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STANDING OUT ON THE HIGH STREET: HOW FASHION RETAILERS ARE EMBRACING EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING

By

Marike Venter

A THESIS

Submitted in full fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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(Marketing)

Under Supervision of

Prof Richard Chinomona

at the

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2016

Abstract

With an increase in competition, the retail industry is experiencing a paradigm shift as marketers revert to innovative retail experiences to influence consumer buying behaviour. Therefore, it is of interest to examine how consumers experience store environments in order for retailers to design atmospherics that are conducive to influencing purchase decision-making. Although several studies have explored store environment and consumer buying behaviour, few studies have explored atmospheric cues as a holistic construct to investigate the effect of these on brand loyalty and purchase intention. More specifically, few studies have explored this topic in a fashion retail context among the black middle class woman in South Africa. This paper aims to determine whether store environment influences consumers' purchase intention and brand loyalty of fashion products. By means of a proposed conceptual model, store environment is the predictor variable, with brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction and brand attitude as the mediating variables, and purchase intention and brand loyalty as the outcome variables. The present study undertakes a quantitative approach in which 501 online surveys are distributed among black middle class woman to explore the influence of store environment on purchase intention of fashion brands. The findings support all nine proposed hypotheses. Therefore indicating that store environment influences consumers' brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction and brand attitude. Likewise, the latter branding variables have a significant influence on brand loyalty, and ultimately purchase intention. The contribution of this paper is threefold. Firstly, by exploring the importance of store environment on consumer behaviour, this study adds to contextual knowledge on experiential retailing, fashion consumption and the buying behaviour of the emerging black middle class. Secondly, it adds to existing literature in retail management and fashion marketing. Theoretically, it is positioned in experiential marketing and contributes to empirical literature that focuses on consumer behaviour, branding, and retail. Lastly, by investigating store environment and it's influence on consumers' purchase intentions, the findings provide marketing practitioners with a better understanding of strategies that can be employed to influence consumers buying behaviour through the design of a conducive store environment.

Keywords: *Experiential marketing, fashion, store environment, sensory branding, brand loyalty, purchase intention, black middle class woman*

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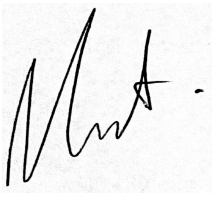
DECLARATION

I, Marike Venter, declare that this research report is my own unaided work. It is submitted in full fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.



Marike Venter
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

'It's about creating tactile engagements where people can feel, touch, taste, smell the product face-to-face, rather than simply reading about or watching it. It's about deepening and enhancing relationships.' – Charlie Horsey

1.1 Introduction

Over the past decade, consumer decision-making has shifted from the rational to the emotional (Kim, Koo & Chang, 2009), and as a result, retailers are increasingly investing in experiential marketing in order to influence buying behaviour (Clarke, Perry & Denson, 2012; Levy & Weitz, 2001). It is believed that consumers nowadays not only purchase products or services based on their functional aspects, but that they also consider the experience they receive when buying a product or service. As a result, this characteristic of consumers can ultimately guide marketers to innovative marketing strategies, and to build customer loyalty on the foundation of experiential marketing. Thus, marketers ought to create a unique in-store experience so as to differentiate themselves from competitors (Kent, 2007). This is especially relevant to fashion retailers, as the in-store fashion-brand experience is a multifaceted experience that positively influences customer-based brand equity (Kim, 2010; Michon, Yu, Smith & Chebat, 2007). The fashion industry is largely driven by exports to emerging countries, and as a result, has experienced substantial economic growth (Iannone, Ingenito, Martino, Miranda, Pepe and Riemma, 2013).

Moreover, women are the primary customer base in the fashion industry (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003), spending more than 70% of their income on clothing (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Babin, Hardesty & Suter, 2003). Therefore, due to increasing female spending power, the growing numbers of young professional female consumers has become a segment of major importance to marketers (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Babin et al., 2003). The importance of this market segment has received an abundance of interest from practitioners, as they have doubled in size over the past eight years. Further to this, the black middle class is currently estimated to comprise about 4.2 million people in South Africa (Unilever Institute of Strategic Marketing, 2013).

Given the importance of the fashion retail sector to women generally, as well as the emerging black middle class, the present study aims to investigate the effectiveness of experiential marketing in influencing buying behaviour amongst the black middle class female. By gaining insight into this topic, retailers are given the opportunity to provide a differentiated in-store experience by means of which to attract consumers (Clarke et al., 2012).

Previous studies on experiential marketing in the fashion industry have been undertaken, although they have differed in several aspects. Some of these studies focused on single factors of store environment such as sight, sound or touch (Clarke et al., 2011; Park, Jeon & Sullivan, 2014; Valenti & Riviere, 2008), rather that store environment, as a holistic construct that incorporates a number of sensory cues. Furthermore, Clarke et al. (2011) have examined the impact of store environment on time spent in a store (2011), while Ali, Asim, and Hasnu (2012) and Tendai and Crispen (2009) have found store environment to promote impulse buying. Similarly, Park, Jeon & Sullivan (2014) found that visual merchandising has a positive influence on brand attitude and purchase intentions. Despite the aforementioned studies, a gap in literature exists on the factors that influence the fashion consumption of black middle class woman in South Africa.

The present study therefore aims to fill a gap in the literature by providing insight into the impact of store environment on purchase intention of fashion products among women belonging to the black middle class in Johannesburg. By means of a conceptual model, the present study proposes that store environment (predictor variable) influences consumer's brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty. The latter five variables act as the mediators, with purchase intention as the outcome variable. In practice, this means that when retailers and managers create a favourable in-store environment, it is expected to have a positive effect on consumers' brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty. This is anticipated to lead to an increase in consumer purchase intention.

This paper argues that creating an overall sensory experience provides fashion retailers with a distinct competitive advantage, which is crucial in the increasingly competitive landscape that has resulted from the infiltration of global fashion brands into the South African market. The

present paper is structured in the following way: Chapter 2 provides an overview of the context of the study, while Chapter 3 discusses the theoretical groundings of the study and empirical literature relating to the construct in the study. This is followed by a discussion on the conceptual model and hypotheses development (Chapter 4), the research methodology is covered in Chapter 5, while the statistical analysis is discussed in Chapter 6. The final two chapters discuss the findings of the study (Chapter 7) and the concluding remarks are provided in Chapter 8.

1.2 Identification of Research Gaps and Problem Statement

The present study aims to contribute towards bridging three identified gaps in literature:

- Experiential Marketing in Africa: a developing market that is often overlooked. There have been a number of studies in a global context that have investigated experiential marketing in the retail sector (Park, Jeon & Sullivan, 2014; Sullivan, Kang and Heitmeyer, 2012; Clarke et al., 2011; Kim, 2010), however, a lack of knowledge exists on this topic in South Africa.
- Although a few studies have focused on store environment and its impact on consumer buying behaviour in broad terms (Ballantine, Jack & Parsons, 2010; Brakus, Schmidt & Zarantonello, 2009; Tong & Hawley, 2009), or its impact on impulse buying (Ali, Asim, & Hasnu, 2012; Tendai, & Crispen, 2009), the present study proposes a unique conceptual framework with purchase intention as the outcome variable, and five mediators, namely: brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty; thus proposing a unique conceptual model that has previously not been tested.
- Further, while previous studies have investigated single dimensions of store environment, such as sight & lightening (Clarke et al., 2011); visual merchandising (Park, Jeon & Sullivan, 2014); and sound (Valenti & Riviere, 2008); a limited number of research has been found on store environment as a holistic construct, and its impact on consumer buying behaviour.

1.3 The Purpose and Justification of the Study

In order to fill the identified gaps, the purpose of the present study is twofold: firstly, to investigate the influence of store environment on purchase intentions of fashion products among women in the black middle class in Johannesburg. Secondly, it aims to determine the mediating role of brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty on their purchase intention. Academically, this study will make a significant contribution to the existing body of literature on experiential marketing. For practitioners, the present study provides insights and recommendations to retailers on the value of experiential marketing.

1.4 Research Objectives

The main objective of this study is therefore to investigate the influence of store environment on the purchase intention of fashion products among women in the black middle class in Johannesburg. A subsequent objective is to determine the mediating role of brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty on their purchase intention.

1.4.1 Theoretical Objectives

The present study aims to review theoretical literature on:

- store environment;
- brand experience;
- brand trust;
- brand satisfaction;
- brand attitude;
- brand loyalty; and
- purchase intention.

1.4.2 Empirical Objectives

The empirical objectives underlying the study are to investigate the relationship between:

- *retail store environment* and *brand experience* of fashion brands among black middle class woman in Johannesburg;
- *retail store environment* and *brand trust* towards fashion brands;
- *retail store environment* and *brand satisfaction* of fashion brands;

- *retail store environment* and *brand attitude* towards fashion brands;
- *brand experience*, *brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude* and *brand loyalty* respectively towards fashion brands;
- *brand loyalty* and *purchase intention* towards fashion brands;
- and to determine the relationship between *brand loyalty* and *purchase intention* towards fashion brands among black middle class woman in Johannesburg.

1.5 Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions.

1.5.1 Primary Research Question

Does store environment influence purchase intention of fashion products among the black middle class woman?

1.5.2 Secondary Research Questions

With regards to fashion brands, to what extent do:

- *store environment* influence *brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction* and *brand attitude*;
- *brand experience*, *brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude* and *brand loyalty* influence *purchase intention* of fashion brands; and, conversely,
- *brand loyalty* influence *purchase intention* of fashion brands?

1.6 Significance and Contribution of the Study

The contributions of this study are threefold: this study will add to existing theoretical literature in a number of fields, namely retail management, specifically experiential retailing; secondly, as a growing body of literature explores the use of innovation in retail to create a competitive advantage, this study will provide researchers with a broader understanding of this phenomenon among the black middle class in Johannesburg. Furthermore, it will provide academics with a better understanding of consumer responses to sensory cues in retail settings. Practically, the findings from the present study will provide marketing practitioners with a better understanding

of strategies that can be employed to influence consumers' buying behaviour, by using experiential marketing. In order to maximise sales, marketers can implement strategies to encourage positive behaviour from consumers and manipulate sensory cues in order to influence purchase intention. Furthermore, this study will highlight the importance of using innovation and creativity to create a competitive advantage. Lastly, while previous studies on store environment have merely explored this phenomenon in a global context, this study investigates store environment and branding constructs within a specifically South African context. By exploring the importance of store environment on consumer behaviour here, this study will add to and augment the specificity of contextual knowledge on experiential marketing in South Africa.

1.7 Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded in four theories, namely Hulten's (2011) multi-sensory brand-experience model; Schmidt's (1999a) experiential branding model, the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) theory (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982), and Mehrabian & Russell's PAD (pleasure-arousal-dominance) framework (1974). Chapter 3 provides an in-depth discussion on these theories.

Multi-sensory Brand-experience Model by Hulten

Hulten (2011) developed a multi-sensory brand experience model based on the argument that stores should make use of diverse sensorial strategies in order to differentiate its brand and connect with its target markets. According to Hulten (2011), the five senses (smell, sound, sight, taste and touch) play important roles in customer experience when visiting a store. The importance of each of the senses may differ, depending on the product or service that a store is selling (Hulten, 2011; Hulten et al., 2009). For example, a bakery may focus on the smell of bread, which is a strong tangible means to compel visitors to enter the store. Likewise, a coffee brewery will benefit from the attraction of the smell of coffee, whereas a clothing store might consider a fragrance, or an earthy smell. Further, the importance of sound in terms of type of music, as well as the volume, will differ according to the kind of product being sold, and the relevant target market. However, by utilising sensory branding, retailers can gain tremendously in terms of sales and profits. The application of this model to the present study is as follows: in a similar way to the aforementioned model, the majority of these sensations are incorporated into

the ‘store environment’ construct (atmospherics, visual and auditory sensations), while the gastronomic sensation (taste) are less relevant to fashion, and have therefore been omitted.

Experiential Branding Model

The second model that grounds the present study is Schmitt’s (1999) experiential branding model. This comprises a five dimensional framework for experiential branding, which covers sensory experience, affective experience, intellectual experience, behavioural experience, and social experience. According to Schmitt (1999), these dimensions are evoked by various stimuli, including the brand’s design, packaging, environment, and communications. Firstly, the sensory experience refers to the visual, auditory, tactile, atmospheric and gastronomic experiences that a customer has when they interact with the marketing environment. The affective dimension is the emotions, which are evoked when immersed in the environment. Further, the intellectual (or cognitive) aspect of the experiential branding model refers to the customer’s reasoning about the marketing environment with which they engage (Schmitt, 1999). An environment that provides a strong cognitive experience is able to effectively communicate messages to the client about different positive elements in relation to visiting and making purchases in the store (Brakus et al., 2014). The fourth experience that the model comprises is the dimension of behaviour. The latter dimension is concerned with customers’ experiences with the dynamics of the marketing environment. Lastly, the social experience concerns the nature and quality of relationships formed in the store environment, both between customers and employees, and among the different customers in the store. The basis of this model correlates with the present study’s conceptual model in the following ways: both are grounded in the concept of sensory branding and the way in which the servicescape (store design and layout, interaction with other customers, the service process and customer service) influences consumers’ affective and cognitive behaviour.

Stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) Theory

The stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) theory suggests that an organism (individual) respond differently to stimuli, based on the state that an individual is in when the stimulus is introduced. Applying this to the retail setting, Donovan and Rossiter (1982) were able to confirm that different facets of the store atmosphere affect consumers in different ways. For example, when

consumers engage with a brand, the stimuli such as the virtual atmospherics, layout and design, and virtual social presence, influences their internal state. This leads to affective and cognitive arousal, which stimulates a consumer's shopping behaviour, such as approach, or avoidance. In a way similar to that outlined by this theory, the proposed conceptual model also pays close attention to stimuli, such as layout and design, atmospheric cues, and social presence, and its' impact on consumer's internal state (affect and cognition), and the impact of these on shopping outcome (approach or avoidance).

Pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) Framework

The pleasure-arousal-dominance framework is a model that has been developed by Mehribian and Russel (1974) to evaluate emotional states. The framework makes use of three dimensions to represent all emotions. These dimensions are pleasure, arousal, and dominance (Mehribian, 1980). Triangulating the level of pleasure/displeasure, arousal/non-arousal, and dominance/submissiveness that a person feels leads the metric to determining what emotion the person is feeling (Mehribian, 1980). According to Ratneshwar and Glen (2003), the PAD framework has useful applications in marketing, and can be used to evaluate the way consumers feel when they are subjected to certain stimuli or environments. These can then be translated to the likelihood of the consumer behaving positively or negatively in terms of buying products or recommending a store to other people (Ratneshwar & Glen, 2003). The PAD framework proposes that the application of stimuli in a certain environment induces emotions, which influences a given consumer's decision to either purchase, or not purchase a product. There is therefore a similarity to the proposed conceptual model for the present study, where sensory stimuli influences buying behaviour.

1.8 Definitions

This section provides a brief theoretical overview of each of theses constructs. A more comprehensive discussion is provided in Chapter 2. Firstly, the experiential marketing concept is defined, followed by the main variables that forms the foundation of the present study, namely, store environment, brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude, brand loyalty and purchase intention.

The Experiential Marketing Concept

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), the founders of experiential marketing, define it as the consumption of fantasies, feelings and fun. Having received widespread interest in the marketing literature, experiential marketing is prevalent in contexts such as brand, consumption, shopping, and service experience (Brakus, Schmitt & Zarantonello, 2009; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010). The concept of experiential marketing was further introduced into the field of economics by Pine and Gilmore (1999), who have explained the difference between buying a 'service' and buying an 'experience' in the following way: if a consumer buys a service, he or she purchases a set of intangible activities that is carried out on their behahalf, however, when buying an experience the consumer pays to spend time enjoying a series of memorable events and actively participates in the buying experience. A common belief nowadays is that besides the tangible aspects that drive buying behaviour, consumers also consider the experience that comes with the product or service. As a result, the concept of experiential marketing continues to draw interest amongst both scholars and practitioners alike (Lindstrom, 2005; Morrison & Crane, 2007; Schmitt & Rogers, 2008).

Store Environment

Researchers in the field tend to focus on the significance of store environment, which emerges as a powerful instrument for market differentiation (Wu, Ju, Kim, Damminga, Kim & Johnson, 2013). Store environment comprises the physical environment of a store, and refers to its many components or constituent parts, which may include music, lighting, store layout, store design, store materials, and workforce. Store environment also relates to the external environment and internal environment of the store. The store environment description is the general experience that the retailers provide to the customers (Tong & Hawley, 2009). In this context, the product or brand is no longer the most significant aspect of store environment.

Brand Experience

Brand experience emerges as another important category in the fashion retail industry. Customers mostly demonstrate an interest in four essential elements, constituting a great brand experience. These are: interaction, impression, responsiveness and resilience (Clarke et al., 2012). Brands exist in the direct interaction between customers and brands. Moreover, brands

can create a positive impression if they are engaging and positive (Soars, 2009). In terms of responsiveness, brand experience reflects the importance of responding to customers' needs in the constantly evolving fashion sector. Thus, using the brand experiences to sustain brand loyalty (Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle, 2006; Braku, Schmidt & Zarantonello, 2009; Schmitt, 2009; Ghodeswar, 2008; Gentil et al., 2007).

Brand Trust

Scholars point out that brand trust is assurance focused on reinforcing the reliability and capability of customers to trust the brand (Soars, 2009; Tong & Hawley, 2009). According to research, brand trust consists of affective and cognitive trust (Soars, 2009). When it comes to cognitive trust, brands or retailers are confident that they are competent and reliable in keeping their promises, while in affective trust, retailers indicate a belief that while the customers seek to buy genuine, stylish, and modern products, they also have specific requirements (Clarke et al., 2012). Furthermore, customers tend to trust retailers if those consumers believe that the product or service offered are beneficial to them. Nairn (2008); DeWulf et al. (2001); Roberts et al. (2003) and Papista and Dimitriadis (2012) assert that brand trust results in consumer loyalty and long-term commitment. Several researchers have illustrated satisfaction to have both a direct and indirect relationship with brand trust and customer experience (Papadopoulou et al., 2001; Urban, Sultan & Qualls 2000).

Brand Satisfaction

Brand satisfaction also contributes towards increasing levels of customer trust and loyalty. Retailers introduce effective strategies to bring new customers to a particular brand (Tong & Hawley, 2009). In this on-going process of growth, retailers demonstrate their focus on keeping customers satisfied with the respective brand. A high level of brand satisfaction obviously implies a long-term commitment to purchasing certain fashion products (Clarke et al., 2012). Retailers are aware that the importance of conducting regular market research so as to evaluate the precise level of customer and brand satisfaction, are vital to a company's growth. Several instances of research have focused on the relationship between consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty, and have argued it to be an essential factor in building consumer loyalty and satisfaction (Bolton, 1998; Jones and Suh, 2000; Chandrashekaran, Botte, Tax & Grewal, 2007;

Yang and Peterson, 2004; Bodet, 2008; DeWult, Odekerken-Schroder & Iacobucci, 2001; Roberts, Varki & Brodie, 2003). There is considerable evidence showing satisfaction to have a major influence on brand loyalty, in both direct and indirect way (Bolton, 1998; Jones and Suh, 2000; Chandrashekaran et al., 2007; Yang and Peterson, 2004; Bodet, 2008; Bloemer and Lemmink, 1992; DeWulf et al., 2001; Roberts et al., 2003).

Brand Attitude

Brand attitude is defined as a psychological construct that is built around the idea of a certain brand by the (potential) customer (Soars, 2009). By gaining insight into the concept of brand attitude, marketers are able to determine customers' brand perceptions, and ascertain their willingness to make a purchase. Moreover, the brand attitude of a customer reveals his or her predisposition to recommending the brand to others (Tong & Hawley, 2009). When customers present their strong attachment to a brand, they tend to develop a strong and optimistic attitude toward it over time. This positively reflects in the purchases of fashion products that they make. Brand experience has been used to test purchasing intention via brand attitude (Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2010).

Brand Loyalty

In terms of brand loyalty, the emphasis is on commitment by customers to make reliable, repeated purchases of favoured brands. Additionally, retailers try to ensure different marketing efforts to influence and control switching behaviour (Soars, 2009). Customer satisfaction indicates the creation and maintenance of long-term relationships with customers (Wu et al., 2013). Customer loyalty designates the consumers' psychological connection to the brand, and to retailers. Whilst the brand loyalty process takes place, retailers are able to maintain customers, and as a result, profits are more likely to increase.

Purchase Intention

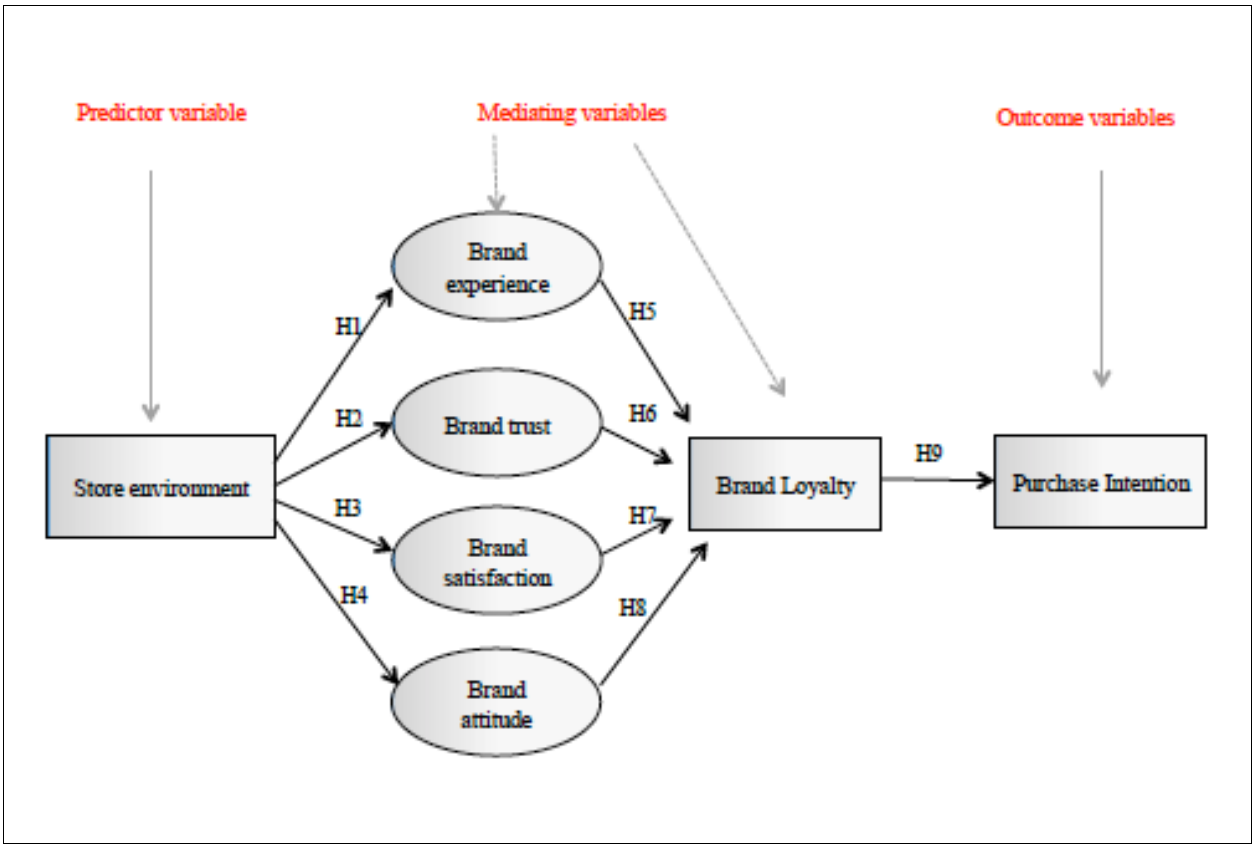
Likewise, purchase intention refers to a potential purchase behavioural intention that influences brand loyalty, complaint intention, and switch purchase intention. The switch intention is the customers' intention to try other brands, while the complaint intention indicates that customers are unsatisfied (Wu et al., 2013). It is thus important to focus on the aspect of customer

inconvenience, because they may ask for compensation, or may refuse to purchase (Michon et al., 2003). The loyalty intention symbolises the customer dedication to a particular brand, and enthusiasm for enjoying a long-term relationship with that brand. Thus, the best strategy to deal with complaint and switching behaviour is to assure customers that the product is value for their money (Soars, 2009). The purchase intention depends on the retail assessment of the previous customer purchase transactions.

1.9 Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

By means of a conceptual model, the following is proposed: firstly, store environment represents the predictor variable, with purchase intention as the outcome variable. There are five mediators: brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty. The selection of the latter branding variables as mediators stem from an abundant interest from several researchers. For example, Brakus, Schmitt & Zarantello (2009) conducted a study in which they explored brand experience, brand satisfaction and brand attitude on brand loyalty. Similarly, Hung, Chen, Peng and Hackley (2011) investigated the influence of brand experience, brand attitude and brand loyalty on purchase intention of luxury brands. Furthermore, the mediating effects of brand attitude and brand experience, and brand trust and loyalty on purchase intention was conducted in studies by Barnes, Mattsson and Sorensen (2014), Jung, Kim and Kim (2014) and Anderson, Knight, Pookulanga and Josiam (2014) respectively. It is therefore proposed that store environment has a positive influence on the five mediating variables, which in turn has a positive influence on purchase intention. In practice, this means that when retailers and managers create a favourable in-store environment, it will have a positive effect on consumers' brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty. This will lead to an increase in consumer purchase intention. An in-depth discussion on the hypotheses development is provided in Chapter 4. Figure 1.1 presents the proposed conceptual model for the present study.

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Model



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2014)

Derived from the conceptual model, the following hypotheses are proposed:

$H1_0$: There is no relationship between *store environment* and *brand experience*.

$H1_a$: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand experience*.

$H2_0$: There is no relationship between *store environment* and *brand trust.*

$H2_a$: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand trust.*

$H3_0$: There is no relationship between *store environment* and *brand satisfaction.*

$H3_a$: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand satisfaction.*

$H4_0$: There is no relationship between *store environment* and *brand attitude.*

$H4_a$: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand attitude.*

$H5_0$: There is no relationship between *brand experience* and *brand loyalty.*

$H5_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand experience* and *brand loyalty.*

$H6_0$: There is no relationship between *brand trust* and *brand loyalty.*

$H6_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand trust* and *brand loyalty.*

$H7_0$: There is no relationship between *brand satisfaction* and *brand loyalty.*

$H7_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand satisfaction* and *brand loyalty.*

$H8_0$: There is no relationship between *brand attitude* and *brand loyalty.*

$H8_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand attitude* and *brand loyalty.*

$H9_0$: There is no relationship between *brand loyalty* and *purchase intention.*

$H9_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand loyalty* and *purchase intention.*

1.10 Research Design and Methodology

The present study is positioned in the positivist research approach, and undertakes a deductive method to test the proposed hypotheses. Further, by means of an empirical study, data is collected from 501 respondents, by distributing online surveys to a pre-selected sample, using a quantitative technique to gather data. Systematic sampling is used, whereby every third element is selected from a database comprising about 2000 elements. The measuring instrument is designed from existing scales, which are adapted to suit the present study. Seven-item Likert scales (completely disagree to completely agree) are customised from the following pre-existing scales: store environment is adapted from a scale by Baker, Grerral & Parasuraman (1994), while brand experience and brand satisfaction are both measured by scales adapted from Sahin, Zehir & Kitapçi (2011). Further to this, the He, Li and Harris (2012) brand trust scale is adapted to suit the present study, and for brand attitude, a scale by Martinez & Chernatony (2004) is used. Lastly, brand loyalty and purchase intention are respectively measured using Yoon & Kim's (2000) brand loyalty scale and Shukla's (2011) purchase intention scale. The data analysis is done in SPSS, and AMOS is used for the structural equation modelling and path modelling. Reliability of the measurement instrument is tested using the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient,

Composite Reliability Index and the Average Value Extracted (AVE). To ensure validity, the convergent validity, discriminant validity, and the Average Value Extracted (AVE) are observed. Further, model fit is determined by examining the chi-square, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI) and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). The research design and methodology are further discussed in chapter 5.

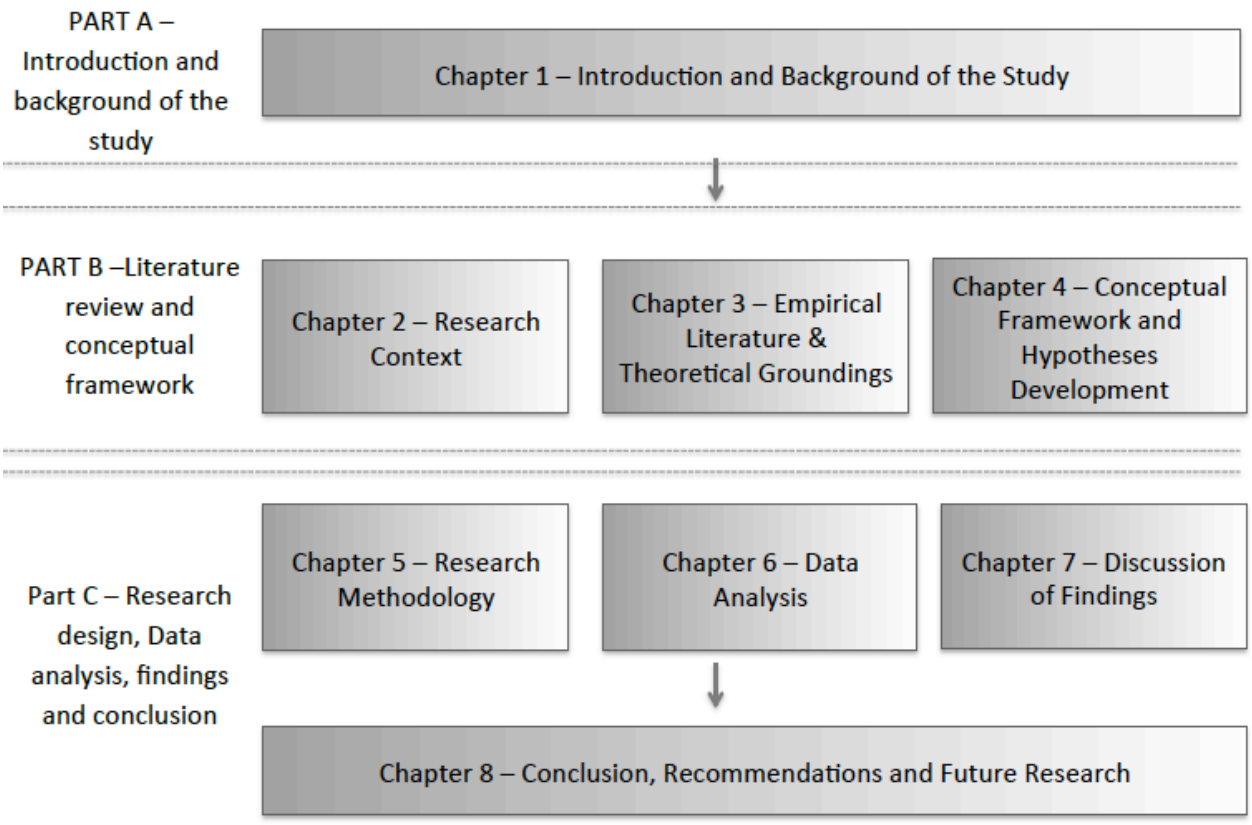
1.11 Ethical Considerations

The participants in the study were informed that all information is kept strictly confidential. Participation in this study was completely voluntary and respondents were allowed to withdraw from the study at any stage. The data will not be sold to a third party, and is used for academic purposes only. All questionnaires are anonymous and the study will not expose the potential participants to any harm.

1.12 Thesis Structure

This thesis is structured in the following way: Chapter 2 provides an overview of the context of the study, chapter 3 discusses the theoretical groundings of the study and empirical literature relating to the construct in the study; this is followed by a discussion on the conceptual model and hypotheses development (chapter 4), the research methodology is covered in chapter 5, while the statistical analysis is discussed in chapter 6. The last two chapters discuss the findings of the study (chapter 7) and the concluding remarks are provided in chapter 8.

Figure 1.2: Thesis Structure



CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research context by providing background into the retail industry, followed by an overview of the evolution of the fashion industry and lastly, a description of the black middle class consumer in South Africa.

2.2 Research Context

In the following section the context of the study is discussed. Firstly, an overview of the retail industry is discussed, followed by the fashion industry and lastly an overview of the black middle class is provided.

2.2.1 An Overview of the Retail Industry

Retailing refers to the business of purchasing goods in bulk and selling these in smaller quantities to end-users (Pride et al., 2011). In terms of the supply chain, businesses that are engaged in the retail industry acquire products directly from manufactures, or from middle agents referred to as distributors (Nagurney, 2006). The retail industry is the final node in the supply chain, connecting the rest of the chain to the consumer (Nagurney, 2006). Larger manufacturers tend to rely solely on retailers to deliver goods to end-users, but there are also some manufacturers and distributors that maintain retail outlets (Nagurney, 2006). Traditionally, retailers maintain a fixed, physical location from which they sell their goods (Pride et al., 2011).

2.2.1.1 Importance of the Retail Industry

Much of the literature agrees on how important the retail industry is as part of the supply chain. As discussed by Nagurney (2006), as a manufacturer grows and gains greater market attention, there is an increase in its need to be able to distribute its goods effectively and efficiently to consumers. The cost of distribution is typically too high for manufacturers to assume themselves, and there is strong demand for other business entities to absorb these costs in return to being the manufacturer's distributors. Similarly, distributors are often based only in one location within large geographic areas, making it very inconvenient for consumers to travel to such locations in order to avail of their desired products (Nagurney, 2006). Through the retail industry, distributors

are able to tap a wide range of storefronts willing to carry their products, which offer much more convenient locations for consumers to visit (Nagurney, 2006). As such, the retail industry enables the effective distribution of products to end-users. In addition to this, retail outlets also serve as liaisons between manufacturers and their consumer base. Consumers that buy defective products typically return these to the retailer; retailers can gather information on consumer experiences and preferences in relation to the goods that they sell and report this information to the distributor, which can in turn relay them to the manufacturer. However, recent work by Wieland and Wallenburg (2013) questioned the relevance of the retail industry amidst the growth of online communities, arguing that distributors may soon have the capacity of delivering goods straight to consumers through online stores. However, this may be less applicable to the fashion industry, where consumers typically want to fit the goods first before deciding whether or not to purchase them.

2.2.1.2 The Retail Environment

The retail environment comprises of a number of tangible and intangible elements that converge to create a unique and distinctive in-store experience (Lea-Greenwood, 2010). This is especially relevant to fashion retailers who build an appropriate image based on the fashion merchandise that they sell (Lea-Greenwood, 2010). Examples of tangible attributes are window displays, store layout and store atmosphere (Gilbert, 2003; Lea-Greenwood, 2010). Firstly, the main features of window displays are visual appeal, relevance and interest value, while the primary function is to attract consumers (Sullivan & Adcock, 2002). It is therefore the initial point of contact that the consumer has with the store, and should be pertinent to their needs. Secondly, store design and layout is used to influence the movement of consumers in the store and primarily focuses on guiding them to view more merchandise (Lusch, Dunne & Carver, 2011). Furthermore, the layout also provides retailers with the opportunity to create interest in the products and to stimulate impulse purchases (Varley, 2006). Generally, there are two main types of store layout strategies when designing the store, namely a *grid store layout* and *free-form layout* (Zentes et al., 2007). Grid store layout refers to long parallel aisles with merchandise on both sides. It allows for a fast and sufficient shopping experience, although it is not very stimulating. This type of store layout is commonly used for fast moving consumer goods such as supermarkets and drugstores (Zentes et al., 2007). On the other hand, a free-flow layout allows customers a free

choice of movement in the store and creates a more relaxed atmosphere. This style is commonly found in clothing stores (Zentes et al., 2007). The third attribute that that describes the tangible aspects of a store is the atmosphere. Store atmosphere is described as customer's emotional state of mind which influences shopping enjoyment and ultimately influences buying behaviour (Berman & Evans, 2007). The assessment of the store environment is done through the five senses that include visual elements, aural, olfactory, tactile and gustatory elements (Gilbert, 2003). This forms the foundation of the trend towards experiential marketing (Zentes et al., 2007).

2.2.1.3 Classification of Retail Stores

The major types of retail formats are specialty stores, category killers, department stores, discount stores, variety stores and off-price retail stores (Zentes, Morschett & Schramm-Klein, 2007). This section provides a discussion of these classifications of retail formats and is presented in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Classification of Retail Stores



Source: Zentes et al. (2007)

a) Specialty Stores

Specialty stores specialize in one or few product types and carry a limited width of merchandise assortment, often with extensive depth. The services and products that are offered at specialty stores are mostly of high standards and the sales personal are knowledgeable. Theses stores are most likely to be located in shopping malls or in city locations and in-store atmosphere are pronounce to create a pleasant shopping experience. The main element of specialty stores' strategy is that they target a very niche market, and thus their services are tailored to suit the individual needs of the customers. Traditionally, this type of retail store sells merchandise such as clothes (e.g. Gap, Zara, Banana Republic), footwear (e.g. Dr. Martins, Converse), cosmetics (e.g. The Body Shop), books (Exclusive Books) or jewellery (e.g. Browns).

b) Category Killers

A second classification of retail stores is the category killers. These stores are often referred to as power stores that offer discount merchandise. They offer an almost complete assortment in a particular product category at very low prices, and thus 'kill' the market that offers the same product category. Category killers offer low levels of service, are often based on large retail formats and have minimum operating costs. This particular retail format has one of the highest growth rates in recent years, and has gained market share mainly at the expense of specialty stores. Category killers are established across a variety of industries such as electronics, furniture, office products or toys and baby products. In clothing, Walmart in the US can be regarded as an example of a category killer. In South Africa, Identity, Jay Jays, Jet and Pep are examples of Category Killers.

c) Department Stores

Department stores are large retail formats that carry an assortment of merchandise under one roof and are structured into separate departments. The merchandise that is sold by department stores comprises a wide range of categories, such as clothing, jewellery, books, entertainment, restaurants, sporting goods and electronics. Furthermore, department stores are classified into three tiers (Weitz & Whitfield, 2006): the first is upscale, high fashion stores that sell exclusive designer merchandise and focus on excellent customer service (e.g. Stuttafords, Harrods, Selfridges); the second tier is modestly priced merchandise with less focus on customer service,

such as Edgars and Woolworths; and lastly, tier three department stores comprise of lower level merchandise and prices.

d) Discount Department Stores

Discount department stores are department stores that offer a wide variety of merchandise at low costs. Their merchandise consists both of store brands and manufacture brands. Examples of product categories commonly found in these retail stores are electronics, furniture, appliances and house ware. Stemming from the American culture, Wal-mart, Kmart and Target are the dominant drivers of discount department stores. Locally, Mr Price, Makro, Pepstores, Pick a Pay clothing are examples of discount department stores. It is often found that customer service and in-store atmospherics are not primary drivers of sales, and goods are sold at low prices. In recent years, discount department stores have lost market share, which has led to Wal-mart closing some of its' full-line discount outlets.

e) Variety Stores and Value Retailers

Variety stores offer a broad assortment of inexpensive, popularly priced merchandise. It spans across several categories such as clothing, accessories, jewellery, and toys, to mention few. Such store formats face strong competition from category specialists and discount stores. Value retailers have similar merchandise than variety stores however at much lower prices. Furthermore, this retail format is often located in lower-income areas as they mainly target low-income customers.

f) Off-price Stores

The buying strategy for off-price stores are very aggressive without asking manufacturers for any additional services like markdown adjustments, delayed payments or return privileges, but instead negotiate discount prices. They carry an inconsistent assortment of merchandise, such as clothes, accessories, cosmetics and footwear at relatively low prices, with some carrying fashion-orientated or branded products. Examples of such stores are factory outlets, one-price stores and closeout retailers.

The present study focuses on specialty stores and department stores. More specifically, the retail brands that form the basis for this study are Zara, Mango, H&M, Stuttafords, Woolworths, Diesel, Forever New, Guess and Levi's, to mention a few. The main justification for this selection is the fit with the target population, being black middle class females. These professional women are between the ages of 25 and 50, with an upper level income and an awareness of international, quality fashion-forward merchandise.

2.2.1.4 Related Studies on the Retail Industry

A wide range of studies was found on the retail industry in the past five years. These studies ranged from theoretical research on the development of models for retail productivity (Mishra & Ansari, 2013; Burt & Davies, 2010) to more specific studies such as that of the impact of location or in-store events on retail productivity and consumer experience (Leischnig et al., 2011; Roslin & Rosnan, 2012; Khare, 2013; Lia et al., 2009). According to Bagdare and Jain (2013), a major focus of research in the retail industry in recent years is the empirical measurement of consumer experience. Kim and Kim (2012) conducted a systematic review on the impacts of human factors in retail environments and found that studies agree on the influence of sales associates and other consumers on consumer experience when shopping in retail stores. The study established the importance of have a sufficient number of sales associates as well as having sales associates with physical and behavioural characteristics that conform to the preferences of customer profiles (Kim & Kim, 2012). Similar to this study, Ballantine et al. (2010), examined the impact of atmospheric cues on consumer retail experience, and found that attractive stimuli do have behaviour-influencing effects on consumers.

In the context of South Africa, limited research was found on the retail industry. De Bruyn and Freathy (2011) reviewed literature on retailing in post-apartheid South Africa, and found that retailers encountered problems in dealing with the changing needs of the market, with one organization, Boardmans, temporarily losing touch with its customer base. Closer to the aims of the current study, Tendai and Crispen (2009) examined the impact of the in-store environment to compulsive shopping behavior of customers at a shopping mall in South Africa. From a sample of 320 shoppers, the study found that non-atmospheric factors such as price and discount

coupons had greater impacts on buying behavior than atmospheric factors (Tendai & Crispen, 2009).

2.2.2 The Fashion Industry

The following section provides an overview of the definition of the fashion industry, the importance of the fashion industry, related studies on the fashion industry, as well as the fashion industry in a South African context.

2.2.2.1 Definition of the Fashion Industry

Prior to the modern age, clothing was mainly custom-made, either independently produced at homes or purchased from dressmakers (Cumming, 2004). With the advent of technologies such as sewing machines and the rise of capitalism, clothing began to be mass-produced in factories and sold in retail outlets. The fashion industry refers to the sector of the economy that produces and sells clothes to the consumer market. At present, the fashion industry is a highly complex business sector that spans various areas of operation (Lipovetsky, 2002). While most clothes are produced in factories, there still exists a thriving sector of the industry that provides custom-made apparel (Lipovetsky, 2002). The design area of the industry is responsible for developing new styles of clothing, while the marketing area is focused on setting the next fashion trends that will be followed by the consumer market (Steele, 2000). Both of these areas are critical aspects of the industry, since different manufacturers compete in order to capture a market share that considers both product cost and style. Unlike other kinds of merchandise, where consumers' main concerns tend to be about price and quality, fashion merchandise includes a dominant stylistic dimension, where people tend to consider how they look in the clothes they will purchase, and whether these clothes are in style, or stylish (Steele, 2000). The fashion industry places a very high premium on branding, where brand leaders are able to command considerable markups for their products.

2.2.2.2 Importance of the Fashion Industry

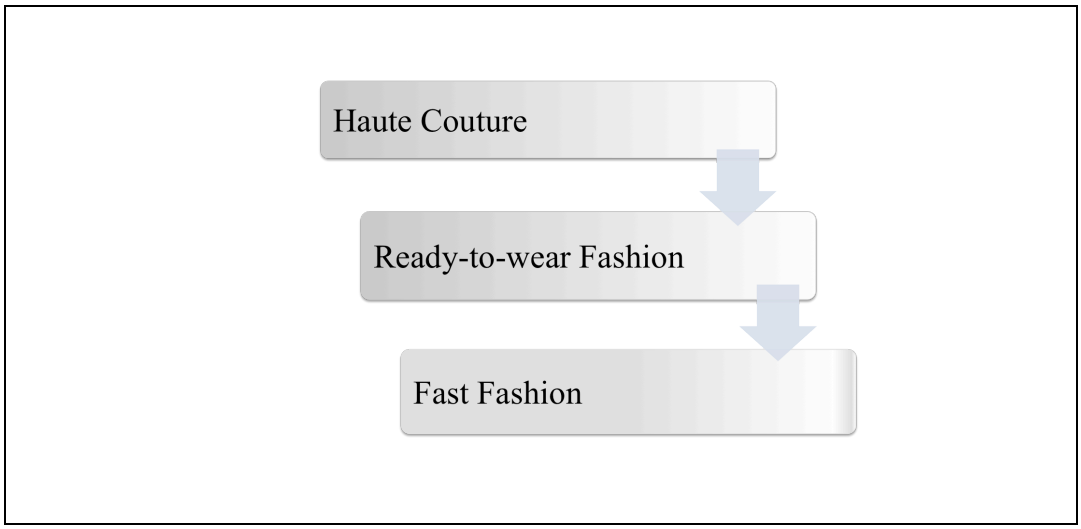
As discussed by Steele (2000), the fashion industry has established its relevance to different aspects of society. It is one of the pillars of the modern economy. According to statistics compiled by Fashion United (2014) from credible institutions such as the World Trade

Organisation and the International Labour Organisation, fashion is a US$1.7 trillion industry that employs over 75 million people. The industry sold US$530 billion in total merchandise in 2011 (Fashion United, 2014). As such, it is important for the fashion industry to remain lucrative in order for it to continue fueling the economy, as well as to support a large portion of the global labour force. Furthermore, the fashion industry is a driving force in both intra-cultural and trans-cultural development (Steele, 2000). Across history, fashion has been established as a defining element of constructing cultural, national, gender and generational identities (Steele, 2000). The industry provides the means for people to express themselves through the clothes they wear. Global appetite for new fashion trends has grown extensively since the advent of the industry, with an ever-present demand for innovation (Steele, 2000). As such, the industry is constantly under pressure to provide for the needs of the public, and there is intense competition among industry players to fulfil these needs (Steele, 2000). At the same time, fashion has become a medium for people across different cultures to interact with and understand one another. Various fashion trends that start in one country has found their way to others, sometimes even across continents. Such cultural transfers are made possible by the supply chain networks established in the fashion industry.

2.2.2.3 The Evolution of Fashion

Fashion is articulated around two industries, namely Haute Couture and ready-to-wear (Lipovetsky, 2002). Although these two industries have little in common, together they form a homogeneous system in the history of fashion (Lipovetsky, 2002). This section discusses the emergence of fashion configured around these two industries, and an overview of these are presented in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: The Evolution of Fashion



Source: Compiled by researcher

a) Haute Couture Fashion

Since the seventeenth century, Paris has been recognized as a creative generator of culture, and during the nineteenth century became the global capital of fashion (Vilette & Hardill, 2010). Fashion garments were mostly hand-sewn in small runs by artists and used as a statement and of expression or an absorbed hobby (Jones, 2004). Today still, a large amount of the Haute Couture sector, have retained its' global reputation (Harvey, 2006; Scott, 2000). The growth of Haute Couture was driven by three factors, namely economic growth during the reign of Napoleon 3, the role of the court, and the enterprise of Worth (Montagne Villette, 1987). During 1852, France experienced economic growth as a result of the restoration of the imperial family (Villette & Hardill, 2010). These economic changes strengthened the industrial banking sector, which created improved financial structures that stimulated the demand for luxury goods. During the Second Empire, life was punctuated by several state occasions, and it was Empress Eugenie that set the style at court (Villette & Hardill, 2010). One of her favourite designers was Worth. Worth acquired prestige and notoriety through the Empress (Villette & Hardill, 2010). As opposed to filling individual custom-made orders, Worth prepared a variety of designs that were showed four times a year on live models, at the House of Worth (Villette & Hardill, 2010). He is accredited as the first designer to put labels onto the clothing he manufactured, and through this acclaimed the originality of his creations (Mackrell, 1992).

During the 1930s, Coco Chanel transformed woman's fashion and established a global presence in the fashion industry, with customers buying Haute Couture from the House of Chanel, as well as buying into the allure of her perfume, Chanel No. 5 (Charles-Roux, 2005). Chanel's primary financial resources were obtained from her first store, a millinery shop in Paris, and hereafter she expanded the business in the fashionable resorts of Deauville and Biarritz (Morand, 2009). From this base she expanded her fashion business, where her success was partly dominated by her signature cardigan jacket in 1925 and her signature 'little black dress' in 1926 (Morand, 2009). However, from 1923 to 1941, Paris started losing its dominance in the Haute Couture market, with design houses in London, New York and Milan outnumbering the number of designers in Paris (Wenting & Frenken, 2011). This market shift could be attributed to the shift in the special concentration of the industry, and the emergence of the ready-to-wear market (Waddell, 2004). Initially, Parisian Haute Couture was not allowed to practice ready-to-wear, according to the Syndicate Chamber of Parisian Couture that was founded in 1911 (Waddell, 2004). The Syndicate attempted to raise entry barriers for new, less exclusive fashion businesses, in order to protect the cultural meaning of (Parisian) Haute Couture fashion (Wenting & Frenken, 2011). As a result, other global capitals entered the fashion market with ready-to-wear designs, that proved to be more profitable, and in line with the demand among youngsters to express themselves in ready-to-wear fashion (Waddell, 2004).

b) Ready-to-Wear Fashion

Unlike Haute Couture - that refers to the production of luxury designer clothes - ready-to-wear fashion describes a method of buying clothes whereby the customer no longer has the clothing made to measure (Waddell, 2004). Ready-to-wear is also referred to as 'prêt-a-porter' or 'off-the-peg' clothing, that is produced in high-quantities, and facilitated through mass marketing and available from department stores (Miller & Merrilees, 2004; Villette & Hardill, 2010). Ready-to-wear has early antecedents, and emerged during the 18th century in France when unwanted samples from tailors and dressmakers were sold in second-hand clothing stores (Waddell, 2004). However, New York is more recognized as the city that cultivated ready-to-wear clothing. The post-war availability of resources and a growing demand for ready-to-wear clothing during the nineteenth century, were large catalysts in the growth of this market (Miller & Merrilees, 2004). Despite the broad differences between the Haute Couture industry and ready-to-wear, the latter

was largely inspired by couture designers such as Worth (Mulvey & Richards, 1998). During the 1920s, ready-to-wear fashion further developed, and spread through a large range of retail formats in New York, such as department stores and specialized boutiques (Miller & Merrilees, 2004). The emergence of department stores was largely fuelled by modern lifestyles and dressing in the fashion of the day, rather than being associated with social status, as Haute Couture was (Lipovetsky, 1994; Mulvey & Richards, 1998). It was not until the 1960s that ready-to-wear emerged as the primary component of high fashion in both London and New York and during the late 1960s, countries such as China and Hong Kong became prominent sources of manufacture in the fashion industry, (Chang, 2010; Waddell, 2004). Following this movement, the concept of branding as a key feature in fashion emerged during the 1980's, with brands such as Gucci, Prada and Armani revolutionising the luxury fashion industry (Djelic & Ainamo, 1999). By focusing on brand management, ready-to-wear brands like Calvin Klein, Ralpha Lauren and Donna Karan established themselves in the luxury sector (Djelic & Ainamo, 1999).

Over the last decade, there has been a shift in the culture of fashion, from ready-to-wear to fast-fashion (Tokatli & Kizilgun, 2009). Fast-fashion refers to the reduction of lead times to get the product from concept to the customer (Barnes & Lea-Greenwood, 2006; Sull & Turconi, 2008). The focus is therefore on quick response, enhanced design compatibilities and shorter development cycles (Birtwistle, Siddiqui & Fiorito, 2003; Cachon & Swinney, 2011). Fashion companies at the forefront of embracing the concept of fast fashion, are Zara, H&M and Benetton (Passariello, 2008; Rohwedder & Johnson, 2008). Zara is especially known to be an important example of a fast-fashion retailer, with rapid stock turnaround (Bruce & Daly, 2006). Zara, and most other fast-fashion companies, has shifted production to the East, in an attempt to shorten lead times and overcome competition from other fast-fashion retailers (Bruce & Daly, 2006). A number of factors have contributed to the emergence of fast-fashion, such as the decline in lengths of product life-cycles - therefore putting pressure on retailers to produce new fashion products over a much shorter period of time (Barnes & Lea-Greenwood, 2006). Furthermore, consumers have become more fashion 'savvy', thus increasing the size of the market for fashion products (Bruce & Daly, 2006; Mintel, 2009). Another factor contributing to the growth of fast-fashion is the influence of celebrity-driven trends on consumers. As a result, consumers have become more fashion conscious; they tend to shop more frequently as demand is

driven by weekly magazines and daily television shows (Crompton, 2004; Barnes, 2008). The market size for fashion products has therefore increased (Bruce & Daly, 2006; Mintel, 2009).

c) The Fast Fashion Concept

The main principle that underpins fast fashion is the reduction of lead times from concept to consumer (Barnes and Lea-Greenwood, 2006; Sull and Turconi, 2008). Retailers therefore orientate their business strategies to consistently update their merchandise throughout the season and ultimately implement a consumer 'pull' strategy (Doyle, Moore & Morgan, 2006). The concept of fast fashion is well defined by Barnes et al. (2006): "*Fast fashion is a business strategy which aims to reduce the processes involved in the buying cycle and lead times for getting new fashion product into stores, in order to satisfy consumer demand at its peak"* (Barnes and Lea-Greenwood, 2006, p. 259). A number of factors have led to the rise of the fast fashion concept. Firstly, the length of the product life cycle (PLC) has declined and as a result caused retailers to replenish their merchandise more frequently (Bruce & Barnes, 2005; Barnes, Lea-Greenwood, Hayes & Wraeg, 2007; Sull & Turconi, 2008). The PLC's of fashion products have reduced from months to weeks, and even days (Barnes et al., 2007; Sull & Tarconi, 2008). Another factors that has contributed to the emergence of the fast fashion concept is that consumer's have become more fashion 'savvy', therefore causing the fashion sector to increase in size (Bruce and Daly, 2006; Mintel, 2009). Mintel (2009) identified the phenomenal impact of media and magazines on consumer's knowledge of fashion, which resulted in an increase demand for the latest trends.

2.2.2.3 Related Studies on the Fashion Industry

A wide range of research literature was found on the global fashion industry. Some studies focus on economic aspects of the industry, such as Dopico and Porral (2012), who examined the diversity of sources of equity in fashion markets, and Lee et al. (2013), who examined the fashion dispositions of teenagers. More relevant to the current study are researches that focused on fashion consumers and their reactions to different stimuli developed to attract them as consumers. For example, Manchiraju and Sadachar (2014) focused on the level of ethical fashion consumption present among consumers in the United States, and found considerable variance in their sample with regard to ethical fashion consumption habits. Consumers who were ethics-

conscious tended to be sensitive, not just to store products, but also to store paraphernalia and reputation (Manchiraju & Sadachar, 2014). In another study, Parsons (2011) examined whether changes in typically designed women's apparel stores had affective impacts on repeat consumers visiting such stores. While the study was conducted only on 62 consumer respondents, it was possible to establish that some sensory stimuli do have affective impacts, such that consumers who notice new things about a store are more likely to make purchases, or to come back to the store in the future (Parsons, 2011). Wu et al. (2013) investigated the effect of different colour, visual textures, and styles of virtual fashion stores on consumers' interest, pleasure, perception of merchandise quality, patronage, and purchase behaviour. The study found that consumers spent more money in stores that had coordinated styles than in stores that did not. At the same time, consumers that shopped in stores that had stronger visual and colour stimuli reported experiencing more pleasure in their visit than consumers that visited stores with less of these stimuli (Wu et al., 2013). Begging the question of to what degree consumer's emotions (that results from in-store sensory stimuli) influence buying behaviour. In the context of South Africa, very few studies were found that focused on the fashion industry, where apart from Radder and Huang (2008), who examined brand awareness among students in South Africa, no other studies were found. However, Radder and Huang (2008) were able to find that South African students had significant brand awareness of high-involvement products, including fashion apparel. This establishes the importance of the retail fashion industry, specifically for South African consumers.

2.2.3 The Black Middle Class

This section discusses the definition of the black middle class, the importance of this market segment, related studies on the black middle class, and the black middle class in a South African context.

2.2.3.1 Definition of the Black Middle Class

The middle class is defined in developed countries as the middle layer of society that are typically described as the well educated and skilled, who earns a good salary (Stellenbosch University, 2013). However, in developing countries such as South Africa, defining the middle class is more problematic, particularly since earnings of a major subset of such populations fall

far below middle class standards of developed countries (Stellenbosch University, 2013). In the context of South Africa, the middle class has been formally defined as individuals earning at least R25 000, or approximately US$2,350 a year (Stellenbosch University, 2013). Of this middle class, 41.3% in 2012 are black (Stellenbosch University, 2013). This is the portion of the population defined as the Black Middle Class. According to Van der Berg (2013), unlike middle class groups defined in western contexts, the black middle class in South Africa spent far less money on luxuries and auxiliary expenses such as vacations or insurance, and are more focused on asset building by means of a house or a car. For the purpose of the present study, the profile of the black middle class female in Johannesburg was classified as follows: black females between the ages of 25 and 45, a gross household income of between R15 000 and R50 000 per month, lives in an urban area, has a professional career in the white collar sector, access to technology, and monthly expenses consist of DSTV, cellphone, insurance, electricity, rates and taxes, bonds and gym membership payments.

2.2.3.2 Importance of the Black Middle Class

The importance of the black middle class in South Africa was mainly brought about by the increase in this demographic in the past decade. As reported by Van der Berg (2013), the proportion of blacks in the South African middle class population quadrupled from 1993 to 2012. Friedman (2014) has discussed that with the rise of the black middle class comes considerable potential for vast sociopolitical and economic changes in South Africa. From a business perspective, the black middle class represents a significant market segment that ought to be examined and understood for their consumer preferences. For the fashion industry, this translates to concerns such as what clothes different age sub-segments of the black middle class prefer to purchase, what ranges in price appeals to this segment, and what promotions and activities can encourage members of this segment to patronise particular stores or brands.

2.2.3.3 Related Studies on the Black Middle Class in South Africa

A dearth of literature was found focusing specifically on the South African black middle class population. Southall (2013) examined the impact of the growing middle class on political change and democracy in the country, and concluded that this segment of the population may serve as a critical change agent to various sociopolitical problems in post-apartheid South Africa, such as

non-whites who faced disadvantaged backgrounds. De Bruyn and Freathy (2011) acknowledged in their study that this segment of the population is becoming a major focus for retailers, since they have come to represent a significant portion of the market. This is consistent with findings from the work of Olivier (2007), who identified the black middle class as a segment that is "poised for loyalty growth" (p. 180). According to Olivier (2007), the black middle class tend to look for the best value in products and services that they can find in the market, and once finding such, tend to become loyal to the brand that offers what they perceive to be the best value. In addition to this, Olivier (2007) estimated that the black middle class can double its spending power within a short span of time, thereby making it even more important as a market segment in South Africa's future. This adds to the impetus of examining the market preferences of the black middle class in South Africa across different products and services.

2.3 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research context by providing background into the retail industry, followed by an overview of the evolution of the fashion industry and a description of the black middle class consumer in South Africa was provided. More specifically, a definition, the importance of each and relevant theory underlying each were discussed. Furthermore, related studies on the retail industry, fashion industry and black middle class were provided.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL GROUNDINGS AND EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

The theoretical groundings of the study are discussed in this chapter, followed by an overview of theoretical and emprical literature on each of the constructs that relates to the present study.

3.2 Theoretical Groundings of the Study

Firstly, an overview of the theory underlying experiential marketing is discussed. This is followed by the four theoretical models in which the present study is positioned: Firstly, the experiential branding model (Schmidt, 1999) is discussed; followed by the multi-sensory brand experience model by Hulten (2011); thirdly, an overview of the stimulus-organism-response model (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982); and lastly, a description of Mehribian's (1980) pleasure-arousal-dominance framework.

3.2.1 Experiential Marketing

The following section provides an overview on the background of experiential marketing, and the definition and characteristics of experiential marketing.

3.2.1.1 Background of Experiential Marketing

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), the founders of experiential marketing, defined it as the consumption of fantasies, feelings and fun. Having received widespread interest in the marketing literature, it is prevalent in contexts such as brand, consumption, shopping- and service experience (Brakus, Schmitt & Zarantonello, 2009; Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2010). The concept of experiential marketing was further introduced in the field of economics by Pine and Gilmore (1999), who explained the difference between buying a 'service' and buying an 'experience' in the following way: when a customer purchases a service, he or she buys a set of intangible activities that is carried out on his behalf: However, when a customer buys an experience, he or she pays to spend time enjoying a series of actions that engages him or her in a personal way. A commonly held belief nowadays is that besides the tangible aspects that drive buying behaviour, consumers also consider the experience that comes with the product or service. As a result, the concept of experiential marketing continues to draw interest among

scholars and practitioners (Lindstrom, 2005; Morrison and Crane, 2007; Schmitt and Rogers, 2008).

3.2.1.2 Definition of Experience

Experience as a concept has developed over a course of thirty years, with Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) having coined the term in the field of marketing. In 1999, Pine and Gilmore studied experience in the field of economics, followed by Addis and Holbrook (2001), who described experience as a key element in understanding consumer behaviour. Among these authors, Pine and Gilmore's (1999) definition of experience was adapted for marketing studies (Schmitt, 1999; LaSalle and Britton, 2003; Brakus et al., 2009). Table 3.1 presents the definitions of experience by several authors.

Table 3.1: Definition 'Experience' by Different Authors

Authors	Year	Definition
Holbrook and Hirschman	1982	Experience is a personal occurrence, often with important emotional significance, found on the interaction with stimuli that are the products or services consumed.
Pine and Gilmore	1999	Experiences are events that engage individuals in a personal way.
Schmitt	1999	Experiences involved the entire living being. They often result from direct observation and/or participating in the event, whether these are real, dreamlike, or virtual.
Fornerino	2003	Experience can be categorised into five distinct dimensions, such as sensorial-perceptual, affective, behaviour, social and cognitive (cited in Gentile et al., 2007, p. 389).
Gentile, Spiller & Noci	2007	The customer experience originates from a set of interactions between a customer and a product, company, or part of its organisation, which provokes a reaction. Experience is divided into five dimensions: sensory experience, affective experience, cognitive experience, physical experience and social-identity experience.
Meyer and Schwager	2007	Experience is the internal and subjective response that customers have of any direct or indirect contact with a company.
Brakus, Schmitt & Zarantonello	2009	Brand experience as subjective, internal consumer responses that can be categorised into

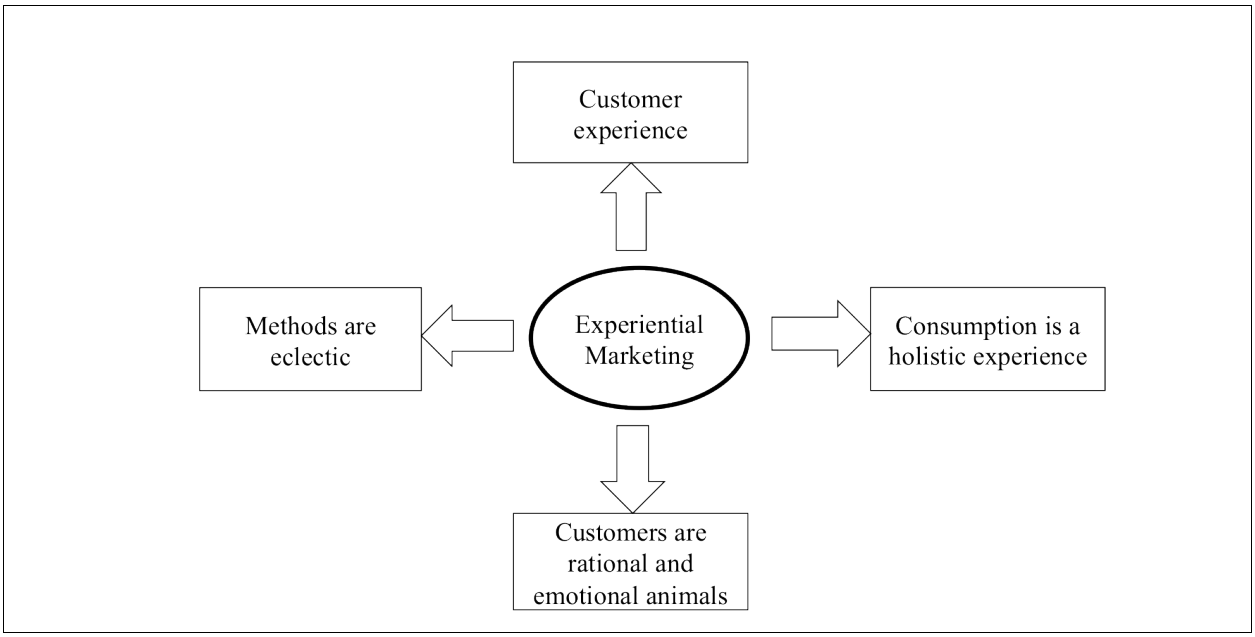
		sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual intentions evoked by brand-related stimuli.
Ismail	2010	Experience refers to the emotions that are provoked, the sensations that are felt, the knowledge gained and skills acquired through active involvement with the firm before, during and subsequent to consumption.
Ueacharoenkit	2011	Brand experience is conceptualised as a sensory, affective, behavioural, intellectual and social-related evoked by brand-related stimuli, which divides into two categories, namely external brand experience and internal brand experience. External brand experience comprises behavioural and social-related experience. It refers to the outsource experiences that affect a perception of experience such as experience from advertising, neighbour, celebrity, family, social norm and community. Internal brand experience refers to an actual experience or self-experience, and includes sensory, affective and intellectual experiences.
Venter	2015	Brand experience is conceived as the emotions, sensations and feelings that a company evokes in an individual, through direct and indirect interaction with a customer. It occurs on four experience levels within the consumer's psyche, namely sensory, affective, cognitive and physical experience.

For the purpose of the present study, Venter's (2015) of brand experience is used.

3.2.1.3 Characteristics of Experiential Marketing

Several characteristics describe experiential marketing, namely customer experiences, consumption as a holistic experience, customers being rational and emotional, and methods and tools. Figure 3.1 presents a visual illustration of Schmitt's (1999b) view on the characteristics of experiential marketing.

Figure 3.1: Characteristics of Experiential Marketing



Source: Schmitt (1999b)

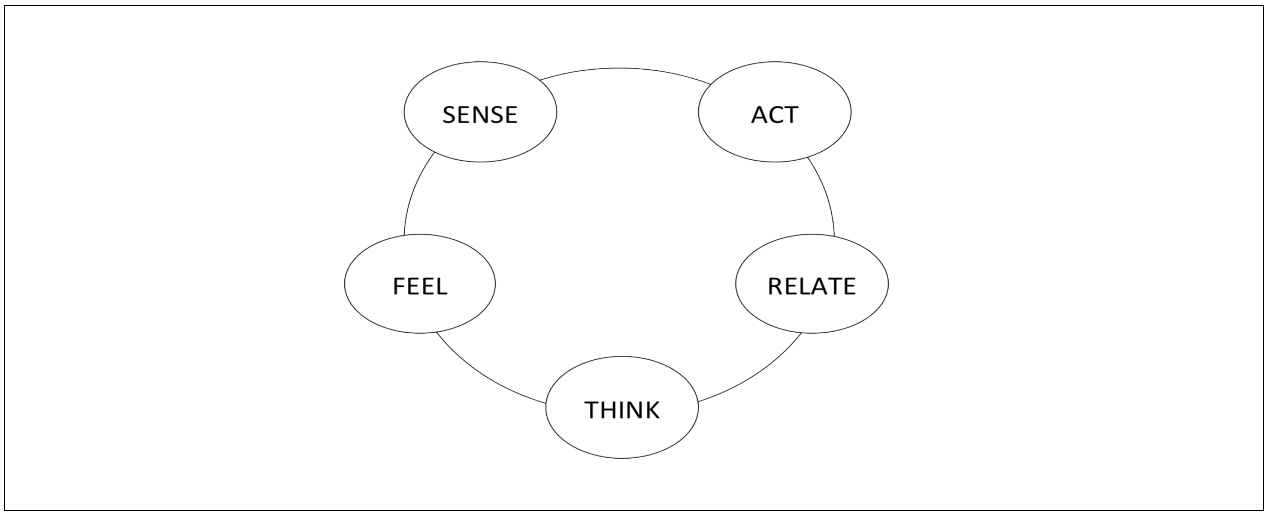
The first characteristic that can be used to describe experiential marketing is that it places substantial emphasis and import on customer experiences (Schmitt, 1999a). Customer experiences comprise sensory, affective, intellectual, behavioural and social-related aspects. These aspects can replace the functional values that usually drive buying behaviour (Schmitt, 1999b). For example, instead of marketing the quality, price and fit of a jean, the experiential marketers will advertise the in-store experience, and tailor that as to attract customers. The second characteristic of experiential marketing is that it views consumption as a holistic experience. For example, experiential marketers will not market individual products, but package them together, where they may better serve to enhance customer experience (Schmitt, 1999a). Schmitt (1999a) cites the example of McDonald's competing against not only Burger King or KFC but the entire fast-food market that sells ready-to-eat take-out meals. but also every fast-food product including 'quick bite' or 'hang-out' (other brands of fast-food products). Thirdly, in experiential marketing, customers are emotional decision makers, rather than rational decision makers. Consumers are therefore likely to choose products that evoke a sense of emotion in them (Schmitt, 1999b). Fourthly, the research methodologies that can be used for experiential marketing are more diverse and eclectic. For example, instead of using analytical, quantitative and verbal methodologies, experiential marketers can use multi-faceted techniques, such as eye-

movement methodologies, to analyse the way in which consumers think about products or advertisements (Schmitt, 1999a).

3.2.1.4 Strategic Experiential Modules (SEMs)

Schmitt (1999) elaborates further, by proposing Strategic Experiential Modules (SEMs) as a framework for managing experiences. SEMs are strategic experiential modules that marketers and managers can use for creating unique experiences for their customers. The term 'module' has been borrowed from cognitive sciences, and refers to circumscribed functional domains of the mind and the behavior it controls. The experiential modules that are managed in experiential marketing include sensory experiences (SENSE), affective experiences (FEEL), creative cognitive experiences (THINK), physical experiences, behaviours and lifestyles (ACT), and social identity experiences, which result from relating to a reference group or culture (RELATE). The following section provides a discussion on SEMs and the application thereof in marketing practice.

Figure 3.2: Strategic Experiential Modules (SEM's)



Source: Schmitt (1999)

a) SENSE

The SENSE module describes the various ways in which one can appeal to the senses, through sight, sound, taste and smell. SENSE marketing has a number of functions. For example, it is used to differentiate companies and products from one another and can be used to motivate purchase behaviour. A key principle of SENSE is cognitive and sensory variety, for the purposes

of remaining fresh and appealing to new customers. In other words, the underlying concept of the ideal SENSE approach is to consistently change campaigns by making it possible to implement fresh executions.

b) FEEL

FEEL relates to customers' inner feelings and emotions, with the objective of creating affective experiences. For instance, a brand should focus on stimulating strong positive emotions, such as feelings of happiness which will stimulate buying behaviour. In order to achieve this objective, marketers should have a clear understanding of the stimuli that are able to trigger certain emotions. However, a challenge for marketers is creating successful FEEL campaigns on an international scale, due to differences among cultures regarding emotion-inducing stimuli. A good example of a FEEL campaign is Coca Cola's Happiness Factory Campaign, which proved to be one of the company's most successful campaigns in history. By means of a unique concept, an emotive story, and the advanced use of three-dimensional graphics, Coca Cola managed to create a pleasure-inducing immersive experience, which captivated consumers on various emotional and affective levels at once.

c) THINK

The THINK module appeals to consumers' intellect with the goal of creating cognitive, problem-solving experiences that engage them creatively. Furthermore, it provokes consumers' convergent and divergent thinking through elements of surprise and intrigue. Although commonly used for high-tech products, this approach has also been used in product design, retailing, and communication industries.

d) ACT

ACT marketing aims to enrich consumers' lives, by targeting their physical experiences and showing them alternative ways of doing things. For example, with rational approaches to behavioural change, viz. theories of reasoned actions, marketers promote changes in lifestyles and behaviour that may lead customers to purchase their products. This is often achieved through motivational, inspirational and emotional campaigns, an excellent longstanding and influential example of which is Nike's iconic 'Just do it' campaign.

e) RELATE

RELATE marketing expands beyond the individual's personal and internal feelings, focusing on an individual's higher self, something outside his/her personal state of mind. These campaigns often create the desire in the customer for self-improvement (e.g. a future "ideal self" that a consumer wants to relate to), and involve an appeal to a broader social system, such as aspiring to be part of a subculture. The American motorcycle Harley-Davidson is an excellent example of a RELATE manner of marketing campaign. It focuses on a specific way of life and promotes the brand as a typical American lifestyle brand, to which consumers may aspire to belong. In other words, the application of RELATE to Harley Davidson, is done through forming strong bonds, in the form of brand communities.

To summarise, the above-mentioned five types of SEMs all have their own fundamental structures and principles. These modules are circumscribed, but not self-contained structures. SEMs do not imply only one type of experience, but instead, they are interactive and connected. Therefore, many successful corporations employ a hybrid of SEM modules in order to broaden the experiential appeal. Ideally, in order to gain consumers, marketers should strive to create a holistic, integrated experience that incorporates all five senses at the same time.

3.2.2 Multi-sensory Brand-experience Model

Hulten (2011) developed a multi-sensory brand experience model based on the argument that stores should make use of diverse sensorial strategies in order to differentiate its brand and connect with its target markets. According to Hulten (2011), the five senses all play important roles when it comes to customer experience when visiting a store. The importance of each of the senses may differ, depending on the product or service that a store is selling (Hulten, 2011; Hulten et al., 2009), but Hulten et al. (2009) identified different sensory expressions, for which each of the senses may be deemed relevant. Figure 2.1 provides a visual representation of the model.

Table 3.2: Multi-sensory Brand Experience Model

Sensors	Sensations	Sensory expressions
Smell sensors	Atmospheric	Product congruence, intensity and sex Atmosphere and theme scent Brand and signature scent
Sound sensors	Auditory	Jungle, voice and music Atmosphere, attentiveness and theme Signature sound
Sight sensors	Visual	Design, packaging and style Colour, light and theme Graphics, Exterior and interior
Taste sensors	Gastronomic	Interplay, symbiosis and synergies Knowledge, lifestyle and delight
Touch sensors	Tactile	Material and surface Temperature and weight Form and steadiness

Source: Developed from Hulten et al. (2009)

3.2.2.1 Sight

Among the different senses, sight is the most prominently used in marketing (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). In the model introduced by Hulten et al. (2009), stimuli appealing to sight is multifaceted, and includes everything from the actual look of the product and its packaging, to the visuals in the store where the products are to be sold. It is important for the packaging of an item to include all pertinent information that consumers may be looking for, and to feature the best qualities of the product most prominently (Hulten et al., 2009). The store where the product is offered should have ample lighting, and the product should be well positioned on display shelves, so that consumers can easily view it (Hulten et al., 2009). Not limited to the product itself, even the facial expressions of store attendants are included as potential sources of visual reference that can affect the mood of customers and influence a potential purchase. It is also important for there to be attractive display design in the store that can help customers identify particular products. For example, some stores use standees in order to capture the attention of costumers towards specific items. Even the exterior of the store should present an environment that can help potential customers immediately identify what types of merchandise can be found in the store, and attract them to actually visit the store when they pass by.

3.2.2.2 Smell

Smell is another important sense that marketing strategies should take into consideration. The atmospheric sensations that customers experience when they enter an establishment can positively or adversely affect the mood of making purchases in that establishment (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). For example, certain restaurants which focus on a specific dish or type of dish may benefit from having their establishments maintain the aroma of that dish (Valenti & Riviere, 2008), such as a barbecue shack, which may attract customers with the smell of barbecuing meat, or a wood fire. On the other hand, for restaurants that offer a wide variety of food items, having their establishment smell like one particular item may not be a sound strategy, as it may be better to have the establishment smell fresh and clean, in order to put diners at ease. As explained by Hulten et al. (2009), atmospheric sensations need to make the setting of the store congruent with the type of products that they sell, while at the same time, ensuring that the smells are not so overwhelming that they might drive customers away. It is also possible for a store to develop its own, unique scent, so that people will be able to associate the smell of the store to the brand, thereby helping to create brand specificity (Hulten et al., 2009).

3.2.2.3 Taste

Gastronomic sensations may be the narrowest in terms of its marketing strategy applications, particularly since such sensations are almost always only applicable to food items (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). Nonetheless, where it is applicable, the sensation of taste is a critical marketing consideration. Restaurants need to make sure that the taste of the items on their menu is in synergy with the way the items look, and what they are called. In fact, the synergy of taste must extend to the other elements of the restaurant, including its exterior and interior visuals. As such, in the food industry, taste is the sensation that can bring together all the other aspects of sensory marketing (Hulten et al., 2009), and can firmly command future patronage from the consumer. However, taste can also be used in establishments other than those centred on offering a culinary experience to its customers. As explained by Valenti & Riviere (2008), some establishments may offer some food items as refreshments for customers that intend to purchase other products, such as fashion boutiques, that offer guests cakes and tea, while they wait for their selections to be brought out to them for fitting. In these contexts, the need for there to be synergies between what establishments serve and what they sell, is likewise present.

3.2.2.4 Touch

Touch is also an important sensory marketing tool. In Hulten et al. (2009), tactile sensations help consumers to identify the various characteristics of items that they are considering for purchase. At the same time, tactile sensations from the environment can also send important messages to customers that affect their experience in the store (Hulten et al., 2009). For example, boutiques that offer comfortable sofas for customers to lounge in may keep customers in the store longer, exposing them to the store's products, and increasing their potential to purchase something.

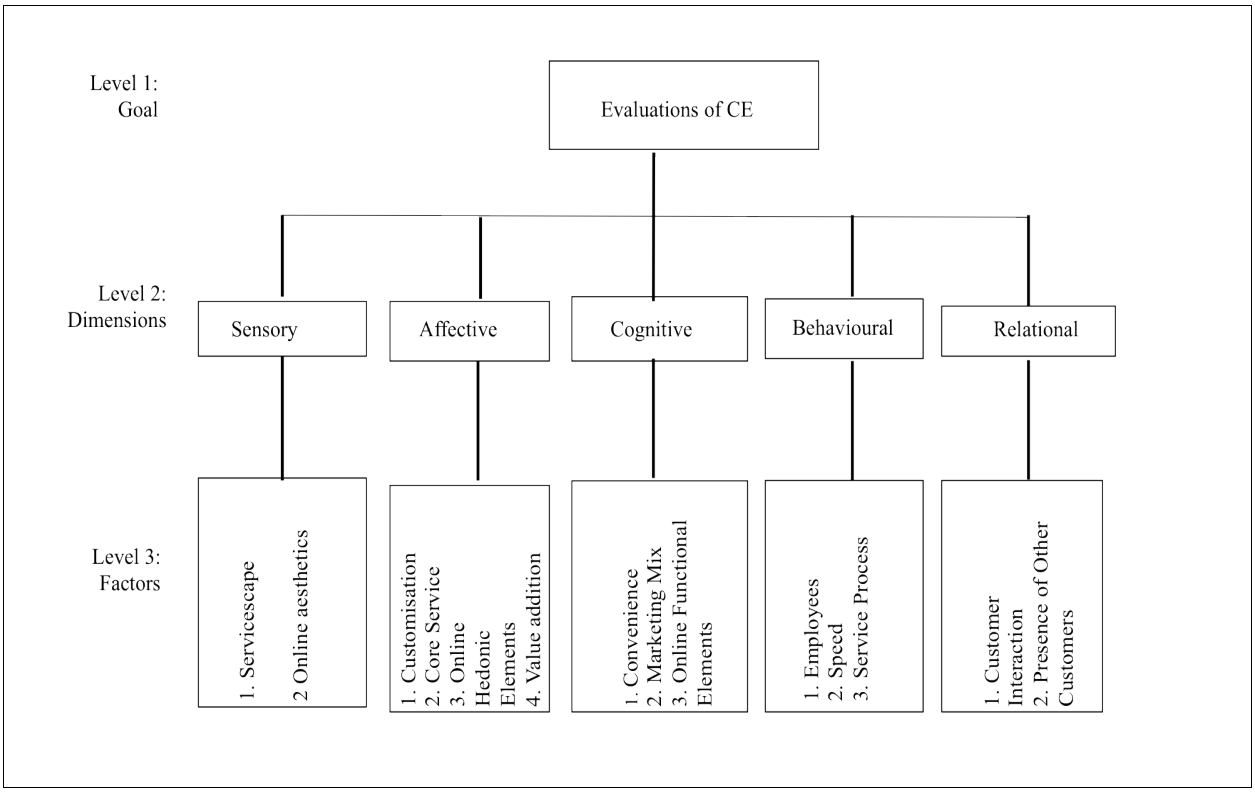
3.2.2.5 Sound

Auditory sensations are as complex as visual sensations are in their ability to influence consumer behaviour and experience (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). Hulten et al. (2009) explain how store jingles can help establish brand memory retention in customers. In addition to this, playing music in stores that are congruent with the stores products can also improve customer experience, and can influence them to prolong their visit in the store. Conversely, noise can have a negative impact on the shopping experience of consumers. Customers may be distracted by both external and internal noise, and this may prevent them from focusing on their intent to purchase items from the store. The voice of store attendants should also be considered in including auditory sensations in marketing strategies. Attendants should maintain voice moods that are both cordial and attentive to the needs of the customers. This can serve to make consumers feel more comfortable and increase the probability that they will buy items from the store.

3.2.3 Experiential Branding Model

Schmitt (1999) developed a five dimensional model for experiential branding, which included sensory, affective, intellectual, behavioural, and social experience. According to Schmitt (1999), these dimensions are evoked by various stimuli, including the brand's design, packaging, environment, and communications. More recently, Brakus et al. (2014) applied this model in the construction of a brand experience scale that was found to be both reliable, and valid for measuring customers' experiences of a specific brand. These dimensions are elaborated upon as follows. Figure 2.2 depicts the Experiential Branding Model.

Figure 3.3: Experiential Branding Model



Source: Schmitt (1999)

3.2.3.1 Sensory Experience

Schmitt (1999) amended the dimensions of Hulten's multi-sensory brand experience model into just one dimension. Sensory experience refers to all visual, auditory, tactile, atmospheric and gastronomic experiences that a customer has when immersed in the marketing environment. The overall level to which a customer rates each of these aspects positively, where relevant, is considered the measure of their sensory experience. Schmitt (1999) discussed that not all of the senses are important in particular environmental contexts. Such being the case, it is not advisable to develop a metric based solely on sensory experience. Furthermore, basic sensory experience ought to be differentiated from deeper experiences for which sensory stimuli may have only served as a gateway stimuli (Schmitt, 1999). Marketing concerns for sensory experience should be focused on matters such as whether or not the environment has sufficient lighting, whether or not the color schemes selected will appeal to the target market segment, and so on. The main goal of improving sensory experience, therefore, is ensuring that customers are able to

successfully experience the other dimensions of the marketing environment in a pleasant and accurate manner (Brakus et al., 2014).

3.2.3.2 Affective Experience

The affective experience of the customer relates to the emotions that are evoked from the customer by the marketing environment. As discussed by Schmitt (1999), it is critical for the environment to make customers feel welcome, and this has to do with providing customised stimuli that can be expected to appeal best to target market segments. It is important for the marketing strategy to consider which stimuli can seem welcoming to the market segment, and which can potentially offend or otherwise deter members of the segment (Brakus et al., 2014). For example, if a fashion boutique seeks to sell plus-sized clothing, it is critical for the store environment to be customised for plus-sized people. This includes elements from the spacing of walkways and doorways, to the kinds of images that are displayed in a store. This is where the difference between sensory experience and affective experience lies. The picture of a beautiful woman may generally be appealing, even to plus-sized women, but displaying this picture in a boutique for plus-sized clothing, may be affectively inappropriate. This is mainly due to the possibility of the plus-sized woman feeling intimidated by such an image. It is therefore important in developing affective experience to empathise with the market segments for which the environment is being developed.

3.2.3.3 Intellectual Experience

Intellectual or cognitive experience refers to the way in which a customer reasons about the marketing environment in which he or she is immersed (Schmitt, 1999). An environment that provides a strong cognitive experience is able to effectively communicate messages to the client about different positive elements in relation to visiting and making purchases in the store (Brakus et al., 2014). For example, a client may realise how convenient it is to make purchases at the store, because of its streamlined system of taking and delivering orders made by the client. Similarly, the client may realise, based on the systematic placement of products on the store's shelves, that the store already offers a 'one-stop-shop' for everything that the client needs. Elements of the store may also seek to show the client that the products at the store have the

highest-value for money, or the best comparable quality. That is, marketing mix considerations are established in the intellectual dimension.

3.2.3.4 Behavioural Experience

The behavioural dimension is concerned with customers' experiences with the dynamics of the marketing environment (Schmitt, 1999). Whereas the cognitive dimension may focus on the systems in place in the store, the behavioural dimension is focused on how these systems are executed by a store's employees. A store provides good behavioural experience to customers when customers are served on time by employees, when they are treated cordially and with respect, and when they are fully assisted with their concerns regarding products that the store has to offer (Brakus et al., 2014). It is important in this aspect for employees of the store to have the proper attitude in addressing client's requests and enquiries. At the same time, it is important for employees to be able to follow directives set in the store accurately, so as to provide the best possible experience for the customers according to what has been devised by the store's management.

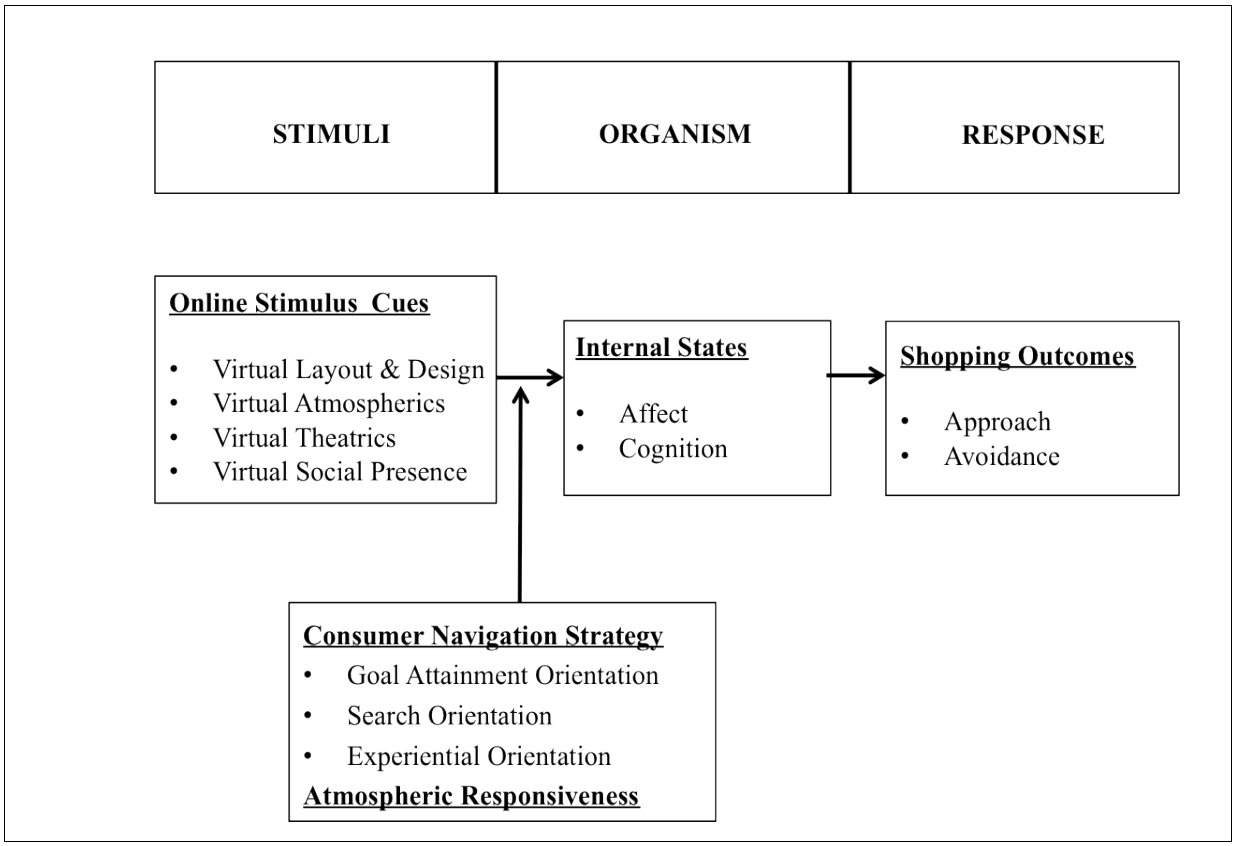
3.2.3.5 Social Experience

The social experience or relational dimension of the model concerns the nature and quality of relationships formed in the store environment, both between customers and employees, and among the different customers in the store (Schmitt, 1999). As explained by Schmitt (1999), social experience goes beyond behavioural experience, where social experience is more concerned with the product of the interactions than the process of the interaction. That is, whereas the behavioural dimension is concerned with whether or not employees are treating customers respectfully and expediting their requests efficiently, social experience is concerned with how customers see employees, namely, whether or not they trust the input of employees as valuable advisers in exploring and selecting products from the store. Likewise, social experience looks into customers' experience with other customers, regarding whether or not they feel that the store is too crowded or if they consider the store a good place to interact with likeminded individuals.

3.2.4 Stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) Theory

Another seminal work in relation to this study is the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) theory, as applied by Donovan and Rossiter (1982) to store environments. The original model, referred to by Donovan and Rossiter (1982) as the Mehrabian-Russell environmental psychology model, suggested that organisms responded differently to stimuli, based on the state that an organism is in when the stimulus is introduced. Applying this to the retail setting, Donovan and Rossiter (1982) were able to confirm that different facets of the store atmosphere affect consumers in different ways. The S-O-R model is presented in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: Stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) Model



Source: Donovan and Rossiter (1982)

3.2.4.1 Stimuli

In this model, the stimuli refer to the different aspects of the environment that exist in the store. Relating this to the experiential branding model discussed in the previous section, everything

from the sensory to the social stimuli created within the store counts as stimuli. This includes the layout and design of the store, any theatrical elements that are included in the store, and the stimuli evoked by customers' interactions with employees and other customers inside the store (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). As such, the stimuli in a particular marketing environment are vast and varied, where some may indeed be beyond the control of management and its employees (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). For example, stores typically have little control over stimuli located outside its storefront. Such stimuli may dissuade potential customers from entering the store. Nonetheless, it is critical for management to find ways to select the best stimuli for its intended customers. This helps maximise the probability that upon exposure to stimuli, potential customers will have the intended response.

3.2.4.2 Organism

The 'organism' refers to the person upon who the stimuli are introduced. As discussed by Donovan and Rossiter (1982), there are various factors that can affect how an 'organism' accepts each stimulus that is introduced to him or her. The organism may be able to recognise the stimulus, or the organism may ignore it completely. Upon recognition, different organisms may have varying levels of understanding of the stimulus. Some may understand it exactly according to how the marketing strategist intended the stimulus to be understood, while others may understand the stimulus in an entirely different manner, making it useless for the marketing strategist, or even detrimental to the marketing strategy. The way that organisms in a store environment understand stimuli may be affected by various factors, including but not limited to the organism's intelligence, education, sensory perspective, or a myriad of other demographic orientations. However, Donovan and Rossiter (1982) have categorised organism qualities that affect their understanding of stimuli into two groups, namely cognitive, and affective. Cognitive qualities refer to what the organism knows, while affective qualities refer to what the organism feels upon exposure to the store environment. In addition to this, Donovan and Rossiter (1982) identified three navigation strategies that consumers can utilise within a store, which are: goal attainment orientation, search orientation, and experiential orientation. Goal-orientated navigation strategy provides specific items in the customer's mind that the customer seeks to buy. To such customers, stimuli that help them find what they need may be the most appreciated. Search-orientated navigation strategies are used by customers who may not know exactly what

they want to buy. Stimuli that provide such customers with a wide range of information on the products offered by the store may play a critical role in their committing to buy the store's products. Finally, customers who have an experiential orientation in their navigational strategy may not initially intend to buy anything at all, but rather, might see what the store has to offer, and decide whether or not to make a purchase, after experiencing the store's environment. For these customers, stimuli that make them feel welcome, and pique their curiosity about the store's products, may be best in getting them to buy.

3.2.4.3 Response

The original S-O-R theory considered various responses that an organism may have towards an introduced stimulus. However, the application of the theory to the context of retail stores allowed the simplification of responses to two categories of shopping outcomes, which are approach, and avoidance (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). The approach category of responses encompasses all positive responses that a customer may have from experiencing the stimuli of the store. This includes: the perusing of more items; inquiring about items in the store; making purchases of items in the store; returning to the store; and speaking positively about the store with other people. From the model, it is assumed that these responses may be evoked by different stimuli. For example, stimuli that can lead a customer to respond by buying an item may not necessarily also lead to the response of the customer wanting to return to the store. The avoidance category of responses includes all of the negative response outcomes that can be returned by the customer from having experienced the stimuli in the store. The customer may decide not to enter the store at all, may decide to leave the store within a short period of time, or may decide to purchase nothing from the store. The customer may also decide to give the store a bad review.

3.2.5 Pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) Framework

The pleasure-arousal-dominance model is a metric developed by Mehribian and Russell to evaluate emotional states (Mehribian, 1980). The framework makes use of three dimensions to represent all emotions. These dimensions are: pleasure, arousal, and dominance (Mehribian, 1980). Triangulating the level of pleasure/displeasure, arousal/non-arousal, and dominance/submissiveness that a person feels leads the metric to determining what emotion the person is feeling (Mehribian, 1980). This work was applied in market research particularly to

consumer habits (Ratneshwar & Glen, 2003). According to Ratneshwar and Glen (2003), the PAD framework has useful applications in marketing, and can be used to evaluate how consumers feel when they are subjected to certain stimuli or environments. These can then be translated to the likelihood of the consumer behaving positively, or negatively, in terms of buying products or recommending a store to other people (Ratneshwar & Glen, 2003).

Table 3.3: Pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) Framework

Factors	Components (Factor Loading Values)
Pleasure	Contented - melancholic
	Hopeful - despairing
	Relaxed - bored
	Satisfied - unsatisfied
	Happy - unhappy
	Pleased - annoyed
Arousal	Frenzied - sluggish
	Excited - calm
	Wide awake - sleepy
	Jittery - dull
	Aroused - not aroused
	Important - awed
Dominance	Dominant - submissive
	In control - cared for
	Autonomous - guided
	Influential - influenced

Source: Mehribian & Russell (1974)

3.2.5.1 Pleasure

The Pleasure dimension determines how pleasant or unpleasant the person may be feeling. In Mehribian (1980), this dimension contained 16 specific values. Emotions such as anger, melancholy, and annoyance have high negative values in this scale, whereas emotions such as joy, contentment, and relaxation, have high positive values. People who are neither happy nor sad have pleasure scale scores that are close to zero. According to Ratneshwar and Glen (2003), shoppers experience high pleasures scores when they find a bargain, when they feel relaxed in the store environment, or when the salespersons are friendly and accommodating. On the other

hand, shoppers feel annoyed when the store environment has poor facilities, such as bad lighting or insufficient air-conditioning. They feel emotions such as anger when they are disrespected by salespersons, or by other people in the store, or when the service is very slow, or when they feel that they are unfairly treated (Ratneshwar & Glen, 2003).

3.2.5.2 Arousal

The arousal dimension determines how intensely a person is feeling. This dimension has nine specific values (Mehribian, 1980). A high level of arousal means that the person is excited, jittery, or in a frenzy; low levels of arousal mean that the person feels sluggish or bored. People may have high levels of displeasure and high levels of arousal, such as people who are in a rage. On the other hand, people may have high levels of displeasure, but not necessarily high levels of arousal, such as people who are bored. In the store setting, people can feel aroused from promotional announcements, or from winning a store contest (Ratneshwar & Glen, 2003). People can, on the other hand, have low levels of arousal when the store environment lacks decoration, or when no new items or promotions are being offered (Ratneshwar & Glen, 2003).

3.2.5.3 Dominance

The dominance dimension determines how 'in control' a customer feels about his or her situation. As with the arousal dimension, the dominance dimension has nine values (Mehribian, 1980). In the scale, anger is an emotion with high dominance. That is, a person who is angry feels in control, and is more likely to act on his or her emotion. On the other hand, fear, which is also an unpleasant emotion, has low dominance. A person who is afraid, is less likely to act. Excitement is a pleasant emotion with high dominance, while contentment is a pleasant emotion with low dominance. In the retail store setting, dominant emotions can be roused by both positive and negative stimuli. A person who is not satisfied with how a sales representative is handling his or her requests, may ask to call a manager in order to make a complaint. Another shopper may be stimulated by the wide array of options in the store to extensively search for the exact item that he or she needs. Conversely, a person who sees that the store displays are too cluttered, or confusing, or feels that the salespersons are inattentive, may have the low dominance emotion of feeling helpless, and being unable to buy anything.

3.3 Empirical Literature

This section provides a discussion on the empirical literature of the study. The following variables are covered: store environment, brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude, brand loyalty and purchase intention.

3.3.1 Store Environment

Store environment is a critical aspect of marketing (Wang & Ha, 2011; Hu & Jasper, 2006). First, there are various general considerations required of store management in developing their store setting, such as sufficient lighting, ventilation, and air conditioning (Baker et al., 2002). These aspects are common considerations for stores across different products and services offered. Apart from these, there are also store environment considerations specific to a product or service (Baker et al., 2002). For example, fashion retail establishments ought to consider their target market in developing their store envrionment. An environment that appeals to young, professional women may not appeal as much to teenagers or to more mature shoppers. Aspects of the store environment have been found to have significant correlations with a store's bottomline, from general sales (Lam, 2001), to specific buying behaviours (Geetha et al., 2013). Finally, store environment has been found to affect not just the perception of customers while inside the store, but also their perception of the image of the store.(Hu & Jasper, 2006). Thus, there is considerable impetus to conduct research on store-environmental factors that influence buying behaviour.

3.3.1.1 Definition of Store Environment

According to Geetha et al. (2013), the store environment can be defined as that collection of all observable elements in the setting, where certain products or services are put on display for consideration by the customer. The store environment also consists of elements that have been purposedly provided by the store's management, such as standees or shelves, and may include environmental elements, which the management may have limited control over, such as for example, the heat of the sun in an open-air store setting. The most essential characteristic of store environment elements is that they be perceptible to people entering the store setting (Lam, 2001). In practice, the extent to which a particular element of a store environment is perceptible may vary widely. For example, a poster may be positioned in such a way that it is hardly seen by

people when entering the store, or customers may feel the the distinct bite of cold air issuing from a store's air conditioning. The store environment can, accordingly, elicit a wide range of behaviours from people in the store setting (Geetha et al., 2013); where certain elements can influence customers to stay in the store longer, increasing the probability that they may buy an item, or indeed influence impulse-buying. Conversely, store elements can, amongst other unwanted results, have the negative affect of influencing customers to leave the premises prematurely.

3.3.1.2 Related Studies on Store Environment

There have been a wide range of research studies on store environments conducted over the last few decades. In a systematic review conducted by Lam (2001), it was found that store environments are able to elicit certain responses based on people's conditioning from past experience. Specifically, one study included in the review found that stores that followed racetrack-like layouts, elicit minimal thought or emotion from shoppers as they move, fast-tracked, through the space; making the layout ineffective for encouraging shoppers to stop and consider differences between multiple product offerings, whilst proving better-tailored to speeding up a shopping errand for those with a pre-determined list of items that they want to buy (Lam, 2001).

Other studies focused on the effects of store environments on particular actions of shoppers. For example, Geetha et al. (2013) and Hyo et al. (2014), Dawson and Kim (2009), and Tendai and Crispen (2009) each focused on the impact of different store environment elements on impulse buying behaviour. In their studies, it was found that various visual and auditory cues, which generate sudden interest or cognitively persuade customers about certain needs, can act as triggers for impulse buying. In Tendai and Crisper (2009) specifically, it was found that impulse buying was more likely to occur from in-store settings of an economic nature, rather than other atmospheric factors. There are also studies that considered the effect of store enviornments on general marketing strategies, such as relationship marketing (Wang & Ha, 2011), or on store image (Hu & Jasper, 2006; Baker et al., 2002). In relationship marketing, certain store environment settings were found to be more conducive to relationship-building between sales representatives and customers, than were others. Typically, environments that influence shoppers

to stay longer in the store, help sales representatives to establish stronger relationships with them, which translate to higher rates of repeat business from such customers.

Furthermore, the influence of store environment on customer loyalty has been explored in a number of studies (Ailawadi et al., 2008; Corstjens & Lal, 2000; Hansen & Singh, 2008; Pan & Zinkhan, 2006). From the findings, the majority of these studies indicated a positive relationship between the two constructs. For example, Ailawadi et al. (2008), found a positive relationship between these two variables. In two studies conducted by Hansen and Singh (2008), and Pan & Zinkhan (2006), there was evidence of a significant relationship between store environment and brand loyalty. As previously discussed, Fox (2004) has highlighted the importance of not neglecting tangible cues, such as price, quality and product assortment, simply adding value by offering customers a unique in-store experience. Research that was conducted by Fox, Montgomery & Lodish (2004) reflected evidence that over and above the store environment and associated intangible aspects, factors such as price promotions, product assortment and product quality contribute significantly to store loyalty. It was also found that promotional programs increase store traffic, which leads to increased store loyalty (Gijsbrecht, 2003). This is particularly true when consumers shop to fulfill a specific need (Gijsbrecht et al., 2003). However, when recognising the experiential aspects of consumption (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) for hedonic retail store environments, consumers shop for enjoyment.

Various studies have focused on examining the relationship between different aspects of a store's environment, and the purchase intention of consumers visiting the store (Mohan et al., 2013; Mower & Kim, 2012; Chang & Chen, 2008). In general, this relationship is of practical importance to marketing professionals, because the design of the store environment is a controllable variable, one which requires corresponding investment (Mohan et al., 2013). Thus, it is critical for entrepreneurs to have reliable information about what kind of store design can best lead to the maximisation of their bottom line, which typically translates into the potentiality of visiting consumers actually making a purchases in the store (Mohan et al., 2013). Specifically in the context of fashion retail, a survey designed in a similar manner conducted by Mower and Kim (2012) amongst students at an American university, found that positve reactions towards fashion retail stores' window display and landscaping, as well as the store's overall exterior and

mood, influenced purchase intentions. For the purpose of the present study, the relationship between store environment and brand experience is investigated.

3.3.1.3 The Conceptualisation of Store Environment

Based on the reviewed literature, there are three major dimensions to store environments. These have be described as: the design dimension, the ambient dimension, and the social dimension, where Baker et al. (2002) have provided a detailed discussion of these dimensions. According to these authors, the design dimension encompasses the visual and tactile elements that are purposedly included in the environment (2002). These include the posters and decorations used, the structuring of the shelves, the arrangement of merchandise, the finish used on the walls, floors, and ceilings, the lighting and so on. The design dimension under complete control of management. The ambient dimension includes auditory and olfactory elements of the environment, as well as other visual elements that management may not have complete control over (Baker et al., 2002). This includes the music that is played in the store, the smells that are generated on purpose, such as for example, the barbecue smells emanating from the grill in a restaurant, or the airconditioning of a building, which may or may not be controlled by the store's management (Baker et al., 2002). The ambient dimension includes visual factors management may not have complete control over, such as the awkward presence of insects, the discarded waste of a thoughless customer, and the like. Finally, the social dimension has to do with the people that are present in the store environment, specifically the employees of the store, and the other customers in the store (Baker et al., 2002). The degree of presentability of employees, or their level of courtesy to the customer, make up what the authors have identified as the social dimension of the store environment. Likewise, the social class that is able to be inferred from the appearance of the clientele in the store also affect this dimension.

Based on the work of Lam (2001) and Wang and Ha (2011), the PAD framework, which was elaborated on in the previous chapter, is useful for the measurement of customer response to store environment dimensions. For elements within each dimension, customers may be asked to rate their pleasure, arousal, or dominance about the dimension on a five-point likert scale. For example, customers can be asked about how pleasant they feel the lighting of the store is, how excited they are by the effect it creates inside the store, and to what degree the lighting causes

them to feel in control of their actions. Alternatively, from the works of Geetha et al. (2013) and Tendai and Crispen (2009), the effect of store environment dimensions can be measured based on how well elements from each dimension affect customers behaviour, such as purchase decisions.

3.3.2 Brand Experience

Brand experience is a complex construct that is of critical importance to marketing professionals (Brakus et al., 2009; Borrieci, 2011). Practitioners have realised that understanding the way in which customers experience a brand enables them to draw various strategic inferences for the brand, as well as for future brands that the company might launch (Brakus et al., 2009). Brand experience is directly related not just to consumer purchase decisions, but also to consumers' feedback to other potential consumers about the brand (Borrieci, 2011). As discussed by Borrieci (2011), if the brand experience of a consumer proves to have been positive and memorable, it is likely that the consumer will return to the brand in order to enjoy the same experience again. Conversely, if the brand experience is negative and memorable, then it is likely that the consumer will not return to the brand, and will warn others about the brand as well. Having a forgettable brand experience is equally as detrimental, since the customer is likely to return only to seek out new brands when the need to make a new purchases arises. As such, it is vital for a company to be able to develop the right brand experience for its target market.

3.3.2.1 Definition of Brand Experience

According to Brakus et al. (2009), brand experience refers to the totality of subjective, internal consumer responses, such as sensations, feelings, and cognitions, that are evoked by brand-related stimuli. Brand experience refers to the overall impact that a brand has on a customer, which is derived from the combination of the different marketing elements that are put together in order to represent and communicate the brand (Shamim & Butt, 2013). Brand experience was also descirbed by Borrieci (2011) as that which the customer takes away from the encounter with the brand. That is, when a customer enters a store or interacts with people who sell the product, or sees or uses the product itself, brand experience amounts to the memories that are retained in the customer and that the customer is able to pass on to other people is the customer's brand experience (Borrieci, 2011). Another definition of brand experience found in Hultén (2011) is

that it is the sensory embodiment of the brand. It refers to how the brand is able to connect with the five different senses of consumers; from how the logo of the brand appears to people, to how appealing the ambience is to people who visit the stores where products of the brand are sold.

3.3.2.2 Related Studies on Brand Experience

Many of the works on brand experience found in extant literature are focused on understanding the construct of brand experience better, rather than applying it to specific practical contexts. For example, Shamim and Butt (2013) developed a critical model of brand experience consequences based on a survey of 400 people. They found brand experience to be the best predictor of credibility, more so than brand attitude or equity (Shamim & Butt, 2013). In another study, Sahin et al. (2011) investigated the impact of brand experience on brand loyalty, and found, similarly to Shamim and Butt (2013), that brand experience was significantly correlated with brand satisfaction, trust, and loyalty. Brakus et al. (2014) likewise measured the correlation of brand experience with other variables, and found it to be positively correlated with brand satisfaction and brand personality.

Hultén (2011), found that each of the senses does indeed contribute to consumers' brand experience. Kim (2012) examined the dimensions of brand experience specifically in the context of the fashion retail industry. Kim (2012) found that brand experience in fashion retail had robust dimensions, spanning from imagery, emotions, cognitive judgment and resonance. In fashion, customers are typically affected by the visual imagery used by brands in order to communicate their identity (Kim, 2012). Furthermore, Kim (2012) found that some brands may focus on certain dimensions of experience, such as the cognitive dimension, while others may focus on affective dimensions. There were also studies which found that applied the brand experience concept to online contexts, such as in the work of Hamzah et al. (2014), which examined the different aspects of brand experience construction in web-based companies. Similarly, Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou (2013) found that the same multisensory brand experience model used in traditional environments was also applicable to online stores.

Ha and Perks (2005) investigated the relationship between brand experience and a wide range of other marketing variables, including brand trust, noting that there is an inherent connection

between these concepts, where the prior experience of consumers has been know to affect the level of trust that they come to associate with a brand. For example, when a consumer reads a product description about a brand, and then later discovers that the product is unable to conform to this description, then this experience damages the consumer's trust of the brand. Of course, trust can be affected by things other than brand experience, such as by the input of other people about the brand (Ha & Perks, 2005). Nonetheless, it is clear that experience is an important element in determining consumers' sense of trust in a brand.

Brakus et al. (2009) reveiwed studies on the impact of brand experience on brand satisfaction. As discussed by Brakus et al. (2009), previous studies have been able to establish a significant relationship between the way in which consumers experience a brand, and how satisfied they become with it. Specifically, certain brand stimuli can evoke some experiences from consumers that can directly cause them to become satisfied, or conversely, dissatisfied with the brand (Brakus et al., 2009). For example, the packaging of an item may have a direct impact on a consumer's sense of satisfaction, such as in the case of an experiment conducted by Kim et al. (2013), where it was found that information on the packaging of chocolate milk drinks affected consumers' satisfaction with the brand. Basically, consumers can become more satisfied if the experiences that they have with a brand conform to their preferences (Kim et al., 2013).

Futhermore, Brakus et al. (2009) have noted that brand experience involves specific feelings that consumers have for the brand, rather than just a general like or dislike of it, which can be better attributed towards the concept of brand attitude. Brakus et al. (2009) discussed that brand attitude can be drawn from brand experience, but this only corresponds to a minimal part of the brand experience construct. Evidence of this relationship can be found in studies such as Bakar et al. (2013), which examined the impact of religious symbols on food product packaging for Muslim consumers. The study found that Muslim consumers held stronger positive attitudes towards products that included Islamic religious symbols in their packaging, particualrly over identical products that did not include such symbols (Bakar et al., 2013). As explained by Bakar et al. (2013), consumers were able to more easily associate with the symbols than other written information on the products' packaging.

The influence of brand experience on purchase intention has also yielded interest from several researchers. For example, the link between brand experience and purchase intention is widely researched in marketing literature (Hung et al., 2011; Barnes et al., 2014; Anderson et al., 2014). Yoo and Lee (2012) examined the purchase activities of consumers, who have experienced both buying genuine fashion brands, and their counterfeits. The study found that positive experiences with genuine brands served as important indicators of future positive purchase intentions for such brands, as well as negative purchase intentions of counterfeit brands (Yoo & Lee, 2012). That is, when consumers have pleasant experiences in visiting official retailers of fashion brands, they become less tempted to buy counterfeit products, and are more likely to purchase more genuine products. However, the study found that converse did not hold. That is, positive experiences in purchasing counterfeit products was not found to indicate continued patronage of such products. The notion of brand experience in light of creating experiential value, was inherent in the applied work of Pine & Gilmore (1999), who studied the influence of experiential value on consumer buying behaviour. From this study, it is made evident that the more a brand evokes multiple experience dimensions, the more likely it is that consumers will return to the store.

3.3.2.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Experience

Various dimensions of brand experience have been developed from extant literature. Hultén (2011) developed a multi-sensory model for brand experience that considered each of the five senses as a dimension. On the other hand, Borrieci (2011) divided the dimensions of brand experience into two categories: the totality of brand experience, and the tonality of brand experience. The totality dimension refers to the cohensiveness of the different marketing elements that make up the brand experience, while tonality refers to the nature of the experience that the brand seeks to impart on customers. The problem with these dimensions is mainly the lack of corresponding instruments with which to measure them. This is solved in the work of Brakus et al. (2014), which developed and validated a scale for measuring brand experience. Factor analysis conducted by Brakus et al. (2014) yielded four independent dimensions of brand experience, namely sensory, affective, intellectual, and behavioural. The sensory dimension encompasses the dimensions identified by Hultén (2011) and measures how well customers percieve sensory stimuli included in the brand experience (Brakus et al., 2014). The affective

dimension identifies and measures the different feelings that the brand evokes from the customer, while the intellectual dimension identifies and measures the level of thinking and curiousity that the customer engages in when in contact with the brand (Brakus et al., 2014). Finally, the behavioural dimension consider the actions that are committed by the customer in reaction to the customer's experience with the brand (Brakus et al., 2014). The model developed by Brakus et al. (2014) yielded an instrument that can quantify each of the different dimensions of brand experience and consolidate this into an overall score, which reflects how positive or negative a consumer's brand experience may be, based on these dimensions.

3.3.3 Brand Trust

Brand trust is important, because it determines the value that consumers place on the promises and claims made by a certain brand. When a consumer has high brand trust for a certain item, they are more likely to purchase this item over other new items that have not yet been able to prove its quality to the consumer (Jones & Kim, 2010). Thus, brand trust is an intangible premium that might be considered in the pricing of a product. The relevance of brand trust varies across different items, where new products are more difficult to introduce for markets where the significance of brand trust is high.

3.3.3.1 Definition of Brand Trust

Brand trust refers to the level of confidence that consumers have in a specific brand for it to deliver certain quality specifications in comparison with other brands or with genertic items (Jones & Kim, 2010). Brand trust determines the extent to which consumers will believe new quality claims that the brand makes in relation to their product or service, without the customer actually testing these quality claims for themselves (Jones & Kim, 2010). Brand trust is typically built from consumers' previous experience with the brand, but may also be developed by means of word of mouth and advertising (Jones & Kim, 2010).

3.3.3.2 Related Studies on Brand Trust

There are various studies that have examined the relevance of brand trust across diverse business aspects. Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán (2005) surveyed over 270 retail consumers in Spain, and found that strength of brand trust is highly correlative with previous experience with

the brand. That is, consumers who have high brand trust for a product are those consumers who purchase the product repeatedly across a long period of time (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005).

Brand trust was identified as a critical component in overall brand equity (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005). In another study, Becerra and Badrinarayanan (2013) found that brand trust was important in determining consumers' purchase intentions, and positive referrals. Consumers do not only patronise brands for which they have high levels of trust, but are more likely to recommend such brands to others (Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013). Conversely, consumers were found to have a tendency to provide oppositional referrals against brands they have not had any experience with before (Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013). Consumers were found to consider the impact of recommending a brand to their own credibility, such that they are more likely to express a skeptical view of a brand that they have not yet encountered, than to provide a neutral perspective (Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013).

Wang and Yang (2011) examined the impact of brand satisfaction on purchase intention in stores in China. Based on surveys conducted in the study, it was found that satisfaction was positively correlated to the likelihood of making a purchase (Wang & Yang, 2011). However, Wang and Yang (2011) discussed that the causal direction of this relationship could not be determined from their design. In contrast, Tuu and Olsen (2012) conducted a new product experiment where they used a 2x2 factorial design with 120 participants, in order to determine whether brand satisfaction level significantly affected purchase intention probability. The study found that there was definite movement from satisfaction to purchase intention; that is, participants tended to become satisfied with the brand first, and then to make purchase intentions thereafter, thereby supporting the causal direction of the correlation.

A number of studies have explored the relationship between brand trust and brand attitude, particularly focusing on brand attitude as the predictor variable, while brand trust acts as the outcome variable (Jung et al., 2014). The majority of findings indicated a positive relationship. Upon testing the reverse effect of the latter relationship, namely brand trust on brand attitude, a study by Okazaki, Katsukur and Nishiyama (2007) found a significant relationship. Although the

study by Okazaki (2007) was conducted in the mobile industry, the outcomes remain an important consideration for marketers in other contexts as well.

It is important to examine the relationship between brand trust and brand experience. As discussed by Sahin et al. (2011), the two variables tend to correlate. However, the causality of their relationship remains an open area of research. This means that while it can be said that consumers that have positive brand experiences tend to also have strong trust in the brand, it is not yet fully understood whether it is the experience that develops the trust, or if the initial trust that consumers place in a brand tends to affect their perceptions of their experiences with the brand. The relationship between brand trust and purchase intention has been examined by a number of studies. Trust was found to be a highly important variable in predicting purchase intention in online retail settings (Hong & Cha, 2013).

As discussed by Hong and Cha (2013), consumers typically seek to ensure that the retailer from whom they are deciding to make a purchase can be trusted to deliver the goods, as well as to make good on all of the agreements made with regard to the sale. They do so by reviewing the feedback that specific merchants have accumulated, and deciding from the nature of this feedback whether or not to trust the merchant, and to subsequently make a purchase (Hong & Cha, 2013). Trust was also found to play a significant role in modeling purchase intention in the food industry (Herrera & Blanco, 2011), where consumers were more likely to make purchase intentions of food brands that they trusted with respect to certain nutritional promises made in the product's packaging. From the above literature, it is evident that there is a positive relationship between brand trust and various other variables. As noted, the present study aims to investigate the relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty.

3.3.3.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Trust

Ruparelia et al. (2010) examined different drivers of brand trust in retailing, and found that the construct can be divided into three significant dimensions, namely: word of mouth, past experience, and brand first impression. First, brand trust was found to be built on word of mouth. The more positive responses people have been exposed to about a brand, the greater their trust in this brand tends to be, even if they themselves do not have direct experience with the brand yet.

This shows that brand trust can be transferred from one consumer to another. Second, there is also previous direct experience with the brand. Consistent with the findings from Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán (2005), Ruparelia et al. (2010) found that measuring the number of times that a consumer has purchased a product in the past provides a good indicator of brand trust level. Finally, it was found that consumers have first impressions of brands, based on their first encounter with it (Ruparelia et al., 2010). These first impressions draw on previous experience from other brands and can have an immediate impact of brand trust. Consumers may either associate a new brand with either a good or a bad brand that they have experienced in the past. This is also an important consideration in measuring brand trust.

3.3.4 Brand Satisfaction

As discussed by Erciş et al. (2012), brand satisfaction may be considered to be one of the most important metrics in the field of marketing. Brand satisfaction is a holistic construct that considers different elements of a brand as experienced by a customer. As found by Erciş et al. (2012), the level of brand satisfaction is directly related to the propensity of repurchase experience. This is logical, since if a customer is satisfied with a brand, this means that the brand is better than other brands that may be available to him or her. As such, given the need to repurchase an item, it is more likely that a customer will select the brand with which he or she had the highest level of satisfaction.

3.3.4.1 Definition of Brand Satisfaction

Brand satisfaction is defined as the extent to which customers' expectations about the product or service under the brand are met (Rowley, 2009). Another definition of brand satisfaction is the extent to which a brand is able to sustain the demands of the market (Gentile et al., 2007). From a marketing perspective, brand satisfaction considers the extent to which each of the different basic aspects of marketing, product, price, placement, and promotion, match a given client's preference (Erciş et al., 2012). As such, brand satisfaction goes beyond the mere characteristics of the product itself, but also if the product is reasonably priced, is readily and conveniently available to the customer, and is sufficiently popularised and supported (Rowley, 2009).

3.3.4.2 Related Studies on Brand Satisfaction

Brand satisfaction has been the focus of many studies found in this review. Gentile et al. (2007) examined the different aspects that co-created value, with consumers leading to greater brand satisfaction, and found that consumers' primarily focused on a balance between product and price aspects in determining their level of satisfaction with particular brands. The ideal brand was one that provided the best value for consumers, which meant that its product possesses qualities that are superior to other brands in the market, but at the same time, are priced competitively (Gentile et al., 2007). Of course, this balance is not always achieved, and it is common for some products to be considered of high quality by consumers, while having a restrictive price. Similarly, there are products that are percieved to be competitively priced, but lack important quality elements consumers require (Gentile et al., 2007). Other studies were found, which focused on developing strategies to help ensure brand satisfaction. One such strategy is offering money-back guarantees. As found by Desmet (2014), the rationale behind such guarantees is that they help ensure that customers remain satisfied with the brand, even if they are unsatisfied with the product, making it more likely for them to make purchases from the brand in the future. Kim et al. (2014) examined the way in which consumers expressed brand satisfaction, and found that consumers with access to social media were both highly active, and open in expressing their level of satisfaction regarding different branded products that they purchase.

As previously discussed, the majority of studies that have been conducted on brand satisfaction and brand experience have revealed similar results indicating that brand experience influences brand trust. For example, Brakus et al. (2009) reviewed studies on the impact of brand experience on brand satisfaction. As discussed by Brakus et al. (2009) previous studies have been able to establish a significant relationship between the way in which consumers experience a brand and how satisfied they become with it. Specifically, some brand stimuli can evoke some experiences from consumers that can directly cause them to become satisfied or dissatisfied with the brand (Brakus et al., 2009). Kim et al. (2013), found that information on the packaging of chocolate milk drinks affected consumers' satisfaction with the brand. Basically, consumers can become more satisfied if the experiences that they have from a brand conform to their

preferences (Kim et al., 2013). Few studies have explored the reverse relationship of these two variables, however, it can be concluded that a relationship exists.

The relationship between brand trust and brand satisfaction is also an important concern. However, there was a dearth of studies that specifically focused on the relationship between these two variables. Nonetheless, brand trust can be seen as an important component of brand satisfaction. That is, one of the factors that determine the extent to which a consumer may consider him or herself satisfied with a brand is the extent of trust that he or she has developed for it. This is consistent with Lin et al. (2011), who found there to be a significant positive relationship between trust and satisfaction in the context of online retail. Satisfying customers before gaining trust is quite challenging (Ercis, Unal, Candan & Yildirim, 2012). Concurrently, it is difficult to create brand trust before satisfying customers. In literature, several studies indicate that trust is a predictor of loyalty where, if a customer's trust is established, consumers are likely to be satisfied (Chaudhuri & Holbroock, 2001). Berry (2000) is of the opinion that trust is very important for satisfaction, as a consumer who trusts a brand will be satisfied and as a result, will be more willing to commit to it. However, Geyskens (1999) states that brand satisfaction is a predictor of brand trust.

Brand satisfaction was examined by Zenker and Rütter (2014) in terms of its role in developing brand attitude and positive consumer behaviour. Consistent with inputs from Oliver (1997) and Erciş et al. (2012), Zenker and Rütter (2014) emphasised the prevalence of brand satisfaction as the foci of study in many disciplines, and found from its survey that brand satisfaction and attitude to have a significant positive correlation. However, the study did not establish the causal direction of this relationship. According to Zenker and Rütter (2014), the direction of the relationship is more difficult to establish and the two variables may even be considered to merely be collinear images of one another. That is, they may not affect each other, but are, rather, identical variables affected by other variables. However, this postulate was not tested in the work of Zenker and Rütter (2014). The present study aims to explore the relationship between brand satisfaction and brand loyalty, and the relationship between the latter variables have been explored in a number of studies to be discussed further below.

3.3.4.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Satisfaction

Brand satisfaction is a multifaceted construct, which ought to be measured across different dimensions (Erciş et al., 2012). Erciş et al. (2012) identified three important dimensions in measuring consumers' brand satisfaction. These are a cognitive, behavioural, and emotional dimension, respectively. The cognitive dimension is focused on what the consumer thinks about the brand; where it considers different objective quality elements about the product or service, and whether these elements are present in the brand, such as whether or not the product is effective in its prescribed purpose, or whether the product is priced lower than competing brands. Second, the behavioural dimension considers the actions of consumers – those which they commit or are likely to commit – in relation to the brand, such as whether or not the customer intends to purchase or repurchase the product, or recommend the product to other people (Erciş et al., 2012). These actions also help determine how satisfied a person is with the brand. Finally, the emotional dimension covers what the customer feels about the brand. This dimension is focused on examining the consumer's overall perception of the brand (Erciş et al., 2012).

3.3.5 Brand Attitude

Brand attitude is important for a number of reasons. First, it shows marketers both the positive and the negative feedback that consumers have in relation to the brand, and how strong this feedback is (Rice et al., 2012). Thus, through measuring brand attitude, marketers are able to determine which particular objectives of the branding were met, and which ones were not (Rice et al., 2012). They would also be able to determine what unforseen positive and negative impacts the brand has had on consumers, and how these may be used to the advantage of the brand or mitigated in the future (Rice et al., 2012).

3.3.5.1 Definition of Brand Attitude

Brand attitude refers to the direction and strength of the perception that consumers have in relation to a brand (Yoon & Park, 2012). The direction of the perception may be positive, or negative (Yoon & Park, 2012). Examples of positive perceptions are that the brand product does what it is intended to do, that the brand offers good value for money, or that the brand is environment friendly. On the other hand, some negative perceptions are that the brand is too expensive, the product under the brand is of substandard quality, or the brand's actions harm the

environment. The strength of the perception refers to how much customers believe in what they know about the brand (Yoon & Park, 2012).

3.3.5.2 Related Studies on Brand Attitude

Studies on brand attitude focus on both on factors that influence it, and on its impacts on other important marketing variables. Yoon and Park (2012) found that sensory advertisements have significant impacts on brand attitudes. In particular, some ads allow consumers to associate with the brand, to see themselves in the position of the characters in the ad, and therefore, to view the brand positively (Yoon and Park, 2012). On the other hand, consumers who find some ads offensive or ludicrous, tend to transfer these perceptions onto the brand itself (Yoon and Park, 2012). Rice et al. (2012) examined the impact of multiple endorsers on brand attitude, and found that endorsers who represent multiple brands with no clear credibility for such endorsements, tend to affect brand attitude negatively. Similarly, using multiple endorsers for a single brand only affects brand attitude positively, when the endorsers evidently have a high level of involvement in the brand (Rice et al., 2012).

As previously discussed, several studies have explored the relationship between brand attitude and brand experience. Brakus et al. (2009) explained that brand experience involve specific feelings that consumers have for the brand, rather than just a general like or dislike for the brand, which can be better attributed towards the concept of brand attitude. Brakus et al. (2009) further elaborated by stating that brand attitude can be drawn from brand experience, but it only corresponds to a minimal part of the brand experience construct. Evidence of this relationship can be found in studies such as Bakar et al. (2013), which examined the impact of religious symbols on food product packaging for Muslim consumers. The study found that Muslim consumers had stronger positive attitudes for products that included Islamic religious symbols in their packaging, particularly over identical products that did not include such symbols (Bakar et al., 2013). As explained by Bakar et al. (2013), consumers were able to more easily associate with the symbols than with other written information on the products' packaging.

Jung et al. (2014) examined the relationship between brand trust and brand attitudes by conducting a survey on 242 respondents who patronised a range of online services. In the study,

it was found that brand trust and brand attitude were positively associated with one another. That is, when consumers have a high trust in a brand, they also tend to have a more favorable attitude towards it. However, causality was not established in the study. That is, it was not determined as to whether the high level of trust led to more favorable attitudes, or vice versa. Nonetheless, Jung et al. (2014) posited that strong brand trust may be a reasonable precursor to strong brand attitude. That is, trust may be a determinant of the overall attitude that a consumer develops for a brand.

Two commonly used terminologies in marketing, are brand attitude and brand satisfaction, and particularly the relationship between these two variables and how they influence one another. The majority of studies that have explored these two constructs, have indicated that a positive relationship exists between them. As perviously discussed, brand satisfaction was examined by Zenker and Rütter (2014) in terms of its role in developing brand attitude and positive consumer behavior. Consistent with inputs from Oliver (1997) and Erciş et al. (2012), Zenker and Rütter (2014) emphasised the prevalence of brand satisfaction as the foci of study in many disciplines, and found from its survey that brand satisfaction and attitude are significantly positively correlated. However, the study did not establish the causal direction of this relationship. According to Zenker and Rütter (2014), the direction of the relationship is more difficult to establish, and the two variables may even be considered as just colinear images of one another. That is, they may not affect each other, but are rather identical variables that are affected by other variables. This postulate was not however tested in the study concerned.

Studies that were previously discussed include Lunardo and Mbengue (2013) and Kumar and Kim (2014), both of which identified some store environmental characteristics as having important impacts on consumer's atitude towards the brand. In particular, Kumar and Kim (2014) discussed the fact that consumers tend to develop negative attitudes towards the brand when elements in the store environment imply that the store is attempting to mislead the consumer in some way. The relationship between these two variables is more closely examined in Vieira (2013), who conducted a meta-analysis of research studies that have examined store environment and brand attitude over the past two decades, and who notes that it is evident from previous research that there exists a stimuli-organism-response framework governing the

relationship between the two variables; in which consumers that experience some element of the store environment tend to associate this with the quality of the brand, where attitude about the brand can shift, depending on stimuli that consumers encounter during their in-store experiences.

Rationally, the relationship between brand attitude and purchase intention is not difficult to consider. As discussed by Brakus et al. (2009), brand attitude is evoked from brand experience, where consumers determine whether or not they like a brand based on their experience with it. As such, purchase intention may be regarded as related to brand attitude just as brand experience has been known to be (Hung et al., 2011; Barnes et al., 2014; Anderson et al., 2014). Wu and Lo (2009) examined the impact of brand attitude on purchase intention among consumers looking to purchase personal computers in Taiwan. From a sample of 667 respondents, brand attitude was shown to have causal impacts on purchase intention (Wu & Lo, 2009). The study found that first and foremost, consumers tended to select brands with which they were familiar. At the same time, they avoided brands towards which they had negative attitudes. Conversely, they tended to select brands that they liked, based on how they percieved the image of the brand from various direct and indirect stimuli (Wu & Lo, 2009). In another study, Jin and Kang (2011) examined the purchase intentions of Chinese consumers of US apparel brands, and found from a survey of 747 consumers that increased positive attitude towards US apparel brands greatly explains consumers' preference for such brands over locally branded or unbranded apparel. This study proposes that a positive relationship exists between brand attittude and brand loyalty.

3.3.5.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Attitude

Hsieh et al. (2006) measured brand attitude using a scale developed by Chakrapani in 1999. The scale consolidated elements from various studies and identified two important dimensions. Each of these dimensions were measured according to the strength of the customer's beliefs about them. The first dimension is product effectiveness, which is the extent to which the customer perceives the product under the brand to be able to perform its intended purpose (Hsieh et al., 2006). Each of the intended purposes of the product must be identified and examined using this metric (Hsieh et al., 2006). The second dimension is brand personality, which consists of all positive and negative information about the brand that does not directly impact its intended purpose (Hsieh et al., 2006), such as the production methods used by the brand.

3.3.6 Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty is considered by a majority of marketing managers as the most important metric for developing marketing strategies (Farris et al., 2010). Generating repeat business is the concern of any commercial organisation, and this is achieved by establishing brand loyalty among consumers. While there are many different strategies in nurturing brand loyalty, being able to do so successfully depends on a wide array of factors, including the type of product and its compatibility with the choice of strategy (Farris et al., 2010). As such, there is considerable impetus for companies to conduct detailed assessment of factors the affect the development of strong brand loyalty (Farris et al., 2010).

3.3.6.1 Definition of Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty refers to the consumer's continued behaviour of patronage or support for a specific brand. Consumers with high brand loyalty tend to repurchase the same brand of product or continue to use the same brand of service throughout an extended period of time (Farris et al., 2010). They do so even when this brand experiences some changes, such as when the price increases, packaging changes, and so on. On the other hand, consumers with low brand loyalty tend to try different brands (Farris et al., 2010). Brand loyalty may also be seen as the extent to which consumers value branding in making purchase decisions (Farris et al., 2010).

3.3.6.2 Related Studies on Brand Loyalty

Research on brand loyalty are typically focused on identifying factors that improve or damage consumer's brand loyalty for certain classes of products or services. For example, Dawes (2014) examined brand loyalty patterns of cigarette smokers, and found that smokers were typically loyal to the brands that they used. Furthermore, smaller brands were found to enjoy less loyalty than more established brands, and some brands were found to be more appealing to specific demographic groups, such as teenage women. Not surprisingly, 'high street' fashion has been found to be considerably shaped by brand loyalty (Li et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2010). That is, people who look for luxury fashion items are heavily influenced by the brand, and tend to be loyal to brands that they have found to be most appealing in the past. New brands are likewise less likely to succeed in this niche of the industry, as they are unable to compete with the established loyalty that the consumer base has for more established brands.

Hung et al. (2011) examined relationship between brand loyalty and brand experience by focusing on luxury brands, and found that previous brand experience is among the strongest factors that affected repurchase intentions of consumers in this product type. For luxury goods, it was critical for the brand to be able to deliver its specified promises to consumers in order for consumers to continue patronising a specific brand. The same was found to be true in the context of travel destinations in a study by Barnes et al. (2014), who found that consumers were affected not just by previous experience with a travel destination, but by inputs about the experiences of other people in the same destination. In order for a travel destination to increase its actual market share, it needs to ensure that consumer brand experience is positive. In the context of fashion retail, Anderson et al. (2014) examined the impact of brand experience in the online retail setting, and found that consumers who are able to find what they are looking for in certain online brands, such as discounted prices or efficient delivery, tend to be more likely to make purchase intentions.

The relationship between brand loyalty and brand trust has been explored in a number of studies and across a broad spectrum of contexts (Bahrainizadeh & Tavasoli, 2013; Hur, Kim & Kim, 2014; Lau & Lee, 1999; Taylor & Hunter, 2014). The majority of such studies implied that brand trust has a positive influence on brand loyalty. In other words, customers with high level of brand trust are more likely to become loyal to that brand. Lau & Lee (1999) found from the results of their study that trust in a brand is an important key factor in the development of brand loyalty. However, the study was conducted among customers in Singapore. In a more recent development, Hur, Kim and Kim (2014) conducted a study on the role of brand trust in male customers' relationships with luxury brands. The findings revealed that brand satisfaction influences brand trust, which in turn influences brand loyalty.

Customer satisfaction and brand loyalty have been treated as marketing goals for most firms. Taylor and Hunter (2014) conducted a study that highlighted the continuing evolution of the value-satisfaction-loyalty relationship. Consistent with their research from 2003, the findings reflected brand loyalty and brand satisfaction to be significant predictors of value creation in services marketing. In light of the findings from Taylor and Hunter (2014), Bahrainizadeh and Tavasoli (2013) investigated the effect of customer satisfaction and customer equity on customer

loyalty. The findings revealed that customer satisfaction directly effects customer loyalty. Despite the finding of many researchers that satisfaction has a positive impact on loyalty, some researchers treat loyalty as actual repurchase behaviour (Lee & Lee, 2013). Upon examining this phenomenon, Lee and Lee (2013) conducted a study exploring this relationship among different groups. The results showed that customer satisfaction influenced repurchase intention and behaviour differently, according to each group.

Interestingly, a number of studies that investigated the relationship between brand loyalty and brand attitude found that brand attitude had a mediating effect on the satisfaction-loyalty relationship. For example, according to Suh & Yi (2006), attitude mediates the relationship between brand satisfaction and brand loyalty. Upon further investiagtion, the the direct effect of brand attitude on brand loyalty, the findings indicated that this relationship is stronger for high-involvement products (Suh & Yi, 2006). In another study conducted by Taylor & Hunter (2014), the findings revealed that brand attitude is an important antecedent of brand loyalty, and that brand attitude mediates the relationship between brand brand satisfaction and brand loyalty. However, several studies (including Cho and Burt, 2015 and So et al., 2013) found a direct relationship between these brand attitude and brand loyalty, suggesting that brand attitude leads to brand loyalty.

3.3.6.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Loyalty

The studies reviewed in the previous section commonly used a well-established instrument for measuring brand loyalty (Dawes, 2014; Li et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2010). Brand loyalty is measured not just through consideration of repurchase behaviour, but is also measurable through considerations of repurchase behaviour under various circumstances. In order for a brand to enjoy high levels of customer loyalty, consumers must be willing to purchase it even if variables in relation to the product might change. Dimensions of brand loyalty used in the studies reviewed included base repurchase propensity, price threshold, and placement threshold. Base repurchase propensity refers to the likelihood that a customer who purchased the product will purchase it again (Dawes, 2014). Price threshold refers to the increase in the current price of the item that customers who repurchase will tolerate, beyond which they will decide to no longer repurchase it (Dawes, 2014). Placement threshold refers to the increase in the distance consumers are willing

to tolerate between the consumer and the location where products may be purchased, before deciding to no longer repurchase the given product (Dawes, 2014).

3.3.7 Purchase Intention

The execution of purchase intentions lead to actual item purchase, and revenue generation for the company (Anderson et al., 2014). As such, it is important for companies to consider what it is consumers 'factor in' when developing purchase intentions. By knowing what factors shape consumers' purchase intentions, marketing managers may develop different aspects of their marketing strategy, such as how to price the product, where to place the product in a given setting, and so on. Some products may be more prone to be purchased from compulsion, such as confectionary or cigarettes, and so these products tend to be placed near the cashier where such decisions might occur (Anderson et al., 2014).

3.3.7.1 Definition of Purchase Intention

Purchase intention refers to a consumer's plan to buy an item or avail of a service (Lu et al., 2014). Purchase intention involves the particular circumstances and timing in which the consumer will buy the item, such as if a certain need or compulsion arises or if the item's prices reaches a certain desirable level (Lu et al., 2014). Purchase intention may be scheduled, but it may also be instantaneous (Lu et al., 2014). When a consumer acts upon a purchase intention, the item is purchased and the company that sells the item earns revenue from the purchase (Lu et al., 2014).

3.3.7.2 Related Studies on Purchase Intention

Studies on purchase intention tend to focus on the identification of factors that affect it. For example, Moore (2014) examined the effect of visceral factors on purchase intentions triggered by olfactory cues. In another study, Yoo and Lee (2012) examined the effects of asymetrical experiences with genuine and counterfeit branded clothes on consumers' future purchase intentions. Yoo and Lee (2012) found that when consumers have bad experiences with purchasing counterfeit fashion brands, they tend to be more likely to purchase originals in the future. On the other hand, when experiences with fake and genuine clothes items are symmetrical, consumers tend to develop purchase intentions that are more in favor of counterfeit

brands. Ko and Megehee (2012) found that purchase intention when it came to luxury fashion brand consumers tended to be more compulsive than planned, and is highly affected by the consumer's in-shop experience. This establishes the critical importance of store designs for this paticular type of product.

As previously discussed, several of studies have been conducted that investigated the purchase intention and the factors that influence it, such as brand attitude, brand trust, brand experience and store environment. Upon examining the impact of brand attitude on purchase intention, the majority of studies found a positive relationship between these two constructs (Brakus et al., 2009; Hung et al., 2011; Barnes et al., 2014; Anderson et al., 2014; Wu and Lo, 2009; Jin and Kang, 2011). Therefore indicating that consumers with a positivee attitude towards a brand are likely to consider purchasing a product. The impact of brand trust on purchase intention was examined by Hong and Cha (2013,) and Herrera and Blanco (2011). Trust was found to play a significant role in influencing purchase behaviour. Consumers are therefore more likely to cconsider purchasing a product if they have trust in a brand. The influence of brand experience on purchase intention has also yielded interest from several researchers. For example, the link between brand experience and purchase intention is widely researched in marketing literature (Hung et al., 2011; Barnes et al., 2014; Anderson et al., 2014; Yoo & Lee, 2012; Pine & Gilmore, 1999) examined the purchase activities of consumers. The results yielded evidence that the more pleasatn the experience with the brand, the more likely consumers are to purchase, or consider purchasing a product from that brand. Furthermore, as previously mentioned, a positive relationship has been found between different store atmosphere and purchase behaviour (Mohan et al., 2013; Mower & Kim, 2012; Chang & Chen, 2008). Therefore, of critical importance is the design of the store and other aspects of such as the visual merchandising, sound, smell and customer service. These factors should be carefully considered to create an pleasant atmosphere in a store that may lead to purchase intention.

3.3.7.3 The Conceptualisation of Purchase Intention

Studies reviewed that examined purchase intention commonly used three dimensions for measuring this variable (Ko & Megehee, 2012; Moore, 2014; Anderson et al., 2014). These dimensions are: priority, periodicity, and spontaneity. Priority determines the likelihood that the

consumer will purchase the item before or after purchasing other items given the limitations of the consumer's financial resources (Moore, 2014). For example, goods that are highly prioritized by consumers may be basic necessities, such as food and gas, while goods that are less prioritised and purchased only when there are excess funds, are luxury items. Periodicity refers to how often the consumer intends to make purchases of a product. Some products have very high periodicity, which means that consumers purchase them at predictable intervals of time (Moore, 2014). For example, some consumable goods such as toothpastes are purchased with high periodicity, typically when consumers run out of the item. Lastly, spontaneity refers to how long it takes between the client's decision to buy a product, and the actual execution of the intention (Moore, 2014). As discussed in the previous section, some products tend to be purchased spontaneously, while other items, tend to be purchased only after considerable planning on the part of the consumer.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the theoretical groundings that underpin the present study, namely the concept of experiential marketing, the multi-sensory brand-experience model, the experiential branding model, the stimilus-organism-response (S-O-R) theory, and the pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) framework. This was followed by a discussion of the empirical literature underlying the theoretical constructs of the study, such as store environment, brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude, brand loyalty and purchase intention. In the next chapter, the conceptual model and hypotheses development are presented.

CHAPTER 4: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

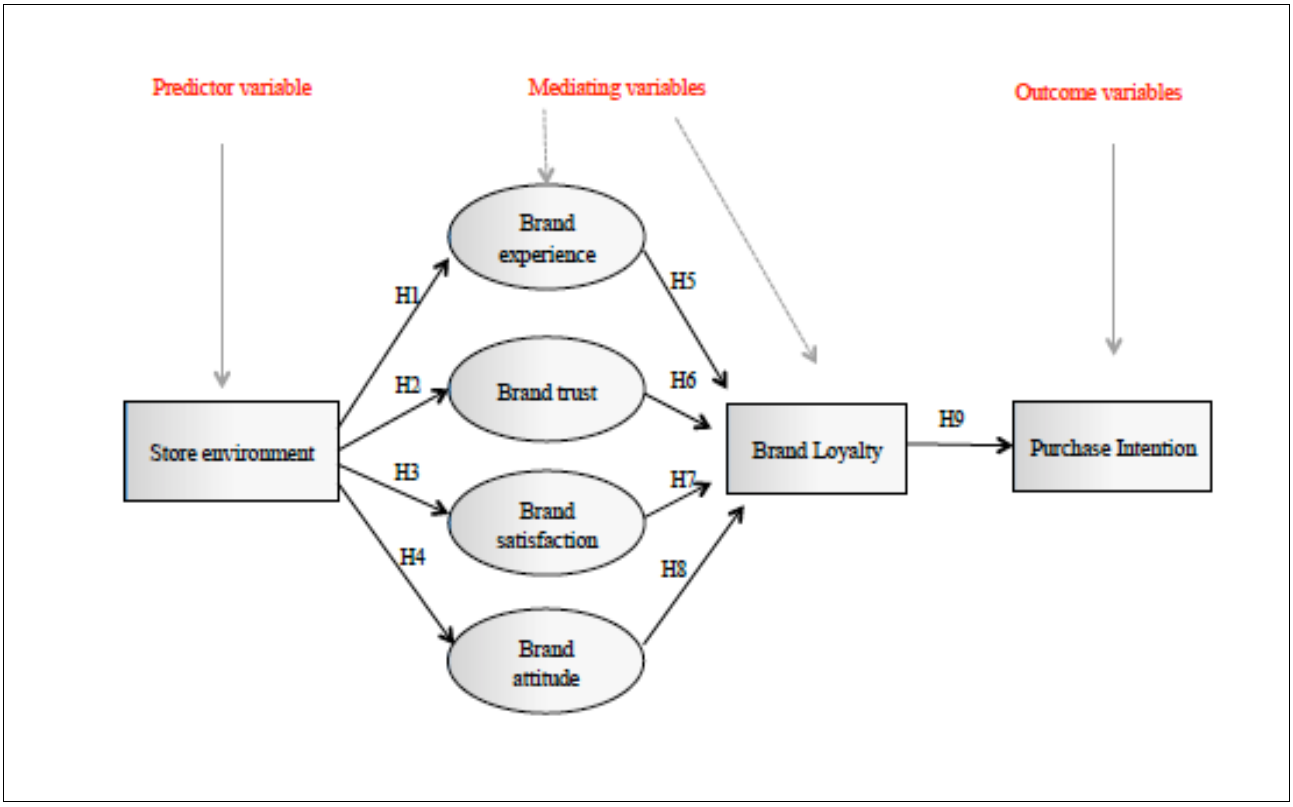
4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an in-depth discussion of the proposed conceptual model and the hypotheses development.

4.2 Conceptual Model

Figure 4.1 presents the proposed conceptual model for the purpose of the present study.

Figure 4.1: Conceptual Model



Source: Developed by Researcher (2014)

Firstly, store environment represents the predictor variable, with purchase intention as the outcome variable. There are five mediators, namely: brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships between store environment and purchase intention, and the mediating role of the

aforementioned five mediators. It is therefore proposed that store environment has a positive influence on the five mediating variables, which in turn has a positive influence on purchase intention. In practice, this means that when retailers and managers create a favourable in-store environment, it will have a positive effect on consumers' brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty. This will lead to an increase in consumer purchase intention.

4.3 Hypotheses Development

By means of a critical analysis of literature, this section discusses the creation of the conceptual model. This is followed by an overview of the development of hypotheses.

4.3.1 Store Environment

Store environment is a critical aspect of marketing (Wang & Ha, 2011; Hu & Jasper, 2006) and has been found to have a significant influence on sales (Lam, 2001). Besides the financial gain of utilising environmental cues in the store, it has been found to affect not just the perception of customers, but also their perception of the image of the store (Hu & Jasper, 2006). Thus, there is considerable impetus to conduct research on various issues concerning store environments for different products and services. A topic that has received the attention of researchers is the importance of store environment on creating brand loyalty.

4.3.1.1 Store Environment and Brand Experience (Hypothesis 1)

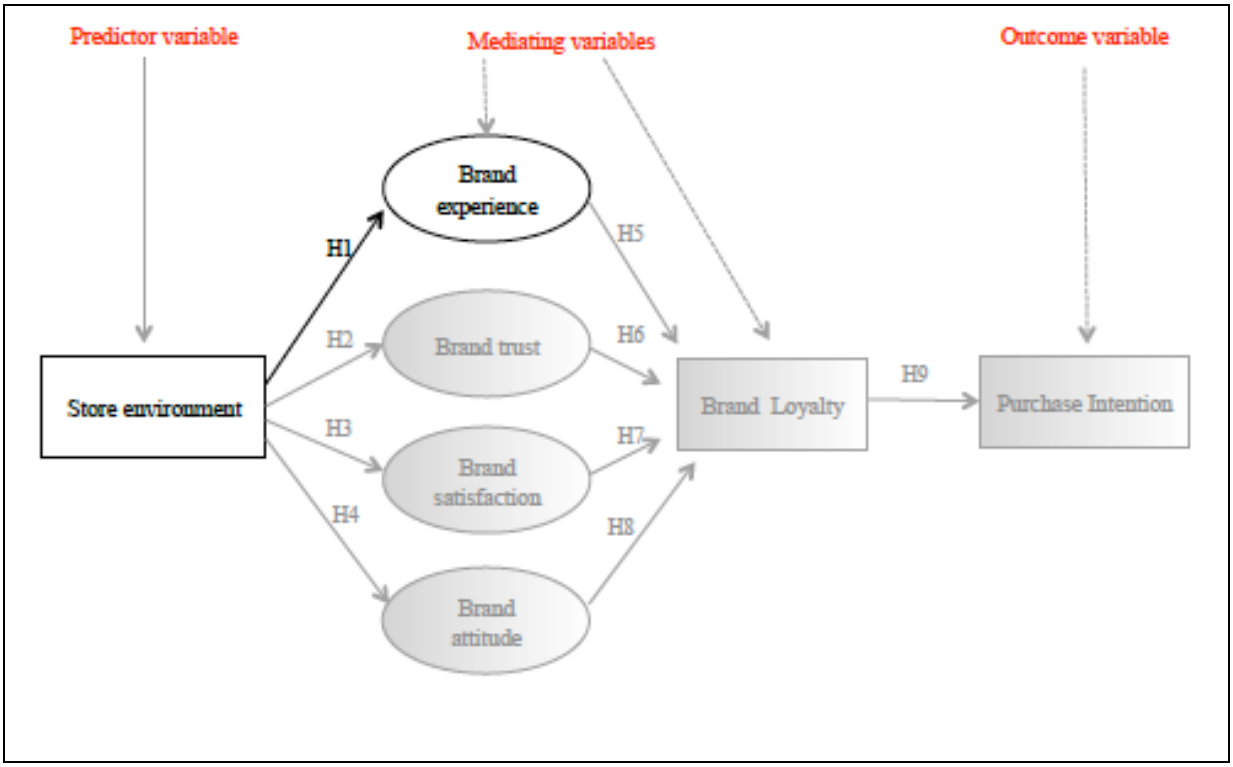
The relationship between store environment and brand experience has been explored in such studies as those conducted by Kumar and Kim (2014), and Holmqvist and Lunardo (2015). Kumar and Kim (2014) explored the relationship between consumers internal evaluations of a brand on such consumers' perception of the store environment, and found that when consumers' initial perceptions of the environment are negative, there is a tendency for them to rate their overall brand experience as less fulfilling than those who percieved the store environment positively. The social environment, design, and ambient cues in the store were found to significantly influence consumers' brand experience, thereby establishing the importance of the store environment in developing brand experience (Kumar & Kim, 2014). Similarly, Holmqvist and Lunardo (2015) found that exiciting store environments tend to elevate consumer pleasure

with their brand experience. Besides the proper design of a store, good lighting and enticing visual cues, retailers can create a pleasant store environment by implimenting customer experience management (CEM) (Kamaladevi, 2009). A successful application of this results in a win-win value exchange between the customer and the retail brand (Kamaladevi, 2009). In other studies on store environment and brand experience (Holmqvist & Lunardo, 2015; Kumar & Kim, 2004), in-store design is shown to play an important role in shaping consumers' perception of the brand, which can result in consumers' purchasing the brand, and ultimately becoming brand loyal. Furthermore, the social environment, design and ambient conditions have been found to significantly influence consumer's brand experience, thereby establishing the importance of the store environment in developing brand experience (Kumar & Kim, 2014). Similarly, Holmqvist and Lunardo (2015) found that exiciting store environments tend to elevate consumer sense of pleasure with their brand experience. Beverland et al. (2006) focused on in-store music, and found that consumers were able to distinguish between in-store music that fit well with the brand of the store in which they were browsing, and that which did not.

According to Beverland et al. (2006), having music that fit the brand in the perception of consumers, added positively to consumer's brand experience, whereas music that fit badly had a negative impact. Clarke et al. (2012) examined this relationship more holistically in the context of small fashion boutiques. In a survey of fashion boutique patrons in North Western England, Clarke et al. (2012) found that consumers significantly associated different aspects of the environment with the brand. Both tangible store environment characteristics, such as cleanliness of the environment, and ample space for movement and browsing, as well as intangible characteristics such as the ambient smell, lighting, and presence of sufficient personnel, were found to impact the brand experience of the respondents. Derived from the literature above, it is evident that store environment, or store atmosphere, influence consumer's brand experience. This study therefore proposes that there is a positive relationship between store environment and brand experience, where that the more pleasant the store environment, the more likely it is that a customer will have a positive brand experience.

$H1_0$: *There is no relationship between store environment and brand experience.*
$H1_a$: *There is a positive relationship between store environment and brand experience.*

Figure 4.2: Store Environment Postively Influences Brand Experience



4.3.1.2 Store Environment and Brand Trust (Hypothesis 2)

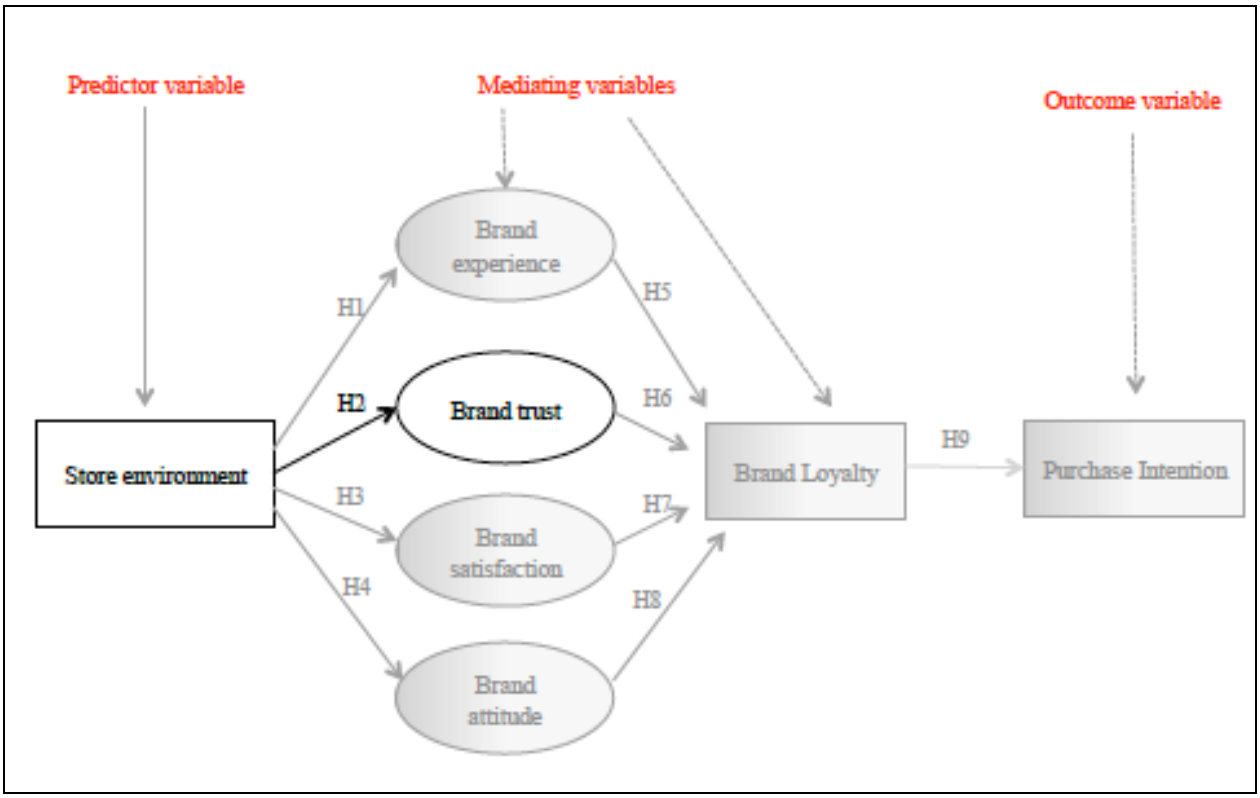
The store environment was found to be an important consideration in developing consumers' trust in a brand. Lunardo and Mbengue (2013) examined the impact of atmospherics on both trust and attitude, and found that when consumers perceive that aspects of the store environment have the intention of manipulating buyers, such as poor lighting, or attempting to hide the flaw of a given product, their trust of the brand is significantly reduced. Even in an online setting, as investigated by Chang and Chen (2008), it was also found that the way in which the website is designed indeed impacts the trust of a store's consumers, particularly if they feel that some design elements are attempting to hide key product details. Further, in a study conducted by Guenzi, Johnson & Castaldo (2009), the findings revealed that store environment has a positive influence on the overall trust in the store and in the store-branded products. An important element in creating brand trust is the trust consumers have in the store staff (Guenzi et al., 2009). It is therefore evident that store environment influences consumer's trust in a brand.

Lunardo and Mbengue (2013) found that consumer trust in a brand can be affected by store environment characteristics, where in such case that consumers believe that the store environment promotes transparency, they are more likely to place their trust in the brand. This is best illustrated in the context of the food industry, where Lindborg (2015) found that consumers perceived restaurants that followed an 'open kitchen' policy, where the kitchen is visible to patrons, patrons felt safer when being able to see how their orders were prepared, and this in turn generated greater trust amongst diners in the brand. In another study, Guenzi et al. (2009) compared consumer trust in two retail stores through a survey of 393 consumers. Guenzi et al. (2009) found that trust in the sales personnel greatly influenced overall trust in the brand. When salespersons appear trustworthy to consumers, the latter are more likely to trust the store brand in general. For the purpose of the present study, it is held that a conducive store environment increases brand trust. In other words, the more pleasurable a shpping experience created by the store environment, the more likely consumers will be to form trust in a brand.

$H2_0$: *There is no relationship between store environment and brand trust.*

$H2_a$: *There is a positive relationship between store environment and brand trust.*

Figure 4.3: Store Environment Postively Influences Brand Trust



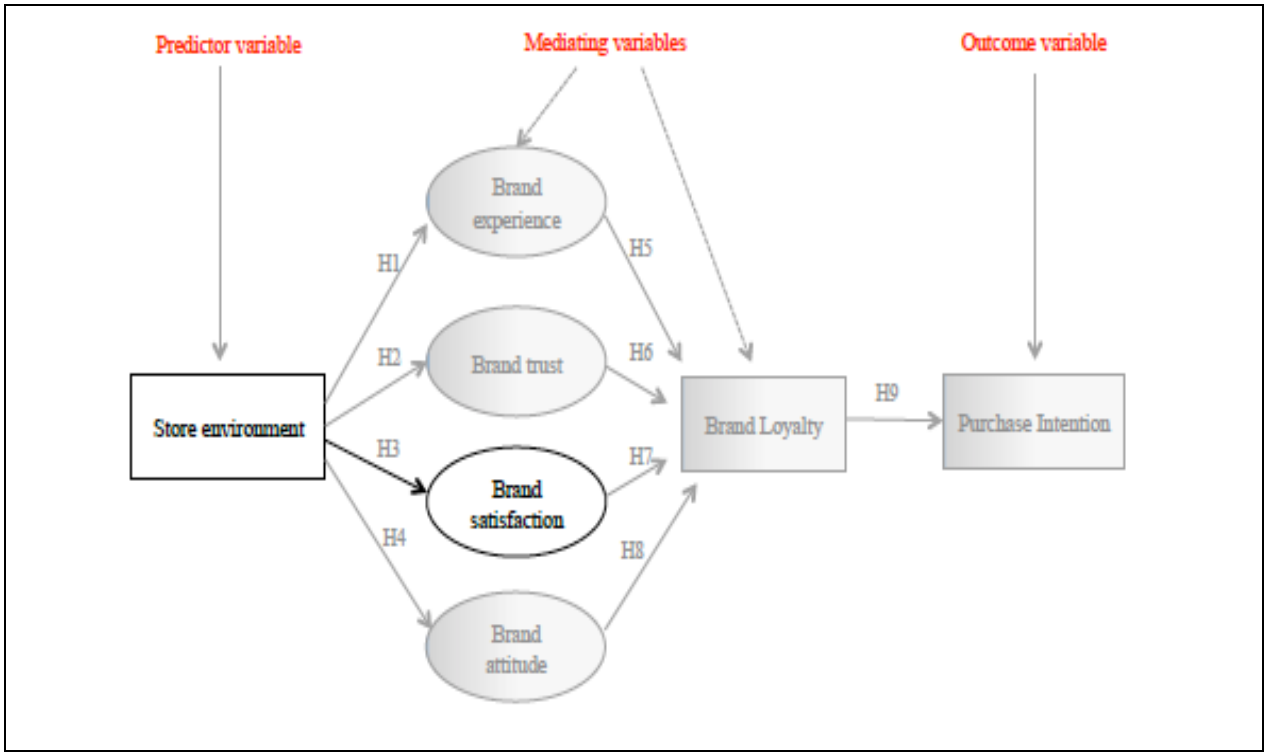
4.3.1.3 Store Environment and Brand Satisfaction

The relationship between store environment and brand satisfaction must also be considered. The relationship between these two constructs has been discussed in studies such as those of Dholakia and Zhao (2010) and Kremer and Viot (2012). These authors are in consensus, where these studies stress the importance of store environment aspects in shaping consumers' brand experience, which in turn affect consumers' satisfaction. Consumers need to feel comfortable and stimulated within the store environment in order for them to perceive the brand positively, and to develop a sense of satisfaction with it. It is evident from the literature above that store environment has a positive influence on consumer's satisfaction with a brand. As discussed by Koo (2003), environmental factors in retail stores may be considered to have an important impact on how consumers perceive the branding of the store. Consumers may associate certain characteristics of the store, such as the orderliness of the design, or how neat its surroundings are, with the quality of the items that a store sells (Koo, 2003). As such, it is important to consider how different aspects of the store environment impact brand satisfaction. Insight is necessary in particular contexts with regard to improving brand satisfaction of the target market.

Unlike in the case of store environment and purchase intention, fewer studies were found that focused on the relationship between store environment and brand satisfaction. This may be due to the more complex nature of brand satisfaction as a marketing research variable, which makes it less practical as a focus of study than other variables, such as purchase intention, which relate more directly to an organisation's bottom line. This study therefore proposes that there is a positive relationship between conducive store environment and increased levels of brand satisfaction. In other words, the more pleasant the store environment, the more likely consumers will be to portray a sense of brand satisfaction.

$H3_0$: *There is no relationships between store environment and brand satisfaction.*
$H3_a$: *There is a positive relationships between store environment and brand satisfaction.*

Figure 4.4: Store Environment Postively Influences Brand Satisfaction



4.3.1.4 Store Environment and Brand Attitude (Hypothesis 4)

It is essential to note the important impact that store environment has on a customer's attitude towards the retail brand. Research on the matter has been investigated in a number of studies, where the majority of these studies have produced consistent findings. Brand attitude stimulates an individual's subconscious, and tends to impact their decisions about the brand, often without them even noticing (Zenker and Rütter, 2014). Studies previously discussed include those by Lunardo and Mbengue (2013) and Kumar and Kim (2014), which both identified certain particular store environmental characteristics as having important positive impact on consumer's attitude towards the a given brand. In particular, Kumar and Kim (2014) discussed that consumers tend to develop negative attitudes towards the brand when elements in the store environment imply that the store is attempting to mislead the consumer in some way. The relationship between these two variables is more closely examined in Vieira (2013), who conducted a meta-analysis of research studies that have examined store environment and brand attitude over the past two decades. According to Vieira (2013), it is evident from previous research that there exists a stimuli-organism-response framework governing the relationship

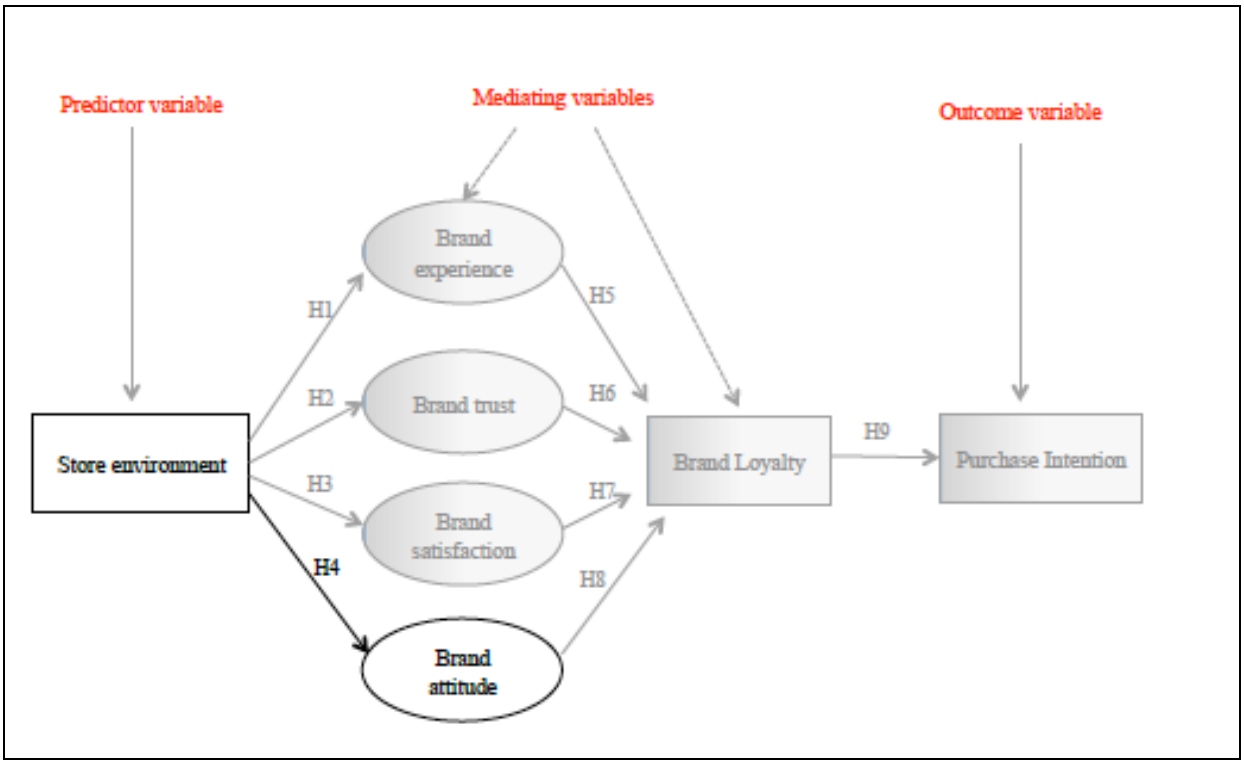
between the two variables, in which consumers that experience certain elements of the store environment tend to associate this with the quality of the brand, and so their attitude about the brand can shift, depending on stimuli that they encounter during their in-store experiences.

As discussed by Zenker and Rütter (2014), brand attitude is a latent but highly relevant marketing variable in brand building, since it lingers within a consumers' subconcious, and tends to impact their decisions about the brand, without them even recognising it. Thus, there may be elements of the store environment that can inherently affect how the consumer constructs their perception of the brand of a given store. Thus, being able to identify what these elements are in specific contexts is therefore critical to shaping consumers' attitudes positively towards a brand such that it survives in the market. The present research therefore proposes that there is a positive relationship between a conducive store environment and brand attitude.

$H4_0$: *There is no relationship between store environment and brand attitude.*

$H4_a$: *There is a positive relationship between store environment and brand attitude.*

Figure 4.5: Store Environment Positively Influences Brand Attitude



4.3.2 Brand Experience

The second variable that forms part of the conceptual model is brand experience. The importance of creating a pleasurable brand experience has been highlighted by a number of authors. As discussed by Borrieci (2011), if the brand experience of a consumer proves to be positive and memorable, it is likely that the consumer will return to the brand in order to enjoy the experience again. Conversely, if the brand experience is negative and memorable, then it is likely that the consumer will not return to the brand, and will warn others about the brand as well. Having a forgettable brand experience is just as detrimental, since the customer is likely to forget about the brand, and return to seeking for new brands when the need to make a new purchase arises. As such, it is very important for a company to develop the right brand experience for its target market. To elaborate on the aforementioned importance of brand experience, the latter variable has been found to influence a number of other constructs.

4.3.2.1 Brand Experience and Brand Loyalty (Hypothesis 5)

Brakus et al. (2009) established a clear link between brand experience and brand loyalty. Based on the model constructed by Brakus et al. (2009), brand experience was found to have both a direct and an indirect impact on brand loyalty. This was rationalised as the consumers' continued desire to patronise the brand on the basis of their previous experiences with the brand being positive in nature, however, the direct effect of brand experience on loyalty was found to be weaker than its effect on satisfaction (Brakus et al., 2009). The relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty may therefore be more complicated. Specifically, Baumann et al. (2015) found that the relationship between brand experience and brand recall may actually underlie the relationship between experience and loyalty. As discussed by Baumann et al. (2015), when the brand experience is memorable, consumers have a greater tendency to remember the brand, and patronise the store selling it again in the future. When the experience with a brand fails to make a lasting impact, it is unlikely that loyalty becomes established (Baumann et al., 2015).

So et al. (2013) examined the importance of brand experience on consumer loyalty in the hotel industry. Among different branding considerations, consumer experience with the brand was found to be the highest determinant of consumer loyalty. However, this can be considered as

more applicable in the hotel industry, since consumer experience is part of the product that the industry sells. Nonetheless, So et al. (2013) discussed the importance of framing one's brand to involve not just the final product, but the entire experience of looking for, purchasing, and using the product. Similarly, Sahin et al. (2011) explored the effects of brand experience on consumer loyalty through a survey of over 250 respondents regarding a number of global brands. The study found that brand experience does affect brand loyalty. Moreover, the study further found that consumers were diverse in terms of their preferred experiences, such that branding professionals needed to consider the diversity of their consumer base in determining the proper mix of experiences that they should provide through their brand. In the context of fashion retail, Clarke et al. (2012) found that various aspects of brand experience, including the store environment, affect consumers' experiences. However, whether or not this affects such consumers' loyalty over time was not considered by Clarke et al. (2012), and seems to remain a lacuna in the extant literature.

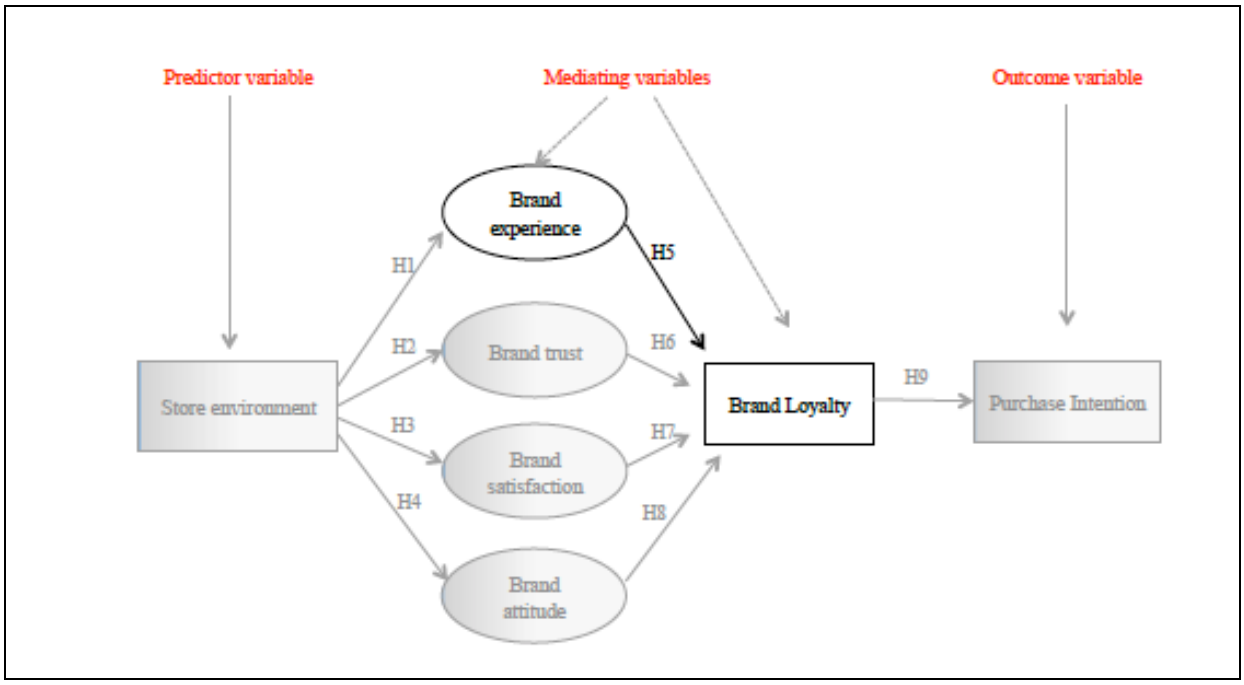
Hung et al. (2011) focused on luxury brands, finding that previous brand experience is among the strongest of factors affecting repurchase intention of consumers in this product type. For luxury goods, it was critical for the brand to be able to deliver its specified promises to consumers in order for consumers to continue patronising a specific brand. The same was found to be true in the context of travel destinations, which was the focus of Barnes et al. (2014). As found from the study, consumers were affected not just by previous experience with a travel destination, but by input about the experiences of other people in the same destination. In order for a travel destination to increase its actual market share, it ought to ensure that consumer brand experience is positive. In the context of fashion retail, Anderson et al. (2014) examined the impact of brand experience in the online retail setting, and found that consumers who are able to find what they are looking for in certain online brands, such as discounted prices, or efficient delivery, tend to be more likely to purchase a product.

Derived from the literature above, it is evident that brand experiences have a positive impact on brand loyalty. In other words, the more pleasant the brand experience, the more likely it is that the customer will become loyal to the brand. Therefore, this study proposes that there is a positive relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty.

$H5_0$: There is no relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty.

$H5_a$: There is a positive relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty.

Figure 4.6: Brand Experience Positively Influences Brand Loyalty



4.3.3 Brand Trust

The third variable that forms part of the proposed conceptual model is brand trust. Brand trust is important because it determines the value that consumers place on the promises and claims made by a certain brand. Brand trust further determines the extent to which consumers will believe new quality claims that the brand makes in relation to their product or service, without them actually testing these quality claims for themselves yet (Jones & Kim, 2010). When a consumer has high brand trust for a certain item, they are more likely to purchase this item over other new items that have not yet been able to 'prove' their quality to the consumer (Jones & Kim, 2010). Several studies have explored the role of brand trust on other variables of importance to academics and practitioners alike. For instance, a number of studies have investigated the relationship between brand trust and brand experience, specifically looking at brand trust as the predictor variable. Fewer studies have explored the reverse effect of this relationship. For example, Paolo, Michael and Sandro (2009) conducted a comparative study that explored the model of customer trust in two retail stores. Their findings revealed that, consistent to previous

literature, store environment influences brand trust. However, upon further investigation, the authors found that brand trust may influence consumer's perception of their experience in store. As a result, the more trust a consumer places in the store staff, visual merchandising and product assortment, the more likely it would be that their in-store experience would be positive. The influence of brand trust on other variables such as brand satisfaction, brand attitude, and purchase intention have been researched in a number of studies.

4.3.3.1 Brand Trust and Brand Loyalty (Hypothesis 6)

Several previous studies have investigated the relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty in other contexts. For instance, Horppu, Kulvalainen, Tarkiainen & Ellonen (2008) conducted a study on the relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty within the magazine industry. From the findings, it was evident that brand trust contributes to increased brand loyalty. In another study conducted by Sahin, Zehir & Kitapci (2011) conducted in the car industry in Istanbul, these authors found a strong relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty, but suggested future research on these constructs in other contexts. When a product makes a claim through its advertisements or spokespersons, the extent to which consumers believe such claims can vary widely (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003). As discussed by Delgado-Ballester et al. (2003), levels of brand trust have less to do with the actual evidences presented in advertisements in support of the claims, and more to do with the image that the brand has been able to project to its market. A brand can have all of the facts and figures to support its claims but without the ability to make its market believe that this information is genuine, it will not be able to obtain the market's trust (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003). Thus, brand trust can be considered to be an important antecedent to brand loyalty.

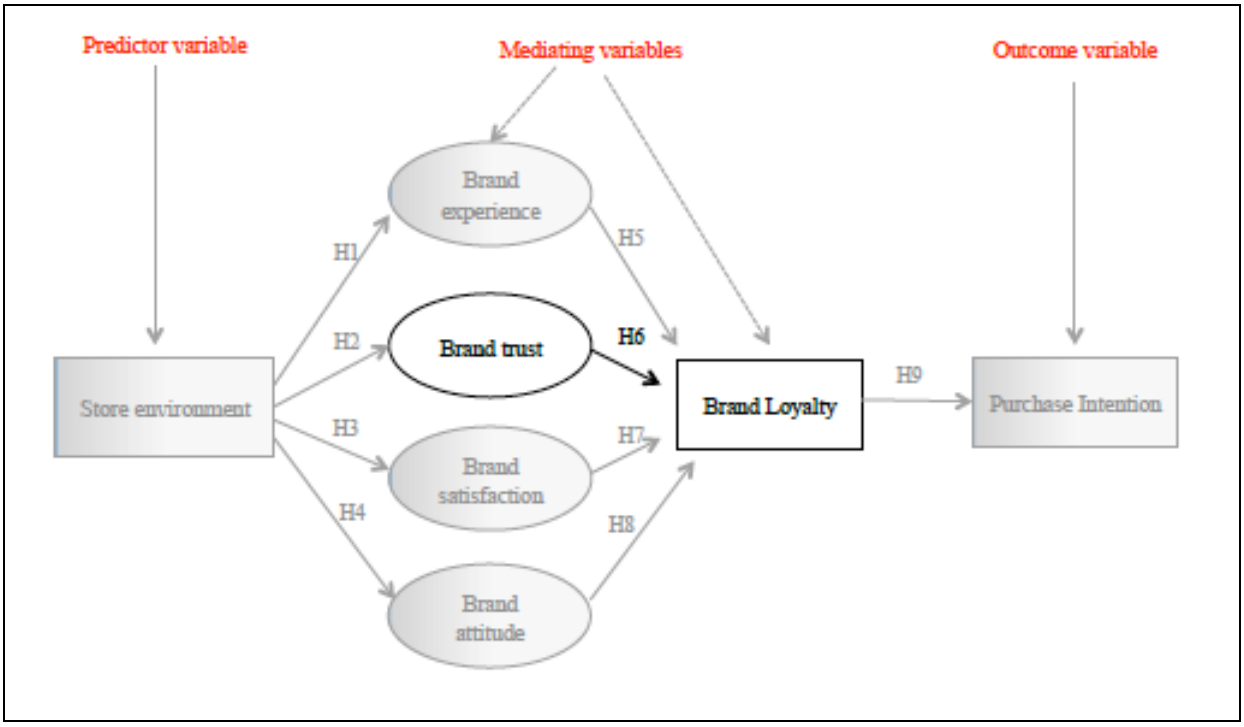
Brand loyalty and brand trust are two commonly research variables in the marketing literature. For instance, Bianchi, Drennan and Proud (2014) conducted a study on the antecedents of brand loyalty, where the findings indicated brand trust and brand satisfaction to be mediators of brand loyalty. Although the study by Bianchi et al. (2014) was conducted in the wine industry, the results provide evidence of the relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty. Consistent with the findings of Bianchi et al. (2014), a study was conducted on website environmental design regarding how it impacts on trust and loyalty. The results found that website environment

design generates higher brand loyalty through an increase in brand effect and brand trust (Miao-Que & Lee, 2012). The present study therefore proposes that there is a positive relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty. In other words, the more trust a consumers has in a brand, the more likely they will be to portray loyalty towards that brand.

$H6_0$: There is no relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty.

$H6_a$: There is a positive relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty.

Figure 4.7: Brand Trust Positively Influences Brand Loyalty



4.3.4 Brand Satisfaction

The fourth variable that forms part of the conceptual model is brand satisfaction. Erciş et al. (2012) is of the opinion that brand satisfaction may be considered to be one of the most important metrics in the field of marketing. Being a holistic construct that considers different elements of a brand, it has a significant influence on a customer's experience with a brand. Consequently, brand satisfaction has been a primary focus of marketing research over the past few decades (Erciş et al., 2012; Brakus et al., 2009; Tong & Hawley, 2009; Oliver, 1997). As found by Erciş et al. (2012), the level of brand satisfaction is directly related to the propensity of repurchase experience. This is logical, since if a customer is satisfied with a brand, it means that

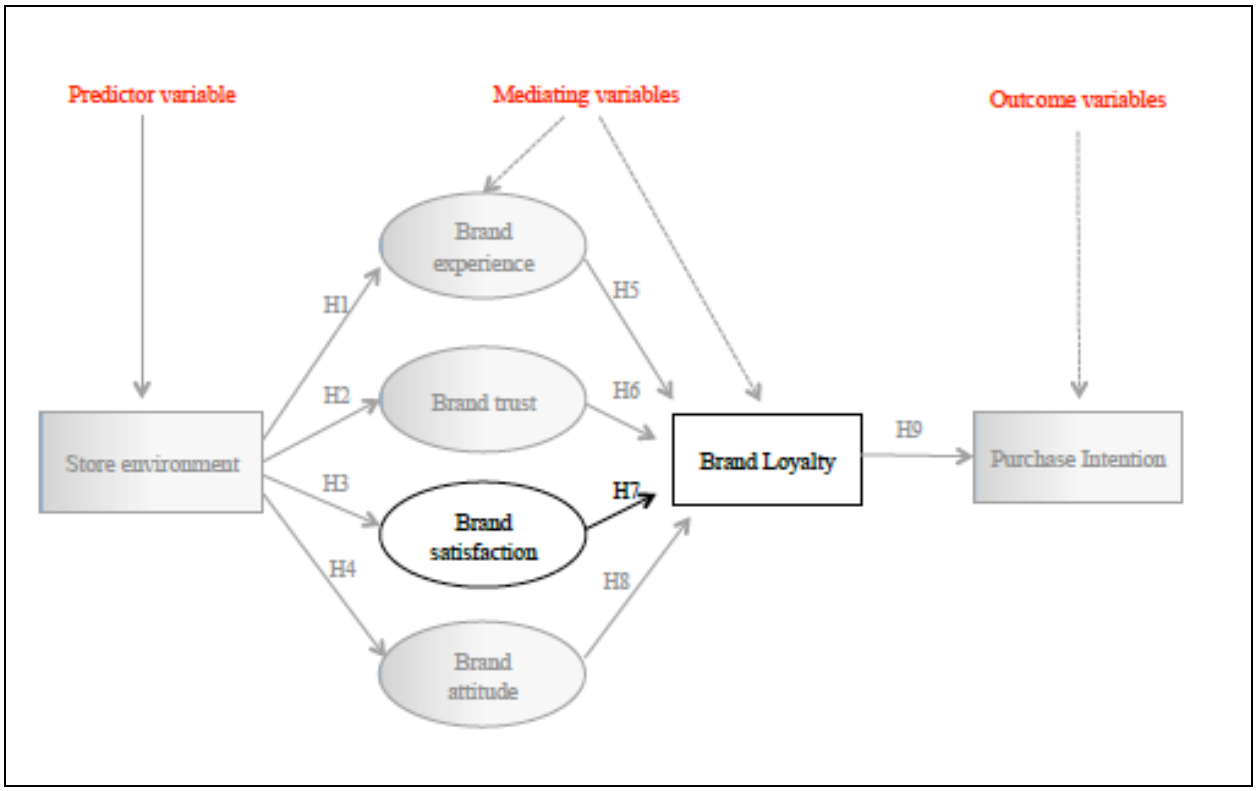
the brand is better than other brands that may be available to him or her. A number of studies that have been conducted on brand satisfaction have revealed the following:

4.3.4.1 Brand Satisfaction and Brand Loyalty (Hypothesis 7)

A number of studies have explored the relationship between brand satisfaction and brand loyalty (Brakus et al., 2009; Tong and Hawley, 2009; Oliver, 1997), and the majority of findings indicated a positive relationship between these two constructs. This findings was consistently evident among studies conducted in the fashion industry, as well as other contexts. Therefore, it is of significance that retailers encourage brand satisfaction to influence, and ultimately create brand loyalty. As explained by Oliver (1997), whereas the ultimate goal of marketing is to get the consumer to make the purchase, establishing strong consumer satisfaction can be considered as being almost identical to this goal, since satisfied consumers are those most likely to make the decision to purchase the product (Oliver, 1997). As such, satisfaction has been considered as a primary concern in any marketing metric, such as those developed in Brakus et al. (2009) or Tong and Hawley (2009). In relation to brand loyalty, it is thus simple to make the connection that consumers need to be satisfied with a brand, before they can become loyal to it. The converse of this relationship is not as strong, as a consumer may be satisfied with a wide range of brands, but may only opt to be loyal to one of those brands. Nonetheless, it is not unlikely that the consumer will decide to be loyal to the brand with which he or she is most satisfied. Taylor and Hunter (2014) conducted a study that highlighted the continuing evolution of the value-satisfaction-loyalty relationship. Consistent with their research from 2003, the findings reflected that brand loyalty and brand satisfaction are significant predictors of value creation in services marketing. In light of these findings, Bahrainizadeh and Tavasoli (2013) investigated the effect of customer satisfaction and customer equity on customer loyalty. The findings revealed that customer satisfaction directly effected customer loyalty. The present study therefore proposes that brand satisfaction influences brand loyalty. In practice, this means that the more satisfied a customer is with a brand, the more likely they will be to portray loyalty towards the brand.

$H7_0$: There is no relationship between brand satisfaction and brand loyalty.
$H7_a$: There is a positive relationship between brand satisfaction and brand loyalty.

Figure 4.8: Brand Satisfaction Positively Influences Brand Loyalty



4.3.5 Brand Attitude

Brand attitude is the fifth variable of importance to the present study. This construct is important as it indicates to marketers the positive and the negative feedback that consumers provide in relation to the brand (Rice et al., 2012). Thus, through measuring brand attitude, marketers are able to determine which objectives of the branding were met, and which were not (Rice et al., 2012). They would also be able to determine what unforseen positive and negative impact the brand has had on consumers, and how these may be used to the advantage of the brand, or may be mitigated in the future (Rice et al., 2012). Other studies that have been conducted on brand attitude are discussed in the following section. Studies on brand attitude focus on both on factors that influence it and on its impacts on other important marketing variables. Yoon and Park (2012) found that sensory ads have significant impacts on brand attitudes. In particular, some ads allow consumers to associate with the brand, to see themselves in the position of the characters in the ad, and therefore, to view the brand positively (Yoon and Park, 2012). On the other hand, consumers who find some ads offensive or ludicrous, tend to transfer these perceptions to the brand itself (Yoon and Park, 2012). Rice et al. (2012) examined the impact of multiple endorsers

on brand attitude and found that endorsers who represent multiple brands with no clear credibility for such endorsements tend to affect brand attitude negatively. Similarly, using multiple endorsers for a single brand only affects brand attitude positively when the endorsers evidently have high involvement in the brand (Rice et al., 2012). The influence of brand attitude on a number of variables have been explored in previous studies:

4.3.5.1 Brand Attitude and Brand Loyalty (Hypothesis 8)

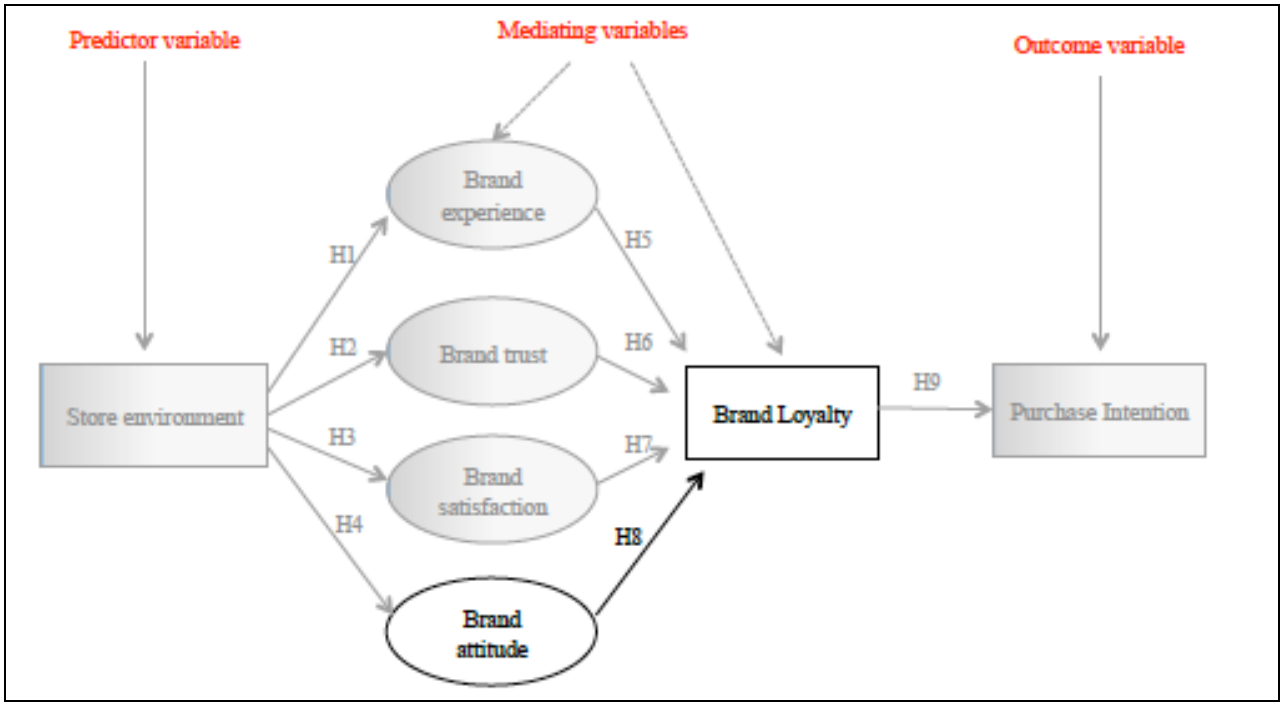
Brand attitude is also considered to be one of the determinants of brand loyalty. Liu et al. (2012) discussed the concept of self-congruity, which relates that it is a typical human compulsion for consumers tend to align their loyalty towards brands towards which they have positive attitudes. Nonetheless, it is important to examine the extent to which this relatationship holds across different settings. According to Cho and Burt (2015), previous literature has clearly established a strong relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty. Specifically, a strong positive brand attitude is considered to be necessary in order to establish brand loyalty from a consumer. Conversely, negative brand attitude tends to damage brand loyalty, and consumers who had previously been loyal to a brand may stop doing so if their attitude towards the brand changes (Cho & Burt, 2015). This is true in the context of luxury fashion branding, which was examined by So et al. (2013). According to So et al. (2013), consumers tend to develop emotional attachments to particular fashion brands, which keep them patronising the brand over time. Furthermore, several studies have explored brand attitude, and its influence on other variables across contexts, with with difference goals. Furthermore, Park, Leon and Sullivan (2013) conducted a longitudinal study that investigated the effect of visual merchandising cognition on brand preference, with a focus on fashion brands. By means of a mixed method approach, and an experimental design, the findings revealed that favourable attitudes toward visual merchandising directly transfer to favourable brand attitudes that are positively associated with purchase intentions. In a study that explored the relationship between e-satisfaction and loyalty, Taylor and Hunter (2014) explored the antecedents of satisfaction, brand attitude and loyalty within the business-to-business industry. They found that there is no direct relationship between e-satisfaction and loyalty, but that brand attitude mediates this relationship. Similar to such findings are those of Park et al. (2013), was found in a study that explored different co-branding types and their influence on consumers' attitude towards the brand alliance, attitude towards the

emotional brand, and the loyalty of the emotional brand (Xiao & Wan, 2011). Results indicated there to be significant interactions between co-branding types and identification on attitude towards the brand and loyalty. The present study therefore proposes there to be a positive relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty. In other words, customers with a positive attitude towards the brand are likely to portray loyalty towards the brand.

$H8_0$: There is no relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty

$H8_a$: There is a positive relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty

Figure 4.9: Brand Attitude Positively Influences Brand Loyalty



4.3.6 Brand Loyalty

The second last variable important to the present study is brand loyalty. Brand loyalty is considered by a majority of marketing managers as the most important metric for developing marketing strategies (Farris et al., 2010). Generating repeat business is the concern of any commercial organisation, and this is achieved through establishing brand loyalty among consumers. While there are many different strategies in nurturing brand loyalty, being able to do so successfully depends on a wide array of factors, including the type of product and its compatibility with the choice of strategy (Farris et al., 2010). As such, there is considerable

impetus for companies to conduct studies on factors the affect the development of strong brand loyalty (Farris et al., 2010). A number of studies have explored the importance of brand loyalty in relation to other variables, such as purchase intention, brand trust and brand attitude, to mention a few.

4.3.6.1 Brand Loyalty and Purchase Intention (Hypothesis 9)

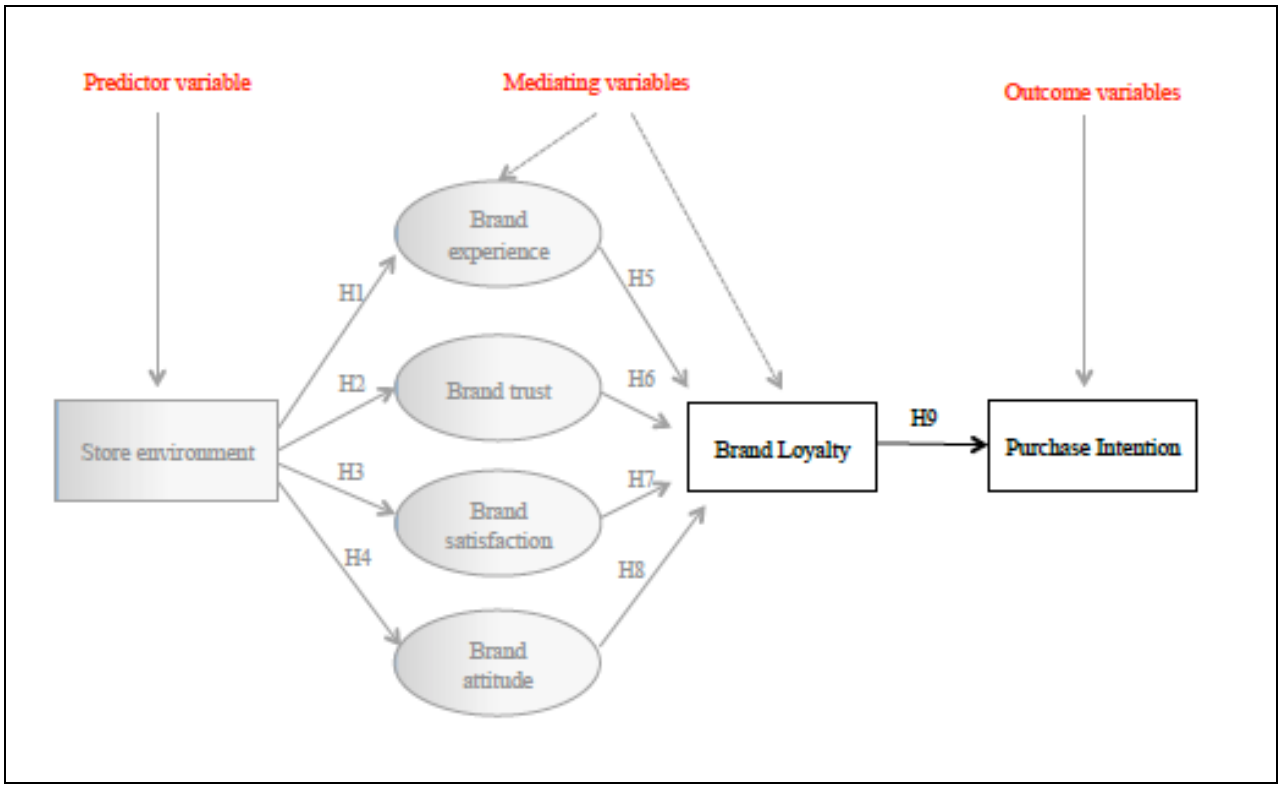
Several studies have explored the relationship between brand loyalty and purchase intention (Chi et al., 2009; Ercis, Unal, Candan & Yilirim, 2012; Malik et al., 2013; Jamil & Hoo, 2012), where the majority provides evidence that there is a positive relationship between these two variables. For example, in a study conducted Malik et al. (2013) found brand loyalty to be a predictor of purchase intention. That is, it is possible that a consumer's loyalty in a brand was developed through previous experience in purchasing bags, but that this loyalty spilled over to influence their purchase decisions involving shirts and other fashion items (Malik et al., 2013). Likewise Jamil & Hoo (2012) examined this relationship using a survey that covered 350 retail clothing consumers in Pakistan, and found that both awareness about a brand and loyalty towards it had significant impacts on purchase intention. Consumers were keen to recognise brands that they had purchased in the past when buying new clothes, even when the products that they purchased previously differed from the ones that they purchased during the study.

In Chi et al.'s (2009) study, it was also found that brand loyalty had a mediating effect between brand awareness and purchase intention. While it was found in the study that brand awareness contributed significantly to the likelihood of purchase intention, this was evidently the case only if the respondent had already developed a strong sense of loyalty towards the brand following awareness of it. Without loyalty, the strength of the relationship between awareness and purchase intention was found to be weaker. The present study therefore proposes brand loyalty to have a positive relationship with purchase intention, therefore indicating that brand loyal consumers are more likely to purchase a product in comparison to non-loyal customers. In light of this study, brand loyalty is regarded as both attitudinal and behaviourial. Thus implying that for the consumer to be regarded as loyal, actual repeat purchase is not neccesary, but rather the intention or favourable attitude towards purchase intention is neccesary.

$H9_0$: There is no relationship between brand loyalty and purchase intention.

$H9_a$: There is a positive relationship between brand loyalty and purchase intention.

Figure 4.10: Brand Loyalty Positively Influences Purchase Intention



4.3.7 Purchase Intention

The final variable, purchase intention, acts as the outcome variable for the present study. The execution of purchase intentions leads to actual item purchase and revenue generation for the company (Anderson et al., 2014). It is therefore important for companies to show an understanding of what factors influence consumers when developing purchase intentions. By knowing what factors shape consumers' purchase intentions, marketing managers may develop different aspects of their marketing strategy, such as how to price the product, where to place the product in a given setting, and so on. Certain products may have a greater tendency to be purchased from compulsion, such as confectionnaires or cigarettes, and so these products are placed near the cashier (Anderson et al., 2014). A number of studies have investigated purchase intention, and these tend to focus on the identification of factors that affect it. In a study conducted by Moore (2014), the results indicated that olfactory cues trigger customers

consideration in making a purchase. Furthermore, Yoo and Lee (2012) found that when consumers have bad experiences with purchasing counterfeit fashion brands, they tend to be more likely to purchase originals in the future. On the other hand, when experiences with fake and genuine clothes items are symmetrical, consumers tend to develop purchase intentions that are more in favour of counterfeit brands. Therefore, purchase intention appears to be possibly the most important outcome variable for retailers and managers.

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter provided an in-depth discussion of the proposed conceptual model and the hypotheses development. By means of a critical analysis of literature, the creation of the conceptual model was discussed by developing each of the nine proposed hypotheses. These discussions were supported by graphical depictions nad a thorough discussion of related literature. The next chapter details the research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter details the methodology used for the study in support of the proposed conceptual model, providing a discussion on the following: the research strategy, sampling method, data collection method, and the statistical modeling that is used for the purpose of the present study.

5.2 Research Strategy

In this section, the research philosophy and the research design is discussed, while a justification of the adopted methods is provided.

5.2.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to the way in which a researcher thinks about the development of knowledge. Research philosophy is divided into four groups, namely: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Furthermore, these four research philosophies can be grouped into three schools of thought, namely: ontology, epistemology, and methodology (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Positivism and post-positivism are generally regarded as deductive or quantitative research methods that are conducted by means of hypotheses testing (Cresswall, 2009). In some instances however, post-positivism may include qualitative research methodologies (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). The latter schools of thought are objective in nature, and are also based on laws of cause and effect. Critical theory and constructivist theory, on the other hand, are usually used for elaborating a theory, also referred to as an inductive, qualitative research method, and are related to methods of subjectivism and interpretivism (Hussey & Hussey, 1997).

Table 5.1: Research Philosophy Paradigms

Philosophical Assumption	Positivism	Post-positivism	Critical theory	Constructivism
Ontology	Native realism: real reality exists but is apprehendable. It is conventionally summed up in time and context-free generalisations, and is based on cause-effect laws.	Critical realism: real reality, but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable.	Historical realism: virtual reality shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and gender values; crystalised over time.	Relativism: local and specific constructed realities.
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivist; finding true	Modified dualist/objectivist; critical tradition/community; findings probable true	Transactional/subjective: value-mediated findings	Transactional/ subjectivist; created findings
Methodology	Experimental/manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative methods	Modified experimental/manipulative; critical multiplism	Dialogic/dialectical	Hermenueutical/dialectical

Source: Guba and Lincoln (1994)

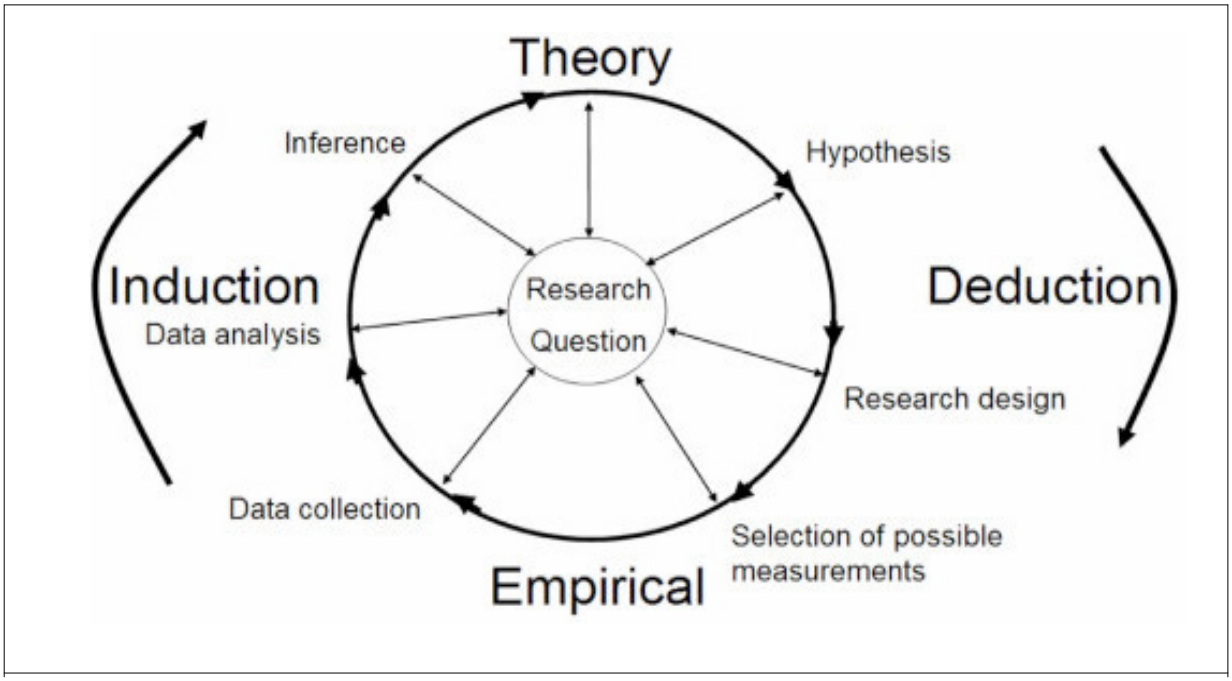
The study follows a positivism research philosophy, as it investigates the relationship between, and the exploration of the dependent and independent variables. The research started with a thorough investigation of related literature, followed by the development of a conceptual framework. From here, research hypotheses were developed to test the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. Furthermore, a quantitative research method was selected.

5.2.2 Research Design

When conducting research, a deductive or an inductive research approach can be used (Malhorta & Birks, 2012). Deductive research refers to the empirical investigation of conceptual and theoretical structures. This form of research *moves from the general to the particular*, since it tests hypotheses derived from theory (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). On the contrary, inductive research develops theory through the observation of empirical reality. Thus, inductive research *moves from the particular to the general,* as general inferences are deduced from reality

(Welman et al., 2005). Furthermore, studies that take an inductive research approach follow little or no existing theoretical framework (Malhorta & Birks, 2012). Figure 5.1 presents the difference in following a deductive versus inductive research process. An inductive research approach starts with the empirical research, from which theoretical inductions are made. It consists of the formulation of theory, based on the findings of the data collection. In contrast to an inductive approach, a deductive research approach focuses on testing existing theory through empirical research. The present study undertakes a deductive approach in which hypotheses that have been deduced from previous literature, are tested.

Figure 5.1: Deductive versus Inductive Research



Source: Malhorta & Birks (2012)

5.2.3 Quantitative and Qualitative Research

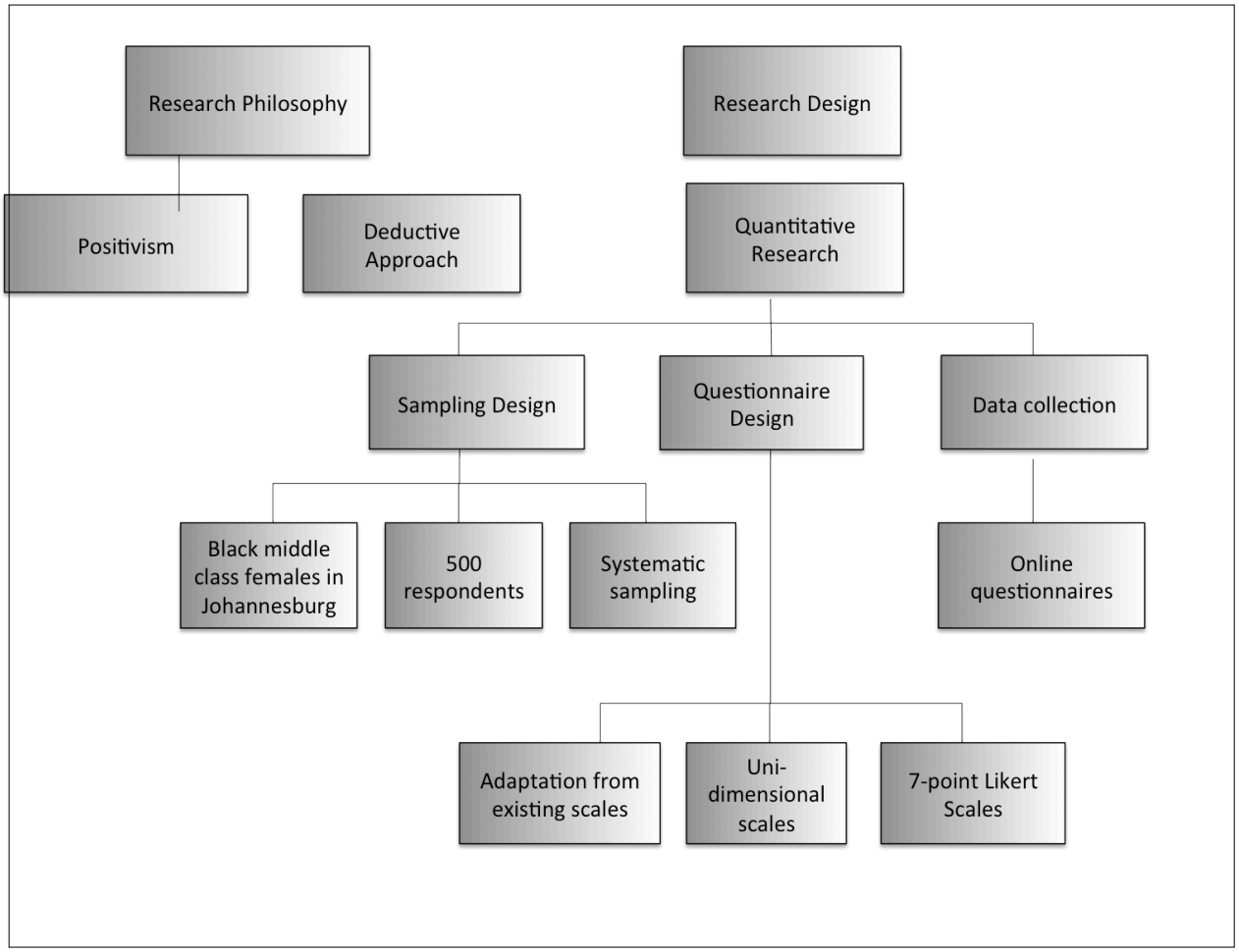
Quantitative research undertakes a deductive approach, which has a positivism epistemology, and usually deals with numerical data (Creswell, 2003). The most commonly used methods for explaining and predicting human behaviour are those of quantitative research (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Quantitative research can be statistically analysed, in order to explain social

phenomena and to test for causal relationships between construct. Therefore, quantitative research methods use statistics to explain the results and uses induction by developing hypotheses (Gilbert, 2001). There are several advantages and disadvantages to quantitative research, for example, it is far less time-consuming that qualitative research, and far more economical for a large number of participants. However, this approach is feasible, not for gaining a deep understanding of people and their behaviour and much more difficult to analyse (Amaratunga et al., 2002). A quantitative survey method is very effective for collecting information from large number of respondents, and is able to test individual behaviours (McDaniel & Gates, 2006).

5.2.4 Research Approach Adopted for this Study

The present study follows a positivist paradigm, as it intends to investigate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The research started with a review of related literature, followed by the conceptualisation of a model that was developed for the empirical investigation, after which the proposed hypotheses were tested. This study undertook a quantitative research method. For the purpose of this study, a deductive research approach was used to test theoretically formulated hypotheses. Pre-specified variables were measured, while respondents' answers were analysed in terms of the formulated hypotheses derived from existing theory. Therefore, the theory is tested by means of formulated hypotheses, through an empirical study, and statistical methods. One of the objectives of the current study is to test the relationship between store environment and a variety of variables, such as brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude, brand loyalty and purchase intention. This study is quantitative in nature, as a large sample of respondents is surveyed, where the numerical data will be analysed through the use of statistical methods. Furthermore, this study aims test the relationships between the dependent and independent variables, with the aim of identifying causal relationships. Figure 5.2 presents the research design that is adopted for the present study.

Figure 5.2: Research Design Adopted or this Study



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2015)

5.2.5 Rationale for Quantitative Research

The present research intends to examine the relationship between store environment and purchase intention, with brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty as mediating variables. The use of a quantitative research method is generally acknowledged to be one of the most commonly used in the business and social sciences research methodology. As discussed earlier, quantitative research holds several advantages. For example, it is far less time-consuming that qualitative research, and more economical for a large number of participants. Another advantage is that a quantitative survey method is highly effective for collecting information from large number of respondents, and is able to test individual behaviours (McDaniel & Gates, 2006).

5.3 Sampling Design

The sampling design is discussed under the following headings: an overview of the population of interest is provided, followed by the sampling selection and sample size rationale.

5.3.1 Population of Interest

The population of interest refers to the universe of units from which the sample is selected (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The 'unit' of measure does not necessarily refer to a sample of human beings, but could also refer to a sample of cities, nations, region, firms etc. It is generally agreed that sampling is a central element of research, and 'sample' refers to a subset of the population (Malhorta & Birks, 2012). For the purpose of this study, the population of interest is the black middle class in South Africa. The black middle class female is described as having a monthly household gross income of between R15,000 and R50,000. Furthermore, they have personal transportation, tertiary education, employment in a white-collar jobs, they own or rent a home for more than R4 000 per month in a city or town, and are 15 years or older (Unilever Institute of Strategic Marketing, 2013). For the purpose of this study, black middle class women were selected for participating in the study, as they spend more on clothing than do men (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Babin et al., 2003).

5.3.2 Sample Selection

There are two approaches to selecting a sample, namely: probability and non-probability sampling methods. Probability sampling refers to a sample that has been selected using random selection in order for each unit to have an equal chance of being selected (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The goal of probability sampling is to minimise the possible sampling errors and strengthen the validity of the results more so than non-probability sampling, however, this method is often more costly and time-consuming (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Sampling error refers to any type of bias that is attributed to mistakes made, in either the selection process, or in determining the sample size to ensure a representative sample (Lamb et al., 2000). For the purpose of this study, a non-probability, systematic sampling was used. Systematic sampling entails the selection of respondents from a reliable sampling frame, making use of a skip interval (Malhorta & Birks, 2012). The results are representative of the population, and were obtained using a simplistic sampling method, which allows the researcher to utilise a process or system into the selection of

subjects. Another advantage of this sampling method is the assurance that the population will be evenly sampled. (Hair et al, 2009). The subject selection for this study took the approach whereby every third subject will be selected from a reliable sampling frame of 1500 subjects. Thus, the sampling technique is not random, and representativeness of the sample is guaranteed. The database was carefully filtered prior to survey distribution so as to confirm that the respondents' profile matches those of the black middle class female. Links to online surveys will be emailed to the selected subjects. Generally, it is agreed on that some invited subjects do not participate in a survey, or do not respond in a proper way, thus creating a non-response bias (Armstrong & Overton, 1977), where it is often found that subjects respond more enthusiastically, and give more precise answers, when the study is of interest to them.

5.3.3 Sample Size

The sample size refers to the number of respondents who will be surveyed (Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, Terblanche, Elliott & Klopper, 2013). A larger sample are likely to yield more reliable data (Lamb, et al., 2013). For the purpose of the present study, 501 respondents were surveyed. The sample size was calculated using a number of factors, such as: 1) the size of the population of interest; 2) confidence level; 3) confidence interval; 4) time; and 5) costs. The most critical issues that influence the sample size decision are time, and cost (Bryman & Bell, 2003). From an estimate population of 3.4 million black middle class women in Johannesburg, an allowance of a 95% confidence level was allowed, using a 5% confidence interval. The researcher has estimated a sample size of at least 384. To decrease possible sampling errors, a sample of 500 participants was surveyed. The sample was drawn from an existing database, which consisted of participants who have agreed to be part of a research panel. As a result, the participants were carefully screened, mainly based on their demographics, to confirm that their profile matched the sample profile.

5.4 Data Collection Method

Data collection comprises of utilising field workers or interviewers to gather the data although market research firms can also be used to conduct the fieldwork (Lamb et al., 2013). Recent times have seen the growth of Internet usage for data collection and as a result, have provided marketers with increasing opportunities to conduct online research, which saves both time and

money. Although several studies outline the disadvantages of online surveys, they often fail to recognise the different types of Internet research. This study undertook an online survey method that was conducted among a panel of subjects, who were contacted for market research purposes. Another advantage is that online surveys allow for reaching large numbers of participants over a shorter timeframe (compared to face-to-face surveys) (Duffy, Smith, Terhanian and Brener, 2005). Furthermore, the use of online surveys allow for more visual, flexible and interactive research (Taylor, 2000), especially in comparison with telephone surveys. Online surveys do not require the interviewer to be present, thus eliminating the possibility for interviewer bias (Duffy et al., 2005). Concurrently, this reduces the costs of research significantly. However, online surveys hold limitations, mainly in the form of sampling issues. Firstly, researchers can only approach respondents who are online, with Internet access. Oftentimes, although this panel has agreed to participate in market research, accessing such a panel is challenging in comparison with face-to-face surveys, which are sampled from a reasonable, comprehensive database. Another disadvantage is that online respondents answer scales differently than is to be found in other modes of research (Duffy et al.), where they are more likely to choose midpoints and 'I don't know' answers. However, there are conflicting opinions about this, where the biggest disadvantage of online surveys has been found to be the low response rate (Terhanian, 2003). Despite the disadvantages associated with online surveys, this paper undertook an online surveys method, largely due to cost and time savings.

5.4.1 Ethical Considerations

Due to the nature of this research, which involves human participants, ethical clearance had to be obtained before commencement of the data collection. Therefore, a strict ethical procedure was followed to ensure the potential respondents of the following: participation is voluntary and respondents may withdraw from the study at any stage; the data is for research purposes only and will not be sold to a third party; all questionnaires are anonymous and participation will not expose the potential participants to any harm. The researcher followed the University of the Witwatersrand's ethics policy, and obtained ethical clearance prior to starting with the data collection.

5.4.2 The Measurement Instrument

The instrument was designed through a process of drawing from literature, in relation to the constructs being tested. Existing scales were adapted fro the purpose of this study. From here, online surveys were distributed to the participants. Furthermore, the instrument was piloted amongst a small group of sample respondents, to test for precision, and to gain further insight into any bias derived from interpretation of the survey instrument's data.

5.4.3 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was designed using online software to access an existing database of participants, who match the profile of the target population. The questionnaire consisted of 55 statements, divided into three sections. The first section addressed participant's favourite clothing store. The second section addressed the store where the participant spent most of her money, and the third section dealt with the participant's favourite brand. The same questions were asked across all three sections, by testing the variables that form part of the conceptual model, namely: 1) store environment; 2) brand experience; 3) brand trust; 4) brand satisfaction; 5) brand attitude; 6) brand loyalty; and 7) purchase intention. Respondents' demographics were captured using the following criteria: 1) gender; 2) marital status; 3) age; 4) highest academic level; 5) occupation; 6) household income; 7) average amount they spend on clothing per month. The questionnaire items were adapted to suit the present study. It is presented in Appendix 1.

5.4.4 Measurement Scales

In the present study used 7-point Likert scales. These scales are the most popular to use for testing perceptions, attitudes and behaviours (Miller & Brewer, 2003). In addition to this, Likert scales are popularly used in survey research, due to the wide range of answers that allow the participants to answer accurately.

5.4.4.1 Independent (Predictor) variable

An independent or predictor variable refers to a variable that is used to describe a given response variable, and usually used in conjunction with other variables. It is typically denoted by the letter χ, and such variables may often affect the relationships among other independent variable,s and/or the dependent variable. (Kleinbaum, Kupper, Nizam & Rosenberg, 2014)

a) Store Environment

Store environment was measured using Baker, Grerrel & Parasuraman's (1994) 7-item Likert scale. The dimensions were adapted to suit the context of the study, and the items were changed to a 7-point Likert scale. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree).

The following items were used to measure store environment.

Table 5.2: Store Environment Scale

The background music makes shopping in this store pleasant.
When shopping at this store, the background music bothers me.
The background music in this store is appropriate.
The colour scheme in this store is pleasing.
The colours used in this store appear to be currently fashionable.
The physical facilities in this store are attractive.
The merchandise in this store appears organised.
There are enough employees in this store to service customers.
The employees are well dressed and appear neat.
The employees are friendly.
The employees are helpful.

5.4.4.2 Mediating Variables

The aim of mediation analysis is to uncover causal pathways between variables that are often overlooked in the assessments of non-linear models (Pearl, 2011). Therefore, by exploring the effect of mediators on the direct effect between X and Y, contributes significantly to the quality of statistical analysis. This section provides an overview of the mediating variables that are used in the present study, namely: brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude and brand loyalty.

a) Brand Experience

Brand experience was measured using Sahin, Zehir & Kitapçi's (2011) 5-item Likert scale (1 – disagree completely to 5 – agree completely). However, the scale was amended to be a 7-item Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following items were used to measure store environment.

Table 5.3: Brand Experience Scale

I find this brand interesting in a sensory way.
This brand does not appeal to my senses.
This brand induces feelings and sentiments.
I do not have strong emotions for this brand.
This brand is an emotional brand.
I engage in physical actions and behaviours when I use this brand.
This brand results in bodily experiences.
This brand is not action-oriented.
I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand.
This brand does not make me think.
This brand stimulates my curiosity and problem solving.

b) Brand Trust

The scale of brand trust was adapted from He, Li & Harris' (2012) 5-item Likert scale (1 – disagree completely to 5 – agree completely). It was measured using the following items. For the present study, a 7-item Likert scale was used (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following items were used to measure brand trust.

Table 5.4: Brand Trust Scale

I trust this brand
I rely on this brand
This is an honest brand
This brand is safe

c) Brand Satisfaction

Brand satisfaction was measured by adapting Sahina, Zehir and Kitapçi's (2011) 5-item Likert scale, however, for the purpose of this study, the scale were adapted to be a 7-item Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following items were used to measure brand satisfaction.

Table 5.5: Brand Satisfaction Scale

I am very satisfied with the service provided by this brand.
I am very satisfied with this brand.
I am very happy with this brand.
This brand does a good job of satisfying my needs.
The service-products provided by this brand is very satisfactory.
I believe that using this brand is usually a very satisfying experience.
I made the right decision when I decided to use this brand.
I am addicted to this brand in some way.

d) Brand attitude

To measure brand attitude, Martinez and Chernatony's (2004) 5-item scale was used. For the purpose of this study, it was adapted to a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following dimensions were used to measure brand attitude.

Table 5.6: Brand Attitude Scale

I am strongly passionate about the brand.
The brand induces strong passion in me.
I long to acquire the brand.
I have experienced some sort of problems with the brand, but the problems are always overcome promptly.
This brand is reliable.

e) Brand loyalty

Brand loyalty was measure by adapting Yoon and Kim's (2000) Likert scale. For the present study this scale was amended to a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following dimensions were used to measure brand loyalty.

Table 5.7: Brand Loyalty Scale

I consider myself to be loyal to this brand.
When buying clothing, this would be my first choice of brand.
I will keep on buying this brand as it provides me with satisfying products.
I am willing to buy this brand even if its price is a little higher than that of its competitors.
I would recommend this brand to my friends.

5.4.4.3 Dependent (Outcome) Variable

The variable under investigation is described as the dependent or outcome variable and is depicted by the letter γ. This variable is described in terms of other variables, namely the independent or predictor variables (Kleinbaum et al., 2014). For the purpose of the present study, purchase intention acts as the dependent variable.

a) Purchase Intention

Shukla's (2011) purchase intention scale was used and adapted to suit this study. A 7-item Likert scale was used (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The following dimensions were used to measure purchase intention.

Table 5.8: Purchase Intention Scale

I am likely to return to this store.
It is likely that I would consider purchasing from this store in the next 3 months.
It is likely that I would consider purchasing from this store in the next year.
For any clothing purchase, I am likely to buy from this store.

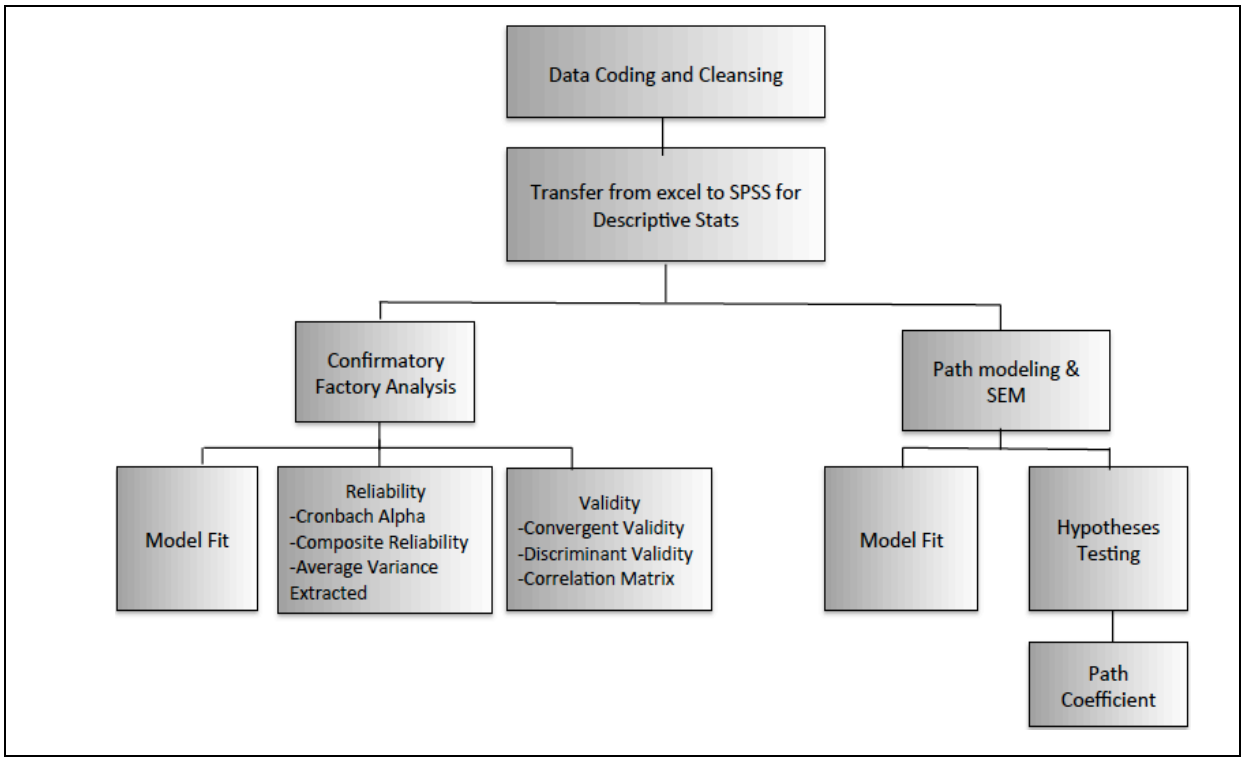
5.4.5 Pre-testing (Piloting) the Instrument

Once the survey was developed, a pilot study was conducted to pre-test the research instrument to confirm its sufficiency for the purpose of the present study. Bryman and Bell (2007) advises researchers to undertake pilot testing, especially in the case of self-administered questionnaires, in order to minimise errors by the respondents. The first step was for the questionnaire to be evaluated to access face validity. This was done by fellow senior academics, who specialises in marketing and branding. Thereafter, a pilot group of 30 respondents were randomly selected from the existing database of sample respondents so as to evaluate the item content, the clarity of the instructions, and the language and functionality of the survey. Although the questionnaire was well received, a few comments generated improvements in certain aspects of the questionnaire, such as the structure and certain amendments to wording, which caused slight bias among the respondents. Once these changes were implemented, a second pilot test study was conducted, by handing out ten revised questionnaires to fellow staff members for confirming eligibility of the amended research instrument. The results from the second pilot study confirmed sufficiency of the research instrument for achieving the research objectives.

5.5 Statistical Modelling

The following section provides an overview (Figure 5.3) of the statistical analysis that is applied to the present study.

Figure 5.3: Statistical Modeling



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2015)

5.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics deals with measure of different aspects of a population. A summary of the demographic profile of the sample, such as the age, gender, income, education, household income, clothing spending behaviour, payment method and favourite clothing will be presented in this study.

5.5.2 Measurement Model

The following section provides an overview of testing the measurement instrument for reliability and validity.

5.5.2.1 Cronbach Alpha Coefficient

The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient is used to test the reliability of the measurement instrument. Reliability of the instrument refers to the extent to which the scale produces consistent results when being re-used (Hair et al., 2009). Techniques that are used to test the reliability are retesting, and the equivalent form (Hair et al., 2009). The equivalent form is used for this study

to test scale reliability, and refers to creation of two similar, yet different, scale measurements for a given construct. There might be a slight difference in wording of the scales when it is given to the same sample of respondents. A Cronbach Alpha Coefficient is used to assess the reliability of the scales that are used in the questionnaire, with reliability confirmation of a value higher than 0.7 (Hair et al., 2009). However, Nunnally (1978) has stated that a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient is accepted when it lies between 0.5 and 0.6.

5.5.2.2 Composite Reliability

Internal reliability of the measurement instrument is evaluated by examining the Composite Reliability (CR) index. For the Composite Reliability to be accepted, the index should be greater than 0.7 (Hair et al., 2009). It is calculated by using the formula below:

$CR\eta = (\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 / [(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 + \Sigma\varepsilon_i]$,

This formula is understood in the following manner: Composite Reliability = (square of the summation of the factor loadings)/{(square of the summation of the factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}.

5.5.2.3 Average Value Extracted (AVE)

The Average Value Extracted (AVE) estimate reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators, as accounted for by the latent variable. It is ideal for the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to be greater than 0.4 (Fraering & Minor, 2006) for the construct to be considered reliable. To calculate the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), the standardised factor loading values in the CFA results are used. The formula below is used to calculate the Average Variance Extracted (AVE):

$V\eta=\Sigma\lambda yi2/(\Sigma\lambda yi2+\Sigma\varepsilon i)$

This formula is also explained in the following manner: AVE ={(summation of the squared of factor loadings)/{(summation of the squared of factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}.

5.5.2.4 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity indicates high correspondence between scores from two or more different measures of the same construct (Schwab, 2006). In other words, it explains the correlation

between scales in the same direction, with other measures of the same construct, and thus gives an indication of the validity of the construct (Schwab, 2006). It is recommended for the item loadings to be greater than 0.5 to indicate acceptable validity (Schwab, 2006).

5.5.2.5 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity occurs when the scores from measures of different constructs do not converge (Schwab, 2006). It therefore provides clarity on whether the measurement scores of a construct are unique (Schwab, 2006). In other words, it shows the heterogeneity between different constructs (Malhorta, 1996). An inter-construct correlation matrix is used to evaluate the presence of discriminant validity. To achieve high discriminant validity, values of less than 0.8 are sought (O'Rourke & Hatcher, 2013). This means the constructs are distinct.

5.5.2.6 Average Value Extracted (AVE) and Shared Value (SV)

Another measure for evaluating discriminant validity is observing whether the AVE value is greater than the highest shared variance (SV) value (Nusair & Hua, 2010). If the latter is found, the presence of discriminant validity is confirmed.

5.5.2.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Of critical importance is the validity of the research instrument. Validity refers to the degree to which the research instrument measures what it intends to measure, and a CFA is used to test for validity (Hair et al., 2000). To ensure validity, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed on each of the scales. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a technique commonly used to confirm *a priori* hypotheses of the relationship between measurement items and their respective factors (Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma, 2003). CFA is often used to test the presence of theory-based hypotheses. The reason why CFA was used for the purpose of this study is twofold: firstly, to ensure that the relationships between the observed variables and the latent variables met the unidimensionality assumption, and secondly, to check the standardised factor loadings. The standardised factor loading values should be more than 0.6 in order to show strong association.

5.5.3 Structural Equation Modelling and Path Modelling

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) has become a favoured technique for researchers across disciplines (Byrne, 2012). SEM is a multivariate statistical framework that is used for modelling complex relationships between directly and indirectly observed variables (Stein, Morris & Nock, 2012). It is further explained as a methodology that represents, estimate and test a theoretical network of mostly linear relations between variables (Rigdon, 1998). The main goals of SEM are to recognise the patterns of correlations among a set of variables, and to explain their variances with the specified model (Kline, 1998). Several aspects set it apart from older generations of multivariate procedures (Byrne, 2012). Firstly, it takes a confirmatory approach to the data analysis, rather than an exploratory approach. Secondly, in contrast to most other multivariate procedures that are incapable of assessing or correcting for measurement error, SEM provides explicit estimates of possible error variance parameters. Thirdly, SEM procedures can incorporate both unobserved and observed variables. Finally, there are no widely and easily applied alternative methods for modelling multivariate relations. Given such desirable characteristics, SEM has become a popular methodology for non-experimental research (Byrne, 2012).

5.5.4 Traditional Statistical Methods and Structural Equation Modelling

Although there is a vast amount of difference between traditional statistical methods and SEM, certain aspects remain similar (Suhr, 2014). Firstly, methods like correlations, regression and analysis of variance are similar, and secondly, both traditional methods and SEM focuses on linear statistical models. Another similarity is that both models require that certain methods be met, although traditional methods assume normal distribution, and SEM assumes multivariate normality. Lastly, neither of these methods offers a test of causality. There are several differences between these two approaches. Firstly, SEM offers a flexible and comprehensive method for investigating economic trends, family and peer dynamics, self-concept and other psychological phenomenon. The second difference is that traditional methods specify a default model, whereas SEM requires formal specification of a model to be estimated (Suhr, 2014). Thirdly, SEM is a multivariate technique that measures both observed and unobserved (latent) variables. Another difference is that SEM explicitly specifies error, while traditional methods assume measurement without error. The fifth difference is that SEM evaluates model fit by

examining several tests (e.g. Chi-square, CFI, NNFI and RMSEA). Lastly, SEM resolves multi-colinearity problems, whereas traditional methods do not allow for detecting latent variables. (Suhr, 2014).

5.5.4.1 Chi-square

The chi-square is used for evaluating the overall model fit and to "assess the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariances matrices" (Hu & Bentler, 1999: 2). A good model fit would imply an insignificant result at a 0.05 threshold (Barrett, 2007). Although the chi-square retains its popularity as a fit statistic, there are a number of limitations to its use. Firstly, this test assumes multivariate normality and extreme deviation from normality may result in model rejection even though the model is properly specified (Mcintosh, 2006). Secondly, the Chi-square test is sensitive to sample size, and often rejects the model with large sample sizes (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980; Joreskog & Sorbon, 1993). Due to the restrictions of the Chi-square model, researchers have sought alternative indices to assess model fit, for example, Wheaton, Muthen, Alwin & Summers' (1977) normed chi-square test. For Wheateon et al.'s (1977) test, acceptable ratios for this statistic range from as high as 5.0 to as low as 2.0 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). For the purpose of this study, a Chi-square of <3 indicates a good model fit.

5.5.4.2 Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990) is a revised version of the NFI, and an advantage of this statistic, in comparison to the Chi-square, is that is takes sample size into account (Byrne, 1998). Like the NFI, this statistic assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated, and compares the sample covariance matrix with this null model. An acceptable statistic for this test ranges between 0.0 and 1.0 with values closer to 1.0 indicating a good fit. Although in the past, the cut-off criterion was > 0.90, recent studies have shown that a value of greater than 0.9 is required to ensure that models that fit poorly are not accepted (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Today, this index is often used in all SEM studies, and one of the most important fit indices, due to the advantage of considering sample sizes (Fan, Thompson & Wang, 1999). For the purpose of this study, an acceptable CFI statistic is a value of greater than 0.9.

5.5.4.3 Goodness of fit Index (GFI)

Originally created by Joreskog & Sorbom (1993) as an alternative to the Chi-square test, the Goodness-of-fit (GFI) calculates the variance that is accounted for by the estimated population covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). By looking at the variances and covariances, this statistic indicates how closely the model comes to replicating the observed covariance matrix (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). This statistic ranges from 0 to 1, and when there are a large numbers of degrees of freedom in comparison to the sample size, the GFI tends to have a downward bias with small sizes (Sharma, Mukherjee, Kumar, and Dillon, 2005), and an upward bias with large sample sizes (Bollen, 1990; Miles & Shevlin, 1998). For the purpose of this study, a value of greater than 0.9 will be accepted to indicate a good model fit.

5.5.4.4 Incremental Fit Index (IFI)

Incremental Fit Indexes are also known as Comparative Fit Indexes (Miles and Shevlin, 2007) and compare the Chi-square value to the baseline model, rather than using the Chi-square in it's raw form. For these models, the null hypothesis is that all variables are uncorrelated (McDonald and Ho, 2002).

5.5.4.5 Normed Fit Index (NFI)

The Normed Fit Index (NFO) assesses the model by comparing the x^2 value of the model with the x^2 of the null model. Values for this statistic ranges between 0 and 1 (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980), with values bigger that 0.9 indicating a good fit. A drawback of this index is that it is sensitive to sample size (Mulaik, James, Van Alstine, Bennet, Lind, & Stilwell, C.D, 1989; Bentler, 1990). This problem is overcome by using the Tucker-Lewis Index.

5.5.4.6 Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)

Although the Tucker-Lewis Index rectified the problem of sample size sensitivity, the NFI should not be solely relied upon (Kline, 2005). The Tucker-Lewis Index, however, proposes a concern in that when small samples are used, the value of this index can indicate a poor fit, despite other statistics pointing towards a good fit (Bentler, 1990; Kline, 2005; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

5.5.4.7 Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

The RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) relates to the residual in the model (Suhr, 2014). RMSEA values range from 0 to 1, with a smaller RMSEA indicating better model fit. A value of 0.6 and higher is considered to be an acceptable model fit. Once an acceptable model fit is established, the parameter estimates are examined. The ratio of the parameter estimate to its standard error is presented as a z-statistic and is regarded as significant if the value exceeds 1.96 at a 0.05 level of significance. At a significance level of 0.01, the value should exceed 2.56 (Suhr, 2014). If the model fit is unacceptable, the model could be revised and modified. When the latter occurs, the researcher can either free parameters that were fixed, or fix parameters that were free (Suhr, 2014). However, an acceptable model fit is desired.

5.5.4.8 Chi-square (CMIN)

The Chi-square test is also called the discrepancy function, but in AMOS, it is referred to as the CMIN. When analysing the Chi-square, this test indicates whether the model is significant or insignificant. If the Chi-square is significant, the model is regarded as acceptable. The criterion for acceptable model fit varies across researchers, ranging from less than two (Ullman, 2001) to less than five (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter presented the methodology used to collect the data. Firstly, an explanation of the philosophical approach used for the study was discussed. This was followed by discussion of the theory underlying the research design, as well as the methodology adopted for this study. A comprehensive justification and rationale for the chosen method was discussed. This was followed by the sampling design, and the measurement instrument development that provided an overview of the scales that were adapted for the purpose of the present study. Lastly, the statistical analysis that was applied to the study was presented, followed by description of the ethical considerations. The next chapter presents the data analysis, and findings from the study.

CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the statistical analysis and results obtained from the data collected on how store environment influences purchase intention of fashion products among women from the black middle class in Johannesburg. An overview is given of the descriptive statistics, an analysis of the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments is made, an overview of the model fit is provided, and lastly, a path modeling analysis is conducted and presented.

6.2 Descriptive Statistics

This section provides an overview of the demographic profile of the respondents. Firstly, a discussion of their age, education, income and occupation are presented, followed by an overview of their favourite clothing store, most commonly used method of payment, and the average amount that they spend on clothing per month.

6.2.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

In terms of the demographic profile of the respondents, the following factors are considered: race, gender, geographic location, age, education and occupation.

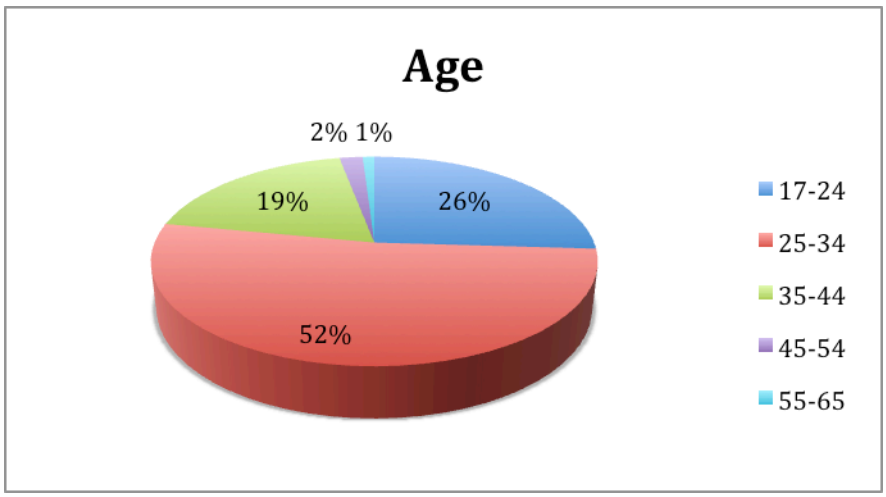
6.1.1 Race, Gender and Geographic Profile

Considering that the aim of the study is to investigate the buying behaviour of the women belonging to the black middle class in Johannesburg, the respondents were pre-selected based on these criteria. In other words, race, gender and geographic location are consistent among the 501 respondents.

6.2.1.2 Age

Figure 6.1 presents the age groups among the sample of respondents, followed by a discussion thereof.

Figure 6.1: Age Profile

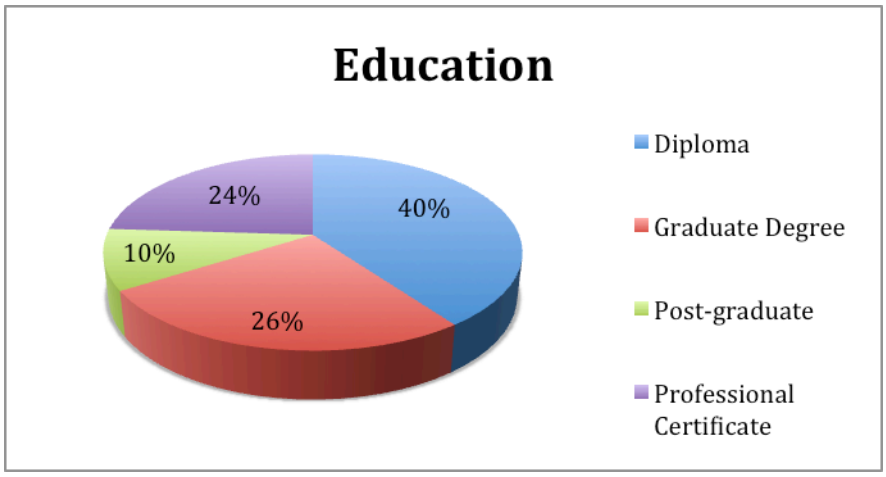


Fifty two percent of the respondents are between the ages of 25 and 34, with 26% between 17 and 24, and 22% being older than 34 years of age.

6.2.1.3 Education

The education profile of respondents is presented in Figure 6.2 and is followed by a discussion.

Figure 6.2: Education Profile



In terms of education, the profile indicates that the majority of the respondents (40%) are educated on a diploma level, while 26% and 24% respectively either have a graduate degree, or professional certificate. The remainder, which accounts for 10% of participants, has a post-graduate degree.

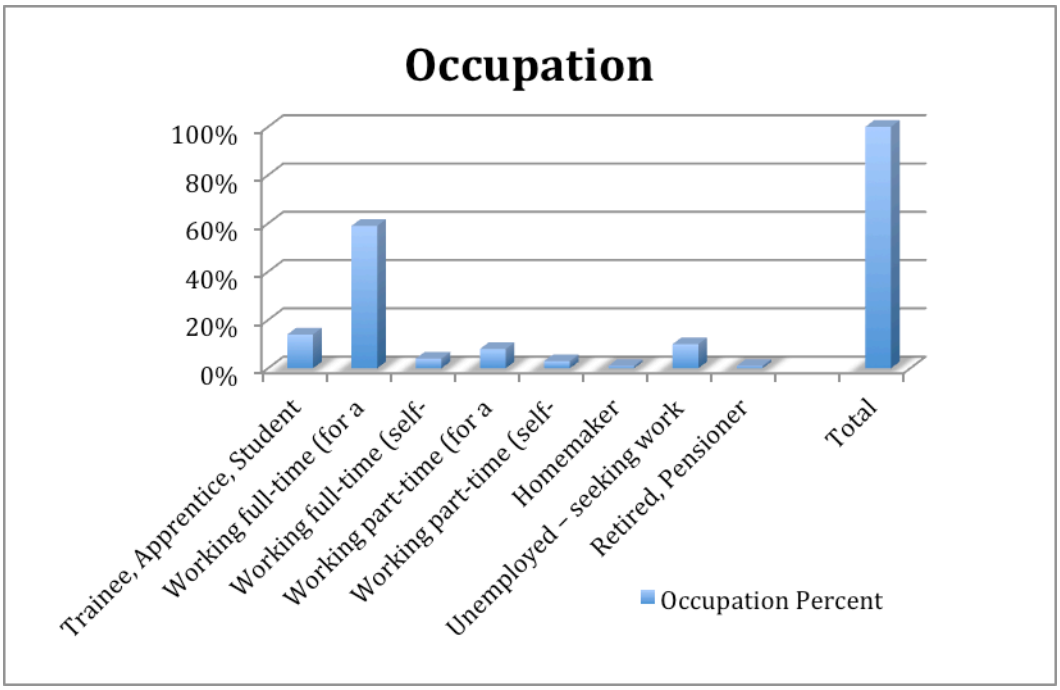
6.2.1.4 Income

The respondents' income profile indicated that 53% has a monthly household income of between R8,001 and R40,000, with 19% earning less than R8,000 per month, and 14% earning above R40,000. More specifically, from the portion of respondents earning between R8,001 and R40,000, three relatively equal clusters are evident, with incomes ranging between R8,001 to R16,000 (21%), followed by R16,001 to R25,000 (16%), and 16% earning between R25,001 and R40,000.

6.2.1.5 Occupation

The results of the respondents' occupation profile are presented in Figure 6.3, followed by a discussion thereof.

Figure 6.3: Occupation Profile



Almost 60% are employed full-time and working for a company. Fourteen percent of the respondents are students or trainees, while 10% are seeking employment. The remainder, which accounts for a relatively small proportion of the participants, either works part-time or is self-employed.

6.2.2 Demographic Profile Summary

Table 6.1 presents the profile of the participants. The profile indicates that the majority of the respondents (40%) are educated on a diploma level, while 26% and 24% respectively either have a graduate degree of professional certificate. The remainder, which accounts for 10%, have a post-graduate degree. Fifty-two percent of the respondents are between the ages of 25 and 34, with 26% between 17 and 24, and 22% being older than 34 years of age.

The analysis further indicates that 53% have a monthly household income of between R8,001 and R40,000, with 19% earning less than R8,000 per month, and 14% earning above R40,000. More specifically, from the portion of respondents earning between R8,001 and R40,000, three relatively equal clusters are evident, with incomes ranging between R8,001 and R16,000 (21%), followed by those between R16,001 and R25 000 (16%), with 16% earning between R25,001 and R40,000.

In terms of occupation, almost 60% are full-time employed and working for a company. Fourteen percent of the respondents are students or trainees, while 10% are seeking employment. The remainder, which accounts for a relatively small portion, either works part-time or is self-employed.

Table 6.1: Sample Demographic Characteristics

Education			Age		
	Frequency	**Percent**		**Frequency**	**Percent**
Diploma	193	40%	17-24	130	26%
Graduate Degree	129	26%	25-34	261	52%
Post-graduate	50	10%	35-44	95	19%
Professional Certificate	131	24%	45-54	10	2%
Total	501	100,0	55-65	5	1%
Income			**Occupation**		
	Frequency	**Percent**		**Frequency**	**Percent**
R1 - R4,000	56	11%	Trainee, Apprentice, Student	68	14%
R4,001-R8,000	40	8%	Working full-time (for a company)	296	59%
R8,001-R16,000	105	21%	Working full-time (self-employed)	22	4%
R16,001-R25,000	81	16%	Working part-time (for a company)	39	8%
R25,001-R40,000	79	16%	Working part-time (self-employed)	12	3%
R40,001-R60,000	45	9%	Homemaker	6	1%
R60,001-R100,000	17	3%	Unemployed – seeking work	52	10%
>R100,001	11	2%	Retired, Pensioner	6	1%
Prefer not to answer	67	14%			
Total	501	100,0	Total	501	100,0

6.2.3 Average Spend on Clothing per Month

Fifty three percent indicated that they spend less than R1000 per month on clothing, with 32% spending between R1,001 and R2,000 on clothing per month. The remaining 15% spend more than R2,000 per month on clothing. From the 501 respondents, 42% use a debit card when shopping, followed by 30% that uses cash, and the remaining 28% either uses a credit card, or a store card.

6.2.4 Favourite Clothing Store

From the research conducted among the 501 respondents, an overview of their favourite clothing store is presented in this section. From the findings (Figure 6.1) it is evident that the majority of respondents' favourite clothing store is Woolworths (44%). The two other stores that followed on from Woolworths were Forever New (5%), and Zara (5%). Twenty-two percent of the respondents indicated 'other', which included Edgars, Truworths and Mr. Price.

6.3 Measurement Instrument Assessment

The constructs under study in this research paper, namely store environment, brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude, brand loyalty and purchase intention, were all measured. In this section, the results of the reliability and validity of the measurement instrument are analysed, justified and discussed. These results are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Accuracy Analysis Statistics

Research Construct		Descriptive Statistics				Cronbach's Test		C.R. Value	AVE Value	Highest Shared Vari-ance	Factor Load-ing
		Mean Value		Standard Deviation		Item-total	a value				
STE	STE1	5,447	4,955	1,32	1,465	0,507	0,813	0,890	0,511	0,420	0,779
	STE2	5,297		1,30		0,511					0,743
	STE4	4,912		1,45		0,572					0,780
	STE6	5,044		1,45		0,597					0,837
	STE7	4,491		1,64		0,533					0,465
	STE8	4,848		1,474		0,631					0,726
	STE10	4,784		1,580		0,513					0,497
	STE11	4,812		1,514		0,582					0,793
BE	BE1	5,525	5,752	1,270	1,244	0,664	0,888	0,927	0,563	0,585	0,690
	BE3	5,653		1,226		0,626					0,657
	BE4	5,812		1,227		0,729					0,795
	BE5	5,908		1,145		0,698					0,732
	BE6	5,802		1,189		0,773					0,836
	BE7	6,006		1,201		0,724					0,819
	BE8	5,533		1,427		0,664					0,659
	BE9	5,916		1,173		0,746					0,800
	BE10	5,659		1,289		0,757					0,723
	BE11	5,711		1,295		0,763					0,764
BT	BT1	6,112	5,969	1,050	1,160	0,834	0,887	0,898	0,747	0,514	0,919
	BT2	5,780		1,291		0,708					0,755
	BT3	6,014		1,137		0,819					0,909
BS	BS1	6,020	5,967	1,112	1,133	0,820	0,938	0,953	0,720	0,651	0,858
	BS2	6,074		1,062		0,867					0,906
	BS3	6,044		1,052		0,876					0,901
	BS4	6,022		1,055		0,841					0,857
	BS5	6,136		0,989		0,782					0,816
	BS6	5,998		1,098		0,863					0,897
	BS7	6,106		1,039		0,859					0,906
	BS8	5,333		1,656		0,554					0,607
BA	BA1	5,507	5,261	1,372	1,472	0,742	0,795	0,846	0,549	0,557	0,891
	BA2	5,281		1,424		0,723					0,869
	BA3	5,052		1,504		0,710					0,730
	BA4	4,501		1,921		0,297					0,269
	BA5	5,964		1,141		0,566					0,768
BL	BL1	5,711	5,764	1,281	1,283	0,778	0,874	0,894	0,631	0,651	0,792
	BL2	5,663		1,322		0,755					0,755
	BL3	6,110		1,017		0,779					0,880
	BL4	5,170		1,739		0,603					0,676
	BL5	6,168		1,054		0,742					0,852
PI1	PI1	6,222	6,069	1,105	1,233	0,796	0,898	0,907	0,710	0,319	0,838
	PI2	6,076		1,256		0,850					0,886
	PI3	6,092		1,284		0,786					0,871
	PI4	5,888		1,287		0,677					0,772

STE-Store Environment; BE-Brand Experience; BT-Brand Trust; BS-Brand Satisfaction; BA-Brand Attitude; BL-Brand Loyalty; PI-Purchase Intention

6.3.1 Testing for Reliability

The measurement instrument reliability is evaluated by examining the Cronbach alpha coefficient, the composite reliability (CR), and the average value extracted (AVE). The following section provides an overview of the results from these three tests.

6.3.1.1 Cronbach Coefficient Alpha

The standardised Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to confirm the reliability for each of the variables in the measurement instrument. A general rule is for the Cronbach Alpha to be bigger than 0.7 to be regarded as a reliable (Hair et al., 2009). From the results, it is evident that all the variables indicate satisfactory levels of reliability. In fact, the lowest Cronbach coefficient was detected to be 0.795 (BA), while the remaining values are between 0.813 and 0.938. This means that the all the Cronbach's Alpha exceeded the recommended threshold of 0.7, confirming that the measures used in this study are reliable. Appendix 2 presents the results of the cronbach coeficient alpha values.

6.3.1.2 Composite Reliability (CR)

Following the analysis of the Cronbach alpha coefficient, internal reliability was also evaluated using the Composite Reliability (CR) index. By means of the following formula, $CR\eta = (\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 / [(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 + \Sigma\varepsilon_i]$, the Composite Reliability was calculated and tabulated in Table 6.3. For the Composite Reliability to be accepted, the index should be greater than 0.7 (Hair, et al., 2009). The results in Table 6.3 indicate that the CR indexes were between 0.846 and 0.953, thereby exceeding the estimate criteria used in literature. A manual calculation for the estimating the Composite Reliability (CR) was also conducted and the results are presented below Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Composite Reliability Estimates

				Composite reliability (CR)			
					summation of error terms		
				$(\sum\lambda Yi)^2$	$\acute{\varepsilon}i$	$\sum\acute{\varepsilon}i$	CR
STE1	<---	STE	0,779	31,584	0,393	3,913	0,890
STE2	<---	STE	0,743		0,448		
STE4	<---	STE	0,780		0,392		
STE6	<---	STE	0,837		0,299		
STE7	<---	STE	0,465		0,784		
STE8	<---	STE	0,726		0,473		
STE10	<---	STE	0,497		0,753		
STE11	<---	STE	0,793		0,371		
BE1	<---	BE	0,690	55,876	0,524	4,374	0,927
BE3	<---	BE	0,657		0,568		
BE4	<---	BE	0,795		0,368		
BE5	<---	BE	0,732		0,464		
BE6	<---	BE	0,836		0,301		
BE7	<---	BE	0,819		0,329		
BE8	<---	BE	0,659		0,566		
BE9	<---	BE	0,800		0,360		
BE10	<---	BE	0,723		0,477		
BE11	<---	BE	0,764		0,416		
BT1	<---	BT	0,919	6,672	0,155	0,759	0,898
BT2	<---	BT	0,755		0,430		
BT3	<---	BT	0,909		0,174		
BS1	<---	BS	0,858	45,536	0,264	2,237	0,953
BS2	<---	BS	0,906		0,179		
BS3	<---	BS	0,901		0,188		
BS4	<---	BS	0,857		0,266		
BS5	<---	BS	0,816		0,334		
BS6	<---	BS	0,897		0,195		
BS7	<---	BS	0,906		0,179		
BS8	<---	BS	0,607		0,632		
BA1	<---	BA	0,891	12,440	0,206	2,256	0,846
BA2	<---	BA	0,869		0,245		
BA3	<---	BA	0,730		0,467		
BA4	<---	BA	0,269		0,928		
BA5	<---	BA	0,768		0,410		
BL1	<---	BL	0,792	15,642	0,373	1,845	0,894
BL2	<---	BL	0,755		0,430		
BL3	<---	BL	0,880		0,226		
BL4	<---	BL	0,676		0,543		
BL5	<---	BL	0,852		0,274		
PI1	<---	PI	0,838	11,337	0,298	1,158	0,907
PI2	<---	PI	0,886		0,215		
PI3	<---	PI	0,871		0,241		
PI4	<---	PI	0,772		0,404		

a) Store Environment

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0{,}779 + 0.743+0.780+0.837+0.465+0.726+0.497+0.793)^2 = 31.584$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.779^2)+(1-0.743^2)+(1-0.780^2)+(1-0.837^2)+(1-0.465^2)+(1-0.726^2)+(1-0.497^2)+(1-0.793^2)= 3.912$

CR = 31.584/(31.584+3.912) = 0.890

b) Brand Experience

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.690+0.657+0.795+0.732+0.836+0.819+0.659+0.800+0.723+0.764)^2 = 55.876$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.690^2)+(1-0.657^2)+(1-0.795^2)+(1-0.732^2)+(1-0.836^2)+(1-0.819^2)+(1-0.659^2)+(1-0.800^2)+(1-0.723^2)+(1-0.764^2)] = 4.374$

CR = 55.876/(55.876+4.374) = 0.927

c) Brand Trust

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.919+0.755+0.909)^2 = 6.671$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.919^2)+(1-0.755^2)+(1-0.909^2) = 0.759$

CR = 6.671/(6.671+0.759) = 0.898

d) Brand Satisfaction

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.858+0.906+0.901+0.857+0.816+0.897+0.906+0.607)^2 = 45.536$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.858^2)+(1-0.906^2)+(1-0.901^2)+(1-0.857^2)+(1-0.816^2)+(1-0.897^2)+(1-0.906^2)+(1-0.607^2)= 2.237$

CR = 45.536/(45.536 + 2.237) = 0.953

e) Brand Attitude

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.891+0.869+0.730+0.269+0.768)^2 = 12.440$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.891^2)+(1-0.869^2)+(1-0.730^2)+(1-0.269^2) +(1-0.768^2)] = 2.256$

CR = 12.440/(12.440+2.256) = 0.846

f) Brand Loyalty

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.792+0.755+0.880+0.676+0.852)^2 = 15.642$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.792^2)+(1-0.755^2)+(1-0.880^2)+(1-0.676^2)+(1-0.852^2)] = 1.845$

CR = 15.642/(15.642 + 1.845) = 0.894

g) Purchase Intention

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.838+0.886+0.871+0.772)^2 = 11.337$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.838^2)+(1-0.886^2)+(1-0.871^2)+(1-0.772^2)] = 1.159$

CR = 11.337/(11.337 + 1.159) = 0.907

6.3.1.3 Average Value Extracted (AVE)

The Average Value Extracted (AVE) estimate reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators as accounted for by the latent variable. It is ideal for the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to be greater than 0.5 (Nusair & Hua, 2010). To calculate the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), the standardised factor loading values in the CFA results are used. It is desired that the calculated value is greater than 0.4 (Fraering & Minor, 2006) for the construct to be considered reliable. Table 6.1 (above) indicates that the AVE for all the variables is between 0.511 and 0.747, providing evidence for acceptable levels of scale reliability. This section presents the manual calculation of the AVE for each variable by using the following formula: $AVE = \Sigma\gamma y_i^2 / [\Sigma\gamma y_i^2 + \Sigma\varepsilon_i]$.

a) Store Environment

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.779^2+0.743^2+0.780^2+0.837^2+0.465^2+0.726^2+0.497^2+0.793^2) = 4.087$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.779^2)+(1-0.743^2)+(1-0.780^2)+(1-0.837^2)+(1-0.465^2)+(1-0.726^2)+(1-0.497^2)+(1-0.793^2)] = 3.912$

CR = 4.087/(4.087+3.912) = 0.511

b) Brand Experience

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.690^2+0.657^2+0.795^2+0.732^2+0.836^2+0.819^2+0.659^2+0.800^2+0.723^2+0.764^2) = 5.630$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.690^2)+(1-0.657^2)+(1-0.795^2)+(1-0.732^2)+(1-0.836^2)+(1-0.819^2)+(1-0.659^2)+(1-0.800^2)+(1-0.723^2)+(1-0.764^2)] = 4.374$

CR = 5.630/(4.374+5.630+) = 0.563

c) Brand Trust

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.910^2+0.755^2+0.909^2) = 2.224$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.910^2)+(1-0.755^2)+(1-0.909^2)] = 0.776$

CR = 2.224/(2.224+0.776) = 0.747

d) Brand Satisfaction

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.858^2+0.906^2+0.901^2+0.857^2+0.816^2+0.897^2+0.906^2 +0.607^2)= 5.763$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.858^2)+(1-0.906^2)+(1-0.901^2)+(1-0.857^2)+(1-0.816^2)+(1-0.897^2)+(1-0.906^2) +(1-0.607^2)] = 2.237$

CR = 5.763/(5.763+2.237) = 0.720

e) Brand Attitude

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.891^2+0.869^2+0.730^2+0.269^2+0.768^2) = 2.463$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.891^2)+(1-0.869^2)+(1-0.730^2)+(1-0.629^2)+(1-0,768^2) = 1.933$

CR = 2.463/(2.463+1.933) = 0.549

f) Brand Loyalty

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.792^2+0.755^2+0.880^2+0.676^2+0.852^2) = 3.155$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.792^2)+(1-0.755^2)+(1-0.880^2)+(1-0.676^2)+(1-0.852^2)] = 1.845$

CR = 3.155/(3.155+1.845) = 0.631

g) Purchase Intention

$(\Sigma\gamma y_i)^2 = (0.838^2+0.886^2+0.871^2+0.772^2) = 2.841$

$\Sigma\varepsilon_i = [(1-0.838^2)+(1-0.886^2)+(1-0.871^2)+(1-0.772^2)] = 1.158$

$CR = 2.841/(2.841+1.158) = 0.710$

In summary, the construct reliabilities and the average variance extracted estimates imply that the scales are internally consistent.

6.3.2 Testing for Validity

Validity of the instrument was tested using the following measures: the factor loadings, a correlation matrix, and the Average Value Extracted (AVE) and Shared Value (SV).

6.3.2.1 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which two different measures capture the same construct (Carlson & Herdman, 2012; Schwab, 2006). Weaker convergent validity is signaled by values deviating from 1, therefore highlighting possible problems in the correspondence of the two measurement constructs (Carlson & Herdman, 2012). It is recommend for this value to be greater than 0.5 (Schwab, 2006). Table 6.4 (below) presents the results for the factor loading estimates.

Table 6.4: Factor Loading Estimates

Research Construct		Factor Loading
STE	STE1	0,779
	STE2	0,743
	STE4	0,780
	STE6	0,837
	STE7	0,465
	STE8	0,726
	STE10	0,497
	STE11	0,793
BE1	BE1	0,690
	BE3	0,657
	BE4	0,795
	BE5	0,732
	BE6	0,836
	BE7	0,819
	BE8	0,659
	BE9	0,800
	BE10	0,723
	BE11	0,764
BT	BT1	0,919
	BT2	0,755
	BT3	0,909
BS	BS1	0,858
	BS2	0,906
	BS3	0,901
	BS4	0,857
	BS5	0,816
	BS6	0,897
	BS7	0,906
	BS8	0,607
BA	BA1	0,891
	BA2	0,869
	BA3	0,730
	BA4	0,269
	BA5	0,768
BL	BL1	0,792
	BL2	0,755
	BL3	0,880
	BL4	0,676
	BL5	0,852
PI1	PI1	0,838
	PI2	0,886
	PI3	0,871
	PI4	0,772

From Table 6.4 it is evident that the majority of the items had loadings exceeding the minimum threshold of 0.5. In fact, the majority of the loadings ranged between 0.5 and 0.9, with only three item loadings below 0.5. This indicates acceptable individual item convergent validity, with more than 50 percent of each item's variance being shared with its respective variable. This evidence supports the convergent validity of all the scale items.

6.3.2.2 Discriminant Validity

Correlation Matrix

The inter-construct correlation matrix is used to determine how distinct and less similar the constructs are from one another. This distinction indicates discriminant validity. To achieve high discriminant validity, values that deviate from 1 are aimed for (O'Rourke & Hatcher, 2013; Chinomona, Lin, Wang & Cheng, 2010). The results of the correlation matrix are presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Correlations Matrix

	BE	STE	BT	BS	BA	BL	PI
BE	1						
STE	0,570	1					
BT	0,677	0,472	1				
BS	0,765	0,578	0,790	1			
BA	0,607	0,648	0,672	0,712	1		
BL	0,652	0,544	0,717	0,807	0,746	1	
PI	0,433	0,346	0,500	0,565	0,499	0,569	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results in Table 6.5 indicate that all the inter-correlation values are less than 0.08, indicating evidence of discriminant validity. Although one correlation indicates lower levels of discriminant validity (BL and BS), it is accepted at 0.807. Upon closer examination of the correlations in Table 6.4, the highest distinction between two constructs (shown by the lowest values, weak linear relationship) is between store environment and purchase intention (0.346), and brand attitude and purchase intention (0.499). This indicates a weak linear relationship, as well as that

the constructs are very different from one another. It can therefore be concluded that all the correlations are significant.

Average Value Extracted (AVE) and Shared Value (SV)

Following the analysis of the inter-correlation values, discriminant validity was further examined by ascertaining whether the AVE value is greater than the highest shared variance (SV) value (Nusair & Hua, 2010). It is ideal for the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) to be greater than 0.4 (Fraering & Minor, 2006) for the construct to be considered reliable. Table 6.6 below presents the shared variance values.

Table 6.6: Highest Shared Variance

	BE	**STE**	**BT**	**BS**	**BA**	**BL**	**PI**
BE	1						
STE	0,328	1					
BT	0,458	0,223	1				
BS	0,585	0,334	0,624	1			
BA	0,368	0,420	0,452	0,507	1		
BL	0,425	0,296	0,514	0,651	0,557	1	
PI	0,187	0,120	0,250	0,319	0,249	0,324	1

In Table 6.7 (below), the results of the average variance extracted (AVE) and highest shared variance (SV) indicate the following: the average variance extracted (AVE) of STE is 0,511 which is greater that the square of the shared variance of STE and BA which $[(0{,}648)^2] = 0{,}420$. Likewise, the AVE for BE (0.563), BT (0.747), BS (0.720), BA (0.549), BL (0.631), and PI (0.710) are all larger, or closer to the highest shared variance (SV) values. This proves the existence of discriminate validity (Nusair & Hua, 2010).

Table 6.7: Average Value Extracted (AVE) and Highest Shared Variance (SV)

Research Construct		AVE Value	Highest Shared Variance
STE	STE1	0,511	0,420
	STE2		
	STE4		
	STE6		
	STE7		
	STE8		
	STE10		
	STE11		
BE1	BE1	0,563	0,585
	BE3		
	BE4		
	BE5		
	BE6		
	BE7		
	BE8		
	BE9		
	BE10		
	BE11		
BT	BT1	0,747	0,514
	BT2		
	BT3		
BS	BS1	0,720	0,651
	BS2		
	BS3		
	BS4		
	BS5		
	BS6		
	BS7		
	BS8		
BA	BA1	0,549	0,557
	BA2		
	BA3		
	BA4		
	BA5		
BL	BL1	0,631	0,651
	BL2		
	BL3		
	BL4		
	BL5		
PI1	PI1	0,710	0,319
	PI2		
	PI3		
	PI4		

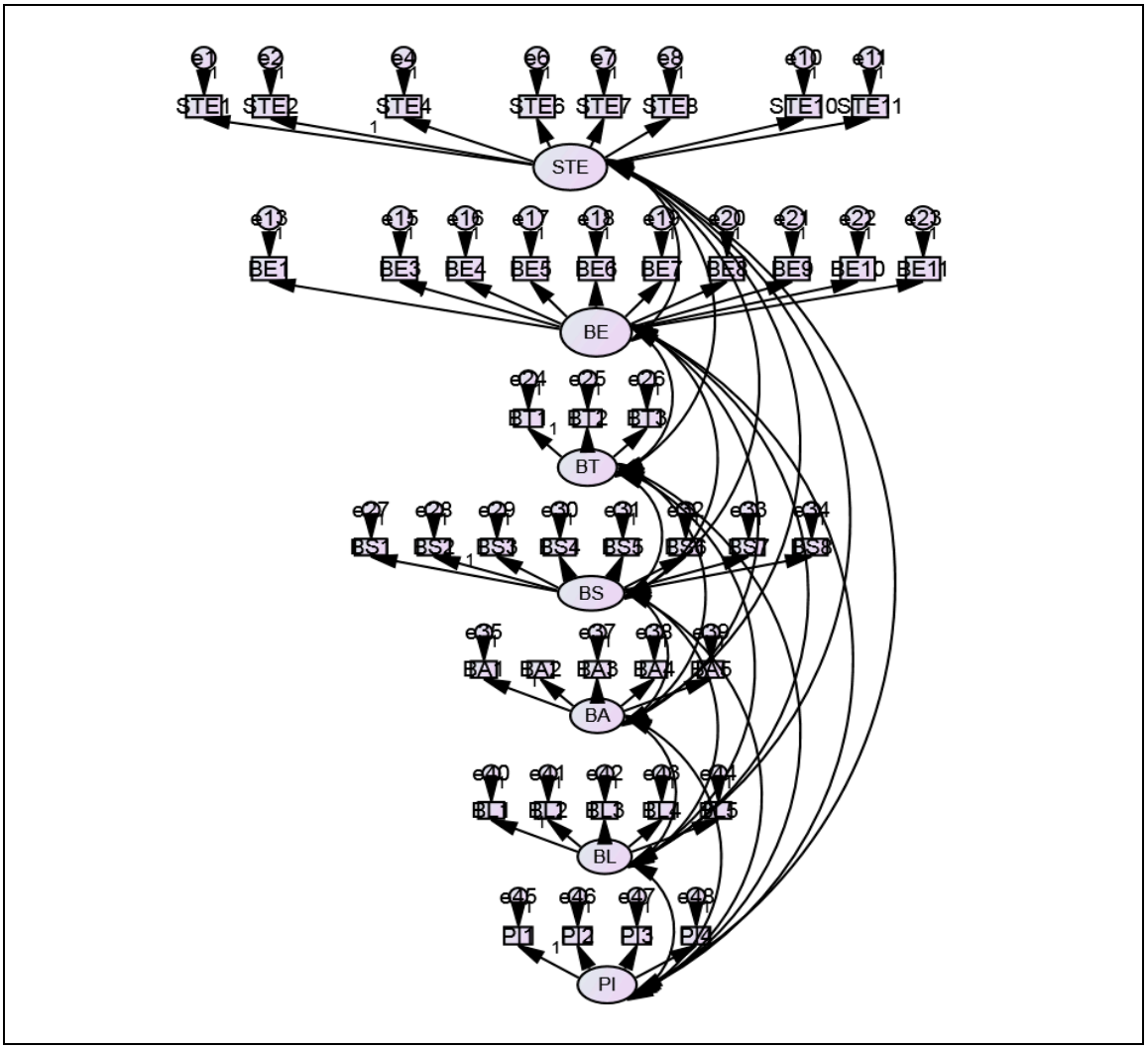
6.4 Structural Equation Modeling

The present study incorporated structural equation modeling (SEM) for the purpose of analysing the data. It it regarded as an advanced and comprehensive technique and has become a favoured technique for researchers across disciplines (Byrne, 2012; Nusair & Hua, 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). SEM is a multivariate statistical framework that is used for modeling complex relationships between directly and indirectly observed variables (Stein, Morris & Nock, 2012).

6.4.1 Model Fit Assessment

Testing for model fit is conducted to determine whether the model fits the data appropriately or not. For the purpose of the present study, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used. The specification of CFA is strongly driven by theory and prior research evidence and therefore holds a number of advantages in relation to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (Brown, 2006). Thus, by using CFA, the researcher tests a much more frugal solution that indicates the number of factors, the pattern of factor loadings and an appropriate error theory. CFA also allows for the specification among indicator uniqueness (error variances) which may have substantial importance. In addition, the CFA is superior in terms of its modeling flexibility and its ability to examine every source of invariance in the factor solution. (Brown, 2006) Figure 6.4 presents the CFA model, followed by a discussion of the model fit indices.

Figure 6.4: CFA Model



6.4.2 Model Fit Indices

This section presents the analysis of model fit by assessing a number of different indices, so as to ascertain the degree of acceptable or good model fit. The following indices are examined: CMIN, the normed fit index (NFI), incremental fit index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), goodness of fit index (GFI), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Due to low standardised regression weights, STE3, STE5, STE 9, STE12 and BE2 were removed. Thereafter model fit was improved. Errors were also uncorrelated to further improve model fit.

6.4.2.1 Chi-square Index

The first index that was examined is the Chi-square (CMIN/DF). Table 6.8 presents the findings.

Table 6.8: Chi-square Index

CMIN					
Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	134	812,425	495	0	1,641
Saturated model	629	0	0		
Independence model	68	10032,754	561	0	17,884

Table 6.8 indicates a value of 1.641. The criterion for acceptable model fit varies across researchers, ranging from less than 2 (Ullman, 2001) to less than 5 (Barrett, 2007; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Therefore, it is evident that the Chi-square indicates a good model fit.

6.4.2.2 Baseline Comparison Index

Table 6.9 presents the findings for the baseline comparison index

Table 6.9: Baseline Comparison Index

Baseline Comparisons					
Model	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	CFI
	Delta1	rho1	Delta2	rho2	
Default model	0,919	0,908	0,967	0,962	0,966
Saturated model	1		1		1
Independence model	0	0	0	0	0

Upon examining the baseline comparison indeces, the following was found: firstly, the NFI (0.919) is accepted at a level bigger than 0.9, therefore confirming a good model fit. The second index, RFI indicated a good model fit as it portrays a value of 0.908. The NFI (0.919) and the RFI (0.908) had values greater than 0.9. Furthermore, the IFI (0.967), TLI (0.962) and CFI (0.966) are well within the suggested limits of being above 0.9 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007), therefore it is taken as a good model fit.

6.4.2.3 Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

Table 6.10 presents the root mean square error approximation (RMSEA). For the RMSEA to be accepted, the value should be below 0.06 (McDonald & Ho, 2002; Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). As evident in the results below, it can be confirmed that with a value of 0.04, the RMSEA is accepted, indicating good model fit.

Table 6.10: RMSEA Index

RMSEA				
Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	0,040	0,035	0,045	1
Independence model	0,206	0,202	0,209	0

To conclude, after examining the Chi-square, the baseline comparison indices and the RMSEA, it is confirmed that the model shows an acceptable fit.

6.5 Path Modeling and Hypotheses Testing

The following section presents the results of the hypotheses and the correlating path coefficients. The main advantage of using path modeling (over regression analysis), is that the indirect and total effects are analysed, as opposed to only analysing direct effects which are prevalent when using regression analysis (Keith, 2015). Furthermore, path analysis provide a clearer understanding of the cause and effect between variables and is often a better choice for the explanatory analysis of nonexperimental data (Keith, 2015). In Table 6.11, the path coefficients reflect the nature of the strength between the variables: the higher the value, the stronger the relationship. In order to detect whether the hypotheses are supported or not, the p-values are

analysed. At a 95% level of significance, the supported hypotheses are indicated with three asterisks (***). The p-values are presented in Appendix 3.

Table 6.11: Hypotheses Results and Path Coefficients

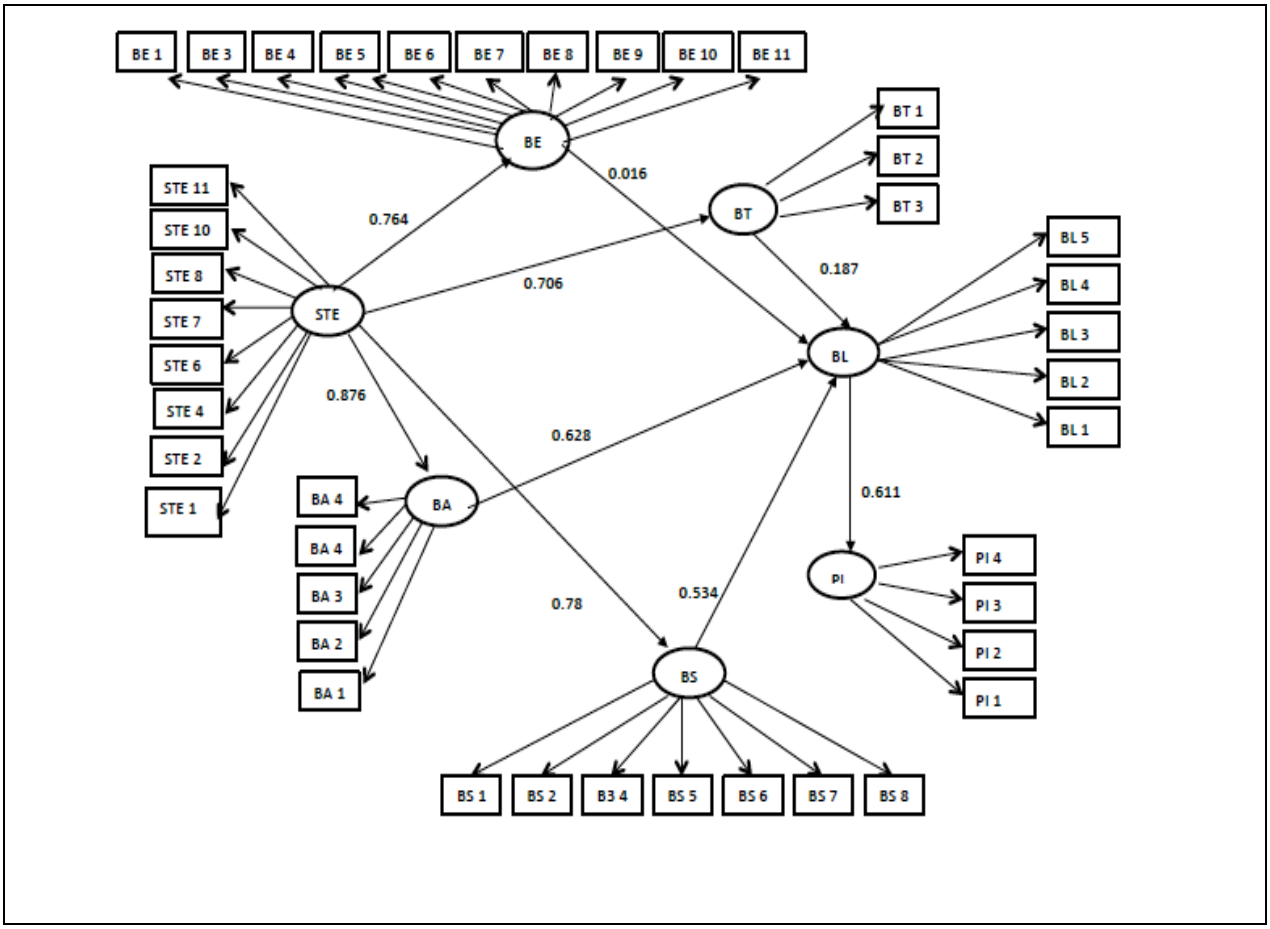
Path Coefficient	Hypothesis	Estimate	P-Value	Result
Store Environment → Brand Experience	H1	0.764	***	Significant and Supported
Store Environment → Brand Trust	H2	0.706	***	Significant and Supported
Store Environment → Brand Satisfaction	H3	0.782	***	Significant and Supported
Store Environment → Brand Attitude	H4	0.876	***	Significant and Supported
Brand Experience → Brand Loyalty	H5	0.016	***	Significant and Supported
Brand Trust → Brand Loyalty	H6	0.187	***	Significant and Supported
Brand Satisfaction → Brand Loyalty	H7	0.534	***	Significant and Supported
Brand Attitude → Brand Loyalty	H8	0.628	***	Significant and Supported
Brand Loyalty → Purchase Intention	H9	0.611	***	Significant and Supported

*** Significant at a 0.05 significance level

Upon examining the results in Table 6.11 (above), it was found that all nine hypotheses are significant and supported. More specifically, the strongest relationship was found to be hypothesis 4, which tested the relationship between of store environment and brand attitude (0.876). This indicates that store environment has a strong positive influence on brand attitude. Furthermore, hypotheses one, two and three also indicated strong relationships between store environment and brand satisfaction (0.782), brand experience (0.764), and brand trust (0.706) respectively. Hypothesis one, two and three are therefore supported. The weakest relationships were found to be hypotheses five (brand experience and brand loyalty) and six (brand trust and brand loyalty) with path cofficients of 0.016 and 0.187 respectively. This indicates that brand attitude has the strongest impact on brand loyalty, although both hypotheses are supported. The three remaining hypotheses' (H7 – H9) indicate moderately strong relationships with path coefficient estimates ranged between 0.534 and 0.628. To conclude, the results support all nine proposed hypotheses with store environment and attitude indicating the strongest relationship,

while brand satisfaction on brand loyalty having the weakest relationship. Derived from the findings presented above, Figure 6.5 presents the conceptual model.

Figure 6.5: Conceptual Model



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2015)

6.6 Summary of Hypotheses Results

H1: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand experience.*

From the findings, it is clear that the first hypothesis (H1) is supported. This indicates that a positive relationship exists between theses two variables. In other words, store environment has a positive influence on brand experience. This means that the more pleasant the store environment feels to a given customer, the more likely that the customer will have a pleasurable brand experience. Upon closer examination, the path coefficient (0.764) reflected a positive and strong relationship between these variables.

H2: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand trust.*

Likewise, Hypothesis 2 (H2) is supported. The findings indicate that there is a positive relationship between store environment and brand trust. This can be interpreted to indicate that store environment influences brand trust. Customers are therefore more likely to trust a brand if their store experience was pleasant. The strength of the relationship (0.706) is similar to that of H1, therefore confirmed to be strong.

H3: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 3 (H3) also reflects a positive relationship and therefore the hypothesis is supported. In other words, a positive store environment is likely to increase the satisfaction levels that customers have with the brand. Upon examining the path coefficient (0.782), the relationship indicated a very strong relationship between these two variables.

H4: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand attitude.*

Similar to the previous three hypotheses, Hypothesis 4 is supported, indicating a positive relationship between store environment and brand attitude. In other words, if the store environment is pleasant, customers are more likely to have a positive attitude towards the brand. The strength of the relationship was indicated by a path coefficient of 0.880, thus indicating a strong relationship between store environment and brand attitude.

H5: There is a positive relationship between *brand experience* and *brand loyalty.*

The fifth hypothesis was also found to be significant. The proposed hypothesis was therefore supported, and this indicates that brand experience influences brand loyalty. In other words, if customers have a positive and pleasant store experience, they are likely to portray loyalty towards the brand. However, the strength of this relationship is explained by the path coefficient of 0.016, indicating a very weak relationship.

H6: There is a positive relationship between *brand trust* and *brand loyalty.*

The relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty was found to be significant. The hypothesis proposed that a positive relationship exists and from the findings it is evident that brand trust has a positive impact on brand loyalty. Therefore, the more trust a customer has in a

brand, the more likely they are to show brand loyalty. The strength of the relationship is reflected by the path coefficient of 0.187, which indicates a weak relationship between the variables.

H7: There is a positive relationship between *brand satisfaction* and *brand loyalty.*

The results for Hypothesis 7 indicate that there is a positive relationship between brand satisfaction and brand loyalty. Therefore, H7 is supported. This means that customers, who are satisfied with a brand, are more likely to portray brand loyalty. Upon further investigation, the path coefficient reflected a moderately strong relationship between brand satisfaction and brand loyalty (0.534).

H8: There is a positive relationship between *brand attitude* and *brand loyalty.*

It was found that Hypothesis 8 is supported, thus indicating that store attitude has a positive influence on brand loyalty. In other words, if customers have a positive attitude towards the brand, they are more likely to portray brand loyalty. The path coefficient is 0.628, therefore indicating a moderate relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty.

H9: There is a positive relationship between *brand loyalty* and *purchase intention*

The last hypothesis (H9) was supported, which indicates that brand loyalty has a positive influence on purchase intention. Upon examination of the path coefficient (0.611), the results reflect a moderate relationship, therefore confirming a positive relationship between brand loyalty and purchase intention. This means that customers who are loyal to a brand are more likely to consider purchasing a product, in comparison to customers who are not brand loyal.

6.7 Conclusion

To conclude, this chapter provided the statistical analysis and results obtained from the data collected on how store environment influences purchase intention of fashion products among black middle class females in Johannesburg. The following was discussed: an overview of the descriptive statistics, an analysis of the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments, an overview of the model fit and lastly, where a path modeling with the results from the hypotheses were conducted and presented.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a critical discussion of the research findings in light of previous literature. Firstly, the results of each hypothesis are presented, followed by a comparison of the results to previous literature and lastly, a discussion of the application the results to marketing practice.

7.2 Main Findings

This section discusses the findings of the impact that store environment has on consumer's purchase intention of fashion products among black middle class females in Johannesburg.

7.2.1 Store Environment and Brand Experience

$H1_0$: There is no relationship between *store environment* and *brand experience.*

$H1_a$: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand experience.*

The findings for Hypothesis 1 indicated a positive relationship between store environment and brand experience. By creating a pleasurable store environment through sensory cues, retailers can influence the brand experience. In other words, the use of music, visual merchandise, store design and layout, retailers can influence the consumer's brand experience. Upon closer examination of the strength of the relationship between store environment and brand experience, the findings indicated a strong relationship (0.764). In other words, store environment is a significant predictor of brand experience.

This supports previous studies emphasising the effectiveness of creating a pleasurable in-store environment that ultimately results in a positive brand experience. In other words, if a retailer invests a considerable amount of time and effort into the store environment, it will evoke positive emotions in the consumer, which will create the perception of a pleasurable brand experience. In a study conducted by Kamaladevi (2009), the findings revealed that besides the proper design of a store, good lightening and visual cues, retailers could create a pleasant in-store environment. Consistent with the findings of Kamaladevi (2009), and Holmqvist & Lunardo (2015), in-store design shapes a consumer's perception of the brand, which can result in consumers purchasing the brand and ultimately becoming brand loyal. In a study conducted by Kumar and Kim (2004),

a fundamental element in creating a pleasurable in-store environment is ensuring a pleasant shopping experience.

Therefore, retailers should invest in pleasurable atmospheric cues in a retail store, such as the music, visual merchandise and friendly staff, to influence the in-store experience. As a result, consumers' intention to purchase a product, and ultimately returning to the store, will increase significantly if they experienced a sense of pleasure upon visiting the store. As per the findings of Hypothesis 1, retailers should be aware that although consumers visited the store with no intention of purchasing a product, creating the ultimate brand experience could influence this buying behavior, where retailers can implement complimentary branded pop-up stores to enhance the store environment. For example, Stuttafords might introduce interactive marketing within their retail stores by collaborating with Vida e Caffè with a pop-up coffee store inside their stores.

In summary, the store environment is a key driver of brand experience, especially in the fashion retail industry. The above results show that there is a significant positive relationship between store environment and brand experience. This means that the more pleasurable the store environment in terms of the sensory experience, the more likely that consumers' will have a pleasant store experience.

7.2.2 Store Environment and Brand Trust

$H2_0$: There is no relationship between *store environment* and *brand trust.*

$H2_a$: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand trust.*

It is evident from the findings that there is positive relationship between store environment and brand trust. Therefore, the more pleasant the store environment is to consumers, the more likely that they will trust the brand. Brand trust will ultimately lead to an increased possibility of purchase intention and brand loyalty. Upon examination of the path coefficient results, it is evident that this relationship is strong (0.706), therefore indicating that store environment is a strong predictor of consumers' brand experience.

This finding supports previous research that investigated the impact of store environment on brand trust. According to Guensi et al. (2009), the most vital method for achieving brand trust within a retail store setting is by encouraging trust between staff and consumers. Consumers are therefore more likely to create trust in the brand if they have a trusted relationship with the staff. This statement does not eliminate the importance of building brand trust through other means, such as product quality, pricing and value for money. It emphasises that by investigating in a holistic array of methods to build brand trust, the likelihood of achieving trust among consumers is significantly bigger. Further, these findings are consistent with previous literature, which investigated the relationship between store environment and brand trust (Chang & Chen, 2008; Lunardo & Mbengu, 2013; Martin et al., 2011). Therefore, regardless of whether a consumer's motive for entering a store is browsing or buying a product, retailers have the power to manipulate sensory cues that will increase the likelihood of brand trust.

For example, retailers should firstly focus on creating trust with their customers. By having adequate knowledge of the product and logistic processes, delivering on their promises and doing post-purchase follow-up will increase the likelihood of building trust between the retail staff and customers. Besides the importance of building trust between the store staff and customers, the brand itself ought to focus on creating trust with customers. An example for building trust is portraying a consistent brand image across their advertising campaigns as well as product design, styles and design. Another method for generating trust between the retail store and customer is by emphasising and implementing an efficient internal marketing strategy, whereby staff are treated like customers. By focusing on this, the staff members' trust and level of job satisfaction will spill over into customer satisfaction and customer trust. Furthermore, retailers should encourage teambuilding sessions, effective training sessions, motivating staff, rewarding them and creating brand loyalty among the staff members towards the brand. Most importantly, it is imperative that the staff have adequate knowledge of the product, brand policies and in-store systems. Trust is easily broken if staff over-promise and/or under-deliver.

In summary, store environment influences brand trust. From the discussion above, it is evident that the proposed hypothesis that store environment has a specifically positive impact on brand trust. This means that in the context of this study, fashion retail among the black middle class

woman in Johannesburg, the more pleasant the store environment, the more likely that they will develop trust in the brand.

7.2.3 Store Environment and Brand Satisfaction

$H3_{0:}$ There is no relationship between *store environment* and *brand satisfaction.*

$H3_{a}$: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand satisfaction.*

A significant positive relationship was found between store environment and brand satisfaction, where the research suggests that the more pleasant the store environment, the more likely that consumers will be satisfied with the brand. This could ultimately lead to increased brand loyalty, and ultimately purchase intention. The path coeeficient for the relationship between these variables was of a similar strength (0.782) than for the previous two hypotheses. Therefore, although not exceptionally strong, marketers can accept that store environment has a moderately strong influence on brand satisfaction, and therefore retail brands can utilise atmospheric cues in store to create and encourage brand satisfaction.

These results were anticipated, as previous literature revealed similar findings. For example, in a study conducted by Dholakia and Zhao (2010), they found that store environment has a positive impact on brand satisfaction. Therefore, by manipulating in-store sensory cues, customers will perceive the store environment to be more pleasant, and as a result, increase the level of brand satisfaction. In another study conducted by Kremer and Viot (2012), the findings indicated the store environment to be a predictor of brand satisfaction. In consensus, these studies stress the importance of store environment aspects shaping consumers' brand experience, which in turn affect consumers' sense of satisfaction. Consumers need to feel comfortable and stimulated within the store environment in order for them to perceive the brand positively and become satisfied with it.

Therefore, by means of manipulating the sensory cues such as the store design, music, touch and feel of the clothing, visual merchandise and smell, retailers can influence consumer's brand satisfaction. For example, if a customer passes a store in a shopping centre, the store needs to ensure that it is noticeable and inviting. This can be achieved through good window displays that are visually appealing, with clothing and props that attract the attention of passing consumers.

The music should be pleasant, the merchandise must be neat and visually appealing, and within touching distance. It can therefore be concluded that retailers ought to invest in creating a pleasant store environment in order to create brand satisfaction among consumers.

To summarise, the findings indicated that the hypothesis that tested the relationship between store environment and brand satisfaction is supported. In other words, the more pleasant the store environment in a fashion retail context among the black middle class women in Johannesburg, the more likely that they will be satisfied with the brand.

7.2.4 Store Environment and Brand Attitude

$H4_0$: There is no relationship between *store environment* and *brand attitude.*

$H4_a$: There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand attitude.*

Hypothesis 4 proposed a positive relationship between store environment and brand attitude. Findings from the analysis indicated that store environment has a positive influence on brand attitude. In other words, the more pleasant the store environment the more likely consumers are to have a positive attitude towards the store brand. The strength of the relationship was indicated by the path coefficient and the findings showed a strong relationship between store environment and brand attitude. The path coefficient for H4 was confirmed at 0.876, which in comparison to the first three path coefficients, were the highest. This means that store environment has a slightly stronger influence on brand attitude, in comparison to its' effect on brand experience or brand trust. In other words, by creating a pleasant in-store environment, retailers are most likely to gain from creating positive consumer attitudes, rather than creating favourable brand experiences or brand trust. Store environment is therefore a strong predictor of brand attitude.

As discussed by Zenker and Rütter (2014), brand attitude is a latent, but highly relevant marketing variable in brand-building, since it remains within consumers' subconscious and tends to impact their decisions about the brand without them consciously recognising it. Thus, there may be elements of the store environment that can inherently affect how the consumer sees the brand of a store; being able to identify what these elements are in specific contexts is therefore critical to shaping consumers' attitudes positively towards a brand. In a study conducted by Lunardo and Mbengue (2013), and Kumar and Kim (2014), both of which identified some store

environmental characteristics as having important impacts on consumer's attitude towards the brand. In particular, Kumar and Kim (2014) discussed that consumers tend to develop negative attitudes towards the brand when elements in the store environment imply that the store is attempting to mislead the consumer in some way. The relationship between these two variables is more closely examined in Vieira (2013), who conducted a meta-analysis of research studies that have examined store environment and brand attitude over the past two decades, noting that it is evident from previous research that there exists a stimuli-organism-response framework governing the relationship between the two variables, in which consumers that experience some element of the store environment tend to associate this with the quality of the brand, such that their attitude about the brand may shift, depending on stimuli that they encounter during their in-store experiences.

From a practical perspective, retailers should invest in sensory cues used in-store, to affectively influence consumer attitudes. For example, a brand like Diesel should have good lighting on their jean display, as this is their primary product, and contributes to the bulk of their profit. Besides the lightening that highlights the jeans, they must also be merchandised in such a way as to attract consumer attention and allow them to assess it by touch. Furthermore, Diesel should have in-store music that resonates with their target audience. The employees should wear the clothing, and be well trained and friendly, in order to maximise the amenability of the in-store environment for the customer. Following the findings, it can therefore be concluded that retailers should invest in creating a pleasant store environment on order to create a positive brand attitude among consumers.

In summary, store environment is a predictor of brand attitude. It was found that store environment has a positive influence on brand attitude, thus supporting the proposed hypothesis. Within the context of this study, this indicates that the more pleasant the store environment in terms of the sensory experience, the more likely that the black middle class woman of Johannesburg will form a positive attitude towards the fashion brand.

7.2.5 Brand Experience and Brand Loyalty

$H5_0$: There is no relationship between *brand experience* and *brand loyalty*.

$H5_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand experience* and *brand loyalty*.

Upon testing the relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty, the findings indicated that brand experience does have an impact on brand loyalty, however the relationship is weak. In other words, consumers' brand experience has a very small influence on potentially becoming brand loyal. This means that retailers will reap minimum benefits from using the brand experience when attempting to build brand loyalty 0.016.

Similarly, past indicates brand experience has a significant influence on brand loyalty. In a study conducted by Hong-Youl and Perks (2008), the authors found that brand experience increases customer satisfaction, which leads to brand loyalty. The notion of brand experience in light of creating experiential value was inherent in the applied work by Pine & Gilmore (1999), who studied the influence of experiential value on consumer buying behaviour. From the study conducted by Pine & Gilmore (1999), it was evident that the more a brand evokes multiple experience dimensions, the more likely that consumers will return to the store. Brakus et al. (2009) established a clear link between brand experience and brand loyalty. Based on the model constructed by Brakus et al. (2009), brand experience was found to have both a direct and an indirect impact on brand loyalty. This was rationalised as the consumers' continued desire to partonise the brand on the basis of their previous experiences with the brand as having been positive in nature (Brakus et al., 2009). However, the direct effect of brand experience on loyalty was found to be weaker than its effect on satisfaction (Brakus et al., 2009). The relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty may thus be more complicated. Specifically, Baumann et al. (2015) found that the relationship between brand experience and brand recall may actually underlie the relationship between experience and loyalty. As discussed by Baumann et al. (2015), when the brand experience is memorable, consumers have a greater tendency to remember the brand, and to patronise it again in the future. When the experience with a brand fails to make a lasting impact, it is unlikely that loyalty can be established (Baumann et al., 2015).

Although the relationship between these variables are weak, retailers should still focus on creating a pleasant store experience, as they might gain other benefits. Marketers and retailers can utilise sensory cues to create the ultimate brand experience, both in-store, as well as indirectly, through the brand's touch points. For example, creating a unique in-store atmosphere by stimulating consumers' buying intentions by means of pleasurable music, visual aesthetics, store layout and design and customer service. Considering a brand like Diesel, they use dim lightening and incorporate the concept of 'lounging' into their stores. Customers will often find a couch and a vintage carpet to create a homely feel, where they can relax while their partners browse the store. Their jeans are displayed in a visually appealing, manner and customers have the opportunity to touch and feel the product. The rest of their product is merchandised using colour coding that enhances the look of the store, and sizes are organised in an ascending manner. Furthermore, their fitting rooms are spacious, and the stores are well-maintained. In creating a unique brand experience through more indirect channels, such as advertising campaigns both online and through print media, the challenge becomes fiercer. Firstly, print, radio or television campaigns can create an experience through the use of strong and appealing visuals and sound (in television advertising). Websites can focus on multi-media aspects and can create interactive communication with consumers, as well as having an online store. Furthermore, the use of social-networking including Instagram, Pinterest and Youtube, provide brands with the opportunity to implement such experiential appeals to enhance the brand experience.

In summary, brand experience has a significant influence on brand loyalty. The findings of the present study indicated that there is relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty, and therefore, the proposed hypothesis was supported. This means that the more appealing the brand experience is, the more likely that consumers will be to portray loyalty towards the brand. Of course, this finding is relevant to the context of this study only, in a fashion retail context limited to the black middle class woman in Johannesburg.

7.2.6 Brand Trust and Brand Loyalty

$H6_0$: There is no relationship between *brand trust* and *brand loyalty*.

$H6_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand trust* and *brand loyalty*.

From the present study, the findings indicated that there is a significant relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty, however, the relationship is weak (0.187). Hypothesis 6 was therefore supported. The findings from this study are consistent with a number of previous studies. In a study conducted by Ercis et al. (2012), the findings reflected that brand trust influences repurchase intentions. In other words, if a customer trusts a brand, they are likely to return, and if they have trust in a brand from a previous encounter with it, they are likely to return and make a purchase. Consequently, several studies have investigated the relationship between brand trust and repurchase intention (brand loyalty). For example, Delgado and Munuera-Alemán (2001) discussed that while there have been many studies that have sought to model brand loyalty, brand trust was not typically considered as a predicting variable, as it does not summarise consumer's knowledge and experience with the brand as much as other variables such as brand reputation, satisfaction, and perceived quality. In another study, Matzler et al. (2008) examined the mediating role of brand trust on brand loyalty in the mobile phone industry, and found, consistent with Delgado (2001), that brand trust does have a significant mediating role. From past research it is therefore evident that brand trust is a vital predictor of brand loyalty.

From a practical perspective, marketers and retailers can benefit from this finding in a number of ways, though not neccesarily by gaining loyal customers. For example, the concept of brand trust can be implemented by providing brand consistency by means of the product and the customer service across the retail outlets. Customers gain a sense of security from the trust they feel able to place in the product. For example, Woolworths has a winning business model, by ensuring product quality both with their clothing, as well as their food, resulting in customers' elevated trust in the brand. Following the focus of building brand trust, consumers will return to the store time and again. With every visit to the store, customers might increase their spending which will result in the building of trust across an assortment of products. Therefore, it is of significant importance for retail brands to build consumers' trust in the brand to increase the possibility of them returning to the store.

In summary, as with previous literature that indicated a positive relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty, in the context of this study, the hypothesis was supported. In other words, brand trust influences brand loyalty. The black middle class female in Johannesburg is therefore more likely to portray brand loyalty if they have trust in a brand. Again, this finding is applicable to the context of the present study only, namely the fashion retail industry in Johannesburg.

7.2.7 Brand Satisfaction and Brand Loyalty

$H7_0$: There is no relationship between *brand satisfaction* and *brand loyalty*.

H7a: There is a positive relationship between *brand satisfaction* and *brand loyalty*.

Brand satisfaction was found to have a positive relationship with brand loyalty. This indicates that the more satisfied a customer is with the brand, the more likely that they will portray loyalty towards the brand. However, retailers should note that brand satisfaction does not guarantee brand loyalty; it simply increases the possibility of being loyal to a brand. The findings indicated a moderate relationship (0.534) between brand satisfaction and brand loyalty. In other words, the satisfaction that customers have with a brand, is likely to influence their loyalty towards the brand, therefore, the higher the satisfaction levels with the brand, the greater the possibility that customer will portray brand loyalty.

Previous literature has indicated similar findings with brand satisfaction being a strong predictor of brand loyalty. For example, satisfaction has been considered a primary concern in any marketing metric, such as those developed in Brakus et al. (2009) or Tong and Hawley (2009). In relation to brand loyalty, it is thus possible to reason that consumers need to be satisfied with a brand before they can become loyal to it. The converse of this relationship is not as strong, as a consumer may be satisfied with a wide range of brands, but may only opt to be loyal to one of those brands. Nonetheless, it is not unlikely that the consumer will decide to be loyal to the brand found to be most satisfying. Thus, it is important to examine the relationship between these two variables in different marketing contexts. As explained by Oliver (1997), whereas the ultimate goal of marketing is to get the consumer to make the purchase, establishing strong consumer satisfaction can be considered to be almost identical to this goal, since satisfied consumers are most likely going to become loyal to a brand, following the decision to purchase the product (Oliver, 1997).

Retailers can therefore utilise on the present finding by conducting regular surveys among consumers to evaluate their satisfaction with the brand. These surveys can be done in-store, or online. Compiling a database of customers will assist retailers and marketers with having access to customers for such purposes. With research often being a challenge, as consumers may be reluctant to participate, brands can offer an incentive for participation. Another consideration may be to use a professional market research company with a corresponding panel to investigate the factors that individuals consider as important to being satisfied with a clothing brand. Social media is also an excellent platform for gaining customer feedback on their level of satisfaction with a brand. A relatively effortless, yet effective method is using online forums, by means of consumer-generated content. Besides the use of social media like Facebook and Twitter, mobile applications can be effective.

In summary, brand satisfaction is a predictor of brand loyalty; the more satisfied the consumer is with the brand, the more likely that they will show loyalty towards the brand. This is specifically relevant to the black middle class woman in Johannesburg when purchasing fashion products from retail brands.

7.2.8 Brand Attitude and Brand Loyalty

$H8_0$: There is no relationship between *brand attitude* and *brand loyalty.*

$H8_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand attitude* and *brand loyalty.*

From the present study, it was found that there is a positive relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty. Therefore, customers with a positive attitude towards a brand are more likely to be brand loyal, in comparison to customers who have a negative or neutral attitude towards the brand. Upon closer examination, the path coefficient indicated a moderate relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty (0.628). Therefore, brand attitude is regarded as a predictor of brand loyalty.

Previous literature conducted on the relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty has indicated similar findings. According to Cho and Burt (2015), extant literature has clearly established the strong relationship between brand attitude and brand loyalty. Specifically, a strong positive brand attitude is considered to be necessary in order to establish brand loyalty

from a consumer. Conversely, negative brand attitude tend to damage brand loyalty, and consumers who had previously been loyal to a brand may stop doing so if their attitude towards the brand changes (Cho & Burt, 2015). This is true in the context of luxury fashion branding, which was examined by So et al. (2013), who found that consumers tend to develop emotional attachments to particular fashion brands, which keep them patronising the brand over time.

For retailers to utilise these findings, they can attempt to influence customers' attitude towards the brand. For example, by means of creating an enjoyable in-store environment, consumers are more likely to have a favourable attitude towards the brand. An important element in achieving this is creating a unique and pleasurable brand experience, both in-store and online. Factors such as the music, store layout, visual merchandising, lighting, staff attitude, product assortment and the neatness of the store are likely to influence consumers' brand attitudes in a favourable way. Retailers can therefore measure customer's attitude towards the brand by means of various research methods. Following this process, retailers can implement promising techniques to create feasible attitudes towards the brands. Having a favourable attitude towards a brand will increase consumer's loyalty towards the brand, and their purchase intention. Several other methods exist for retailers to influence customer's attitude towards the brand. Firstly, a contributing factor in encouraging positive brand attitudes is a cohort of professional and friendly staff. Well-trained and content staff are likely to deliver a better service that will influence customer brand attitude. Of course, the higher the quality of customer service, the more favourable customer attitudes will be towards the brand. Secondly, although the present study focuses on experiential cues within a retail setting, cognitive aspects should also be considered, such as price, value for money, product quality and product assortment. A third factor to consider is the consistency regarding the brand image, where the positioning of the brand could potentially influence consumers' brand attitude. If retail brands lack focus in their positioning strategy and brand image through all the relevant touch points, customers may become confused and as a result, also frustrated, which could influence their attitude towards the brand. Lastly, the advertising campaigns should be designed and implemented with caution, so as not to offend customers by way of subject matter or advertising content. Therefore, adhering to acceptable ethical standards. Examples of fashion brands that are known for undermining the ethical aspects of advertising are the clothing brands, United Colours of Benetton, Diesel and American Apparel.

In summary, brand attitude has a positive influence on brand loyalty, where consumers with a favourable attitude towards the brand are more likely to portray loyalty towards it. Within the context of this study, this means that black middle class females who resides in Johannesburg are likely to show brand loyalty towards fashion brands towards which they have a favourable attitude.

7.2.9 Brand Loyalty and Purchase Intention

$H9_0$: There is no relationship between *brand loyalty* and *purchase intention.*

$H9_a$: There is a positive relationship between *brand loyalty* and *purchase intention.*

The findings indicated that there is a significant, positive relationship between brand loyalty and purchase intention, and Hypothesis 9 is therefore supported. This means that brand loyal customers are more likely to make a purchase in comparison to neutral or non-loyal customers. Brand loyalty is therefore a predictor of purchase intention. The path coefficient indicted a moderate relationship (0.611) between brand loyalty and purchase intention.

Earlier studies on the relationship between brand loyalty and purchase intention have yielded mixed results. Malik et al. (2013) elaborates by stating that this may be due to their (brand loyalty and purchase intention) respective definitions, which can be considered as mutually affecting each other on a cyclical basis. A consumer can initially develop purchase intentions based on other factors, but continue to make the same purchases based on the development of loyalty towards a specific brand. On the other hand, a consumer may opt to purchase an item because of previously developed loyalty towards the brand, even if the purchase decisions involve products that the consumer has not yet tried (Malik et al., 2013). For example, a consumer may have the intention to purchase, say, a toothbrush from Brand X, even if he or she had only purchased toothpastes from the brand before. In the context of fashion retail, Malik et al. (2013) examined this relationship using a survey that covered 350 retail clothing consumers in Pakistan, and found that both awareness about a brand and loyalty towards it had significant impacts on purchase intentions. For example, it is possible that a consumer's loyalty in a brand was developed through previous experience in purchasing shoes, but that this loyalty spilled over to influence their purchase decisions involving shirts and other fashion items (Malik et al., 2013). Likewise, in Chi et al. (2009), it was also found that brand loyalty mediated brand awareness and

purchase intention. While it was found in the latter study that brand awareness contributed significantly to the likelihood of purchase intention, this was evidently the case only if the respondent had already developed a strong loyalty towards the brand following initial awareness of it. Without loyalty, the strength of the relationship between awareness and purchase intention was found to be weaker.

From a practical perspective, retailers should focus on creating brand loyalty. In achieving this objective, retailers can implement a variety of methods ranging from cognitive factors to sensory factors. Seeing that the focus of the present study is on experiential marketing, it is advised that retailers create the ultimate in-store experience by means of sensory branding cues, such as the music, scent, sight and touch, retailers can create a pleasurable in-store environment. In achieving this, customers are more likely to return to the store, to purchasing products and to portraying loyalty over time. Besides the focus on sensory cues in the store, customer service should also be considered as an important factor worth investing in. Having professional, knowledgeable and friendly staff, the brand is more likely to improve the in-store experience, indirectly increasing the likelihood of brand loyalty and purchase intention. Another focus area that slightly deviates from experiential marketing, is utilising cognitive-based aspects such as price, product quality, product assortment and value-for-money, to mention a few.

To conclude, brand loyalty has a positive influence on purchase intention. In other words, customers who portray brand loyalty are likely to make a purchase, in contrast to customers who are not loyal to the brand.

7.3 Summary of Findings

In summary, the findings indicated that all of the nine hypotheses are supported. First, H1 was supported, which indicates that store environment has a positive influence on brand experience. Second, upon testing H2, it was found that store environment influences brand trust. Similarly, store environment has a significant effect on brand satisfaction (H3). Fourth, from the findings it is evident that there is a positive relationship between store environment and brand attitude (H4). The above-mentioned hypotheses (H1 – H4), revealed similar findings as did previous literature, and therefore confirm that there is a significant positive relationship between the variables.

Furthermore, H5 and H6 were significant, thus indicating that brand experience and brand trust influences brand loyalty. Likewise, brand satisfaction positively influences brand loyalty (H7), while brand attitude also has a significant influence on brand loyalty (H8), and finally, H9 indicated a significant relationship between brand loyalty and purchase intention. It can therefore be concluded that store environment has a positive relationship with the respective brand variables, and the latter variables significantly influence brand loyalty. Lastly, brand loyalty has a significant influence on purchase intention. Table 7.1 presents a summary of the results from the hypotheses.

Table 7.1: Results of Research Hypotheses

	Hypothesis	**Result**
H1	There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand experience.*	Supported *
H2	There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand trust.*	Supported *
H3	There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand satisfaction*	Supported *
H4	There is a positive relationship between *store environment* and *brand attitude.*	Supported *
H5	There is a positive relationship between *brand experience* and *brand loyalty.*	Supported *
H6	There is a positive relationship between *brand trust* and *brand loyalty.*	Supported *
H7	There is a positive relationship between *brand satisfaction* and *brand loyalty.*	Supported *
H8	There is a positive relationship between *brand attitude* and *brand loyalty.*	Supported *
H9	There is a positive relationship between *brand loyalty* and *purchase intention.*	Supported *

7.4 Conclusion

The present chapter provided a critical discussion on the research results. Derived from the data analysis, the outcomes of the proposed hypotheses were discussed. Further, the findings were compared to previous literature and lastly, the application of the results to marketing practice is presented. In the following and final chapter, the conclusion, contributions, limitations and future research are discussed.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONTRIBUTION

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the main findings of the study. Furthermore, it discusses the managerial implications of the study, the contributions and limitations, and lastly, areas recommended for future research.

8.2 Conclusion of Main Findings

To conclude, all nine hypotheses are significant. Therefore, store environment positively influences brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction and brand attitude. Furthermore, brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction and brand attitude positively influence brand loyalty, which ultimately has a positive influence on purchase intention. However, the strength of these relationships differ significantly. From the findings it is evident that the strongest relationship exists between store environment and brand attitude. Retailers should therefore pay attention to creating a feasible store environment for customers to portray positive attitudes towards the retail brand. Secondly, the findings indicated that store environment has a strong influence on brand experience, brand trust and brand satisfaction respectively. In other words, by creating a pleasant store environment, consumers are likely to have a positive brand experience, portray trust in the brand, and feel satisfied with the brand. Retailers will benefit from this as consumers are likely to return to the store which will increase their likelihood of purchasing a product. Moderate relationships were found to be between brand satisfaction and brand attitude, on brand loyalty respectively. As a results, retailers should focus on creating brand satisfaction and generating positive brand attitudes to achieve customer brand loyalty. In comparrison to the above mentioned hypotheses results, the relationship between brand loyalty and purchase intention were found to be slightly weaker. Thus indicating that although retailers may create brand loyal customers, the possibility of customers' purchasing a product is slightly lower, however still positive. Retailers should therefore implement appropriate methods for encouraging consumers to revisit the store and aim to achieve customer retention.

Weak relationships were found to be between brand experience and brand trust, on brand loyalty respectively. This finding indicates that although retailers may pay a considerate amount of

attention to create a pleasurable store environment, consumers are not very likely to either have a pleasurable brand experience, or forming trust in the retail brand.

8.3 Managerial Implications

The present research offers a number of practical managerial implications for fashion retailers, managers and marketers. The results of the present study provide general information to guide companies in developing marketing strategies based on the concept of store environment. This contribution will assist different types of fashion brands in understanding the important role of store environment, and it's implementation. In the current competitive landscape of fashion retail, creating a unique in-store experience is of utmost importance. The majority of these store environment dimensions (sound, scent, sight and service) are within the company's control, therefore it is worth suggesting that retailers invest and commit to the manipulation of sensory cues in order to achieve the desired outcome. Topshop, arguably the fashion mecca of the high street, is a brand renowned for their experiential marketing campaigns. From in-store makeovers, hologram fashion shows and bands performing live, shoppers are invited to experience a selection of events and free treats in store. While bringing high street fashion straight to the masses, they still ensure that they relate to their consumers (Lam, 2013). Gap is another example of a high street fashion retailer, who uses experiential marketing to garner attention and to attract people to their stores. With the launch of their denim range 'Born to Fit', they used social media to amplify the event and to personally connect with consumers. Gap amplified focused interest in the new denim collection by encouraging Facebook users to express their personal style through an interactive Facebook gallery. Simultaneously, they hosted the largest acoustic concert in 700 of their stores, which allowed them to speak to a wide audience and to continue conversation with their customers well after the event (Lam, 2013).

Conveying these concepts and ideas into a local context for the purpose of this study, the following is suggested: a brand like Zara could offer an in-store personal styling service and free wireless internet. While consumers wait to be attended to, they can engage with Zara online by browsing the brand's Pinterest and Instagram accounts to scout for styling ideas. Zara might also install a screen showcasing their most recent seasonal collection, or trends from the catwalk.

Such an experience, if made unique, could act as a draw card for consumers to visit the store. Furthermore, seamless technology and multiple platform engagements with the brand will create experiential retailing that might encourage customers to return often. The New Balance footwear brand is another example of a brand that offers customers a unique, personalised experience. At their flagship store, New Balance provide consumers with the opportunity to custom-build their own shoes by means of and iPad application. The goal is to involve consumers directly in the production process, and to engage with them on a personal level, by selling a unique experience. It takes about an hour to complete the process, and shoes are delivered to their home about two weeks later (Lam, 2013).

Another important aspect of creating a pleasant in-store environment is the store design and layout. Retailers often overlook the importance of such aspects, as their main goal might be to maximise product assortment on the shop floor, because they may have lost perspective of the importance of aesthetic factors such as store flow and visual appeal. Colour merchandising is often used by brands like Diesel, whereby they place different product in the same colour palette together. By using this technique, consumers are able to assemble complimentary products to create an outfit effortlessly, without having to browse the entire store to compile suitable looks.

It is evident from the present study that brand attitude has a positive influence on purchase intention. It is therefore crucial for retailers to consistently ensure that customers have a positive attitude towards the brand. Retailers can start by focusing on consumer touch points, and ensuring that the consumer receives these in a positive manner. A provocative advertisement, for example, may lead to the formation of a negative attitude towards the brand. With the current impact of technology and social media on consumer buying behaviour, consumer-generated-content may also lead to attitude formation, or possibly, attitude change (either negative or positive). Thus, retailers can utilise social media to influence consumer's attitudes towards the brand. The use of experiential marketing, either in-store or alongside a specific event, may contribute to positive brand attitudes. For example, Jenni Button hands out free Lindt balls and provide consumers with a free glass of sparkling wine when they enter the store. This is likely to create an immediate affinity for the brand.

Brand satisfaction has also proved to influence purchase intention in fashion retail stores. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to create and regularly measure consumer's level of brand satisfaction. This can be done by conducting surveys, providing and analysing online feedback forums, as well as through social media sites. Furthermore, retailers might focus on the fundamental aspects of consumer expectations when visiting a retail store and purchasing clothing, for example, ensuring good quality products, efficient customer service and friendly staff, and prices that are relevant to the specific target market. Other factors of importance are the product assortment, store tidiness, and a suitable return policy. Moreover, the results of this study demonstrated that store environment influences purchase intention. There is consequently no doubt that the present study will provide retailers, managers and marketers with a better understanding of the crucial role of store environment in the fashion retail industry.

8.4 Contributions

The contributions of this study are threefold: conceptual, theoretical and practical, as discussed below.

8.4.1 Conceptual Contribution

Conceptually, the present study makes a significant contribution to research in a South African context, particularly Johannesburg. This study was conducted amongst the female members of the black middle class and their buying behaviour related to fashion products. More specifically, it studied the importance and influence of the retail store environment on purchase intention. Previous studies on store environment have explored this phenomenon in a broad, global context, whereas this study investigates store environment and branding constructs within a specifically South African context. By exploring the importance of store environment on consumer behavior here, this study adds to *contextual knowledge* on retail and store environmental factors used to influence consumer purchase intentions. Furthermore, branding constructs, such as brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction, brand attitude, and brand loyalty *have not been used previously as a holistic framework* to measure the impact of store environment on purchase intention.

8.4.2 Theoretical Contribution

The research contributes to marketing literature, brand management, retail management and other related fields in several ways. The first evident contribution of this research is the examination of the store environment construct within a fashion retail setting. This research contributes to the theory of experiential marketing by providing a *validated theoretical framework,* which explains the relationship between the constructs of store environment and purchase intention. Although similar research has been conducted across an array of industries, few have explored fashion retail in a South African context. Secondly, the present research contributes to academic literature as it demonstrates *evidence of store environment as a predictor of purchase intention*. Moreover, the research also points out that brand experience, brand trust, satisfaction and brand attitude are predictor of purchase intention, and brand experience is the most important variable that influences purchase intention. Furthermore, due to a lack of research on store environment in the present context, this study provides a validated conceptual framework, which identifies constructs that have a relationship with the fashion retail context in Johannesburg. This research present descriptive findings from factors influencing purchase intention of fashion products in a local retail setting, and the relationship between purchase intention and brand loyalty. From the findings, the present study provides support that the store environment influences both purchase intention and brand loyalty. As a growing body of literature is exploring the use of experiential marketing in retail to create a competitive advantage, this study provides researchers with an in-depth understanding of consumer responses to sensory cues in retail settings. Within the field of fashion, researchers will have access to current literature on fashion consumption and the sensory factors influencing buying behaviour. Finally, it adds to existing knowledge on branding.

8.4.3 Marketing Contribution

By investigating store environment and its impact on consumers' purchase intention, the findings can provide marketing practitioners with a better understanding of strategies that may be employed to influence consumers' buying behaviour by using experiential marketing. This can be achieved by implementing multi-sensory branding strategies and methods to influence consumer's emotions in store, for example, ensuring that the store has a pleasant scent and suitable music. By successfully implementing this, consumers may spend a longer period of time

in the store thus increasing the likelihood of purchasing a product. Another example is the visual aspect in the store. Firstly, the visual merchandise, window displays and the use of colour in the store are crucial. If the window displays and storefront is inviting, consumers are more likely to enter the store. Inside the store, presentation of the clothing and visual merchandising technique must be suitable to the target market. Clothing can, for example, colour coded, with a limited number of units per display rail. The store should not be cluttered, or inundated with loud music, but rather ought to have a gentle atmosphere and neatly arranged clothing. Further to this, new styles must be well displayed and within reach for customers to be able to assess by touch.

By implementing elements of multi-sensory branding, and by manipulating in-store sensory cues, retailers are guaranteed to experience an increase in brand experience, brand trust, brand satisfaction and brand attitude. In other words, creating a pleasurable in-store environment, consumers are likely to have a pleasant experience with the brand that will lead to an increased possibility of purchasing from the store. Furthermore, by creating a pleasant store environment, consumers are more likely to build trust in the brand. This is explained by the relationships and trust that the consumers build with the store staff. Staff must therefore be well trained, with excellent knowledge on the product and processes. They should also be friendly, while they avoid over-promising service delivery to consumers. Furthermore, consumers are more likely to be satisfied with the brand if the store environment is pleasant. Brand satisfaction is likely to have a positive influence on purchase intention. The last branding variable, brand attitude, is important for customers to consider purchasing from the brand. For example, by means of customer service and sensory cues, retailers will create a positive in-store environment, which will create a positive attitude towards the brand, thus increasing the likelihood of purchasing a product. If these suggestions are successfully implemented, sales, profit and market share are likely to increase.

8.5 Limitations

This research attempted to gain a better understanding of the concept of store environment and its impact on purchase intention. Although this study has made great contributions to literature and marketing practitioners, it has some limitations. The first limitation is that this study was conducted in a fashion context, limiting the findings to the clothing industry alone, and this may

influence the generalisability of the results. Not only that, but the fashion brands referred to in this study were all high fashion ready-to-wear brands, and results for sports clothing brands or basic fashion products might be different. What's more, this study was conducted in Johannesburg, and might not be relevant to other cities in South Africa, or even cities in other developing countries. Furthermore, with regards to context, the sample that was used was middle-class females, whose buying behaviour may differ vastly from other demographic and psychographic groups. Secondly, being an online survey study, respondents might have rushed through the questions, as the there was no researcher present to control and monitor this aspect of the research. With the nature of the research having been online, there is the possibility of the respondent not having completed the survey personally. It could be that due to time constraints, as the majority of the respondents are employed full-time, that they asked peers, colleagues or a friend to complete the survey. Alternatively, their environment may have distracted them. The third limitation is that the survey was designed in English, which is not the first language of the majority of the respondents, where English is a second or third language of preference. This may have resulted in the possibility of misunderstanding, despite care taken to ensure otherwise.

8.6 Future Research

The results of the study contribute to the literature on retail management, experiential marketing, brand management and consumer behaviour. By providing a critical analysis of the store environment and its impact on consumer buying behavior, retailers are able to manipulate sensory cues and in-store stimuli to influence buying behaviour of fashion products. Having highlighted the importance of this study, future research could compliment this study and might seek to explore a variety of other related topics. For example, future research could address this topic in an online setting, where, with the emergence of social media, the significance of social networking sites is continuously growing. From a consumer's perspective, individuals share ideas and experiences through these social networks (Liu, 2007). Online communities are an extremely important factor influencing consumers' beliefs, attitudes and purchasing decisions (Barbalova, 2011). With the growing number of internet users, it is estimated that more than 40% of the world's population will be using the internet by 2020 (Barbalova, 2011). Consequently, online shopping is on the increase. Although several studies have explored various dimensions of online shopping, not much is known about the experiential drivers of online shopping (Novak,

Hoffman, and Yung 2000). Furthermore, another avenue for future research is mobile experiential shopping, a rather unexplored area of research. The significance of mobile shopping is likewise on the increase, as consumers increasingly rely on mobile applications to navigate the internet.

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APPENDIX 1: Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions by marking the appropriate answer(s) with an X. This questionnaire is strictly for research purpose only.

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

The section is asking your background information. Please indicate your answer by ticking (X) on the appropriate box.

A1 Please indicate your gender:

Male		Female	

A2 Please indicate your marital status:

Married		Single	

A3 Please indicate your age category:

<18		19 - 25		26 - 35		36 - 45		>45	

A4 Please indicate your highest academic level:

Primary School	
High School	
Diploma	
Degree	
Post graduate degree	
No Schooling at all	
Other (specify)	

A5 Please indicate your occupation:

Student	
Employed	
Self-employed	

Unemployed	
Other (specify)	

A6 Please indicate your total **household** income per month

Less than R10 000	
R11 000-R20 000	
R21 000-R30 000	
R31 000-R40 000	
R41 000-R50 000	
More than R50 000	

A7 On average, how much do you spend on clothing per month?

Less than R1 000	
R1001-R2000	
R2001-R3000	
R3001-4000	
R4001-R5000	
More than R5000	

A8 What method of payment are you most likely to use when buying clothing?

Store Card	
Debit Card	
Credit Card	
Cash	

A9 Complete the table below.

Favourite clothing store	
Clothing store where you spend most of your money every month	
Favourite clothing brand	

The questions below are all based on the store and brand you have indicated above.

Below are statements about **Store Environment, Brand Experience, Brand Trust, Brand Satisfaction, Brand Attitude, brand Loyalty and Purchase Intention from Store**. You can indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement by circling the corresponding number in the 7 point scale below, for example:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

SECTION B: STORE ENVIRONMENT

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding the environment of your favourite clothing **store**.

		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Neutral**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
B1	The background music makes shopping in this store pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B2	When shopping at this store, the background music bothers me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B3	The background music in this store is appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B4	The colour scheme in this store is pleasing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B5	The colours used in this store appear to be currently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	fashionable.							
B6	The physical facilities in this store are attractive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B7	The merchandise in this store appears organized.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B8	There are enough employees in this store to service customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B9	The employees are well dressed and appear neat.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B10	The employees are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B11	The employees are helpful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: BRAND EXPERIENCE

Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each statement as the statement relates to your experience with your favourite clothing **brand.**								
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**neutral**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
C1	This brand makes a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C2	I find this brand interesting in a sensory way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C3	This brand does not appeal to my senses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C4	This brand induces feelings and sentiments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C5	I do not have strong emotions for this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C6	This brand is an emotional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	brand.							
C7	I engage in physical actions and behaviors when I use this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C8	This brand results in bodily experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C9	This brand is not action-oriented.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C10	I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C11	This brand does not make me think.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C12	This brand stimulates my curiosity and problem-solving.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D: BRAND TRUST

Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with the following statements regarding your brand trust towards your favourite clothing **brand.**								
		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Neutral**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
D1	I trust this brand.	1	**2**	**3**	4	5	6	7
D2	I rely on this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D3	This is an honest brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D4	This brand is safe.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION E: BRAND SATISFACTION

Please rate your satisfaction with your favourite clothing **brand** from strongly disagree to strongly agree

		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**neutral**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
E1	I am very satisfied with the service provided by this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E2	I am very satisfied with this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E3	I am very happy with this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E4	This brand does a good job of satisfying my needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E5	The service-products provided by this brand is very satisfactory.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E6	I believe that using this brand is usually a very satisfying experience.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E7	I made the right decision when I decided to use this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E8	I am addicted to this brand in some way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION F: BRAND ATTITUDE

Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with the following statements regarding your brand attitude towards your favourite clothing **brand.**

		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**Neutral**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
F1	I am strongly passionate about the brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

F2	The brand induces strong passion in me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F3	I long to own this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F4	I have experienced some sort of problems with the brand, but the problems are always overcome promptly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F5	This brand is reliable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION G: BRAND LOYALTY

Please rate your loyalty to this clothing **brand** from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

		Strongly disagree	**disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**neutral**	**Slightly agree**	**agree**	**Strongly agree**
G1	I consider myself to be loyal to this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
G2	When buying clothing, this would be my first choice of brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
G3	I will keep on buying this brand as it provides me with satisfactory products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
G4	I am willing to buy this brand's products even if its price is a little higher than those made by its competitors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
G5	I would love to recommend this brand to my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION H: PURCHASE INTENTION FROM STORE

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your willingness to purchase from your favourite clothing **store**.

		Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly disagree**	**neutral**	**Slightly agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
H1	I am likely to return to this store.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
H2	It is likely that I would consider purchasing from this store in the next 3 months.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
H3	It is likely that I would consider purchasing from this store in the next year.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
H4	For any clothing purchase, I am likely to buy from this store.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you

APPENDIX 2: Cronbach Coefficient Alpha's

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,888	11

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BE1	5,52	1,270	501
BE2	3,17	1,952	501
BE3	5,65	1,226	501
BE4	5,81	1,227	501
BE5	5,91	1,145	501
BE6	5,80	1,189	501
BE7	6,01	1,201	501
BE8	5,53	1,427	501
BE9	5,92	1,173	501
BE10	5,66	1,289	501
BE11	5,71	1,295	501

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BE1	55,17	83,556	,664	,875
BE2	57,52	95,890	,024	,931
BE3	55,04	84,958	,626	,878
BE4	54,88	82,818	,729	,872
BE5	54,78	84,593	,698	,874
BE6	54,89	82,494	,773	,869
BE7	54,69	83,292	,724	,872
BE8	55,16	81,450	,664	,875
BE9	54,78	83,246	,746	,871
BE10	55,03	81,349	,757	,869
BE11	54,98	81,122	,763	,869

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
60,69	100,601	10,030	11

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,813	12

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
STE1	5,45	1,316	501
STE2	5,30	1,304	501
STE3	3,10	1,730	501
STE4	4,91	1,449	501
STE5	3,58	1,685	501
STE6	5,04	1,446	501
STE7	4,49	1,639	501
STE8	4,85	1,474	501
STE9	3,65	1,700	501
STE10	4,78	1,580	501
STE11	4,81	1,514	501
STE12	3,52	1,777	501

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
STE1	48,05	99,588	,507	,797
STE2	48,20	99,610	,511	,797
STE3	50,40	100,711	,315	,814
STE4	48,58	96,264	,572	,791
STE5	49,91	102,647	,268	,818
STE6	48,45	95,656	,597	,789
STE7	49,00	94,914	,533	,793
STE8	48,64	94,386	,631	,786
STE9	49,84	100,604	,326	,813

STE10	48,71	96,223	,513	,795
STE11	48,68	95,130	,582	,789
STE12	49,97	99,687	,332	,813

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
53,49	114,626	10,706	12

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,887	3

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BT1	6,11	1,050	501
BT2	5,78	1,291	501
BT3	6,01	1,137	501

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BT1	11,79	4,944	,834	,802
BT2	12,13	4,426	,708	,917
BT3	11,89	4,636	,819	,805

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
17,91	9,941	3,153	3

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,938	8

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BS1	6,02	1,112	501
BS2	6,07	1,062	501
BS3	6,04	1,052	501
BS4	6,02	1,055	501
BS5	6,14	,989	501
BS6	6,00	1,098	501
BS7	6,11	1,039	501
BS8	5,33	1,656	501

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BS1	41,71	45,437	,820	,927
BS2	41,66	45,413	,867	,924
BS3	41,69	45,435	,876	,923
BS4	41,71	45,830	,841	,925
BS5	41,60	47,341	,782	,930
BS6	41,73	45,035	,863	,924
BS7	41,63	45,810	,859	,924
BS8	42,40	44,048	,554	,959

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
47,73	58,960	7,679	8

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,795	5

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BA1	5,51	1,372	501
BA2	5,28	1,424	501
BA3	5,05	1,504	501
BA4	4,50	1,921	501
BA5	5,96	1,141	501

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BA1	20,80	19,729	,742	,706
BA2	21,02	19,535	,723	,710
BA3	21,25	19,078	,710	,711
BA4	21,80	21,662	,297	,873
BA5	20,34	23,141	,566	,765

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
26,31	30,661	5,537	5

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,874	5

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BL1	5,71	1,281	501
BL2	5,66	1,322	501
BL3	6,11	1,017	501
BL4	5,17	1,739	501
BL5	6,17	1,054	501

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BL1	23,11	18,318	,778	,830
BL2	23,16	18,221	,755	,835
BL3	22,71	20,322	,779	,839
BL4	23,65	16,856	,603	,895
BL5	22,65	20,331	,742	,845

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
28,82	28,496	5,338	5

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,898	4

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PI1	6,22	1,105	501
PI2	6,08	1,256	501
PI3	6,09	1,284	501
PI4	5,89	1,287	501

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PI1	18,06	11,505	,796	,864
PI2	18,20	10,269	,850	,839
PI3	18,19	10,503	,786	,864
PI4	18,39	11,202	,677	,905

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
24,28	18,689	4,323	4

Appendix 3: P-VALUES

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
STE1	<---	STE	1,000				
STE2	<---	STE	,941	,047	20,039	***	par_1
STE4	<---	STE	1,098	,059	18,591	***	par_2
STE6	<---	STE	1,188	,059	20,127	***	par_3
STE7	<---	STE	,747	,072	10,315	***	par_4
STE8	<---	STE	1,049	,065	16,227	***	par_5
STE10	<---	STE	,772	,070	10,971	***	par_6
STE11	<---	STE	1,170	,062	18,957	***	par_7
BE1	<---	BE	1,000				
BE3	<---	BE	,907	,046	19,879	***	par_8
BE4	<---	BE	1,081	,066	16,448	***	par_9
BE5	<---	BE	,948	,059	16,048	***	par_10
BE6	<---	BE	1,124	,065	17,201	***	par_11
BE7	<---	BE	1,100	,071	15,511	***	par_12
BE8	<---	BE	1,075	,078	13,830	***	par_13
BE9	<---	BE	1,050	,063	16,551	***	par_14
BE10	<---	BE	1,049	,070	15,069	***	par_15
BE11	<---	BE	1,122	,071	15,879	***	par_16
BT1	<---	BT	1,000				
BT2	<---	BT	1,022	,046	22,323	***	par_17
BT3	<---	BT	1,072	,033	32,210	***	par_18
BS1	<---	BS	1,000				
BS2	<---	BS	1,010	,035	28,903	***	par_19
BS3	<---	BS	,980	,034	28,551	***	par_20
BS4	<---	BS	,953	,037	25,935	***	par_21
BS5	<---	BS	,847	,036	23,737	***	par_22
BS6	<---	BS	1,034	,036	28,363	***	par_23
BS7	<---	BS	,987	,034	28,924	***	par_24
BS8	<---	BS	1,032	,066	15,758	***	par_25
BA1	<---	BA	1,000				
BA2	<---	BA	1,035	,038	27,225	***	par_26
BA3	<---	BA	,900	,046	19,613	***	par_27
BA4	<---	BA	,432	,072	6,026	***	par_28
BA5	<---	BA	,736	,034	21,514	***	par_29
BL1	<---	BL	1,000				
BL2	<---	BL	,980	,044	22,054	***	par_30
BL3	<---	BL	,891	,039	22,708	***	par_31

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
BL4	<---	BL	1,184	,075	15,748	***	par_32
BL5	<---	BL	,890	,041	21,679	***	par_33
PI1	<---	PI	1,000				
PI2	<---	PI	1,208	,047	25,823	***	par_34
PI3	<---	PI	1,215	,050	24,285	***	par_35
PI4	<---	PI	1,082	,054	20,080	***	par_36

Covariances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
STE	<-->	BE	,596	,062	9,558	***	par_37
STE	<-->	BT	,560	,058	9,669	***	par_38
STE	<-->	BS	,624	,061	10,284	***	par_39
STE	<-->	BA	,944	,083	11,326	***	par_40
STE	<-->	BL	,616	,064	9,601	***	par_41
STE	<-->	PI	,354	,051	6,990	***	par_42
BE	<-->	BT	,627	,058	10,755	***	par_43
BE	<-->	BS	,693	,063	11,046	***	par_44
BE	<-->	BA	,767	,072	10,581	***	par_45
BE	<-->	BL	,649	,064	10,170	***	par_46
BE	<-->	PI	,376	,047	7,911	***	par_47
BT	<-->	BS	,761	,059	12,874	***	par_48
BT	<-->	BA	,852	,070	12,152	***	par_49
BT	<-->	BL	,762	,064	11,987	***	par_50
BT	<-->	PI	,450	,048	9,340	***	par_51
BS	<-->	BA	,912	,074	12,360	***	par_52
BS	<-->	BL	,810	,067	12,038	***	par_53
BS	<-->	PI	,517	,051	10,133	***	par_54
BA	<-->	BL	1,026	,084	12,281	***	par_55
BA	<-->	PI	,597	,062	9,631	***	par_56
BL	<-->	PI	,584	,057	10,266	***	par_57
e22	<-->	e23	,394	,041	9,617	***	par_58
e13	<-->	e15	,443	,046	9,540	***	par_59
e16	<-->	e17	,213	,029	7,332	***	par_60
e34	<-->	e37	,529	,063	8,420	***	par_61
e34	<-->	e40	,337	,048	6,990	***	par_62
e34	<-->	e41	,366	,052	7,029	***	par_63
e34	<-->	e42	,035	,033	1,054	,292	par_64

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e34	<-->	e43	,490	,075	6,537	***	par_65
e34	<-->	e44	,017	,036	,458	,647	par_66
e31	<-->	e42	,086	,015	5,745	***	par_67
e13	<-->	e39	-,091	,026	-3,516	***	par_68
e1	<-->	e2	,160	,039	4,093	***	par_69
e7	<-->	e10	,458	,089	5,117	***	par_70
e7	<-->	e8	,382	,073	5,231	***	par_71
e19	<-->	e39	,115	,024	4,762	***	par_72
e20	<-->	e22	,340	,048	7,118	***	par_73
e47	<-->	e48	-,162	,030	-5,380	***	par_74
e41	<-->	e48	,173	,034	5,115	***	par_75
e40	<-->	e41	,180	,033	5,405	***	par_76
e36	<-->	e39	-,183	,027	-6,778	***	par_77
e24	<-->	e39	,161	,024	6,822	***	par_78
e20	<-->	e23	,279	,046	5,997	***	par_79
e4	<-->	e25	,121	,036	3,349	***	par_80
e43	<-->	e45	-,162	,039	-4,201	***	par_81
e26	<-->	e39	,135	,025	5,314	***	par_82
e26	<-->	e34	-,075	,028	-2,653	,008	par_83
e37	<-->	e38	,356	,086	4,163	***	par_84
e11	<-->	e35	-,151	,032	-4,684	***	par_85
e10	<-->	e15	-,161	,045	-3,582	***	par_86
e8	<-->	e10	,324	,067	4,822	***	par_87
e40	<-->	e46	-,059	,022	-2,656	,008	par_88
e34	<-->	e36	,258	,048	5,335	***	par_89
e19	<-->	e21	,062	,026	2,353	,019	par_90
e17	<-->	e22	,086	,024	3,669	***	par_91
e16	<-->	e27	-,054	,018	-3,001	,003	par_92
e13	<-->	e47	,097	,026	3,763	***	par_93
e22	<-->	e30	-,068	,018	-3,789	***	par_94
e6	<-->	e10	,223	,054	4,131	***	par_95
e42	<-->	e43	-,117	,035	-3,347	***	par_96
e25	<-->	e40	,102	,029	3,566	***	par_97
e21	<-->	e30	-,049	,017	-2,791	,005	par_98
e21	<-->	e22	,068	,023	2,917	,004	par_99
e20	<-->	e45	-,094	,029	-3,278	,001	par_100
e20	<-->	e36	,086	,033	2,589	,010	par_101
e21	<-->	e26	,044	,017	2,539	,011	par_102
e15	<-->	e18	-,055	,024	-2,260	,024	par_103
e13	<-->	e19	-,136	,031	-4,373	***	par_104
e13	<-->	e17	,071	,025	2,783	,005	par_105

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e15	<-->	e35	-,057	,023	-2,440	,015	par_106
e11	<-->	e39	-,104	,034	-3,089	,002	par_107
e11	<-->	e21	-,063	,031	-2,039	,041	par_108
e7	<-->	e38	,274	,111	2,469	,014	par_109
e7	<-->	e18	,105	,043	2,479	,013	par_110
e43	<-->	e44	-,116	,040	-2,898	,004	par_111
e37	<-->	e44	-,069	,029	-2,434	,015	par_112
e37	<-->	e43	,123	,060	2,039	,041	par_113
e36	<-->	e48	-,051	,031	-1,627	,104	par_114
e36	<-->	e46	,033	,026	1,300	,194	par_115
e36	<-->	e37	,058	,039	1,487	,137	par_116
e35	<-->	e46	-,026	,021	-1,259	,208	par_117
e34	<-->	e48	,207	,048	4,356	***	par_118
e34	<-->	e38	,289	,093	3,104	,002	par_119
e34	<-->	e35	,207	,040	5,199	***	par_120
e44	<-->	e45	,040	,018	2,260	,024	par_121
e37	<-->	e42	-,053	,025	-2,119	,034	par_122
e37	<-->	e39	-,108	,033	-3,240	,001	par_123
e33	<-->	e46	,034	,014	2,391	,017	par_124
e33	<-->	e42	,031	,012	2,681	,007	par_125
e33	<-->	e36	-,041	,016	-2,520	,012	par_126
e30	<-->	e41	-,058	,020	-2,863	,004	par_127
e29	<-->	e36	-,055	,016	-3,390	***	par_128
e29	<-->	e33	-,022	,010	-2,130	,033	par_129
e29	<-->	e30	,028	,013	2,214	,027	par_130
e28	<-->	e31	-,032	,012	-2,607	,009	par_131
e25	<-->	e39	,162	,034	4,777	***	par_132
e25	<-->	e34	,145	,046	3,178	,001	par_133
e25	<-->	e31	-,082	,022	-3,778	***	par_134
e34	<-->	e46	,086	,035	2,455	,014	par_135
e32	<-->	e40	,040	,017	2,309	,021	par_136
e30	<-->	e43	,076	,032	2,361	,018	par_137
e29	<-->	e48	,035	,019	1,867	,062	par_138
e29	<-->	e41	-,035	,018	-1,979	,048	par_139
e1	<-->	e35	,057	,029	1,966	,049	par_140
e1	<-->	e39	-,038	,029	-1,306	,192	par_141
e1	<-->	e29	,044	,017	2,562	,010	par_142
e1	<-->	e24	,028	,020	1,435	,151	par_143
e1	<-->	e23	-,049	,026	-1,870	,062	par_144
e1	<-->	e8	-,085	,037	-2,277	,023	par_145
e1	<-->	e21	,078	,026	2,962	,003	par_146

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e2	<-->	e16	,088	,027	3,206	,001	par_147
e2	<-->	e24	-,031	,020	-1,545	,122	par_148
e2	<-->	e41	-,005	,030	-,184	,854	par_149
e25	<-->	e35	,102	,027	3,811	***	par_150
e25	<-->	e37	,153	,039	3,946	***	par_151
e1	<-->	e16	,070	,026	2,674	,007	par_152
e4	<-->	e36	,083	,033	2,514	,012	par_153
e2	<-->	e46	-,068	,025	-2,712	,007	par_154
e2	<-->	e35	,073	,028	2,590	,010	par_155
e16	<-->	e18	,069	,024	2,912	,004	par_156
e15	<-->	e29	,041	,016	2,519	,012	par_157
e15	<-->	e19	-,130	,031	-4,206	***	par_158
e16	<-->	e24	-,045	,015	-3,038	,002	par_159

Covariances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
STE	<-->	BE	,596	,062	9,558	***	par_37
STE	<-->	BT	,560	,058	9,669	***	par_38
STE	<-->	BS	,624	,061	10,284	***	par_39
STE	<-->	BA	,944	,083	11,326	***	par_40
STE	<-->	BL	,616	,064	9,601	***	par_41
STE	<-->	PI	,354	,051	6,990	***	par_42
BE	<-->	BT	,627	,058	10,755	***	par_43
BE	<-->	BS	,693	,063	11,046	***	par_44
BE	<-->	BA	,767	,072	10,581	***	par_45
BE	<-->	BL	,649	,064	10,170	***	par_46
BE	<-->	PI	,376	,047	7,911	***	par_47
BT	<-->	BS	,761	,059	12,874	***	par_48
BT	<-->	BA	,852	,070	12,152	***	par_49
BT	<-->	BL	,762	,064	11,987	***	par_50
BT	<-->	PI	,450	,048	9,340	***	par_51
BS	<-->	BA	,912	,074	12,360	***	par_52
BS	<-->	BL	,810	,067	12,038	***	par_53
BS	<-->	PI	,517	,051	10,133	***	par_54
BA	<-->	BL	1,026	,084	12,281	***	par_55
BA	<-->	PI	,597	,062	9,631	***	par_56
BL	<-->	PI	,584	,057	10,266	***	par_57
e22	<-->	e23	,394	,041	9,617	***	par_58
e13	<-->	e15	,443	,046	9,540	***	par_59
e16	<-->	e17	,213	,029	7,332	***	par_60

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e34	<-->	e37	,529	,063	8,420	***	par_61
e34	<-->	e40	,337	,048	6,990	***	par_62
e34	<-->	e41	,366	,052	7,029	***	par_63
e34	<-->	e42	,035	,033	1,054	,292	par_64
e34	<-->	e43	,490	,075	6,537	***	par_65
e34	<-->	e44	,017	,036	,458	,647	par_66
e31	<-->	e42	,086	,015	5,745	***	par_67
e13	<-->	e39	-,091	,026	-3,516	***	par_68
e1	<-->	e2	,160	,039	4,093	***	par_69
e7	<-->	e10	,458	,089	5,117	***	par_70
e7	<-->	e8	,382	,073	5,231	***	par_71
e19	<-->	e39	,115	,024	4,762	***	par_72
e20	<-->	e22	,340	,048	7,118	***	par_73
e47	<-->	e48	-,162	,030	-5,380	***	par_74
e41	<-->	e48	,173	,034	5,115	***	par_75
e40	<-->	e41	,180	,033	5,405	***	par_76
e36	<-->	e39	-,183	,027	-6,778	***	par_77
e24	<-->	e39	,161	,024	6,822	***	par_78
e20	<-->	e23	,279	,046	5,997	***	par_79
e4	<-->	e25	,121	,036	3,349	***	par_80
e43	<-->	e45	-,162	,039	-4,201	***	par_81
e26	<-->	e39	,135	,025	5,314	***	par_82
e26	<-->	e34	-,075	,028	-2,653	,008	par_83
e37	<-->	e38	,356	,086	4,163	***	par_84
e11	<-->	e35	-,151	,032	-4,684	***	par_85
e10	<-->	e15	-,161	,045	-3,582	***	par_86
e8	<-->	e10	,324	,067	4,822	***	par_87
e40	<-->	e46	-,059	,022	-2,656	,008	par_88
e34	<-->	e36	,258	,048	5,335	***	par_89
e19	<-->	e21	,062	,026	2,353	,019	par_90
e17	<-->	e22	,086	,024	3,669	***	par_91
e16	<-->	e27	-,054	,018	-3,001	,003	par_92
e13	<-->	e47	,097	,026	3,763	***	par_93
e22	<-->	e30	-,068	,018	-3,789	***	par_94
e6	<-->	e10	,223	,054	4,131	***	par_95
e42	<-->	e43	-,117	,035	-3,347	***	par_96
e25	<-->	e40	,102	,029	3,566	***	par_97
e21	<-->	e30	-,049	,017	-2,791	,005	par_98
e21	<-->	e22	,068	,023	2,917	,004	par_99
e20	<-->	e45	-,094	,029	-3,278	,001	par_100
e20	<-->	e36	,086	,033	2,589	,010	par_101

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e21	<-->	e26	,044	,017	2,539	,011	par_102
e15	<-->	e18	-,055	,024	-2,260	,024	par_103
e13	<-->	e19	-,136	,031	-4,373	***	par_104
e13	<-->	e17	,071	,025	2,783	,005	par_105
e15	<-->	e35	-,057	,023	-2,440	,015	par_106
e11	<-->	e39	-,104	,034	-3,089	,002	par_107
e11	<-->	e21	-,063	,031	-2,039	,041	par_108
e7	<-->	e38	,274	,111	2,469	,014	par_109
e7	<-->	e18	,105	,043	2,479	,013	par_110
e43	<-->	e44	-,116	,040	-2,898	,004	par_111
e37	<-->	e44	-,069	,029	-2,434	,015	par_112
e37	<-->	e43	,123	,060	2,039	,041	par_113
e36	<-->	e48	-,051	,031	-1,627	,104	par_114
e36	<-->	e46	,033	,026	1,300	,194	par_115
e36	<-->	e37	,058	,039	1,487	,137	par_116
e35	<-->	e46	-,026	,021	-1,259	,208	par_117
e34	<-->	e48	,207	,048	4,356	***	par_118
e34	<-->	e38	,289	,093	3,104	,002	par_119
e34	<-->	e35	,207	,040	5,199	***	par_120
e44	<-->	e45	,040	,018	2,260	,024	par_121
e37	<-->	e42	-,053	,025	-2,119	,034	par_122
e37	<-->	e39	-,108	,033	-3,240	,001	par_123
e33	<-->	e46	,034	,014	2,391	,017	par_124
e33	<-->	e42	,031	,012	2,681	,007	par_125
e33	<-->	e36	-,041	,016	-2,520	,012	par_126
e30	<-->	e41	-,058	,020	-2,863	,004	par_127
e29	<-->	e36	-,055	,016	-3,390	***	par_128
e29	<-->	e33	-,022	,010	-2,130	,033	par_129
e29	<-->	e30	,028	,013	2,214	,027	par_130
e28	<-->	e31	-,032	,012	-2,607	,009	par_131
e25	<-->	e39	,162	,034	4,777	***	par_132
e25	<-->	e34	,145	,046	3,178	,001	par_133
e25	<-->	e31	-,082	,022	-3,778	***	par_134
e34	<-->	e46	,086	,035	2,455	,014	par_135
e32	<-->	e40	,040	,017	2,309	,021	par_136
e30	<-->	e43	,076	,032	2,361	,018	par_137
e29	<-->	e48	,035	,019	1,867	,062	par_138
e29	<-->	e41	-,035	,018	-1,979	,048	par_139
e1	<-->	e35	,057	,029	1,966	,049	par_140
e1	<-->	e39	-,038	,029	-1,306	,192	par_141
e1	<-->	e29	,044	,017	2,562	,010	par_142

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e1	<-->	e24	,028	,020	1,435	,151	par_143
e1	<-->	e23	-,049	,026	-1,870	,062	par_144
e1	<-->	e8	-,085	,037	-2,277	,023	par_145
e1	<-->	e21	,078	,026	2,962	,003	par_146
e2	<-->	e16	,088	,027	3,206	,001	par_147
e2	<-->	e24	-,031	,020	-1,545	,122	par_148
e2	<-->	e41	-,005	,030	-,184	,854	par_149
e25	<-->	e35	,102	,027	3,811	***	par_150
e25	<-->	e37	,153	,039	3,946	***	par_151
e1	<-->	e16	,070	,026	2,674	,007	par_152
e4	<-->	e36	,083	,033	2,514	,012	par_153
e2	<-->	e46	-,068	,025	-2,712	,007	par_154
e2	<-->	e35	,073	,028	2,590	,010	par_155
e16	<-->	e18	,069	,024	2,912	,004	par_156
e15	<-->	e29	,041	,016	2,519	,012	par_157
e15	<-->	e19	-,130	,031	-4,206	***	par_158
e16	<-->	e24	-,045	,015	-3,038	,002	par_159

Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
STE	1,037	,103	10,108	***	par_160
BE	,782	,091	8,584	***	par_161
BT	,899	,068	13,300	***	par_162
BS	,907	,076	11,986	***	par_163
BA	1,419	,112	12,720	***	par_164
BL	1,001	,095	10,514	***	par_165
PI	,836	,073	11,492	***	par_166
e1	,670	,051	13,026	***	par_167
e2	,746	,054	13,812	***	par_168
e4	,808	,060	13,562	***	par_169
e6	,623	,050	12,378	***	par_170
e7	2,100	,136	15,423	***	par_171
e8	1,027	,073	14,012	***	par_172
e10	1,882	,123	15,332	***	par_173
e11	,839	,063	13,221	***	par_174
e13	,860	,058	14,739	***	par_175
e15	,847	,058	14,627	***	par_176
e16	,531	,039	13,723	***	par_177
e17	,609	,042	14,542	***	par_178
e18	,425	,033	12,730	***	par_179

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e19	,465	,037	12,607	***	par_180
e20	1,178	,079	14,940	***	par_181
e21	,484	,036	13,314	***	par_182
e22	,785	,053	14,756	***	par_183
e23	,702	,050	14,173	***	par_184
e24	,165	,018	9,305	***	par_185
e25	,707	,049	14,416	***	par_186
e26	,217	,021	10,122	***	par_187
e27	,326	,023	14,442	***	par_188
e28	,201	,015	13,261	***	par_189
e29	,202	,016	12,918	***	par_190
e30	,298	,021	14,224	***	par_191
e31	,327	,022	14,648	***	par_192
e32	,235	,017	13,767	***	par_193
e33	,192	,015	13,079	***	par_194
e34	1,658	,103	16,082	***	par_195
e35	,367	,032	11,520	***	par_196
e36	,494	,043	11,439	***	par_197
e37	1,008	,073	13,855	***	par_198
e38	3,406	,216	15,753	***	par_199
e39	,536	,039	13,590	***	par_200
e40	,595	,042	14,029	***	par_201
e41	,723	,050	14,438	***	par_202
e42	,231	,020	11,411	***	par_203
e43	1,667	,119	14,033	***	par_204
e44	,301	,024	12,511	***	par_205
e45	,355	,027	12,982	***	par_206
e46	,333	,031	10,875	***	par_207
e47	,394	,037	10,656	***	par_208
e48	,665	,051	12,956	***	par_209

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
BT	<---	STE	0,706
BE	<---	STE	0,764
BS	<---	STE	0,782
BA	<---	STE	0,876
BL	<---	STE	-0,335
BL	<---	BE	0,016
BL	<---	BT	0,187

BL	<---	BS	0,534
BL	<---	BA	0,628
PI	<---	BL	0,611
STE1	<---	STE	0,803
STE2	<---	STE	0,778
STE4	<---	STE	0,729
STE6	<---	STE	0,778
STE7	<---	STE	0,451
STE8	<---	STE	0,688
STE10	<---	STE	0,493
STE11	<---	STE	0,726
BE1	<---	BE	0,696
BE3	<---	BE	0,66
BE4	<---	BE	0,809
BE5	<---	BE	0,759
BE6	<---	BE	0,831
BE7	<---	BE	0,797
BE8	<---	BE	0,678
BE9	<---	BE	0,806
BE10	<---	BE	0,775
BE11	<---	BE	0,792
BT1	<---	BT	0,926
BT2	<---	BT	0,752
BT3	<---	BT	0,911
BS1	<---	BS	0,856
BS2	<---	BS	0,905
BS3	<---	BS	0,905
BS4	<---	BS	0,863
BS5	<---	BS	0,811
BS6	<---	BS	0,898
BS7	<---	BS	0,901
BS8	<---	BS	0,576
BA1	<---	BA	0,902
BA2	<---	BA	0,874
BA3	<---	BA	0,758
BA4	<---	BA	0,284
BA5	<---	BA	0,677
BL1	<---	BL	0,806
BL2	<---	BL	0,777
BL3	<---	BL	0,861
BL4	<---	BL	0,616
BL5	<---	BL	0,828
PI1	<---	PI	0,847
PI2	<---	PI	0,898
PI3	<---	PI	0,852
PI4	<---	PI	0,73

Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate
STE1	<---	STE	,779
STE2	<---	STE	,743
STE4	<---	STE	,780
STE6	<---	STE	,837
STE7	<---	STE	,465
STE8	<---	STE	,726
STE10	<---	STE	,497
STE11	<---	STE	,793
BE1	<---	BE	,690
BE3	<---	BE	,657
BE4	<---	BE	,795
BE5	<---	BE	,732
BE6	<---	BE	,836
BE7	<---	BE	,819
BE8	<---	BE	,659
BE9	<---	BE	,800
BE10	<---	BE	,723
BE11	<---	BE	,764
BT1	<---	BT	,919
BT2	<---	BT	,755
BT3	<---	BT	,909
BS1	<---	BS	,858
BS2	<---	BS	,906
BS3	<---	BS	,901
BS4	<---	BS	,857
BS5	<---	BS	,816
BS6	<---	BS	,897
BS7	<---	BS	,906
BS8	<---	BS	,607
BA1	<---	BA	,891
BA2	<---	BA	,869
BA3	<---	BA	,730
BA4	<---	BA	,269
BA5	<---	BA	,768
BL1	<---	BL	,792
BL2	<---	BL	,755
BL3	<---	BL	,880

			Estimate
BL4	<---	BL	,676
BL5	<---	BL	,852
PI1	<---	PI	,838
PI2	<---	PI	,886
PI3	<---	PI	,871
PI4	<---	PI	,772