**Does Corporate Reputation Matter? Role of social media in consumer intention to purchase innovative food product**

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**Abstract**

The exponential growth of the corporate reputation in food industry has resulted in innovations in every link of its supply chain. There have been studies that have characterized innovation in various industries from the perspective of technology, but far fewer in the area of corporate reputation, consumer perception, and intention towards innovations in food products. This research analyses the innovations in the food industry from the perspective of the consumer and provides a conceptual framework of food innovation stages. The study also investigates the relationship between corporate reputation and intention towards food innovation along with the other components of TPB model with an extension of social media engagement. The results from India and US samples confirm that social media engagement have a significant role to play in creating intention to purchase innovative food products. The study compares the US and Indian samples and identifies differences in subjective norms and perceived behavioural control.

Keywords: Corporate reputation; innovative food products; consumer purchase intention; TPB; social media engagement; Facebook

**1. Introduction**

Reputation and innovation in products is necessary to retain competitiveness in any industry (Porter & Van der Linde, 1995). Innovation is considered to be a sustainable market action across all product families; the food industry in particular, is well-known for constant innovations and dynamic practices at all stages of the supply chain (Soosay *et al*., 2008). This, in turn, transforms innovation as a value chain function (Hansen & Birkinshaw, 2007). Oke *et al* (2007) define three types food innovation - product, service and process. Francis and Bessant (2005), on the other hand, propose four forms of innovation - position, process, product and paradigm. Innovation in the food industry can be understood from two perspectives - 1. Industrial efforts to inherent innovation at each stage of the supply chain, 2. Consumer’s acceptance, perception and attitude towards such innovation. Although there have been many studies on innovation in the food industry, there continues to be limited understanding of consumers’ disposition towards food innovation (Ronteltap *et al*., 2007). The understanding of consumers’ disposition is particularly important because the past two decades have seen significant consumer empowerment and awareness through easy access to information. Besides, corporate reputation has also become one of the important attributes for consumers to accept any new innovation (Chun, 2005). The emergence of social media, for example, has enhanced information sharing, contributing significantly to consumer empowerment (Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016; Yuksel *et al*, 2016; Lee & Ma, 2012). The growing subscription and engagement of food community pages in Facebook is a strong evidence for growing interests and knowledge among users (Rutsaert *et al.,* 2013).

Of the different innovation and developments that characterize developed and developing economies, those in the food industry are welcomed by consumers. Innovations in products are important to ensure market sustainability (Soosay *et al*., 2008). The information available to consumers through various sources encourages them to expect new and innovative stimulus (Hollander, 1961), which increases the expectation among the consumers (Stefani *et al*, 2006). This has necessitated food industries to adopt several innovations in products and services to retain competitiveness (Avermaete *et al*., 2003). Major innovative food products have failed in the market (Stewart-Knox, 2003), because of lack of understanding of consumer expectations and acceptance (Tuorila *et al*, 2001; Verbeke, 2005) or because they are unable to satisfy consumers need for innovation. Innovation can be closed within the organisation boundaries or open to the extent of matching the external requirements (Chesbrough, 2006). Understanding consumer requirements and matching them, is one of the open innovation requirements (Sarkar & Costa, 2008).

Many studies have extensively discussed innovation in food with reference to different food families, such as meat processing (Hugas *et al*., 2002; Brito *et al*., 2010), sushi innovativeness (Altintzoglou *et al*., 2016), dry food products (Huang *et al*, 2016), dairy products (Massa & Testa, 2008), and winemaking (Lavelli *et al*., 2016). Innovation in the food industry is process oriented (Archibugi *et al*., 1991), where companies try to implement the best of technology. Most researchers have concentrated on understanding specific improvements within the process of innovation. However, there is a large gap in the understanding of the consumer’s expectations of innovative products. Besides various technological efforts taken by the food industry to adopt different innovative strategies, it is also important to create the innovative perception in consumers mind (Hirschman, 1980). It is thus important to understand the gap that exists between actual innovation and perceived innovation. Moreover, organisations attempt various brand elements to build the reputation (Foroudi et al., 2014; Foroudi et al., 2017), it is also important to understand on how this in food perspective yield good response in consumers’ side. Building from above discussion, the present research is aimed at investigating the purchase intention of consumers towards innovative food products.

While numerous studies have discussed the purchase pattern of foods in general, but limited studies have shed light in understanding innovative foods (Cardello et al., 2007). Over the past several years, researchers have investigated the concerns of safety (Veselovsky et al., 2015, risk (King et al., 2017), functional benefits (da Silva et al., 2016), and marketing and communication nuances (Sharma et al., 2016) in the context of innovative foods. Limited or no studies have been found to have explored the role of corporate, social and individual aspect and its subsequent relationship in the innovative food purchase pattern. A research in this area will benefit the academic and practitioners in a way to understand both social and individual orientation in consumer purchase behaviour. Various theories are available to understand the social and individual orientation in consumer purchase actions. But, this research extends the inputs of Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) framework to understand relationship that exists among corporate reputation, perceived behavioural control, subjective norms towards purchase intention of innovative food products. Moreover, in order to understand the role of social media in consumer behaviour towards the innovative food products, the proposed extended TPB model includes a component on social media engagement.

*RQ1: What are the inherent stages in food innovation?*

*RQ2: What is the relationship of corporate reputation, social norms and perceived behavioural control towards intention to purchase innovative food products?*

This paper is organized as follows: an extensive literature review section is organised to explain RQ1, after which the hypothetical framework is introduced. Subsequently the methodology, analysis and results sections are explained appropriately as relevant to RQ2. Finally the idea of RQ1 and the results of RQ2 are extensively discussed in theoretical and managerial perspectives.

**2. Literature on Food Innovation**

There have been many studies that have described various innovative prospects in the food industry (Gellynck & Kühne, 2010). However, there is limited understanding on consumer intention and behaviour towards purchase and use of innovative food items. Many of the studies that have analyzed consumer perception of food innovations have focused on the technological aspects of the innovation (Davenport, 1993). While technology is an important facet of innovation, it does not encompass all aspects of it (Chesbrough, 2007). Carayannis *et al*, (2003) posited that technological applications are often termed innovations. Fromkin (1971), on the other hand, describes consumer perceived innovation as a correlative variable with the need for uniqueness. Ostlund (1974) characterized consumer perceived innovation through six major dimensions, relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, observability, and perceived risk. In this connection, a line of research attempted to investigate the relationship between innovativeness and consumer perception towards the same. Gatignon and Robertson (1985) posited that consumer’ norms and their conformity to follow social protocol decide their acceptance of innovative products. Flight *et al* (2011) categorised the factors that favour innovation diffusion among consumers into four types - relative advantage, compatibility, and social pressure. They also perceived performance risk, complexity, and discontinuity as factors that inhibit consumers from adopting an innovation.

Truong (2013) explained consumer innovativeness in a relationship among perceived novelty, perceived value, and perceived risk. Researchers have analysed innovation acceptance among consumers from different angles and depth, but a comprehensive understanding is still lacking. Perceived innovativeness has been defined by many researchers as the extent to which it differs from existing alternatives (Zaltman *et al*, 1973; Cooper & Kleinschmidt, 1995; Froehle *et al,* 2000; Sethi *et al*, 2001; Truong, 2013). Ronteltap *et al*, (2007) proposed two major determinants for innovative foods acceptance - distal determinants and proximal determinants. They categorized innovative features and consumer characteristics as distal determinants and, perceived cost/benefits, perceived risk and uncertainty, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control as proximal determinants of consumer innovation acceptance. Food innovation is understood through different facets. For example, Vanhonacker *et al* (2013) explored consumer’s acceptance of innovations in traditional food products. Frequent changes and evolution of novelty measures among consumers and constant follow-up by then results in expectations of sensory variations. This sensory element has been posited to play a vital role in consumers’ pre-purchase and post-purchase elements (Grunert, 2015).

One of the biggest challenges faced by the food industry is to establish a balance in innovation dispersion among all components of the supply chain. An innovation may not reach its full potential if it is not communicated or understood by end consumers. Marketers attempt various strategies and methods to create perceived innovative value for the food products with consumers. For example, food designs and packaging are understood as an effective innovative marketing activity in the food industry (Schifferstein, 2016). Consumers’ acceptance and knowledge of the innovation is just as crucial as innovation planning and implementation (Bagozzi & Lee, 1999). Most researchers have addressed innovation in terms of newness, but the degree of innovation is subjective to different innovative actions (Zaltman *et al*., 1973; Dewar & Dutton, 1986). The degree of innovation may vary at each stage of new product development to existing innovative marketing efforts (Hurley & Hult, 1998). Earlier, researchers had categorised innovation in terms of the following differentiating factors - administrative and technological (Kimberly & Evanisko, 1981), technical and administrative (Damanpour, 1987), and compatible and incompatible innovations (Moch & Morse, 1977). Later, Dewar and Dutton (1986) categorised innovation as radical (fundamental) and incremental innovation. They posited that radical innovation requires more depth, knowledge and risk than incremental innovation. Figure 1 describes a framework proposed by this study, which explains the food innovation in five stages in the perspective of radical and incremental innovation.

**<Insert Figure 1 here>**

**<Insert Table 1 here>**

Figure 1 describes the stages of innovation that can possibly prevail in the food innovation supply chain. The stages are also explained in terms of strength and orientation. The framework is divided into five stages, the inner circle 1 denotes new product development, the inner circle 2 represents new formulation of existing food products, the inner circle 3 represents re-formulation of existing food products, the inner circle 4 represents item extension, and the outer most circle denotes innovative marketing efforts. The description of the stages with exemplary components is provided in Table 1. In the figure, the first three inner circles are categorised as radical innovation and the outer two circles are categorised as incremental innovation. This is in continuation of the above discussion that radical innovation is a fundamental and knowledge-based innovation, while incremental innovation merely adds extra values to the existing product.

The proposed framework is a ideology derived with the support of fundamental literature. It is debatable that a consumer inclination towards innovation at each stage is subjective to the product and consumer behaviour aspects. This research assumes and suggests three hypotheses (Figure 1). 1. Perceived consumer innovation may differ across stages of innovation from high to low. 2. Market orientation is focused towards creating a new product development after studying all incremental innovation methodologies, whereas consumer orientation focuses on creating marketing innovation through the available food product. 3. The stages are categorised as radical and incremental innovation.

Food innovation is a dedicated process which coordinates various functions viz., technology implementation and social-cultural perspectives that regulate consumers’ nutritional, social and personal need (Bigliardi & Galati, 2013). Of the two, discerning consumers’ social and personal needs is very vital. To attend consumers’ expectations and to map their perceived innovativeness, industries try different strategies to gain attention of the consumers (Foroudi et al., 2016) and especially to attain a respectable reputation (Keh and Xie, 2009). These include, quality and nutritional innovation (mainly about using the materials and edible mixtures), convenience innovation (multi-channel availability measures), marketing efforts (the positioning methods through marketers claim themselves as innovators), assortment expansion (increasing the product line with distinguishing features), market innovation (facilities offered facilitate purchases), packaging innovation (to avail sensory quality (Vanhonacker *et al.,* 2013)). Purchase intention is considered to be an action construct which facilitates decision. Chen et al. (2015) in their research supported the relationship between corporate reputation and purchase intention. But the same is unexplored in the areas of innovative products and especially in food product line. Numerous studies have described food innovation and their existence, but there is no empirical depth to understand the role of corporate reputation in consumer intention towards purchasing innovative foods.

**3. Hypothetical Framework**

This study uses the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) framework proposed by Ajzen (1991) after extending the theory with corporate reputation. The Theory of Planned Behaviour was previously used to understand different food-related behaviours (Ajzen, 2015), including green consumption, dietary food behaviours, hygienic and healthy eating habits, halal food consumption, and organic food consumption (Tarkiainen and Sundqvist, 2005; Arvola *et al*. 2008; McEachan *et al*., 2011; Shah Alam and Mohamed Sayuti, 2011; Yadav & Pathak, 2016). TPB is an extended model of Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and multi-attribute model (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1977; Ajzen, 1991). The Theory of Planned Behaviour is a widely accepted model that is believed to accurately predict the function of intention.

TPB explains that human behaviour is a result of conscious rational choices. This model has been used and investigated in different dimensions, products, and research problems. Hagger *et al* (2002) strongly supported that apart from attitude, the other two variables subjective norms and perceived behavioural control can strongly predict consumer behavioural intention. Despite TPB being extended with extra variables to suit the research problem in various studies, the three fundamental independent predictors of behavioural intention have always been given importance in past literature. Behavioural attitude can be explained as a function that denotes favour or disfavour of any investigated condition. Whereas, subjective norm refers to the social conformity that consumers are believed to follow, which can significantly affect the target behaviour. Behavioural control corresponds to the ability by which consumer can behave as expected. A positive ability to perform an action would significantly induce strong intentions. This research attempts to investigate the relationship between corporate reputation, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms with intention to purchase innovative food products.

**3.1. Hypotheses (model 1)**

With relevance to RQ2, hypothesis 1 investigates the relationship between corporate reputation and intention to purchase innovative food products. Corporate image is always an important variable for consumer decision making, whether it may be product or services (Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001). Most of the times, brand equity and corporate reputation travels alongside each other in consumer decision making process. Corporates use their social responsibility, quality and their reputation towards building their brand value (Gatti et al., 2012). Corporates aim to build a congruent value to meet consumers’ demands, which later helps them to build a definite loyalty (Caruana and Ewing, 2010). The credibility of the corporates is an important source to build consumers attitude and intentions to purchase a product or brand (Lafferty and Goldsmith, 1999), the same applies with the trust and reputation that an organisation or corporate upholds (Barnett et al., 2006). Corporate identity, image and reputation are also well understood as a psychological construct (Bromley, 2000) which can enable both cognitive and emotional aspect of their end decisions of consumers. Corporates keep developing new strategies (Foreman and Argenti, 2005) and innovative technologies for market sustainability and for a better financial position (De la Fuente Saba and De Quevedo Puente 2003) overall. Market expects new point of difference in the product line because beyond reputation, corporates are interdependent (Barnett and Hoffman, 2008). As in Figure 1 the innovative framework has become wide open for marketers to diffuse any of their strength to increase the value offering and impose their innovativeness. This has given the corporates to mind more on their reputation to enhance positive intention to purchase their products (Jung and Seock, 2016), even in multicultural aspect (Kang and Yang, 2010) and to inhale high value in the market (Dowling, 2006). With the cues from the above discussion, we propose hypothesis 1.

*Hypothesis 1: Corporate reputation of the innovative food product organisations is significantly associated with intention to purchase innovative food products*

Norms are sets of rules and principles; norms usually arise of one’s personal stature and wisdom to frame certain rules and principles. In other words, it is an orderly conformity and an individual is expected to abide a set of rules by a reference group or social organisations. Literature has afforded paramount importance to social norms. Subjective norms can be explained as an individual pressure towards following a social conformity. Following a social structure is a fundamental principle that is built upon moral, ethics and legal systems. Consumers try to certainly position themselves in a higher part of the society, which simultaneously builds a strong subjective influence (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004). This is especially relevant in food products, where previous studies have investigated the role of subjective influence over consumer food buying decisions (Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005). Extending this idea, innovation spread can also take place th rough social influence (Moore & Benbasat, 1996). This paper hypothesises that social influence can play a greater role in innovative food products. Consumers may increase their acceptance of innovative foods based on the social pattern. Thus we propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2: Subjective norms are significantly associated with intention to purchase innovative food products*

Among the three predictors, perceived behavioural control has been well recognised to consist of both inner control constraints and external difficulty factors (Sparks *et al*, 1997). Roberts (1996) describes perceived consumer effectiveness as a major internal control variable, whereas, perceived product availability is recognised to be a perceived external difficulty factor (Sparks & Shepherd, 1992). Ajzen (1991) describes “perceived behavioural control” as the control of ease or difficulty in performing the behaviour. A conscious consumer action or behaviour is built upon the ability (perceived control) and motivation that the consumer wishes to invest (Zhou *et al*., 2013). Consumers oscillate their problem scenario through ‘need, want and demand’. In this oscillation, demand is an enhanced want-state with controlled ability and motivation. Consumers may have a similar behaviour towards innovative food products. Despite consumers being aware of innovative food products, a productive consumers’ ability and motivation will yield a prospective demand for the products. This could further build fruitful intention to purchase the innovative product. Based on the above, we propose the following hypothesis.

*Hypothesis 3: Perceived behavioural control is significantly associated with intention to purchase innovative food products*

**<Insert Figure 2 here>**

**3.2. Role of social media engagement in proposed model (model 2)**

Social media has been recognized as a significant influencer of relationships in recent times (Briones *et al*., 2011). It is a facilitator of learning (Chen & Bryer, 2012), knowledge (Majchrzak *et al*., 2013), relationships (Briones *et al*., 2011), and innovation (Piller *et al*., 2011; Criado *et al*., 2013; Martini *et al*., 2013). Social media is one of the most influential developments of web 2.0 technology and entails enhanced functions of interactive engagement (Sashi, 2012). Social media helps in extending human interaction and thereby motivates users to explore innovative trends (Leonardi, 2014). Research in the field of social media have hitherto focused on interaction and engagement levels (Fischer & Reuber, 2011). Among numerous social media functions video sharing, social networking, online gaming, knowledge sharing, blogging – microblogging has gained considerable attention among researchers and digital specialists. Content has been shown to play a vital role across all social media domains (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Balakrishnan & Griffiths, 2017). All social media functionaries attempt to post meaningful content to increase the user engagement (Ashley & Tuten, 2015). This has created more opportunity for users to engage, share, review and recommend different contents in social media (Lee & Ma, 2012)

Content on innovative food trends is abundant in social media; they are available as text, video, pictures, infographics, quizzes etc. Facebook consists of popular food pages, YouTube has numerous food channels, Instagram gives attractive pictures of food, and a plethora of blogs on food channels are available. These have afforded varying sources of information to consumers, on different aspects of innovative food, most notably on safety and quality (Soon & Saguy, 2017). Unlike traditional media, social media is a dynamic platform that encourages new and innovative content, which generates meaningful engagement (Ashley & Tuten, 2015). Engagement in food channels adds to knowledge about innovative food and influences its perceived acceptance. Moreover, it is more relevant to look on whether social media engagement can build an intention to purchase innovative food products. Besides this, it will be also fruitful to investigate on how social media engagement moderates the relationship of corporate reputation, social norms and perceived behavioural control towards purchase intention of innovative food products.

The above section proposed the hypotheses for model 1. This section explains the hypotheses pertaining to model 2. Model 2 incorporates social media engagement as a moderating factor in the paths of hypotheses 1, 2, and 3. Since the inception of web 2.0, the term ‘users’, ‘audience’ and ‘consumers’ have been used interchangeably in marketing literature. The online engagement of user can be converted by marketers into direct marketing effort (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). Social media engagement is a measurable interaction, which assists marketing analysts to read, capture, and interpret the behaviour of online users in both in a cross-sectional and longitudinal pattern. Many research studies have attempted to understand the role of social media channels in various consumer behaviour actions (Hermida *et al*., 2012; Wang *et al*., 2012; Heinonen, 2011). Studies have also attempted to understand the moderating effect of social media on consumer behaviour (Lim *et al*., 2015). In this perspective, the present study attempts to investigate the role of social media engagement as a moderator for the predictor variables as well as to understand its relationship with intention to purchase innovative food products.

Social media engagement includes various activities like liking, commenting, sharing, reviewing, tweeting, etc (Kietzmann *et al*., 2011). But liking and commenting are common actions across many social media channels (Kabadayi & Price, 2014). Likewise, literature has supported liking and commenting as the most coordinated interaction to measure user engagement (De Vries *et al*., 2012). Engaging is the most filtered action in the conversion funnel in contrast to subscription to or viewing of social media content. Engagement is a dynamic action that is dependent upon the content category (Ashley & Tuten, 2015). The contents posted in social media can be of any form - photographs, videos, infographics, quiz, knowledge posts, etc. In case of food channels in social media sections, the content predominantly includes videos and photographs. In practical scenario, various food channels are available on Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, Twitter, etc. For example, As of March 2019, Food Network (US, India, UK) is the most followed food channel in Facebook with 29.3 million followers (Facebook, 2019), the channel is also active on YouTube. There are many food channels in social media, which are very active in sharing food information, preparation methods, food varieties, health tips, cultural food, etc (NewsCred Insights, 2018).

The information shared on social media play a critical role in enhancing consumer empowerment and knowledge in the area of food products (Stefanidis *et al*., 2013, Majchrzak *et al*., 2013; Vuori & Okkonen, 2012; Fieseler & Fleck, 2013; Bertot *et al*., 2010). Social media engagement can alter attitude towards the food products (Akar & Topçu, 2011). This alteration can be in both cognitive and effective actions. Moreover, food content can also induce cravings to perform an action. The influence of media gives an efficient mechanism to build the corporate reputation (Einwiller et al., 2010), this is no different for social media. Dijkmans et al. (2015) proposed that social media engagement in pages do increase and facilitate the building of corporate reputation. In the same manner, social media was well understood as a strong moderator which can change relationship strengths through the engagement level. There is a strong assumption that the relationship between corporate reputation and purchase intention may become altered because of social media follow up and engagement. The same may be applicable to subjective norms; social media is not a fad that affects consumers temporarily, it has become a culture in which consumers share their individual values (Van Dijck, 2013; Heller Baird & Parasnis, 2011). The engagement in social media food channels pages may subjectively affect the group norms and induce consumers to share their opinion and gain acceptance for their norms. This, as a result, can significantly change the relationship between subjective norms and intention to purchase innovative food products. In case of perceived behavioural control, social media engagement may strongly influence the motivational aspects to purchase innovative products.

**<Insert Figure 3 here>**

The knowledge sharing and updates on innovative products in the social media food channel may personally influence an individual’s control to perform an action. In this, the relationship between perceived behavioural control and purchase intention may change. Despite the changes that social media engagement can bring to the model, we propose that corporate reputation, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control would establish a significant relationship with intention to purchase innovative food products. We propose hypotheses 4 to 6 based on the above discussion.

*Hypotheses: Corporate reputation towards innovative food products (H4) subjective norms (H5) perceived behavioural control (H6) are significantly associated with intention to purchase innovative food products when moderated by social media engagement in online food channels.*

In continuation of the above discussion, it is also important to understand the value of moderation effect of social media engagement on the TPB variables. The moderation values will enable us to understand the size of the effect (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009) and to interpret the holistic role of social media engagement in the complete model. Apart from affecting the existing relationships, social media engagement also introduces a significant variable to establishing a relationship with intention to purchase innovative food products. Previous literature has shown that consumers’ social media engagement can result in purchase action (Sashi, 2012). Good engagement can increase momentum in the purchase funnel, which can result in a desirable action. Not all exposures are engagement, but a successful engagement may result in an action (Wang *et al*., 2012).

Behavioural tracking or profiling has improved the tailoring of online content recommendations based on user’s interest and browsing history (Lambrecht & Tucker, 2013). Social media websites keep enhancing their features and upgrading algorithms to optimise content recommendations to benefit user search queries (Zhou *et al*., 2012). Social media has helped marketers in the areas of lead generation and ROI. Consumers have started showing a significant response to social media communications, whereas this engagement can also instil consumers to perform end action. By this, we propose the following hypotheses.

*Hypothesis 7: Social media engagement in online food channels is significantly associated with intention to purchase innovative food products*

*Hypotheses: Social media engagement significantly moderates the relationship between corporate reputation and intention to purchase innovative food products (H8) and subjective norms and intention to purchase innovative food products (H9)*

*Hypothesis 10: Social media engagement significantly moderates the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to purchase innovative food products.*

**4. Methods**

**4.1. Sample and Questionnaire**

Identifying representative sample is very important to validate and generalise the outcome to a specific population. In this regard, the followers of different food pages in Facebook were chosen to be a prospective population for the study. After a week of observation, we identified 6000 Indian and US users who were active participants across five food pages in Facebook (Food Network, FoodFood, India Food Network, Rajshri Food, Cakes & Cookies World). The 6000 users were sent an online Google form questionnaire through the Facebook messenger and the data collection was extended up to 63 days. We received 789 completed forms of which, 374 and 346 usable responses were obtained from Indian and US users respectively, where the respondent’s country origin is identified from the user pages. One of the major motivations to choose India and US is understand the model difference with respect to developed and developing nation. All participants were awarded a gift coupon which could be used on Amazon.in and Amazon.com. The sample is representative of both men and women belonging to the age group of 15 - 35 years. Earlier reports have identified that adolescents and young adults compose of majority of social media users (Pew Research Center, 2018).The questionnaire consisted of twenty-five questions representing the items of the exogenous and endogenous constructs, which were measured using 5 points Likert scale (5 being strongly agree and 1 being strongly disagree). Three questions representing socio-demographic characteristics were added along with the questionnaire. The details of the sample characteristics are available at Table 2.

**<Insert Table 2 here>**

**4.2. Measures**

Many earlier papers have discussed and validated scales for corporate reputation, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention in different contexts relevant to the food industry. These studies have dealt with organic food products (Tarkiainen & Sundqvist, 2005), green food consumption (Paul *et al*., 2016), food safety (Milton & Mullan, 2012), halal food purchasing (Shah Alam & Mohamed Sayuti, 2011), and hygienic food handling behaviours (Mullan & Wong, 2009). However, there are no validated scales available to measure consumer behaviour towards innovative foods. The scales for corporate reputation, subjective norms, perceived behaviour control and purchase intention for innovative food were validated after conducting exploratory factor analysis (EFA), for which the items were derived from previous literature. The items for corporate reputation were derived from Chun (2005), Fombrun et al. (2000); the items for subjective norms were derived from Dean *et al* (2012) and Paul *et al* (2016); the items for perceived behavioural control from Chen and Peng (2012) and Paul *et al* (2016); the items for purchase intention was derived from Taylor & Todd (1995), Mostafa (2006) and Paul *et al* (2016) and the items for social media engagement was derived from Kabadayi & Price (2014). The detailed scale and EFA results are available at Annexure 1 (EFA results representing Indian sample and US Sample with scale items)

**4.3. Analysis**

A four-step structural equation modelling was carried in this research to test the proposed models. The four steps were as (i) an exploratory factor analysis was performed to finalise the scale pertaining to the five factors. Principal component analysis with varimax rotation method was used for EFA extraction. (ii) a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to confirm the content, convergent and discriminant validity requirements along with reliability analysis. The fit indices were considered to validate the overall confirmatory requirements for the model.(iii) The structural model estimates were determined using maximum likelihood method. Two structural model estimates were considered, model one evaluated the direct model without any moderation effect of social media engagement, and model two included the moderated estimates of the social media engagement. The factor scores obtained through imputation were used as an input data for developing the lateral model. (iv) The multi-group structural model results of Indian and US samples were compared and finally the results are presented after considering the Chi-square differences between the constrained and unconstrained values.

**5. Results**

The EFA results pertaining to Indian sample extracted five components explaining a total of 79.76% variance. Similarly, the EFA results for US sample extracted five components with a total variance of 82.11%. The commonality values are high and no items were removed from the analysis for both samples. Refer annexure 1 for detailed loadings of the items for Indian and US sample respectively. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to understand the validity requirements of the scale. The reliability values of all the constructs were above 0.75 and this confirms that the scale was free from measurement error (Portney & Watkins, 2000). All items were observed to have values more than 0.60, which satisfies the basic condition of content validity. The average variance extracted for each factor was more than 0.50 and this established the presence of convergent validity. A detailed description for CFA is provided at table 3 and from table 4, it can be observed that square root of AVE values were more the squared inter correlation values. This further satisfies the condition for discriminant validity requirement. The CFA analysis met the basic requirements for validating the model proposed by Bagozzi *et al*. (1991), and Fornell and Larcker (1981) and the fit indices of the CFA shown in Table 3 further validated the results to examine the hypothetical model.

**<Insert Table 3 here>**

**<Insert Table 4 here>**

The structural model results for model 1 and model 2 are presented in Table 5. Model 1 results shows that all hypotheses have significant positive coefficients for both the samples. The Indian sample for model 1 shows social media engagement and corporate reputation as a strong predictor of purchase intention of innovative foods. Despite being significant, perceived behavioural control showed least value of all other coefficients. In case of US sample, social media engagement had relatively high coefficient value compared to other high hypotheses. Social norms, perceived behavioural control, and corporate reputation shared similar coefficient values. The model fit indices for the structural model had an excellent fit, which further validated the results obtained along with the *r2* values. Model 2 explains the moderation effect of social media engagement on the other variables. The results of model 2 pertaining to Indian sample explained that all coefficients had a significant relationship towards purchase intention of innovative foods, among which, perceived behavioural control and moderated subjective norms had negative coefficients. In the case of the US sample, social media engagement and moderated corporate reputation failed to establish a significant relationship with purchase intention of innovative food products. The *r2* values of model 2 explained more variance than model 1, which explains the moderated role of social media engagement in the conceptual framework.

**<Insert Table 5 here>**

The structural model multi-group analysis explained that the model 1 coefficients (H1 to H3) did not significantly differ between the Indian and US sample. However, for model 2 (H4 to H10) it was observed that all hypothesis except for H4, H7 and H8 were found to have significant coefficient differences between Indian and US sample. Among the significant difference values, subjective norms were identified to have a high-value indicator compared to other significantly differentiating variables, followed by perceived behaviour control, moderated social norms and moderated perceived behaviour control. In case of the total model comparison, model 1 established an insignificant value and model 2 was identified to have a high significant difference between Indian and US samples. Detailed results of the multi-group analysis are presented in Table 6 and the threshold constrains values are presented in Annexure 2.

**<Insert Table 6 here>**

**6. Discussion and Implications**

This study attempts to introduce a new food innovative framework and investigates the role of corporate reputation, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and social media engagement towards purchase intention of innovative foods. The results of the study are discussed in academic and managerial perspective in the following sections.

**6.1. Theoretical implications**

The literature of corporate reputation and its relationship with innovative product line will be a much added contribution to the literature. While most of the literature has addressed corporate reputation as a strategic development and performance of an organisation (Alon and Vidovic, 2015), limited attention was given to understand the role of reputation towards specific product line. This research has developed a framework and has empirical justified the results. Especially with the growing trends of social media and the increasing channels in the web domain, it demands the model should be well documented with the effects of social media. This model will open up new avenues for research as a subset of TPB model along with a social media construct. Media frames have become so important components in models which cannot be ignored (Mason, 2014). The novelty of the paper can be justified through two facets, one by providing a proper innovative framework with possible layers of innovation and second by incorporating an extended model of TPB with the components of corporate reputation and social media engagement which empirically validates the theoretical structure of the paper.

An interesting observation in this work is that there was not much difference between consumers from India and those from the US, in terms of corporate reputation and behaviour towards innovations in food products. The multi-group analysis confirms that there are no significant differences with the hypotheses of model 1. Corporate reputation was seen to have a highly significant relationship to purchase intention of innovative food products. Studies in corporate reputation has confirmed the consumer’s value the trust and reliability of the brand and corporate in a larger scale (Money et al., 2017). This research supports the argument that corporate reputation do have a higher value addition in the minds of the consumers to insist final action like purchase intention. More important this study has validated it with innovative food product line. In particular, innovation in can also build the reputation of the company in vice versa by building a stereo type through radical and incremental innovative strategies.

The results confirmed that corporate reputation, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control; all three variables play a significant role in purchase intention for both the sample sets. But looking close into the multi-group analysis; model 1 doesn’t seem to differ between Indian and US sample. But the overall constraint value of model 2 is different when comparing both the samples. This also shows the impact that social interaction in the conceptual model. Being moderated by social media engagement construct, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control established different scores for Indian and US. This may be majorly due to the cultural content differences that are offered in the social media. A study by Singh et al. (2005) emphasises that the website content and its cultural understanding significantly differs between India and US. Similarly building upon this knowledge, Jaju et al., (2002) extends the difference in terms of learning and other major categories of knowledge. While not many researches have compared the Indian and US consumers, this study will hold a greater key. The results imply that the purchase pattern is likely to be same for US and India, until the influence of social media engagement is added with the model. This also adds value to the existing literature that the role of corporate reputation remains highly significant for both the models and samples. Among various hierarchy of products available globally, food family has a complete product hierarchy structure with large diversified food ranges. Food product category has the capacity to solve human basic, psychological, and social needs. Intention towards purchasing innovative food products can arise from both behavioural control and social needs. The results of model 1 supported the idea. From the results, it is empirically understood that perceived behavioural control and subjective norms have a positive significant relationship towards intention to purchase innovative food products for both samples. This is an important insight for marketers and for industry practitioners. Marketers attempt to impart perceptual innovation through various channels of distribution, services and communication, but it is important for them to know if the perception is weighted with social acceptance. Similarly, it is also important to understand the ability and control of consumers towards the innovative food products.

6.2. Managerial implications

The results of this study offer valuable insights into the consumer’s perception of innovations in the food industry. Innovations in the food industry were studied in the past in terms of products and technology, and not from the angle of consumer perception. This study complements existing knowledge and provides a holistic perspective to innovation. The innovation framework shown in Figure 1 is a comprehensive output of exemplary functions (Table 1) in food innovation. Future empirical validations would provide a robust view of the framework to understand consumer perspectives at different stages of innovation. The two research questions raised in this work, investigate the consumers’ dispositions towards food innovations and the role of social media on their intention of purchase innovative food products. Two hypothetical models were framed in this research, and the research sample comprised Indian and US consumers. The descriptive statistics presented in Table 2 shows that the sample is representative of male and female consumers younger than 45 years.

Model 2 examined the role of social media engagement in consumers’ purchase intentions of innovative food products. In the case of Indian consumers, it was seen that social media engagement plays a significant role in creating intention to purchase innovative food products. The role of social media was not as strong among US consumers as with the Indian sample, and social media played a less significant role in the creation of intention to purchase innovative food products. Our results also show that the promotion of “organic” products has been gaining importance in social media pages in recent years. Results of our research show that the marketing of innovative food products must leverage on the role of social media and engage in social media related activities. Food channels on Facebook, YouTube, Instagram and other social media channels have gained popularity among users of social media. For example, subscriptions to food channels in Facebook are on the rise and marketing personnel must capitalize on this popularity to spread word of their innovative food products. Model 1 of this research, provides general valuable insights for food producers and marketers, and results from model 2 elucidates important interactions inside the model. Although the results are largely based on the Indian sample, they may be extrapolated to other countries as well. In managerial perspective, this study opens clarity in how the innovation can be observed in all stages of supply chain. Though this study build upon the marketing end, but the framework provided in figure 1 will benefit innovative companies to choose the best strategy in line with their strength and value. Moreover, the model of study is a composition of a basic and contemporary model, which provides a holistic view of the consumers action without ignoring the basic inherent with the study.

**7. Limitation and future research suggestions**

The TPB model has been applied in this work, to investigate consumer behaviour towards innovative food products. While earlier work in this area focused on food-innovation as a specific function in a supply chain, this work investigated the underlying relationship between corporate reputation and behaviour, and the innovation in the food product. In order to enhance the value of the traditional TPB model, this work included social media as a major construct and analysed the strength and direction of its relationship with corporate reputation, subjective norms, perceived control beliefs and purchase intention with respect to innovative food products. The findings of this work will open new avenues and directions for research and provides useful insights to both academicians and practitioners in food industry. This study strongly emphasises the importance of marketing food innovation through social media channels to enlarge the scope of the food product, especially in terms of innovation. One limitation of this study is that the cultural aspects and country specific behaviour have not been taken into consideration. Future researchers can address this gap and include new components in the innovative framework provided in figure 1; a consumer specific behaviour investigation for each level of the framework would undoubtedly add more value to literature in the area.

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| **Table 1: Explanation for Figure 1** | | |
| **Acronyms** | **Explanation** | **Exemplar components** |
| NP | New food product | New food development or process, introducing need or want category, separate technology, complete reframing the value addition |
| NF | New formulation of existing food products | Fermentation1, characterisation2, content reduction3, controlling properties4, cloning5, technologies6, encapsulation7, etc. |
| RF | Re-formulation of existing food products | Improving quality8, cultural adoption9, conservation planning10, new nutrients11,12, additional nutrients11,12, natural enhancement11, Food safety13, process innovation14, etc. |
| IE | Item extension within same brand | Colour15, flavour16, extending stock keeping unit17, product designs18, textures19, changing usage pattern20, |
| ME | Innovative marketing efforts | Packaging, labelling25, distribution channels22,26, 29, communication channels27,28, service channels30, payment methods21, online marketing23,24, pricing21,31. |
| 1Parvez et al. (2006); 2Baah, (2009); 3Tarrago-Trani et al (2006); 4Naila (2010); 5Platteeuw et al. (1996); 6Chaudhry et al. (2008); 7Gouin (2004); 8Brosnan and Sun (2004); 9Fieldhouse (2013); 10Wischmeier & Smith (1978); 11Bigliardi & Galati (2013); 12Kirschbaum (2005); 13Marotta et al. (2014); 14Capitanio et al. (2010), 15Gomez-Estaca (2012); 16Martinez & Briz (2000); 17Sammon & O’Reilly (2013); 18Berkowitz (1987); 19Hutchings et al. (2014); 20Inwood et al. (2009); 21Bhaskaran (2006); 22 Verhaegen & Van Huylenbroeck (2001); 23Alvy & Calvert (2008); 24Moore & Rideout (2007); 25Ilbery et al. (2005); 26Pearson et al. (2011); 27Massa & Testa (2009); 28Cho & Park (2012); 29Croom (2001); 30Hertog (2000); 31Eyles et al. (2012). | | |

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| **Table 2: Sociodemographic characteristics of the sample (N = 720)** | | | | | |
| **Characteristics** | | **Indian Sample**  **N= 374** | | **US Sample**  **N = 346** | |
| **Frequency** | **%** | **Frequency** | **%** |
| Gender | Male | 202 | 54 | 181 | 52 |
| Female | 172 | 46 | 165 | 48 |
| Occupation | Student | 217 | 58 | 163 | 47 |
| Working | 121 | 32 | 128 | 37 |
| Business | 36 | 10 | 55 | 16 |
| Age | 16 to 25 years | 102 | 27 | 92 | 27 |
| 26 to 35 years | 118 | 32 | 76 | 22 |
| 36 to 45 years | 131 | 35 | 119 | 34 |
| Above 45 years | 23 | 6 | 59 | 17 |

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| **Table 3: Confirmatory factor analysis results for US and Indian sample** | | | | | |
| **Factor details** | | **US** | | **India** | |
| **Construct** | **Items** | **Factor loadings** | **Mean (SD), AVE and Composite Reliability(CR)** | **Factor loadings** | **Mean (SD), AVE and Composite Reliability(CR)** |
| Corporate Reputation | CR 1 | 0.796\*\*\* | AVE = 0.741  CR = 0.895 | 0.822 | AVE = 0.780  CR = 0.914 |
| CR 2 | 0.873\*\*\* | 0.907 |
| CR 3 | 0.909\*\*\* | 0.918 |
| Subjective  norms | Subjective norms1 | 0.665\*\*\* | AVE = 0.597  CR = 0.855 | 0.797 | AVE = 0.691  CR = 0.895 |
| Subjective norms 2 | 0.763\*\*\* | 0.813 |
| Subjective norms 3 | 0.844\*\*\* | 0.872 |
| Subjective norms 4 | 0.808\*\*\* | 0.816 |
| Perceived behavioural control | PBC1 | 0.921\*\*\* | AVE = 0.854  CR = 0.976 | 0.905 | AVE = 0.720  CR = 0.947 |
| PBC2 | 0.945\*\*\* | 0.836 |
| PBC3 | 0.945\*\*\* | 0.907 |
| PBC4 | 0.943\*\*\* | 0.922 |
| PBC5 | 0.953\*\*\* | 0.914 |
| PBC6 | 0.891\*\*\* | 0.694 |
| PBC7 | 0.866\*\*\* | 0.730 |
| Purchase intention for innovative foods | Purchase Intention1 | 0.834\*\*\* | AVE = 0.758  CR = 0.940 | 0.840 | AVE = 0.721  CR = 0.928 |
| Purchase Intention 2 | 0.874\*\*\* | 0.818 |
| Purchase Intention 3 | 0.884\*\*\* | 0.887 |
| Purchase Intention 4 | 0.900\*\*\* | 0.853 |
| Purchase Intention 5 | 0.864\*\*\* | 0.845 |
| Social media engagement | FB engagement1 | 0.891\*\*\* | AVE = 0.784  CR = 0.956 | 0.901 | AVE = 0.766  CR = 0.952 |
| FB engagement2 | 0.910\*\*\* | 0.916 |
| FB engagement3 | 0.902\*\*\* | 0.899 |
| FB engagement4 | 0.909\*\*\* | 0.877 |
| FB engagement5 | 0.896\*\*\* | 0.861 |
| FB engagement6 | 0.801\*\*\* | 0.793 |
| *Indian Sample: Model 1 fit: Cmin/df = 2.363 (p=0.00); CFI = .974, NFI=.944,GFI = .902 RMSEA = 0.056 (Good fit)*  *US Sample: Model 1 fit: Cmin/df = 2.901 (p=0.00); CFI = .957, NFI=.931,GFI = .879 RMSEA = 0.070 (Good fit)*  \*\*\*denotes values are significant at 99% level | | | | | |

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| **Table 4: Squared Correlation and √AVE values** | | | | |
|  | **Social media Engagement** | **Corporate Reputation** | **Subjective Norms** | **Perceived Behavioural control** |
| **Social media Engagement** | **0.875**  **0.886** | 0.431 | 0.511 | 0.253 |
| **Corporate Reputation** | 0.278 | **0.883**  **0.861** | 0.368 | -0.026 |
| **Subjective**  **Norms** | 0.291 | 0.172 | **0.825**  **0.773** | 0.082 |
| **Perceived Behavioural control** | 0.373 | -0.011 | 0.421 | **0.849**  **0.924** |
| *The values above and below the diagonal represent US Sample and Indian Sample respectively*  *The Diagonal values represent √AVE values* | | | | |

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| **Table 5: Structural Model Estimates for the proposed model** | | | | |
|  | **Indian Sample**  **N= 374** | | **US Sample**  **N = 346** | |
| **Predictors of Purchase Intention (Hypotheses)** | **Model 1** | **Model 2** | **Model 1** | **Model 2** |
| Corporate Reputation (H1, H4) | 0.364\*\*\* | 0.235\*\*\* | 0.228\*\*\* | 0.217\*\*\* |
| Subjective Norms (H2,H5) | 0.268\*\*\* | 0.478\*\*\* | 0.226\*\*\* | -0.186\*\*\* |
| Perceived Behavioural control (H3,H6) | 0.145\*\* | -0.191\*\*\* | 0.234\*\*\* | 0.368\*\*\* |
| Social media engagement (H7) |  | 0.355\*\*\* |  | 0.010ns |
| Social media engagement X CR (H8) |  | 0.126\*\* |  | -0.051 ns |
| Social media engagement X SN (H9) |  | -0.403\*\*\* |  | 0.651\*\*\* |
| Social media engagement X PBC (H10) |  | 0.409\*\*\* |  | -0.278\*\*\* |
| ***r2*** | *0.670* | *0.790* | *0.499* | *0.720* |
| *Indian Sample: Model 1 fit: Cmin/df = 2.383 (p=0.00); CFI = .964, NFI=.940,GFI = .882 RMSEA = 0.061 (Good fit)*  *US Sample: Model 1 fit: Cmin/df = 2.925 (p=0.00); CFI = .947, NFI=.922,GFI = .849 RMSEA = 0.075 (Good fit)* | | | | |
| *Note:*  *\*\*\* denotes significance at 0.001 level*  *\*\* denotes significance at 0.05 level*  *ns denotes estimates not significant at 0.05 level*  *CR denotes Corporate Reputation; SN denotes Subjective Norms; PBC denotes Perceived Behavioural Control* | | | | |

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| **Table 6: Multi-group analysis** | | | | |
|  | **Model 1** | | **Model 2** | |
| Chi-square value, df | Note (Model comparison between Indian and US sample) | Chi-square value, df | Note (Model comparison between Indian and US sample) |
| Corporate Reputation (H1, H4) | 472.455, 13 | Not significant difference at 95% chi-square threshold levels | 9168.841, 43 | Not significant difference at 95% chi-square threshold levels |
| Subjective Norms (H2,H5) | 473.299, 13 | Not significant difference at 95% chi-square threshold levels | 9178.794, 43 | Significant difference at 99% chi-square threshold levels |
| Perceived Behavioural control (H3,H6) | 471.576, 13 | Not significant difference at 95% chi-square threshold levels | 9174.856, 43 | Significant difference at 95% chi-square threshold levels |
| Social media engagement (H7) | 473.616, 13 | Not significant difference at 95% chi-square threshold levels | 9170.159, 43 | Not significant difference at 95% chi-square threshold levels |
| Social media engagement X Corporate Reputation (H8) |  |  | 9169.017, 43 | Not significant difference at 95% chi-square threshold levels |
| Social media engagement X SN (H9) |  |  | 9176.356, 43 | Significant difference at 99% chi-square threshold levels |
| Social media engagement X PBC (H10) |  |  | 9176.965, 43 | Significant difference at 99% chi-square threshold levels |
| Total model comparison | Difference value: 8.261ns,4 | | Difference value: 22.154\*\*\*, 7 | |
| Note: The detailed constrained and threshold chi-square values are available at Annexure 2 | | | | |
| ns denotes values not significant at 95% confidence level; \*\*\*denotes value significant at 99% confidence level | | | | |

Figure1: Innovation stages of food products

**Incremental Innovation**

**Radical Innovation**

**Perceived Innovation Strength**

**Low**

**High**

**Consumer Orientation**

**NP**

**NF**

**RF**

**IE**

**ME**

**Market**

**Orientation**

H1

H2

H3

Figure 2: Conceptual without any effect of social media engagement (model 1)

H4

H5

H6

H8

H9

H10

H7

Figure 3: Conceptual model with the effect of social media engagement (model 2)

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| **Annexure 1: TPB Scales for innovative food products with Exploratory Factor Analysis Results** | | | | | | | |
| **Refined items and scales** | **India** | | | **US** | | | **Source of scale** |
| **(Measured in 7 point scale)** | **Factor loading** | **Mean** | **SD** | **Factor loading** | **Mean** | **SD** |  |
| **Corporate Reputation**  **Variance Extracted (Eigenvalue)** | 4.331  (1.083) |  |  | 6.295  (1.574) |  |  |  |
| I have good feeling about the innovative food companies  I admire and respect the innovative food companies  I trust the innovative food companies | .848  .859  .876 | 5.03  4.83  4.75 | 1.197  1.191  1.271 | .851  .887  .900 | 5.25  5.20  5.18 | 1.038  1.103  1.183 | Chun (2005), Fombrun et al. (2000) |
| **Subjective norm**  **Variance Extracted (Eigenvalue)** | 7.694  (1.923) |  |  | 10.106  (2.527) |  |  |  |
| Most people who are important to me think I should purchase innovative food products  Most people who are important to me would want me to purchase innovative food products  People whose opinions I value would prefer that I purchase innovative food products.  My friend’s positive opinion influences me to purchase innovative food products. | .776  .818  .852  .841 | 4.97  4.97  5.01  4.80 | 1.366  1.350  1.323  1.461 | .796  .814  .825  .766 | 4.83  4.70  4.66  4.50 | 1.121  1.062  1.122  1.211 | Dean *et al* (2012) and Paul *et al* (2016) |
| **Perceived behavioural control**  **Variance Extracted (Eigenvalue)** | 40.363  (10.091) |  |  | 41.193  (10.298) |  |  |  |
| I believe I have the ability to purchase innovative food products  If it were entirely up to me, I am confident that I will purchase innovative food products  I see myself as capable of purchasing innovative food products in future.  I have resources, time and willingness to purchase innovative food products.  Innovative food products are generally available in the shops where I usually do my shopping.  There are likely to be plenty of opportunities for me to purchase innovative food products  I feel that purchasing innovative food products is not totally with in my control. | .897  .847  .905  .914  .916  .781  .794 | 4.65  4.25  4.89  4.43  4.58  5.24  5.07 | 1.888  1.828  1.876  1.742  1.772  1.343  1.371 | .921  .902  .932  .906  .905  .889  .872 | 5.37  5.24  5.48  5.26  5.27  5.55  5.50 | 1.718  1.687  1.692  1.628  1.629  1.331  1.394 | Chen and Peng (2012) and Paul *et al* (2016) |
| **Purchase intention for innovative food products**  **Variance Extracted (Eigenvalue)** | 7.443  (1.861) |  |  | 7.453  (1.863) |  |  |  |
| I will consider buying innovative food products always  I will consider switching to innovative food products from traditional food products  I plan to spend more on purchasing innovative food products  I expect to purchase innovative food products in the future  I definitely want to purchase innovative food products in near future. | .779  .804  .731  .741  .627 | 6.15  5.98  5.91  5.81  5.76 | 1.091  1.132  1.109  1.146  1.151 | .844  .828  .834  .757  .740 | 6.11  6.00  5.86  5.68  5.65 | 1.082  1.072  1.118  1.122  1.122 | Taylor & Todd (1995), Mostafa (2006) and Paul *et al* (2016) |
| **Social media engagement**  **Variance Extracted (Eigenvalue)** | 19.931  (4.983) |  |  | 17.069  (4.267) |  |  |  |
| I enjoy liking innovative food content on Facebook and other social media pages  I regularly like innovative food content on Facebook and other social media pages  Liking innovative food content is something that I do often while on Facebook and other social media pages  I enjoy commenting on innovative food content on Facebook and other social media pages  I regularly comment on innovative food content on Facebook and other social media pages  Commenting on innovative food content is something that I do often while on Facebook and other social media pages | .847  .858  .838  .790  .802  .815 | 6.09  5.92  5.87  5.76  5.72  5.27 | 1.334  1.326  1.282  1.317  1.333  1.274 | .871  .879  .871  .850  .865  .818 | 6.10  5.93  5.87  5.74  5.72  5.27 | 1.345  1.342  1.308  1.329  1.337  1.300 | Kabadayi & Price (2014) |
| The CFA loadings, AVE and reliability are presented in the table 3  Indian Sample EFA results:  *KMO = 0.881; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 9929.0; Sig = 0.000(Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization)*  US Sample EFA results: *KMO = 0.900; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity = 9569.2; Sig = 0.000 (Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization)* | | | | | | | |

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| **Annexure 2: Chi-square threshold values** | | | | | | |
|  | **Model 1** | | | **Model 2** | | |
|  | Chi-square threshold | df | Sig | Chi-square threshold | df | Sig |
| *90% Confidence* | 473.53 | 13 |  | 9171.49 | 43 |  |
| Difference | 2.71 | 1 | 0.100 | 2.71 | 1 | 0.100 |
| *95% Confidence* | 474.67 | 13 |  | 9172.62 | 43 |  |
| Difference | 3.84 | 1 | 0.050 | 3.84 | 1 | 0.050 |
| *99% Confidence* | 477.46 | 13 |  | 9175.42 | 43 |  |
| Difference | 6.63 | 1 | 0.010 | 6.63 | 1 | 0.010 |
| **Complete model** | | | | | | |
| Unconstrained | 470.827 | 12 |  | 9168.782 | 42 |  |
| Fully constrained | 479.088 | 16 |  | 9190.936 | 49 |  |
| **Note:** Annexure 2 has the base figures to validate Table 5 | | | | | | |