ORIGINAL ARTICLE

A Review on Personal Branding and Social Media

Hossein Alipour[1], Mehdi Hazrati Jahan[2], Shahzad Jamaati-e-Somarin[3*]

1. Department of Industrial Engineering, Islamic Azad University-Khalkhal Branch, Khalkhal, Iran.
2. Department of Management, Ardabil Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ardabil, Iran.
3. Young Researchers and Elite Club, Ardabil Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ardabil, Iran.
*Corresponding Author email: jamaati_1361@yahoo.com

Abstract: Brands are identifiable attributes, physical marks, emotional markers and cognitive triggers used to create a differentiated promise of future experiences based on prior offers of value through memories of prior product experience, or assumptions of future experiences based on the reputation of the product, provider or service. Personal branding is the process whereby people and their careers are marked as brands and it differs from reputation management and impression management with its purpose. It is directly intended to create an asset and brand equity that pertains to a particular person or individual. Usually branding efforts require extensive financial support for promotion to create brand awareness and afterwards brand loyalty. Social media, with its ideological and technological structure, gives the opportunity to the people to promote themselves as brands in a relatively cheap and efficient manner. The most important thing to be able to shape the corporate brand is to align your vision and values with the vision of the company. To be able to use your personal brand, you need to know who you are and what you hold to be true. It is important that in what extent the leader can use the personal brand to shape the corporate brand will be dependent of different positions and different companies. However, we believe that leaders within every sector have more or less ability to use their personal brand to shape the corporate brand.

Keywords: distinctive, corporate, technological structure, personality, media.

Introduction

Brands are identifiable attributes, physical marks, emotional markers and cognitive triggers used to create a differentiated promise of future experiences based on prior offers of value through memories of prior product experience, or assumptions of future experiences based on the reputation of the product, provider or service (Dann and Jensen, 2007). The brand is a complex combination of the manufactured elements of the marketing communications toolkit to create a set of differentiating promises that reside in the mind of the consumer (Ahmed and Zairi, 1999; Okazaki, 2006). The functional purpose of branding within marketing is to communicate a set of differentiating promises about the value offering in the mind of the consumer through a bundle of key attributes (Ahmed and Zairi, 1999; Agres and Dubitsky, 1997). Personal branding is the process whereby people and their careers are marked as brands and it differs from reputation management and impression management with its purpose. It is directly intended to create an asset and brand equity that pertains to a particular person or individual. It includes but not limited to the physical appearance and personal knowledge, it leads to a uniquely distinguishable and memorable impression. Usually branding efforts require extensive financial support for promotion to create brand awareness and afterwards brand loyalty. Social media, with its ideological and technological structure, gives the opportunity to the people to promote themselves as brands in a relatively cheap and efficient manner (Karaduman, 2013).

Personal branding is a comparatively new subject within the field of marketing, and was created by Tom Peters in 1997. Peters presented the concept of Me Inc., the personal company where everyone is seen as their own manager (Shepherd, 2005). Kotler (1988) defines brand as a distinguishing name, term, sign, symbol or design (such as logo, trademark or package design) - or a combination of the all - which intends to identify the goods or services of one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods and services from those of the competitors (p.463). This definition agrees with other important researchers 'definitions in the brand management literature (Aaker, 1991 p. 7; Keller, 2003 p.3). Aaker (1991, p. 7) defines brand as "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". Morgan et al. (2002, p. 335) identify branding as 'the most powerful marketing weapon available to contemporary destination marketers' due to "increasing product parity, substitutability and competition". In order to create a successful brand, it is important for the marketers to carefully choose from the number of brand elements that help identify their product and create unique brand associations (Keller, 2003 p.3). Brands can benefit from

consumer-generated ads under certain circumstances. When information is released that consumers, rather than the firm, created the ad, such attribution benefits the brand (i) if the ad viewers' ability to scrutinize the message is low (i.e., constrained cognitive resources), (ii) if ad viewers learn background characteristics about the ad creator that enhance the perceived similarity between them and the ad creator, and (iii) if ad viewers are highly loyal toward the brand (Thompson andMalaviya 2013). A branding strategy is developed for "encouraging awareness and establishing perceptions of quality and favorable associations" (Henderson, 2000, p. 37). These associations should be unique and because all the successful branding programs are based on the concept of singularity. Generally, the objective of branding strategy is to create the perception that there is no other product in the market with those attributes. Thus, differentiation through branding lies at the very heart of the marketing concept. According to Keller (2003) a product can be anything that is offered to the markets'attention, use or consumption (such as a social cause, a bank or a car) in an attempt to satisfy a need or a want (p.3. On the other hand, a brand-adds other dimensions that differentiate the product in some way from other products designed to satisfy the same need‖ (Keller, 2003 p.4). A brand has become a powerful tool that represents value for both consumers and companies (Hakala, Svensson & Vincze, 2012).

Even though, there is not a generally accepted definition of destination branding Blain et al. (2005, p. 337) proposed that "Destination branding is the set of marketing activities that (1) support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that readily identifies and differentiates a destination; that (2) consistently convey the expectation of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; that (3) serve to consolidate and reinforce the emotional connection between the visitor and the destination; and that (4) reduce consumer search costs and perceived risk. Collectively, these activities serve to create a destination image that positively influences consumer destination choice". Since, the phenomenon of branding online has not been examined from a personal perspective, despite its growing importance (Labrecque, Markos and Milne, 2011), Peterson and Seligman (2004) explains that the relationship between a manager's character strengths and his or her performance have been examined many times in the literature. The number of companies that began to recognize-brand as their most marketable asset and as an invaluable source of competitive advantage has been increasing over the last few decades (Aaker, 1991 p.47; Kapferer, 2008). As Keller (1993) puts it, by building brands and creating brand images, companies support

positioning and differentiation of their products in addition to establishing an extra value that transcends the value of the physical product itself (p.2).

Montoya (2002) points out the importance of aligning the personal brand with the corporate brand, since the personal brand of the people in an organization can affect how external stakeholders perceive the corporate brand. Kotler (2000) defined personal brand as a sellers promise to deliver consistently a specific set of features, benefits and services related to their own skills and ability. As Keller's (2006) concept was not dependent on initial celebrity or profile, graduates, athletes, artists, service professionals and community leaders were equally likely benefit from self branding activity. The personal brand consists of four elements of attributes, promised benefits, values and personality (Plummer, 2000; Kapferer 2008; Keller 1993). Personal branding involves managing your reputation, style, look, attitude and skill set the same way that a marketing team would run the brand for a bag of Doritos or bottle of shampoo. The idea is that you can develop a collection of symbols and associations with yourself, granting your name, face and work the same benefits that companies with solid brand equity (like Coca-Cola or Apple) enjoys (Wright, 2009).

Brand stories contain a plot, characters playing a role in the plot, a climax, and an outcome that causes empathy in listeners and helps them to remember the story (Schank 1999; Singh and Sonnenburg 2012; Woodside 2010). A brand story exerts a persuasive impact through narrative transportation, that is, by transporting consumers into the world of the brand narrative (Escalas 2007). Examples of firm-generated brand stories are advertising campaigns such as Dove's "Real Beauty" campaign and Ben & Jerry's website that stresses the origins of the company (Singh and Sonnenburg 2012). Such conversations enable consumers to integrate their own brand-related experiences and thoughts into the brand story (Escalas 2004; Singh and Sonnenburg 2012). Hence, "[brand] stories can help build awareness, comprehension, empathy, recognition, recall, and provide meaning to the brand" (Singh and Sonnenburg 2012, p. 189). Traditionally, brand managers have used one-to-many marketing communications, such as advertising, to pass their brand stories on to consumers (Hoffman and Novak 1996). Kapferer (2008) claims that a brand can be built and created, whereas Grönroos (2010) states that it is not relevant to talk about brand building or creating a brand. According to Grönroos (2010 pp. 330-331) the traditional definition for brand excludes the customer and assumes that the company creates the brand, which then equals how customers perceive the brand. Grönroos' definition of brand includes the

customer in the branding process. He claims that when keeping apart brand image and brand identity a wrong impression of brand building has emerged, where the customer experiences and reflects on a readily created brand. According to Grönroos (2010 pp. 330-331) brand messages are continuously received by the customers, which put together form the brand image, or just brand. There are many different definitions of what a personal brand is, and how to shape and maintain a personal brand (Aaker, 2010; Gad & Rosencreutz, 2002; Montoya, 2002).

Brand equity is one of the most important assets that an organization can have. From the organizations 'point of view, brand equity delivers increased efficiency and effectiveness in marketing programs. Through brand equity, firms enjoy customer loyalty, ability to pursue brand extension strategies and competitive advantage (Aaker, 1991, p.17). Similarly, Keller (1993) proposes that enhancing brand equity results in the ability to command larger margins from consumers, improved marketing communication effectiveness, licensing opportunities, and increased consumers' responsiveness to brand extensions. Brands create value; they are intangible assets "that produce added benefits for the business" (Kapferer 2008 p. 9). The American Marketing Association (2012) defines brands and branding as follows: "A brand is a customer's experience represented by a collection of images and ideas; often, it refers to a symbol such as a name, logo, slogan, and design scheme." In branding literature the expressions brand image and brand identity often occur (Grönroos 2010; Kapferer 2008). The customer's viewpoint is often referred to as brand image, which is a set of associations, impulses, images, observations and reactions that combined form the perception of the brand. The brand identity is the image the company wants to create (Grönroos 2010 pp. 301-302; Aaker 2010) Therefore, branding can be seen as the process of creating an identity for a product, service or firm, encouraging the image that customers identify as a specific brand.

Keller (2003) implies that theories about branding can be extended to people, and this type of branding can be an important factor for a company's continued growth (Thomson, 2006; Hughes, 2007).

Within the personal branding movement, people and their careers are marketed as brands complete with promises of performance, specialized designs, and tag lines for success (Lair, Sullivan and Cheney, 2012). Traditionally, branding literature portrays brand identity as the uniqueness and essential idea of the brand (Aaker, 1997; De Chernatony, 2010; Kapferer, 2008). Montoya (2002) and Schein (2004) mention that a personal brand can be a useful tool to influence the organizational culture and the vision of a company, but they do not mention how the personal brand can be used to achieve this. The business world is beginning to

recognize the importance of controlling personal brands and offering strategic advice about how to project a desired personal brand identity through the use of different social media (Labrecque, Markos and Milne, 2011; Safko and Brake 2009; Schwabel 2009). According to Kay (2006). He means that a personal brand should be seen in the same way. Personal branding is about finding what is true and unique about you and let other people know about it (Peters, 1997).

A personal brand will be able to create competitive advantages and a possibility to reach the personal goals (Peters, 1997; Schawbel, 2009). Therefore, it is important to be aware of that it is an on -going process to shape and maintain the personal brand (Werner Runebjörk, 2006).

Despite the importance of branding and the high adoption rate of social media, very few specific, empirical studies (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Hsu and Tsou, 2011) have dealt with these issues. So there is an important need in the literature to explore the effects of branding on marketing variables related to social media (Laroche, Habibi and Richard, 2013). A personal brand can be an important tool in the field of management and leadership since it can create a competitive advantage that differs you from other managers or leaders, and can help you to create a successful career (Rampersad, 2008). Granér (1994) points out the difference between a manager and a leader by saying that the manager becomes a leader first when the employees accept the manager's position.

The brand and image of a destination is very important because destinations with a positive and clear image enjoy stronger market positioning than those without (Cai, 2002). Göransson (2012) means that a leader has a charismatic personality that creates followers, while the manager becomes a manager because of his/her position and not the personality. A personal brand can be a useful tool to influence the employees and shape an organizational culture within the company that will reflect the corporate brand (Montoya, 2002; Schein, 2004). According to Yukl (2010) a leader should encourage and inspire the employees to achieve the goals of the organization. Therefore, the personal brand of the leader is important to be able to build a trustworthy relationship with the employees, which will make them motivated and aligned with the values of the organization and the corporate brand (Shenkman, 2007). Personal brand is able to shape the corporate brand (Aaker, 2010; Peters, 1997; Gad & Rosencreutz, 2002),

Personal Brand

Since the late 1990s, self-marketing and personal branding have become increasingly popular as subjects of self-improvement books, Web sites and consultancy services, especially in the USA

(Shepherd, 2005). Personal branding is how we market ourselves to others (Schawbel 2008). Neale, Hughes & Dann explain that a personal brand is a subset of brand theory and "therefore a human or personal brand would be defined as being a person, name, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of these, intended to identify the goods or services of one seller, or group of sellers, and to differentiate them from those of competitors" (Neale, Hughes & Dann 2008).

Rampersad (2004) says that the personal brand is about creating an identity that people can associate to, with different interpretations and feelings. Werner Runebjörk (2006) argues that personal brands is not something people are, but something people have. At the same time, Jakobsson (2010) mentions that a personal brand only is a modern word for self-awareness. Furthermore, your personal brand will determine whether you will be successful or not and how trustworthy other people will perceive you (Frykman & Sandin, 2011). Shepherd (2005) also mentions that the personal brand will be a constrained version of an individual, and may lead to tensions since the personal brand only focus on selected abilities. The personal brand and the ethos are important for how other people perceive each other (Werner Runebjörk, 2006). Haig (2003) disagrees with this argument, and means that a personal brand itself will not guarantee success. The strength of a personal brand is determined by three combined components; Distinctive, Relevant and Consistent. It can be described as the ability for others to see and understand your personal brand (McNally & Speak, 2002).

"Personal branding describes the process by which individuals and entrepreneurs differentiate themselves and stand out from a crowd by identifying and articulating their unique value proposition, whether professional or personal, and then leverage it across platforms with a consistent message and image to achieve a specific goal. In this way, individuals can enhance their recognition as experts in their field, establish reputation and credibility, advance their careers, and build self-confidence" (Schawbel 2011 p. 4). The phenomenon invites a careful and searching analysis (Lair, Sullivan and Cheney, 2012). Labrecque, Markos and Milne (2011), examined how people manage online personal brands in a Web 2.0 context. The personal brand reflects how you want to be perceived by others and is shaped by highlighting those characteristics, and can therefore be an active choice (Werner Runebjörk, 2006; Bence, 2008).

The personal brand needs to be relevant in terms of you actually standing for something and then commu nicate your beliefs to others (Lam, 2003). A personal brand will make it possible for people to create relevant associations to you (Stratman, 2011). But relevance within a personal brand also includes you understanding and caring about other people's beliefs (McNally & Speak, 2002). To be able to create a relevant personal brand there cannot be any differences between your private life and your public person (Montoya, 2002).

A personal brand becomes distinctive when you act as you have said that you would do, regardless of whether there are obstacles or not. First, you must decide what you believe in and then commit these beliefs to your actions (McNally & Speak, 2002). The personal brand must be distinguished by contributing to benefits that are hard to find elsewhere (Stratman, 2011). It is about expressing yourself differently compared to other people and to give a strong impression (Montoya, 2002). The personal brand is also depending on how well people can identify their own qualities and characteristics. When you know your greatest strengths, your personal brand becomes distinctive and strong (Peters, 1997). When you differentiate yourself from other people it will enable you to be memorable (Lam, 2003).

When a personal brand is consistent it will enable people to be trusted by others, since they constantly will act and communicate in a certain way. The people around you will know what to expect from you (Lam, 2003). The consistency component for a brand is referred to people doing things in a distinctive and relevant way, over and over again (McNally & Speak, 2002). To be consistent is also about understanding what you deliver –and deliver it all the time (Sills, 2008). A consistent personal brand will allow people to keep their associations and feelings about someone, regardless of where the brand is experienced (Stratman, 2011). The explosion of social media and new technological development, it is even more important nowadays to create personal awareness and establish valuable relationships that can help you with your business (Vitberg, 2010). Gad and Rosencreutz (2002) describes that the genetic code between human beings only differs by 0.05%. The refore, they argue that it is important for people to understand how they can differ from other people by using different expressions or different ways of communicate (Gad & Ros encreutz, 2002).

Social Media

Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) describe social media as "a group of internet based application that build on the ideological and the technological foundation of Web2.0, and it allows the creation and exchange of user-generated content." Laroche, Habibi and Richard (2013) imply that the content is not consumed by people passively; instead, it is produced shared and consumed by users actively generated content. Preferred social network sites are Facebook (29%), LinkedIn (15%), YouTube (13%), Twitters (11%) and My Space (11%) and the social

networking media rated most useful are Facebook (mean=3.7), LinkedIn (mean=3.1), YouTube (mean=3.0), Blogs (mean=2.7), Webinars (mean=2.6) and Twitter (mean=2.5) (Lee, Tyyrell and Erdem, 2013). According to Kirtis and Karahan (2011) promoting brands and other marketing activities through social media doesn t cost the firm so much then it is widely evaluated as the most convenient instrument to market products to the target segment especially in these difficult times and social media which allows anybody to become a producer of such content and deliver it through interactive communication in the form of pyramid based on relationship is recognized as the most potentially powerful tool in business practice so marketers are intensively using social media to realize their strategies in a lower cost.

Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) categorize social media into six groups. In this categorization, micro blogging platforms (Twitter, Friendfeed etc.) and social media platforms for professionals (LinkedIn, Xing etc.) have been neglected. Table 1 is created by adding these categories to the classification of the previous work.

Table 1. Re-Classification of Social Media by Social Presence/Media Richness and Self-Presentation/Self-Disclosure

		Social Presence/Media Richness			
		Low	Medium		High
Self-Presentation/Self-Disclosure	High	Blogs	Social Networking Sites e.g. Facebook, Orkut	Micro-blogging sites e.g. Twitter, Friendfeed	Virtual Social Worlds e.g. Second Life
	Low	Collaborative Projects e.g. Wikipedia	Content Communities e.g. Youtube, Pinterest	Professional Sites e.g. LinkedIn, Xing	Virtual Game Worlds e.g. World of Warcraft

Source: Developed according to the study of Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010

Social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook enable the creation of virtual customer environments (VCEs) where online communities of interest form around specific firms, brands and products (Culnan, McHugh and Zubillaga, 2010). Social Media is ultimately about interacting with others with an expectation of getting something in return (IBM, 2011).

Since, the phenomenon of branding online has not been examined from a personal perspective, despite its growing importance (Labrecque, Markos and Milne, 2011), this study aims to create a roadmap for future researchers Similar to product branding, personal branding entails capturing and promoting an individual's strengths and uniqueness to a target audience (Kaputa, 2005; Schwabel, 2009; Shepherd, 2005; Labrecque, Markos and Milne, 2011). Peterson and Seligman (2004) explains that the relationship between a manager's character strengths and his or her performance have been examined many times in the literature.

Personal branding offers such a startlingly overt invitation to self-commodification; the phenomenon invites a careful and searching analysis (Lair, Sullivan and Cheney, 2012). Labrecque, Markos and Milne (2011), examined how people manage online personal brands in a Web 2.0 context.

All top level executives bring their knowledge, experiences and leadership styles to the companies they work for and they all have their own styles. As Bates (2011) mentioned most of them have a unique value by themselves. This means they are all brands.

But being a brand is not quite enough by itself. It needs a good brand management. The aims of using social media for Top Level Executives are in both personal and professional context. With a well-defined strategy, social media brand management can boost customer brand awareness and loyalty so as brands, top level executives need to manage their brands in social media.

"social Media is a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content" (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p. 61). Consumers in particular are more empowered by social media, as these technologies enable consumers to share their brand stories widely with peers. Research has already highlighted the persuasiveness of consumer-generated brand stories in the context of electronic word-of-mouth (e.g., Chevalier and Mayzlin 2006; Chintagunta, Gopinath, and Venkataraman 2010; Duan, Gu, and Whinston 2008; Sun 2012). Social media sites launched as far back as 1997 with the launch of SixDegrees.com (Ellison, 2008). Overtime, more and more social media site has become prevalent with a large surge of social media in the 2000's (Ellison, 2008). Such stories are more influential because they are often narratives and dramas that are more persuasive than arguments, since consumers also tend to organize information in such formats (Deighton, Romer, and McQueen 1989; Escalas 2004). Moreover, stories that include provoking incidents, experiences,

outcomes/evaluations, and summaries of person-to-person and person-to-brand relationships within specific contexts are easily retrieved from memory, which adds to the persuasive power of consumer-generated brand stories (Schank 1999; Woodside 2010).

Social media has been defined broadly as a media for social interaction (Agichten, et al., 2008). Social media has come to include items such as blogs, web forums, photo and video sharing communities, and social networking platforms such as Facebook (Agichten, et al., 2008). Ellison (2008) states, "Since their introduction, social network sites (SNSs) such as MySpace, Facebook, Cyworld, and Bebo have attracted millions of users, many of whom have integrated these sites into their daily practices" (p. 210). The impact of social media on consumer-generated brand stories and brand performance may depend on market characteristics (e.g., visibility of consumption; competition; Fischer, Völckner, and Sattler 2010)

Considering each of the above elements: social presence, media richness, self presentation, and self-disclosure, social media is further classified by outlet. Blogs, social networking sites (i.e. Facebook), and virtual social worlds (i.e. Second Life) are all higher self-presentation and self-disclosure with social presence and media richness increasing with the latter (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). On the other hand, collaborative projects (i.e. Wikipedia), content communities (i.e. YouTube), and virtual game worlds (i.e. World of Warcraft) are all lower self-presentation and self-disclosure with social presence

and media richness increasing with the latter (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). By social networks is meant web sites allowing users to create their own information profile and invite friends to have access to the profile in order to send e-mail, chat, share files, pictures and videos. Many companies use social networking services to create groups for the fans of a brand (Kaplan & Haenlein 2010).

Aspects of the Personal Brand

There are both internal and external aspects of a personal brand (McNally & Speak, 2002). There are many successful people around the world that have shaped and established a strong personal brand around themselves; Barack Obama (Bence, 2008), Bill Gates, Donald Trump and Oprah Winfrey (Rampersad, 2004). According to Keller (2001) building a strong CBBE can be undertaken in four main steps; (1) establishing the brand identity by establishing the brand awareness; (2) creating appropriate brand meaning through strong, favourable and unique brand associations; (3) drawing positive brand responses and (4) forming brand relationships with consumers characterized by closeness and loyalty (Keller, 2001). To be able to establish such personal brand you need to send out information about yourself to other people (Vitberg, 2010). The most important thing to think of when you shape your personal brand is to define yourself, communicate it to others and then protect your brand (Bence, 2008; Montoya, 2002). In the end, shaping a personal brand is about marketing and promoting yourself (Rampersad, 2004).
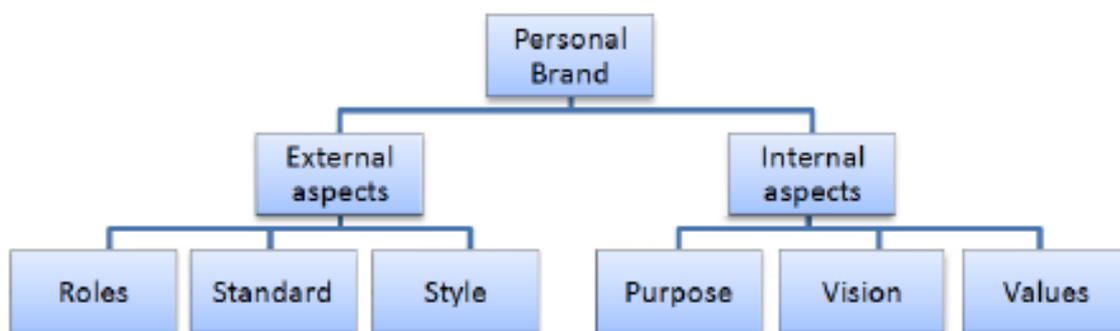

Figure 1. Internal and external aspects of the Personal Brand
Adapted from: McNally & Speak, 2002, p. 26; Boon Hwang, 2011.

According to Dhiman (2007) every life has a potential meaning despite the overall conditions, which means that even the most miserable life has a purpose (Dhiman, 2007). The search for a meaning is considered as a primary motivation for people, but there is no true way of finding a meaningful life (Dhiman, 2007). Personal vision plays an important role in people's life; to create an aim for moving towards meaningful destinations. It is also considered to be able to influence the motivation of a

person to achieve his or her goals (Masuda, Kane, Shoptaugh & Minor, 2010).

A person's values can be described as the background of his or her life. The background of someone's life will provide a framework for judging what is good or bad, important or not important (Ngoc Thuy & Nguyen Hau, 2010). The values that will make other people understand the vision (Yoeli & Berkovich, 2010). McNally and Speak (2002) defines the Personal Brand Dimensions Model, with

interrelated dimensions that explains how people connect to a brand. The model identifies, establishes and displays your brand roles, standards and style (Boon Hwang, 2011). This model can be used even for personal branding and consists of three dimensions; Roles, Standards, and Style (McNally and Speak, 2002). The first dimension in the Personal Brand Model refers to peoples' relationship with others. This part can be described as the "noun part of a brand". To be able to shape a personal brand, it is important to know the competence and qualifications of yourself (McNally & Speak, 2002). This dimension is governed by the values and generic competencies of a person (Boon Hwang, 2011). According to Jacobsen and Thorsvik (2008) the leader need to have a clear leadership style to be able to achieve the goals of the organisation and create motivation among the employees.

The second dimension in the model is governed by your values and your core competencies (Boon Hwang, 2011). It is a modifier and contains how people act and do things. Standards are often measurable and it creates the unique image of your brand in other peoples' heads. It is the standards that influence how other people see you (McNally & Speak, 2002). The last dimension could be referred to as the brand's personality; it is about how people relate to other people (McNally & Speak, 2002). It is governed by values and personality traits of a person (Boon Hwang, 2011). This is the dimension that makes people unique themselves. Style could be described as the "top of the iceberg", since it is the one dimension that actually can be seen by others (McNally & Speak, 2002). For a leader the fundamental goal with a personal brand is about the ability to communicate to others who you are and what you stand for (Hines, 2004).

Throughout the years, there have been different definitions of "personal branding" (Aaker, 2010). However, Peters (1997) argues that everyone has a personal brand, regardless of age, position or business. A personal brand should reflect your personal identity, but it is vital to distinguish them from each other (Peters, 1997). Rampersad (2004) believes that the personal brand is about creating an identity that people can associate with. Schedwin believes that the personal brand and the identity could be regarded as one thing but it is not necessary.

Brand and Social media

Considering the shift in individuals to use social media on a daily basis, more studies have been done to investigate social media and what that means for advertisers and companies, such as a study done by Mangold & Faulds (2009). In the study by Mangold & Faulds (2009), it is argued that social media made it possible for a single individual to communicate with many people about products and companies. As a result, it is contended that social media should be

used in company's integrated marketing communications (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). Keller (2001) underlines the importance of converting the responses earned during the former three steps into intense and active relationships in creating brand loyalty. Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy and Silvestre (2011) explain the phenomenon as such: "Social media employ mobile and web-based technologies to create highly interactive platforms via which individuals and communities share, co-create, discuss, and modify user-generated content." In social media the communication of a brand finds its perfect platform. As Keller (2001) notes, the first step in building a strong CBBE is about establishing the brand identity. Association of a brand with a product-or-service-need leads to brand awareness as outlined in Aaker's (1991) CBBE model. If the Internet previously was used to watch, read and buy content, nowadays the social media functions as a platform to discuss share and modify what can be found on the Internet (Kietzmann et al. 2011). The profiles can entail any form of information, such as photos, video, audio files and blogs, and one of the most well known social networks is Facebook. (Kaplan & Haenlein 2010) It seems that these interactive platforms change the ways of marketing enabling us to connect and collaborate around the clock (Hanna et al. 2011).

As stated earlier Grönroos asserts that it is the customers, not the seller, who builds the brand. The seller can create the right circumstances for the desired brand to develop, but it is through a brand formation process that the brand emerges for the customer. Hence, formation of a brand is complex, but the branding process can be illustrated. (Grönroos, 2010 pp.330-331) The branding process is based on the elements of Grönroos' service branding process, but can be applied to any sort of branding. Firstly, the brand image that the company, in this case the designer, wants the customers and stakeholders to have should be analyzed (Grönroos 2010 pp.335-337). The story the seller wants to communicate should be clear (Hanna et al. 2011). The outcome of the analysis is the wanted brand identity. (Grönroos 2010 pp.335-337) Looking from the seller's perspective identification, differentiation and coherence motivate the creation and maintenance of a brand. Differentiation can be attained through brand identity. Basing the differentiation strategy on the marketing theory of price, place, product and impact competitive advantage is accessible. (Uggla 2003). Yet, not all social media are thought to be alike. Each different social media outlet offers different features and components for the users supporting a wide range of individual interest and practices (Ellison, 2008). As a result, a classification system was been put in place to distinguish one social media outlet from another based on two components of social media outlined by

Kaplan and Haenlein (2010). There are two media related dimensions used to classify social media: the elements of social presence and media richness. Social presence theory essentially states that media differ on levels of social presence (Short, Williams, & Christie, 1976). Social presence is broadly the auditory, visual, and physical contact allowed between communication partners (Short, Williams, & Christie, 1976). Most importantly, the higher the social presence, the greater impact communication partners have on one another's behavior (Short, Williams, & Christie, 1976). With the media related components of social media in mind, the outlets can vary tremendously. Social media outlets integrate different communication tools and new information (Ellison, 2008). For example, various social media outlets may use photo posting, mobile connectivity, or video sharing; yet, other sites may be mostly text based (Ellison, 2008). Each of those features changes how individuals use the sites, present themselves, and disclose information, hence the social component of social media (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). According to Kapferer everyone belongs to a group or network (Kapferer 2008 p. 215). After having launched the brand, awareness must be created (Kapferer 2008; Grönroos 2010). Brand awareness is generated through planned market communication (Grönroos 2010 pp.335-336). Communicating the symbol, product, personality and the brand creates value. Identification enhances repurchase and can establish loyalty among customers. (Uggla 2003) The segments of possible heavy buyers and involved customers must be reached (Kapferer 2008) through marketing communications efforts (Grönroos 2010). Frykman and Sandin (2011) argue that the personal brand will determine whether you will be successful or not.

The opinion leaders can be professionals or experts in some field, hobbyists or people most involved in a category, and these pre-organized groups should be targeted through direct contact and virtual intimacy. Branding means getting closer to the mediator of influence (Kapferer 2008 pp.215-216). As there seems to be multiple benefits associated with brand equity, over the years the term itself has been defined by different researcher numerous times. Aaker (1991) defined brand equity as the set of brand assets and liabilities that are linked to a brand and that may add or subtract value from the core service or the core product (p.15). Keller (2003) claimed —brand equity‖ exist when —the consumers have a high level of awareness and familiarity with a brand and hold some strong, favorable and unique brand associations their memory (p.67). The second media related dimension used to classify social media is media richness theory which essentially states that media differ on their level of media richness (Daft & Lengel, 1986). Media richness is looked at as the amount of information that is allowed to be transmitted through a media at a given time (Kaplan

and Haenlein, 2010). In accordance with Kamakura and Russell (1993), Aaker (1991) and Keller's (1993), approaches brand equity from a marketing perspective as opposed to a financial one that measures brand equity in market based monetary terms (Simon and Sullivan, 1993). Keller (1993) notes that, when brand equity is approached from a marketing or consumer perspective, it is referred to as consumer-based brand equity. The assumption is that one goal of communication is to reduce ambiguity, which is the existence of conflicting views, and uncertainty, which is the absence of information, and the richer the media the greater the reduction (Daft & Lengel, 1986). Basically, some media are more effective than others in reducing ambiguity and uncertainty and providing better information (Daft & Lengel, 1986).

Personal branding the term "brand" generally refers to firms, products or services, but can also be applied to persons (Thomson 2006). Personal branding is a relatively recent term and has not received vast academic treatment (Neale 2008), but with the growth of social media and -networks personal branding has become accessible (Schawbel 2011). Neale, Hughes and Dann explain personal branding to be a subset of branding (Neale 2008) and the core sets of brand theory can be adapted also on persons through personal branding (Thomson 2006). According to Tom Peters everyone has the power to be their own brand and market themselves through a personal brand (Peters 1997). In order to further a career personal branding is advisable (Elmore 2010; Schawbel 2011). A key aspect of the continued growth and strength of branding in arts is personal or human branding (Neale 2008; Thomson 2006). Building a strong CBBE is crucial in differentiating a product or service from its competitors (Aaker 1991). Marketing function of organizations has huge responsibility in the process of CBBE building by informing consumers about their product or service along with its benefits (Doyle, 1989).

The key element of creating a brand image is through a proper profile, and others contributing to this element can lead to interference with the brand identity (Labrecque et al. 2011). Werner Runebjörk (2006) and Bence (2008) say that the personal brand is about how you want others to perceive you and then you can actively shape your brand depending on this fact. This includes both the essentials of maintaining the brand as well as securing the future brand. Innovation is important in order for the brand to survive in the long run. Instead of putting all focus on developing technological competence and creating new products, the brands future, and what values and meaning the brand will symbolize in the future should be emphasized. (Uggla 2003 p. 229) Taking the customer into account can be of help not only when it comes to branding. If the designer takes the customer into account in the designing process the

social media can be a tool for learning about the target market and what the customer's preferences are (Barwise & Meehan 2010). The concept of self presentation basically states that in social interactions people desire to control the impressions other people form of them (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). Self-presentation occurs to help create an image that aligns with one's identity (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). Recent studies have investigated whether a brand can benefit from consumer-generated ads (Ertimur and Gilly 2012; Thompson and Malaviya 2013). This mindshare view of branding has the advantage of offering clear guidance to brand managers, as well as an illusion of control. Not surprisingly, it has dominated brand management practice for the past decades (Holt 2004). When connecting this with social media, people may join a social network to present themselves on the Internet. Then, that self-presentation occurs through self-disclosure, where self-disclosure is the act of revealing certain personal information to other individuals (Joinson, 2001). Therefore, self-disclosure helps develop relationships whether with close family, friends, or a stranger (Joinson, 2001). Managers aim to create strong brands with a rich and clear knowledge structure in consumer memory by authoring compelling brand stories (Keller 1993; Srivastava, Shervani, and Fahey 1998). Consumers respond to consumer generated ads created in contests and unsolicited consumer generated ads by engaging with the ad rather than the brand (Ertimur and Gilly 2012). Ad viewers perceive unsolicited consumer-generated ads as authentic but not credible, while they perceive consumer-generated ads created within a contest as credible but not authentic (Ertimur and Gilly 2012). Vanden Bergh et al. (2011) investigate the impact of YouTube-hosted, consumer-generated ad parodies on consumers' attitude toward the brand being spoofed. One important thing to consider when shaping your personal brand is to send out information about yourself to others (Vitberg, 2010). All the respondents believe that it is important to shape the brand in an active way, since nothing comes for free when talking about personal branding. It is important that you define yourself (Bence, 2008; Montoya, 2002) and then promotes this definition to the people around you (Rampersad, 2004). Werner Runebjörk (2006) mentions a rhetorical concept; ethos, which is described as the perception you have of yourself and what you send out to other people. Gawel and Ekstam both believe that people will create specific expectations of you, because of your personal brand and how you act. There are both external and internal aspects to consider when shaping a personal brand (McNally & Speak, 2002). Humanizing of brands generates more favorable consumer attitudes and thus improves brand performance (Puzakova, Hyokjin, and Rocereto

2013). Brands that have been considered as having less relevance than humans because of their inanimate nature (Aggarwal and McGill 2012) may now elicit a motivation for social interaction typically reserved for human subjects (Cesario, Plaks, and Higgins 2006). The external aspects are described by McNally and Speak (2002) as a three dimensional model that explains how people connect to a brand and contains Roles, Standards and Style of a personal brand. The internal aspects of a personal brand are about the inner driver of people, and contain Purpose, Vision and Values (McNally & Speak, 2002). Having a purpose, as a leader is something that all the respondents believe is important. Your purpose is what gives you the reason for living, the meaning for your existence (McNally & Speak, 2002).

Conclusion

Totally, According to the overview of existing research, in the branding process it is preferable that the seller takes this in consideration. A clear distinction between branding methods in product branding and personal branding was not found, and thus can be assumed that branding can be applied both on products and on persons, using similar methods. The brand can be shared through social media and the channels best suited for ones business should be chosen carefully. According to existing research the seller should update the channels chosen for the branding frequently. Effective branding and maintenance of the preferred brand identity can result in word-of-mouth in social media channels, social networks and content communities. All kind of buzz around the brand is positive, but unplanned messages with a negative tone should try to be avoided, due to the possibility of it harming the brand. The unplanned messages, including word-of-mouth, are what people rely most upon and thus affect the brand most effectively. Social media creates great opportunities for personal branding efforts both for personal and corporate purposes of top level executives. With a well-planned brand management on social media, and with a high level of engagement, top level executives of companies may create value both themselves and the other brands of their company. But creating value on social media is not a one way road, to gain customers awareness and loyalty, managers must interact with them sincerely and should show their concern. This situation makes personal brand management for top level executives on social media an organized professional team job and an important part of social media efforts of the company to manage. Managing brands on social media actively should take place in strategic planning of a company and from top level managers to down levels, all members of the company must be aware of the importance of social media. Social media platforms are rapidly growing, dynamically changing and progressively developing platforms. Therefore,

every progress must be evaluated and measured by companies to find out new opportunities and to involve as soon as possible maintaining and keeping competitive advantage.

References

Aaker, D. A. (2010). Building Strong Brands. London: Simon & Schuster UK Ltd.

Aaker, D.A. (1991), Managing Brand Equity. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Aaker, J.L. (1997), Dimensions of Brand Personality, J. Mark Res, 34 (3), pp.347 56.

Aggarwal, Pankaj and Ann L. McGill (2012), "When Brands Seem Human, Do Humans Act Like Brands? Automatic Behavioral Priming Effects of Brand Anthropomorphism," Journal of Consumer Research, 39, 2, 307–23.

Agichten, E., Castillo, C., Donato, D., Gionis, A., & Mishne, G. (2008). Finding High-Quality Content is Social Media. WSDM. 1-11. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.

Agres, S.J. and Dubitsky, T.M. (1997), "Changing needs for brands", Journal of Advertising Research, January/ February, pp. 21-30.

Ahmed, P K and Zairi, M (1999) Benchmarketing for brand innovation European Journal of Innovation Management 2 (1) 36-48.

Algesheimer, René, Sharad Borle, Utpal M. Dholakia, and Siddharth S. Singh (2010), "The Impact of Customer Community Participation on Customer Behaviors: An Empirical Investigation," Marketing Science, 29, 4, 756–69.

Barwise, P., & Meehan, S. (2010). The One Thing You Must Get Right When Building a Brand. Harvard Business Review , 80-84.

Bates, Susan (2011), Discover Your CEO Brand: Secrets to Embracing and Maximizing Your Unique Value as a Leader, McGrawHill, 1ST Ed., New York.

Bence, B. (2008). Top 10 Secrets to Mastering Your Personal Brand. The American Salesman, 53(12), 22-25.

Blain, C., Levy, S. E., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (May 2005). Destination branding: insights and practises from destination management organizations. Journal of Travel Research, 43, pp. 328–338.

Boon Hwang, N. (2011). Personal Branding for Career Success. Downloaded January 21th, 2013 from Graduan. Website: http://www.graduan.com.my/Page/PGPGGuide/Article/Personal-Branding-For-Career-Success

Cai, L. (2002). Cooperative branding for rural destinations. Annals of Tourism Research, 29(3), pp.720–742.

Cesario, Joseph, Jason E. Plaks, and E. Tory Higgins (2006), "Automatic Social Behavior as Motivated Preparation to Interact," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 90, 6, 893–910.

Chevalier, Judith and Dina Mayzlin (2006), "The Effect of Word-of-Mouth on Sales: Online Book Reviews," Journal ofMarketing Research, 43, 3, 345–54.

Chintagunta, Pradeep, Shyam Gopinath, and Sriram Venkataraman (2010), "The Effects of Online User Reviews on Movie Box Office Performance: Accounting for Sequential Rollout and Aggregation across Local Markets," Marketing Science, 29, 5, 944–57.

Culnan M.J., McHugh, P.J. and Zubillaga, J.I. (2010), How Large U.S. Companies Can Use Twitter and Other Social Media to Gain Business Value, MIS Quarterly Executive, Vol.9, Issue 4, p.243.

Daft, R. L. & Lengel, R. H. (1986). Organizational Information Requirements, Media Richness and Structural Design. Management Science, 32(5), 554-571. Availablefrom http://www.jstor.org/stable/2631846 .

Dann, S & Jensen, E (2007), 'Brand personalities with real personality: Strategies for individual brands and branded individuals in the entertainment industry', Australia and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference 2007, ed. M Thyne, K Deans, J Gnoth, University of Otago, New Zealand, pp. 1636-1643.

De Chernatony, L. (1999), Brand management through narrowing the gap between brand identity and brand reputation, J Mark Man., 15 (1-3), pp.157 79.

Deighton, John, Daniel Romer, and Josh McQueen (1989), "Using Drama to Persuade," Journal of Consumer Research, 16, 3, 335–43.

Dhiman, S. (2007). Personal Mastery: Our Quest for Self-Actualization, Meaning and Highest Purpose. Interbeing, 1(1), 25-35.

Doyle, P. (1989), ‗Building successful brands: the strategic options', Journal of Marketing Management, Vol. 5 No. 1. pp. 77-95.

Duan, Wenjing, Bin Gu, and Andrew Whinston (2008), "Do Online Reviews Matter? An Empirical Investigation of Panel Data," Decision Support Systems, 45, 4, 1007–16.

Ellison, N. (2008). Social Network Sites: Definition, History, and Scholarship. Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 13, 210-230. doi:10.1111/j.1083-6101.2007.00393.x

Elmore, L. (2010, March). Personal Branding. Women in Business , 12-14.

Ertimur, Burçak and Mary Gilly (2012), "SoWhaddya Think? Consumers Create Ads and Other Consumers Critique Them," Journal of Interactive Marketing, 26, 3, 115–30.

Escalas, Jennifer Edson (2004), "Narrative Processing: Building Consumer Connections to Brands," Journal of Consumer Psychology, 14, 1–2, 168–80.

Escalas, Jennifer Edson (2007), "Narrative Versus Analytical Self-Referencing and Persuasion," Journal of Consumer Research, 34, 4, 421–9.

Fischer, Marc, Franziska Völckner, and Henrik Sattler (2010), "How Important Are Brands? A Cross-Category, Cross-Country Study," Journal of Marketing Research, 47, 5, 823–39.

Frykman, P., & Sandin, K. (2011). Ditt professionella rykte – upptäck din främsta tillgång. Malmö: Roos & Tegnér.

Gad, T., & Rosencreutz, A. (2002). Managing Brand Me. How to build your personal brand. Great Britain: Pearson Education Limited.

Göransson, S. (2012). Chef eller ledare? Downloaded March 19th, 2013 from entreprenor24.se. Website: http://entreprenor24.se/nyheter/3715-chef-eller-ledare/

Granér, R. (1994). Personalgruppens psykologi. Lund: Studentlitteratur.

Grönroos, C. (2010). Service Management and Marketing (Third Edition ed.). Chichester: John Wiley&Sons, Ltd.

Haig, M. (2003). Brand Failures: The truth about the 100 biggest branding mistakes of all time. London: Kogan Page.

Hakala, U., Svensson, J., & Vincze, Z. (2012). Consumer-based brand equity and top-ofmind awareness: a cross-country analysis. Journal of Product & Brand Management, 21(6), 439-451.

Hanna, R., Rohm, A., & Crittenden, V. L. (2011). We're All Connected: The Power of the Social Media Ecosystem. Business Horizons , 265-273.

Hatch, J., & Schultz, M. (2008). Taking Brand Initiative. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Henderson, J. C. (2000). Selling places: The New Asia-Singapore Brand. Journal of Tourism Studies, 11(1), 36–44.

Hines, A. (2004). The personal brand in futures. The Journal of Futures Studies, Strategic Thinking and Policy, 6(1), pp. 60-61.

Hoffman, Donna L. and Thomas P. Novak (1996), "Marketing in Hypermedia Computer-Mediated Environments: Conceptual Foundations," Journal of Marketing, 60, 3, 50–69.

Holt, Douglas B. (2002), "Why Do Brands Cause Trouble? A Dialectical Theory of Consumer Culture and Branding," Journal of Consumer Research, 29, 1, 70–90.

Hsu, H.Y. and Tsou, H.T. (2011), Understanding customer experiences in online blog environments, International Journal of Information Management, 31(6), pp.510 523.

Hugent, CEO Survey, Retrieved from http://www.hugent.com/tr/Guncel?PageNumber=3, 22.03.2013.

IBM (2012), Global CEO Study, Retrieved from ibm.com/CEOStudy, 23.03.2013.

Jacobsen, D. I., & Thorsvik, J. (2008). Hur moderna organisationer fungerar. Lund: Studentlitteratur.

Jakobsson, J. (2010). Låt personliga varumärket lyfta din karriär. Downloaded April 11th 2013 from Svenska Dagbladet. Website: http://www.svd.se/naringsliv/karriar/latpersonliga-varumarket-lyfta-din-karriar_7014709.svd

Joinson, A. N. (2001). Self-disclosure in computer-mediated communication: The role of self-awareness and visual anonymity. European Journal of Social Psychology, 31, 177-192. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.

Kamakura, W. & Russell, G.J. (1993) 'Measuring brand value with scanner data', International Journal of Research in Marketing, Vol. 10 No.1, pp. 9-22.

Kapferer, J.N. (2008), The new strategic brand management, creating and sustaining brand equity long term, London: Kogan Page, UK.

Kaplan, A.M., Haenlein, M. (2010), Users of the World, Unite! The Challenges and Opportunities of Social Media, Business Horizons, 53, pp.59-68

Kaputa, C., (2005), UR a Brand! How Smart People Brand Themselves for Business Success. Mountain View, CA: Davies-Black Publishing, USA.

Karaduman, I. (2013). The effect of social media on personal branding efforts of top level executives, Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences 99 (2013) 465 – 473.

Kay, M. J. (2006). Strong brands and corporate brands. European Journal of Marketing, 4(7), 742-760.

Keller, K. L. (2003). Strategic Brand Management: Building, measuring and managing brand equity. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Keller, K.L. (1993), ̲Conceptualizing, measuring and managing customer-based brand equity', Journal of Marketing, Vol.57 (January), pp. 1-22.

Keller, K.L. (2001), Building Customer-Based Brand Equity: A Blueprint for Creating Strong Brands', Marketing Science Institute, Report No. 01-107

Keller, K.L., (1993), "Conceptualizing, measuring and managing customer-based brand equity", Journal of Marketing, Vol. 57, No. 1, pp.1-23.

Keller, K.L., (2006) "Branding and Brand Equity", in Weitz, B., Wensley, R., (Eds.), Handbook of Marketing, Sage Publications, London, pp.151-179.

Kietzmann, J. H., Hermkens, C., McCarthy, I., & Silvestre, B. S. (2011). Social Media? Get Serious! Understanding the Functional

Building Blocks of Social Media. Business Horizons , 54, 241-251.

Kirtis, A.K., Karahan F. (2011), To Be or Not to Be in Social Media Arena as the Most Cost-Efficient Marketing Strategy after the Global Recession, Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, Vol. 24, pp.260 268.

Kotler, P. (1988), Marketing management: Analysis, planning, implementation, and control (6th ed.). New Jersey, USA: Prentice-Hall.

Kotler, P., (2000), Marketing Management, Tenth Edition, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

Labreque, L.I., Markos, E., Milne, G.R. (2011), Online Personal Branding: Processes, Challenges, and Implications, Journal of Interactive Marketing, Volume 25, Issue 1, pp.37 50.

Lair, Daniel J., Sullivan, K. and Cheney, G. (2005), Marketization and the Recasting of the Professional Self The Rhetoric and Ethics of Personal Branding, Management Communication Quarterly, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp.307-343.

Lam, K. (2003). Executive branding. Executive Excellence, 20(2), 13-14.

Lanneberg, P. (2012). Att leda starka personliga varumärken. Website: http://www.pbacademy.se/2012/12/05/att-leda-starka-personliga-varumarken-2/

Laroche, M., Habibi, M.R. and Richard M. (2013), To be or not to be in social media: How brand loyalty is affected by social media?, International Journal of Information Management, 33, pp.76-82.

Lee, W., Tyrrell, T., Erdem, E. (2013) "Exploring the Behavioral Aspects of Adopting Technology: meeting planners use of social Network Media & the Impact of Perceived Critical Mass", Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology, Vol. 4 Iss: 1

Mangold, W. G. & Faulds, D. J. (2009). Social media: The new hybrid element of the promotion mix. Business Horizons ,52, 357—365.doi:10.1016/j.bushor.2009.03.002

Masuda, A. D., Kane, T. D., Shoptaugh, C. F., & Minor, K. A. (2010). The Role of Vivid and Challenging Personal Vision in Goal Hierarchies. The Journal of Psychology, 144(3), 221-242.

McNally, D. & Speak, K. D. (2002). Be your own brand: A Breakthrough Formula for Standing Out from the Crowd. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Montoya, P. (2002). The personal branding phenomenon. Nashville: Personal Branding Press Publishing.

Morgan, N., Pritchard, A. and Piggott, R.(2002). New Zealand, 100% Pure: The Creation of a Powerful Niche Destination Brand, Journal of Brand Management 9(4/5), pp. 335–54.

Neale, L., Hughes, A., & Dann, S. (2008). Exploring the Application of Personal Brands and Opinion Leadership in Political Marketing. Sydney: University of Western Sydney.

Ngoc Thuy, P., & Nguyen Hau, L. (2010). Service personal values and customer loyalty. A study of banking services in a transitional economy. International Journal of Bank Marketing, 28(6), 465-478.

Okazaki, S. (2006) Excitement or sophistication? A preliminary exploration of online brand personality, International Marketing Review, 23 (3) 279-303.

Peters, T. (1997). The brand called You. Downloaded January 8th, 2013 from Fast Company. Website: http://www.fastcompany.com/28905/brand-called-you

Peterson,C., Seligman, M. E.P. (2003), Character strengths before and after September 11, Psychological Science, 14 (4), pp. 381 384.

Plummer, J.T. (2000), "How personality makes a difference?", Journal of Advertising Research, Vol. 40 No. 6, pp. 79-83.

Puzakova, Marina, Kwak Hyokjin, and Joseph Rocereto (2013), "When Humanizing Brands Goes Wrong: The Detrimental Effect of Brand Anthropomorphization Amid Product Wrongdoings," Journal of Marketing, 77, 3, 81–100.

Rampersad, H. (2004). A New Blueprint for Powerful and Authentic Personal Branding. Performance Improvement, 47(6), 34-37.

Rampersad, H. (2011). Matching your personal brand to that of your employer. Training & Management Development Methods 25(2), 413-418.

Safko, L. and Brake, D.K. (2009), The Social Media Bible: Tactics, Tools, and Strategies for Business Success, Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, USA.

Schank, Roger (1999), Dynamic Memory Revisited. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Schawbel, D. (2008, 12 22). An Introduction into the World of Personal Branding. Retrieved 03 21, 2012, from Personal Branding Blog: http://www.personalbrandingblog.com/an-introduction-into-the-world-of-personalbranding/

Schawbel, D. (2009). Me 2.0: Build a powerful brand to achieve career success. New York: Kaplan Publishing Inc.

Schawbel, D. (2011). About: Personal Branding Blog - Dan Schawbel. Retrieved 03 21, 2012, from Personal Branding Blog: http://www.personalbrandingblog.com/about/

Shenkman. M. (2007). Defining Your Leader Brand. Nonprofit World, 25(2), 13-14.

Shepherd, I.D.H., (2005), From Cattle and Coke to Charlie: Meeting the Challenge of Self Marketing and Personal Branding, Journal of Marketing Management , Volume 21, Issue 5-6, pp.589-606.

Shepherd, I.D.H., (2005), From Cattle and Coke to Charlie: Meeting the Challenge of Self Marketing and Personal Branding, Journal of Marketing Management , Volume 21, Issue 5-6, pp.589-606.

Short, J., Williams, E., & Christie, B. (1976). The social psychology of telecommunications. London: John Wiley & Sons. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.

Sills, J. (2008). Becoming Your Own Brand. Psychology Today, 41(1), 62-63.

Simon, C.J. & Sullivan, M.W (1993), ‗The Measurement and Determinants of Brand Equity: A Financial Approach', Marketing Science, Vol.12 (Winter), pp. 28-52.

Singh, Sangeeta and Stephan Sonnenburg (2012), "Brand Performance in Social Media," Journal of Interactive Marketing, 26, 4, 189–97.

Smith, G. (2007), ‗Social Software Building Blocks', Retrieved (12.03.2011) from http://nform.com/publications/social-software-building-block.

Srivastava, Rajendra K., Tasadduq A. Shervani, and Liam Fahey (1998), "Market-Based Assets and Shareholder Value: A Framework for Analysis," Journal of Marketing, 62, 1, 2–18.

Stratman, T. (2011). Building Your Personal Brand. Supply Chain Management Review, 15(4), 10-15.

Sun, Monic (2012), "How Does the Variance of Product Ratings Matter?," Management Science, 58, 4, 696–707.

The American Marketing Association. (2012). Dictionary. Retrieved 4 10, 2012, from Marketing Power: http://www.marketingpower.com/_layouts/Dictionary.aspx?dLetter=B

Thompson, Debora and Prashant Malaviya (2013), "Consumer-Generated Ads: Does Awareness of Advertising Co-Creation Help or Hurt Persuasion?," Journal of Marketing, 77, 3, 33–47.

Thomson, M. (2006). Human Brands: Investigating Antecedents to Consumers' Strong Attachments to Celebrities. Journal of Marketing , 104-119.

Uggla, H. (2003). Organisation av varumärken: -för kapitalisering och affärsutveckling. Stockholm: Liber.

Vanden Bergh, Bruce, Mira Lee, Elisabeth Quilliam, and Thomas Hove (2011), "The Multidimensional Nature and Brand Impact of User-Generated Ad Parodies in Social Media," International Journal of Advertising, 30, 1, 103–31.

Vitberg, A. (2010). Developing Your Personal Brand Equity. Journal of Accountancy, 1(8), 42-45.

Werner Runebjörk, I. (2006). Ditt personliga varumärke: Om retorik, värderingar och förtroende. Malmö: Liber.

Woodside, Arch (2010), "Brand-Consumer Storytelling Theory and Research: Introduction to a Psychology & Marketing Special Issue," Psychology and Marketing, 27, 6, 531–40.

Wright, C. (2009). The least you need to know (Personal Branding). Asymmetrical Press. 50 Pp.

Yoeli, R., & Berkovich, I. (2010). From personal ethos to organizational vision: narratives of visionary educational leaders. Journal of Educational Administration, 48(4), 451-467.

Yukl, G. (2010). Leadership in Organizations. London: Upper Saddle River.