

https://dspace.org/

The effect of brand image, brand trust, and brand experience on consumers' intention to purchase hedonic products in South Africa

Durand, Kyle

2015
http://hdl.handle.net/10539/21929

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

The Effect of Brand Image, Brand Trust, and Brand Experience on Consumers' Intention to Purchase Hedonic Products in South Africa

A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration

Submitted by:	Kyle Durand
Student number:	0616234a
Email address:	durandk21@gmail.com
Submission date:	31 March 2015
Supervisor:	Dr Nathalie Chinje

Abstract

Whilst there are extensive prior studies on the drivers of consumers' intention to purchase a product, such prior studies have tended to look at developed markets (Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, & Donthu, 1995; O'brien, 1971; Philiastides & Ratcliff, 2013) In South Africa, there is limited researches on hedonic products and consumers decision making when purchasing these products.

The purpose of this research is to determine the effect that brand image, trust and experience has on consumers' intention to purchase hedonic products in South Africa. The hypothesised relationship between these predictor variables (brand image, brand trust and brand experience) against the outcome variable of a consumer's intention to purchase was postulated.

The method of analysis used was quantitative. This tactic is a convenience sampling tactic which is utilised frequently within social research (Bickman & Rog, 1998) The initial pool of contacts was that ere utilised as part of the snowballing technique was 162.

Path analysis was utilised to assess the relationship between the manifest variable and the outcome variable.

Brand image and Brand experience of hedonic products has a significant and positive effect on consumer's intention to purchase. Brand experience was shown to have a higher effect than brand trust on the consumer's intention to purchase. The Brand image constructed was rejected.

These constructs are important for markers to understand within emerging markets as Sharma (2011) noted the growing materialism in emerging economies as opposed to the slowing down of materialism in the developed world. Shukla (2012) furthermore highlighted the importance of understanding this market as emerging markets size and growth provides large opportunities for firms.

Key words: **Brand Image, Brand experience, Brand trust, Emerging Market, Developed market ,Hedonic product, Utilitarian product, Consumer intent to purchase.**

DECLARATION

I, _____, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Kyle Durand

Signed at ……

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to firstly thank my wife Laura for all the support over the last two and a half years. Your patience and understanding has allowed me to pursue a qualification of this nature with the necessary focus. I've appreciated everything over this period and look forward to the future with excitement.

Thank you to my supervisor, Nathalie Chinje, for her ongoing guidance and direction. Your input and counsel was invaluable.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract i

DECLARATION iii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS iv

LIST OF TABLES viii

LIST OF FIGURES ix

Chapter 1: Introduction 1

1.1 Purpose of the study 1
1.2 Context of the study 1
1.3 Problem statement 2
1.3.1 Main problem 3
1.3.2 Sub-problems 3
1.4 Objective of the study 3
1.5 Research questions 3
1.6 Significance of the study 4
1.7 Delimitations of the study 4
1.8 Definition of terms 5
1.9 Assumptions 5
2.1 Branding 6
2.1.1 Definition and Purpose of branding 6
2.2.2 Benefits of branding 6
2.2.3 Challenges of branding 7
2.3 Brand Image 7
2.3.1 Definition and Purpose 7
2.3.2 Benefits of brand image 8
2.3.3 Brand Image effects on consumers intention to purchase 9
2.4 Brand Trust 9
2.4.1 Definition and Purpose 9
2.4.2 Benefits of brand trust 10
2.4.3 Brand trust effects on consumers intention to purchase 11
2.5 Brand Experience 12
2.5.1 Definition and Purpose 12
2.4.2 Benefits of brand experience 13
2.4.3 Brand experience effects on consumers intention to purchase 14
2.6 Emerging markets 14
2.7 Hedonic Products 15
2.7.1 Characteristics of Hedonic products 15
2.7.2. Hedonic products within emerging markets 16

2.7.3 BENEFITS OF HEDONIC PRODUCTS 16
2.8 CONCLUSION OF LITERATURE REVIEW 17
2.8.1HYPOTHESIS 1: 17
2.8.2 HYPOTHESIS 2: 17
2.8.2 HYPOTHESIS 17
2.9 CONCEPTUAL MODEL: 18

Chapter 3: Research Methodology 19

3.1RESEARCH PARADIGM 19
3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN 20
3.2.1 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT 22
3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLE 23
3.3.1 POPULATION 23
3.3.2 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHOD 25
3.5 PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION 25
3.5.1 DEMOGRAPHIC OF RESPONDENTS 27

Chapter 4: Results 31

4.1 SAS SOFTWARE AND STRUCTURE EQUATION MODELLING (SEM) 31
4.1 DEMOGRAPHIC RESPONSE OF RESPONDENTS 31
4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS 32
4.3 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS/MODEL FIT 33
4.3.1. GOODNESS OF FIT 33
4.3.2 VALIDITY 35
4.3.2.1EXTERNAL VALIDITY 35
4.3.2.2 INTERNAL VALIDITY 36
4.3.2.3 RELIABILITY 37
4.3.3 PATH MODELLING/STRUCTURE MODELLING 39

Chapter 5: Interpretation of results 41

5.1HYPOTHESIS DISCUSSION: 41
5.3 RESEARCH QUESTION 1 44
5.4 RESEARCH QUESTION 2 44

Chapter 6: Conclusion, recommendations, implications, limitations and area of future research 47

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS 47
6.4 CONCLUSION 47
6.5 IMPLICATION FOR THIS STUDY 50
6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY 51
6.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH 52

References 53

APPENDIX 1.....61
APPENDIX 2.....63

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Respondents Employment situation vs. South African population..... 24

Table 2: Demographic analysis of respondents 27

Table 3: Demographic of respondent's vs South African population 28

Table 4: Respondents Income level vs South African population..... 29

Table 5: Respondents Employment situation vs. South African population..... 29

Table 6: Average amount of spend per Hedonic product sample class: 30

Table 7: The assessments of respondents spend on examples of hedonic products 32

Table 8: Goodness of it summary from SAS output: 34

Table 9: Correlation coefficient of construct variables..... 36

Table 10: Cronbach alpha measurements per construct:..... 38

Table 11: Revised model Conceptual model PATH coefficients: 39

Table 12: Gini coefficient across emerging markets and OECD* 45

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: The conceptual model 18

Figure 2: Understanding of Hedonic nature of example good listed in survey: 33

Figure 3: The Revised Model conceptual model 40

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter provides introduces this research. The purpose of the study, the problem statement as well as research objectives and key research questions are presented. In addition, the significance of the study, its delimitations, and key assumptions made are discussed.

1.1 Purpose of the study

Branding is the process of endowing products or services with advantages to build a strong brand (Keller, 2003). Brand intangibles such as brand image, trust and experience are facets of branding that affect brand equity (Aaker, 2009). Whilst branding has been extensively studied (Bastos & Levy, 2012; Keller, 2003; Keller & Lehmann, 2006), limited attention has been provided to hedonic products and the relationship between these three predictor variables (namely brand image, trust and experience) which affect a consumer's intention to purchase (outcome variable) within an emerging market context.

The purpose of this research is to determine the effect that brand image, trust and experience has on consumers' intention to purchase hedonic products in South Africa.

1.2 Context of the study

Armstrong, Kotler, and He (2000) observed a brand as a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the products or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors. Bastos and Levy (2012) noted that although a sign and symbol are important ingredients of a brand, it has evolved to incorporate intangibles such as identity, associations and personality. Brand intangibles are a common means by marketers to differentiate brands for consumers (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Philiastides and Ratcliff (2013) noted that companies should strive to promote strong affective associations

(intangibles) with their brand among customers to develop and maintain a competitive advantage.

Branding according to Keller (2003) is the process of endowing products or services with advantages to build a strong brand. Philiastides and Ratcliff (2013) found that branding information is integrated into the consumers' decision making process and alters choice behaviour. This proven effect on consumers' behaviour underpins the importance of branding within marketing or brand strategies (O'brien, 1971). Branding has been shown to affect consumer choice (Philiastides & Ratcliff, 2013) and thus is an important part of marketing and brand strategies (O'brien, 1971) .

Within South Africa the majority of the potential economically active population (15-64) used in Statistics South Africa reporting (StatisticsSouthAfrica, 2013) fall within the national census age band of 20-59 (StatisticsSouthAfrica, 2013). This age band represents 53.2% of the population as defined by 28.2 Million individuals. By definition of its size this population group is a significant contributor to the South African GDP. StatisticsSouthAfrica (2014a) notes the latest full year Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is R874 billion. The GDP per capita within South Africa is R63 644. The sector into which hedonic products would fall, as defined by Statistics SouthAfrica (2014), is the "Wholesale, retail and motor trade; catering and accommodation" which makes up 16, 4% of GDP in 2013.

The extant literature suggests that consumer choices are driven by utilitarian and hedonic considerations (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). Both hedonic and utilitarian products offer benefits to the consumer, the former primarily in the form of experiential enjoyment and the latter in practical functionality (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993). There is growth within the emerging markets for luxury products which satisfy the hedonistic and materialistic socioeconomic wants of consumers (Shukla, 2012). Over the coming decade, 85 percent of all luxury stores will be opening in emerging markets (Krauss, 2009).

1.3 Problem statement

Whilst there are extensive prior studies on the drivers of consumers' intention to purchase a product, such prior studies have tended to look at developed markets

(Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; O'brien, 1971; Philiastides & Ratcliff, 2013) In South Africa, there is limited researches on hedonic products and consumers decision making when purchasing these products. This is despite the growing relevance on importance of hedonic or luxury good segment within emerging markets (Krauss, 2009)

1.3.1 Main problem

There is a research gap which analyses the effect brand image; experience and trust on consumer's intention to purchase hedonic products within an emerging market context.

1.3.2 Sub-problems

- The first problem is to illustrate the effect of brand trust, brand image and brand experience has on a consumer's intention to purchase.
- The second sub-problem is to understand branding of hedonic products within the emerging market context. Shukla (2012) noted that materialism and hedonism behaviour is poorly understood in emerging markets

1.4 Objective of the study

The intention of this research is to determine the effect brand image, trust and experience has on a consumer's intent to purchase. This is assessed with regard to purchasing of hedonic products within an emerging market context. This could enable business leaders within these markets/sectors to understand in which branding intangibles to invest during the branding process.

1.5 Research questions

The main research questions are:

- What is the effect of the predictor variables of brand image, brand trust, and brand experience on a consumer's intent to purchase (the outcome variable)?

- What is the relevance of these factors for the marketing of hedonic products within an emerging market?

1.6 Significance of the study

The effect of a brand image, brand trust and brand experience as part of branding on consumers intent to purchase products, has not clearly been accounted for in South Africa. The effect of these three predictor variables on the consumers' intent to purchase could hold much insight into valuing the branding process. The study may provide a guide to marketers (within the hedonic segment) for a better understanding of the importance of these brand intangibles on consumers' intention to purchase these products. This guidance could have significant implications for a brand's resourcing and investment as well as the potential sales and profit achieved by selling such products

1.7 Delimitations of the study

Its importance to acknowledge some de-limiting factors that are innate to this study:

- Market sector used in analysis only includes the Retail sector.
    - The Brands analysed come from this restricted sector.
- Only three facets (brand image, brand trust and brand experience) of brand intangibles (Aaker, 2009) are analysed.
- The "consumer" identified, is a representation of consumers within a certain age group (18-65) and across all South African ethnic profiles (black/white, etc.).
- This study takes place within a South African context, considered an emerging market (Ramamurti & Singh, 2009).
- Omission of hedonic products is unavoidable.

1.8 Definition of terms

Brand:	A name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of them which is intended to identify the products and services of one seller or a group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors (Armstrong et al., 2000).
Branding:	Branding is the process of endowing products or services with the advantages to build a strong brand (Keller, 2003).
Hedonic good:	Provides more experiential consumption, fun, pleasure and excitement than functional products (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000).
Brand image:	Is a conceptual construct (Kapferer, 1992) or branding intangible (Bastos & Levy, 2012) that affects brand equity (Faircloth, Capella, & Alford, 2001).
Brand experience:	The consumer experience when searching for a product, when consumers shop and receive service and when they consume the product (Arnould & Price, 1993; J Josko Brakus, Schmitt, & Zhang, 2008; Holbrook, 2000).
Brand trust:	A consumer's confidence that the brand, product or service is dependable and competent (Erdem & Swait, 2004).

1.9 Assumptions

In order to achieve a narrow and focused research findings some key assumptions are discussed in this study which include:

- The various brands defined as hedonic are understood as such by all participants completing the survey
- The sector and brands researched within this report represent a sample of the retail consumer choice set in South Africa.
- Brands were chosen through a meta-analysis of various polls of the top Brands in the sector.
- The consumers studied represent a significant and relevant sample of the common South African consumer.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter examines the extant literature to define and illustrate the various predictor variables analysed within this study. The hypothesised relationship between these predictor variables (brand image, brand trust and brand experience) against the outcome variable of a consumer's intention to purchase is postulated. These hypotheses provided a framework to the conceptual model.

2.1 Branding

2.1.1 Definition and Purpose of branding

A brand is a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of these, intended to identify the products or services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors (Armstrong et al., 2000).

Bastos and Levy (2012) note that although a sign and symbol are important ingredients of a brand, it has evolved to include intangibles such as identity, associations and personality. This notion is supported by C. Jones and Bonevac (2013) who argue that this branding goes beyond the name and logo and is more about brand awareness, identification and differentiating features. C. Jones and Bonevac (2013) note that branding is a process to establish a brand through defining its category and differentiating attributes.
This definition is aligned to Keller (1993)'s defintion of branding; The process of endowing products or services with advantages to build a strong brand

Branding has materialized as a substantial element of marketing strategies, and it appears to have developed into an important determinant of consumer choices (Anand & Shachar, 2004; Ataman, Van Heerde, & Mela, 2010; Philiastides & Ratcliff, 2013).

2.2.2 Benefits of branding

Philiastides and Ratcliff (2013) mentioned that companies should strive to promote strong affective associations (intangibles) with their brand among customers to

develop and maintain a competitive advantage. They represent branding as initially a form of denoting what an object is, yet connotations are formed from denotation..

Brand intangibles are a common means by marketers to differentiate brands for consumers (Keller & Lehmann, 2006) . There are many constructs within the brand intangible arena (Aaker, 2009). This study focuses on three brand intangible variables; brand image, brand trust and brand experience.

2.2.3 Challenges of branding

C. Jones and Bonevac (2013) note that branding has “a branding problem”, whereby other corporate division such as finance, operations do not understand the term branding. The notion of the term and the lack of understanding of its impact across other corporate functions underpin the requirement to engage functional leaders around education of branding and its importance

Furthermore , as has been noted; branding is the process of differentiating a product from competitors (Armstrong et al., 2000) which requires developing a sign and symbol for a brand (Bastos & Levy, 2012) and driving brand intangibles (such as brand awareness, etc) (Aaker, 2009). All these elements of branding involve much investment. The challenge for marketers is to understand which elements of branding affect a consumers behaviour and thus become the basis for making accurate strategic decisions (Keller, 1993).

2.3 Brand Image

2.3.1 Definition and Purpose

Biel (1992) notes that brand image is the combined effect of brand associations. These associations were categorised as “hard” or “soft” associations. To be more specific “hard” associations were tangible, while soft associations are noted as intangible (Biel, 1992; Engel & Roger, 1993). This definition must not be mistaken for the brand’s attitude, which is the consumers overall evaluation of the brand (Keller, 1993) The brand’s attitude is just one of the associations utilised in the formation of a brand’s image (Keller, 1993)

Biel (1992) described brand image as having three contributing components namely, the corporate image, the image of the user and the product/service image. These three facets vary in importance across different brands, sectors and markets. Although a different construct, Keller (1993) proposed similar perceptual connotations of brand image by defining brand image as the perceptual beliefs, attributes, the benefit and the attitude toward the brand held by consumers.

The purpose of brand image within branding for marketers was highlighted by Kapferer (1992) who noted that conceptually a brands image is a consumer construct residing in the associative memory network. This construct guides a consumer's choice of brands and therefore is critical to the consumer's decision making. This construct assists in an evaluation of a brand by a consumer and could provide bias for one brand over the next and ultimately contribute to brand equity (Holden, 1992)

2.3.2 Benefits of brand image

A consumer's perception of a brand (including brand image) is affected through marketing mix activities (Kapferer, 1992, 2012; Keller, 1993), yet there seems to be a low understanding by marketers on how a brand image is created and the ultimate impact on brand equity (Faircloth et al., 2001). Brand equity could be considered the cash flow premium a brand enjoys due to consumer behaviour (Aaker, 2009) . Brand image directly drives brand equity, this makes brand image an important concept for marketers to understand (Faircloth et al., 2001).Faircloth et al. (2001) noted that a positive brand image was shown to significantly enhance the likelihood of intent to purchase.

A specific brand image can be developed by manipulating a brands association (Faircloth et al., 2001). Marketers can develop the desired brand image by communicating specific brand associations (Faircloth et al., 2001). Marketers should therefore be aware of the dangers of randomly developing and communicating brand associations (Faircloth et al., 2001). Moreover, overloading consumers with brand associations that are not well constructed could create brand images that are not

desirable (Faircloth et al., 2001). Bird, Channon, and Ehrenberg (1970) found that in order to convert “non-users” of a particular brand to become “users”, the” nonusers” would need to share the same brand image as the users

2.3.3 Brand Image effects on consumers intention to purchase

Faircloth et al. (2001) maintain that different combinations of brand associations can affect the brand image in a positive manner. Positive brand images were found to significantly improve the likelihood of a consumer’s intention to purchase (Faircloth et al., 2001) and they suggest that along with other branding activities, investment into brand image is imperative in building a brand and has a direct relationship to the success of a brand.

Graeff (1998) delved into the well-researched notion that congruency between self-image and brand image affects a consumer purchasing consideration. What was clear from this research is Brand Image of a consumer is highly important as consumers make purchase decisions based on a product's symbolic meanings and image (Graeff, 1998). Thus, it is posited that:

H_1: Brand image has a positive and significant effect on consumer’s intention to purchase hedonic products

As has been noted brand image , as a brand association has been shown to positively affect brand equity, which in turn affects consumer behaviour (Faircloth et al., 2001). Brand trust is another important facet of branding that can increase customer loyalty which is a consumer behaviour outcome (J Joško Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009).

2.4 Brand Trust

2.4.1 Definition and Purpose

Brand trust can be defined as a consumers confidence that the brand is dependable and competent (Herbst, Finkel, Allan, & Fitzsimons, 2012). Brand Trust predicts

brand loyalty (Herbst et al., 2012; Lau & Lee, 1999), brand loyalty in itself has been shown to drive consumer behaviour , such as repeat purchasing(Lau & Lee, 1999) .

Brand trust can be defined as a consumer's confidence that the brand, product or service is dependable and competent (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Doney & Cannon, 1997; Erdem & Swait, 2004; McAllister, 1995; Moorman, Zaltman, & Deshpande, 1992; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sirdeshmukh, Singh, & Sabol, 2002) Brand trust is a predictor of consumers perception of a brands credibility, loyalty and commitment (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Erdem & Swait, 2004; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002) . Similarly it was noted by Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) that brand trust is the willingness of the consumer to rely on the performance of a brands stated function. However, Doney and Cannon (1997) were of the view that brand trust was an operational construct determined from a consumers belief of a brands ability to be reliable, safe, and honest. The consumer has a relationship with the brand, based on the brands ability to continue to meet its obligations, the consumer then decides on a cost vs. reward basis on whether to stay within this relationship. This reinforces Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001)'s work which illustrated that brand trust is a predictor of consumer loyalty.

2.4.2 Benefits of brand trust

The brand and the level of trust it has with consumers is an important construct for the consumer. As Herbst et al. (2012) showed, if a brand provides ambiguous and suspicious behaviour, a consumer's intention to purchase differs according to whether the brand is trusted or not. If a brand a consumer does not trust, provides ambiguous tendencies, then intention to purchase falls, yet if a brand a consumer trusts demonstrates the same ambiguous tendencies, consumers exhibit faith in that brand. Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) found that brand trust when combined with brand affect (e.g. emotional ties or feelings), effects a brand's loyalty which, in turn, affects some outcome measurements such as repeat purchasing by consumers (Lau & Lee, 1999).

2.4.3 Brand trust effects on consumers intention to purchase

Erdem and Swait (2004) highlighted that a brand's credibility can be defined as the believability of the product information contained in a brand. Credibility of a brand from a consumer's perspective specifies the brand's ability and willingness to continue to deliver what has been promised. Lau and Lee (1999) found that a brands predictability, confidence and reputation are key drivers in developing brand trust. These factors align with Erdem and Swait (2004's) two factor model in measuring brand trust.

The two factors that were found to determine a brand's credibility is trustworthiness (trust) and expertise (brand strength). Erdem and Swait (2004) found that a brand's credibility affects a consumer's brand choice and brand consideration. Furthermore, it was established that trustworthiness affected consumer choice and brand consideration more than a brands expertise. This shows that brand trust affects a brands credibility which in turn affects a consumer's brand choice.

The formation of brand trust can be defined as the sum of the cumulative past and present marketing strategies of the marketing communication plan (Erdem & Swait, 2004). Within this study, the same questions or manifest variables utilised by Erdem and Swait (2004) are utilised to assess brand trust as a latent variable (see Appendix 4) against the manifest variable of a consumer intention to purchase. Lau and Lee (1999) found that brand trust is a contributor towards brand loyalty, which can be defined as repurchasing and recommendation of the brand to friends and family. Marketers need to understand the role of brand trust for consumers as it affects consumers behavioural intention (Lau & Lee, 1999). It is thus posited that:

H_2: Brand trust has a positive and significant effect on consumer's intention to purchase hedonic products

Brand trust is a useful construct when measuring branding, yet another more subjective internal consumer response is the brand experience (J Joško Brakus et al., 2009).

2.5 Brand Experience

2.5.1 Definition and Purpose

A key facet of branding is the brand experience (Hanna & Rowley, 2013). It is important to note that a consumer's experience is the culmination of the perceive functional (tangible) and experiential (intangible) attributes (Baker, 2007; Cai, 2002; Hankinson, 2004; Kavaratzis, 2004; Moilanen & Rainisto, 2008) . To enhance a consumers experience requires firms to identify and capitalise on key identified attributes (Sidorko & Woo, 2008).

Research supports the notion that a brand experience takes place when consumers search for a product, when they shop and receive service and when they consume them (Arnould & Price, 1993; J Josko Brakus et al., 2008; Holbrook, 2000).

A product experience is the term used to describe the context when consumers interact with a product (Hoch, 2002). An example of this is when consumers search for products, examine and evaluate them (Hoch, 2002). This interaction can be in the form of direct contact with the product (Hoch & Ha, 1986) or an indirect experience (for example through an advert)(Hoch & Ha, 1986; Kempf & Smith, 1998). The shopping experience for the consumer, which is part of the product experience, occurs within the physical environment of a store. This shopping experience includes the interaction by the consumer with the personnel, policies and practices (Hui & Bateson, 1991; Kerin, Jain, & Howard, 1992). Within this environment, factors such as the effect of atmospheric variables and salespeople affect the consumer (Arnold, Reynolds, Ponder, & Lueg, 2005; Arnould & Price, 1993; Boulding, Kalra, Staelin, & Zeithaml, 1993; M. A. Jones, 1999; Ofir & Simonson, 2007) .

The consumption experience occurs when consumers use a product (J Joško Brakus et al., 2009). This has been researched mostly on a multidimensional hedonistic dimension (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

Conceptually, the brand experience is a subjective, internal consumer and behavioural response (J Joško Brakus et al., 2009). These responses are stimulated

by brand related stimuli - this stimuli could be a brand's colours (Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Gorn, Chattopadhyay, Yi, & Dahl, 1997; Meyers-Levy & Peracchio, 1995) shapes (Veryzer & Hutchinson, 1998) , typefaces (Mandel & Johnson, 2002)etc.

It is important to define the brand experience against other brand constructs. A brands experience and a brands attitude are related, yet are significantly different. J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) noted that a brand experience is a specific feeling or sensation, and behaviour response triggered by a specific brand related stimulus.. However, a brand attitude is a general evaluation and captures a small part of the brand experience. Importantly, Keller (1993) noted that brand experience is distinct from brand associations and thus brand image. The brand experience is the actual sensations, feelings and behavioural response a consumer experiences rather than the evaluative or affective process that are common in a brand association/image (J Joško Brakus et al., 2009)

2.4.2 Benefits of brand experience

The brand experience seems to be more effective on consumers than the perceived brand image (O'Cass & Grace, 2004), the impact of which was noted by O'Leary and Deegan (2005) who found that a negative Brand Image can be negated by a positive brand experience.

Baker (2007) notes within his research that the consumers brand experience is affected by many contact points. These contact points take place across many channels and stakeholders. These contact points allow a consumer to develop certain brand perceptions and then interpret the brand identity into a perceived brand image.

J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) shows that a positive brand experience has a behavioural impact on consumers as it directly affects a consumers satisfaction and loyalty. These lasting brand experiences over time do affect customer loyalty and customer satisfaction (Frederick, 1996; Oliver, 1997).

2.4.3 Brand experience effects on consumers intention to purchase

As brand experiences affect customer loyalty and customer satisfaction as highlighted by Frederick (1996) and Oliver (1997) . Lau and Lee (1999) noted that customer loyalty results in positive consumer behaviour for a brand which includes repeat purchasing and recommendations to family and friends.

J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) found that brand experience is a conceptual subjective consumer response evoked by a brand within a certain setting. This conceptual impact was found to have a direct impact on consumer satisfaction and loyalty. It is thus posited that

H_3: Brand experience has a positive and significant effect on consumer's intention to purchase hedonic products

This study focused on the effects of these three intangibles within the context of an emerging market; additionally the products that are analysed are hedonic products

2.6 Emerging markets

Emerging economy definitions are broad and vast , Çivi (2000) summarised the characteristics of emerging markets as firstly having lower levels of economic development than certain developed nations (e.g. USA, which can be represented as gross domestic product (GDP) per capita). Secondly, emerging economies tend to be transitional in natures; whereby governments are striving for a robust market driven economy along with democratic reforms. Thirdly, a high growth rate usually represented as GDP growth. Fourthly, emerging economies tend to have a large opportunity for future growth, which could be defined by the current GDP against other more developed countries.

Additional to these characteristic identified by (Çivi, 2000), Stand and Rising (2011) noted that emerging markets tend to have large inequality within its economies. These economies have higher inequality than developed nations (e.g. OECD

countries). A common and popular measure of inequality of nations is the Gini coefficient (Stand & Rising, 2011). The Gini coefficient proves a single figure which defines the inequality of a nation, it ranges between zero and one with zero being a country that is perfectly equal (everyone receives the same income) and one a country that is perfectly unequal (i.e. all income is received by one person) (Stand & Rising, 2011). The Gini coefficient measures income inequality of all individuals residing in a certain country (Stand & Rising, 2011). The Gini coefficient for OECD countries is 0.32, whilst countries like South Africa it is much higher at 0.7(Stand & Rising, 2011).

2.7 Hedonic Products

2.7.1 Characteristics of Hedonic products

Often products are described as either hedonic or utilitarian, these however do not necessarily need to be two polar ends of a scale (Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003). Crowley, Spangenberg, and Hughes (1992) suggest that varying products can have attributes that are both high and low in both hedonic and utilitarian nature.
Historically, hedonic and utilitarian products have been conceptually viewed differently, Bazerman, Tenbrunsel, and Wade-Benzoni (1998) labelled products as “wants” or “shoulds”. The “wants” were noted as experientially appealing compared to the “shoulds”, similar to hedonistic products being more experientially appealing than the utilitarian products. However these “wants” (hedonic products) mentioned were conceptualised as “vices” which were exemplified through harmful behaviour (e.g. smoking, drinking, etc.). These vices were described by their immediately gratifying behaviour and a harmful subsequent long term effect. Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000), however, had a different view and made the distinction that hedonic products are expected to provide benefits and any harmful payoff is not expected. Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000) went further by defining hedonic products as providing a more experiential consumption (fun, pleasure, etc.) than utilitarian products. This relates to Hirschman and Holbrook (1982)’s definition of hedonic consumption as a behaviour that relates to the multi-sensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of product use. The importance of the hedonic vs utilitarian consideration is

underpinned by Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000) findings that hedonic or utilitarian considerations by consumers drive brand choices.

2.7.2. Hedonic products within emerging markets

This consumer behaviour strongly correlates to the purchasing of luxury products or products (Vigneron & Johnson, 2004). Understanding the consumer's purchasing patterns of luxury products within emerging markets is becoming increasingly significant due to the growth of luxury brand consumption within these territories (Shukla, 2012). This growth is forcing global firms to focus and understand this new target market, whose purchasing power, desire and aspirations are fuelling this growth (Shukla, 2012).

A report by Krauss (2009) showed that 85% of all luxury stores will be opening within emerging market territories over the next decade . The report further identifies that although western developed economies like USA, Japan and Europe are seeing a decline in luxury sales, emerging territories like China, India and Russia are seeing double digit growth in this segment. Sharma (2011) noted that consumers in emerging markets may attach a higher premium to luxury products than western consumers, due to the social status achieved through these luxury purchases. Belk (1999) further identified an increasing desire for luxury products among consumers in emerging markets.

2.7.3 Benefits of Hedonic products

In a comparative analysis, utilitarian products tend to be relative necessities compared to hedonic products which could be comparatively discretionary in nature (Okada, 2005). That being said, it is vital to note that both hedonic and utilitarian products offer benefits to the consumer. These benefits are different as hedonic products provide the consumer with an experiential enjoyment and utilitarian goods provide a practical functionality (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993).

Shukla (2012) noted, that hedonism is a personal value perception and, along with materialism, simultaneously influences the purchase of luxury products. As Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000) noted the experiential consumption of hedonic products is similar to the purchase of luxury products which satisfy material as well as socio-psychological needs of consumers (Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Wiedmann, Hennigs, & Siebels, 2009).

2.8 Conclusion of Literature Review

2.8.1Hypothesis 1:

- Brand image has a positive and significant effect on consumer's intention to purchase hedonic products

2.8.2 Hypothesis 2:

- Brand trust has a positive and significant effect on consumer's intention to purchase hedonic products

2.8.2 Hypothesis

- Brand experience has a positive and significant effect on consumer's intention to purchase hedonic products

2.9 Conceptual Model:

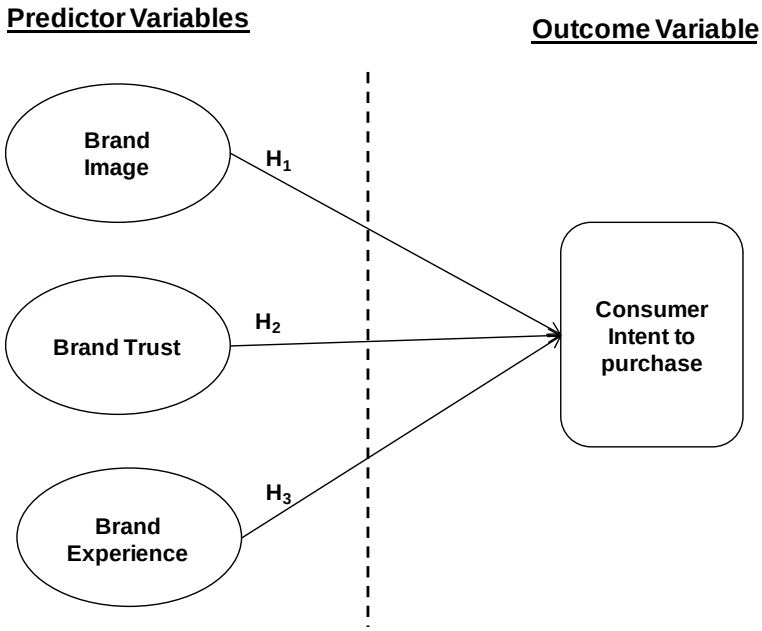


Figure 1: The conceptual model

H_1: Brand image of hedonic products has a significant and positive effect on consumer's intention to purchase

H_2: Brand trust of hedonic products has a significant and positive effect on consumer's intention to purchase

H_3: Brand experience of hedonic products has a positive and significant effect on consumer's intention to purchase

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

This chapter provides a guide of the methodology utilised for this study. The method of analysis used was quantitative, which is discussed according to both research and marketing literature. The research instrument, population sample, research design and data collection procedure are defined and discussed.

3.1Research paradigm

In this study, a quantitative research strategy was utilised to assess the effect of a brand image, brand trust, and brand experience on a consumer's decision to purchase products.

The choice of quantitative research was supported by Creswell (2009), who noted that survey based research can provide a quantitative or numeric description of a population by studying a sample of the population. This information is then utilised to test objective theories or hypotheses by examining a relationship amongst variables.

Quantitative methods generally use predetermined, instrument based data (as in the case of this study) which is statistically analysed post collection. This study was based on post-positivism philosophy, in that the causes are analysed to determine effects or outcomes (Creswell, 2009). Accordingly, brand image, brand trust, and brand experiences were assessed as causal to consumers purchase intention.

Creswell (2009) mentioned that principally; post-positivists' develop a numeric measures of observation and analyse an individual's behaviour. A post-positivism approach, as with this study, begins with a theory, collecting of data that supports or refutes the theory. Post this, further revisions and tests are executed.

The rationale for quantitative method as opposed to qualitative lies in the objective of the study. Creswell (2009) noted that quantitative studies generally test objective theories by analysing relationships amongst variables (in this study the predictor and

outcome variables) whereas qualitative research is a means of understanding why groups ascribe to a social problem.

Quantitative methods may have less subjectivity of the observed behaviour due to little researcher subjectively affecting answers (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Within this study the participants completed a questionnaire with relatively no researcher subjective interpretation. Bhattacherjee (2012) further mentioned that due to its numerical nature, quantitative data may be more precise than qualitative data in analysing social phenomena.

Within the branding literature Faircloth et al. (2001), J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) and Erdem and Swait (2004) utilised quantitative analysis in identifying various effects of brand intangibles on consumers behaviour or perceptions

3.2 Research Design

The methodology of this study was to gain numeric data which was analysed statistically , quantitative data was acquired in the form of a non-experimental mode of enquiry such as a survey (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative close ended surveys, which have been used with in this field previously (J Joško Brakus et al., 2009) were utilised.

Surveys as described by Bhattacherjee (2012) have inherent strengths over other research methods. The advantages of survey data collection relating to this study is; firstly surveys serve as an excellent tool to measure a wide range of unobservable data such as peoples preferences, attitudes and behaviours.

Secondly, surveys allow a researcher to obtain data from a population that is too large to collect from directly. Survey research within a quantitative framework can be utilised for cross sectional studies utilising a questionnaire for data collection, a sample of this method can then be generalised into the population (Babbie, 1990).

Thirdly, due to surveys allowing respondents to complete at their convenience, it is generally a preferred data collection tool by respondents.

Fourthly, the relatively low inputs in terms of a researcher's time effort and cost compared to other methodologies are clear advantages. However, surveys can produce some disadvantages in research (Bhattacherjee, 2012). One of the major concerns with surveys is systemic bias, this could be in the form of sampling bias, social desirability bias, recall bias etc. (Bhattacherjee, 2012).
Creswell (2009) noted that quantitative strategies tend to utilise surveys and experiments as methods of enquiry into a certain topic.

In this study, Brand trust was determined using constructs from Erdem and Swait (2004) measurement of a brands trustworthiness. This was further guided on Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) definition of brand trust as the willingness of the consumer to rely on the performance of a brands stated function. In addition, all questions from the Erdem and Swait (2004) study were modified into a 7-point Likert scale(1 = "strongly disagree," and 7 = "strongly agree) for consistency purposes. The brand trust questions can be found in appendix 1(Questions 4.1-4.5).

In total respondents were asked 35 questions. Of the 35 questions 23 questions were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the statements provided on a 7 point Likert scale(ranging for strongly disagree(1) to strongly agree (7) , Appendix 1).

The questions under Brand Image (number 2.1-2.7, Appendix 1) assessed the effect of Brand Image on the responders. Questions 3.1-3.7 (Appendix 1) ;under Brand Trust assessed the effect of Brand Trust. Question 4.1-4.14 (Appendix 1); assessed the effect of brand Experience on the consumers.

There were 4 reverse questions utilized (Questions 4.3, 4.5, 4.9 and 4.11, Appendix 1) these were captured in their un-reversed state and then reversed during the data analysis process.

The Likert scales were analysed in the following ways:

- A descriptive analyses in order to assess the mean
- A confirmatory factor analysis in order to assess the relationship between the 3 constructs

To measure the effect of the brand experience, the 4 factor model developed by J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) was utilised . Within the J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) study a Likert scale (1 = “strongly disagree,” and 7 = “strongly agree”) was replicated in the same form within this study

As Kapferer (1992) noted, a brand image is a conceptual consumer construct, thus the consumers were asked 5 perspective based questions. These 5 questions are based on the Malhotra (1981)’s scale utilised by Faircloth et al. (2001) which operationalised the perceptions and beliefs created by brand image . Faircloth et al. (2001) utilised 5 factors from Malhotra (1981) study to describe a brands image for consumers (Appendix 1, questions 3.1-3.4). Within the Faircloth et al. (2001) study the brand image questions were asked on a 7 point scale, which was replicated in the same form within this study

Surveys are a common analytical tool utilised to understand various brand intangibles effects on a brand itself and the consumer. J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) , Erdem and Swait (2004) and Faircloth et al. (2001) all utilised surveys to understand abroad variety of brand intangibles within the branding concept.

3.2.1 The research instrument

An online based survey in the form of a questionnaire was utilised for the survey (Appendix 1). Examples of predetermined hedonic products were provided within the consumer goods sector. This was based on Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000)’s definition of a hedonic good as “fun, exciting and pleasurable”. To ensure the respondent considers the product as hedonic, the respondent was asked whether this brand provides “fun, pleasure and excitement” (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). The consumer goods sectors analysed where the relevant section (the watches,

sunglasses, perfumes and bags) falls within the “Wholesale, retail and motor trade; catering and accommodation” within South Africa GDP.

Questions were asked to assess first the product’s brand image, brand trust, and brand experience. Post each of these predictor variables, questions were asked whether these identified constructs would affect the respondent’s intent to purchase these goods.

The manifest variables are noted in the conceptual model (page 25) by the rectangle shape (Cramer, 2003) whilst the variable itself is noted as a latent variable and is depicted by a circular form in the model(Cramer, 2003).

This research measures the effect of predictor variables on the outcome variable within South Africa. The consumers analysed fall within the economically active population; this is defined by Statistics South Africa as between the ages of 15-64. The reason to stay above 18 was to avoid the further ethical requirements, such as parental consent.

All respondents taking part in the study were required to complete a consent form, confirming their voluntary participation in this study and noting the confidentiality and anonymity of their participation. In line with Bhattacherjee (2012), a respondent’s anonymity is protected by applying the combined principles of anonymity and confidentiality of a participants details. To consider each of the effects brand image, brand trust, and brand experience have on consumer’s intention to purchase, under each construct, the question was posed whether these attributes would drive purchasing.

3.3 Population and sample

3.3.1 Population

The target population are consumer between the ages of 18-65. The aim here was to collect the information from the most economically active group within South Africa. Statistic South Africa notes the economically active South African is

consumer between the ages of 15-64 (Statics South Africa ,2013). Furthermore an assessment was done in order to ascertain the respondents work environment, be it Micro, Small, Medium or Large enterprise, the definition of which was based on the Department of Trade and Industry definition of classes of employers (Industry, 2008).

Table 1: Respondents Employment situation vs. South African population

Employment situation	Total full-time equivalent of paid Employees (Less than)*	Demographic of respondents	South African population statistics*
Micro enterprise	5	9%	17%
Small enterprise	50	20%	21%
Medium enterprise	200	10%	18%
Large enterprise	Above 200	61%	44%

*Definition and stats as per Department of trade and industry (Industry, 2008)

3.3.2 Sample and sampling method

There are two types of sampling categories, notably nonprobability and probability sampling (Bickman & Rog, 1998). Bickman and Rog (1998) notes that the key difference is nonprobability sampling allows human judgment to influence which individuals take part in the study, whereas probability sampling utilises a complete random sampling method with no human influence when choosing respondents.
Due to the nature of this study's data collection technique (online study sent via email), nonprobability sampling was the chosen method. This was a convenience nonprobability sample design, which is based on the ease of data collection applied. Convenience sampling is a type of sampling utilised extensively within applied social research (Bickman & Rog, 1998).

J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) utilised non probability sampling in the development of the 4- factor model that was utilised to assess the effect of brand experience on consumer behaviour.

As is this is a confirmatory model, an ideal sample size of approximately 300 was targeted (Muthén & Muthén, 2002). However a reasonable sample size based on the usage of Maximum likelihood estimation a sample size of around 200 is sufficient (Hoogland & Boomsma, 1998).

3.5 Procedure for data collection

Potential respondents that fit the consumer definition utilised were emailed a link to be completed. As with most questionnaire surveys this survey will be in the form of a self-administered survey (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Respondents were emailed from a compiled network to take part within the survey. The potential respondents received a link to complete the survey on the open website. Although inexpensive, Bhattacherjee (2012) noted some disadvantages with this data collection option. One

of the major concerns with surveys is bias; this could be in the form of sampling bias, social desirability bias, recall bias etc. When utilising a survey questionnaire as opposed to an interview survey, there were key issues assessed during the development of the questionnaire template. As an example: The questions needed to be clear and provide no ambiguity, they should not be too detailed or too general,, without biased or value-laden words (Bhattacherjee, 2012). This was assessed within a pilot study sent to five individuals which allowed for feedback on these issues.

However Bickman and Rog (1998) noted that due to the limited and biased access to the internet, online surveys are impractical as a representative sample.
As this study is intended to describe a group for the purposes of theory building, nonprobability sampling methods will be pursued. To prevent multiple submissions and to protect the quality of the data, all submissions were protected.

Research participants were contacted via email, the email address were a subset of email users whose address are compiled and catalogued through various stakeholders (e.g. organisations).
The initial pool of contacts was 162. This tactic is a convenience sampling tactic which is utilised frequently within social research (Bickman & Rog, 1998). As the sample of this study covers a broad spectrum of participants (consumers between the ages of 18-54) a snowballing technique was utilised to gain the subsequent number of respondents. Snowballing technique involves the recruitment of a few members of the targeted population study and asking them to recruit other members of the study population.

The email sent out identified the objectives, procedures ,expectations and author of the study, as well as how the potential respondents email and contact details where obtained as guided by Bickman and Rog (1998). The study had an interactive multipage delivery, this ensured uniformity and control of response conditions and reduced question order effects (Bickman & Rog, 1998). Respondents had the option to “log off” and return if possible, as well as prompting the respondent if certain required questions are omitted, this practice assisted with ensuring completed

surveys (Bickman & Rog, 1998). This practice assisted in reaching a 96% completion rate of the survey.

To prevent multiple submissions and to protect the quality of the data, all submissions were password protected.

3.5.1 Demographic of respondents

The quantitative results where gained through an online survey, of the completed 292 surveys, 35 were determined invalid due to incomplete and unworkable data sets. 12 data points were found to have missing data, these were given the most answered score per item (the mean score of that item)

Table 2: Demographic analysis of respondents

Age	n and percentage of total	Income level		Employment situation/class	
Less than 24	11 (4%)	❍ Below R250 000 ❍ R250 000-R499 999 ❍ R500 000- R749 999 ❍ R750 000-R999 999 ❍ Above R999 999	9 1 1 0 0	❍ Micro enterprise ❍ Small enterprise ❍ Medium enterprise ❍ Large enterprise	1 4 0 5
25 to 35	146(57%)	❍ Below R250 000 ❍ R250 000-R499 999 ❍ R500 000- R749 999 ❍ R750 000-R999 999 ❍ Above R999 999	28 55 39 15 9	❍ Micro enterprise ❍ Small enterprise ❍ Medium enterprise ❍ Large enterprise	14 34 17 81
36 to 45	64(25%)	❍ Below R250 000 ❍ R250 000-R499 999 ❍ R500 000- R749 999 ❍ R750 000-R999 999 ❍ Above R999 999	5 16 14 13 16	❍ Micro enterprise ❍ Small enterprise ❍ Medium enterprise ❍ Large enterprise	4 7 5 48
46 to 55	24(9%)	❍ Below R250 000 ❍ R250 000-R499 999 ❍ R500 000- R749 999 ❍ R750 000-R999 999 ❍ Above R999 999	4 5 9 2 4	❍ Micro enterprise ❍ Small enterprise ❍ Medium enterprise ❍ Large enterprise	4 4 1 15
Over 55	12(5%)	❍ Below R250 000 ❍ R250 000-R499 999 ❍ R500 000- R749 999 ❍ R750 000-R999 999 ❍ Above R999 999	1 3 4 4 0	❍ Micro enterprise ❍ Small enterprise ❍ Medium enterprise ❍ Large enterprise	0 1 3 6

Table 3: Demographic of respondent's vs South African population

Age	Demographic of respondents	South African population statistics*	South African Population (remove >18YO)***
18 to 24*	(4%)	9.5%**	12.8%**
25 to 35	(57%)	15%	23.2%
36 to 45	(25%)	13.6%	18.4%
46 to 55	(9%)	9.3%	12.5%
Over 55	(5%)	11.3%	15.2%

* StatisticsSouthAfrica (2013)

**Stats SA have a 20-24 age band, this was taken as the lower tier for analysis

***In order to gain a more accurate understanding of the Employable population, as included in this study, below 20 years of age from Statsic South Africa was removed.

Table 4: Respondents Income level vs South African population

Income level	Demographic of respondents	South African population statistics*
Below R250 000	18%	86%
R250 000-R499 999	31%	
R500 000- R749 999	26%	4%
R750 000-R999 999	13%	
Above R999 999	11%	

*The average South African Salary as end Q3 2014 was R183 076 (all formal non-agricultural industries) (StatisticsSouthAfrica, 2013)

*Only 4% of South African's earn more than R480 000 per Year (StatisticsSouthAfrica, 2014a).

As can be seen form tables 7 & 8, the demographic profile of the respondents in this survey is skewed and does not match the demographic profile of the South African population. Snowball convenient sampling risk is evident as initial respondents pass on the survey to secondary respondents which can lead to bias (Buglear, 2005) . However this data does represent the "higher earning, younger" South African.

Table 5: Respondents Employment situation vs. South African population

Employment situation	Demographic of respondents	South African population statistics*
Micro enterprise	9%	17%
Small enterprise	20%	21%
Medium enterprise	10%	18%
Large enterprise	61%	44%

*Department of trade and industry definition

The representation of respondents aligns with the South African employee situation, whereby the majority of employees are working in large enterprises, followed by small enterprises, medium sized and finally micro enterprises.

Although respondents were clear upon what a Hedonic product was (based on the list provided) the amount of money spent on these goods was not exceptional.

Table 6: Average amount of spend per Hedonic product sample class:

	1		2		3		4		5	
	N	**% of Total**	**N**	**% of Total**	**N**	**% of Total**	**N**	**% of Total**	**N**	**% of Total**
Sunglass Expenditure	174	67.70%	73	28.40%	7	2.72%	3	1.17%	0	0.00%
Watches Expenditure	203	78.99%	38	14.79%	14	5.45%	1	0.39%	1	0.39%
Bags Expenditure	243	94.55%	12	4.67%	2	0.78%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Perfumes Expenditure	43	16.73%	84	32.68%	105	40.86%	21	8.17%	4	1.56%

A summary of the above:

- In sunglasses expenditure only 3.8% spend in the 3 highest tiers
- In watch expenditure only 6.2% spend per item in the 3 highest tiers
- In bags expenditure only 0.78% spend per item in the 3 highest tiers
- In perfumes expenditure 50.6% spend per item in the highest tier

Chapter 4: Results

4.1 SAS Software and Structure Equation Modelling (SEM)

In this study, structural equation models (SEM) was used to assess the measurement instruments. Creswell (2009) explained that a facet of quantitative analysis is the use of which incorporate various causal paths and identify the strength of the multiple variables. SEM seeks to understand the extent of fit of the observed data to the models implied covariance matrix according to the empirical co variance matrix (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003). The SAS programme output noted as Maximum Likelyhood (ML) was utilised to assess the fit of the proposed model, ML is the most widely used fit function in SEM (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003).

Path analysis was utilised to assess the relationship between the manifest variable and the outcome variable. Path analysis proves a convenient and powerful illustration of relationship between independent or dependant variables (Suhr, 2008). Path analysis requires multiple fit tests to understand and examine fit of the model (Suhr, 2008). These fit tests where analysed and described in table 4.

Confirmatory factor analysis is utilised to test if the hypothesis factor is supported through the reported data (Cramer, 2003). The three hypothesis mentioned were assessed as per the conceptual model (on page 25). That model is an example of a Path diagram.

4.1 Demographic response of respondents

The following summary points can be drawn from the data:

- 82% of the respondents fall with the age category of 25-45 (combined 25 to 35 and 36 to 45)
- The majority of the respondent fall within the income level R250 000-R499 999 (31%)
- The majority of respondent (150) are employed within Large Enterprise’s

4.2 Descriptive statistics

Question 1 (Appendix 1) wanted to identify how much the respondents spend on these goods

Table 7: The assessments of respondents spend on examples of hedonic products

Q 1Considering the below items (Sunglasses, Watches,Bags and Perfumes), my spend per item purchased on average is:										
	1		**2**		**3**		**4**		**5**	
	N	**% of Total**	**N**	**% of Total**	**N**	**% of Total**	**N**	**% of Total**	**N**	**% of Total**
Sunglass	174	67.70%	73	28.40%	7	2.72%	3	1.17%	0	0.00%
Watches	203	78.99%	38	14.79%	14	5.45%	1	0.39%	1	0.39%
Bags	243	94.55%	12	4.67%	2	0.78%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Perfume	43	16.73%	84	32.68%	105	40.86%	21	8.17%	4	1.56%

Here it is noted that spend on the higher tier of price for sunglasses, watches and bags was not very high, however respondents did tend to spend a higher portion on perfumes.

Question 2 (Appendix 1) was asked to assess the respondents understanding of the hedonic nature of the products provided (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). These results are measured below:

Q2 Would you consider this brand as providing fun, pleasure and excitement?

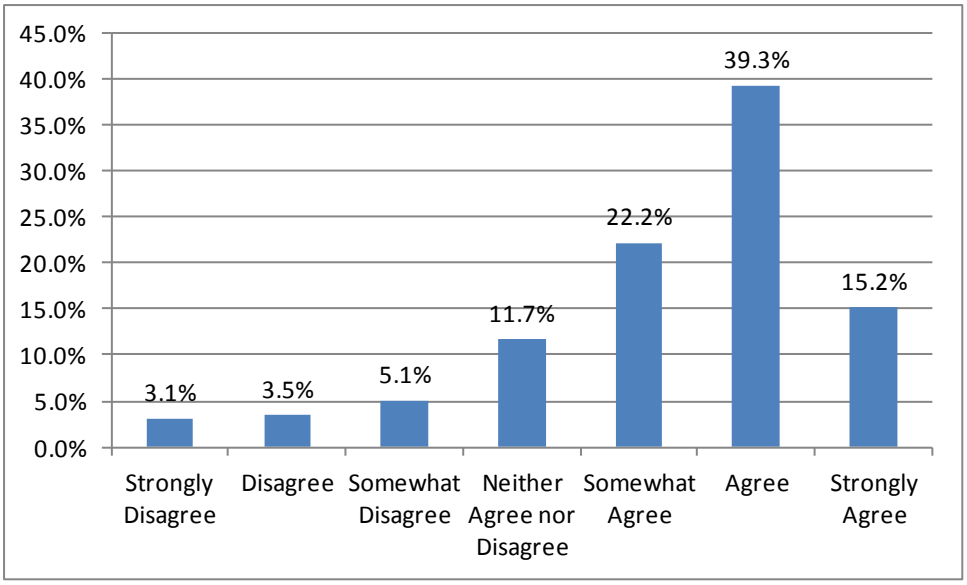


Figure 2: Understanding of Hedonic nature of example good listed in survey:

With 76.7 percentage acknowledging the hedonic nature of the examples given (by answering "somewhat agree to strongly agree")

4.3 Confirmatory factor analysis/Model Fit

Confirmatory Factor analysis was performed using SAS Business Analytics software Confirmatory factor analysis was utilised to test the probability of the three hypothesizes mentioned, CFA assess whether the hypothesized factor structure is supported by the data (Cramer, 2003).

In order to assed the CFA, test of "goodness of fit", reliability as well as validity was run.

4.3.1. Goodness of fit

The goodness of fit measurement utilised in this study is the Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The RMSEA is generally noted as the most widely utilised measures of fit in structural equation modelling (Jackson, Gillaspy Jr, & Purc-Stephenson, 2009; A. B. Taylor, 2008). Another fit index is the Chi-Square test, which compares the difference of the correlation matrix of the original data to that of the correlation matrix observed by the model (Creswell, 2009). Therefore by

definition; the larger the chi-square the more likely the difference was not due to chance and the better fit of the model. It must be highlighted however that a Chi-square test is more likely to highlight statistically significance the larger the sample (Cramer, 2003). Thus due to the sample size N> 250 a RMSEA fit will be analysed.

A close fit in RMSEA output is considered less than or equal to 0.05. (Browne, Cudeck, Bollen, & Long, 1993). Values that fall between 0.05 and 0.08 is noted as an adequate fit, a mediocre fit falls between 0.08 and 0.10 and values above 0.1 are insupportable (Browne et al., 1993). Additionally within the RMSEA measurement, the Bentler Comparative Fit Index was assessed for goodness of fit. The measurement itself ranges from 0-1 with a larger value indicating a better fit model (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Generally to be considered a good fit a value of 0.9 and above is required (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Table 8: Goodness of it summary from SAS output:

	Chi-Square	RMSEA	RMSEA lower confidence level	RMSEA Higher confidence level	Bentler Comparative Fit Index
Original Proposed model	919.299	0.0977	0.10	0.1171	0.7371
Revised Model	631.076*	0.0773	0.0698	0.0848	0.8601

* Pr > Chi-Square <.0001

Noted: the original model found on page 18, has a simple 3 manifest variable into 1 outcome variable. After assessing the various models and resultant fit, the most accurate model is found on page 41 (Figure 3: Revised model) and is the model used in the study (Known as the revised model).

Although the chi-square test of the revised model is lower than that of the original model , Creswell (2009) noted that an issue with the Chi-square test is for higher number of observations, the more likely it is to be statically significant. Thus other

measures of fit example have been developed (e.g. RMSEA) which provide measurements that are less reliable on sample size(Creswell, 2009).
Although more recently the cut off of RMSEA values have been reduced significantly over the last 15 years Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008), MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) noted that a mediocre fit is between 0.08 and.1and with a good fit found below 0.08. The advantage of RMSEA is the ability to define the confidence level around the calculated value. There is a general consensus that a well-fitting model should have a lower confidence limit close to zero whilst the upper limit should be less than 0.08 (Hooper et al., 2008). The results showing here note an RMSEA lower level confidence of 0.0698 and a higher confidence level of 0.0848, which is close to the higher margin mentioned.

Hu and Bentler (1999) noted that a comparative fit index of 0.90 and higher may indicate a reasonably good fit of the prosed model. The resultant measurement of 0.86 is slightly lower than this.Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003) noted that the lower confidence level should be less than 0.05 for a close fit. The result in this study was slightly higher at 0.0698.

4.3.2 Validity

4.3.2.1External validity

External validity refers to whether the results of the study can be generalised for the observed sample to the population, other people, organisation, context and time (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

As this is was a nonprobability purposeful cross sectional survey, validity of the results can be impaired. To ensure this data is externally robust and valid, further replication of this study should be executed (Creswell, 2009).Creswell (2009) noted that if the study has a narrow characteristics of participants, the respondents know this is for a study and the experiment is time bound, external validity is threatened. In response a researcher should restrict the claims of the study and chiefly conduct the experiment within other groups, different settings and at different times. This is further discussed in the “Limitations of the study” in chapter 6.

4.3.2.2 Internal validity

Internal validity threats are typically procedures, treatments or experience of respondents that can affect the researcher's ability to draw robust information from the data (Creswell, 2009). Within this study the structured questionnaire ensured consistency when respondents were completing the survey.

In order to demonstrate the three predictor variables validity, the convergent and discriminant validity was assessed. Convergent validity is recognised when conceptual correlation measures are practically demonstrated. Bhattacherjee (2012) noted a, a factor loading of 0.60 or higher should be expected to ensure an adequate convergent validity. However , based on correlation coefficient scores generated by SAS, R. Taylor (1990) noted that scores of less than 0.35 are considered weak or have a low correlation. Values that are found between 0.36 and 0.67 are generally considered to have a modest correlation, furthermore a correlation above 0.68 is said to have a strong correlation.

Table 9: Correlation coefficient of construct variables

	Brand Image	Brand trust	Brand experience
Brand Image	Min: 0.12 Max: 0.52 Mean-0.31		
Brand Trust	Min: -0.05 Max: 0.42 Mean- 0,27	Min: 0.50 Max: 0.77 Mean:0,63	
Brand Experience	Min : -0.13 Max: 0.44 Mean 0,19	Min: 0.06 Max: 0.57 Mean: 0.24	Min: -0.04 Max: 0.71 Mean: 0.23

- Brand experience – Question 9 did have some very low correlation outcomes this could be due to the reversible nature of the question affecting respondent's answers.

4.3.2.3 Reliability

Reliability is the degree to which the measure of a construct is consistent or dependable. The measurement of a studies consistency and dependability is the reliability of that study (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

As respondents completed the survey online without interference of a researcher, researcher subjectivity when analysing results should be low or none (Bhattacherjee, 2012) . Ambiguity of a question within a survey can cause unreliable answering (Bhattacherjee, 2012) , to overcome this a pilot study was utilised to ensure ease of understanding from respondents. The pilot group of 5 respondents were sent the study and asked to provide feedback on ease of understanding, comfortability with answers and whether there were other questions that could be considered. The feedback from the pilot study was the survey was that it was “easily understood and relatively short.”

Another source of unreliability could be the respondent’s unfamiliarity of the surveyed issues (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Hedonic products will be clarified through as set of examples categorised by Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000)’s definition of a hedonic good as comparatively “fun and experiential”. Also a confirmation question within the survey (Question 2, Appendix 1) will assist in confirming the hedonic nature of the products.

A measure that can be utilised to assess data reliability from a questionnaire , is the Cronbach Alpha (Buglear, 2005). Cronbach alpha variables ranges from 0-1, variables of 0.80 and above indicate a reliable measure (Cramer, 2003). However George and Mallery (2003) noted that values above 0.6 can we assessed as questionable yet acceptable. Furthermore a general rule of thumb for Cronbach alphas is over 0.7 is considered acceptable and 5 and below is considered poor.

Table 10: Cronbach alpha measurements per construct:

Construct	Hypothesis	Cronbach Alpha per construct	George and Mallery (2003) rating
Brand Image	H1	0.6721	Questionable to acceptable
Brand Trust	H2	0.9206	Excellent
Brand Experience	H3	0.7791	Acceptable
Consumer intention to purchase*	ALL	0.7471	Acceptable

*In order to identify a Consumer intention to purchase construct, 3 questions (Question 3.7, 4.7 and 5.14, Appendix 1) relating to consumer intention to purchase were grouped in a correlation analysis. Considering these 3 variables, a Cronbach alpha was analysed to ensure reliability of this set of variables. A Cronbach alpha of 0.75 was found, this construct can be considered acceptable (George & Mallery, 2003).

Lance, Butts, and Michels (2006) noted that a Cronbach alpha of 0.7 or approximately 0.7 represents that variables within the construct can reliably be noted as representing the construct. Cronbach alpha measures the internal consistency of a test/construct (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Thus from the analysis above all constructs variables are acceptably related and test the same concept (either brand image, brand trust or brand experience).

.

- The Brand Image construct is a 2 factor model (Factor 1 ,Question 3.1-3.3, and Factor 2 –Question3.4-3.5 Appendix 1) (Faircloth et al., 2001) . Within the original development of this scale, the Factor 1 without the Question 3.1 had a higher Cronbach alpha. This however was not modified due to the theory behind the Malhotra Scale utilised which identified brands as having colour or being colourless (Faircloth et al., 2001)

- The Brand Experience construct is a 4 factor model (Sensory, Affectual, Behavioural and Intelligent). When running the Cronbach alpha on the entire Brand experience model, it is 0.779. However with the exclusion of Question 9 it is 0.788 and with the exclusion of question 11 it is 0.780. These questions were reverse coded questions. These were maintained due to the resultant larger data set having a better bearing on the model fit.

4.3.3 Path modelling/Structure modelling

The confirmatory factor analysis was run on the revised modelled data based on "goodness of fit" guidance statistics

Path analysis utilises multiple regression to define the various regression coefficients between predictor and outcome variables (Creswell, 2009).

Table 11: Revised model Conceptual model PATH coefficients:

Standardized path coefficients	Initial proposed model	Revised model	t value	Rejected/Accepted[+]
Brand Image to Consumer intention to purchase	0.08	0.11	1.08	Rejected
Brand Trust to Consumer intention to purchase	0.50	0.49	5.60	Accepted
Brand Experience to Consumer intention to purchase	0.27	0.72	15.11	Accepted

*All numbers are the Maximum likelihood standardises PATH analysis from SAS

[+]The basis of accepting or rejecting the relationship is based on Suhr (2008) who noted that a parameter is significant at the 0.05 (otherwise noted as the p value) if the t value exceed 1.96.

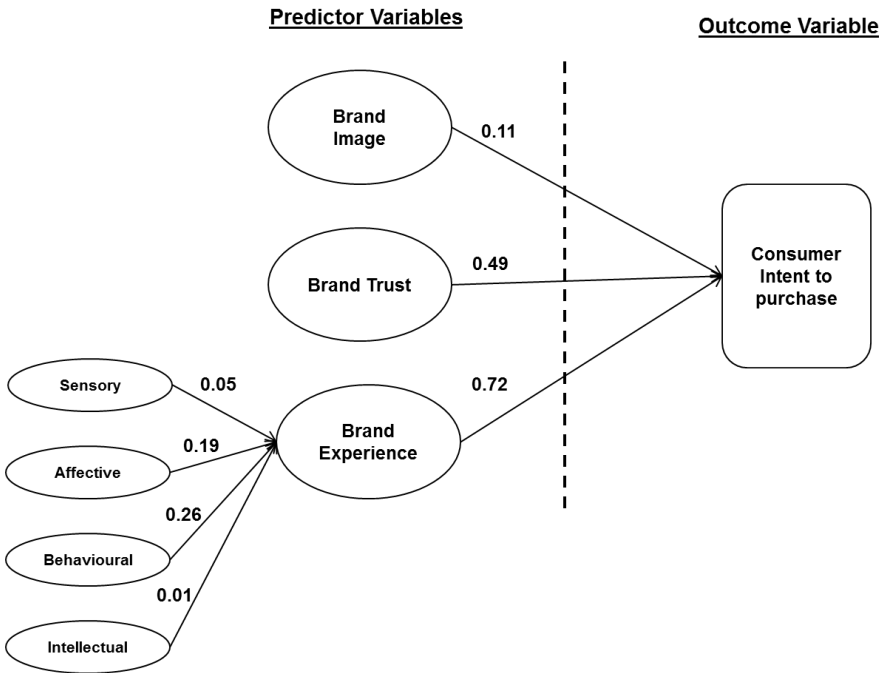


Figure 3: The Revised Model conceptual model

Chapter 5: Interpretation of results

These chapters discuss the results presented in the previous chapter. The focus of the discussion will centre on initially discussing each hypothesis analysed within the statistical procedure.

5.1Hypothesis discussion:

H_1: Brand image of hedonic products has a significant and positive effect on consumer's intention to purchase

The validity of this construct was tested through a Cronbach alpha analysis. The Cronbach alpha for this construct was found to be 0.67. This considered questionable according to George and Mallery (2003), however it's in the higher end towards acceptable . Although Brand Image questions loading effectively onto the construct of Brand Image, the construct itself did not strongly influence a consumers intention to purchase when juxtapose to the other constructs . The path coefficient noted in the PATH analysis executed on SAS, had a very low number of 0.11. The significance of Brand trust based on the variables asked is not clear and obvious.

Suhr (2008) noted that for a Maximum likelihood PATH coefficient to be significant within the SAS programme, a t value is assessed. It was noted that a parameter is significant at the 0.05 (otherwise noted as the p value) if the t value exceed 1.96. The outcome for the effect of brand image onto consumers' intention to purchase was found to be 1.08. Thus the effect of Brand image onto consumer's intent to purchase must be rejected within this model.

The study of Faircloth et al. (2001) measured the effect of the 2 Factor Brand Image model on brand equity. Although Brand equity has been shown to affect a consumer decision to purchase (Faircloth et al., 2001), the relationship was not eloquently highlighted within this study. Faircloth et al. (2001) states that the raising of brand equity by improving brand image directly relates to an increasing in consumer purchasing and a willingness to pay premium prices

It must be noted , the Faircloth et al. (2001) study did not identify whether the goods analysed by respondents were of a hedonic nature or not. The goods analysed were polar fleece sweaters, the (lack of the) hedonic nature of the products in this study could have allowed for the discrepancies in results against the Faircloth et al. (2001) study.

H_2: Brand trust of hedonic products has a significant and positive effect on consumer's intention to purchase

The validity of this construct was tested through a Cronbach alpha analysis. The Cronbach alpha for this construct was found to be 0.92. This considered excellent according to George and Mallery (2003).This result is aligned with Erdem and Swait (2004) findings which noted that brand trustworthiness (trust) has a large impact on consumer's choice. The Cronbach alpha aligned with Erdem and Swait (2004)'s study using the same questions was found to have a Cronbach alpha of 0.88.

The t value assigned to the effect of brand trust to a consumer's intent to purchase was 5.60. Suhr (2008) noted that at a t value of over 2.56 significance the parameter value significant at the 0.01 level. This highlights the significance of brand trust coefficient effecting consumers intent to purchase and is accepted as such

The path coefficient noted in the PATH analysis executed on SAS, had a moderate result of 0.49

Within the Erdem and Swait (2004) study the products analysed in assessing brand trust were "representative of a wide range of market share", this included some well know premium prices brands such as Nike, Apple computers tec. This similarity in results could be explained by the representation of hedonic products within the Erdem and Swait (2004) study.

Repurchasing and recommendation of the brand to friends and family is on outcome behaviour of brand loyalty , which is directly related to brand trust (Lau & Lee,

1999). Lau and Lee (1999) noted that marketers need to understand the role of brand trust for consumers ,as it affects consumers behavioural intention to purchase. In order to drive this behaviour marketers must realise that brand trust is the sum of the cumulative past and present marketing strategies of the marketing communication plan (Erdem & Swait, 2004).

H_3: Brand experience of hedonic products has a positive and significant effect on consumer's intention to purchase

The validity of this construct was tested through a Cronbach alpha analysis. The Cronbach alpha for this construct was found to be 0.75. This considered acceptable according to George and Mallery (2003). The t value as determined through the SAS analysis, to assess the effect of brand experience onto a consumer's intent to purchase, it was found to be 15.11. Suhr (2008)noted that a t value of 2.56 or larger signals the parameter significant at the 0.01 level. Therefore the coefficient identified in this relationship is considered significant and accepted.

The path coefficient noted in the PATH analysis executed on SAS, had a relatively high number of 0.72. J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) identified the effect of brand experience through the constructs of Sensory, Affectual, Behavioural and Intelligent on customer loyalty and customer satisfaction. These two identified consumer behaviours have been found in previous studies to be affected by brand experience (J Joško Brakus et al., 2009). This concurs with the outcomes of this study which find these factors affecting the consumer decision to purchase positively.

The J Joško Brakus et al. (2009) study utilised 12 brands (Appendix 2) across various sectors when assessing the brand experience effect on customer loyalty and thus consumer's behaviour. These brands do represent some premium branded products and thus relates to the brands utilised in this survey.

Within past research, brand experience has been shown to have a stronger effect on consumers behaviour than other branding intangibles (O'Cass & Grace, 2004;

O'Leary & Deegan, 2005). This aligns with this study which found that brand exprerience had the highest impact on a consumers intention to purchase .

5.3 Research question 1

What is the effect of the predictor variables of brand image, brand trust, and brand experience on a consumer's intent to purchase (the outcome variable)?

Summarising the output of the statistical output along with the analyses on the proposed hypothesis; Brand experience had the higher positive effect on a consumer's intent to purchase compared to Brand trust, and Brand image was rejected based on its insignificance.
The rejection of Brand image was based on the lack of statistical significance within the revised model postulated. Brand trust showed a strong correlation and a relatively moderate effect on a consumer's intent to purchase.

5.4 Research question 2

What is the relevance of these factors for hedonic products within an emerging market?

This study took place within a South African context, considered an emerging market (Ramamurti & Singh, 2009).

The relevance of these factors is based on Hedonic understanding nature of the products example; this was ensured through the question 2(Appendix 1) ensuring the understanding of what a hedonic product is. From Figure 2 it is well observed that respondents understood the notion of the examples given as Hedonic. This is supported by Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000) who note that hedonic products should provide "a sense of fun, pleasure". 76.7 percent of the respondents noted the products as providing fun, pleasure and excitement, thus highlighting and confirming the examples as hedonic products.

This study highlights the inequality as the income data identified higher tier of income earners (in South Africa) when considering table 4 which highlights the income band

of respondents verses the broader South African population. The majority of the respondents (57%) earn from R250 000-R749 999 against the South African populous of income earners where only 4 percent earn more than R480 000 per Year (statisticsSouthAfrica, 2014b). Within his paper Special Focus: Inequality in Emerging Economies (EEs) Stand and Rising (2011) noted that across emerging economies (South Africa, Argentina, China, India and Russia have significantly higher income inequality than Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries . The Gini coefficient (a generally accepted form of measuring inequality globally) ranks all the above mentioned countries higher than OECD markets.

Table 12: Gini coefficient across emerging markets and OECD*

Country (or Country groups)	Gini Coefficient
South Africa	0.70
Russian Federation	0.43
India	0.38
China	0.42
Argentina	0.45
Brazil	0.53
OECD	0.32

*Gini coefficients are based on equivalised incomes for OECD countries and per capita incomes for all EEs except India for which per capita consumption was used(Stand & Rising, 2011)

The Gini coefficient for Brazil is twice as large compares to OECD countries and South Africa is even larger.

Generally emerging markets are characterised by “young” population’s (Stand & Rising, 2011). Within this study 61% are between the ages of 18 and 35. The relevance of the age band of respondents is highlighted by table 2, which notes the largest band of respondents correlates with the highest proportion of employable

South Africans. Most emerging economies have a population that is still below the age of 35 (StatisticsSouthAfrica, 2013). Thus the consumer researched chiefly in this report highlights a significant population group within emerging markets.

Sharma (2011) noted the growing materialism in emerging economies as opposed to the slowing down of materialism in the developed world. Shukla (2012) furthermore highlighted the importance of understanding this market as emerging markets size and growth provides large opportunities for firms. These are becoming the focus of targets for many luxury brand companies

The importance for these brand associations (Brand image, Brand trust and brand experience) researched in this report effect on consumer intention to purchase is augmented by the growth of luxury/hedonic goods within these territories. additionally the relevance of the respondent measured in this report align and rep[resent similar demographics found across emerging markets (Stand & Rising, 2011).

As the questions were asked when considering the example of hedonic goods, the results of Research question 1, transfer into Research question 2, in terms of strength of relevance for each factor. Thus brand experience has the highest effect on a consumer's intention to purchase hedonic goods, followed by brand trust and the least relevant is brand image. This is key when assessing a younger, wealthier employee which is a common occurrence in the inequality found in emerging markets (Stand & Rising, 2011).

Chapter 6: Conclusion, recommendations, implications, limitations and area of future research

The purpose of this research report was to understand the effect of Brand Image, Brand Trust and Brand experience on a consumer's intention to purchase hedonic products within an emerging market context. The result could assist marketers within this segment of the market deciding on which branding intangibles to invest during the branding process.

6.3 Recommendations

Within the growing hedonic or luxury goods segment, when marketers' are deciding in which area of brand intangible facet they should invest in, the Brand experience has the stronger relevance.Keller (1993) noted that as input costs rise and competition increases companies must pursue increasingly efficient marketing activities. Consequently marketing decision makers need a thorough understanding of consumer behaviour in order to determine marketing activity investment. From this study, marketers within the hedonic segment of the market should prioritise the development of the brand experience over brand trust and similarly brand image. This is particularly relevant if the brand is targeting the higher income earning consumers. Furthermore this strategy of affecting consumer decision making has been found within the emerging class setting of young (between the ages 18-35) in South Africa.

6.4 Conclusion

Figure 3 highlighted the effect of the predictor variables on a consumer's intention to purchase. Marketers and business decision makers within this segment of the market should benefit by identifying which brand intangible to drive within this sector of the market. This is relevant for the middle to higher income earners based on the demographics highlighted by table 8. Furthermore this consumer is a relatively wealthy individual (earning above R250 000 annually, table 4) often found in unequal emerging markets (Stand & Rising, 2011)

The finding that brand experience affects a consumers intention to purchase a good aligns with Batra and Ahtola (1991) work that noted that hedonic products provide the consumer an experiential enjoyment and utilitarian good provide a practical functionality. Brand experience seems to have a significance stronger effect on a consumers intention than other brand intangibles. This finding align with the work of O'Cass and Grace (2004) and O'Leary and Deegan (2005) who noted that the brand experience seem to be more affective on consumers than the perceived brand image These factors are particularly relevant within an emerging market, as most luxury/hedonic stores are opening in emerging markets over the next decade. (Krauss, 2009) .

Most international luxury brand companies are targeting the emerging market for growth due to the slowdown amongst the developed world (Shukla, 2012). The relevance of these factors is reinforced by the type of consumer researched:

- The consumer is young (mostly below the age of 35, Stand and Rising (2011)) and most emerging markets have a younger population.
- Most of the respondents are earning a relatively high salary, although the South African average income is R183 076 (statisticsSouthAfrica, 2014b),most emerging markets are unequal compared to the global average, with inequality rising (Stand & Rising, 2011)
- The majority of respondents are employed within a Large enterprise, which is aligned with the general employable South African populace.

Within the context of South Africa, the majority of higher tier income earners (based on an income salary band of above national average) do understand the concept of hedonic products as highlighted by figure 2. These consumers tend to be employed within large enterprises as defined by the Department of Trade and Industry (Industry, 2008). This is representative of the South African employment class situation (noted by table 9), furthermore the importance of this group of consumers (age 25-35) is highlighted by the fact that they make up the majority of the employed population (table 7). This particular group of consumers tend to spend higher

amounts, relevant to example of products, such as perfumes, as opposed to sunglasses, watches and bags.

This particularly group of consumers tend to be affect by a brand experience when purchasing these goods ,more than the brands trust and even less by the brand image. This finding align with the work of O'Cass and Grace (2004) and O'Leary and Deegan (2005) and who noted that the brand experience seem to be more affective on consumers than the perceived brand image.

Furthermore Baker (2007) noted that the consumers brand experience is affected by many contact points. These contact points take place across many channels and stakeholders. This is supported within the literature relating to brand experiences which notes that a brand experience takes place when consumers search for a product, when they shop and receive service and when they consume them (Arnould & Price, 1993; J Josko Brakus et al., 2008; Holbrook, 2000).Thus marketers needs to understand the type of experience consumers conceptually are exposed to when identifying a marketing plan and strategies. These strategies should have longer term focus as brand experiences over time have been shown to affect customer loyalty (Frederick, 1996; Oliver, 1997) which directly relates to consumer behaviour , such as repeat purchasing(Lau & Lee, 1999).

C. Jones and Bonevac (2013) note that branding has a “branding problem” whereby other corporate division such as finance, operations don’t understand the term branding. The notion of the term and the lack of understanding of its impact across other corporate functions underpin the requirement to engage functional leaders around education of branding and its importance.

As C. Jones and Bonevac (2013) note that branding is a process to establish a brand through defining its category and differentiating attributes. Brand intangibles (e.g. brand trust , brand image and brand experience) are a common means by marketers to differentiate brands for consumers (Keller & Lehmann, 2006).

Marketers are often challenged in which area of branding to invest. This study highlights that of the brand intangibles studied; Brand trust and Brand experience are two components that affect consumer decision to purchase within a hedonistic market.

Brand trust can be defined as a consumer's confidence that the brand, product or service is dependable and competent (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Doney & Cannon, 1997; Erdem & Swait, 2004; McAllister, 1995; Moorman et al., 1992; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). Consequently related to this study, is the need for marketers within the hedonic segment in emerging markets to identify investment opportunities to ensure the brand can be considered dependable and competent. To maximise these opportunities, marketers should identify growing a brands predictability, confidence and reputation(Lau & Lee, 1999) within marketing strategies of the marketing communication plan (Erdem & Swait, 2004).

6.5 Implication for this study

The studies of a consumer's intention to purchase have generally taken place within developed markets (Cobb-Walgren et al., 1995; O'brien, 1971; Philiastides & Ratcliff, 2013). This study assists in understanding from an emerging market perspective the important the studied brand intangibles (brand image, brand trust and brand experience).

This is despite the growing relevance on importance of hedonic or luxury good segment within emerging markets (Krauss, 2009)
Within the hedonic segment of the market, across certain products the brand experience and brand trust have a vital impact on a consumer's intention to purchase. Markets and business decision makers within this market segment should pay careful attention to these two constructs.
Brand trust needs to be reinforced through predictability and reputation , which are key drivers in developing brand trust (Lau & Lee, 1999). Brand experience needs to be managed across various stakeholders as it develops when consumer's search for

a product, when they shop and receive service and when they consume them (Arnould & Price, 1993; J Josko Brakus et al., 2008; Holbrook, 2000).

Thus marketing stakeholders should take cognisant of these when developing a marketing or strategic brand plan. These elements should be acknowledged within the tactical plan to ensure a positive resultant effect on a consumer's intent to purchase.

6.5 Limitations of the study

As study is a purposeful nonprobability study there is an element of bias within the sample. Additionally due to the nonprobability nature of this study it is unreasonable to infer the results of the study onto the entire available study population (Bickman & Rog, 1998).

Within this study's research methodology, a focus of reducing bias answers was encountered by offering examples of the brands and definition of terms on the online survey.

The age restriction on this study (18-65) was guided through the Statistics South Africa definition of economically active consumers; this does exclude a large base of consumers outside of this range. The range was increased from 15 to 18 years of age to avoid the requirement of parental consent.

As brand image was rejected based on its significance during the statically testing, this limits the notion of the full effect of brand experience over the other brand intangibles within this study.

6.6 Suggestions for Further Research

A number of concepts have been identified during the generation of this research report that could warrant further investigation. The below items are suggested for further research:

- A further definition on Brand Image that could be utilise with quantitative research identifying its effect on consumer purchasing intention. Faircloth et al. (2001) noted the importance of a brand image as it was shown to significantly enhance the likelihood of intent to purchase. This brand intangible need to be further understood within the emerging market context.

- A quantitative research into consumer decision making amongst the majority of South Africans income earning bands (Below R200 000) (StatisticsSouthAfrica, 2014a)

- Further research that could include the role of brand equity within the role of consumer decision making could allow for deeper understanding across brand intangibles

- Additional research could focus on similar brand intangibles within the hedonic segment yet in different emerging markets. This could further prove the effect of these within the emerging market context.

References

Aaker, D. A. (2009). *Managing brand equity*: Simon and Schuster.

Anand, B. N., & Shachar, R. (2004). Brands as beacons: A new source of loyalty to multiproduct firms. *Journal of marketing research, 41*(2), 135-150.

Armstrong, G., Kotler, P., & He, Z. (2000). Marketing: an introduction.

Arnold, M. J., Reynolds, K. E., Ponder, N., & Lueg, J. E. (2005). Customer delight in a retail context: investigating delightful and terrible shopping experiences. *Journal of Business Research, 58*(8), 1132-1145.

Arnould, E. J., & Price, L. L. (1993). River magic: extraordinary experience and the extended service encounter. *Journal of consumer research*, 24-45.

Ataman, M. B., Van Heerde, H. J., & Mela, C. F. (2010). The long-term effect of marketing strategy on brand sales. *Journal of marketing research, 47*(5), 866-882.

Babbie, E. (1990). Survey research methods.

Baker, B. (2007). *Destination branding for small cities: The essentials for successful place branding*: Destination Branding Book.

Bastos, W., & Levy, S. J. (2012). A history of the concept of branding: practice and theory. *Journal of Historical Research in Marketing, 4*(3), 347-368.

Batra, R., & Ahtola, O. T. (1991). Measuring the hedonic and utilitarian sources of consumer attitudes. *Marketing letters, 2*(2), 159-170.

Bazerman, M. H., Tenbrunsel, A. E., & Wade-Benzoni, K. (1998). Negotiating with yourself and losing: Making decisions with competing internal preferences. *Academy of management Review, 23*(2), 225-241.

Belk, R. W. (1999). Leaping luxuries and transitional consumers *Marketing issues in transitional economies* (pp. 39-54): Springer.

Bellizzi, J. A., & Hite, R. E. (1992). Environmental color, consumer feelings, and purchase likelihood. *Psychology & marketing, 9*(5), 347-363.

Bhattacherjee, A. (2012). Social science research: principles, methods, and practices.

Bickman, L., & Rog, D. J. (1998). *Handbook of applied social research methods*: Sage.

Biel, A. L. (1992). How brand image drives brand equity. *Journal of advertising research, 32*(6), 6-12.

Bird, M., Channon, C., & Ehrenberg, A. S. (1970). Brand image and brand usage. *Journal of marketing research*, 307-314.

Boulding, W., Kalra, A., Staelin, R., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1993). A Dynamic Process Model of Sevice Quality: From Expectations to Behavioral Intentions. *Journal of marketing research*.

Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zarantonello, L. (2009). Brand experience: what is it? How is it measured? Does it affect loyalty? *Journal of marketing, 73*(3), 52-68.

Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zhang, S. (2008). Experiential attributes and consumer judgments. *Handbook on brand and experience management*, 174-187.

Browne, M. W., Cudeck, R., Bollen, K. A., & Long, J. S. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. *Sage Focus Editions, 154*, 136-136.

Buglear, J. (2005). *Quantitative methods for business: The AZ of QM*: Routledge.

Cai, L. A. (2002). Cooperative branding for rural destinations. *Annals of tourism research, 29*(3), 720-742.

Chaudhuri, A., & Holbrook, M. B. (2001). The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: the role of brand loyalty. *Journal of marketing, 65*(2), 81-93.

Çivi, E. (2000). Emerging Markets: A Review of Conceptual Frameworks. 203-216.

Cobb-Walgren, C. J., Ruble, C. A., & Donthu, N. (1995). Brand equity, brand preference, and purchase intent. *Journal of advertising, 24*(3), 25-40.

Cramer, D. (2003). *Advanced quantitative data analysis*: McGraw-Hill International.

Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*: SAGE Publications, Incorporated.

Crowley, A. E., Spangenberg, E. R., & Hughes, K. R. (1992). Measuring the hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of attitudes toward product categories. *Marketing letters, 3*(3), 239-249.

Dhar, R., & Wertenbroch, K. (2000). Consumer choice between hedonic and utilitarian goods. *Journal of marketing research, 37*(1), 60-71.

Doney, P. M., & Cannon, J. P. (1997). An examination of the nature of trust in buyer-seller relationships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 35-51.

Engel, J. F., & Roger, D. (1993). Blackwell, and Paul W. Miniard (1995), Consumer Behavior: Fort Worth, TX: The Dryden Press.

Erdem, T., & Swait, J. (2004). Brand credibility, brand consideration, and choice. *Journal of consumer research, 31*(1), 191-198.

Faircloth, J. B., Capella, L. M., & Alford, B. L. (2001). The effect of brand attitude and brand image on brand equity. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 61-75.

Frederick, F. R. (1996). The loyalty effect: the hidden force behind growth, profits, and lasting value. *Harvard Business School Press, Boston, Massachusetts*.

Garbarino, E., & Johnson, M. S. (1999). The different roles of satisfaction, trust, and commitment in customer relationships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 70-87.

George, D., & Mallery, M. (2003). Using SPSS for Windows step by step: a simple guide and reference. *Boston, MA: Allyn y Bacon.[Links]*.

Gorn, G. J., Chattopadhyay, A., Yi, T., & Dahl, D. W. (1997). Effects of color as an executional cue in advertising: they're in the shade. *Management Science, 43*(10), 1387-1400.

Graeff, T. R. (1998). Consumption situations and the effects of brand image on consumers' brand evaluations. *Psychology and Marketing*(14), 49-70.

Hankinson, G. (2004). Relational network brands: Towards a conceptual model of place brands. *Journal of vacation marketing, 10*(2), 109-121.

Hanna, S., & Rowley, J. (2013). Place brand practitioners' perspectives on the management and evaluation of the brand experience. *Town Planning Review, 84*(4), 495-515.

Herbst, K. C., Finkel, E. J., Allan, D., & Fitzsimons, G. M. (2012). On the dangers of pulling a fast one: Advertisement disclaimer speed, brand trust, and purchase intention. *Journal of consumer research, 38*(5), 909-919.

Hoch, S. J. (2002). Product experience is seductive. *Journal of consumer research, 29*(3), 448-454.

Hoch, S. J., & Ha, Y.-W. (1986). Consumer learning: advertising and the ambiguity of product experience. *Journal of consumer research*, 221-233.

Holbrook, M. B. (2000). The millennial consumer in the texts of our times: Experience and entertainment. *Journal of Macromarketing, 20*(2), 178-192.

Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of consumer research*, 132-140.

Holden, S. J. (1992). *Brand equity through brand awareness: measuring and managing brand retrieval.* University of Florida.

Hoogland, J. J., & Boomsma, A. (1998). Robustness studies in covariance structure modeling An overview and a meta-analysis. *Sociological Methods & Research, 26*(3), 329-367.

Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *Articles*, 2.

Hu, L. t., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal, 6*(1), 1-55.

Hui, M. K., & Bateson, J. E. (1991). Perceived control and the effects of crowding and consumer choice on the service experience. *Journal of consumer research*, 174-184.

Industry, D. o. T. a. (2008). *Annual review of small business in South Africa 2005-2007*.

Jackson, D. L., Gillaspy Jr, J. A., & Purc-Stephenson, R. (2009). Reporting practices in confirmatory factor analysis: an overview and some recommendations. *Psychological methods, 14*(1), 6.

Jones, C., & Bonevac, D. (2013). *An evolved definition of the term 'brand': Why branding has a branding problem.* Paper presented at the Journal of Brand Strategy.

Jones, M. A. (1999). Entertaining shopping experiences: an exploratory investigation. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 6*(3), 129-139.

Kapferer, J.-N. (1992). Strategic Brand Management, new approaches to creating and evaluating brand equaty: New York: The Free Press.

Kapferer, J.-N. (2012). *The new strategic brand management: Advanced insights and strategic thinking*: Kogan Page Publishers.

Kavaratzis, M. (2004). From city marketing to city branding: Towards a theoretical framework for developing city brands. *Place branding, 1*(1), 58-73.

Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *The Journal of Marketing*, 1-22.

Keller, K. L. (2003). Brand synthesis: The multidimensionality of brand knowledge. *Journal of consumer research, 29*(4), 595-600.

Keller, K. L., & Lehmann, D. R. (2006). Brands and branding: research findings and future priorities. *Marketing Science, 25*(6), 740-759.

Kempf, D. S., & Smith, R. E. (1998). Consumer processing of product trial and the influence of prior advertising: A structural modeling approach. *Journal of marketing research*, 325-338.

Kerin, R. A., Jain, A., & Howard, D. J. (1992). Store shopping experience and consumer price-quality-value perceptions. *Journal of Retailing*.

Krauss, C. (2009). Strength by luxury goods shoppers in Asia and online bring glimmers of hope to beleaguered industry, says Bain & Company in release of annual worldwide market study.

Lance, C. E., Butts, M. M., & Michels, L. C. (2006). The sources of four commonly reported cutoff criteria what did they really say? *Organizational Research Methods, 9*(2), 202-220.

Lau, G. T., & Lee, S. H. (1999). Consumers' trust in a brand and the link to brand loyalty. *Journal of Market-Focused Management, 4*(4), 341-370.

MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological methods, 1*(2), 130.

Malhotra, N. K. (1981). A scale to measure self-concepts, person concepts, and product concepts. *Journal of marketing research*, 456-464.

Mandel, N., & Johnson, E. J. (2002). When web pages influence choice: effects of visual primes on experts and novices. *Journal of consumer research, 29*(2), 235-245.

Mano, H., & Oliver, R. L. (1993). Assessing the dimensionality and structure of the consumption experience: evaluation, feeling, and satisfaction. *Journal of consumer research*, 451-466.

McAllister, D. J. (1995). Affect-and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations. *Academy of management Journal, 38*(1), 24-59.

Meyers-Levy, J., & Peracchio, L. A. (1995). Understanding the effects of color: How the correspondence between available and required resources affects attitudes. *Journal of consumer research*, 121-138.

Moilanen, T., & Rainisto, S. (2008). *How to brand nations, cities and destinations: A planning book for place branding*: Palgrave Macmillan.

Moorman, C., Zaltman, G., & Deshpande, R. (1992). Relationships between providers and users of market research: The dynamics of trust. *Journal of marketing research, 29*(3), 314-328.

Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *The Journal of Marketing*, 20-38.

Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (2002). How to use a Monte Carlo study to decide on sample size and determine power. *Structural Equation Modeling, 9*(4), 599-620.

O'brien, T. (1971). Stages of consumer decision making. *Journal of marketing research*, 283-289.

O'Cass, A., & Grace, D. (2004). Exploring consumer experiences with a service brand. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 13*(4), 257-268.

O'Leary, S., & Deegan, J. (2005). Ireland's image as a tourism destination in France: Attribute importance and performance. *Journal of travel research, 43*(3), 247-256.

Ofir, C., & Simonson, I. (2007). The effect of stating expectations on customer satisfaction and shopping experience. *Journal of marketing research, 44*(1), 164-174.

Okada, E. M. (2005). Justification effects on consumer choice of hedonic and utilitarian goods. *Journal of marketing research, 42*(1), 43-53.

Oliver, R. L. (1997). Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the customer. *New York*.

Philiastides, M. G., & Ratcliff, R. (2013). Influence of branding on preference-based decision making. *Psychological science*, 0956797612470701.

Ramamurti, R., & Singh, J. V. (2009). *Emerging multinationals in emerging markets*: Cambridge University Press.

Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of psychological research online, 8*(2), 23-74.

Sharma, P. (2011). Country of origin effects in developed and emerging markets: exploring the contrasting roles of materialism and value consciousness. *Journal of International Business Studies, 42*(2), 285-306.

Shukla, P. (2012). The influence of value perceptions on luxury purchase intentions in developed and emerging markets. *International Marketing Review, 29*(6), 574-596.

Sidorko, P. E., & Woo, E. (2008). Enhancing the user experience: Promoting a service culture through customized staff training. *Library Management, 29*(8/9), 641-656.

Sirdeshmukh, D., Singh, J., & Sabol, B. (2002). Consumer trust, value, and loyalty in relational exchanges. *Journal of marketing, 66*(1), 15-37.

Stand, D. W., & Rising, W. I. K. (2011). Special Focus: Inequality in Emerging Economies (EEs).

StatisticsSouthAfrica. (2013). *Mid-year population estimates*. Pretoria: The Department.

StatisticsSouthAfrica. (2014a). *Gross domestic product .First quarter 2014*.

statisticsSouthAfrica. (2014b). *Quarterly Employment Statistics*.

Suhr, D. (2008). *Step your way through path analysis.* Paper presented at the Western users of SAS software conference proceedings.

Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International journal of medical education, 2*, 53.

Taylor, A. B. (2008). *Two new methods of studying the performance of SEM fit indexes*: ProQuest.

Taylor, R. (1990). Interpretation of the correlation coefficient: a basic review. *Journal of diagnostic medical sonography, 6*(1), 35-39.

Veryzer, J., Robert W, & Hutchinson, J. W. (1998). The influence of unity and prototypicality on aesthetic responses to new product designs. *Journal of consumer research, 24*(4), 374-385.

Vigneron, F., & Johnson, L. W. (2004). Measuring perceptions of brand luxury. *The Journal of Brand Management, 11*(6), 484-506.

Voss, K. E., Spangenberg, E. R., & Grohmann, B. (2003). Measuring the hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of consumer attitude. *Journal of marketing research, 40*(3), 310-320.

Wiedmann, K. P., Hennigs, N., & Siebels, A. (2009). Value-based segmentation of luxury consumption behavior. *Psychology & marketing, 26*(7), 625-651.

Appendix 1

	Considering the following goods	
	Sunglasses:	Prada, Gucci, Ray-Ban, Roberto Cavalli, Versace
	Watches:	TAG Heuer, Fossil, Tissot, Cartier, Rolex
	Bags:	Prada, Gucci, Guess, Michael Kors, Louis Vuitton
	Perfumes and colognes	Davidoff, Chanel, Armani, Dolce & Gabbana,Christian Dior
Q1	Considering the above items / (Sunglasses,Watches,Bags and Perfumes), my spend / per item purchased…	
Q2	Hedonic nature	Would you consider this brandas providing fun, pleasure and excitement?
Brand image		
Q 3.1	This brand is colourful as apposed to colourless	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 3.2	This brand is a strong brand as opposed to submissive	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 3.3	This brand is excitable as opposed to calm	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 3.4	This brand is indulgent as opposed to thrifty	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 3.5	This brand is vain as opposed to modest	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 3.6	I would pay a premium for a brand with these (colourful, dominating, excitable, indulgent and vain) combination of attributes?	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 3.7	Considering these attributes mentioned (Questions 2.1 to 2.6), these would affect my intent to purchase these goods	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Brand Trust		
Q 4.1	This brand delivers what it promises (1)	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 4.2	This brand's product claims are believable (2)	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)

Q 4.3	Over time, my experiences with this brand have led me to expect it to keep its promises, no more and no less (3)	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 4.4	This brand has a name you can trust (4)	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 4.5	This brand doesn't pretend to be something it is not (5)	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 4.6	I would pay a premium for a brand with these combination of attributes (6)	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 4.7	Considering these attributes (Questions 3.1 to 3.6), these would affect my intent to purchase these goods	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Brand experience		
Q 5.1	This brand makes a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.2	I find this brand interesting in a sensory way	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.3	This brand does not appeal to my senses	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.4	This brand induces feelings and sentiments	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.5	I do not have strong emotions for this brand	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.6	This brand is an emotional brand	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.7	I engage in physical actions and behaviours when I use this brand	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.8	This brand results in bodily experiences	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.9	This brand is not action orientated	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.10	I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.11	This brand does not make me think	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.12	This brand stimulates my curiosity and problem solving	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 5.13	I would pay a premium for a brand with this combination of attributes	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)

Q 5.14	Considering these attributes (Questions 3.1 to 3.13) these would affect my intent to purchase these goods	Likert scale 1-7 (of strongly agree to strongly disagree)
Q 6	What is your gender?	Male / Female
Q 7	What is your current age?	18 to 24
		25 to 35
		36 to 45
		46 to 55
		Over 55
Q 8	What is your current employment environment?	Micro enterprise
		Small enterprise
		Medium enterprise
		Large enterprise
Q 9	What is your annual income (gross)?	Below R250 000
		R250 000-R499 999
		R500 000- R749 999
		R750 000-R999 999
		Above R999 999

Appendix 2

Brands utilised in Erdem and Swait (2004)study:

- Athletic shoes: Adidas, Asics, New Balance,Nike, Reebok;
- Cellular service providers: AT&T, Cingular, Nextel, Sprint, PCS, Verizon;
- Headache medication: Advil, Bayer, Excedrin, Motrin IB,Tylenol;
- Juice: Dole, Minute Maid, Sunkist, Tropicana, Welch's;
- Personal computers: Apple, Compaq, Dell, Gateway, IBM;
- Hair shampoo: Alberto VO5, Herbal Essence, Finesse, Pantene Pro V, Suave.

Brand utilised in J Joško Brakus et al. (2009)study:

- Apple and Dell (computers),
- Fiji and Poland Spring (water),
- J. Crew and Liz Clairborne (clothing)
- Puma and New Balance(sneakers)
- Volkswagen and Saturn (cars)

- NewYork Times and USA Today (newspapers).