



Vaasan yliopisto  
UNIVERSITY OF VAASA

Faisal Al-Sheikh Atiye

# **Strategic Rebranding Through Sensemaking and Sensegiving:**

The Case of a Delivery Company's European Transformation

School of Management  
Master's thesis in Strategic  
Business Development

Vaasa 2024

---

**UNIVERSITY OF VAASA****School of Management**

**Author:** Faisal Al-Sheikh Atiye  
**Title of the Thesis:** Strategic Rebranding Through Sensemaking and Sensegiving:  
The Case of a Delivery Company's European Transformation  
**Degree:** Master of Science  
**Programme:** Strategic Business Development  
**Supervisor:** Rodrigo Rabetino Sabugo  
**Year:** 2024 **Sivumäärä:** 56

---

**ABSTRACT:**

Rebranding is a process in which changes are made to an already existing brand. In the modern business research context, it is a common strategic that aims to increase brand equity through better alignment on what the customer expects and what the company signals to offer. The reality of a strategic rebranding process and its successful implementation can be highly complex, and to this day, the subject has received little attention in research.

This study aims to provide an example of a successful rebranding process through a theoretical framework of sensemaking and sensegiving. In 2022, Delivery Hero began a strategic rebranding process of bringing its different European brands under one umbrella, Foodora. The main goals of Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding process were organizational efficiency, differentiation from competition, and increased brand equity in crowded markets. This study shows how the company managed stakeholder involvement and faced internal and external challenges.

This single case study was conducted in the spring of 2024, and it entailed qualitative semi-structured interviews with key stakeholders within the Foodora rebranding process. The analysis was based on the grounded theory approach and highlighted the importance of effective leadership, clear communication, and alignment on what the customer truly wants.

The findings suggest that a successful rebranding process is not only about a change in a brand's visual identity but also requires a deeper understanding of brand identity, market positioning, and a unified strategy. Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding exemplifies how sensemaking and sensegiving may aid organizational change.

---

**KEYWORDS:** Rebranding, Sensemaking, Sensegiving, Change, Change Management, Branding Strategy

## Contents

1	Introduction	6
1.1	Context of the study	7
1.2	Purpose of the Study	8
1.3	Structure of the Thesis	9
1.4	Key Concepts	10
1.4.1	Sensemaking	10
1.4.2	Sensegiving	10
1.4.3	Brand	11
1.4.4	Branding	11
1.4.5	Rebranding	11
2	Theory	13
2.1	Strategic change initiation process	13
2.2	Sensemaking	14
2.2.1	Organized Sensemaking	15
2.3	Sensegiving	16
2.3.1	Triggers and enablers of sensegiving	17
2.4	Branding and rebranding	19
2.4.1	Branding	19
2.4.2	Key Concepts in Branding	20
2.4.3	Rebranding	21
2.4.4	Rebranding Process	23
3	Methodology	28
3.1	Research Method	28
3.2	Case Description	29
3.3	Data Collection	31
3.4	Sample Size	33
3.5	Data Analysis	36
4	Findings	39

4.1	Triggers of Rebranding and Sensemaking	39
4.2	Brand Strategy Work	41
4.3	Sensegiving in the Rebranding Process	44
5	Discussion and Conclusion	47
5.1	Conceptual contribution	47
5.2	Managerial contribution	48
5.3	Limitations	51
5.4	Future research	52
	References	53

**Figures**

Figure 1. Coding of Data. 38

**Tables**

Table 1. The interviewees. 33

## 1 Introduction

A famous notion in change management is that approximately 70 percent of change initiatives fail. This notion is often used by academics, management, change consultants, and other change practitioners. (Mark Hughes, 2011). This notion can be found in Beer and Nohria's (2000) article, in which they write: "Here's the brutal fact: 70% of all change initiatives fail" (Beer & Nohria, 2000: 1). This quote is often cited as a reference to this common notion. In Hughes' (2011) article, he concluded that there perhaps is not enough empirical evidence to support the claim that 70 percent of change efforts fail. However, stories of failures in the effort to change are not hard to find from literature or personal experience. Change management literature claims that failure is the most likely outcome of a change effort. (Griffith, 2001). Fortunately, numerous frameworks have been developed to deal with change efforts. This paper will take a closer look at sense-making and sensegiving in a change process to observe the framework's applicability in a successful change process.

Gioia and Chittipeddi (1991) argue that at the most basic level, a change process is a substantive change that alters an existing value or a meaning system. Change processes are usually sparked by leadership, and the initial focus is on those in charge' values and meaning systems. The organizational stakeholders need a way to understand the intended changes. This applies to the leadership and the employees as it is crucial for the stakeholders to 'make sense' of the change. Therefore, the leadership must first develop a 'vision' of the changed organization, which could then, in turn, be communicated to those who would be affected by the change. (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991).

The change could either be a new concept or a way of doing things or replace an existing scheme or a system of meaning for it to make sense to the stakeholders. In both cases, the attempt to communicate the vision to the stakeholders may lead to a situation where they must re-examine their understanding of the organizational values and meanings and make sense of the issue. This moment of internal turbulence is when the leadership

can convey their vision to the stakeholders and open the conversation to involve both parties. (Gioia et al., 1991).

## **1.1 Context of the study**

This study is about organizational change. More precisely, this study aims to study organizational change in a significant rebranding process, where Delivery Hero's multiple European brands were successfully brought under one umbrella brand, Foodora. Muzellec and Lambkin (2006) describe rebranding as a change process that describes creating a new name, term, symbol, design, or a combination of these for an already established brand. (Muzellec & Lambkin, 2006). Schreuer (2000) wrote that a brand is a way for a company to tell its customers what to expect from said company and to identify its products and services. Initially, a lot of early branding work was done in the packaged goods industry, where the brand was simply a method of differentiating one company from another, but later on, it became a more complex set of promises and expectations. (Schreuer, 2000, 16). Rebranding as a term is a combination of the prefix "re," meaning "again" and "branding," which is what the company communicates as its critical promises to its customers through its imagery, names, symbols, and direct communications.

According to Roy and Sarkar (2015), the reason behind a rebranding process is the expectation of improving customer-based brand equity through aligning the brand's new brand identity with the pre-existing customer knowledge. The aim is to achieve a more positive attitude towards the brand to find a more rigid competitive advantage against the competition ultimately. Rebranding processes may also fall under the famous Beer & Nohria's statement: "Here's the brutal fact: 70% of all change initiatives fail" (Beer & Nohria, 2000: 1). This failure happens when the rebranding process is not able to capitalize on what they began to seek out as their goal. One such example would be the famous case of Radio Shack changing its name to "The Shack," which led to confusion amongst its primary audience as they did not recognize the brand after the change.

Ultimately, this rebranding change process led to a loss of brand equity. (Roy & Sarkar, 2015, 341, Beer & Nohria, 2000).

Change process and rebranding difficulties have been studied extensively, but studies of successful change and rebranding processes are still interestingly challenging to find. In my experience, more often than not, the studies of rebranding go over the numerous aspects of rebranding and then emphasize the considerable effort it takes to make a rebranding process successful. This study aims to showcase one such change process where the consensus after the rebranding process has been that it successfully achieved the goals that were set for it. In this study, Delivery Hero's European Foodora rebranding was studied with the sensemaking and sensegiving framework to pinpoint what they did to achieve the desired result.

## **1.2 Purpose of the Study**

An overarching notion in the field of change management often seems to be the failure of strategic change initiatives as a more probable result for organizational change processes. Locating studies exploring "what ifs" in failed change processes and proposing differing frameworks on how the companies could have done better does not seem difficult. However, when one starts to look for the opposite, the elusive studies of successful change processes, the task becomes slightly more complex. This study aims to showcase a successful multinational rebranding change process and the steps it took to achieve that result. The goal is to derive learnings from a successful organizational change process using the sensemaking and sensegiving theoretical framework. The object is to validate existing strategic change initiative steps through an example of how they were followed to achieve the initially set goals.

The theory of sensemaking and sensegiving is directly related to the meaning construction and influencing of that construct in a change process. This study aims to dive deep into how different stakeholders see a change process, how they influence one another,

and, ultimately, the result of said change. The research questions are as follows: What are the triggers of a rebranding? How does a company develop a brand strategy? How do the different stakeholders influence the rebranding strategy and its implementation?

### **1.3 Structure of the Thesis**

This research paper follows a standard thesis structure of four main sections: literature review, methodology, findings, and discussions and conclusions. The study begins with a literature review of the key concepts in which sensemaking, sensegiving, branding, and rebranding are comprehensively reviewed to give the reader a background on the theory. The goal is to provide the reader with context for the sections afterward. Following the literature review section, the research methodology is examined in detail. This section discusses the case structure, data collection methods, sample sizing, research ethics, and data analysis methods. The goal of this methodology section is also to provide the reader with context on how the research was conducted.

After the methodology section, the findings section begins, where the study begins to go over the Delivery Hero's rebranding change process. The case is described in detail and is studied through the lens of the theoretical framework of sensemaking and sensegiving to see how the meaning was constructed in the minds of various stakeholders and what influenced the meaning-construction process. Brand strategy work is also studied to see how different brand elements changed and how decisions were made. Finally, proceeding with the findings section, the discussions and conclusions section is where the theoretical contribution of the study is pondered. The idea is to discuss what a company should think about when embarking on a journey to a successful rebranding process. This discussion and conclusions section also includes the study's limitations and suggestions for future research.

## **1.4 Key Concepts**

The fundamental concepts of this study include Sensemaking, Sensegiving, Branding, Re-branding, and the concept of a Brand in the marketing context.

### **1.4.1 Sensemaking**

As a term, sensemaking describes the cognitive activities within an agent affected by change. It is the process of meaning construction and the reconstruction of previously established constructs of meaning that the individual might have held to understand the strategic nature of the change process. In simpler terms, sensemaking happens when stakeholders try to 'make sense' of a change process and its linked reasons. However, it is essential to note that sensemaking cannot be linked to objective truths about the change process and its strategic reasons. (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005)

### **1.4.2 Sensegiving**

Sensegiving is linked to sensemaking, as sensegiving is the activity of influencing the sensemaking process of those who are affected by the change. The goal of sensegiving is to influence the stakeholders so that their sensemaking process results in a meaning construct aligned with the envisioned redefinition of organizational reality. In other words, sensegiving, and especially leader sensegiving, plays a crucial role in affecting the outcome of a given change process as it is the process that has been identified to be linked to directly influencing the outcomes of sensemaking and, as a result, successful change implementation. Sensegiving has been recognized as one of the key leadership activities. (Gioia et al., 1991; Maitlis & Lawrence, 2007).

### **1.4.3 Brand**

The modern concept of a brand has been widely discussed in marketing literature, but brands have been present in civilization for a long time. Records of Mesopotamia and ancient Greece show that different products were marked and named to distinguish them from one another. The word brand comes from an Old Norse word, 'brandr', which means "to burn" as livestock were, and still are, marked with a heated iron burn to identify them. In a more modern understanding of brands, they are used in developing market segmentation opportunities through product differentiation. A brand is not just about naming and marking a product or a service. Instead, a brand is a complex intangible asset that signals perceived value to stakeholders. A brand is influenced by the interactions between the organization and customers over time, which makes the brand evolve dynamically over time with ever-changing contexts, interpretations, and societal changes. (Maurya & Mishra, 2012, 122, 128).

### **1.4.4 Branding**

Branding refers to building a product's, service's, or company's image. The key human aspect that makes branding work is the human nature of attaching meaning and feeling to inanimate objects. Companies build brands by promoting value, image, prestige, or lifestyle so that customers can identify themselves with the brands and develop feelings for them. The ultimate goal of branding is to accustom customers to a particular brand, as studies have shown that once a specific brand has been established for a consumer, they will not accept substitutes easily. (Rooney, 1995, 48-49).

### **1.4.5 Rebranding**

The English language has a prefix "re", often used with verbs to form new verbs indicating something is being done again. Regarding corporate rebranding, the verb rebranding

describes changing some or all aspects of an already established brand. Brands are not static, as they need to change with their environment. Shifts in the values of society and shifts in the competitive environment may leave a brand feeling 'outdated' in the eyes of the consumers. With a rebranding change process, an organization can attempt to change names, targets, and positions and assign new meanings to the corporate brand to communicate its benefits to numerous stakeholders. A rebranding process does not necessarily require any changes to the product or service being rebranded as the rebranding process can simply aim to change how the benefits are communicated to better match the current societal values and competitive environment. (Gotsi & Andriopoulos, 2007, 343; Rooney, 1995, 49).

## 2 Theory

### 2.1 Strategic change initiation process

'Sensemaking' and 'Sensegiving' activities can be easier to digest if we first break down the strategic change initiation process into four distinct phases that differ. These four phases are: 'Envisioning', 'Signaling', 'Re-Visioning', and 'Energizing'. In a change initiation process, the leadership first goes through the 'envisioning' phase, where they focus on gathering data and information on possibilities and potentials before moving onto the next phase: 'Signaling'. The 'envisioning' phase is related to sensemaking as the leadership tries to make sense of the field in which they operate. The second phase, signaling, revolves around communicating the intended change process to those affected by the change. Hence, it is a phase that is directly related to sensegiving. Although the primary goal of this second phase is to communicate the vision to the stakeholders, it is also essential to show action in both practice and a symbolic manner. Action is required to decrease ambiguity around the vision for the change and to show that the leadership is engaged in controlling and managing the process rather than just creating chaos with a hard-to-grasp vision as the goal without any reasoning behind it. (Gioia et al., 1991, 438-440).

'Re-visioning' is the third phase of a change process, and this phase again has to do with sensemaking. During re-visioning, the stakeholders attempt to assess the actions and motives of the leadership driving the change process forward. The change process is taking its first concrete steps during this third phase, as the vision and the reasoning behind it have already been expressed during the previous phase. Therefore, during this re-visioning stage, those affected by the change might question the need to rock the status quo, and some opposition may occur. Thus, this phase also forces the leadership to re-examine the intended strategic change critically and possibly modify their initiative based on the feedback from the stakeholders. (Gioia et al., 1991, 438-439).

The fourth and final phase of a strategic change initiation process is the 'energizing' phase, where the change process again revolves around sensegiving. This is where the leadership communicates its revised vision and strategy and involves those affected by the change process. This involvement characterizes the energizing phase as the mutual influence from all parties results in the broader stakeholder commitment. So, the strategic change initiation process is all about finding new directions and communicating revised schemes and organizational structures to stakeholders. During each phase, the leadership and stakeholders must make sense and give meaning to the new ideas and proposed actions that spawn from the new vision. (Gioia et al., 1991, 439-440).

## **2.2 Sensemaking**

'Sensemaking' is a term used for the activities that involve meaning construction and reconstruction by the involved parties as they develop a meaningful framework for understanding the underlying nature of the strategic change. The stakeholders attempt to 'make sense' of the change process and its reasoning. It may seem counterintuitive, but sensemaking is not about truth and getting it right. Instead, sensemaking is a continuous process of drafting and redrafting an increasingly clearer picture of what is going on based on the available data. Sensemaking is a pursuit of accuracy about what is the truth. (Gioia et al., 1991; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005).

Sensemaking activities slightly differ based on the role of the stakeholder. For leadership, sensemaking activities start in the envisioning phase of a strategic change initiation process, where the activities might entail creating a broad sense of the organizational history, culture, strengths, and weaknesses and assessing the current strategic situation and its direction. The result of these activities is a new vision of the organization after a change process, which would then, in turn, be communicated to the stakeholders in the next phase of the strategic change initiation process. (Gioia et al., 1991).

As for the stakeholders affected by the change, the sensemaking process is most likely to start during the re-visioning phase of the change initiation process, as this is when the vision and the process have been communicated to all parties affected by the change. The questions that characterize this period are: “What is the meaning of the proposed change effort, and what would its effects be?” and “How is my role going to change because of the change?”. The stakeholders are actively trying to make sense of the phrasing of the communicated vision and attempt to figure out what it would do to the status quo of the organizational behavior, process, and structure. (Gioia et al., 1991).

### **2.2.1 Organized Sensemaking**

Regarding sensemaking, Weick, Sutcliffe, and Obstfeld (2005) argue that regardless of the position, sensemaking starts with chaos. The individual encounters a sudden influx of new possibilities and potential problems, which causes the emergence of noticing and bracketing within the individual. Noticing and bracketing have to do with how the individual interprets the chaos based on their previously acquired experiences from work and training. Bracketing then leads to labeling and categorizing. Labeling works via identification and classification, regularizing, and routinization. Essentially, the individual assigns labels on events and actions that aid in establishing, managing, coordinating, and distributing acts. So, bracketing and labeling prompt the individual to mirror the new possibilities and threats to their previous experiences and predisposes them to find common ground between them. These circumstances force categorization where the categories have considerable malleability. In this context, malleability describes the type of category individuals usually use since these categories are socially defined to adapt to local variables, and the limits of these categories may not be well defined. (Weick et al., 2005).

Fundamentally, sensemaking is about the attempt to link the abstract with the concrete. Sometimes, sensemaking is considered a cerebral, passive, and abstract concept where an individual struggles to make sense of a change internally. However, in a typical situation, sensemaking involves immediate actions, local context, and concrete cues. The first

question involving sensemaking is “What is going on here?” but the second question is “What do I do next?” and it is that second question immediately related to action. Social factors also influence sensemaking, and communication is a key component of any sensemaking process. For instance, chats with coworkers or recently received mentoring affect individuals’ sensemaking as they take cues from these social interactions.

Furthermore, apart from the social factors, the individual is also affected by systemic factors such as the organizational culture. Thus, the sensemaking process is progressed through interaction between the organizational members to produce a holistic view of the chaos that is first experienced when a change effort is communicated to the individual. Circumstances such as the organizational history, people, objectives, and the limited time frame all play a crucial role in how the sensemaking process is experienced within an individual. (Weick et al., 2005).

### **2.3 Sensegiving**

‘Sensegiving’ differs from sensemaking in that sensegiving influences the sensemaking and meaning construction process to achieve the preferred redefinition of organizational reality. Sensegiving has been identified to have profound consequences in strategic decision-making, and more broadly, it has also been linked to influencing the outcomes of organizational sensemaking. Regarding major change, leader sensegiving is critical in affecting the outcome. Sensegiving has been identified as one of the key aspects of leadership activities by researchers in both times of stability and change. (Gioia et al., 1991; Maitlis & Lawrence, 2007).

In practice, sensegiving starts when the leadership communicates its vision and then influences the stakeholders by providing additional reasoning for that vision to alleviate any ambiguity that might revolve around it. The sensegiving process starts in any strategic change initiation process after the envisioning phase in the signaling phase. During the signaling phase, the leadership communicates the vision that was first developed during the envisioning phase to those who would be involved in the change process. The

intent is to provide a clear picture of the vision and the desired outcome of the changed organization so that the affected stakeholders would understand why the change is needed. This is crucial since it would be difficult for the affected stakeholders to understand otherwise why there is a need to do anything different from what has been done before. (Gioia et al., 1991).

To summarize, organizational sensegiving is an important activity of leaders and other stakeholders as it profoundly affects organizational change, strategy, and sensemaking. The tools that leadership might use in sensegiving include suggestive language, narrative construction, and symbols to shape the organizational stakeholder sensemaking towards an intended definition of reality. The organizational stakeholders also influence leader sensemaking via sensegiving by issue selling, questioning, and broadcasting ideas in consultative groups. Thus, sensegiving can be viewed as a crucial part of a change process as it plays an important role in facilitating acceptance, enthusiasm, and energy for change. However, despite all these arguments on how organizational sensegiving is a great way to influence the sensemaking process of those affected by the change, researchers have identified that leaders and stakeholders do not always engage in sensegiving, even when it might benefit them. Maitlis and Lawrence (2007) claim that two issues must be examined in a situation like this: the triggers of sensegiving and the enablers of sensegiving. (Maitlis et al., 2007).

### **2.3.1 Triggers and enablers of sensegiving**

#### **2.3.1.1 Triggers of sensegiving in stakeholders**

Maitlis and Lawrence (2007) found that at least two sets of conditions triggered sensegiving in stakeholders. First, the issue had to be perceived as “important” by the stakeholders, a group they were a part of, or the organization. The stakeholders’ question of what was considered “important” depends on different concepts: “Does the issue

affect the organization's performance or viability?" "Does the issue affect the everyday work?" "Does the issue affect stakeholders' compensation or security?". The second condition that triggered sensegiving in stakeholders was the "perception of a lack of leader competence" concerning the issue. This condition of "perception of the lack of competence" rises when the stakeholders perceive "a poor organizational decision-making process", "poor outcomes of leader decision-making", or the "lack of leader expertise". (Maitlis et al., 2007).

### **2.3.1.2 Enablers of sensegiving in stakeholders**

Maitlis and Lawrence (2007) identified three distinct enabler factors for stakeholder sensegiving. The first enabler factor was the stakeholder's possession of relevant expertise. Stakeholders were far more likely to engage in sensegiving activities when they had expertise. The second enabler factor was legitimacy, which gave the stakeholder an acceptable basis to engage in sensegiving regarding an issue. Finally, the third stakeholder sensegiving enabler was an opportunity to engage in sensegiving. (Maitlis et al., 2007).

### **2.3.1.3 Triggers of sensegiving in leaders**

Sensegiving in leaders is triggered under certain conditions. The first condition that Maitlis and Lawrence (2007) found was that leaders are most likely to engage in sensegiving when they perceive the issue at hand as uncertain. Issues may be perceived as unsure in two distinct ways: either as ambiguous issues or unpredictable issues. The second condition that triggered leader sensegiving was associating the issue with complex stakeholder interests. This occurs when leaders perceive the stakeholder environment as complex when there are several stakeholders and different interests among those connected stakeholders. When all of these are present, the leaders will likely engage in sensegiving to construct common ground amongst the numerous stakeholders. (Maitlis et al., 2007).

#### **2.3.1.4 Enablers of sensegiving in leaders**

Maitlis and Lawrance (2007) also found two distinct conditions that enabled leader sensegiving. The first enabler was the leaders' issue-related expertise. Unsurprisingly, the leaders can shape others' understanding of an issue when the leader holds expertise relating to that issue. The second enabler of leader sensegiving was the 'performance of the organization in an issue domain'. This second enabler of leader sensegiving involves concepts like performance, operational efficiency, and financial performance. When the organization is doing well in these domains under the leaders' leadership, the leader gains credibility, which can be used when the leader engages in sensegiving. This credibility also enables the leader to engage in sensegiving. However, the effect is the opposite when the organization is not performing well in these domains. The leader might feel discouraged to engage in sensegiving as they might lack credibility. (Maitlis et al., 2007).

### **2.4 Branding and rebranding**

In this section, I am going to overview branding and rebranding. I will introduce the history of branding and rebranding as this will offer more depth to my case. The case of this thesis focuses on rebranding and the change process that arises with implementing the rebranding strategy. To understand this change process through the lens of the sense-making and sensegiving framework, it is beneficial to understand branding and rebranding.

#### **2.4.1 Branding**

According to Bastos and Levy (2012: 349), branding was initially considered the simple naming of a product or a service. However, if one begins to explore the subject further, one might realize that branding is much more complex. The root of all branding is the human desire to be someone of consequence. People desire to create a personal and

social identity to stand out to others. This desire breeds complexity that can be seen by being aware of the difference between signs and symbols in branding. Signs refer to tangible elements of a brand, like trademarks, names, logos, and imagery.

On the other hand, symbols carry deeper meanings that transcend the signs by being more intangible parts of branding. Such symbols could be a brand's identity, associations, and personality. A symbol is what the brand represents on a deeper emotional and cultural level. (Bastos & Levy, 2012).

The practical use of branding is historically assigned to mark animals and enslaved people to signify ownership. This practice dates back to ancient times when, in 2700 BCE, the Egyptians were known to brand their possessions and livestock with hieroglyphics, which the Greeks and Romans also used. Regarding livestock and enslaved people, fire was often the branding method. In the marketing context, branding did not emerge as a central part of marketing thinking until the twentieth century. It is argued that the term "brand" came into marketing literature in 1922 as an expression to mean a trade or a proprietary name. (Bastos & Levy, 2012).

#### **2.4.2 Key Concepts in Branding**

Various key concepts in branding are tied to the brand signs and symbols. The first concept is brand image, representing a stakeholder's immediate thoughts and feelings towards the brand. The brand image combines signs and symbols constructed through physical and behavioral attributes like the name, variety of products or services, tradition, ideology, and even the quality cues communicated by the products, services, and people. (Abratt & Kleyn, 2012).

What could be described as almost the equivalent opposite of brand image is the second brand concept, brand identity. Instead of being how the stakeholders view the brand, brand identity originates from the company, as the company is responsible for creating a differentiated product or a service with unique features. Brand identity is directly

linked to how the company aims to present and identify itself. Brands are often created to reflect a company's identity to its numerous stakeholders. (Nandan, Shiva 2005).

Along with brand identity and image, brand positioning is a concept used to describe the meticulous design of developing sustainable competitive advantage on products or services in the consumer's mind (Gwin & Gwin, 2003). In his article, Schnedler (1996) mentions that positioning products can be one of the most challenging decisions when a company is operating in a complex market. Gwin and Gwin (2003) provide more context by stating that effectively positioning a brand requires the company to know how the brand is perceived concerning other brands in the same category. The difficulty is a sum of multiple factors that begin with delivering the benefits that the customer needs and doing it better than the competition. Other factors include the target market, how the product or service is different or better than the competition, the value of the difference, and the ability to demonstrate the difference to the market. (Gwin & Gwin, 2003).

Lastly, brand equity is the final key brand concept that is beneficial. Faircloth, Capella, and Alford (2001) state in their article that customers can view brand equity as a financial asset and a set of favorable associations and behaviors. In short, brand equity is the consumer's favorable and biased behavior towards the brand. Brand equity could be seen as the end product of brand identity, image, and positioning, giving the brand equity the company can leverage to achieve meaningful results. These meaningful results could include an increased likelihood of purchase and purchase intentions. (Faircloth, Capella & Alford, 2001).

### **2.4.3 Rebranding**

According to Muzellec and Lambkin (2006), rebranding creates a new name, term, symbol, design, or a combination of these for an already established brand. Rebranding is a word that is made up of two well-defined terms: re and brand. "Re" is the prefix meaning "again", meaning something is done a second time. A brand is, of course, something that

we went through quite extensively in the previous chapter, “Branding”. Rebranding is a term that describes creating something new either on top of the “old” brand by adding and changing certain aspects or simply attempting to create an entirely new brand to replace the previous one. (Muzellec & Lambkin, 2006).

In their article, Muzellec and Lambkin (2006) describe rebranding as involving two parts. The first part is changing the marketing aesthetics, directly impacting the brand image. The critical choice here is to decide between completely changing the visual elements of the “old” brand or keeping some parts of it and modifying the current visual appearance to keep some of the previous brands in the new brand as well. However, here lies an issue of semantics: can subtle changes to brand aesthetics be described as rebranding? The answer varies depending on who the question is being asked of. Therefore, the second part of rebranding gives a bit more context: how will the brand be positioned. This question of positioning explores the possibilities of changing the current brand positioning to answer the customers’ needs better and to do it better than the competition. (Muzellec & Lambkin, 2006).

However, even with these two rebranding parts, it might still be challenging to define subtle changes in marketing aesthetics and positioning as rebranding. Thus, Muzellec and Lambkin describe rebranding as more of a spectrum that allows one to define two types of rebranding. These two types of rebranding are evolutionary and revolutionary rebranding. Evolutionary rebranding describes minor, more subtle changes to the brand aesthetics and positioning that happen gradually. On the other hand, revolutionary rebranding is a more radical, identifiable change in the brand aesthetics and positioning that fundamentally redefines a company. Revolutionary rebranding is often so radical that it would be hard to miss the stakeholders. An example of such radical change could be a name change. (Muzellec & Lambkin, 2006).

#### 2.4.4 Rebranding Process

Understanding the rebranding process is essential to successfully achieving the desired relevance and operational efficiency, which is usually the goal of the rebranding. According to Merrilees and Miller (2008), rebranding strategy development can be broken down into six distinct principles: maintaining core values while progressing, retaining core brand concepts, targeting new market segments, brand orientation and internal support, integration and coordination of marketing elements, and effective promotion and stakeholder awareness. The first three principles can be viewed as revising the current vision for the brand. Principle four is about establishing internal support for the new vision, and afterward, principles five and six are all about implementing the new brand strategy. (Merrilees & Miller, 2008).

Principle one, maintaining core values while progressing, seeks to emphasize the balance between the core brand ideology while progressing the brand to keep it relevant in the future. This principle is about keeping what works and adding elements that improve the brand. Principle two, retaining core brand concepts, seeks to bridge the existing and new, revised brands so that the customer base would accept the new brand and vision. It is about remembering and keeping the old ideas and elements but bringing new ideas to keep the brand interesting. While principles one and two seem similar, they differ slightly in that the first principle is about balancing the brand's overall values with progress, and the second principle is about keeping recognizable visual or otherwise tangible elements of the brand while introducing new elements into the mix. Finally, the last principle concerning revising the current vision, principle three, targets new market segments. This is all about how to meet the needs of new market segments while still keeping the established market segments happy. (Merrilees & Miller, 2008).

Principle four, brand orientation and internal support, aims to organize the company so that through communication, training, and internal marketing, the internal stakeholders would buy into the revised brand. The belief is that this would lead to a more effective

rebranding process and implementation as the internal stakeholders would be more invested in making the new brand vision a reality. Principle five, integration and coordination of marketing elements, finally start the rebranding implementation by integrating and aligning all the marketing mix elements into a coherent brand concept. Merrilees and Miller (2008) argue that this is where the rebranding strategy implementation should happen methodically by integrating various parts of the rebranding strategy, such as product or service design, customer service, distribution, pricing, and relationship management. All parts of a marketing mix should be aligned with the brand concept. Finally, principle six, effective promotion and stakeholder awareness is about promoting the revised brand in various ways. It is key to make all stakeholders aware of the revised brand to get more involvement from them in the new brand. (Merrilees & Miller, 2008).

Later, Merrilees and Miller (2014) adapted these six principles into three phases. The first phase starts with a trigger. The trigger is the recognition of the need to change the current brand. It might happen due to external market pressures, shifts in the competitive landscape, or consumer preferences, but a rebranding process does not start without a trigger. Still, in phase one, the trigger is followed by a brand re-vision where the company redefines the brand's vision and identity. This is when the positioning, values, and what the brand should represent are decided. Ideally, brand re-vision should be created meticulously through research to understand the market trends, customer needs, and the competitive landscape. (Miller, Merrilees & Yakimova, 2014).

Phase two is all about rebranding strategy implementation. Phase one dealt with the trigger and brand re-vision, which led to a rebranding strategy that must now be executed and made a reality. The new brand vision should be integrated into all aspects of the company's operations. Internal branding is a significant part of this, as the employees and other internal stakeholders should ideally embrace the new brand vision. This could happen through training, internal communication, and other activities. Afterward, the implementation of the rebranding strategy should be integrated into all aspects of the company. It should not just change how the brand is used in marketing. The new brand

should be visible in all other relevant aspects of the company, such as product and service design, company culture, etc. This creates consistency with the new brand identity. (Miller, et al., 2014).

Finally, phase three is about stakeholder buy-in and outcomes. Through stakeholder buy-in, Miller and Merrilees (2014) talk about gaining support from external stakeholders such as customers and investors. It is essential to communicate the new brand to build trust and acceptance. Phase three ends with outcomes where the company can assess the effectiveness of the revised brand. It is imperative to go through customer feedback to evaluate the terms of market reception, the company's overall performance, and reputation. (Miller, et al., 2014).

Moreover, Miller, Merrilees, and Yakimova (2014) argue that looking at the critical enablers and barriers in corporate rebranding is beneficial to understanding the rebranding process further. They have identified six major enablers and five major barriers. The enablers are strong rebranding leadership, developing brand understanding, internal branding activities, continuity of brand attributes, stakeholder coordination, and integrated marketing program. The barriers are an autocratic rebranding approach, stakeholder tensions, narrow brand re-vision, inadequate research, and inadequate customer consideration. These barriers stand in the way of a successful rebranding process. (Miller, et al., 2014).

Of the significant corporate rebranding enablers, strong rebranding leadership is overarching as having strong rebranding leadership is key to the other five enablers, and strong outcome cases are likely to have this enabler. The second enabler, developing brand understanding, usually manifests itself as engaging in research better to perceive the critical perceptions from multiple stakeholder standpoints. Internal branding activities come in as the third major enabler, which describes the behavioral support for the brand from the employees and managers. This requires understanding that should be derived from the previous enabler. Internal branding activities include internal communication, training, and participation. The fourth major rebranding enabler is the

continuity of brand attributes, which means that the key stakeholders should be encouraged to support and endorse the revised brand. This enabler should reflect the core values and enable employees to appropriately appreciate the revised brand's meaning. As the fifth major rebranding enabler, Miller, Merrilees, and Yakimova suggest stakeholder coordination. According to their research, strong outcome cases manage to develop coordination between various stakeholders to implement the revised branding strategy. Finally, an integrated marketing program is the last major enabler that Miller, Merrilees, and Yakimova describe. It is essential to effectively implement a rebranding strategy to integrate the revised brand and its aspects into various elements of the business. Such aspects could include but are not limited to marketing, sales, public relations, product development, etc. (Miller et al., 2014).

According to Miller, Merrilees, and Yakimova (2014), the autocratic rebranding approach is the first of the five major barriers to corporate rebranding. This barrier is derived from weak outcome cases where the leadership imposed the revised brand onto the stakeholders with little to no consultation in developing the revised brand and its aspects. While some may consider fast decisions and actions as efficient leadership, this works directly against the enabling ideas of stakeholder buy-in and proper research. The second major barrier is called stakeholder tensions. Weak outcome cases have been shown to involve differing interests among various stakeholders, which may result in multiple problems like a vague brand vision, weak stakeholder coordination, etc. Narrow brand re-vision is the third significant barrier to rebranding strategy implementation. Again, in weak outcome cases, a narrow brand re-vision might develop a revised vision with a narrow scope, affecting brand re-vision, stakeholder buy-in, and the entire rebranding strategy implementation. It is not easy to find the potential and differentiated value offered if the brand re-vision is hastily done without the proper research into what would make the most sense. This ties nicely into the fourth significant barrier, inadequate research. As mentioned before, it is pretty apparent in weak outcome cases that when the research fails to answer the questions of how the numerous stakeholders see the brand and what they would like to see from it, the result suffers as a consequence. This barrier

again detracts from brand re-visioning and stakeholder buy-in. Finally, inadequate customer consideration is the final significant rebranding barrier. Once again, weak outcome cases show that neglecting customers' preferences will decrease the likelihood of a successful rebranding process. If the revised brand cannot meet the needs of your customer base, support from key stakeholders will decrease. (Miller, et al., 2014).

### **3 Methodology**

For this research paper to be considered valid, it makes sense to take a moment to discuss the research approach used in this case study intensely. The method of research that I will be using in this thesis is qualitative research. Qualitative research is a broad term used to describe a research process that focuses on constructing a holistic view of an issue by interpretation and understanding through a socially constructed lens of reality. Qualitative research is often described as almost the opposite of quantitative research, which aims to study an issue in a structured or standardized manner through rigorous data collection and analysis. Qualitative research relies heavily on emphasizing experiences and their interpretations. (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

#### **3.1 Research Method**

The qualitative research method applied to this paper is called a 'single case study', a popular way to study complex business issues in highly complex environments. Different types of case study research exist, including single-case studies and multiple or collective case studies. All of them have a variety of research designs and focus, but a single case study will be used in this paper. A business-related single case study aims to guide managers and decision-makers, which can be achieved by focusing on qualitative data-gathering methods or combining quantitative and qualitative methods. However, the data-gathering methods should always be chosen to best fit "the case" at hand. (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, 115-120). This thesis will rely solely on qualitative methods because the task is far too complex to gather meaningful quantitative data.

According to Chen, Stolee, and Menzies (2017), the most critical part of a single case study is the constructing of "the case," where the aim is to understand and solve an issue within its context (Chen, Stolee & Menzies, 2017). The context usually consists of the issue's historical, economic, social, and cultural aspects. In practice with sensemaking and sensegiving, the experiences of employees, managers, and other stakeholders help

provide the case context. The most common goal of single case study research is to produce detailed and holistic knowledge by analyzing multiple empirical sources with extensive context. Researchers play a crucial role in defining the boundaries of the case and formulating research questions through an iterative process. Overall, single case study research offers a flexible and in-depth approach to studying complex business phenomena, providing practical insights and theoretical contributions within specific contexts. (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008, 115-120).

### **3.2 Case Description**

This study aimed to see how well Delivery Hero handled the change process of their Foodora rebranding in their European markets. Delivery Hero is a delivery company that operates in over 70 countries across four continents with the mission to deliver anything. It was founded in 2008 in Sweden, and its headquarters were moved to Berlin, Germany, in 2011, and this is where the headquarters are located to this day. Some of Delivery Hero's main delivery brands include FoodPanda, Foodora, PedidosYa, Talabat, Yemeksepeti, and many more. Delivery Hero's brands are connected by the same business proposition of on-demand delivery via delivery riders who are either directly employed by Delivery Hero or work as independent contractors with Delivery Hero. (Delivery Hero, 2024).

The Foodora rebranding was a massive change process involving eight European markets that either already operated under the Foodora brand or, as a result of the rebranding process, started operating under the Foodora name and brand. The markets involved in the Foodora rebranding were Finland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Hungary, Austria, Slovakia, and Czechia. The change process scope was enormous as it involved changes in almost all aspects of the brand, and the rebranding process had to be adjusted accordingly for each of the eight markets. Although some markets were already operating under the Foodora brand, the rebranding change process overhauled and refreshed the brand so comprehensively that the process was a massive undertaking for these markets.

The primary way of gathering information about this case was through qualitative semi-structured interviews of key stakeholders from the Foodora rebranding process in March 2024. Members of the rebranding process management and employees were interviewed during the study.

During the study, the participants provided numerous reasons for rebranding, including external and internal reasoning. The clearest internal reasons for the rebranding were the need to unify these eight European markets under a single brand, Foodora, to make better use of the resources with economies of scale in terms of efficiency across numerous departments and also to make the strategic development of the European markets more unified and efficient. The external reasons for the rebranding included the need for differentiation in the competitive landscape and a refreshed brand image, as Delivery Hero's consumer research had concluded that the existing Foodora brand was seen as dated in the eyes of the consumers, which was hurting the sales figures. The goals for the Foodora rebranding process were derived from these reasons, and according to the participants' accounts, the goals were organizational efficiency, differentiation from the competition, growth of brand equity, and market share across all eight markets.

According to the participants, the Foodora rebranding process began in the fall of 2022, and the entire process lasted until the 1st of May in 2023 when the new brand was launched in all eight markets simultaneously. This was not the end of the process, as the brand was constantly being monitored and adjusted. The primary change process lasted until the beginning of May 2023, and that is what this chapter of this research paper will focus on. The entire change process was led by a small group of key people in the management team or close to the management team in the Berlin headquarters. The decisions were made in that group, and the process was led by a top-down method of making decisions and informing the different heads of each department in each affected market to get the necessary actions done before the brand launch in May 2023.

### 3.3 Data Collection

In this research paper, the aforementioned single case study was conducted via semi-structured interviews with stakeholders in the Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding. The case of the rebranding of Foodora was chosen as it was a relatively recent change process case to study with various stakeholders in multiple positions. This case seemed like an interesting opportunity to study sensemaking and sensegiving in a large change process. Kallio, Pietilä, Johnson & Kangasniemi (2016) claim that a semi-structured interview is one of the most popular data collection methods in qualitative research as this method has been proven flexible and versatile. A semi-structured interview allows for a potential deep understanding of the answers that the participant is giving, as the interviewer can improvise and ask follow-up questions based on the participant's responses. In a semi-structured interview, the researcher should determine the main questions that should be asked during the interview to create an essential structure for the interaction, but this structure should not be followed too strictly if the answers of the participant provide valuable insights into the research questions that are the focus of the study. Thus, a prerequisite to using a semi-structured interview is a certain level of previous study in the research area for the researcher to create a basic structure for the interview that makes sense for the topic. By providing this basic structure, the researcher can collect similar information from all the participants by guiding the interviewees to talk about the subject while leaving room for additional insights and thoughts for the participants' empirical observations. (Kallio, Pietilä, Johnson & Kangasniemi, 2016: 2955).

Kallio, Pietilä, Johnson, and Kangasniemi (2016) point out that semi-structured interviews have distinct issues that should be considered when the researcher prepares to conduct them. Although a semi-structured interview aims to understand the topic comprehensively, collecting data that is not directly necessary for the research is ethically questionable. Furthermore, the complexity and level of detail that a semi-structured interview might have can decrease user-friendliness. These are some key factors that a

researcher should bear in mind when conducting a qualitative study via the semi-structured interview method. (Kallio, et al., 2016: 2955).

For this study, key stakeholders in the Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding were interviewed using the semi-structured interview method. As the theoretical background of the study is to find out how the different stakeholders saw the change process from the point of view of sensemaking and sensegiving, it made sense to include stakeholders from various positions in the list of interviewees to hopefully learn key insights from both, the top management and the employees who were directly affected by the rebranding process. The interviewees worked and still work closely with the Foodora brand in numerous positions, each of which they saw and was affected by the change process differently. Additionally, precautions were taken to avoid the ethical pitfalls that might have affected the semi-structured interviews. These precautions included but were not limited to asking for permission to either take notes or record the interviews, being mindful of the length of the interviews so as not to compromise user-friendliness, staying on topic, and trying not to drive the conversation to arrive at certain biased conclusions that the researcher might have.

From Foodora Finland, Michael Ovitz, the head of marketing at Foodora Finland, was chosen as one of the participants as they were incremental on how the rebranding went and was perceived in the Finnish market, where the change process heavily impacted the entire company. Riina Haapasalmi, the brand manager at Foodora Finland, was also chosen for similar reasons as they, along with Michael Ovitz, were able to directly give their opinions on the new brand as it was emerging throughout the rebranding process. Also, from Foodora Finland, Niina Tarkkonen, a social media specialist, and Venla Parviainen, a content specialist, participated in the study to get more comprehensive insights from the employee side of those directly affected by the rebranding change process. Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding was being led from the Delivery Hero's main office in Berlin, Germany, and thus, different stakeholders who work there were interviewed. Tobias Lüder, the head of CRM (Customer relationship management), was

chosen as a participant as they were directly in charge of implementing the rebranding process in numerous countries. Also, Vlad Teiosanu, the head of brand management, and Constanza Pia Soria, the head of creative, were a part of the study as they were some of the key stakeholders in deciding the brand's direction.

All of the interviews were conducted via Google Meets, a real-time online meeting platform developed by Google. In most cases, it was the best solution for the interviews since the participants' locations varied, and Google Meets made everything possible without the need to schedule face-to-face meetings. Most of the meetings were also recorded, but some participants felt more comfortable without the recording. In cases where the interview was not recorded, I took comprehensive notes to ensure that the accuracy and integrity of the interview were as close to the participant's accounts as possible.

<b>Interviewee</b>	<b>Interviewee Position</b>	<b>Interview Duration</b>
Venla Parviainen	Content Specialist	58 minutes
Riina Haapasalmi	Brand Manager	52 minutes
Michael Ovitz	Head of Marketing	61 minutes
Tobias Lüder	Head of CRM	45 minutes
Vlad Teiosanu	Head of Brand Management	60 minutes
Constanza Pia Soria	Head of Creative	42 minutes
Niina Tarkkonen	Social Media Specialist	38 minutes

Table 1. The interviewees

### **3.4 Sample Size**

Malterud, Siersma, and Guassora (2016) say in their article that quite often, "saturation" is the term that is held as the most critical concept in qualitative research methodology.

Saturation is a term used in qualitative research methodology to refer to a situation where adding more participants to the study would not add anything of substantial value to the analysis of the research question. Initially proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1999), saturation is a specific element of grounded theory analysis. The sample size is a factor where new observations are compared with previous analyses to find similarities and differences between old and new data. When data is not analyzed within the grounded theory framework, it is unclear how saturation is determined. Also, a common principle in qualitative study is that N should be sufficiently large and varied to make educated assumptions for the study outcomes. Therefore, Malterud, Siersma, and Guassora continue to add that due to the variance between qualitative studies, it is difficult to pinpoint the exact N needed for any given study and that the final sample size should be continuously evaluated during the research process. (Malterud, Siersma & Guassora, 2016: 1753-1754).

Malterud et al. (2016) propose their solution to the problem by introducing the concept of information power. In simple terms, information power is an idea where the larger the sample's information power, the lower N is needed. Five key dimensions have an impact on the information power of the sample: study aim, sample specificity, use of established theory, quality of dialogue, and finally, analysis strategy. The study's aim relates to the relevant sample size, which then heavily depends on how broad or narrow the aim of the study is to offer sufficient information. For a narrow study aim, a lower number of participants can be adequate to achieve information power, and on the contrary, when the study aim is broader, a larger number of participants might be needed to gain the same level of information power. Sample specificity refers to the relevancy of the participants' knowledge and experiences concerning the study. A less extensive sample might be enough to achieve sufficient information power in a study where the participants provide highly specific data points about the topic of the study in a manner where additional participants with less knowledge or relevant experience about the topic would not bring additional substantial value. (Malterud et al., 2016: 1755).

Continuing, Malterud et al. (2016) describe established theory as the third key dimension in the theory of information power. This pillar relates to how the level of the theoretical background of the study should also guide the adequate sample size. If the study has a limited theoretical background, the sample size should ideally involve a larger sample to arrive at sufficient information power. On the contrary, a study that applies specific theories for the analysis might arrive at sufficient information power with a comparatively smaller sample size. As the fourth pillar of information power, the quality of dialogue also affects the ideal sample size. If the quality of the dialogue between the researcher and the participants is strong, the information power can be achieved with a smaller sample size. In cases where the dialogue is weak, a larger sample size would be ideal as it would remove some of the ambiguity. Finally, the fifth and last pillar of information power is the analysis strategy. Analysis strategy should be chosen to fit the case at hand. If the study is about a cross-case analysis, usually more participants would be required as single participants might be knowledgeable and experienced in the topic, but they might not be able to shed light on all the cases. However, the situation is different when the study in question is a single-case study where a single participant can provide much context about that specific case. (Malterud et al, 2016: 1755-1756).

The aim of this study, to find out how sensemaking and sensegiving work as theoretical frameworks in studying change and the implementation of that change in a rebranding process, is more narrow than a study where sensemaking and sensegiving would be studied in a multi-case study where the change process would vary from case to case. To sum up information power and the ideal number of participants for this specific case, we can conclude the following: the study aim is relatively narrow, the sample specificity is high as all the participants either directly affected or were directly affected by the change process, the established theory is directly supported by the sensemaking and sensegiving theory as well as brand and rebranding theory, the quality of dialogue was strong in all of the interviews, and finally the analysis strategy is relevant for this single case study. With these pillars and points in mind, one can assume that this study has sufficient information power with a relatively small number of participants.

### 3.5 Data Analysis

The interviews were conducted in two different languages: Finnish and English. The interviews were all transcribed and, if necessary, translated into English to make the analysis easier with similar terminology. However, the translation from Finnish to English did result in a situation where some of the interviews could not be transcribed verbatim due to unique differences between the two languages. Nonetheless, the translation and transcribing process was conducted carefully to preserve the integrity and substance of each interview. The analysis was done based on the transcribed interviews, and major themes were identified.

The analysis was based on the grounded theory approach initially developed by Glaser and Strauss in 1967 (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Heath and Cowley (2004) summarize grounded theory as a research methodology approach that involves three pillars: constant comparison, theoretical sampling, and emergence. The approach begins with data collection and proceeds to theory formulation. Constant comparison describes a principle where the researcher continuously compares data during the collection and analysis to identify patterns. Theoretical sampling refers to a way of collecting data that aids in developing and refining emerging theories. Theoretical sampling should be continued until saturation is achieved so that additional data does not bring additional, meaningful insights into what is being studied. Finally, as the last pillar, emergence refers to how theory should emerge from the data rather than having theory imposed by the researchers' pre-existing ideas. (Heath & Cowley, 2004, 142).

The goal of the grounded theory approach is ultimately to generate a theory based on the collected data. Additionally, that theory should be pretty comprehensive and modifiable when new data or insights emerge. A key concept for achieving this goal is coding. Coding is a process where data is broken down and categorized to build a theory that is grounded in that data. Coding can be broken down into three distinct stages: open

coding, axial coding, and selective coding, which often somewhat overlap due to the iterative nature of coding. The first of these three stages is open coding, which involves identifying concepts, labeling the concepts, and categorizing those labeled concepts into distinct categories. The second coding stage is axial coding, during which relationships are identified, and a framework might be developed to explain how the categories relate to one another. Finally, the last stage of coding is selective coding, where the core category, which represents the central theme of the research, is identified and linked with the other categories. (Heath & Cowley, 2004, 146-147).

The grounded theory approach and coding were used in this study to identify the key meaningful concepts according to the interviews. During the coding process, concepts were identified, labeled, and categorized, which helped to show the underlying relationships between them. These concepts were ultimately linked to the different stages of sensegiving and sensemaking theory.

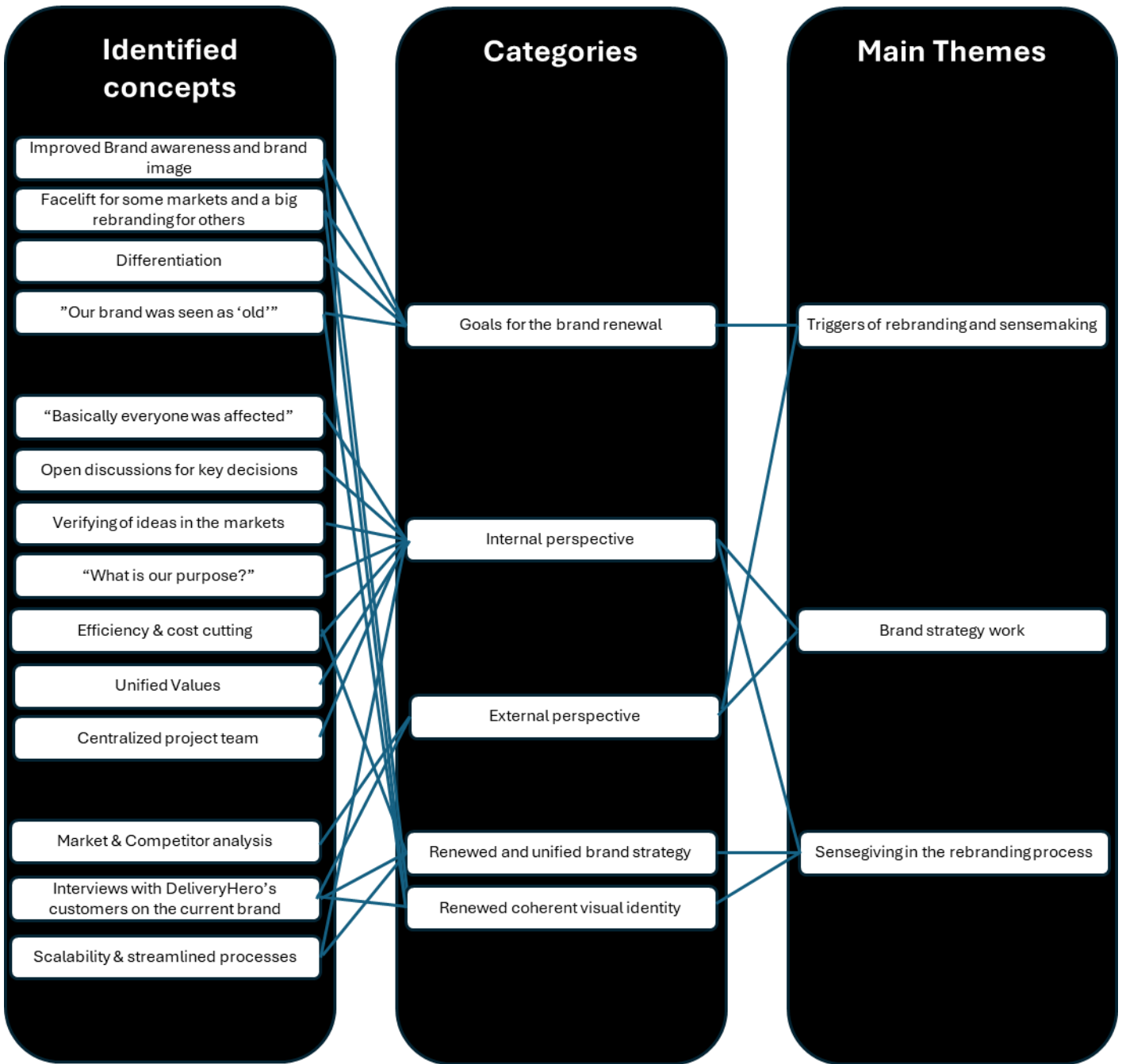


Figure 1. Coding of Data

## 4 Findings

In this chapter, I will detail the rebranding process and the reasons for and goals for the change process. Furthermore, I will discuss the entire Foodora rebranding change process while linking it to the theoretical framework and concepts of sensemaking and sensegiving. The primary source of research in this section is derived from the interviews conducted.

### 4.1 Triggers of Rebranding and Sensemaking

The Delivery of Hero's Foodora rebranding process was started due to multiple factors. One of the most important triggers was the idea of strategic cost efficiency in combining eight different markets and operating under one brand. In theory, efficiency could be achieved in many ways, such as unifying the internal material and advertisement productions and creating smooth processes with unified brand elements. This efficiency was not possible with the number of brands that Delivery Hero was operating in these eight markets, as it meant that all productions and processes had to be tailored for the brand, which needed to be said work done. In worst scenarios, it meant that instead of having just a single television advertisement for all the markets, Delivery Hero had to film five to eight different advertisements to achieve coverage in all eight markets.

Additionally, the competitive landscape of the on-demand delivery industry was getting increasingly more competitive, and scalability with a single brand was very lucrative. Delivery Hero's main competitors, Wolt and Über Eats, were operating in these markets with brands that were the same regardless of the country in question, which might be seen as a competitive advantage as they may be able to produce a single advertisement, order equipment for their delivery riders, or perform other activities that would work in any of the markets as the brand has the same aspects in all of them.

“The competition was getting more and more heated in the industry which led us (Delivery Hero) to explore ways to be more efficient in order to be more competitive. We had like five different brands operating in the European markets which in hindsight obviously made the strategic planning and the execution of that strategy more difficult than it needed to be. For example, we had to film TV advertisements with multiple different brands at the same time, and that led to unnecessary complexity. We eventually came to the conclusion that we have the need to take all these eight markets to operate under one brand with the idea of achieving efficiency in Europe.” Michael Ovitz, Head of Marketing, Delivery Hero Finland, 2024

“We wanted efficiency and scalability. Delivery Hero’s main competitors in Europe, like Wolt and Uber Eats, work with a single brand across all the markets which gave them the efficiency and scalability that frankly we were missing. We had so many different brands without synergies that from a competitive standpoint it just made a lot of sense to aim for efficiency and scalability with a unification of the brands to be more competitive. It was also a great opportunity for us to do a ‘facelift’ so to speak as some research in Czechia had given us the insight that we were seen as an ‘old’, unexciting brand.” Tobias Lüder, Head of CRM Europe, Delivery Hero, 2024

One key trigger for the rebranding also arose from some of the research that Delivery Hero conducted in numerous markets, where the results showed that the brands that Delivery Hero had in Europe were seen as “old” and in need of a refresh compared to the competitors. Delivery Hero’s markets were losing brand equity, which, according to Faircloth, Capella, and Alford (2001), consists of the brand identity, brand image, and brand positioning (Faircloth et al., 2001: 62-63). Delivery Hero needed an opportunity to directly address these concerning research results from the customers.

“We had a need for differentiation. All of the market players were pretty similar in terms of how they position themselves and what they offer to the customers. We wanted to unify our brands under one brand and change our brand positioning and perception in

the markets. We wanted to improve the brand equity and our reputation.” Vlad Teiosanu, Head of Brand Europe, Delivery Hero, 2024

“Delivery Hero in Europe was in a situation where we had to create numerous different materials for multiple brands which was inflating our operating costs. We had a need to bring the markets together under one brand to achieve a more sensible cost structure. We were also under the impression that we could not differentiate ourselves from the competition with the existing European brands, so it was a perfect opportunity to give the Foodora brand a refreshed image to build upon in the category to stand out in the markets.” Constanza Pia Soria, Head of Creative Europe, Delivery Hero, 2024

Gioia and Chittipeddi’s (1991) theory of sensemaking and sensegiving starts with the envisioning phase, and the Delivery Hero’s Foodora rebranding process triggers are a textbook example of how the Delivery Hero leadership was trying to make sense of the competitive landscape and how they eventually came to the conclusion that a rebranding process was necessary. Sensemaking processes begin with a disruption or change in the day-to-day activities. Delivery Hero’s case, the competitive landscape was getting increasingly more competitive, and their research showed that the existing brands they were working with within the European markets were losing brand equity. The leadership went through a strategic change initiation process where they made sense of the history, culture, strengths, and weaknesses of the current competitive situation to decide that a directional shift in the current strategy was necessary for the longevity and competitiveness of Delivery Hero in Europe. (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991, 438-439). A rebranding process was started to unify the eight markets under one brand, Foodora.

## **4.2 Brand Strategy Work**

Delivery Hero started rebranding with numerous qualitative studies in multiple markets before deciding which direction to take the brand. Numerous aspects of the brand and its possible directions were studied, including brand name variations, possible mascots,

brand positioning, color palettes, and consumer perceptions of the competition. Different age groups were also profiled to make the new brand into something directly speaking to the main consumer segment interested in Delivery Hero's service offering.

Delivery Hero derived a direction for the newly revitalized Foodora brand directly from the research results, which showed that European customers "felt bad" when they were making delivery orders. The consensus amongst the consumers was that ordering food and other goods via a delivery service was costing them more than if they had left to get the items themselves, and also, the consumers felt that they were inconveniencing the delivery drivers that would bring said goods to them. Based on these results, Delivery Hero created customer promises for the new brand: "We deliver freedom" and "Because I want to". The idea was to remove the negative connotations from food delivery by empowering the consumers to do things because they want to do them rather than to feel inadequate about their choices, which would lead to a certain "freedom" from these negative emotions associated with delivering.

"Of course (we did research). We did many qualitative studies across different markets where we tested brand names, mascots, positioning territories, competitors, color palettes and how the consumers saw different options. We also did a lot of internal research with a bunch of stakeholders. We studied the category, brand and business. Audience profiling for different age groups, online barriers, triggers, reasons et cetera." Teiosanu, 2024

"A lot of research was done. "We deliver freedom" and "Because I want to" were both ideas that came directly from the research, because we found out that the European customers felt bad to order. We also had a lot of learnings from different markets as well." Lüder, 2024

Before the rebranding goals were set, the starting point was a situation where the Foodora brand was used in some of the eight European markets, but other brands like

Mjam and Foodpanda were also in use. Even though Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Denmark all operated with the Foodora brand name, the visuals, tone of voice, and other aspects of the Foodora brand differed in these four markets. This, along with the other brands with different names and completely different visual schemes, added complexity to Delivery Hero's centralized European regional team, which is in charge of strategically operating in these European markets. The marketing team had requested that it only work in one market at a time; for example, TV commercials were filmed separately in each market. This increased the operating costs as little to no synergies could be derived from how Delivery Hero operated in Europe. It was also a problem for the consumers as Delivery Hero's brands seemed like entirely different entities in the eyes of the customers. Traveling between Sweden and Finland confused the consumers as the marketing materials looked different, and even the mobile application had a different visual appearance despite both countries having the Foodora brand.

The triggers of the rebranding process directly influenced the goals that Delivery Hero wanted to achieve through the extensive process. These goals can be categorized into internal and external, as both were apparent from the interviews. The main internal goal was efficiency through synergies that a single brand could help the company achieve. The hypothesis that became the north star for the entire rebranding process was the possibility of creating more streamlined processes and removing the need to do the same work multiple times for different brands. Ultimately, the idea behind this was that it would lead to financial gains through cutting costs, which unifying different teams and processes could achieve.

The key external goal for the Foodora rebranding process was to create an exciting brand that the consumers could identify with. The fact that Delivery Hero seemed to be missing a straightforward way of differentiating itself from the competition with its brand was an issue that Delivery Hero had found out in their research. The competition was harsh in the European delivery market as players were jockeying for position. The customer promise of promptly delivering something directly to the consumer's doorstep was no

longer a unique value proposition, as many of Delivery Hero's main competitors offered the same service. "Delivering freedom" became the driving concept that Delivery Hero's organization needed to start working towards with the unified Foodora brand to create brand equity amongst the consumers.

"Our goal was efficiency and cost cutting. We wanted to get rid of the complex mess that was the act of creating different marketing campaigns for multiple brands in Europe. Before the rebranding, many of the markets were operating with their own visual identities, names, and brand images which resulted in a complicated web of differing marketing processes. Even the markets that worked with the same Foodora brand name often had different visual identities. We simply wanted to simplify things and cut costs through these more streamlined processes." Riina Haapasalmi, Brand Manager Finland, Delivery Hero, 2024

"Yeah, our goal was efficiency in Europe and of course the financial gain that could be achieved through that. We also lacked a direct way to differentiate ourselves from the competition so we also wanted to build a brand that could have a way of differentiating us from the other players in the market. We chose 'delivering freedom'" Ovitz, 2024

"We sought to bring all the markets together and to just work with one Foodora brand. Our goal was to create a brand image that would be interesting, exciting, something that the consumers could see themselves in. We wanted to be different and stay in the mind of the consumer as the first choice amongst the competition." Venla Parviainen, Content Specialist, Delivery Hero, 2024

### **4.3 Sensegiving in the Rebranding Process**

Sensegiving is a process that is most often initiated by the leadership, and in Delivery Hero's case, the sensegiving activities first began amongst the project's leadership when the need for the rebranding process was established. Delivery Hero's leadership had

identified that the Foodora rebranding was a crucial strategic initiative that would make the organization more efficient if the rebranding process was completed and its goals were achieved. Gioia and Chittipeddi (1991) stated that sensegiving usually starts in the signaling phase of a change process, where the leadership aims to communicate their envisioned change to the numerous stakeholders affected by the change. (Gioia et al. 1991). In Delivery Hero's case, this was done in stages, as not all stakeholders that would eventually be affected by the rebranding were immediately informed. Instead, the leadership opted to communicate their vision of a unified Foodora brand to the top management of each country. This way, the project team would have a chance to receive constructive feedback on the ideas presented by each of the countries. The feedback was used to adjust the envisioned new brand, and then the cycle continued with open communication between these parties until the new brand became something that all parties were happy with.

"It (Foodora rebranding) started out as a project that was led by the Central team (of Delivery Hero), but then the regional team in Europe took over the project. The countries found out about the rebranding later after a lot of decisions were made." When asked about the team, Vlad continued with: "I was the project manager and we worked closely with different functions. There were around 80 people who discussed the rebranding on a weekly basis in various meetings. We did have some internal 'fighting' to come up with optimal solutions. The local countries wanted the rebranding and found the 'old' brand dusty" Vlad Teiosanu, Head of Brand Europe, Delivery Hero, 2024

Only after most of the details were agreed upon and the hands-on work needed to be started was the envisioned Foodora brand communicated to the numerous stakeholders in each country through the management teams of each country. In Delivery Hero's case, this way of communicating left the management of each country to develop their narrative constructs to shape the sensemaking process of the stakeholders. According to the theory of sensemaking and sensegiving, the stakeholders may often influence the leadership through sensegiving by raising issues, asking questions, and sharing ideas.

However, the chosen communication strategy did not make these influencing options possible, but this was most likely intentional as the number of people affected by the Foodora rebranding was quite large. In Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding, this reciprocal approach happened in the smaller group of key stakeholders in the management teams who had the opportunity to exchange ideas and influence one another before everything was communicated to the larger audience. Effectively, this leader-focused approach to sensegiving facilitated acceptance and energy for the change process in the different management teams of each country.

"All the department heads were informed, and they started communicating everything in a 'top-down' way. They just told us what would happen and what kind of brand we were going for. This was probably because listening to everybody's opinions would have been impossible due to the sheer number of people who were going to be affected by the rebranding." Venla Parviainen, Content Specialist, Delivery Hero, 2024

## 5 Discussion and Conclusion

### 5.1 Conceptual contribution

There is a variety of existing research on rebranding and why companies may decide to undergo rebranding. Several researchers have contributed to rebranding theory with frameworks and reasons for why a company's rebranding efforts may fail. However, there is a gap in the literature with how to implement a rebranding process successfully and what the success factors may entail for such a process.

Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding process provides a helpful benchmark on how a rebranding process can be executed successfully through the lens of the sensemaking and sensegiving framework. This case research offers a look into the benefits of gaining stakeholder buy-in through sensemaking and sensegiving actions. This research also emphasizes the importance of brand strategy work as only through this work was it possible to build a holistic new visual identity and brand image. Furthermore, the importance of incorporating both an internal and external perspective is highlighted in this research. Together with both of these perspectives was it possible to build a brand that resonated with the stakeholders and found its desired position in the market. This case research of Foodora provides a good example of a company that executed their rebranding process successfully. The participants that were interviewed in this research stated that this was a successful rebranding process.

This study highlights a single case in which the four key phases of Gioia's and Chittipeddi's (1991) sensemaking and sensegiving process consisting of: envisioning, signaling, re-visionsing and energizing, were all gone through. The sensemaking began in the envisioning phase, where rigorous data collection and analysis provided Delivery Hero with data-driven goals that were then communicated to primary stakeholders in the signaling phase. The communication initiated a sensegiving process that evolved into a cyclical

pattern of sensemaking and sensegiving, involving ongoing communication between stakeholders. In this rebranding effort, this exchange enabled the numerous stakeholders to shape each other's perceptions and ideas to achieve the set goals efficiently. Clear communication of goals and what was required to reach them made it easier to understand why the company was executing the change. This provided an easy sensemaking process where those affected by these changes could rationalize the ideas quickly, and the implementation process got energized.

This research details a successful rebranding case that can be used as a benchmark in rebranding cases. Through utilizing the framework of sensemaking and sensegiving it is possible to support the change process in a way that lowers ambiguity and change resistance levels as employees feel that they are heard and a part of the process. Furthermore, it supports in building a brand that resonates with stakeholders.

## **5.2 Managerial contribution**

The Foodora rebranding process was a successful change process, achieving most of the goals that Delivery Hero's leadership envisioned. Delivery Hero sought a more efficient marketing structure in eight separate European markets: Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Norway, Slovakia, Czechia, Hungary, and Austria. The markets above all operate in different ways despite having similar goals. This caused an overlap in many different functions, which drove up operating costs. After the rebranding process, many of the processes are now done only once for all eight markets, which has led to significant cost savings.

Additionally, unifying the brands under one umbrella allows for a more strategic approach to differentiation across all these markets. Delivery Hero's leadership was under the impression that their brands lacked a straightforward way of differentiating themselves from the competition, and now leading the brand in that direction is more efficient. Furthermore, according to consumer research that Delivery Hero conducted, the customers saw the old brands as "boring," and hence Delivery Hero was also keen on

refreshing their brand and several aspects of it for the brand to be more in line with what the consumers wanted to see and what they felt like would have been something that they could identify more with. Delivery Hero also achieved this refreshed brand as their consumer research has found results that indicate that the Foodora brand is perceived more positively now versus the previous brand. Also, the top-of-mind metrics for Foodora versus its main competitors are stronger across Europe than in previous studies. Finally, a key goal from Delivery Hero's internal point of view was to keep their current customers before the rebranding, which was also achieved. The main fear was that consumers might have rejected the new brand as it would have been something they would not have been used to, but that was avoided as the consumers transitioned into using the new, refreshed Foodora branded service.

The success of the Foodora rebranding process is most likely a combination of multiple factors that Delivery Hero got right in their approach. According to the participants' accounts of this study, the main contributing factors seemed to be the research that Delivery Hero conducted before they began working on the new brand. Based on that research, this brand strategy work was done based on the back-and-forth sensemaking and sensegiving activities among the Delivery Hero's internal stakeholders. In contrast, the brand strategy was being formed, and the energized approach across the organization to implement the new brand strategy promptly.

The case highlighted the importance of an analytical approach through research-based decision-making, which helped Delivery Hero form a cohesive brand strategy. Delivery Hero did qualitative research, testing many things, such as brand names, mascots, positioning territories, competitor images, and color palettes. Internally, Delivery Hero also researched categories, brands, and data points with many key stakeholders. In addition, audience profiling was conducted, and different consumer persona exercises were performed. This research was instrumental in formulating the brand strategy that Delivery Hero's leadership began communicating to their internal stakeholders. At this stage of the change process, the key sensegiving activities started when the envisioned new

brand was communicated inside the organization. Numerous stakeholders had the chance to voice their opinions, concerns, and ideas, which ultimately shaped the finalized brand strategy. The implementation of the developed brand strategy was also done in a manner that allowed the various internal stakeholders to work in a structured manner. All of the actions were communicated with a top-down approach where the leadership and their direct employees knew what was expected of them, and they could work on the tasks freely.

However, Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding process was successful but not perfect. Every interviewee highlighted that the actual implementation process of the finalized brand strategy was done with a very tight schedule. The operational work for all eight markets was done in four months, from the beginning of January to the end of April 2023. The operational work for a rebranding process varies depending on the size and complexity of a given rebranding, but in Delivery Hero's case, the schedule did seem too tight, according to the interviewees. This led to several aspects of rebranding after the initial launch, and some aspects had to be given up. One example of an element that the leadership wanted to have after the rebranding was a recognizable sonic brand that could have been associated with Foodora but had to be postponed to a future date. Hence, it could be argued that the implementation process should be done in a manner that allows a company to do the actions that the finalized change strategy requires. Otherwise, the change might not adequately achieve the goals set for the change process.

Finally, this study of Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding process also highlights the importance of research after the rebranding process. According to multiple interviewees, Delivery Hero's research on how consumers see Foodora after the change process helped validate the revised brand strategy and ensure the goals were achieved. Additionally, the research has helped Delivery Hero to determine what they still need to work on. Branding is a continuous process; therefore, it needs to be able to make minor adjustments constantly. The same is true for the Foodora brand, and Delivery Hero continues to work on the Foodora brand, according to the research continuously being

conducted in several markets to increase brand equity. A year after the rebranding process, the company is still working to adjust several aspects of the Foodora brand and closely monitoring the results.

### **5.3 Limitations**

This study was conducted in the spring of 2024, and a year had passed since the official launch of the new Foodora brand in May 2023. Depending on the scale and complexity of a given change process, a year might be a long or a short timeframe to study the impact and intricacies of the change. In this study of Delivery Hero's Foodora rebranding, several interviewees mentioned that they might not have recollected the exact information on how a particular aspect of the rebranding process went. Examples of such instances were the exact start dates of the initial research processes and the exact ways of working when the finalized rebranding strategy was formulated. Furthermore, most interviewees are based in Finland and work for Delivery Hero Finland. Although many of the key people in the European regional organization were interviewed who were directly working with many of the most important aspects of the rebranding process, it could be said that having a more varied range of interview participants from different Foodora markets could have provided even a more comprehensive range of insights into how the change process was seen. This study offers insights into this change process from a European leadership and Finland-specific viewpoint.

Additionally, Delivery Hero enlisted the help of a marketing agency in the brand strategy formulation and brand conceptualization stages of the rebranding change process. Unfortunately, they could not participate in this study, leaving some questions open about the impact of such a partnership on a rebranding process. Also, during the study, I was employed by Delivery Hero, which might have caused the interviewees to give more relaxed answers that they might not have given to a more objective interviewer. However, the effect of this fact is rather challenging to determine.

## 5.4 Future research

This study has been conducted as a single case study regarding what a single company has done to achieve the goals they set out to achieve with their change process. It could be beneficial to conduct a multiple case study to see how the cases differ to get a more comprehensive answer to the questions: What are the triggers of a rebranding? How does a company develop a brand strategy? How do the different stakeholders influence the rebranding strategy and its implementation?

Additionally, it would be interesting to find a more comprehensive image of what a wider variety of stakeholders think of such change processes. How do the consumers react to a new brand? What factors do investors pay attention to when they see a company undergo such a process? How involved are potential marketing agencies? How does the competition view major change activities that their competitors make?

## References

Abratt, Russell & Nicola Kleyn (2012). Corporate identity, corporate branding and corporate reputations. *European Journal of Marketing*, 46:7, 1048-1063. DOI 10.1108/03090561211230197

Bastos, Wilson & Sidney J. Levy (2012). A history of the concept of branding: practice and theory, *Journal of Historical Research in Marketing*, 4:3, 347 - 368. DOI: 10.1108/17557501211252934

Beer, Michael & Nohria, Nitin (2000). Cracking the code of change. *Harvard Business Review*. 78:3, 1-10.

Chen, D., Stolee, K. T., & Menzies, T. (2017) Replicating and Scaling up Qualitative Analysis using Crowdsourcing: A Github-based Case Study.

Delivery Hero SE (2024). About. Available online: [www.deliveryhero.com/about/](http://www.deliveryhero.com/about/).

Faircloth, James B., Louis M. Capella & Bruce L. Alford (2001). The effect of brand attitude and brand image on brand equity. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 9:3, 61-75. DOI: <https://doi-org.proxy.uwasa.fi/10.1080/10696679.2001.11501897>

Eriksson, Päivi & Kovalainen, Anne (2008). *Qualitative Methods in Business Research*, SAGE Publications Ltd.

Gioia, Dennis A. & Chittipeddi, Kumar (1991). Sensemaking and Sensegiving in Strategic Change Initiation. *Strategic Management Journal*, 12:6, 433-448.

Glaser, B., Strauss, A., (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*. Aldine Publishing Company, Hawthorne, New York.

Glaser B., Strauss A. (1999). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New York: Aldine de Gruyter.

Gotsi, M., & Andriopoulos, C. (2007). Understanding the pitfalls in the corporate re-branding process. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 12:4, 341-355. DOI: <https://doi-org.proxy.uwasa.fi/10.1108/13563280710832506>

Griffith, Jon (2001). Why change management fails. *Journal of change management*, 2:4, 297-304.

Gwin, Carol F. & Carl R. Gwin (2003). Product attributes model: A tool for evaluating brand positioning. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 11:2, 30-42. Retrieved from <https://www.proquest.com/scholarly-journals/product-attributes-model-tool-evaluating-brand/docview/212167031/se-2>

Heath, Helen & Cowley, Sarah (2004). Developing a grounded theory approach: a comparison of Glaser and Strauss. *International journal of nursing studies*, 41:2: 141-150. DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7489\(03\)00113-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7489(03)00113-5)

Hughes, Mark (2011). Do 70 Per Cent of All Organizational Change Initiatives Really Fail? *Journal of Change Management*, 11:4, 451-464.

Kallio Hanna, Pietilä Anna Maija, Johnson Martin & Kangasniemi Mari (2016). Systematic methodological review: developing a framework for a qualitative semi-structured interview guide. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 72:12, 2949-3217. DOI: <https://doi-org.proxy.uwasa.fi/10.1111/jan.13031>

Maitlis, Sally, & Lawrance, Thomas, B. (2007). Triggers and enablers of sensegiving in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50:1, 57-84.

Malterud, Kirsti, Volkert Dirk Siersma & Ann Dorrit Guassora (2016). Sample Size in Qualitative Interview Studies: Guided by Information Power. *Qualitative Health Research*, 26:13, 1735-1877. DOI: <https://doi-org.proxy.uwasa.fi/10.1177/1049732315617444>

Maurya, U. K., & Mishra, P. (2012). What is a brand? A Perspective on Brand Meaning. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 4:3, 122-133.

Merrilees, Bill & Miller, Dale (2008). Principles of corporate rebranding. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42:5, 537-552. DOI: 10.1108/03090560810862499

Miller, Dale, Merrilees, Bill & Yakimova, Raisa (2014). Corporate rebranding: An integrative review of major enablers and barriers to the rebranding process. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 16:3, 265-289. DOI: 10.1111/ijmr.12020.

Muzellec, L., & Lambkin, M. (2006). Corporate rebranding: Destroying, transferring or creating brand equity?. *European Journal of Marketing*, 40:7, 803-824. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090560610670007>

Nandan, Shiva (2005). An exploration of the brand identity-brand image linkage: A communications perspective. *Journal of Brand Management*, 12:4, 264:278. DOI: <https://doi-org.proxy.uwasa.fi/10.1057/palgrave.bm.2540222>

Rooney, J. A. (1995). Branding: a trend for today and tomorrow. *Journal of product & brand management*, 4:4, 48-55. DOI: <https://doi-org.proxy.uwasa.fi/10.1108/10610429510097690>

Roy, Subhadip & Sarkar, Soumya (2015). To brand or to rebrand: investigating the effects of rebranding on brand equity and consumer attitudes. *Journal of Brand Management*, 22:4, 340-360. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1057/bm.2015.21>

Schnedler, David E. (1996). Use strategic market models to predict customer behavior. *Sloan Management Review*, 37:3, 85-94.

Schreuer, R. (2000). To build brand equity, marketing alone is not enough. *Strategy & Leadership*, 28:4, 16-20. DOI: <https://doi-org.proxy.uwasa.fi/10.1108/10878570010378663>

Stigliani, Ileana & Ravasi, Davide (2012). Organizing thoughts and connecting brains: Material practices and the transition from individual to group-level prospective sensemaking. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55:5, 1232-1259.

Tan, Barney, Pan, Shan L., Chen, Wenbo, Huang, Lihua (2020). Organizational sensemaking in erp implementation: The influence of sensemaking structure. *MIS quarterly*, 44:3, 1773-1810.

Weick E. Karl, Sutcliffe M. Kathleen & Obstfeld David (2005). Organizing and the Process of Sensemaking. *Organization Science*, 16:4, 409-421. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.1050.0133>