand image is a unique characteristic of the brand, but brand reputation is considered an evaluation of the brand. Therefore, brand image was examined as a precedent factor of brand reputation.

B. Practical Implications

Recently "Eat Broadcasts" and "Cook Broadcasts" have become popular in South Korea. Some chefs have been developing a relationship with consumers via such broadcasts (De Backer & Hudders, 2016). As a result, they could brand their names to create a brand image of a Star Chef. Many chefs have developed their own brand and made consumers aware of their brand via broadcasting. In South Korea, where internet and mobile communication tools are highly advanced, a Star Chef's image can be used as an excellent marketing tool (Byrne et al., 2003).

Chefs might become a Star Chef by acquainting themselves with expertise in cooking. They can be positively accepted by consumers by explaining their food based on rich expertise. In addition, chefs need to invent their own cuisine by applying consistent effort in developing new dishes. There is a Korean saying that what looks good also tastes good. Star chefs are supposed to consider good-looking cuisine important, because consumers who first recognize the cuisine of the chef via the media might have to rely on their vision and the appraisal of others, because they could not try smelling and eating the cuisine in person. In addition, Star Chefs need to have not only expertise in cooking but also the ability

to make and maintain appropriate interpersonal relationships. When such combined images are basically met, consumers have an increased familiarity with the Star Chef, which results in a positive Star Chef reputation.

Star Chefs need to have their own cuisine or cooking method that can be acknowledged by consumers. They can be differentiated from other chef by their own cuisine or cooking method. In other words, consumers never visit the Star Chefs' restaurants for services and food that are available just anywhere.

Since Star Chefs are well known to consumers, the notorious behaviors of Star Chefs that are socially problematic may be recognized by consumers for a long time. Because of advanced mobile communication in particular, the rapid spread of information and real-time broadcasting of internet news can cause Star Chefs social problems that may result in the closing of their businesses temporarily or in their being outcast from the field permanently.

C. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The limits of this study included the following. First, the image and reputation were examined by personifying the brand in this study. This type of study could not include all the different human characteristics. Therefore, a study of the human brand image and human brand reputation that reflects all the characteristics of humans is needed in future studies.

Second, there are some difficulties in generalizing this study worldwide. There are only a few chefs that appear on TV programs in South Korea. Chefs appear not only in cooking programs, but also in other types of entertainment programs to reflect other features beyond cooking.

Third, the brand image and brand reputation were studied as a single factor. There was a limit in explaining the brand image and brand reputation in one dimension. Therefore, further study is needed

to examine brand image and brand reputation in multiple dimensions for a better explanation.

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