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THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMOTIONS IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING AND REPURCHASE INTENTION OF ENERGY DRINKS: A CASE OF GENERATION Y

By

Neo Elsie Morwesi Phiri

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Marketing)

Under the Supervision of

Professor Richard Chinomona & Dr Marike Venter de Villiers

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

2018

ABSTRACT

Generation Y is emerging as an enormous force in the marketplace, with its growing spending power and its members' unique spending patterns. This research employs the Mehrabian and Russell (1974) S-O-R model to study the impact of experiential marketing on emotions and behavioural intention of Generation Y consumers in the energy drinks category. More than half of the energy drinks market comprises the fickle and disloyal consumption-driven Generation Y consumers. Customers are repeatedly attracted towards a brand based on its sensory experience. Marketing to customers' taste, smell, touch, sight and sound therefore contributes to creating powerful memories, thereby presenting real opportunities for marketers to develop repeat purchase behaviour. While there are numerous studies investigating the impact of experiential marketing in developed economies such as the USA, the UK, or Australia, there are limited studies on experiential marketing conducted in emerging economies such as Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa (BRICS). The study proposes a mediation model where customer emotions are hypothesised as a key mediator in the relationship between experiential marketing and consumer buying behaviour. Following a descriptive research design, self-administered questionnaires were distributed to a stratified random sample of 700 students from four Universities in Gauteng, South Africa, 689 of whom responded. Respondents were asked to answer questions about their perceptions of their favourite energy drink brand. For the hypotheses testing, a structural equation modelling approach was used, using AMOS software. Results confirm that experiential marketing positively influences emotions, which in turn, influences consumers' behavioural intentions. The results also confirmed that taste was the strongest multisensory experience. The results provide an empirical demonstration of the effects of experiential marketing on emotions and the subsequent impact of emotions on behavioural intentions. The findings of this study reinforce the importance of understanding the impact of customers' emotions on behavioural intentions while enabling managers to develop an experiential branding strategy.

Keywords: Experiential marketing, sensory marketing, emotions, repurchase intention, Generation Y, energy drinks.

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This Doctor of Philosophy Thesis (Marketing) is dedicated to my parents:
Mr Batho Apollos Phiri and Mrs Sonono Elizabeth Phiri

If I have a million tongues to Thank You, I consider them not enough.

To my siblings, you are deeply loved and admired.

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"For God is working in you, giving you the desire and the power to do what pleases Him"
Philippians 2:13.

DECLARATION

I, Neo Elsie Morwesi Phiri, hereby declare that this thesis is my own unaided work except where due recognition has been given. It is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg in South Africa. It has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other university.

……

Neo Elsie Morwesi Phiri

2018

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AMOS	Analysis Moment of Structures
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
CES	Consumption Emotions Set
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative-Fit Index
CR	Composite Reliability
EDs	Energy Drinks
FMCG	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFI	Goodness-Of-Fit Index
IFI	Incremental-Fit Index
IMC	Integrated Marketing Communication
IMF	International Monetary Fund
FMCG	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
NE	Negative Emotions
PAD	Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance
PE	Positive Emotions
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
RTD	Ready-To-Drink
RPI	Repurchase Intention
SA	South Africa
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SEMs	Strategic Experiential Modules
SOR	Stimulus-Organism-Response
SPSS	Statistical Package for The Social Sciences
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

"…experience should be designed in such a way as to contribute to the positive emotional responses and positive value creation…" (Song, Ahn & Lee, 2015, p. 240)

1.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the research topic by firstly focusing on the background of the study, secondly, the problem statement and research gap, thirdly, the purpose statement of the study, followed by the research objectives and research questions. The significance and contribution of the study is discussed, followed by the study's theoretical framework, definitions and conceptual model and hypotheses statements. The research design and methodology is discussed, followed by ethical considerations. It culminates with the thesis structure and chapter conclusion.

1.2 Background to the Study

Over the past decade, experiential marketing has gained significant interest among practitioners and researchers (Khan & Rahman, 2016; Homburg, Jozić & Kuehnl, 2015; Coomber & Poore, 2013; Schmitt & Zarantonello, 2013; Hultén, 2011; Brakus, Schmitt & Zarantonello, 2009; Gentile, Spiller & Noci, 2007; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Schmitt 1999; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Experiential marketing has been praised as a new, revolutionary concept of marketing (Brakus et al., 2009). Despite this, studies which investigate the impact of experiential marketing in emerging economies are limited (Khan & Rahman, 2015). Developed economies, as classified by the International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2014), are the major contributors to the experiential marketing field (Khan & Rahman, 2015). Even with this, it is predicted that by 2025 emerging markets will account for 50% of the world's total consumption, up from 30% in 2013 (Interbrand, 2013). Emerging markets represent approximately 80% of the world's population, making them extremely attractive propositions for marketers as consumerism grows (McCormick, Cartwright, Perry, Barnes, Lynch & Ball, 2014). In light of this, marketers are shifting to experiential marketing as a strategic tool in order to capture growth (Zena & Hadisumarto, 2012), as consumers want to be entertained, stimulated, emotionally affected and creatively challenged (Egan, 2015; Schmitt, 2011).

Several different terminologies for, and interpretations of, experiential marketing exist in the literature. Some of the concepts used are brand experience, customer experience, experience branding, customer/consumer experience, total experience, sensory experience (Keinonen,

2016; Khan & Rahman, 2015). To maximise the impact of experiences, the customers' senses should be engrossed and should be positioned at the centre of sensory marketing, the stimulation of the senses is of vital importance in today's marketing (Kumar, 2014). In Brown (2006), Steve Jobs concurred that the way to connect with today's sated, sybaritic, super savvy consumers is to offer them an awesome, unforgettable, mind-blowing experience, what he dubs 'insanely great'. This is aligned with what Maya Angelou stated, "People will forget what you said, people will forget what you did, but people will never forget how you made them feel" (Kanigan, 2013). Similarly, it is believed that consumers nowadays not only judge a product or service based on quality, functionality, and benefits, but more than that, they want products, communications, and marketing activities that provide sensation, touch their hearts, stimulate their intellect, and suit their lifestyle (Zena & Hadisumarto, 2012). For this reason, most of the world's renowned brands such as Apple, Coca-Cola, Starbucks, Harley-Davidson, Prada and Nike are moving away from traditional features-and-benefits marketing into this new approach of marketing called experiential marketing (Vecchi & Buckley, 2016; Kumar, 2014; Schmitt & Zarantonello, 2013; Agapito, Valle & Mendes, 2012; Brown, 2006).

The concept of brand experience has directed attention to the human senses as a competitive advantage in a global market, with gratification of all the senses playing an important role in the consumers' consumption experience (Agapito et al., 2012; Krishna, 2010). These human senses have been identified by Hultén, Broweus and Van Dijk (2009) as sight, smell, sound, touch and taste. All five senses have received attention from academics (Ave, Venter & Mhlophe, 2015; Krishna, 2013; Hultén, 2011; Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999) and practitioners (Randhir, Latasha, Tooraiven & Monishan, 2016; Ask & Svensson, 2015; Hinestroza & James, 2014). Past studies have established that emotional responses to the consumption experience are fundamental determinants of satisfaction and other post-consumption behaviours (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). Furthermore, a number of studies have applied the concept of brand experience to many areas, such as retailing, branding, malls, mobile, hospitality and tourism, automotive, as well as event marketing (Merrilees, Miller & Shao, 2016; Nadzri, Musa, Muda & Hassan, 2016; Kim, Lee & Suh, 2015; Alagöz & Ekici, 2014; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2013; Andrews, Drennan & Russell-Bennett, 2012; Chen, Tseng & Lin, 2011). Similarly, EHL (2016) highlights that 35% of Fortune 500 companies have adopted some form of sensory branding into their marketing philosophy. Unfortunately, there is limited literature on the role of emotions in consumer behaviour (Soodan & Pandey,

2016; Chand, 2015; Hanzaee & Baghi, 2011). Another study investigated purchase experience and indicated that attractive packaging was the most significant factor for repurchase intention on 'buy one get one free' promotion schemes (Jayaraman, Iranmanesh, Kaur & Haron, 2013). In Harvard Business Review (2015), Aradhna Krishna, Director of the Sensory Marketing Laboratory at the University of Michigan, argues that many companies are just starting to recognise how strongly the senses affect the deepest parts of our brains. Few scholars and practitioners have paid attention to experiential marketing within the energy drinks industry (Matthews, 2013; Naude, 2012; Koen, 2008). Energy drinks, such as Red Bull, Monster, Powerplay, Dragon Score, Mo Faya and Rock Star (BMI, 2016), are purported to increase energy and improve performance (Costa, Hayley & Miller, 2014). The ever expanding and growing energy drinks category is mainly driven by increased usage amongst Generation Y individuals (Park, Lee & Lee, 2016; Bulut, Topbaş & Çan, 2014). Furthermore, the number of consumers of energy drinks has increased, especially amongst older teens and young adults (Cabezas-Bou, De León-Arbucias, Matos-Vergara, Álvarez-Bagnarol, Ortega-Guzmán, Narváez-Pérez, Cruz-Bermúdez & Díaz-Ríos, 2016; Nowak & Jasionowski, 2015). Despite this, not much is known about Generation Y's motivation for consumption.

Generation Y consumers, also labelled as digital natives, net generation, millennials, echo boomers (or even the hip-hop, kwaito or Facebook generation), are the offspring of the Baby Boomers or Generation X (Jordaan, Ehlers & Grove, 2011; Berndt, 2007 & Prensky, 2001). In South Africa, Generation Y cohort accounts for an estimated 38 percent of the country's population (Statistics S.A, 2015). In terms of race, the African portion of this cohort accounts for approximately 83 percent of this cohort and 32 percent of the total South African population. South Africa researchers regard them as an economically robust cohort (Chinje & Chinomona, 2015). The current study focuses on the individuals who were born between 1991 and 1998. Those aged between 18 and 25 years represent the student population currently in tertiary institutions (Hill & Lee, 2012; Duh, 2011), and are therefore regarded as representing the largest demographic group that consume energy drinks (Bulut et al., 2014; McGuinness & Fogger, 2011; Seifert et al., 2011). This cohort was selected for this study because it has tremendous spending power and has been reared in a consumption driven society (Noble, Haytko & Phillips, 2009). Furthermore, Noble et al. (2009) state that university-aged Generation Y individuals between age 18 and 25 are one of the most sought-

after consumer segments due to their purchasing power, their role as trendsetters, their position as early adopters, and their probability of a higher standard of living associated with a university degree. University-aged Generation Y consumers represent huge potential for retailers as a market segment (Noble et al. 2009; Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001).

As such, because of the importance of the energy drinks category and the unprecedented power and attractiveness of this particular generation of university-aged Generation Y, the study presented aims to investigate the emotions produced by the consumption experience of energy drinks among university-aged Generation Y students in South Africa. Despite the aforementioned studies, a gap in literature exists on investigating the mediating role of consumer emotions in the relationship between brand experience and customer repurchase intention. This study identifies key emotions and relates the emotions to the customer experience. The study operationalises the experiential stimuli items (sensory, affective, behavioural, and intellectual), as formative indicators of the brand experience construct. Several authors argue that experiences trigger a multitude of emotional, physical, social, cognitive and spiritual reactions (Sachdeva & Goel, 2016; Walls, Okumus, Wang & Kwun, 2011). This study identifies unanswered questions about Generation Ys emotions and behavioural intention, as well as practical insights for managers relating to experiential marketing. Understanding how marketers can attract and retain customers through brand experience and consumer emotions is important (Fleenor, 2016; Bulut et al., 2014; Mileti, Prete & Guido, 2013). By means of a conceptual model, the present study proposes that the consumer's brand experience (predictor variable) influences the following identified consumer emotions; brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand credibility, and brand faith. The latter five variables act as the mediators, with repurchase intention as the outcome variable. This means that consumer emotions are expected to have a positive effect on repurchase intention. The findings of this study provide insights on how to target university-aged Generation Y more effectively, utilising experiential marketing strategies. The study further contributes to academic literature in the field of experiential marketing and consumer behaviour.

1.3 Problem Statement and Research Gap

Whilst growing attention has been paid to the effect of stimuli on human psychology and behaviour in diverse academic fields such as environmental psychology, retailing and marketing (Ryu & Jang, 2007; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982), the literature in those fields suggests that customer reactions to stimuli are related to emotional states (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Ryu & Jang, 2007). According to the Mehrabian Russell (MR) model, proposed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974), the internal emotional situation of a person results from environmental stimuli and influences behavioural intentions. Because stimuli are believed to be one of the most influential factors affecting customers' emotional state and behaviours, there is a need to understand how customers' emotional states and behaviour changes, based on their perception of stimuli elements. Gilmore and Pine (2002) defined experiential marketing as memorable events or experiences that engage the consumer in a personal way, such that he/she feels as being part of them, while exhilarating the senses and providing him/her with sufficient information to make a decision. Experiential marketing can therefore be considered as an environmental stimulus.

The Mehrabian and Russell (1974) model therefore provides the theoretical base to examine the effects of experiential marketing on emotions and the subsequent impact of emotions on behavioural intention. Although the Mehrabian and Russell (1974) model proposes that emotions influence responses of individuals to stimuli; Lazarus' (1991) appraisal theory claims that consumers evaluate the personal meaning of a brand experience before emotional responses are generated. Past studies have also provided evidence that brand experience tends to make customers engage in cognitive appraisals (Ding & Tseng, 2015). Contrary to Chang and Chieng (2006), researchers such as Brakus et al. (2009) have emphasised the role of cognitive appraisal more. These inconsistent conclusions imply the need for further examination of the relationships among brand experience and cognitive appraisals. According to Hagtvelt and Patrick (2009), the promise of consumption forms a powerful and ongoing motivation for consumer to re-experience the pleasurable feelings. As a result, consumers seek positive hedonic emotions in the consumption process, and marketers induce positive hedonic emotions by experiential marketing (Ding & Tseng, 2015). Researchers Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) state that hedonic emotions play a major mediation role that drives consumer behaviour under consumption experience. According to Smilansky (2018), experiential marketing should always make a deep emotional connection with the target audience. An understanding of the relative mediating power can possibly aid strategy

formation for experiential marketing. Additionally, Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) pointed out that under the experiential view of consumption, more diverse emotions such as love, joy, pride and ecstasy should be included.

Despite the attention of academics on the experiential marketing concept among academics (Brakus, Schmitt & Zhang, 2014; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2013; Brakus et al., 2009); and practitioners (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Shamim & Butt, 2013), relatively little is known about the effects of experiential marketing on positive emotions such as joy, pleasure, and love (Ali, Hussain & Omar, 2016; Soodan & Pandey, 2016; Khan & Rahman, 2015). Ma (2013) argues that a number of studies focus on the outcomes of emotions, but few studies focus on the antecedents or determinants of emotions. Although customer experience has been proclaimed as "the most exciting opportunity of 2015" (Adobe 2015, p 11), only a few studies have explored the role of experience on different outcomes (Ngo, Northey, Duffy & Thao, 2016; Shim, Forsythe & Kwon, 2015). Consumers have started to hold certain brands, such as Apple, Disney and LEGO close to their hearts (Davidge, 2015). In fact, today, 75% of buying experiences are based on emotion (Davidge, 2015). Customer experience is a critically important driver of emotional connection; emotionally connected customers are more than twice as valuable as highly satisfied customers. Companies deploying emotional-connection-based strategies derive significant improvements in financial outcomes (Magids, Zorfas & Leemon, 2015). Emotionally connected customers tend to buy more, visit often, exhibit less price sensitivity, are attentive to communication and recommend more (Zorfas & Leemon, 2016). Based on this, we can infer that a relationship likely exists between purchase-repurchase intention and customer experience. By setting emotional connection as the overarching goal, the "true north" of the customer experience, companies can point their investments in the right direction, execute more effectively, and reap significant financial rewards (Zorfas & Leemon, 2016). As stated by Knobloch, Robertson and Aitken (2014), memorable experiences have been strongly characterised by emotions. Likewise, research over the last two decades has placed increasing emphasis on the role of emotions.

Several authors point out that emotional responses are closely linked to behavioural intentions (Schreuder, van Erp, Toet & Kallen, 2016, Inzlicht, Bartholow & Hirsh, 2015; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Despite this, there is a dearth of literature on the effects of

stimuli on human emotions and behaviour (Spence, Puccinelli, Grewal & Roggeveen, 2014; Barrett, Barrett & Davies, 2013).

Experiential marketing should be central to the long-term marketing strategy of any brand (Smilansky, 2018). Marketers in South Africa need to adapt their marketing strategies to accommodate the developments in the market. Consumption of soft drinks is declining in many countries, yet energy drink sales continue to increase, particularly amongst young consumers (Visram, Crossley, Cheetham & Lake, 2017), yet little is currently known about the drivers behind these trends. The global energy drinks market, worth $50 billion, is projected to grow at an annual rate of 3.5% until at least 2020 (Mordor Intelligence LLP, 2016). These drinks are increasingly popular amongst young consumers (Visram et al., 2017).

In South Africa, the energy drink market has grown at a rapid pace (Naude, 2012). Since its 1997 inception in South Africa, it has grown into a very lucrative and attractive market (Koen, 2008). The Red Bull brand first entered the South African market in 1997 (Naude, 2012). Furthermore, Red Bull still comes to mind first when consumers think about energy drinks, also respondents in the study see Red Bull as the original brand in the category, and the best brand in the energy drink category (Naude, 2012). In addition, the South African energy drinks category is competitive, with new players entering this lucrative category forecasted to grow at 14.2% per annum through to 2020 (BMI, 2016), yet little research has been conducted on consumers in South Africa. There is growing evidence that the energy drinks category has grown exponentially over the past decade (Gunja & Brown, 2012; Attila & Çakir, 2011). The energy drinks category is very important in terms of its monetary value (Euromonitor, 2016); energy drinks are commonly believed to be one of the most appealing and profitable beverage categories in the world (Fleenor, 2016; Willey, 2014).

In spite of the significant growth of the South Africa energy drinks market, there is little literature on energy drink consumption in South Africa, and the marketing activities of producers (Stacey et al., 2017; Engineering News, 2016). Despite the exponential rise in the worldwide energy drink category (Seifert, Schaechter, Hershorin & Lipshultz, 2011), little research has been done on consumption of energy drinks among university students (Marczinski, 2011). More than half of the market for energy drinks is consumed by Generation Y (Bulut et al., 2014; McGuinness & Fogger, 2011; Seifert et al., 2011). Energy

drink consumption in South Africa is higher among young consumers (Stacey et al., 2017). Generation Y college-aged students are known to use different energy drinks per week (Aljaloud, 2016). Despite the potential of the Generation Y college market, much is unknown about this group's motivations for consumption and patronage, most research on Generation Y focuses on the entire generation and not the college-aged market (Noble et al., 2009). Part of the Red Bull strategy has always been to focus on entry point consumers who are around 15 years old. This strategy will help to guarantee the sustainability of the brand. In South Africa, Red Bull has lost the entry point consumer to the Monster brand. A massive effort will have to be made to refocus on entry point consumers because they are the future of the brand (Naude, 2012).

The sheer size of this cohort, both internationally and in South Africa, renders it an important current and future market segment (Bevan-Dye, (2016). Even with the importance of this generational cohort, their consumer behaviour remains under researched (Van Deventer, De Klerk & Bevan-Dye, 2014). A key shortcoming in the body of knowledge, namely that the majority of generational research has been conducted in developed countries, which raises the question of the generalisability of the findings to developing and non-Western countries (Roongrerngsuke & Liefooghe, 2013). This shows a need to conduct generation cohort research in an emerging country such as South Africa. To this end, Khan and Rahman (2015) point out that a gap emanates from the consequences of experiential marketing and the antecedents of behavioural intention. Furthermore, it also responds to the call from Goi, Kalidas and Zeeshan (2014) who recommend future research to consider developing better instruments that clarify the three emotion dimensions (pleasure, arousal and dominance).

Keeping in view the above literature, there is a gap in assessing the influence of experiential marketing (such as sense, think, feel and act experiences) on their emotions, which could have an influence on repurchase intention in the energy drinks category amongst Generation Y in South Africa. Based on the Mehrabian and Russell (1974) model, the current study proposes a theoretical model and testing thereof among a narrower group of Generation Y individuals, specifically university-aged individuals in South Africa. The most important contribution is the introduction of a somewhat more holistic measure of emotion for M-R model application and an empirical demonstration of how university aged Generation Y consumers perceive experiential marketing and how their perception directly influences emotions and affects their behavioural intentions. This study further strengthens the

application of the theoretical framework. Furthermore, it adds new knowledge on the literature on context-extension of energy drinks, Generation Y and South Africa.

1.4 Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to investigate, within the South Africa context, the influence of experiential marketing on emotions and the effect of the emotions on behavioural intention of Generation Y energy drink consumers. To achieve this purpose, the study adapted the Mehrabian and Russell (1974) environmental psychology model.

1.5 Research Questions

The following questions guided the study:

- Does brand experience influence brand pleasure of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- To what extent does brand experience influence brand arousal of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- Does brand experience influence brand love of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- Is there any influence of brand experience on brand faith of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- Is there any influence of brand experience on brand credibility of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- Does brand pleasure influence repurchase intention of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- Is there any influence of brand arousal on repurchase intention of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- Does brand love influence repurchase intention of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- To what extent does brand credibility influence repurchase intention of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- Does brand faith influence repurchase intention of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?
- To what extent does brand experience influence repurchase intention of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa?

1.6 Significance and Contribution of the Study

The significance and contribution of this study are threefold: contextual, theoretical and practical.

1.6.1 Contextual Contribution

The study adds to existing literature by providing empirical demonstration of how consumers perceive experiential marketing and how this directly influences consumer emotions and affects behavioural intention to consume energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. From a theoretical perspective, the study highlights some potential theoretical underpinnings of Generation Y consumption behaviours. This study adds to the contextual knowledge of Generation Y consumers, a segment that is not well understood by the market, yet is arguably important due to its influence and spending power. Since context affects theory, the study probes the established knowledge from other contexts as these might not necessarily be generalisable among Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa. Furthermore, the study contributes to the energy drink multibillion-dollar industry (McCrory, White, Bowman, Fenton, Reid & Hammond, 2017) with strong growth in the South Africa market over the past decade (BMI, 2016). The research adds unique perspectives by measuring brand experience and emotion branding constructs that have not been used holistically in a conceptual framework on repurchase intention.

1.6.2 Theoretical Contribution

The findings of this research provide a new theoretical perspective on experiential marketing that adds to the current knowledge. The study contributes to the SOR theory by exploring the relationships among experiential marketing, customer emotional responses, and behavioural intentions. Based on the SOR theory, the current study proposed a theoretical model and tested it among university-aged Generation Y students in South Africa. Before this research, it was known that three positive PAD emotions mediate the relationship between experiential marketing and repurchase intention. The study includes a wider range of positive emotions that had not been included in the original PAD (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) study. Existing research does not capture the full range of positive emotional experience relevant to consumption behaviour, therefore, this study examines a broader range of positive emotions by including other emotions (faith and credibility), along with two considered by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) (pleasure and arousal) as well as Laros and Steenkamp (2005) (love) to

understand differences in the appraisals underlying positive emotions. The study contributes to the literature by proving the usefulness of the SOR model for encompassing the additional aspect of stimulus (that is, brand experience) in the context of energy drinks repurchase. Theoretically, it adds to the existing literature by emphasising the importance of understanding consumer experiences within the energy drinks category by identifying the emotional states that consumers may experience as a result of marketing stimuli.

1.6.3 Practical Contribution

The findings of this study may assist marketers in crafting strategies to capture the emotional aspect of consumption in order to enhance their brand value and will help to develop a strong emotional bond with the customers. From an experiential marketing perspective, genuine insights are crucial to enable managers to enhance the quality of their product, create competitive advantage, and eventually generate higher profits (Nawijn, 2011). Despite the growing global need stated for energy boost, numerous studies have highlighted concerns on the consequences of energy drinks frequency and consumption quantity. The findings will assist marketers to strategically concentrate, as they need to be conscious of the impact of the communication content and methods on consumer emotions. The findings of the study will also assist marketers and policy makers in the development of policies aimed at protecting young people from the potentially harmful health effects that can occur with excessive energy drink consumption, thereby being able to provide relevant education guidelines.

1.7 Theoretical Framework

This study is premised on the stimulus-organism-response (SOR) paradigm (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), and is also grounded in the following three theories; the experiential marketing branding model (Schmitt, 1999), the multi-sensory-brand experience model (Hultén, 2011) and the pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) theory (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974).

1.7.1 The Experiential Branding Model

The experiential branding model (Schmitt, 1999) highlights a shift in attention from traditional to experiential marketing. Traditional marketing approaches consumers as rational decision-makers, caring about functional attributes and benefits, while experiential marketers view consumers as rational and emotional individuals looking for pleasurable experiences

(Alexander & Nobbs, 2016; Wade Clarke, Perry & Denson, 2012; Schmitt, 1999). The experiential marketing discipline is relatively young, but is growing rapidly (Saran, 2016). This shift was a result of three simultaneous developments, namely, the omnipresence of information technology, the supremacy of the brand and the ubiquity of communications and entertainment (Schmitt, 1999). In addition, Schmitt (1999) posited that brand experience is holistic in nature, and involves five categories—sense, feel, think, act, and relate—that portray the strategic experience modules (SEMs). As stated by Schmitt, sense marketing induces aesthetic pleasure, excitement, and satisfaction by stimulating sight, sound, scent, taste, and touch. While feel marketing induces affect (i.e., the creation of moods and emotions) in relation to the company and brand, for instance, positive or negative feelings toward a product or service clearly influence the extent to which it is consumed. The objective of think marketing is to encourage consumers to engage in elaborative and creative thinking that results in a re-evaluation of the company and its products. In addition, act marketing is oriented toward the creation of experiences through behaviour on the customer's part, either privately or in the company of others.

1.7.2 The Multi-Sensory Brand Experience Model

This study is also grounded through the Multi-Sensory brand experience model of Hultén (2011) who argued that sensorial cues of smell, sound, sight, taste, as well as touch, impact sensory perception positively which then influences customers buying behaviour. In supporting the current study, the theory demonstrates that the five human senses contribute to creating emotions. As stated by Krishna (2010, p. 2), sensory marketing is defined as "marketing that engages the consumers' senses and affects their behaviour". Marketing researchers such as Sudhakar and Shetty (2014), as well as Eriksson and Larsson (2011), have all used the theory and attested that the five sensory cues positively affect buyer behaviour and create a multisensory brand experience. Multi-sensory brand experience is quite neglected in the marketing literature, despite its importance in creating sensory experiences (Hultén, 2011). The grounding of the theory supports the current study because the dimensions of sensory branding are investigated.

1.7.3 Stimulus-Organism-Response (SOR) Theory: (The Mehrabian-Russell Model)

Mehrabian-Russell (1974) produced the M-R model, based on a stimulus-organism-response (SOR) paradigm. The SOR model states that stimuli play a major role in influencing consumers' emotions and behaviour. The model posits that emotional response mediates the

relationship between environmental stimuli and human behaviour. Mehrabian-Russell (1974) suggests that the environment is the stimulus (S) that leads to an emotional reaction organism (O) by giving environmental and atmospheric cues, and causes customers behavioural response (R). These emotional responses lead to two contrasting consumer behaviours: approach or avoidance. Mehrabian and Russell (1974) indicate that stimuli can affect the emotions of individuals, which can in turn, influence their responses. As pointed out by Vermaak and De Klerk (2017), stimuli in a product and environment not only influence the consumer's senses, but also play an important role in the consumer's emotional experience. The brand stimuli constitute the major source of internal consumer responses, which is conceptualised as brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009).

1.7.4 Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) Theory

Based on environmental psychology, Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) theory in the organism (O) condition describes three situational descriptors of emotions (PAD: pleasure, arousal, and dominance), and is a suitable theory for this study as it was designed to capture emotional responses to environmental stimuli. These three dimensions underlie emotional responses to environmental stimuli and, in turn, elicit an individual's approach or avoidance behaviour toward the environment (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). In line with previous studies using the PAD theory, pleasure refers to the degree to which a person feels good, joyful, happy, or satisfied in a situation. Arousal refers to the degree to which a person feels stimulated, active, or alert, and it can be considered as an indicator of web site "motivational power". Dominance refers to the degree to which a person feels controlling, influential, free or autonomous and it can be considered as an indicator of "consumers controlling power" of the web site (Mazaheri, Richard & Laroche, 2012). As stated in Hosany and Gilbert (2010), the PAD scale is a popular measure among researchers to assess the impact of emotional experiences on shopping behaviours such as patronage, repurchase intentions, and satisfaction.

1.8 Key Concepts and Terms

This section provides a brief overview of the key concepts and terms of this study. Key concepts are discussed in more depth in the subsequent chapters. Firstly, the experiential marketing concept is defined, followed by the main variables that form the foundation of the present study, namely, Stimulus (brand experience), Organism (brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand faith, brand credibility) and Response (repurchase intention).

1.8.1 Experiential Marketing

Schmitt (1999) points out that experiential marketing is divided into several variables called strategic experiential modules (SEMs) that consist of sense, feel, think, act and relate. Experiential marketing is premised on the idea that consumers are "rational and emotional human beings who are concerned with achieving pleasurable experiences, whereas traditional marketing views consumers as rational decision-makers who are more concerned with the product's functional features and benefits" (Qader & Omar, 2013, p. 331). With the increase in competition, marketers can no longer solely rely on traditional marketing as the most effective solution (Grundey, 2008). Convincing a customer on the basis of features and benefits of the products or service is now not enough (traditional marketing), as the customers' emotional involvement during the experience of a product or service (experiential marketing) has become more important (Khan & Rahman, 2014).

1.8.2 Brand Experience

In this study, experiential marketing (Stimulus) is measured through the Brakus et al., (2009) brand experience scale, as this includes the variables of experiential marketing which are sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural using 12 measurement items (Brakus et al., 2009). Brand experience refers to the customers' "subjective, internal (sensations, feelings, and cognitions) and behavioural responses evoked by brand related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications, and environments" (Brakus et al, 2009, p. 53). As noted by Schmitt (1999), brand experiences provide sensory, emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and relational values that replace functional values. Using the Brakus et al. (2009) approach to brand experience, the current study adopts their scale to assess brand experience and predicts that emotions influence consumer behaviour in the energy drinks category.

Brand experiences can generate customer loyalty. According to Smilansky (2018), brand experiences drive brand differentiation, brand equity and business results. The use of brand experience in building brands stems from the fact that consumers look for brands that provide them with unique, attractive and memorable experiences (Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010; Schmitt, 2009; Morrison & Crane, 2007). Marketers can therefore focus on building brand related stimuli in order to influence customer behaviour. The use of sensory marketing has been used to generate customer value and experiences, as a result, different sensory

impressions have impacted customer behaviour. Therefore, marketers can implement sensorial strategies such as sight, sound, touch, smell, and taste. Hultén (2011) argues that sight strategy has been viewed as the most effective, as it is believed that eyes do 70% of the buying. Joustra (2016) points out that scent has a positive effect on consumers' emotions and behaviour. Xixiang, Gilal and Gilal (2016) have highlighted other brand related stimuli which trigger brand experience as traditional communications such as advertising, below the line tools, public relations, and event marketing practices.

1.8.3 The Concept of Emotions in Consumer Research

Several definitions of emotions (Organism) are available in psychology and marketing literature (Mazaheri et al., 2014). Moreover, emotions result from exposure to specific stimuli (Singer & Arora, 2015). Surprise, for instance, may be caused from exposure to unexpected attributes of a product or situation, such as an unusually high or unusually low quality. People may experience a feeling of being relaxed in a restaurant providing appropriate ambiance, colour or music. The study of emotions is important in marketing for several reasons. Emotions are a rapidly triggered response to a specific event that is often easily identifiable; measuring emotions is an extremely delicate task (Lichtlé & Plichon, 2014). Emotions have been proven to play an important role in consumers' evaluation of their consumption experiences (Yao, 2016). According to Smilansky (2018), emotions are pivotal drivers of buying behavior. A common challenge is that researchers continue to adapt measures from emotion theorists to fit the consumption context (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). Such examples include Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) PAD; (measures two primary dimensions: pleasantness/unpleasantness and arousal/quietness); Izard's (1977) Differential Emotion Scale (measures ten fundamental emotions: interest, joy, surprise, guilt, distress, disgust, anger, shame, fear, and contempt); Plutchik's (1980) Psychoevolutionary Theory of Emotions (PTE) (measures eight emotions: disgust, anger, acceptance, fear, joy, sorrow, expectation, and surprise); and Watson, Clark, and Tellegen's (1988) PANAS (measures two primary dimensions: pleasantness/unpleasantness and arousal/quietness) (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Singer & Arora, 2015); hierarchical clusters (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). Lee, Back and Kim (2009) argued that emotions are a person's positive and negative feelings.

Specifically, this study adopts the two emotions proposed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) being brand pleasure and brand arousal; one emotion by Plutchik (1980) being brand love which is a combination of joy and acceptance, as well as from Laros and Steenkamp (2005);

one emotion proposed by Kellenberger (1980) and Haig (2006) being brand faith; and one emotion proposed by Mileti et al. (2013) as well as Maathuis, Rodenburg and Sikkel (2004), being brand credibility. This study employs the following organisms (customer emotions): brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand faith and brand credibility.

1.8.4 Brand Pleasure

Mehrabian and Russell (1974), indicate that three dimensions of pleasure arousal and dominance, lead to two contrasting consumer behaviours of approach or avoidance. Kim, Lee and Choi (2016) indicate that pleasure is a powerful determinant of approach-avoidance behaviour. Brand pleasure refers to the degree to which customers feel good, comfortable, joyful, happy, or satisfied in a situation (Joustra, 2016). Pleasure refers to the extent to which a person feels good and happy in a situation (Chung, Ryu, Green & Kang, 2015). Pleasure has been used as an indicator of likeability (Mazaheri et al., 2012; Poels & Dewitte, 2008). Lichtlé and Plichon (2014) argued that pleasure is the emotion that has the most direct and most important effect on consumer behaviour.

1.8.5 Brand Arousal

Brand arousal refers to the degree to which a person feels excited, alert, stimulated, awake, or active in a situation (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Donovan and Rossiter (1982) previously described arousal as the extent, on a continuum from calmness to excitement, to which a person responds to a stimulus. Other researchers (Kulviwat, Bruner, Gordon, Kumar, Nasco & Clark, 2007) have described it as the degree to which a person experiences an enjoyable reaction to some stimulus, grouping these into happiness, enjoyment and satisfaction. Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) argued that arousal is a major motivation for experientially-oriented consumers and is an amplifier of the effect of the positive or negative hedonic tone of consumption experiences.

1.8.6 Brand Love

Brand love refers to “the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name” (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006, p. 81). Several authors consider love as a basic emotion (Langner, Schmidt & Fischer, 2015; Batra, Ahuvia & Bagozzi, 2012; Rossiter, 2011). Brand love has been studied as both an emotion and a relationship, where the emotion has been asserted to be short-term and episodic and relationship is seen to be

more long-term. Batra, Ahuvia and Bagozzi (2012) asserted that it is important to acknowledge the distinction. There is considerable evidence that shows that brand love has a major influence on repurchase intention (Garg, Mukherjee, Biswas & Kataria, 2015; Turgut & Gultekin, 2015; Albert & Merunka, 2013; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010). Brand love has also been proven to have an impact on consumer forgiveness and attitude towards an extension. Consumers who are emotionally attached to a brand are most likely to continue purchasing the brand (Garg et al., 2015).

1.8.7 Brand Faith

Brand faith refers to emphasis on brand as a religion, although branding has been asserted as an 'art', it is said to owe a debt to religion (Haig, 2006). Thus, brand religiosity refers to the perception that a brand can serve all those purposes in life that religion serves (Sarkar & Sarkar, 2017). Pichler and Hemetsberger (2007) point out that an individual can be devoted to a brand in the same way he/she becomes devoted to a religion. Haig (2006, p. 2) points out that "Like religions, brands want people to have faith in what they have to offer, this faith ideally leads to life-long devotion and belief in the brands authenticity". Sarkar and Sarkar (2017) argue that, today, both brands and religion allow individuals to express their feelings of self-worth.

Faith has been defined in Cambridge Dictionaries Online (2016) as "great trust or confidence in something or someone"; British version; "a high degree of trust or confidence in something or someone"; American version; a feeling of trust that something will be successful, that people will do what they promise to do": Business version. Haig (2006) asserted that faith leads to life-long devotion and belief in the brand. Scholars point out that devoted customers remain devoted to the brand so intensely that it survives poor product performance, scandal, bad publicity, high prices, and absence of promotional efforts (Pimentel & Reynolds, 2004). Kellenberger (1980) pointed out that Protestant theologians have tended to see faith as an emotional state, while Catholic theologians have tended to view faith as an assent to certain propositions. Thakur and Kaur (2016) argue that brand faith is a new dimension construct of attitudinal loyalty. In this study, brand faith has been studied from the point of view of at least three orientations (i.e. trust, engagement, community).

1.8.8 Brand Credibility

Brand credibility is based on the theoretical model built upon the renowned source credibility model (Wang, Kao & Ngamsiriudom, 2017). This study focuses on the emotional aspect of

brand credibility. Mileti et al. (2013) describe brand emotional credibility as the emotional responses associated with the believability of brand signals as a result of attractiveness, expertise and trustworthiness evaluated in terms of evoked emotional responses. Brand credibility refers to "the believability of the product information contained in a brand, which requires that consumers perceive that the brands have the ability and willingness (to continuously deliver what has been promised" (Erdem & Swait, 2004, p. 192). Several researchers have argued that having a credible brand can lead to a more cost-effective operation, as the likelihood of message acceptance is higher; this can lead to increased sales and repurchases (Park & Lee, 2013; Wang & Yang, 2010). Furthermore, Mileti et al. (2013) as well as Maathuis et al. (2004) observe that brand credibility is significantly related to emotion and reason in consumers' decision making.

1.8.9 Repurchase Intention

Repurchase intention refers to "customers self-assured willingness of possibly engaging in future repurchase behaviour from the same provider, or recommending the provider to others, which consequently arises after the purchase and use of the provider's merchandise" (Van Niekerk, Petzer & De Beer, 2016, p. 74). Lazarevic (2012) argued that repurchase intention represents behavioural loyalty whereas attitudinal loyalty is represented by consumer willingness to purchase at a higher price and overcome obstacles to purchase. Behavioural loyalty is the actual action of re-purchase (Wolfgang, 1999). Curtis, Abratt, Rhoades and Dion (2011) contend that repurchase of the product or service is behavioural loyalty. Repurchase intention in this study represents behavioural loyalty, as previous studies have equated loyalty to behavioural intention components (Lazarevic, 2012; Jani & Han, 2011; Han & Kim, 2009). The notion that customer repurchase can lead to increased future revenues is widely supported (Chiu, Chang, Cheng, Fang & 2009). Several authors argue that feelings of loyalty in Generation Y have been greatly associated with repurchase intentions (Lazarevic, 2012; Foscht, Schloffer, Maloles & Chia, 2009).

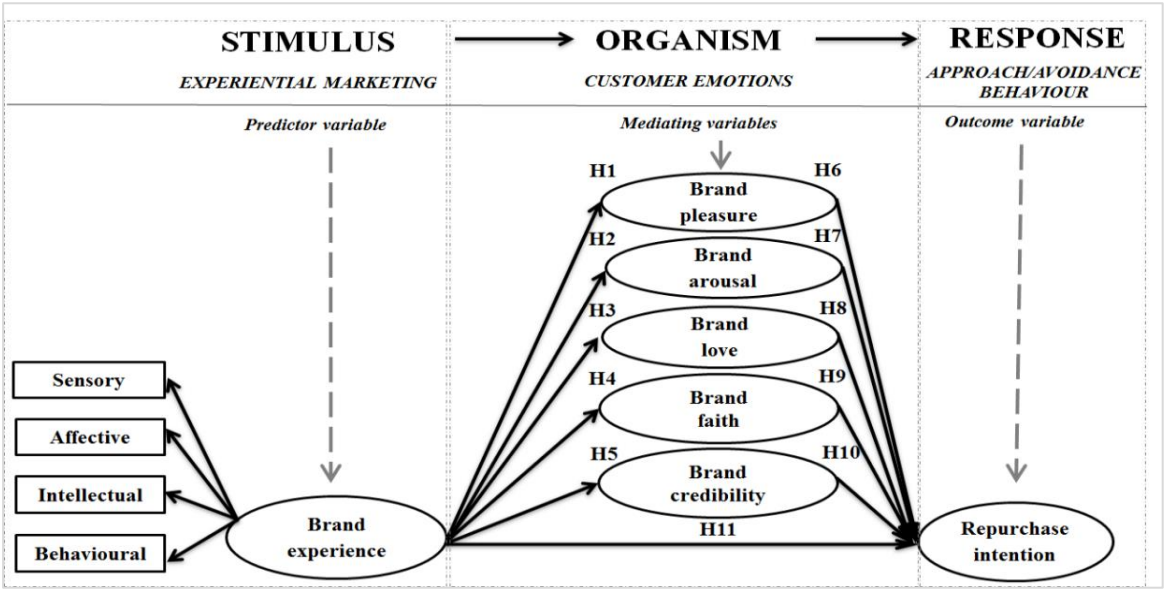
1.9 Conceptual Model and Hypotheses Statements

By means of a conceptual model, the following is proposed: firstly, brand experience represents the predictor variable, with repurchase intention as the outcome variable. There are five mediators: brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand credibility, and brand faith. The selection of the latter branding variables as mediators stem from an abundant interest from several researchers. For instance, Aboutalebi and Kouloubandi (2016)

conducted a study in which they explored brand experience, brand credibility, brand attitude, brand equity and purchase intention. Similarly, Garg et al. (2015) investigated the influence of brand experience, brand love and repurchase intention. Alan, Dursun, Kabadayi, Aydin and Anlagan, (2016) conducted a study in which they explored brand experience, pleasure and arousal on satisfaction, while studies by various authors (Thakur & Kaur 2016; Keiningham, Frennea, Aksoy, Buoye & Mittal, 2015; Haig, 2006) investigated the influence of faith, devotion and commitment on behavioural intention. Furthermore, the mediating effects of pleasure and arousal on repurchase intention were conducted in studies by Lee (2015), as well as Moreno, Prado-Gascó, Hervás, Núñez-Pomar, and Sanz (2015), respectively. It is therefore proposed that brand experience has a positive influence on the five mediating variables, which in turn, has a positive influence on repurchase intention. In practice, this means that when marketers create a favourable brand experience, it will have a positive effect on consumers' brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand faith and brand credibility. This will lead to an increase in customers' willingness to repurchase the brand.

An in-depth discussion on the hypotheses development is provided in Chapter 4. The conceptual model is grounded in the Mehrabian and Russell (1974) SOR paradigm which provides a solid foundation for the current study. Figure 1.1 depicts this conceptualised research model. The hypothesised relationships between the research constructs are discussed later.

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Model



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

Although the Mehrabian and Russell (1974) SOR model did not propose a stimulus-response linkage, the effects of experience on behaviour have received substantial attention, as scholars (Daunt & Harris, 2012; Wong, Osman, Jamaluddin & Yin-Fah, 2012; Namkung & Jang, 2010; Lin, 2004) argue that stimulus directly influences customers' response. Despite these arguments, this study also proposes a stimulus response linkage.

Hypotheses Statements:

Hypothesis refers to a testable proposition stating that there is a significant difference or relationship between two or more variables, it is often referred to as H1 (Saunders et al., 2009). In this study, the following hypotheses were formulated out of the conceptual model and they were presented as follows:

H 1: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand pleasure* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

H 2: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand arousal* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

H 3: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand love* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

H 4: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand faith* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

H 5: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand credibility* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

H 6: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand pleasure and repurchase intention* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

H 7: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand arousal and repurchase intention* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

H 8: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand love and repurchase intention* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

H 9: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand faith and repurchase intention* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

H 10: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand credibility and repurchase intention* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

H 11: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and repurchase intention* of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa.

1.10 Research Design and Methodology

The study followed a positivist research philosophy, and undertook a deductive, descriptive research design using a quantitative approach with survey method to test the hypotheses. Data was collected through a survey technique using a questionnaire with the respondents. The researcher used a quantitative approach to obtain data. The population of the current study was 459,428 full time contact SA Higher education/university students, of which 153,610 are Gauteng, South Africa, students. A total of 689 of 700 questionnaires fielded could be used for analysis. The researcher obtained a 98.4% response rate. This sample size is consistent with sample size requirements for SEM (e.g., minimum of 10 respondents for each item in the survey instrument (Chin, 1998), also calculated using Raosoft Sample Size Calculator (Raosoft Inc, 2004) with a confidence interval of 95% and a margin of error of 5% the minimum sample size required was three hundred and eighty-five (385) respondents. In order to decrease possible sampling errors, a larger sample of participants was surveyed (700). The study sample included those who were between 18 and 25 years of age among full time students, who were familiar with energy drinks and had experience using brands such as Red Bull, Powerplay, Monster, Dragon or MoFaya six months prior to the survey. This specific age cohort was chosen because they represent the largest cohort of energy drink users (Aljaloud, 2016; Bulut et al., 2014; Park, Onufrak, Blanck & Sherry, 2013).

The study employed a probability sampling technique using a stratified sampling method, in which respondents were randomly selected across campuses. The study was undertaken at four large universities in Gauteng, South Africa: The University of the Witwatersrand, the University of Johannesburg, the University of Pretoria and Monash University. Gauteng was selected as the geographic location for this study, as it constitutes 52.2% of South Africa's energy drink market in terms of sales (BMI, 2016). Before the actual data collection, the items of the questionnaire were discussed with three experts in this domain to ensure that its face and content validity were as recommended by Zaichkowsky (1985). Further, the questionnaire was submitted to two academics who assessed each item for representativeness, specificity and clarity. After this process, a pilot study was conducted with fifty university (50) students in a university class who were actual users of energy drink brands to identify unclear or hard-to-understand questions. Data collection commenced after the University

committee gave ethics clearance. Two trained fieldworkers conducted surveys at the University of the Witwatersrand, while a third fieldworker, who had access to transport, worked under the Red Rooster Activation Agency to collect data at the University of Pretoria and Monash University. At the University of Johannesburg, the lecturer collected data after a marketing class session.

Data was collected through a self-administered, cross-sectional survey. Screening questions were included to ensure that respondents were eligible to take part in the study. Instead of a specific energy drinks brand or brands, the questionnaire asked respondents to answer, based on an energy drink brand they favoured. The measuring instrument was designed from previously validated scales, proper modifications were made in order to fit the current research context and purpose. Apart from demographic and consumption variables, all the other variables were measured using a seven-point Likert type scale. Seven-item Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) were customised from the following pre-existing scales and were ultimately modified to suit the context of this study. The first construct "brand experience" that encompasses the four subconstructs was adapted from a scale by Beckman, Kumar and Kim (2013). Secondly, the items measuring "brand credibility" were adapted from Hanzaee and Taghipourian (2012). Thirdly, the Plante and Boccaccini (1997) "brand faith" scale was modified to suit the present study. For the fourth construct "brand love", a scale by Rageh and Spinelli (2012) was adapted. The constructs, "brand pleasure" and "brand arousal" are respectively measured using Kulviwat, Bruner and Neelankavil's (2014) scale. Finally, the items measuring "repurchase intention" scale were adapted from Beckman, Kumar and Kim (2013).

This study uses Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach – confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) to investigate the proposed relationships. The data was captured, coded, cleaned, and the analysis was conducted using SPSS 23 and AMOS 23 software. Through structural equation modelling (SEM), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and path modelling were performed. Reliability of the measurement instrument was tested using the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient, Composite Reliability Index and the Average Value Extracted (AVE). To ensure validity, the convergent validity, discriminant validity, and the Average Value Extracted (AVE) were observed. In the two-step approach, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM), model fits were evaluated, the acceptable threshold for the Chi-square value was

below the threshold of 3.0; the Goodness of fit index (GFI), Tucker Lewis index (TLI), Incremental fit index (IFI), Comparative fit index (CFI) and Normed fit index (NFI) were all higher than the threshold of 0.9; and the Random measure of standard error approximation (RMSEA) is considered satisfactory, based on the recommended 0.05 and is acceptable up to 0.08 (Kline, 2011; Hair, Black, Barbin & Anderson; 2010; Byrne, 2010). Overall, the findings of this study relating to reliability tests, model fit statistics, convergent and discriminant validity tests provide evidence that the measurement model was satisfactory. The research design and methodology are further discussed in chapter 5. The researcher acquired an Ethics clearance certificate from the Ethics Committee before questionnaires were given out to respondents. This was granted. The Protocol Number is H16/06/32 and a copy of the certificate is attached in Appendix IX: Ethics Clearance Certificate.

1.11 Ethical Considerations

This research underwent a comprehensive ethics procedure. Research ethics refer to the appropriateness of the researcher's behaviour in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of a research project, or who are affected by it (Saunders et al., 2009). The goal of ethics in research is to ensure that no one is harmed or suffers adverse consequences from research activities (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Prior to commencing with participant recruitment and data collection, the approval of the ethics committee at the University of the Witwatersrand was sought. Each participant was issued a consent form prior to participating in the study and questionnaires were anonymous. Participants participated for free. The participants' involvement was voluntary, and the rights of the respondents have been taken into consideration. Participants were given the right to withdraw from the study if, in any instance, they felt uncomfortable. Participants have not been exposed to any harm. Participants have been assured that the information is confidential and will only be used for academic purposes.

1.12 Thesis Structure

As depicted in Table 1.1, the thesis is structured as follows:

Table 1.1: Outline of Thesis

Chapter 1: Introduction	The first chapter contains an introduction that outlines the research background, research gap, problem statement and purpose of the study, as well as the study's outline.
Chapter 2: Research context	The second chapter contains a detailed overview of the context of the study. This includes a review of energy drinks and Generation Y.
Chapter 3: Literature Review	The third chapter covers literature of the theories that ground the study; this includes a review of the individual variable in the study: brand experience, brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand credibility, and brand faith and repurchase intention dimensions.
Chapter 4: Conceptual framework and hypothesis development	The fourth chapter provides the hypothesis development discussion followed by the conceptual model of this study.
Chapter 5: Research design and methodology	The fifth chapter explains the research methodology and contains the philosophy, research design that includes the sampling design, the questionnaire development, pilot testing, data collection technique and the data analysis approach.
Chapter 6: Data analysis	The sixth chapter unpacks the statistical analysis of data collected from the study. It further contains descriptive and inferential analysis using SPSS 23 software and AMOS 23.
Chapter 7: Discussion of findings	The seventh chapter contains the findings of the data analysis.
Chapter 8: Conclusion, recommendations and future research	The eighth chapter provides concluding remarks, theoretical and practical implications, limitations and suggestions for future research. The reference section is presented thereafter followed by an appendix.

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

1.13 Conclusion

This chapter outlined an overview of the study undertaken. The introduction was outlined, including the background in which the study was conducted. The chapter also included the problem statement and the research gap that forms the motive for having conducted the study. Moreover, the research objectives and research questions were presented. It was expected that this study would make contextual, theoretical and practical contributions. Furthermore, the theoretical framework and variables are briefly discussed as well as the methodology adopted for this study. Finally, the outline of the thesis is presented that highlights the framework of the study. The next chapter includes a comprehensive review of the research context.

CHAPTER 2: IS GENERATION Y AN ATTRACTIVE SEGMENT FOR THE ENERGY DRINKS CATEGORY?

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research context of the study. Firstly, a discussion of the energy drinks market characteristics is provided. Secondly, the chapter discusses the Generation Y consumer, specifically their demographic and psychographic characteristics.

2.2 Soft Drink Industry and its Contribution to Economies

The global soft drinks industry consists of retail sales of bottled water, carbonates, concentrates, functional drinks (energy and sports drinks), juices, RTD tea and coffee, as well as smoothies (Global Soft Drinks, 2015). Soft drinks refer to any class of non-alcoholic beverages usually containing a natural or artificial sweetening agent, edible acids, natural or artificial flavours (Vaux, 2011). The global soft drinks industry volume grew by 4.1% in 2014 (BMI, 2016). By the year 2019, this industry is expected to have increased by 21.5% since 2014 (BMI, 2016). The global soft drinks market comprises the following regions, North and South America, Europe, Asia-Pacific, Middle East, Nigeria, and South Africa (BMI, 2016). The main distribution channels for global soft drinks include supermarkets and hypermarkets which constitutes 55% of the total market volume (BMI, 2016). Furthermore, intense competition surrounds the beverage industry as marketers seek to increase market penetration and consumption frequency (Packaged Facts, 2013).

2.2.1 Importance of the Global Soft Drinks Industry

Carbonates, bottled water and juices continue to dominate the global soft drinks industry, followed by functional drinks, as illustrated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Global Soft Drinks Market Category Segmentation: $ billion, 2014

Category	2014	%
Carbonates	207.6	33.2%
Bottled water	148.8	23.8%
Juices	110.8	17.7%
Functional drinks (Energy and Sports drinks)	69.7	11.1%
RTD tea & coffee	67.1	10.7%
Concentrates	18.9	3.0%
Other	3.3	0.5%
Total	626.2	100.0%

Source: Global Soft Drinks (2015)

The Functional Drinks segment referred to in Table 2.1 includes energy drinks and sports drinks (Packaged Facts, 2013). Functional drinks account for 11.1% of the global market's total value, while carbonated soft drinks account for 33.2% of the market's value (Global Soft Drinks, 2015). According to Global Soft Drinks (2015), a number of forces drive competition in the global soft drinks market; these include buyer power, supplier power, degree of rivalry, substitutes and new entrants. The compound annual growth rate (CAGR) is predicted to be 4.1% in the period 2014-2019 (BMI, 2016). In a manner corresponding to this, the global soft drink market is forecasted to have a value of $766.1 billion in 2019 which is approximately, a 22.4% increase since 2014 (BMI, 2016).

2.2.2 Importance of the South Africa Soft Drinks Industry: Beverage Industry

Unlike the global label and description of global soft drinks referred to by Global Soft Drinks (2015), in South Africa, it is referred to as the non-alcoholic beverage industry (BMI, 2016). The South Africa context refers to the industry as the beverage industry. The three beverage category segments are presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: South Africa: Beverage Industry Segments

Alcoholic Beverages	Non-Alcoholic Beverages	Dairy Beverages
• Flavoured Alcoholic Beverages • Malt Beer • Sorghum Beer • Spirits • Wine	• Bottled Water • Sparkling Soft Drinks • Cordials and Squash • Energy Drinks • Fruit Juice • Iced Tea • Mageu • Sports Drinks	• Dairy Juice Blends • Drinking Yoghurt • Flavoured Milk • Maas • Milk

Source: BMI (2016, 2014)

As stated in Table 2.2, the South Africa beverage industry consists of three segments, namely, alcoholic beverages; non-alcoholic beverages and dairy beverages. This study focuses on energy drinks. Energy drinks form part of the non-alcoholic beverage segment (BMI, 2016).

2.3 The Energy Drinks Category

The following section provides an overview of the definition of the energy drinks category, the importance of the energy drinks category, related studies in the energy drinks industry, as well as the energy drinks category in a South Africa context.

2.3.1 The Definition of the Energy Drinks Category

Energy drinks are the soft drinks that contain ingredients, such as a high percentage of caffeine, sugar, or a stimulant, which is designed to boost energy in order to overcome fatigue; they also contain more caffeine when compared to traditional soft drinks (Rath, 2012). BMI (2016) refers to energy drinks as beverages that contain large amounts of caffeine and other legal stimulants such as guarana and ginseng. Some of the popular energy drink brands include Red Bull, Monster, Powerplay, Dragon, Full Throttle, 5-Hour Energy, and Rockstar Energy. Energy drinks provide the extra vigour that is needed throughout the day. Certain benefits are being promoted for this category such as boosting mental alertness, enhancing physical performance and mood elevation. As stated by Rath (2012), energy drink manufacturers focus advertising on the perception that energy drink consumption will enhance performance, boost mental alertness, improve endurance and energy, decrease fatigue, enhance metabolism, and improve overall performance. BMI (2016) pointed out that

the amount of caffeine in an energy drink can range from 75 milligrams to over 200 milligrams per serving.

Some ingredients in energy drinks are said to provide enhanced concentration, which is beneficial to people who need to focus on work or study after a sleepless night (Euromonitor, 2016). Nowadays, interest in energy drinks has progressively increased (Park, Lee & Lee, 2016). Energy drinks, designed to replenish energy and increase alertness (BMI, 2016), have become the fastest growing category within the non-alcoholic beverage industry (BMI, 2016; Kennedy, 2015; Capps & Hanselman, 2012; Rath, 2012; Datamonitor, 2007). According to Packaged Facts (2013), ready-to-drink (RTD) energy drinks account for a 78% market share, followed by 18% for energy shots, and energy drink mixes (roughly 4%).

2.3.2 The Attractiveness of the Energy Drinks Category

Functional ready-to-drink (RTD) beverages, namely, energy drinks and sports drinks, are experiencing consumer penetration growth (Packaged Facts, 2013); this is consistent with the increase in health and wellness-related beverage products that are also seeing increased consumer penetration. Energy drinks are often marketed as providing energy and enhancing performance (Australia New Zealand Food Authority, 2009). Heavy users of energy drinks mostly consume a high number of energy drinks daily (Harris & Munsell, 2015), with consumption mainly skewed towards consumers between the ages of 18 and 34 years, mainly male, university aged students and adults with children in the household (Packaged Facts, 2013). Although different regions differ in terms of distribution channel dynamics, it has been reported that convenience stores hold the largest share of energy drink market sales and the drinks are typically stocked in beverage coolers (Harris & Munsell, 2015; Packaged Facts, 2013). Costa, Hayley and Miller (2016) argue that energy drinks are increasingly popular among adolescents despite growing evidence of their negative health effects. Numerous concerns have been raised about youth consumption of energy drinks and caffeine, while the dangers of combining energy drinks and alcohol have been highlighted as an important public health issue (Harris & Munsell, 2015). Adolescents, young adults, parents, practitioners, school personnel, coaches, and teachers need to recognise the potentially harmful health effects that can occur with excessive energy drink consumption (Rath, 2012).

2.3.3 The Global Energy Drinks Category

Globally, energy drinks continue to register growth of several billions (Fleenor, 2016; Bunting, Baggett & Grigor, 2013) and have been forecast to experience the highest growth

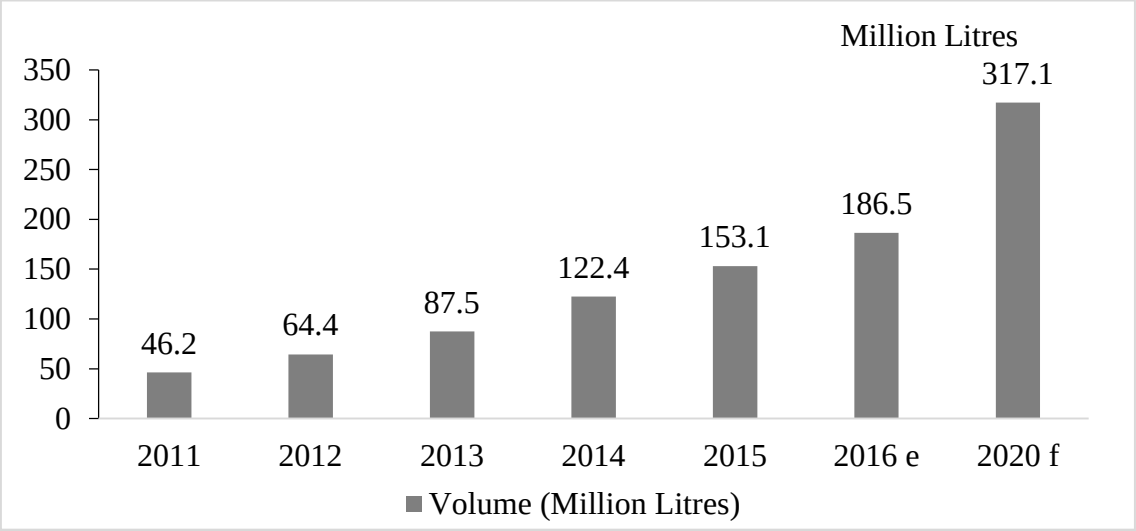
potential of functional beverages by Euromonitor International (Willey, 2014). Markets, such as the USA, have experienced market growth of 60% between 2008-2012 (Packaged Facts, 2013). The global beverage industry research company, Canadean, believes there is still room for market growth (Energy buzz, 2011). It is therefore of significant importance that marketers focus on consumption experiences and customer emotions that influence consumer behaviour. Energy drinks provide recession proof growth with attractive margins to manufacturers and retailers (Reill, 2012; Shelke, 2009), and are thus a lucrative category for marketers. While other beverages are experiencing flat to declining sales, energy drinks are experiencing double digit growth (Herzog, 2014; Odesser, 2013; Angrisani, 2012). Energy drinks have been recently coined as the 'new soft drinks of the new world' by the CEO of Monster energy drink manufacturer. While other non-alcoholic beverage categories are flat, energy drinks are growing; with consumption being mainly among older teens and young adults (Mileti et al., 2013). In India, energy drink brands like Monster Tzinga and Cloud 9 have previously been withdrawn from the market due to certain health hazard threats (Euromonitor, 2016).

The energy drinks category has become extremely competitive, and is experiencing an increase in new entrants, a strong focus on brand related stimuli including product differentiation, perfect serve right execution and brand visibility (BMI, 2014a; Willey, 2014; Capps & Hanselman, 2012). Seventy per cent (70%) of energy drink purchases are driven by impulse behaviour and bought cold for immediate consumption, also, over half of energy drinks purchases are unplanned (Market Leaders, 2008). As a result, marketers need to invest in improving consumer brand experiences in order to capture the impulse appeal and drive repurchases of these premium margin products. The proliferation of energy drinks usage has grown primarily in developing and emerging countries, this includes the U.S, Europe, Asia and some parts of Africa (Soft Drinks Industry Profile Global, USA, Australia, Japan, China, India & South Africa, 2015). More specifically, the South African energy drink category has become an ever expanding and growing industry with continuous annual double-digit growth (BMI, 2014). The top five energy drink markets in terms of volumes sales are USA, China, UK, Thailand and Vietnam, while China experienced the greatest volume increase between 2014 and 2015 as it rose by 25% (Global energy drink launches soar, 2016).

2.3.4 The South Africa Energy Drinks Category

Energy drinks added to South Africa's economy by contributing 0.2% to the GDP in 2015 (BMI, 2016). Figure 2.1 presents the total market size for energy drinks in South Africa.

Figure 2.1: Total Market Size for Energy Drinks in South Africa



Note: e=estimated to grow; f=forecasted to grow

Source: BMI (2016)

As illustrated in Figure 2.1, the RTD energy drinks volume grew to 153.1 million litres, increasing by 25.0% from 2014 to 2015. RTD energy drinks added millions of Rands to the South Africa economy, showing a 27.1% increase in value from 2014 to 2015 (BMI, 2016). In South Africa, ready to drink (RTD) energy drinks contribute 2.8% in volume and 11.1% in value to non-alcoholic beverages (BMI, 2016). The South African market consumed 2.8 litres per capita in 2015. The per capita consumption grew significantly more (23.0%) than the population did in the year under review, showing that energy drinks are an ever-growing popular drink amongst South Africans and will be consumed for many more years (BMI, 2016). The RTD energy drinks industry was expected to grow by 21.9% in 2016 and forecasted to grow by 14.2% per year through to 2020 (BMI, 2016).

Generation Y in South Africa voted Red Bull Energy Drink as the coolest energy drink product, followed by Monster Energy, Play Energy Drink, Dragon Energy Drink and Score Energy Drink (Sunday Times Generation Next Results, 2016). According to Nielsen (2011), in Naude (2012), the largest brands in the South Africa energy drink category remain Red Bull, Play and Monster Energy. Most volumes are sold through smaller sizes 250ml-440ml,

which are more affordable to consumers and tend to offer higher profit margins on a Rand per litre basis for industry players (BMI, 2016). The South Africa energy drinks category comprises numerous players, and has experienced an increase of new players; Table 2.3 illustrates the various energy drink players.

Table 2.3: Energy Drinks launched in South Africa

Major players	Brands
Brands 2 Africa	Rockstar
Carnival Foods	Dynamite
Chill Beverages	Score
Drink Switch	Switch
Elixa Energy Drink	Elixa Energy
EneBev	Bad Boy
Evo Tuning and Raceline South	Fruit Punch Nos
Flash Power	Flash Power
Glaxo Smith Kline	Lucozade
Go Fast Sports SA	Go Fast Energy
Halewood	Red Square Energy Drink
Hip Hop Beverage Company	Pitbull
Just Water George	Giant Energy
Kingsley Beverages	Dragon
Little Green Beverages	Refresh
Lizu Trading	Flash Power
McNabs	Supercharge
Mofaya Brands	MoFaya Energy Drink
Monster	Monster Energy Drink
On Con Distribution	7 Stars
Power Horse	Power Horse Energy Drink
Red Bull	Red Bull
Shoreline Beverages	Reboost
Spar	Housebrand
The Coca-Cola Company South Africa	Power Play Energy Drink
Twizza Beverages	Elite Energy Drinks
Young Brands	Mad Buzz

Source: BMI (2016)

From Table 2.3, it is evident that numerous energy drinks have been launched in South Africa. Rapid growth, aggressive marketing and the entry of new brands at lower prices define the current status of the South Africa energy drinks market. In 2015, energy drinks continued to register double digit growth of 27.1% in current value terms from 2014 to 2015. In volume terms, the category saw growth of 25.0% from 2014 to 2015 (BMI, 2016).

Consumption of energy drinks is increasing, and the South Africa energy drinks category is expected to triple in size by 2018 (BMI, 2014). Such expansion is a result of changing consumers' need states that have emerged from a need for a sudden boost of energy due to hectic busier lifestyles and on-the-go solutions that enable them to concentrate for long periods, as they stay up late to study, work, for gatherings or outdoor activities (Fleenor, 2016; Angrisani, 2012; Market Leaders, 2008; Datamonitor, 2007). This need has created and expanded the market for drinks that claim to boost energy and combat fatigue. Energy drinks growth is mainly driven by young consumers, who perceive energy drinks to be attractive whether they drink them on their own, or as a mixer when having alcoholic drinks. The category has seen a continuous entry of small brands who offer cheaper brands (Euromonitor, 2016). Consumers have come to believe the leading companies claims of energy-sustaining benefits, through television advertisements as well as admiring the energy-boosting effects that they experience after drinking energy drinks. Functional beverages market share is presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Functional Beverages (Energy & Sports drinks) Market share

Year	SA	USA	Australia	Japan	China	Global
2014	6.4%	18.4%	14.2%	20.5%	9.1%	11.1%
2013	6.4%	17.3%	13.6%	19.1%	9.0%	10.5%

Source: Soft Drinks Industry Profile, SA, USA, Australia, Japan, China and Global (2015)

From Table 2.4, it is evident that functional beverages in South Africa are under indexed relative to markets such as the USA, Australia, Japan and China (Soft Drinks Industry Profile, 2015), although BMI (2016) points out that the South African energy drink market was expected to triple in size by 2018.

2.3.4.1 Distribution: Channels

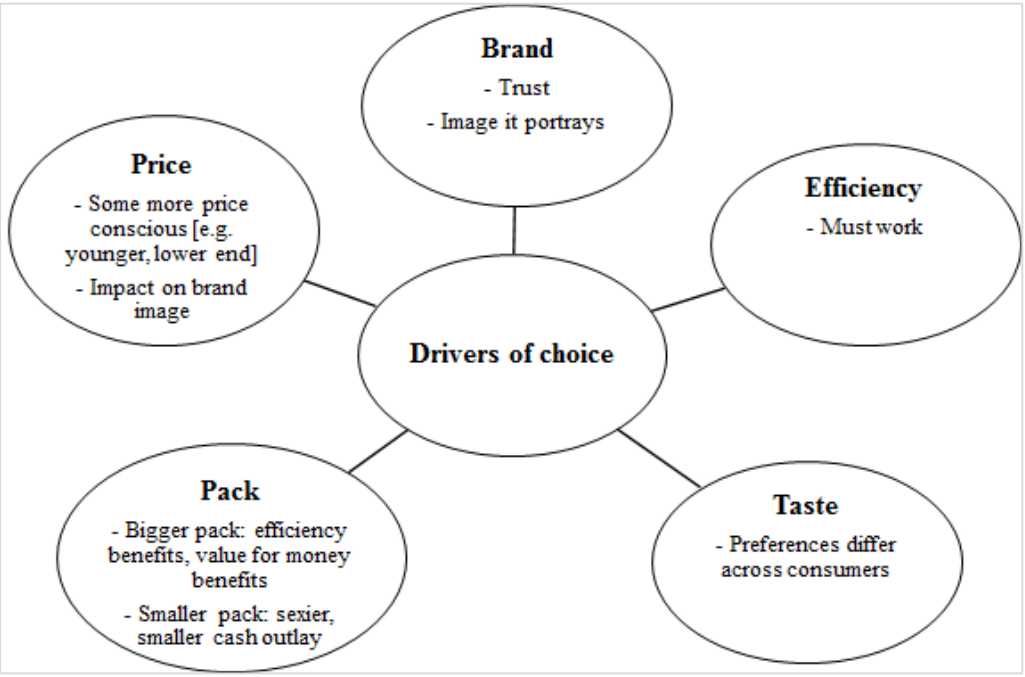
Top-end retail, wholesale and forecourts are the largest channels through which energy drinks sales are driven and combined, make up 79.0% of the channel share. Wholesale showed the largest growth (30.9%) from 2014 to 2015, closely followed by top-end retail and forecourts showing year-on-year growth (BMI, 2016). Gauteng region, in South Africa, dominates the regional distribution of energy drinks with just over half of the total volume distributed to this region (BMI, 2016). The province showed a healthy annual increase of 23.2% for 2015. The Eastern Cape, North West Province and Mpumalanga all showed positive growths of 26.2%,

33.2% and 24.1%, showing a shift in focus of players to smaller regions where they find there to be less competition in these regions (BMI, 2016).

2.3.4.2 Packaging

The can pack type continues to dominate the energy drink pack type with a share of 84.3% compared to glass/plastic bottles which contributed 15.7% share (BMI, 2016). Most energy drink banks offer cans that are attractive and have edgy packaging designs that are popular with adolescents and young adults (BMI, 2016). Glass/PET pack types showed good growth of 12.0% year on year, but the can pack type outperformed this, resulting a 84.3% market share for the latter (BMI, 2016). The can pack type was expected to show positive growth (25.9%) in 2016 and 15.4% per year increase towards 2020 (BMI, 2016). In a study conducted by TNS, 2010 respondents indicated the drivers of brand choice for energy drinks; these are shown in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: Drivers of Brand Choice for Energy Drinks



Source: TNS Project Rojo (2011) in Naude (2012)

Brand, price, pack, taste and efficacy are the biggest drivers of choice for energy drinks as depicted in Figure 2.2.

2.3.5 Related Studies on the Energy Drinks Category

Numerous scholars have established that the use of energy drinks is common among adolescents and young age groups (Aljaloud, 2016; Bulut et al., 2014). Scholars such as Park et al. (2013) state that the 18–24 age group consumes 10.7 times more energy drinks than the 60 and over age group, while scholars such as Berger, Fendrich, Chen, Arria and Cisler (2011) reported that the 18–29 age group consumed 8.8 times more energy drinks than the 55 age group. Miller (2007) examined the role brand fit plays in Generation Y's propensity to purchase energy drinks. The researcher established that for Generation Y, brand fit more strongly influences purchase intentions indirectly through brand significance. Aljaloud's (2016) energy drinks study revealed that college students use different energy drinks per week, further indicating that most students reported a family member or friend as being their main source of information on energy drinks, followed by retail stores, a few college students reported their sources of information as being online, coach or physician, and nutritionist or dietician resources.

Emond, Sargent and Gilbert-Diamond's (2015) energy drinks study indicated that consumers get most of their information about energy drinks from store nutritionists, fellow college students and friends, and manufacturers that primarily advertise on television. Barcelona, Capule, Cruz, Macam and Robles (2014) noted that the use of energy drinks among college students was primarily to enhance performance. In their study, they further indicated that professionals reported drinking energy drinks at least once a week with a tendency to increase intake to more than three times a week. Furthermore, an energy drink study conducted among university students in a Caribbean country, indicated that energy drinks were most commonly used to increase energy, combat sleepiness, enhance academic performance and enhance performance during sports (Reid, Ramsarran, Brathwaite, Lyman, Baker, D'Andra & Thapelo, 2015). Similarly Barcelona, et al. (2014) pointed out that the main reason for energy drink consumption among college students was to provide energy while working overtime to finish a course project or working overtime at the office. Kim, Jeon, Shim and Seo's (2015) energy drinks study highlighted that reasons for energy drink consumption were for enhanced fatigue recovery (79.9%), concentration enhancement (29.3%), and curiosity (22.0%). A study by Trapp, Allen, O'Sullivan, Robinson, Jacoby and Oddy (2014) revealed that energy drink consumption was associated with increased anxiety symptoms in young adult males.

Aljaloud's (2016) study highlighted that the investigation into the factors that affect energy drink consumption behaviours is significant because it highlights the regulations concerning the marketing of energy drinks and the importance of students having accurate information of possible side effects related to the ingestion of these beverages. Dillon, Svikis, Pomm, Thacker, Kendler and Dick (2015) pointed out that taste-driven consumers endorsed pleasurable taste, while energy-seeking consumers endorsed function and taste motives. Hovard, Chambers, Hull, Wickham and Yeomans (2015) argue that a sensory-enhanced high-energy beverage is more satiating than the same high-energy beverage without the sensory enhancements. Sancho, Miguel, and Aldás (2011) studied the factors that influence alcohol consumption intention of young people. They established that parental, peer and advertising influence are important for young people, while Noble et al. (2009) analysed the antecedents of consumption behaviour of college-aged Generation Y individuals. Here, Noble et al. (2009) established that issues relating to socialisation, uncertainty reduction, reactance, self-discrepancy, and feelings of accomplishment and connectedness drive Generation Y consumers' product purchases and retail patronage. Moore (2009) argued that Generation Y may be more skeptical about advertising, but are still influenced by marketing efforts. Furthermore, More (2009) explored whether brand image or taste have more influence on consumer preference for energy drinks. Bulut et al. (2014) examined the most common reasons for consuming energy drinks among those students using them regularly, this included; increasing physical performance, feeling less sleepy, studying, being more involved in a circle of friends and decreasing fatigue. Bulut et al. (2014) argued that the most commonly encountered effects among those students who used them regularly, included increased concentration, increased muscle strength, feeling happier, feeling less sleepy and feeling more energetic. As opposed to this, Avci, Sarikaya and Büyükcam (2013) analysed the consequences of energy drink overuse, while Aljaloud (2016) indicated that most university students used energy drinks as part of their daily habits although they did not know about the potential detrimental health effects. Visram, Cheetham, Riby, Crossley and Lake (2016) found that the consumption of energy drinks, specifically taste, brand loyalty and perceived positive effects, combine to ensure their popularity with young consumers. In the context of South Africa, very few studies were found that focused on the energy drinks category, apart from Naude (2012) who examined how to position an energy drink brand in South Africa. The study found that pricing and brand positioning, value proposition and drivers of brand choice priorities were important factors in positioning an energy drink brand.

Costa et al. (2014) explored perceptions, patterns and context of energy drinks use among young adolescents aged between 12 and 15 years; they found that both parents and advertising influenced participants' perception and use of energy drinks. They further argued that the advertising, appeal and use of energy drinks by adolescents appear to share similarities with alcohol and tobacco. In terms of labelling, Generation Y prefers more creative labels (Qenani-Petrela, Wolf & Zuckerman, 2007), furthermore, they indicated that the top five most influential attributes for US wine consumers include: tasted the wine previously, someone recommended it, grape variety; read about it, and brand name. Moreover, empirical research on Generation Y seems to be scarce (Winter & Jackson, 2016; Nadeem, Andreini, Salo & Laukkanen, 2015; Bolton, Parasuraman, Hoefnagels, Migchels & Kabadayi, 2013).

Generation Y South Africans are the focus of this study because they are large in size (20.1 million) or 38% of South Africa's 54 956 920 population (Statistics S.A, 2015). In terms of race, at 84%, black Africans constitute the largest portion of the country's Generation Y cohort and, arguably, the single most important market segment in the country (Bevan-Dye, 2016). This means that the South African Black Gen Y cohort includes a significant portion of the South African market, particularly in terms of those who are students at tertiary institutions who represent a profitable target market segment owing to the fact that increased levels of higher education are connected with greater earning potential (Bevan-Dye, Garnett & De Klerk, 2012). The size of the Generation Y market, along with their future earning potential and spending, makes them a lucrative market to target. Energy drinks are predominantly targeted to young adult consumers (Trapp et al., 2014). It would therefore be useful to understand the demographic and psychographic characteristics that make Generation Y a powerful consumer segment for marketers and academics.

2.4 Generation Y Consumers in Perspective

A generation is defined as a distinguishable group that shares a similar birth year and age, and, consequently, noteworthy life events at critical developmental stages (Kupperschmidt, 2000). Each generation has unique expectations, experiences, generational history, lifestyles, values, and demographics that influence their buying behaviours (Williams & Page, 2011), not every generation is alike, nor should they be treated by marketers in the same way. Generational differences can be studied from the perspective of generational cohort theory. The Generational cohort theory was developed by Inglehart (1977) and later made

widespread by Strauss and Howe (1991). The theory posits that different segments of the population can be divided into distinct groups based upon historical events that fashion the behaviour and attitudes of members within each cohort (Inglehart, 1977; Strauss and Howe, 1991). According to Brosdahl and Carpenter (2011), Generational cohort theory is a practice used by marketers and academics to segment markets based on generational cohorts' attitudes, ideas, values and beliefs. Generational cohorts have different values, preferences and shopping behaviours (Parment, 2013). Generational marketing is therefore, one way of segmenting and targeting a profitable market segment, because a substantial number of potential consumers who share strong and homogeneous bonds from their past experiences can be targeted with the same marketing efforts (Promar International, 2001).

This study follows Brosdahl and Carpenter's (2011) categorisation of generations, using the following birth dates for each cohort: the Silent Generation (1925-1945), the Baby Boomers (1946-1960), Generation X (1961-1981) and Generation Y (born after 1981). According to Zemke, Raines and Filipczak (2013), generational differences are relevant as they reflect differences in attitudes, values, ambitions and mind-sets between people (Zemke, Raines & Filipczak 2013). According to KPMG (2015) and Gailewicz (2014), Generation Y is more likely to support a brand that connects with them on social networking sites and brands that are successful in earning their loyalty are likely to be rewarded by them becoming powerful brand ambassadors using online word-of-mouth communication (Zemke, Raines & Filipczak, 2013).

Limited research (Hill & Lee, 2012; Duh, 2011) has been conducted on Generation Y university-aged students. This study is primarily based on Generation Y university-aged students in South Africa who are between the ages of 18 and 25 (born between 1992 and 1999). Hill and Lee (2012) define Generation Y university-aged students as those between age 18 and 25, while Kruger and Saayman (2015) as well as Schiffman and Kanuk (2009) describe students in the age group 19-25 years as Generation Y twixters. Furthermore, researcher Duh (2011) stated that teens and university-aged (18-24) Generation Y consumers are particularly considered an important consumer segment. Despite the potential of this group as a whole, especially the middle-aged members of this generation (ages 18–25) who are in the highly coveted university student market, much is unknown about the motivations behind these individuals' consumption behaviour and preferences (Noble et al., 2009; Martin & Turley, 2004).

Although numerous studies offer discussion around the size, age, behaviour and characteristics of Generation Y, authors agree on one aspect, namely the major event around which this generation was born and educated: the technological revolution and the rise of the Internet and mobile devices (Bucuta, 2015; Guaru, 2012). This is similar to the South African context, as Generation Y has been recognised in South Africa as the first to grow after the apartheid period and into the era of cellular phones, the internet, convergent technologies and multi-platform media (Mbumbwa, 2016). Globally, Generation Y accounts for approximately two billion of the world's population (Khera & Malik, 2017; Bank of America, 2015) making Generation Y a dominant segment of the future consumption market (Lazarevic, 2012).

It is an important goal for marketers to understand such differences and offer products and services appropriately. They are the largest and most ethnically diverse age cohort (Lantos, 2014). Furthermore, Generation Y is a large and attractive consumer market; having the sheer size to transform markets (Lantos, 2014); they are highly influential on their parents and in the marketplace. Generation Y college students are typically under a lot of pressure to perform well academically, as well as athletically, and some are always in need of energy drinks to enhance their academic and/or athletic performance (Aljaloud, 2016).

South Africa has both local and global influences that have shaped the different generation value systems of Generation Y; while growing up, they are often referred to as the "born free" generation in SA (Duffett, 2015). In South Africa, Generation Y's formative years (from mid-1976) are marked by protesting for better education by black students. The prevalence of HIV/AIDS, the dismantling of the apartheid system, the first free and non-racial elections that brought Mandela to power, they are the first generation who grew up in the post-apartheid era, they have therefore been presented with more opportunities for education, employment, and wealth creation, they have equally experienced well-publicised corruption and self-enrichment charges against top government and even church officials; they have been exposed to celebrities (i.e. mining magnet/night club owner Kenny Kunene, Economic Freedom Front leader, Julius Malema, and socialite, Khanyi Mbau) who point the way in the unapologetic conspicuous consumption of luxury brands (Duh & Thorsten, 2016; Duh, 2011; Naidoo, 2011; Bevan-Dye, Dhurup & Surujlal, 2009). They have also experienced the loss of their loved ones at the church of popular evangelist preacher, TB Joshua, after the collapse of one of his buildings in Nigeria killing 116 persons, 85 of whom were South African parents (Ogbeche, 2016); Izikhothani (young African males)

known for their expensive fashion sense and wearing bright colours in townships (Naidu & Mazibuko, 2015); the Blesser craze - a euphemism for "sugar daddies on steroids" (Citizen, 2016).

Just like the case in other countries, the youth of South Africa face many challenges, not least of which is high unemployment, including high unemployment amongst university graduates (Bevan-Dye, 2016). In addition to this is the on-going "Fees Must Fall" campaign and "fallism" ideology (Amato, 2016). Generally, Generation Y in South Africa compares well with global trends, they are digitally savvy and loyal to brands that share their values and evolve to meet the demands of their lifestyle (Moodie, 2014). Globally, Generation Y has been exposed to growing up during a booming economy; unprecedented diversity in the population regarding ethnicity, beliefs, values and other cultural characteristics; living in smaller families with fewer children; maturing during an era of many social concerns such as divorce, international terrorism; and being raised in dual-income or single-parent households (Lantos, 2014). These events would have impacted the formation of Generation Y characteristic traits, life and work values. Generation Y is becoming one of the most powerful consumer segments in history, it is believed to be very important for any marketer to achieve a deep understanding of Generation Y's specific traits, values, attitudes, lifestyles and buying behaviour (Lues & De Klerk, 2016; Bucuta, 2015). Generation Y's emotional palette and passions are entirely unique and comprise a fascinating challenge for emotional branding (Gobe, 2013). For marketers, the biggest challenge with Generation Y is to keep abreast of their fast-moving lifestyle and quickly evolving taste (Gobe, 2013). Generational characteristics include relatively enduring values, attitudes, preferences, and behaviours that form the filter through which cohorts interpret subsequent life experiences (Kupperschmidt, 2000). This section describes Generation Y's demographic and the psychographic characteristics that make them an important market segment for this study and for marketers.

2.4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Generation Y

Demographics are often used as a basis for segmentation and include dimensions such as age, gender, income, occupation, education level or marital status (Wright, 2006). There are various demographic aspects of Generation Y consumers that have been forthcoming from the literature and discussed here are; their size, age, education and spending power. Worth noting is that most of the discussion to follow is based on opinions and/or findings from international studies, with some reference to Generation Y consumers in South Africa.

2.4.1.1 The Size and Age of Generation Y

As the global market for energy drinks approaches nearly $15 trillion, the general consumption of energy drinks has increased accordingly, particularly among Generation Y college students who consume energy drinks for a variety of reasons (Aljaloud, 2016). Generation Y is slowly becoming the largest consumer segment in history, with a huge impact on the world economy, due to the number of its representatives and their buying power (Bucuta, 2015; Kim, Knight & Pelton, 2010; Foscht et al., 2009). Generations have typically been given labels that are meant to reflect key characteristics (e.g. Baby Boomer, Gen X and Gen Y). Each demographic generation exhibits character traits that distinguish one from another (Corvi, Bigi & NG, 2007). Generation Y accounts for 2 billion people, representing 27 per cent of the world's population (Pew Research Center, 2016; Nusair, Bilgihan, Okumus & Cobanoglu, 2013). 80 million millennials are in the United States alone, and each year they spend approximately $600 billion (Accenture, 2016). This cohort is economically robust.

Generation Y have been referred to as the most recent generation, its members grew up in an era characterised by instantaneous global communication, fragmented media, and a powerful focus on materialism (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013). Generation Y is a huge market segment for effective targeting, they constitute 41% in the USA, 28% in Australia (Duh, 2011). The Generation Y cohort in South Africa comprises 38% of the country's population (Statistics South Africa, 2015). There are different views in literature regarding the birth date range of young people, known as Generation Y. Opinions on the Generation Y birth period differ significantly, the estimations ranging across a couple of years: 1981-2000 (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009), 1980-2000 (Goldman, 2016; Jain & Pant, 2012; Gurau, 2012; Weingarten, 2009; Cennam & Gardner, 2008), 1980-1996 (Van den Bergh & Behrer, 2016), 1982-2002. Kruger & Saayman, 2015; Pendergast, 2010), 1979-1994 (Duh & Struwig, 2015; Cogin, 2012; Solnet, Krali & Kandampully 2012, Noble, Haytko & Phillips, 2009; Sojka & Fish, 2008), 1981-1999 (Bolton et al., 2013).

As highlighted in Bolton et al. (2013), there is not (as yet) widespread agreement on the start and end points for Generation Y. Generation Y are also referred to as wild-card generation (Chan & Wang, 2015), Thatchers' children (Benckendorff, Moscardo & Pendergast, 2010), Generation Why, Generation Search (Van den Bergh & Behrer, 2016), Generation next (Martin, 2005), the net generation (Shaw & Fairhurst, 2008), the digital natives, the dot.com

generation and the Millennials (Van den Bergh & Behrer, 2016; Wordono, 2015; Howe & Strauss, 2009). Generation Y, usually shortened to Gen Y, is the most commonly used label (McCrindle & Wolfinger, 2009). These titles are often used interchangeably in literature. According to Van den Bergh and Behrer (2016) “Y” was chosen as a popular label as they are said to be the successors of Generation “X”. Kuyucu (2014) pointed out that the Generation Y name originates from the word "Why" in English, stating that this generation took this name since the word "Why" is an allophone of the letter "Y". In the current study, the term Generation Y is used. Generation Y has been classified according to three different segments being Generation Y tweens (children and teens 18 years and younger), Generation Y twixters (students in the age group 19–25 years) and Generation Y tweeds (adults in the age group 26 years and older) (Kruger & Saayman, 2015; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009). Other researchers (Parumasur and Roberts-Lombard, 2013) also divide Generation Y into three sub-segments (tweens or children aged 8 to 12, teens aged 13 to 18; adults aged 19 to 24).

In South Africa, Generation Y is classified as those aged between 15 and 34 years, which is approximately 20.1 million of South Africa’s 55.6 million population (Statistics South Africa, 2016), making this cohort a significantly relevant segment for retailers. Marketers in South Africa must therefore be careful not to categorise everyone in this market as ‘the youth’ since the (e.g. Statistics South Africa) group consists of school children, university students and young working adults.

In South Africa, there are differences between Generation Y, in terms of whether they live in townships or suburbs; and in rural or urban areas (Duffett, 2015), although general characteristics of this group include being technologically confident, competent and continually connected, independent, optimistic, self-confident, lifestyle-centered, entrepreneurial and have big aspirations and high levels of “entitlement” (Du Chenne, 2011).

2.4.1.2 The Education of Generation Y

South Africa is characterised by a varied level of education (with high levels of illiteracy), where in many cases, students entering into the university arena are first generation students within their family (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). The surge in demand for tertiary education, coupled with the sharp increase in the cost of a university education has spawned a significant increase in the level of student loan debt, a situation which is evident in South

Africa (Bevan-Dye, 2016). Furthermore, the pressure of student debt has sparked student protests demanding free education (Bevan-Dye, 2016). This generation is the most education minded generation that has ever lived, with huge emphasis placed on the relationship between education and success (Benckendorff, Moscardo & Pendergast, 2010). Although numerous studies have concluded that Generation Y is educated, they have a specific way of learning and accessing information (Bucuta, 2015). The technological revolution of the last century has fundamentally changed the way Generation Y learns and accesses information (Anca, 2015). As one of their key defining moments is the Internet and globalisation (Benckendorff et al., 2010), they can instantly access global news, products and market information (Duh, 2011). Generation Y aim for higher levels of education as they want learning and are education oriented, they stay in school longer as they are pressured and competitive, they stay at home longer, they marry later as they work hard at the expense of life and have a strong work ethic (Benckendorff et al., 2010). Attila and Çakir (2011) mention that young people mainly use energy drinks as natural alternatives to other fluids, to boost performance and concentration, to stay awake before examinations or to mix with alcoholic beverages to improve the taste.

Generation Y is more affluent and better educated and they learn by doing, not just by listening and reading (Lantos, 2014). High-achieving parents also may consider their child's success a reflection on them; in essence, their children's accomplishments - even if orchestrated by their parents - increase their social status (Alsop, 2008). Researchers describe them as well educated, mainly due the events around which this generation is born and educated into: technological revolutions and the rise of the Internet and mobile devices to their particular form of interaction with technology (Valentine & Powers, 2013; Gurau, 2012; Talbolt, 2012). Their specific traits influence, to a great extent, the way they perceive and relate to education in general and higher education on particular (Nimon, 2007). They cherish the speed of accessing information for assignments using the Internet, as they previously used to do library visits to gather information (Nimon, 2007). This being said, the issue of academic integrity like plagiarism continue to arise in higher education (Cole & Schwartz, 2013; Beard, 2003). Educators and employers often complain that the informal shorthand style of text and instant messaging has impaired young people's writing abilities and interpersonal communication skills (Alsop, 2008).

They believe in lifelong learning and educational growth, they are often said to do well in self-guided online training. They are also entrepreneurial with strong values and are concerned about the world (Benckendorff et al., 2010). They are eager to achieve their objectives within a short time period and are receptive to continuous feedback (Berkowitz and Schewe, 2011). Many of them are well educated and strike employers as being book smart, but suffering from a deficit of common sense (Alsop, 2008). As noted by Twenge, Konrath, Foster, Campbell and Bushman (2008), narcissism (exaggerated self-perceptions of intelligence, academic reputation or attractiveness) in Generation Y college students is higher than in previous generations of students. Generation Y believes in team work, and in a culture that is organised, integrated and growth orientated as they believe this can help them achieve their goals more easily then working individually (Viswanathan & Jain, 2013; Berkowitz & Schewe, 2011). Although they crave individual praise and recognition, they can also be great team players (Alsop, 2008). They read messages and text on digital media and prefer rich visual messages to purely text communication (Carr & Ly, 2009). Alsop (2008) refers to them as "trophy kids", the pride and joy of their parents as they have several accomplishments. They have placed a high premium on success, filling their resumes not only with academic accolades, but also with sporting achievements, other extracurricular activities, such as volunteering, work and exotic travels abroad. Throughout their lives they have been continuously lavished with praise when they passed their grades. They are believed to have been prepping to get into the best colleges since nursery school, and similarly in college and have double, even triple majors to keep their edge.

With Generation Y having been constantly protected and pampered by their parents, they have a superficial attitude towards education as their parents expect to be involved in all the decisions regarding the educational aspects of their lives (Bucuta, 2015). Parents are so central to the lives of Generation Y individuals, some of Generation Y parents have since been named "helicopter parents" as they hover like helicopters near their "trophy kids" children, they rush ahead of their children and sweep their paths clean of even the smallest obstructions to make their lives easier. From crib to college dormitory, helicopter parents dote on their children and micro manage their lives, making their children the focus of their lives, form play dates to soccer practice to music lessons (Alsop, 2008). Some college administrators fret that helicopter parents are interfering with one of the most important developments during the college years - the students growing sense of autonomy; even when they reach their 20's, many Generation Ys are named "adultolescents" as they still cling to

their parents for both financial and emotional support (Alsop, 2008). Despite this, Generation Y can be quite impressive in their ambitions and achievements. Marketers need to keep in mind that the traits ascribed to Generation Y certainly do not apply to every member of that generation, as they are common, but not universal, attributes (Alsop, 2008).

As mentioned by Moodie (2014), Generation Y in South Africa are highly ambitious and desire to be promoted at early stages in their current position at work with their career motivation predominantly driven by money, making a difference and lifestyle, in addition their dreams include being the boss in a company or being their own boss (Moodie, 2014). In South Africa, researchers Bevan-Dye and Surujlal (2011) highlighted that South Africa's African Generation Y members, are viewed as being education-directed and highly motivated individuals. Duh and Struwig (2015) also stated that the post-apartheid Generation Y South Africans are not only larger in number, but are more educated, have increased access to various jobs, earn better income, are confident, optimistic and growing in spending power. Also, Msimang (2008), in South Africa, has referred to Generation Y as the most educated and culturally diverse generation in history. Although the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA) point out that many of the socio-economic challenges faced by South Africans include poverty, inequality, joblessness and poor health, which are mostly borne by the youth of South Africa (NYDA, 2015-2016).

2.4.1.3 The Spending Power of Generation Y

In South Africa, Generation Y spends their pocket money on the following products: airtime for cellular phones, movies, magazines and savings (Cant & Machado, 2005). Generation Y consumers have a spending power of about $600 billion a year in the U.S. (Noble et al., 2009). Furthermore, university-aged Generation Y consumers alone have a purchasing power of $105 billion, and six out of ten earn this money through part-time jobs (Duh, 2011). It is therefore important for retailers to consider Generation Y due its generational size and substantial purchasing power (Lazarevic, 2012; Parment, 2008; Martin & Turley, 2004; Wolburg & Pokrywczynski, 2001). They spend approximately $100 per week on disposable purchases (money spent on wants, not needs) which accounts for $150 billion dollars annually (Apresley, 2010). As teenagers, Generation Y shoppers spend five times more than their parents did at the same age (Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009).

Energy drinks represent the fastest growing beverage segment, with global sales in excess of $30 billion, with consumption of these highly caffeinated beverages being most common

among adolescents and young adults (Trapp et al., 2014). This cohort is described as the most consumption oriented of all generations (Wolburg & Pokrywczyniski, 2001).

Generation Y have mainly grown up in a consumption-driven contemporary society and have more money at their disposal than any teen group in history (Kennedy 2001). Adolescents and young adults have become the major consumers of energy drinks, creating a yearly $3.5 billion industry (Babu, Church & Lewander, 2008). Furthermore, they have become a very important segment for marketers, due to their large numbers and spending power (Lazarevic, 2012; Jurisic & Azevedo, 2011). Generation Y is attractive to marketers because preferences and tastes formed during the teenage and young adult years can influence purchases throughout life. Generation Y have the potential of high earnings after their education as they enter the workforce (Valentine & Powers, 2013; Du Plessis, Berndt & Petzer, 2009). They rely on significant disposable income from parents and grandparents (Kim & Jang, 2014). They are the most attractive and powerful consumer group, as they have more disposable income than that of any previous generation, by attracting and retaining Generation Y, companies can increase their revenue and maximise long term profits as they retain loyal customers (Foscht et al., 2009). Their purchasing power is predicted to increase over time (Juristic & Azevedo, 2011). In the banking sector, many banks are seeking to acquire more young people early in order to retain them over time (Foscht et al., 2009). Generation Y represents a huge potential for retailers as a market segment (Noble et al., 2009). In South Africa, Generation Y spends between R5 and R6 billion a year (Akpojivi & Bevan-Dye, 2015). Generation Y consumers have a free spending spirit and have the potential to generate trillions of dollars of business worldwide (Sundarapandiyan, Duraiarasi, Babu & Prabakaran, 2015).

In South Africa, the conspicuous consumption of material objects, and especially clothes, has become an important identity marker for post-apartheid South African youth (Oliver 2007). However, Howell and Vincent (2014), as well as Swartz (2012), state that there is a certain woundedness to the unrealised dreams and lives of many young black people in South Africa as they feel economically excluded from the new South Africa. According to Duh and Struwig (2015), the fast-changing social, technological and economic landscape in South Africa pressurises Generation Y South Africans to not only follow a successful career path and earn a lot of money, but to “fit in” and “be accepted” in higher circles, They therefore prioritise the purchase of status products like homes with the right address (i.e. in admired suburbs), top brand cars, TV sets, cell phones, branded clothing and footwear.

2.4.2 The Psychographic Characteristics of Generation Y

In addition to understanding the demographic characteristics of Generation Y, it is also beneficial to understand its psychographic characteristics. While demographic information is helpful in describing who buys, psychographics allow us to understand why they buy (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013). The terms 'psychographic' and 'lifestyle' are often used interchangeably. Psychographic variables, such as attitudes/values/activities and interests/media patterns and usage rates (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010), provide additional information on customer's motivations for buying or using products. As stated in Duh (2011), psychographic variables, such as personality/lifestyles and motives, provide additional information on consumer behaviour drivers. A specific trait of Generation Y is the radical change of its member's attitudes, values and lifestyles (Bucuta, 2015). It is important to note that most of the discussion to follow is based on opinions and/or findings from international studies, with some reference to South African Generation Y consumers.

2.4.2.1 Generation Y Attitudes

It is essential for marketers to have a clear and distinct conceptualisation of these consumers, by being constantly aware of the changing attitudes and trends in this generation (Hughes 2008). Generation Y values transparency and honesty in brands, since they grew up in a world whey they have learnt not to trust everything at face value (Davidge, 2015), and for them, brand loyalty can no longer be assumed; it has to be earned. Connectivity is the keyword when referring to Generation Y (Bucuta, 2015; Cole & Schwartz, 2013; Novak, 2012). They are trend setters, early adopters, creative, ambitious, optimistic, opinionated, impatient, and environmentally conscious (Duh, 2011) and confident, focused on goals and achievement, inclusive, diversity is a plus; require instant feedback and are hyper-communicators (Corvi et al., 2007). They are multicultural, tolerant of diversity and inclusive in style (Benckendorff et al., 2010). With regards to Generation Y in South Africa consumers, some believe they tend to be open-minded, certainly as far as race is concerned as they are South Africa's first generation to only know freedom (Kezi Communications, 2009). They have a need for a trendy social image, are unique, influential and open to innovation (Unilever Institute of Strategic Marketing, 2015). For Generation Y "It's all about me" might seem to be the mantra of these self-absorbed young people who aspire to be financially successful, so they can pay off college loans and afford their digital tools (Alsop, 2008). They have a unique attitude towards brands (Lazarevic, 2012).

Many commuters in South Africa use taxi transportation, this provides marketers with an ideal marketing opportunity for out of home and "in-transit" advertising on Taxi's which reaches the majority of South African's and can be localised to meet a local target market including both rural and urban consumers (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). Generation Y has distinct purchasing behaviours and preferences, mostly looking for quality products at good prices (Chan & Wang, 2015). They have a strong sense of independence and autonomy, are assertive and self-reliant, emotionally and intellectually expressive, innovative, and curious (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). They are both technologically as well as media savvy and use social media and mobile phones to communicate (Chan & Wang, 2015; Jain & Viswanathan, 2015; Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). They are brand conscious, but not as loyal as their predecessors (Giovannini, Xu & Thomas, 2015; Valentine & Powers, 2013; Noble et al., 2009; Benckendorff et al., 2010), hence Olivier and Tanguy (2008) refer to them as brand switchers. Reisenwitz and Iyer (2009) indicate that their lack of loyalty is possibly due to the fact that they have been more exposed to promotions than brand advertising.

Generation Y prefer convenience, are value orientated, brand and fashion conscious (Morton, 2002). According to Noble et al. (2009), Generation Y has very high brand awareness. Unlike other generations, they utilise brands as an extension of themselves (Lazarevic, 2012). They are the most materialistic generation to date and have a greater need for acceptance and fitting in, as they are highly preoccupied on how their peers perceive them (Bucuta, 2015). They like the ability to customise products to their unique needs, brand names are also important to them (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). Resonating with the findings from international studies, a study revealed that Generation Y university students in South Africa are materialistic and exhibit status consumption tendencies (Bevan-Dye, 2016). Furthermore, the study stated that, in contrast to the youth in many other countries, they were also found to have a high level of consumer ethnocentrism towards local brands (Bevan-Dye, 2016). A media report indicated that Generation Y in South Africa had ranked designer clothing ahead of happiness (Seopa, 2008).

They are particularly characterised by their notoriously fickle loyalty (Bucuta, 2015; Lazarevic, 2012) and willingness to try new brands. As stated by Jain and Pant (2012), gaining their loyalty is not easy as they have a distinctive attitude toward brands, they are even known as "brand switchers" (Ollivier & Tanguy, 2008). They are ambitious, seeking status and prestige (Benckendorff et al., 2010). An efficient Generation Y marketing

message has to be fast and highly personalised as millennials lack patience (Bucuta, 2015). Generation Ys like to earn and spend money, they are open minded, confident, independent, ambitious, impatient, and value living life now (Khera & Malik 2017). Millennials have powerful consumption tendencies and have a positive attitude towards companies that are socially responsible (Bucuta, 2015). They believe in immediate gratification and have the potential to be lifelong consumers (Jain & Pant, 2012). They value friends' opinions; therefore, word-of-mouth has been recommended as one of the best marketing methods to target this group (Morton, 2002).

Interestingly in a comparative study, Generation Y in South Africa displayed a typical emerging-market teen profile, though in certain respects, Generation Y in South Africa think and behave more like developed market teens (Weldon, 2009). For example, the cellphone penetration among South African teens – in terms of having their own cellphones, is in line with numbers in Germany, the UK, the US, Spain and Greece (Jordaan et al., 2011). Furthermore, the same study revealed that developed and emerging teens display distinct differences in respect of personal spending capacity, interaction with media (specifically the Internet and video-/photo-sharing websites), as well as attitudes towards various societal, political and environmental issues (Jordaan et al., 2011). According to Duh and Struwig (2015), HR professionals in South Africa, for example, have researched and discovered that Generation Y act annoyingly entitled: they demand higher salaries, promotions, flexible work schedules, more leave, relaxed and less hierarchical work environments.

2.4.2.2 Generation Y Activities and Interests

Generation Y in South Africa stated that if they attended an event in South Africa or around the world, they want music, fashion, beauty or free products as part of the experience (Moodie, 2014). Generation Y in South Africa have similarities to Generation Y in developed countries; these similarities include common leisure time activities, interest in sports, and favourite movie stars (Jordaan et al., 2011). A large proportion of Generation Y's expenditure is primarily on food, drinks, fashion, travel, entertainment and electronic gadgets (Kruger & Saayman, 2015; Jang, Kim & Bonn, 2011; O'Cass & Choy, 2008; Martin, 2005; Bush, Martin & Bush, 2004). Attracting Generation Y requires unique and creative marketing approaches often involving music, fashion, and technology (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010). This digital generation loves attention and cyber fame, it is a

celebrity-obsessed group that grew up on American Idol, entertainment tabloids, and internet gossip (Alsop, 2008).

They are hungry for experiences (Kruger & Saayman, 2015), and value joyfulness, amusement and pleasure (Arsenault & Patrick, 2008). More challenging for marketers is that Generation Y grew up in an "experience economy" era where shopping has become a form of entertainment with experiential aspects in retail settings, as well as an all-engaging, unparalleled experience across platforms and events (Kuhl, 2014; Valentine & Powers, 2013; Rageh, Melewar, Lim & Woodside, 2011). Their decision making is based on the fact that shopping is not regarded as a simple act of purchasing, but a retail culture where acts of shopping have taken on experiential dimensions (Bakewell & Mitchell, 2003). Generation Y places high value on fun and entertainment (Musson, Bick & Abratt, 2015). They are always connected to cellphones, iPods, laptops or video-game players (Alsop, 2008). Mobile phones have become a new body part of Millennials, with research indicating that 83% of them sleep with their phone turned on, in their bed (Van den Bergh & Behrer, 2016). Generation Y enjoy having friends around them (Rowe, 2008). It is important that marketers incorporate a sense of adventure and fun into their brand experience (Lantos, 2014).

During their teen years, Generation Y's were responsible for helping out with family shopping, resulting in a sophisticated, marketing-savvy generation that is highly sceptical of inauthentic advertisers and politicians (Lantos, 2014). In the workplace, Generation Y employers face some of their biggest management challenges ever as they try to integrate millions of millennials into the workplace with other very different generations (i.e. Generation X, Baby boomers), who often perceive them as arrogant and unwilling to adapt to the corporate culture (Alsop, 2008). Their trademark flip-flops and ripped jeans, ubiquitous iPods, and preference for text messages rather than face-to face communication often drives some of their older colleagues and managers to distraction (Alsop, 2008). The rising popularity of energy drinks amongst young people, especially as a boost during examination periods or when working long hours, is one of the key drivers of growth in this category (Euromonitor, 2016; Global Sports and Energy Drinks Market, 2016; Bulut et al., 2014). They eat out more than three times a week (Jang et al., 2011). They seek to acquire "cool" through consumption. Forms of consumption are central to their sense of identity and the acquisition of status or "cool" through this consumption (Ferguson, 2011). Using energy drinks is a popular practice among college students for a variety of situations: to compensate

for insufficient sleep, to increase energy, while studying, while driving for long periods, drinking with alcohol while partying, and to treat a hangover (Attila & Çakir, 2011). According to Msimang (2008), as well as Duh and Struwig (2015), Generation Y in South Africa enjoy the following privileges:

- Generation Y in South Africa have access to recreational facilities, better education, can connect to other continents, use chat rooms and watch global youth culture beamed across flat-screen TVs;
- they ceaselessly enjoy the post-apartheid festivities and do not know how to stop partying;
- and they use the Internet to search for the latest fashion trends and can use cell phones for other business transactions.

2.4.2.3 Generation Y Values and Lifestyle

Lifestyle plays an important role in cultural diversity, because it gives more insight about the consumer (Rammile, 2009). Cultural differences permeate all levels of the socio-economic pyramid within the South African market, marketers cannot only take socio-economic status into account when crafting marketing strategies; but marketers rather need to be acutely aware of cultural differences within South African society to be successful (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). According to Rammile (2009), diversity in South Africa makes it difficult for marketers to develop marketing strategies which can target different segments.

One of the main differences between Generation Y and other cohorts is the radical shift in values (Bucuta, 2015). They are socially engaged, tolerant and well-travelled (Valentine & Powers, 2013). They are the inventors of social media (Gobe, 2013). They have a great desire to express their uniqueness and have a clear idea of what they deserve (Talbolt, 2012). They have been heavily influenced by pop-culture (social media, reality TV and internationalisation) due to the economic boom into which they were born (Parment, 2013). They are characterised by a so-called possession obsession that modifies their purchase and media interactions (Bucuta, 2015). They tend to see fast food restaurants as important places of social interaction and thus an integral part of their lives (Frank, 2012), while Johnston, O'Malley, Bachman and Schulenberg (2011) found that close to 80% of students report consuming alcohol within the past year. Also, Malinauskas, Aeby, Overton, Carpenter-Aeby and Barber-Heidal (2007) found that approximately 54% of energy drink consumers report drinking energy drinks with alcohol while partying. Furthermore, Velazquez, Poulos and

Latimer (2012) found that students who consume energy drinks may also be more likely to use alcohol as a result of underlying personality traits, for example, sensation seeking, they also reported a significant association between energy drink consumption and alcohol use among college students.

Generation Y is more ethnically diverse, socially conscious; i.e. green/organic marketing goes well with them (Apresley, 2010). Bevan-Dye (2016) mentioned that, in keeping with their global counterparts, Generation Y university students in South Africa perceive themselves to be knowledgeable about the environment. As noted by Schewe and Meredith (2004), they have a higher acceptance of alternative lifestyles (e.g. same sex relationships) than past generations. They were socialised into a highly materialistic society (Kim & Jang, 2014). They have high levels of materialism and status consumption; mediated by the strong influence of reference groups with the types of brands they buy becoming status symbols (Parment, 2013). Family events from their past can push Generation Y in South Africa to see money as a signal of success and achievement, a way to calm anxiety, to the extent of driving their materialistic values (Duh, 2016). They are more concerned with the quality than the quantity of life and more interested in what is happening now than in retirement plans (Khera & Malik 2017). Over 25% of Generation Ys are raised in single parent households (Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009). When it comes to relationships and dating, their choices are often based on materialism, on the so called romantic motivation, which refers to the desire to attract the most suitable partner (Buss, 2013). Recent studies have indicated that Generation Y men are more inclined toward status consumption and luxury purchases than the women of this cohort (Stokburger-Sauer & Teichmann, 2013). Generation Y is more open to new concepts of conspicuous products/services, such as luxury restaurants/cafés, as a means of self-expression or symbols of their desired lifestyle (O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; Phau & Cheong, 2009). Generation Y was raised by "helicopter parents" who hovered and gave a greater degree of financial support (Fingerman, Miller, Birditt & Zarit, 2009). Compared to their predecessors, Generation Y has the highest level of motivation to consume for status (Eastman & Liu, 2012).

According to Keating (2000), shopping and dining out are two of their key preferred activities. They enjoy going to parties, listening to the radio and going to the movies, they love television shows, friends and dining out (Kruger & Saayman, 2015; Jennings, Cater, Lee, Ollenburg, Ayling & Lunny, 2010). They are said to be the primary consumers of

music, they spend a higher percentage of their income on music than any other leisure activity except dining out (Moskalyak, 2008). They are consumption oriented, love shopping and are recreational and smart shoppers (Duh, 2011). They demonstrate a strong concern about social and environmental issues and tend to be active in community service (Alsop, 2008). They tend to do more sports than working adults because they have more leisure time (CFLRI, 2004). For Generation Y, shopping is a recreational activity (Muhammend & Ng, 2002), therefore marketers should adopt experience based marketing strategies in order to attract and retain these consumers (Bucuta, 2015). Studies on the buying behaviour of Generation Y indicate that they invest more time, effort and emotion than previous generations, in high involvement purchases associated with status and self-image (Parment, 2013), most of their high involvement purchasing decisions are believed to be taken only after numerous detailed conversations with peers, family, colleagues, friends or groups on social media (Vijay & Varsha, 2013). In their quest for uniqueness, they are usually disposed to have doubts about the stores in which their parents shop (Branchik, 2010. Generation Y are demanding smart and innovative transportation solutions (Fleischer & Wåhlin, 2016), they are less interested in car ownership compared to previous generations and more motivated by alternative ways to move around (Tuttle & Tuttle, 2012).

In South Africa, the world into which Generation Y was raised and socialised is very materialistic and brand-conscious; thus, have been found to be more materialistic, more status-consumption-oriented, with less consumer ethnocentric tendencies than the generations before them (Mbumbwa, 2016), this is similar to what has been observed in major developed markets. Furthermore, Duh and Struwig (2015) stated that Generation Y in South Africa, have pressure to be accepted in higher circles, as a result they have prioritised purchase of status and consumption products, such as premium branded cars, television sets, cellular phones, branded clothing and footwear.

2.4.2.4 Generation Y Media Patterns

Generation Y is more aware of marketing and advertising than previous generations (Davidge, 2015). They have grown up in an era of media saturation, thus have become more selective than their predecessors with messages to which they choose to pay attention (Valentine & Powers, 2013). Due to the large variety of media influences, Generation Y is generally sceptical towards commercial messages (Nusair et al., 2013) and not particularly responsive to traditional marketing (Lazarevic & Petrovi-Lazarevic, 2007; Pesquera, 2005). For Generation Y, platforms such as emails are less popular in comparison to messages on

sms and social media networks which allow for quick, real-time communication, they also prefer to connect to the Internet instead of watching TV (Engebretson, 2004).

The use of mobile phones in South Africa is prevalent amongst Generation Y (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). Generation Y have moved some of their TV viewing time to the internet and have been said to read the newspaper less, compared to their parents (Parumasur & Roberts-Lombard, 2013). They are more demanding of authenticity and more resistant to marketing messages and efforts (Duh, 2011). They like humour in advertisements (Van den Bergh & Behrer, 2016; Kumar & Lim, 2008). As stated by Morton (2002), advertising aimed at Generation Y should focus on lifestyle and fun rather than product features and specifications. This has further been confirmed by Musson et al. (2015), who note that Generation Y place a high value on branded entertainment. There are several media channels that marketers can use to more effectively reach and influence Generation Y customers in making a purchase decision. Members of Generation Y watch less television than their predecessors and are more attracted to a wide variety of media channels, such as social media, which includes blogs, Twitter, YouTube, as well as Facebook, MySpace, Second Life, Flicker, DIGG and LinkedIn (Sundarapandiyan et al., 2015; Valentine & Powers, 2013). According to a study conducted by Deloitte (2012), Generation Y spends more time than older people on the Internet. Instagram and Twitter have experienced significant increases in their number of users in South Africa; with 13 million users, Facebook remains the most popular social networking site amongst South Africans (World Wide Worx & Fuseware, 2016). According to Boerma (2012), 95% of major South African brands have taken to social media, while only 51% of those believe that they are effective while interacting with consumers via Facebook.

Generation Ys mainly use social media to contribute, share, consume, search, participate and play (Bolton et al., 2013; Pempek, Yermolayeva & Calvert, 2009; Dye, 2007). They share aspects of their lives on social networking sites such as Facebook, blogs and post their personal video creations on YouTube; much of their life is an open book online as they try to rack up the most virtual “friends” or connections (Alsop, 2008). They have become more sceptical about advertising and do not enjoy the traditional advertising of the past (Moore, 2009). Companies must continuously push the creative envelope with respect to media and promotional themes to capture Generation Y, as they are more resistant to advertisements than previous generations (Valentine & Powers, 2013). Event sponsorships and electronic

media are just a few of the ways marketers are finding to connect with this generation. Music and fashion are often key touchpoints for Generation Y (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). They understand that advertisements exist to sell products and are unlikely to respond to marketing hype. They prefer advertisements that are quick, direct, use humour or irony and have an element of truth about them (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013; Pesquera, 2005). Over 90% of the 18-29 age group is online, which is higher than the preceding generation, and the 18–24 age group leads all other age groups in every cellphone data service from text messaging to social media (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013).

Marketers need to remember that Generation Y's ultimate brand relationship is collaborative – they want to be asked for their opinion and have the ability to influence the product (Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009). Furthermore, they are knowledgeable about old school "push the product on you" marketing and advertising, and they abhor manipulation (Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009). Therefore, advertisements targeting this generation must be placed in appropriate media channels like social media, appropriate internet sites, television, radio programmes, public relations, event sponsorships and video games – a strategy called "advergaming" (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013, p. 133). The portrayal of multiple racial and ethnic groups in advertisements aimed at this generation is common. This is a multi-ethnic generation, and single-race advertisements would seem unnatural to them. The ubiquitous presence of advertising throughout their lives has made them savvy shoppers (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). Marketers targeting older teenagers and young adults need to use appropriate language, music, and images. Retailers are realising that they need to constantly adjust and update their offerings to drive traffic, and that this active shopper segment is also easily bored (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). Furthermore, honesty, humour, uniqueness, and information are important to them, as are social networking sites that allow them to connect to their peers (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). A major challenge for companies targeting Generation Y consumers is to identify the most suitable channels for reaching Generation Y (Valentine & Powers, 2013). Generation Y consumers are more heavily influenced by marketing communications presented across multiple forms of media e.g. a mixture of television, radio, print and internet which they can interact with (Pendergast, 2009).

In South Africa, Generation Y (18-25 year old) media consumption patterns indicate that television, radio and billboards remain high reach with an above average index for Generation Y social media (AMPS, 2015). These social media usage results are aligned to

literature on digital natives (Wardono, 2015). Generation Y in South Africa, was raised in an era rich with virtual "social networking, virtual social reporting and virtual social media" through Facebook, MXIT, Twitter and YouTube, respectively, furthermore, this generation has continuous access to information and news on television networks, such as the South African Broadcasting Channel News and Cable News Network (CNN) (Mbumbwa, 2016). Facebook marketing communications has a favourable impact on the affective attitudes of Generation Y in South Africa (Duffett, 2015).

As noted by Bolton et al. (2013), Generation Y is the first generation where almost all aspects of their lives are heavily facilitated by technology and the internet, as they actively contribute, search and share content on social media platforms. According to MarketingCharts (2014), Generation Y consumes digital media more than other media channels. Harris and Munsell (2015) claim that marketing expenditure has increased tremendously over the last few years and that youth directed marketing has increased in the last five years. Energy drinks have increased their advertising marketing efforts towards advertising on the internet, social media platforms like Facebook, YouTube channel, brand websites as well as providing product samples at sporting events, concerts, local parks and community events. Starbucks is another example of a brand that has invested in marketing efforts, they have extended the brand experience to social media by offering Facebook specials for loyal followers which leads to years of repeat buying behaviour.

a) Social Media

Egan (2015) argues that digital marketing has changed the underlying theory behind marketing and marketing communications. There is a great deal of scope for improving the way in which marketers in South Africa harness the potential of social media (Bevan-Dye, 2016). According to Costa et al. (2014), aggressive marketing associates energy drinks with high risk extreme behaviours that appeal to youth through non-traditional media (such as social media) that adolescents frequently use. Marketers who used to rely on traditional media channels of reaching their consumers are gradually moving toward new marketing methods, particularly social media (McCormick et al., 2014; Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009). In South Africa, Generation Y student's level of reported self-esteem was positively related to their number of Facebook friends (Bevan-Dye, 2016). Facebook was founded in 2004 and has evolved into the world's largest social network with over one billion active users in 2014 (McCormick et al., 2014). In a previous survey, Facebook ranked as the favourite website of

college students (Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009). The growing statistics of social media amongst Generation Y has therefore helped to prove to marketers that newspaper and TV advertisements are not enough to reach Generation Y consumers. A recent study by Euromonitor (2013) shows that more than one in every three consumers uses social media to learn more about a product or service, or ask for advice during the purchase decision. According to Zagila (2013), brand communities based on virtual platforms have become increasingly popular for a wide range of brands. Social networking sites have become game changers, as the "tastemakers" in the youth market spend a high proportion of their time on social media. Influencers in friendship groups share what they are doing and watching through social media tools (Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009). Marketers could co-ordinate activity across a number of social media channels with content strategy adapted to suit the particular nuances of each platform's functionality and audience (McCormick et al., 2014).

Michael Kors' social media approach indicates that marketers should create forums to share their opinions and continually validate and act on their feedback, the platforms include Facebook, Twitter, Pinterest, Instagram, YouTube, Google+, Vine and Blog (So, 2014). Generation Y want to look good among their networked peers by giving advice, broadcasting details of their lives and using products that positively reflect themselves (Lantos, 2014). This study targets energy drink consumers aged between 18 and 25 years old who are in the lucrative university age segment. This segment is chosen for two reasons. Firstly, this group tends to be less loyal to brands, in comparison to older generations (e.g., baby boomers). Companies targeting this segment thus pay particular attention to them in order to develop long-term and sound relationships (Nusair et al., 2011; Vahie & Paswan, 2006). Secondly, this group represents a huge potential for retailers as a market segment (Noble et al., 2009). Generation Y has become strategically important (Strategic Direction, 2015); marketers therefore need to acknowledge this and manipulate certain tools in order to capture the disloyal Generation Y segment. The knowledge gained from this study will provide insight into this profitable and powerful market segment.

In line with international evidence, this suggests that marketers of energy drinks category need to be vigilant in their use of digital platforms, particularly social networking sites to build and maintain relationships with members of this cohort in order to forge brand loyalty for Generation Y in South Africa.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research context of the study. Firstly, an overview of the global soft drinks industry and the importance of the global soft drinks industry, followed by the importance of the soft drinks industry in South Africa. The energy drinks category was discussed, including the attractiveness of energy drinks. Furthermore, the global energy drinks category was discussed, followed by a discussion of South Africa energy dinks category, related studies on the energy drinks category were explored. Lastly, Generation Y demographics and psychographics were reviewed. In the next chapter, the theoretical groundings and empirical literature of the study is presented.

CHAPTER 3: MAIN THEORIES AND EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a literature review regarding the chosen theories is presented, followed by a discussion regarding empirical literature on each of the constructs that relate to the present study. It includes description and definitions of each concept within the theory, in order to obtain a deeper understanding of the research area. The aim of this chapter is to provide a base for how the construction of the conceptual model of the study works as a guideline for the investigation and analysis.

3.2 Theoretical Groundings of the Study

Four main theories were found useful in understanding the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between experiential marketing and repurchase intention and which can support the conception of this study's model. This section discusses the theoretical groundings that anchor this study. Firstly, an overview of the theory underlying experiential marketing is discussed. This is followed by the four theoretical groundings in which the present study is positioned: Firstly, the experiential branding theory (Schmidt, 1999) is discussed; followed by the multi-sensory brand experience theory by Hultén (2011); thirdly, an overview of the SOR-Stimulus-Organism-Response, from Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) theory and fourthly, a description of Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) Pleasure, Arousal, and Dominance (PAD) theory/dimensions of response and later applied by Donovan and Rossiter (1982) within a retail setting. These perspectives will consequently form the main framework for the design of this study's conceptual model.

3.2.1 Experiential Marketing

The following section provides an overview of experiential marketing followed by the definition, characteristics and concepts of experiential marketing.

3.2.1.1 Background of Experiential Marketing

The experiential marketing concept was developed in the 1980s by Holbook and Hischman (1982) on the basis that consumption was being seen to be related to a steady flow of fantasies, feelings, and fun encompassed by what was referred to as the "experiential view". Consumers were engaging in imaginative, emotional and appreciative consumption

experiences (Holbrook, Chestnut, Oliva & Greenleaf, 1984). The 1990s saw Pine and Gilmore (1998) presenting the experience economy as a new paradigm for marketing. In 1999, Schmitt highlighted that, when it comes to experiences, individuals engage at different levels, namely, rational, emotional, sensorial, physical and spiritual (Schmitt, 1999). By the early 2000s, Grace and O'Cass had explored the arena of service experience, providing insights that service experience significantly affects feelings (Grace & O'Cass, 2004). By the year 2009, Brakus, Schmitt and Zarantonello (2014) had distinguished between several dimensions and constructed a brand experience multidimensional scale that allows for the measurement of responses evoked by brand related stimuli; these had been classified as sensory, affective, intellectual, and behavioural.

The concept of experiential marketing continues to draw interest amongst scholars and practitioners (Schmitt, Brakus & Zarantonello, 2014; Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou, 2013; Zarantonello & Schmitt; 2010; Smilansky, 2009; Ofir & Simonson, 2007; Whelan & Wohlfeil, 2006). The older approach to marketing, being traditional marketing, has as a result, been overshadowed by the increased popularity of modern marketing, specifically experiential marketing and customer experience (Schmitt, 1999; Khan & Rahman, 2014).

3.2.1.2 Defining Experiential Marketing

Brands are primarily used as identifiers which include elements such as brand name, URLs, logos, symbols, characters, spokespeople, slogans, jingles, packages, and signage (Keller, 2003). This basic viewpoint of branding however misses the essence of a brand as a rich source of sensory, affective as well as cognitive associations that result in memorable and rewarding experiences (Schmitt, 1999). Based on the founders of the “experiential view” (Holbrook & Hischman, 1982), experience is referred to as the consumption that involves a steady flow of fantasies, feelings and fun. According to Philiponet (2009), when an experience is well designed, it can engage people in memorable ways. These experiences could result in changes in attitude or behaviour. It is from this perspective that the term ‘experiential marketing’ has continued to develop. Several authors have since adapted the definition for marketing studies. Table 3.1 presents the definitions of experiential marketing by several authors.

Table 3.1: Definition "Experiential Marketing" by Different Authors

Authors	Year	Definition
Schmitt	1999	Experiential marketing focuses on customer experiences. Experiences occur as a result of encountering, undergoing or living through things. Experiences provide sensory, emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and relational values that replace functional values.
Pine and Gilmore	1999	Experiences are events that engage individuals in a personal way.
Gilmore and Pine	2002	Experiential marketing is a means to create a memorable experience that engages the customer in an inherently personal way
Srinivasan and Srivastava	2010	Experiential marketing is a process whereby the involvement of the consumer is mandatory in the form of participation and goes beyond meeting the consumer's identified wants and needs.
Snakers and Zajdman	2010	Experiential marketing refers to making the customers live an experience through the creation of emotions. Thus, experiential marketing has a goal to create emotions for the customers that lead to enjoying the experience.
You-Ming	2010	Experiential marketing is a "kind of face-to-face communication method, which mainly raises customers' physical and emotional *feelings* so that customers expect to be relevant and interactive to some brands and to feel and experience wholeheartedly".
Hauser	2011	Experiential marketing refers to actual customer experiences with the brand/product/service that drive sales and increase brand image and awareness.
International Experiential Marketing Association	2011	Experiential marketing allows customers to engage and interact with brands, products, and services in sensory ways.
Nigam	2012	Experiential marketing refers to an event or experience that induces target audiences to explore a product and experience it for future purchases.
Veasman	2015	Refers to experiential marketing as a promotional technique that seeks to develop a brand experience with consumers by immersing them in the brand.
Egan	2015	A strategy that encourages customers to engage and interact with brands, products and services in sensory ways.

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

For the purpose of this study, Egan's (2015) definition of experiential marketing as referred to in Table 3.1 is used. The role of experiential marketing in consumer behaviour thus

continues to gain growing interest among academics and practitioners, as it also leads to consumers developing positive attitudes and making choices based on beliefs towards a company's products (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Schmitt, 1999; Klein, 2003; Sarkar, 2014; Garg et al., 2015).

3.2.1.3 Characteristics of Experiential Marketing

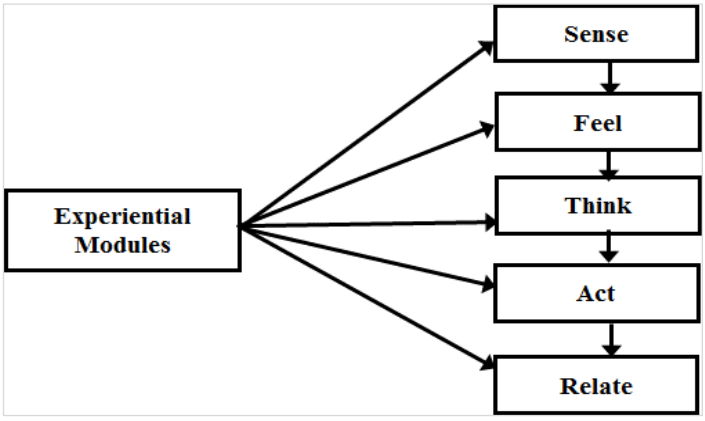
Experiential marketing allows a brand to differentiate itself as a result of its in-depth action, memorisation and creation of an emotional link between a brand and a consumer which lasts longer (Philiponet, 2009). Experiential marketing has four distinct characteristics (Schmitt, 1999). Firstly, experiences provide sensory, emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and relational values that replace functional values (Schmitt, 1999). Secondly, for marketers it should be about what products fit into this consumption situation and how these products, their packaging, and their advertising prior to consumption can enhance the consumption experience (Schmitt, 1999). Thirdly, experiential marketers need to always remember that, while customers may frequently engage in rational choice, they are just as frequently driven by emotions because consumption experiences are often directed toward the pursuit of fantasies, feelings, and fun (Schmitt, 1999). Finally, unlike traditional marketing which is analytical and quantitative, the experiential marketer needs to remember that the methods and tools of experiential marketing are diverse and not bound to a singular methodological ideology, but are rather, eclectic (Schmitt, 1999).

3.2.1.4 The Strategic Experiential Modules (SEMs)

Experiential marketing aims to impart experience to customers through a number of strategic experiential modules (SEMs). Five strategic experience modules (SEMs) or dimensions have been proposed by Schmitt (1999) to provide customers with different forms of experiences. There are five types of experience which Bernd Schmitt called the Strategic Experience Modules (SEMs), and include sense, feel, think, act and relate experiences. SEMs are the basis of experiential marketing. For two decades, marketers in a variety of industries have been building expertise in reaching consumers through the five SEMs (Harvard Business Review, 2015). SEMs are multiple senses that aim to tap that special place in the consumers' mind which inspires thoughts concerning comfort and pleasure, along with the sense of practicality (Kumar, 2014). SEMs refer to the measurement method of experiential marketing and can assist marketers to create a range of experiences for their customers.

Senses amplify one another when they are congruent in some way, it is important for marketers to remember that consumers do not perceive them as marketing messages and therefore do not react with the usual resistance to advertisements and other promotions (Harvard Business Review, 2015). Schmitt (1999) introduces an "experiential diagram" to create an holistic experience for customers; this is presented in Figure 3.1 followed by a discussion on the SEMs.

Figure 3.1: Strategic Experiential Modules (SEMs) / Experiential module elements



Source: Schmitt (1999)

As shown in Figure 3.1, experiential modules include sense, feel, think, act and relate modules. It is important for marketers to note that experiential appeals rarely result in only one type of experience; modules are connected and interact with each other. According to Schmitt (1999), many companies combine two or more SEMS to broaden the appeal. It is important for marketers to strategically create and holistically integrate experiences at the same time (sense, feel, think, act and relate experiences). Again, it cannot be stressed enough that the modules should be viewed as integrated and as a whole.

i. Sense

The first of the five modules is sense. The sense module, also known as sense marketing, has the objective of appealing to the five senses through sight, sound, touch, taste and smell (Schmitt, 1999). Marketers may use sense marketing to differentiate products through aesthetics and excitement. According to Schmitt (1999), there are several reasons for a company to use sensory strategies, for example, they can be used to differentiate products, to motivate customers and to add value to products through aesthetics or excitement. Starbucks creates sense appeal with its high-quality coffee, interior design, barista expertise and apron style, decoration and jazz music in a Starbucks coffee. Sense marketing has been referred to

by numerous authors (Li, Huang & Chen, 2012; Lu et al., 2008). An example of sense marketing in the energy drinks category is illustrated in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Sense Marketing: Energy drinks

Source: (Dragon, 2017; Power Play, 2017; MoFaya, 2017; Score, 2017; Monster, 2017; Red Bull, 2017)

Other examples of sense marketing include supermarkets' in-store food sampling and taste testing of various food offerings, these assist the customer to choose whether to buy them (Li at al., 2012). According to Huang, Lee, Kim and Evans (2015), sensory stimulations are not limited to "offline" contexts as sensory clues are widely used in online advertising as well.

ii. Feel

Feel is the second module. Feel marketing aims to invoke an individual's inner feelings and emotions, with the aim of creating affective experiences that range from moods linked to a brand to strong emotions of joy and pride (Schmitt, 1999). It employs an interactive and novel atmosphere to associate feelings of happiness, pride, and excitement to products (Li et al., 2012). Previously, it was difficult to create international feel campaigns because both the emotion-inducing stimuli and willingness to empathise in a given situation often differed from culture to culture (Keinonen, 2016). This is no longer the situation as companies such as Red Bull have managed to launch global campaigns (i.e. Red Bull Culture Clash, Red Bull Amaphiko) that have been successful on a global scale. Feel marketing examples in the energy drinks category are presented in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Feel Marketing: Energy drinks

Source: (Dragon, 2017; MoFaya, 2017; Monster, 2017; Red Bull, 2017)

Another example of feel marketing is McDonald's adding playgrounds to its restaurants to sell more than just "happy" meals for children (Liu, Huang & Chen, 2012), while Hagen-Daz employs romantic themes to make their ice cream feel like a romantic indulgence (Li et al., 2012). For feel marketing to be successful, specifically standard emotional advertising, it is crucial to understand what stimuli can trigger certain emotions, as well as taking into consideration international cultural perspectives (Schmitt, 1999).

iii. Think

Think module is the third one. The think module appeals to a customer's intellect with the objective of creating cognitive, problem-solving experiences that engage customers creatively (Schmitt, 1999). Think campaigns are mostly common for new technology products, but not necessarily limited to high technology products as they can also be used for product design and retailing. Lu et al. (2008) mention that think marketing stimulates intelligence, as it targets creative and cognitive thinking using creative strategies such as surprise, intrigue and provocation. An example of think marketing is Microsoft's "Where do you want to go today?" (Li et al., 2012).

Red Bull have used relevant photography to communicate powerful think marketing messages. This is illustrated in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: Think Marketing: Energy drinks

Source: (Red Bull, 2015)

iv. Act

The fourth module is called act. The act module aims to enrich customers' lives by targeting their physical experiences, showing them alternative ways of doing things (Schmitt, 1999). Act marketing has the objective of showing the customer alternative ways of doing things, giving options for lifestyles and interactions. It targets primarily customer's physical experiences, with the objective of inspiring and motivating customers to make a change in their lifestyle, influencing their behaviour and often using role models, such as movie stars or athletes in marketing campaigns (Keinonen, 2016). Act marketing affects bodily experiences, lifestyles and interactions by motivating them to a certain action. For marketers, it is important to note that consumers need extra motivation and stimulation (Li et al., 2012). An example of act marketing is Nike's classic "Just Do It" campaign, which depended upon sports role models and enticing the customer to action (Schmitt, 1999) and had earlier alluded to the fact that changes in lifestyles and behaviours are often motivated by role models (such as movie stars or athletes). Another example of act marketing is Red Bull Stratos, where Felix Baumgartner rose more than 24 miles above the New Mexico desert in the 55-story ultra-thin helium "Red Bull Stratos" balloon, jumped off, and reached 830 mph during a 9-minute fall, setting records for both the height of the jump and the speed of descent (Aaker, 2012). This is illustrated in Figure 3.5.

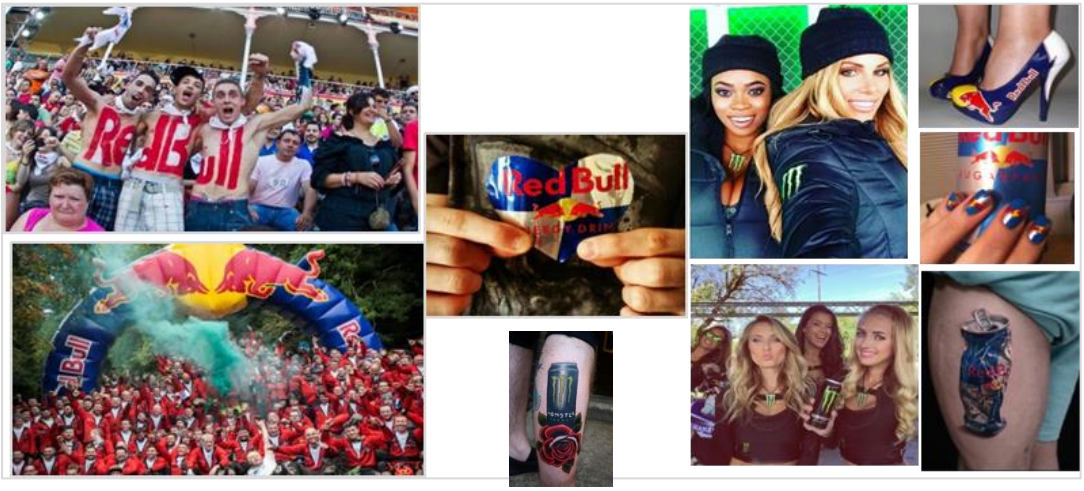
Figure 3.5: Act Marketing: Energy drinks

Source: (Red Bull, 2017)

v. Relate

The fifth module is called relate. The relate module includes aspects of sense, feel, think and act marketing modules. As it expands beyond the customer's private sensations by relating the customer's self to the broader social and cultural context reflected in a brand (Schmitt, 1999). Relate marketing revolves around the concept of social identity which stems from relating to a reference group or culture. It is mainly linked to people's core need to be viewed positively by others (Schmitt 1999). Relate marketing usually demands self-improvements, "the ideal self", and places demands on others such as one's peers, girlfriend, boyfriend or spouse; family and co-workers to show favourable feelings in order to connect people with a wider social system (a subculture, a country, etc.) and establish strong brand relations and communities. From brand communities, branded merchandise, brand tattoos on bodies, these are illustrated in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6: Relate Marketing: Energy drinks



Source: (Monster, 2017; Red Bull, 2017)

Red Bull brand communities are similar to Harley-Davidson users, as they also often form strong bonds in the form of what is referred to as brand communities (Madupu & Cooley, 2010; Thompson & Sinha, 2008; Fournier,1998) or brand tribalism (Goulding, Shankar & Canniford, 2013; Jurisic & Azevedo, 2011; Veloutsou & Moutinho, 2009).

In conclusion, it is important for marketers to strategically include experiences at the same time in order to create holistically integrated experiences that have all five experience dimensions (Schmitt, 1999). Through the use of the above-mentioned five types of strategic experience modules (SEMs), experiential marketing serves as a differentiation tool that separates the company or the product from competition (Nigam, 2012). Although experiential modules can be classified as separate entities, rarely is an experience strictly one of the five modules per se, as modules are connected with one another and interact (Schmitt, 1999). Many successful companies integrate two or more SEMs into an experience that they intended to create (Schmitt, 1999). He further states that the most ideal situation would be that marketers would include all the five elements into one and create an holistic experience (Schmitt, 1999).

3.2.2 The Experiential Branding Theory

Based on Schmitt's (1999) proposed five experiences (sense, feel, think, act and relate), researchers such as Brakus et al. (2009), considered the intricacy of brand experience and developed four dimensions of brand experience, namely: sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual. As stated by Beckman et al. (2013), the main aim of marketers should be maximising these experiences. Marketing researchers such as Zarantonello and Schmitt (2013), Shamim and Butt (2013), Iglesias et al. (2011) have all used the dimensions of brand experience and attested that customer experience of brands represents an important outcome of consumer behaviour. With this new era of marketing, the brand takes on the role of an experience provider rather than an identifier (Schmitt et al., 2014), since consumer decision making has shifted from the rational to the emotional and experiential (Wade et al., 2012). For some organisations, customer experiences have become one of the greatest challenges (Carù, Colm & Cova, 2016). This study adapted the brand experience model of Brakus et al. (2009). The four dimensions of brand experience (sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual) are discussed below.

3.2.2.1 Sensory Experience

Firstly, sensorial experience refers to the marketing efforts made to appeal to the five human senses (i.e. smell, sound, sight, taste and touch) (Brakus et al., 2009) and is related to Schmitt's (1999) "sense" experience. Machado, Cant and Seaborne (2014) highlight that this could be the look and feel of an Apple product. Another example is the Garg et al. (2015) study which included sub-themes that were collated from the sensory experience theme (i.e. pleasant aroma, aesthetic appeal, tastes nice, sophisticated musical background and great ambiance). Barnes, Mattsson and Sørensen (2014) examined brand experience for destination brands and found the sensory dimension was the most important one.

3.2.2.2 Affective Experience

Secondly, affective experience refers to customer's inner feelings and emotions (Brakus et al., 2009) and is related to Schmitt's (1999) "feel" experience. Machado et al. (2014) highlight that through certain behaviour (i.e., the purchase of an iPhone), certain outcomes could manifest through the consumers' feelings or thoughts (i.e., the love of the iPhone after using it for a couple of days). Garg et al.'s (2015) affective sub-themes included: feel thrilled, make my mood, help in reducing stress, therapy for me, as well as make me happy.

3.2.2.3 Behavioural Experience

Thirdly, behavioural experience refers to motor actions and behavioural experiences (Brakus et al., 2009) and is related to Schmitt's (1999) "act" experience. Machado et al. (2014) highlight that the behavioural dimension should aim to enrich consumers' lives by targeting their physical experiences by showing them alternative ways of doing things (i.e., highlighting the benefits of Apple products as compared to its competition). Garg et al.'s (2015) behavioural sub-themes included: make me go out, as well as help in exploring new places.

3.2.2.4 Intellectual Experience

Lastly, intellectual experience refers to convergent/analytical and divergent/imaginative thinking (Brakus et al., 2009) and is related to Schmitt's (1999) "think" experience. Machado et al. (2014) highlight that companies could also appeal to the consumer's intellect through creativity and innovativeness (i.e., the constant renewal of the Apple iOS operating system). Garg et al.'s (2015) intellectual sub-themes included: upgrade my knowledge, make me think, and create curiosity.

3.2.2.5 Brand Experience Dimensions: IMC

Marketing communication is critical in the creation of brands as it has the power of informing, persuading, and reminding consumers about a brand's products and services (Keinonen, 2016). Brand experiences occur directly and indirectly; marketing communications is a way of brand experiences to occur indirectly (Brakus et al., 2009). Keller (2009) presents eight main forms of communication that comprise the marketing communications mix: advertising, sales promotion, events and experiences, public relations and publicity, direct marketing, interactive marketing, word-of-mouth, and personal selling. According to Chattopadhyay and Laborie (2005), customers experience a brand when they come in contact with the brand through various brand touch points such as sales force, product, mass media, sponsorships, Internet, point of sale, word-of-mouth and so forth. Various touch points provide consumers the opportunity to be in contact with the brand through the purchase process, from pre-purchase stage until post-purchase stage (Keinonen, 2016). Consumers today are using multiple channels throughout their purchase journey (Parise, Guinan & Kafka, 2016). Furthermore, customers can, for example, seek information on one channel, make a purchase in another and physically get hold of the product via a third channel (Straker, Wrigley & Rosemann, 2015). Some touchpoints have the capability to evoke a greater range of feelings, whereas others work best as providing information and creating intellectual experiences (Keinonen, 2016).

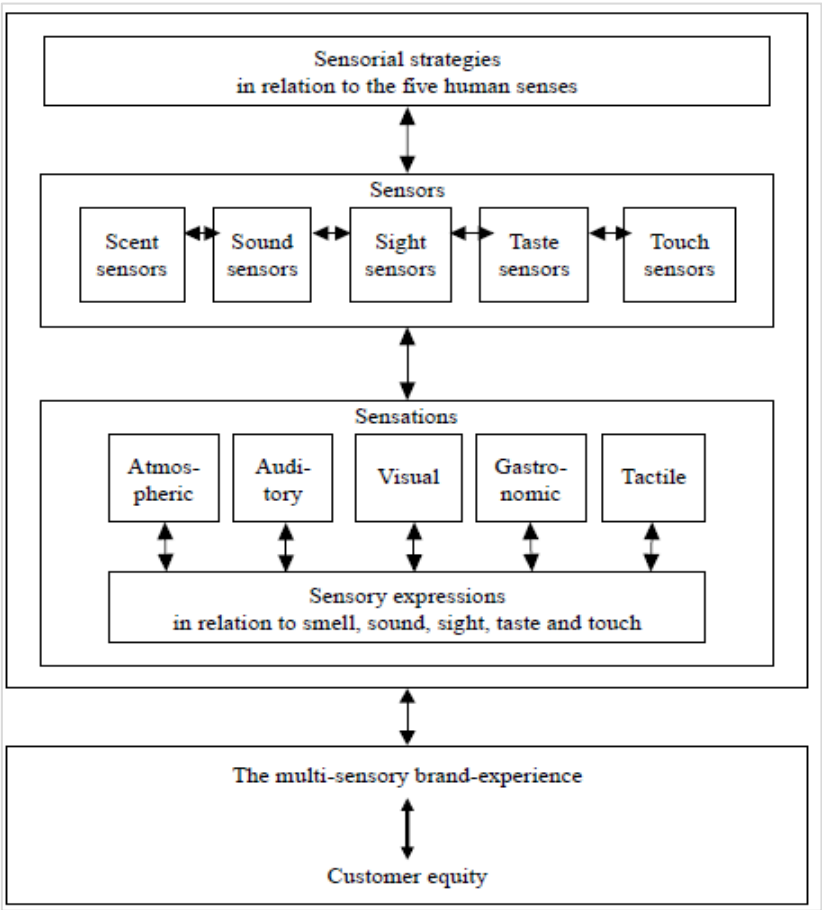
3.2.3 Multi-sensory Brand Experience Theory

Sensory marketing is an element of experiential marketing (Doucé & Janssens, 2013). Schmitt (1999, p. 61) defined sensory marketing as follows: "Sense marketing appeals to the senses with the objective of creating sensory experiences through sight, sound, touch, taste and smell". The American Marketing Association defines sensory marketing as marketing techniques that aim to seduce the consumer by using his/her senses to influence his/her feelings and behaviour. Sense marketing may be used to differentiate companies and products, to motivate customers and to add value to products (e.g., through aesthetics or excitement). It measures and explains emotional consumer decision-making by variability of products, concepts, packaging, and marketing mix scenarios to ensure long-lasting success (Valenti & Riviere, 2008).

The growing interest in sensory marketing among practitioners and researchers means that the gratification of all the senses (i.e., sight, sound, scent, touch, and taste), has an important role in the individual's consumption experience (Krishna, 2010). For instance, a consumer

can drink a bottle of Moet and Chandon champagne for its sensorial experience, such as taste, tingle on the tongue, etc. (Tsai, 2005). According to Lichtlé and Plichon (2014), sensorial marketing, which has long been reserved for special events or unique one-off initiatives, now forms part of the overall marketing strategies used in retail outlets. Minh and Ly (2015) argue that senses are able to influence customers' emotions and decision-making. Sensory branding is based on the idea that human beings are most likely to form, retain and revisit memory when all five senses are engaged, the motive of sensory branding is to find ways to engage all consumer senses to strengthen the brand experience (Hussain, 2014). According to Hultén (2011), a brand can use sensorial strategies expressed through sensors, sensations and sensory expressions in relation to the five human senses and leave imprints of a good product or service; this is illustrated in Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7: A Sensory Marketing Model



Source: Hultén et al., (2009)

Figure 3.7 depicts that sensors (scent, sound, sight, taste and touch) aim at communicating sensations (atmospheric, auditory, visual, gastronomic and tactile) and sensory expressions (smell, sound, sight, taste and touch) that reinforce the multi-sensory brand experience for the

customer (Hultén, 2011). When senses are coordinated, they can enhance positive experiences and influence consumer behaviour (Derval, 2010). Although expressions such as design, packaging, and theme remain common expressions, it is no longer enough to use visual or sight expressions alone to attract the human senses, instead an holistic view should be at the centre of a firm's sensory marketing (Hultén et al., 2009). The sensory stimulation not only attracts consumer choice, but also helps distinguish a product from others. These get attached in consumer's sensory memory and finally become a part of the decision-making process and initiate a way towards future brand building for a product (Hussain, 2014). Prior research by Moreira, Fortes and Santiago (2017) reveals that sensory stimulation positively influences brand experience and brand equity, which, in turn, have a positive impact on intentions to purchase the brand in question.

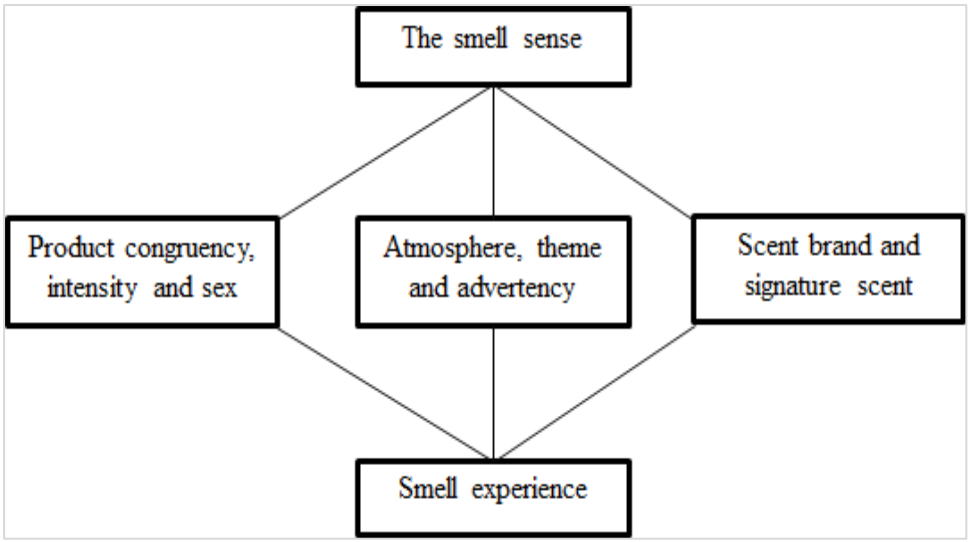
According to Bagdare and Jain (2013), engaging shoppers in a retail store demands stimulating all five sensory receptors of the customers in a guided manner. Saran (2016) argues that brands most commonly employ experiential marketing to not only intensify and complement the traditional promotion activity, but also to stand out among their competitors. According to Muhtar Kent, Coca-Cola's CEO, more than 70 per cent of Coke's sales are due to impulse purchases (Karmali, 2007); this is important for marketers, as a multi-sensory strategy can be used to influence purchases. The multi-sensory brand-experience theory suggests that firms should apply sensorial strategies expressed through sensors, sensations, and sensory expressions in relation to the human mind and senses.

In conclusion, Moreira et al. (2017) believe that proper multisensory stimulation produces an increase in customers' brand experience and on brand equity, which in turn, reinforces purchase intention. The use of sensory marketing practices creates memorable and sensory experiences that support customers' involvement with the services provided. Therefore, marketers need to generate a sense of continuous involvement by using the five senses to generate experiences and brand loyalty engagement (Moreira et al., 2017).

3.2.3.1 Smell

The various sense expressions that can be used to create a smell experience are presented in Figure 3.8.

Figure 3.8: Sense expressions and the smell experience



Source: Hultén et al., (2009)

Figure 3.8 depicts that a scent experience can lend a natural connection to a brand through sensory expressions like product congruency and the intensity of a scent. Hultén (2011) continues to state that scents can also improve the recognition and recall of a brand through such sensory expressions as signature scents or a scent brand. Neuromarketing studies show that 75 per cent of emotions are triggered by smell; smell can create instant connections between a brand and other memories (Garg, Agarwal & Acharya, 2016). Research by the Sense of Smell Institute indicates that consumers can recall smells with 65 per cent accuracy after an entire year. Smell sense is closely related to our emotional life and can strongly affect our emotions (Hultén et al., 2009). In addition, a human being can remember more than 10,000 different scents (Hultén et al., 2009). The role of a scent is to create attention around a product or a brand, or long-term strategies, so that the scent becomes a major element of the identity (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015), further gives pleasure, and arouses the feelings to buy. Smell is the only sensory input that bypasses the brain's filtering system, the thalamus, to have a direct impact on the emotions (Bryant, 2009).

Scents contribute to the expression of a brand's identity and strengthen its image (Hultén, 2011). Some retailers and service providers have used scents in order to create smell experiences for their customers (Jeffries, 2007). Scent can be used to play an important role in shaping consumer traffic in a retail environment, as scent may draw people to aisles they

do not frequent or areas that have traditionally poor sales (Bryant, 2009). In some situations, after applying scents, profits have doubled (Anggie & Haryanto, 2012; Soars, 2009). This is aligned with Parsons' (2009) study which concluded that in a lingerie store, the use of perfume could enhance shopping. The use of scent affects human beings up to 75% more than any other sense, and provides a positive link with perceived quality, the evoking of connections as well as brand identity (Kumar, 2014). As stated by Hussain (2014), when smell was used in a real estate business, the houses somehow sold better if they had smells like vanilla, fresh baked cookies or popcorn, also Starbucks was reported to have stopped serving breakfasts as the smell of eggs interfered with the smell of Starbucks fresh ground coffee. In a recent Nike study, customers preferred shoes that were displayed in a room with fragrance, while estimating the value of the shoes in the scented room to be higher (Kumar, 2014).

Smell has rightly been highlighted by Advertising Age as one of the Top ten trends to watch (Soars, 2009). Smell plays an important role for memories and emotions, memories evoked by smell give stronger feelings of being brought back in time, are more emotionally loaded, are experienced more vividly, feel more pleasant, and range back to childhood (Obrist, Tuch & Hornbaek, 2014). Marketers must bear in mind that the use of smell marketing can be interesting for a brand, provided that it knows how to target, to avoid a bad perception and then a negative impact. Of all the five senses; smell is the closest linked to emotions because the brain's olfactory system detects odours, fast tracks signals to the limbic system and links emotions with memories.

i. Product congruency, intensity and sex

According to Rodrigues, Hultén and Brito (2011), scents can affect the emotions of consumers, because they are closely related to the emotional life of consumers and also help them to remember past memories. Hultén et al. (2009) conducted a study in a grocery store which used an artificial scent of oranges in the fruits and vegetables section resulting into increased sales of oranges for a limited period. As noted by Morgan (2008), one of the oldest and most effective ways of creating a pleasant in-store atmosphere through the use of scent is the smell of freshly baked bread. Scents, such as basil, are used to stimulate as well as to improve consumers' memory (Mungania, 2016). The author further recommends that apparel store owners should ensure that their stores have nice scents. This can be achieved by ensuring that the stores are well aerated and perfumed to attract and retain shoppers longer. Chebat and Michon (2003) point out that the scent of grapefruit is believed to be energising,

while the scent of oranges and mints are used to calm consumers and to limit their stress, and the scent of citrus in general is believed to be harmonising, reducing suspicion.

ii. Atmosphere, theme and advertency

According to Bryant (2009) Café & Co, a European coffee shop, showed the staying power that scent installations had on the customer, encouraging him or her to linger longer and spend more time, and money. Furthermore, while the idea of using more of the senses, and smell in particular, to attract and appeal to customers is not new, how a savvy marketer tackles this new tool in his or her marketing arsenal is critical to its delivery and success (Bryant, 2009). As stated by Gupta and Randhawa (2008), scents enhance a store's atmosphere by channeling different aromas to different departments in order to attract people from far away or simply just to enhance the overall feeling within the store.

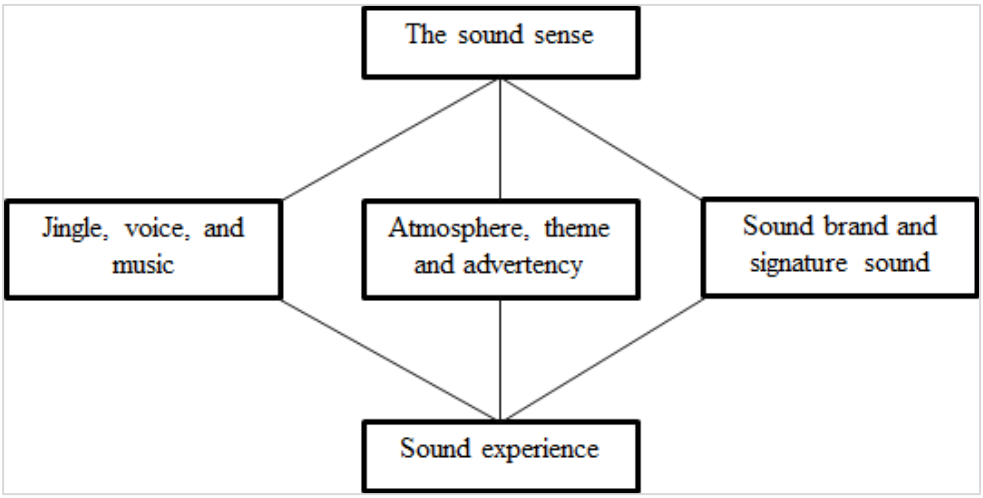
iii. Scent brand and signature scent

Scents can impact customers' loyalty, determine the customers' perception of service quality, and can affect future behaviour of the customer if the purchasing environment smells pleasant, as the customer will be interested in spending more time and money there (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015). Scientific studies have shown that 75% of our emotions are generated by smell. This is possibly the reason why the use of smells in a commercial way is increasing every day (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). The food industry has used artificial smells to appeal to customers in the street, subway or supermarkets. Early reseachers proved the positive impact of a smell on the evaluation of a product (Cox, 1969; Laird, 1935). A pleasant smell positively influences the evaluation of the customer on a point of sale (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). Marketers need to remember that the perception of smells is different from one person to another, and there are numerous individual variants that marketers have to take into account. Gender can influence perception of smell e.g. women are more sensitive to smells than men (Valenti & Riviere, 2008), also the age of the customer modifies his/her perception, as the sense of smell breaks up as the person gets older, also there is a generational cohort difference in the perception of smell, e.g. persons born before 1930 are more likely to call up natural smells, when the youngest report more food or artificial smells (Hirsh, 1992).

3.2.3.2 Sound

The different sense expressions that can be used to create a sound experience are presented in Figure 3.9.

Figure 3.9: Sense expressions and the sound experience



Source: Hultén et al. (2009)

Figure 3.9 depicts that jingles and voices can contribute to the sound experience of a brand. As stated by Hultén (2011), a sensorial sound strategy also emphasises the significance of such sensory expressions as atmosphere, theme, and attentiveness, often used in creating a sound experience. Soars (2009) indicated that the "right" type of music can make a customer want to linger, and that a customer who lingers for 40 minutes is more than twice as likely to purchase than a customer who lingers for 10 minutes. As argued by Garg et al. (2016), if used well, music is able to create a mood for the consumer that encourages them to buy. Music has been identified as a powerful tool to evoke emotions, specifically because when listening to music, endorphins are released which generate sensations (Gobe, 2001). The use of sound can therefore be a powerful way to bond customers to a brand. Scholars, such as Mohan, Sivakumaran and Sharma (2013), have indicated that music can be used to affect buyer behaviour. In addition, Soars (2009) points out that music can influence basket size and intent to repatronage. In restaurant settings, music can be used to help customers feel pleased or relaxed (Ryu & Jang, 2007). Furthermore, in the motor vehicle industry, the sound of a steady heartbeat, a piano, a breath, was chosen as the most effective sounds for an Audi audio branding, while Mercedes Benz formed a team to get the most appealing sound for a closing car door (Hussain, 2014). The perfect use of the sound sense is the easiest way to tap the market for a brand looking forward to trying out sensory marketing, the logic is simple; the

more accessibility you provide, the greater your chance of connecting to the customers. The sensory cueing of sound and smell senses facilitates companies' potential to build superior emotional connections to their brands (Kumar, 2014).

i. Jingle, voice and music

Music offers a wide range of possibility to the marketers to influence customers' behaviour. Associating music to a message is a good way to make the consumer remember it (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). Background music is the cheapest and the easiest factor of atmosphere to manage but it is definitely not the least powerful. A sound identity can be established if certain music or sounds are associated with a company (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015). Music is a powerful tool for evoking emotions, in effect, when listening to music, endorphins are released which generate a sensation of pleasure. Furthermore, Nagarjuna and Sudhakar (2015) note that music can be used to create various emotions such as calmness, excitement, fear and sadness. It has also proved to reduce the negative effects of waiting in the service industry while stimulating customers' emotion and inducing positive behavioural reaction (Hui, Dube & Chebat, 1997). Furthermore, fast tempo music usually is recognised as happy and pleasant while music of a slow tempo has been shown to provoke more sentimental feelings (Bruner, 1990).

ii. Atmosphere, theme, and advertency

Music aims to put the customer in a state of mind corresponding to the articles that are sold: play rock music in a guitar shop and the person will imagine himself playing with what could be his future purchase (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). Music can then, if connected to the product, be a way to act on the buying behaviour of the customer (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). According to North and Hargreaves (1996), high volume music in a bar will increase the consumption of the customers. It is also proved that high volume music in a restaurant will increase the consumption of the customers (North & Hargreaves, 1996). A previous study by Smith and Curnow (1966) revealed that in a point of sales, customer adopts his walk speed according to the tempo of the music. The random selection of songs can provide negative impacts on customers; as stated by Roballey (1985) as well as Milliman (1986), a fast tempo music decreases the consumption of customers as it reduces the time spent inside. The same authors argue that clients will eat faster and consume less with a loud volume and fast tempo music. The Marriott hotel has a unique signature music which cannot be found anywhere else in the world (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015).

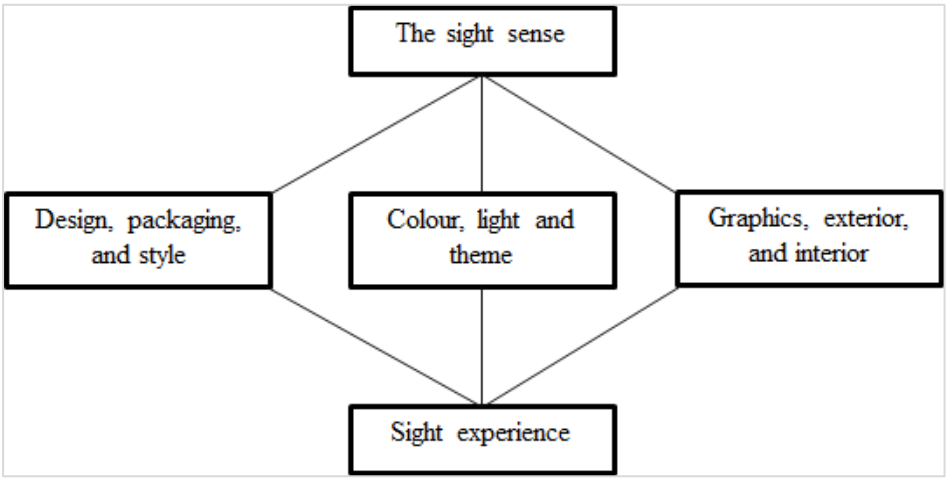
iii. Sound brand and signature sound

Sound should be used to create or activate specific emotions or feelings within consumers (Hultén et al. 2009). According to Valenti and Riviere (2008), studies have been done to find what kind of music fits best with the different kind of places. For instance, classical music will increase the quality sensation of a wine cellar (Areni & Kim, 1993) or a tea house (North & Hargreaves, 1996). As stated by Daye and Van Auken (2010), sound can be used to create an effective and memorable sound experience through certain voices, jingles and music genres which can be regarded as a signature sound that characterises a particular retailer, brand or product. Sound plays an important role in the consumers' consumption experience (Krishna, 2010). As stated by Gobe (2009), sound can be regarded as an important source of motivation and information in relation to making an association with specific organisations, stores, brands or products. Mungania (2016) points out that this should be achieved by ensuring that the background music played is at the right volume and the songs played are selected purposively to make shoppers stay longer.

3.2.3.3 Sight

A sight strategy is considered as the most significant in expressing a brand's identity and value (Hultén, 2011). Sight has so far dominated marketing practice (Alexander & Nobbs, 2016; Agapito et al., 2012,). Figure 3.10 presents sense expressions and the sight experience.

Figure 3.10: Sense expressions and the sight experience



Source: Hultén et al. (2009)

As depicted in Figure 3.10, the sight strategy emphasises the importance of sensory expressions such as design, packaging and style, as well as colour, light and theme, graphics,

exterior and interior can contribute to the sight experience of a brand (Hultén, 2011). Sight is a dominant factor in creating brand awareness and in generating customer experience (Randhir et al., 2016). Sight is the most used sense in marketing, as it is the most stimulated by the environment (Valenti & Riviere, 2008). Gobe (2009) states that people from as early as ten years of age use sight as the most dominant sense to learn and to understand the world. Brakus et al. (2009) explain that the four identified experience dimensions are evoked by brand-related stimuli, such as colours, shapes, typefaces, designs, slogans, mascots, brand characters. Kerfoot, Davies and Ward (2003) established that 90% of in-store environment cues are taken in through sight, due to the fact that many in-store cues in the retail setting are visually communicated.

i. Colour

It is becoming increasingly important for retailers to know and understand the history and psychological meaning behind colours, as it will help them to create a pleasant in-store atmosphere that will stimulate positive emotions within consumers (Nell, 2017; Pegler, 2010; Gobe, 2009). Bell and Ternus (2012) argue that colour is the most predominant element of sight and is therefore one of the most domineering design instruments used by retailers to communicate with their consumers. According to Nagarjuna and Sudhakar (2015), colours are used to evoke the emotion, express personality, and stimulate brand association; they further state that 90% of information transmitted to the brain is visual and that 46% of the people say a website's design is the number one criterion for discerning its credibility. Furthermore, the authors mention that Facebook posts that include videos attract three times more than plain text posts. Gobe (2009) states that colour can generate certain internal feelings and emotions within consumers which trigger and arouse specific thoughts, ideas and experiences, furthermore, it has the ability to affect organisations, retailers, products, brands, and window displays, as it enables consumers to remember and understand what a specific organisation, retailer, brand, etc. stands for (Gobe, 2009). Colour can affect shopping habits (Husain, 2014). As stated by Hultén et al. (2009), a common opinion is that orange expresses kindness and that grey is associated with professionalism in terms of being conformist and serious, while pale blue is associated with calm and peace, and navy blue is associated with dependability. According to Soars (2009), yellow is the first colour the human eye notices, blue has a calming effect, while lighting can have a dramatic effect on a shopper's mood. Many brands are associated with a specific colour, then it is memorised more easily by customers; examples of these being Coca-Cola is red, Kodak is yellow, and KFC is red and

white (Randhir et al., 2016). According to Louw and Kimber (2011), the colour of packaging can be used to capture attention at what others refer to as "first moment of truth". In addition, the colour of the packaging sets expectations about the contents, and is likely to influence the purchase decision (Seher, Arshad, Ellahi & Shahid, 2012).

The colour of a brand's logo improves brand recognition by 80%, while 84% of people believe that colour amounted to the major consideration when they choose a brand (Garg et al., 2016). Colours attract attention, assist evaluation and highlight certain product or store features (Sachdeva & Goel, 2015). According to memory retention studies, consumers are up to 78% more likely to remember a message printed in colour than in black and white, in the food and beverage industry, the impact of colours is obvious, as it gives the first impression of the quality, for the product and for the environment (Valenti & Riviere, 2008).

ii. Packaging

Packaging can work as a communicator, creator of identity, and image builder (Hultén et al., 2009). Coca-Cola's glass bottle, which is frosted and has a green tint, the transparent glass bottle of Absolut Vodka, and plastic bottle for Heinz Tomato Ketchup are some of the successful packages. Burgess (2016) refers to packaging as the 5th P in the marketing mix. The important role of the package as an experience trigger reinforces the need for a continuous renewal of design, form, colours, and textures. Colours are able to activate and stimulate our feelings and thoughts (Hultén et al., 2009). Keinonen's (2016) study indicated that the visual elements of packaging evoked strong emotions in some of the interviewees who therefore perceived the brand unfavourably; this resulted in them avoiding the brand by choosing another one that was not so striking. Stronger and bolder colours in packaging usually signify richer flavours and more intense taste experiences (Spence, 2016).

iii. Displays

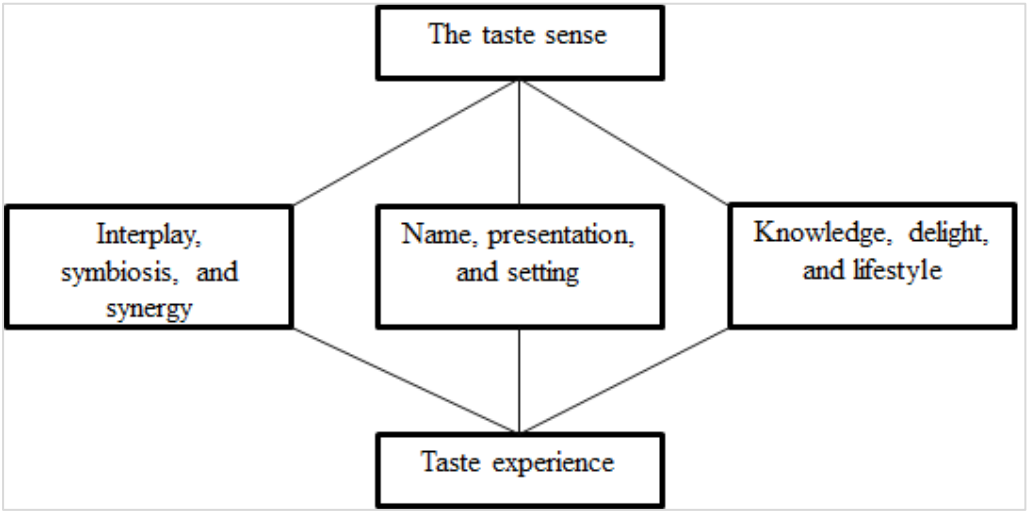
Marketers need to embrace the idea that the right colour display can influence customers´ emotions more directly (Bitner, 1992). As noted by Mungania (2016), a retail chain outlet display allows customers to see displayed products clearly, the respondents indicated that the display motivates them to look at the products more critically and that the arrangement of products in the retail chain outlet helps them in the selection of product. Retailers should give greater attention to their visual merchandising displays and use of proper lighting in-store to ensure that the browsing time of consumers is increased. Visual merchandising displays and sight as atmospheric elements do have an influence on the emotions of

consumers which will further have an influence on their behaviour (Nell, 2017). An in-store display should offer customers a feeling of inspiration and problem-solving in relation to the private home (Hultén et al, 2009). Graphic information can have a positive impact on the customers' consideration of a possible purchase (Kahn & Deng, 2010).

3.2.3.4 Taste

A taste experience can include sensory expressions such as scent, sound, design or texture that build on the interplay and synergies between different senses (Hultén, 2011). This is illustrated in Figure 3.11.

Figure 3.11: Sense expressions and the taste experience



Source: Hultén et al. (2009)

Figure 3.11 shows that sensory expressions such as name, presentation, and setting, as well as knowledge, delight, and lifestyle, contribute to the taste experience of a brand's image (Hultén, 2011).

i. Interplay

Taste can lead towards building the image of the brand, as it is not only the actual quality of a product that matters. Taste is the sense that fuses all different senses together to create an holistic brand experience, but is also linked to emotional states, so it can alter mood and brand perception, the sense of smell can also give flavour to food (Hussain, 2015). The taste sense and the smell sense combine to produce a good taste experience (Hultén, 2011). For marketers, the ambition should be that customers associate a taste experience with a particular brand. As stated by Célier (2004), the four basic gustative sensations, sweet, sour,

bitter, and salty, are respectively linked by consumers to the red, green, blue, and yellow colours. Scholars, such as Lindstrom (2005), argued that it is practically impossible to taste something without smelling it. Marketers can customise produce according to regional tastes and preferences (Célier, 2004). In addition, marketers can give people the opportunity to taste and sample a product; this is used mostly for food and beverage brands (Garg et al., 2016).

ii. Presentation

Taste has the capacity to maximise the customer experience and satisfactory levels, signature taste can surely be an important aspect in attracting the customer (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015). Manufacturers thus launched innovative flavours during the course of 2015 (Euromonitor, 2016). KFC, with their unique recipe, has become the best chicken provider. What makes a dish truly memorable is the synergy that exists between the different elements of the 'whole sensory package' (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015). Food is an integral part of life, social interaction happens around the table, and food plays a vital role in tradition and ritual. A "signature dish" is a special dish which is available only in the service/product company and can have patent rights (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015).

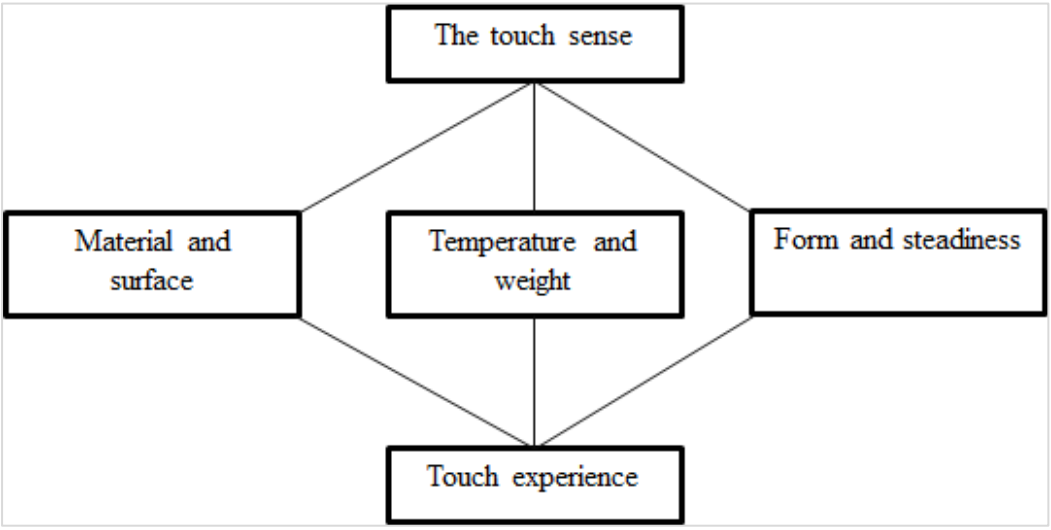
iii. Delight

Taste sense is now highly mastered and exploited by producers in order to adapt their products to regional preferences: e.g. German consumers like the sweet-salty mix, softly sour for the British one (Célier, 2004). Scientists now know that the four basic gustative sensations, sweet, sour, bitter and salty, are respectively linked by consumers to the red, green, blue and yellows colours (Célier, 2004). This might be important in the packaging design process of a product, for instance (Célier, 2004). Taste is particularly significant when talking about food products (Randhir et al., 2016).

3.2.3.5 Touch

A touch experience is facilitated through sense expressions and the touch experience. This is presented in Figure 3.12.

Figure 3.12: Sense expressions and the touch experience



Source: Hultén et al. (2009)

Figure 3.12 depicts that sensory expressions such as material and surface, temperature and weight, as well as form and stability, can facilitate the touch experience (Hultén, 2011). Although less marketing consideration has been given to the sense of touch, it is able to engage consumers greatly compared to other senses. According to Kumar (2014), the tactile sense improves the customer's brand experience by giving information about the brand's sensory value. According to Husain (2014), the touch experience plays a great role when it comes to packaging design, packaging can have a huge impact on our brand awareness. In addition, it is beneficial for retailers to let consumers touch and interact with products in retail settings (Grohmann, Spangenberg & Sprott, 2007).

i. Material

Displays can encourage touch and result in an interaction with products that customers would otherwise have ignored; this could increase instinctive and unforeseen purchases (Peck & Childers, 2008). Product packaging has many implications for multisensory customer experience as it can affect attention, perception of product as well as customer response (Krishna, Cian & Aydınoğlu, 2017). Garg et al. (2016) refer to touch as the ultimate experience as it considers physical and psychological interaction between the customer and

the product; it can be manipulated through materials, weight, softness, and comfort of the product.

ii. Temperature and weight

Consumers want to feel the different products before making a purchasing decision (Gobe, 2009). As stated by Krishna (2010), a touch experience can add positively to the perception of a product in situations where product-related information, such as the price or features, is left out. This is especially true in the car, apparel, electronics and food industries where the choice between the brands depends mostly on how the product physically feels (Mungania, 2016). Futhermore, Mungania, (2016) recommends that clothes store owners should ensure that they offer touch and feel possibilities in the stores and that the environment is conducive for longer and relaxed shopping among customers. Nagarjuna and Sudhakar (2015) mentioned that touch can create a tactile stimulation that creates a rewarding feeling of pleasure that activates our brain, impacting our feelings and behaviour. It is important for managers to develop appropriate strategies to enhance the target customers' brand love (Sarkar, 2011).

iii. Form

Touching products makes it easier to recall them merely by looking at them, touching products has also been shown to have a positive impact on shopper attitudes and purchase intention (Randhir et al., 2016). According to McCabe and Nowlis (2003), consumers preferred to select products from retailers who allowed their products to be touched, especially products for which tactile input is important for evaluation. One of the most important reasons why consumers do not use the Internet to make their product purchases relates to the lack of touch experience associated with the medium (Spence & Gallace, 2011). A positive touch experience can make customers believe the products are of good quality, durability, texture, shape, weight and temperature (Minh & Ly, 2015).

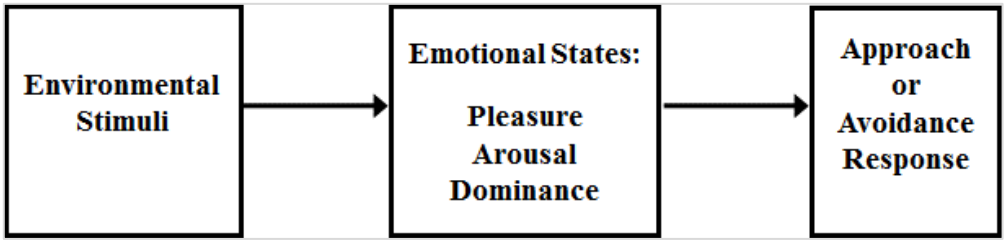
3.2.4 Stimulus-Organism-Response (SOR) Theory

Kotler (1973) introduced the term "atmospherics" – the impact of environmental sensory stimuli, such as sight, sound, smell, as well as touch, providing an implication that retailers can manipulate the store environment to generate consumers' positive emotions, which can increase the likelihood of purchasing. In line with Kotler's (1973) original definition of atmospherics, environmental psychologists Mehrabian and Russell (1974) presented a theoretical model for determining the effect of store environment on individuals' behaviour.

In their seminal work, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) conceptualised the SOR framework that explains the impact of environmental stimuli (S), which affect organisms (O) and result in approach or avoidance response (R) behaviours. Most past literature agrees on the three basic variables, except for some critiques who believe in two basic variables; stimuli (S) and response (R) (Daunt & Harris, 2012; Nigam, 2012; Wong, et al., 2012; Rose, Hair & Clark, 2011; Lin, 2004). In examining the brand-related stimulus, "stimuli" or environmental cues, are conceptualised as brand experience attributes, more specifically, the unidimensional scale thereof which includes sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual dimensions. "Organism" is described as the internal state, using the Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance scale to measure the affective and emotional state of consumers, as well as faith, love and credibility scales, which ultimately reflects upon the attitudinal state of consumers while engaging with energy drinks. Then finally, "response" is outlined by a potential positive consumer behavioural reaction: intent to repurchase an energy drink. In summary, the paradigm states that various environmental stimuli (e.g. colour, music, light, and scent) induce emotions (e.g. pleasure, arousal, and dominance) which in turn, influence approach-avoidance behaviours (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Environments can influence consumers' emotional states and shopping behaviour in the Stimulus-Organism-Response theory (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). The SOR has dominated consumer behaviour literature and has been widely employed in marketing studies (Liu, Guo & Liang, 2016; Peng & Kim, 2014; Lee & Johnson, 2010), with stimulus as an independent variable, organism as mediator, and response as the dependent variable. Most previous literature agrees on the three basic variables, except for Daunt and Harris, (2012), Wong et al. (2012), and Lin (2004), who argue that a stimulus and response relationship (without mediator) is also applicable.

The premise of the SOR framework is to stimulate consumers' emotions to obtain the desired responses from consumers, which may foster in-store purchasing behaviours, such as customer revisits, product searching, or other in-store behaviours (Chang, Chih, Liou & Hwang, 2014). Mehrabian and Russell's SOR (1974) theoretical framework is presented in Figure 3.13.

Figure 3.13: Stimulus-Organism-Response (SOR) Model



Source: Mehrabian & Russell (1974)

As depicted in Figure 3.13, the intervening variables are the three distinct emotional states: pleasure (P), arousal (A), and dominance (D), or PAD, which play a mediating role for approach or avoidance response to the environment (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). The Mehrabian and Russell (1974) SOR framework has been criticised, with various endeavours to modify the model (Desmet, 2010; Massara, Liu & Melara, 2010). As discussed earlier, most previous literature agrees on the three basic variables (SOR), except for Daunt and Harris (2012), Lin (2004), and Wong et al. (2012) who believe in two basic variables (S-R). Donovan and Rossiter (1982) were the first to apply the Mehrabian-Russell (1974) SOR model in a retail atmosphere on consumer decision making. When applied in a retail setting, the stimuli are operationalised as the atmospheric cues, organism as emotional and cognitive states of consumers, and response as approach/avoidance behaviours (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). According to Donovan, Rossiter, Marcoolyn and Nesdale (1994), the dominance dimension usually has been deleted in numerous studies using the M-R model (Ha & Lennon, 2010).

3.2.4.1 Stimuli: Environmental Stimuli

In the classical SOR model, stimulus is defined as "an influence that affects internal, organismic states of the individual" (Chang & Chen, 2008, p. 820). According to Sherman, Mathur and Smith (1997), in a consumer decision-making context, stimulus can be conceptualised as those external factors associated with a pending decision. In this study, the stimuli are the brand experience characteristics (sensory affective, behavioural and intellectual) as they affect the emotional responses of the consumer. Previous studies on the experience concept have considered brand-related stimuli (or clues) crucial in managing experiences that are evoked during the entire buying process (Berry, Carbone, & Haeckel,

2002). A number of studies, for instance, have identified how consumers react to stimuli such as retail cleanliness, music, lighting (Baker, Grewal & Parasuraman, 1992); merchandise cues, music, light, colour, display, staff that are knowledgeable, skilled and well dressed (Kumar & Kim, 2014; Mohan et al., 2013); sound (Wu, Fu, Huang, & Wang, 2010), mood, colour, music, sales staff and in-store behaviour (Osman, Ong, Othman & Khong, 2014); displays (Rompay, Tanja-Dijkstra, Verhoeven & Van Es, 2012; Mower, Kim & Childs, 2012); lighting, colour, music, scent, exterior store design (Sachdeva & Goel, 2015); in-store music, in-store aroma, merchandise quality, service quality and price (Walsh, Shiu, Hassan, Michaelidou & Beatty, 2011); layout and atmosphere (Wu, Lee, Fu & Wang, 2013); product, reference group, store attributes (Penz & Hogg, 2011).

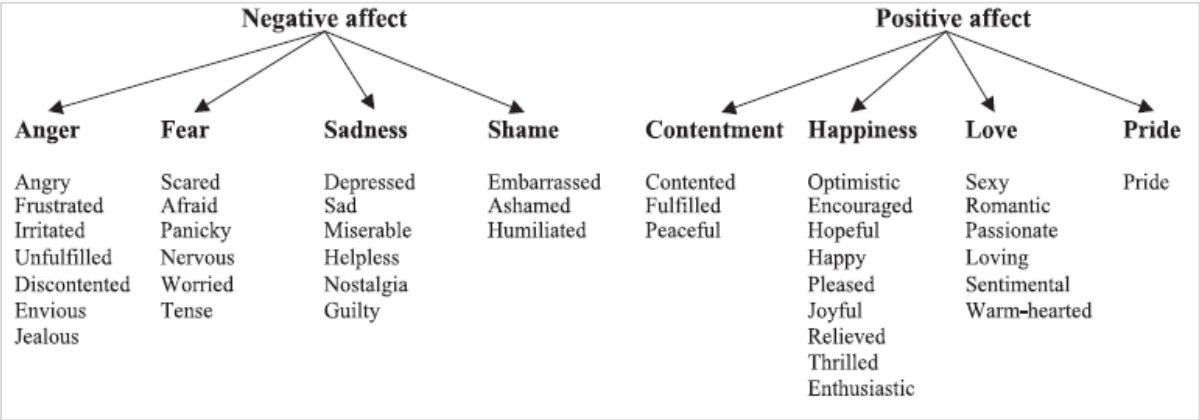
3.2.4.2 Organism: Emotions

The SOR paradigm suggests that feelings or emotions are the natural result of exposure to environment stimuli. "The organism is represented by cognitive and affective intermediary states and processes that mediate the relationships between the stimulus and the individual's responses" (Chang & Chen, 2008, p. 820). Mehrabian and Russell (1974) used the emotional state to mediate approach-avoidance behaviour in the environmental situation. This implies that the effect of stimulus on consumer behaviour is mediated by the emotional state of the consumer. Mehrabian and Russell (1974) conceptualised emotional states as pleasure–displeasure, arousal–nonarousal, and dominance–submissiveness. The original SOR model focused upon pleasure, arousal, and dominance (PAD). The consumer's emotional state serves as the organism, or intervening variable, in many consumer behaviour studies (Wu et al., 2013). Organism refers to the internal processes and structures intervening between stimuli external to the person and the final actions, reactions, or responses emitted (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Chang & Chen, 2008). For instance, a simulated fashion website study by Kim and Lennon (2010) included emotions such as pleasure and arousal as well as cognition: perceived information and risk. Also, an emotion like pleasure, attitude, atmospheric responsiveness (Manganari, Siomkos & Vrechopoulos, 2009), pleasure and arousal (Kim & Lennon, 2010), emotional arousal and attitude toward the website (Wu et al., 2013). Numerous studies have found the dominance (D) factor to be of little predictive value in various situations (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982), and was thus not included in this study's model.

As stated by Cardello, Meiselman, Schutz, Craig, Given, Lesher and Eicher (2012), researchers dealing with long lists of emotions have tried to find fewer and simpler dimensions that may underlie them. Positive and negative affect are frequently employed as general emotion dimensions (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). Consumers experience mainly positive emotions in response to food products (Gutjar, de Graaf, Kooijman, de Wijk, Nys, Ter Horst & Jager, 2015; Desmet & Schifferstein, 2008).

Previous studies attempted to report extended sets of words to describe emotional responses to breakfast juices (Gutjar et al., 2015), chocolate and potato chips (Cardello et al., 2012), as well as wine (Ferrarini, Carbognin, Casarotti, Nicolis, Nencini & Meneghini, 2010). It has also become increasingly important for marketers to realise that consumer choices are often motivated by intense, mixed, and opposing emotional states (Mileti et al., 2013), as consumers' emotions for brands are crucial when considering, purchasing or consuming products. Hirschman and Holbrook (1982), the first pioneers in introducing the notion of experience in the field of consumption and marketing, argued that emotions evoked by products enhance the pleasure of buying, owning and using them. According to Soscia (2013), emotions have a cognitive origin. Pauley (2015) argued that experiences that give rise to positive emotions and generate memorable mental imagery in potential customers are incredibly valuable to any brand. The hierarchy of consumer emotions is depicted in Figure 3.14.

Figure 3.14: Hierarchy of consumer emotions



Source: Laros & Steenkamp (2005)

Figure 3.14 shows that at the level of basic emotions, there are four positive emotions (contentment, happiness, love, and pride) and four negative emotions (sadness, fear, anger, and shame).

In this study, positive emotional responses refer to the consumer's positive feelings toward the brand experience and represent the affective aspect of the organism component as defined by Bagozzi (1986). The positive emotional response of this study (organism) is represented by brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand credibility and brand faith.

3.2.4.3 Response: Approach-Avoidance

According to the SOR, following the exposure to stimuli and the development of consumer inner organism, a responsive behaviour emerges. Response in the SOR paradigm represents the final outcomes, which can be the approach or avoidance behaviours of the consumer (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982; Chang & Chen, 2008). Approach behaviours, the focus of the study, represents the final positive actions of the consumer which might be directed towards a particular setting (Chang, Eckman & Yan, 2011). Repurchase intention in this study represents the approach aspect of the response component. Several responses were suggested for a retail environment by Donovan and Rossiter (1982) that represent Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) approach or avoidance response. For instance, intention to stay, browsing, and making purchases can be positive final actions by consumers (Chang et al., 2011). Example of this is Sherman et al.'s (1997) store environment study that indicated that consumers' emotional state (pleasure and arousal) positively influence the following responses, money spent, liking of store, number of items and time spent. Consumer emotions lead to various consumer response behaviours such as purchase intention (Kim & Lennon, 2013; Huang, 2012), behavioural intention (Jang & Namkung, 2009), impulse buying behaviour (Chang et al., 2011), revisit intention (Lam, Chan, Fong & Lo, 2011; Kim & Moon, 2009) and word-of-mouth behavioural intention (Joseph-Mathews, Bonn & Snepenger, 2009) and have all been explored. Davis, Wang and Lindridge (2008) highlighted that consumers' response to store environmental cues are different, depending on the culture.

It is also important to note that brand experience could be considered the same as the first component of the SOR model: environmental stimuli. In addition, the feature of repurchase intention in the current study is congruent with aspects of approach–avoidance behaviour, which is the third component of the M-R model. Therefore, the SOR model, which incorporates the concepts of the environment, emotions, and approach–avoidance behaviours, is used as a theoretical foundation for the current study.

3.2.5 Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) Theory

Psychologists, Mehrabian and Russell (1974) proposed a three-dimensional schema of basic emotional states: pleasure, arousal and dominance (PAD). Based on their theory, Pleasure–displeasure dimension refers to the degree to which the person feels good, joyful, happy, or satisfied in the resulting situation; arousal–nonarousal refers to the degree to which a person feels excited, stimulated, alert or active in a specific situation; and dominance–submissiveness refers to the extent to which the individual feels in control of or free to act in a particular situation. These three emotional states mediate approach–avoidance behaviours in a wide range of environments. The three situational descriptors of emotions are suitable for this study as it was designed to capture emotional responses to environmental stimuli. The core of this theory being that product or environmental stimuli can influence people through their emotional impact. In marketing, PAD has been successfully employed to measure emotional responses to a wide variety of stimuli (e.g. retail settings, advertising responses, as well as product-consumption experiences (Kulviwat et al., 2014).

According to Hosany and Gilbert (2010), the PAD scale is a well-liked measure amongst researchers which determines the impact of emotional experiences on shopping behaviours such as repurchase intention and satisfaction. Empirical literature has confirmed that emotions mediate between stimuli and consumer behavioural intentions (Jang & Namkung, 2009). Donovan and Rossiter (1982) alternatively applied an abbreviated version of the PAD scale to retailing research; their findings indicated that pleasure and arousal were enough to represent emotional responses to a broad range of environments and shopping behaviours were not a related measure of Dominance. Pleasure and Arousal have since been referred to as the bi-dimensional character of emotions in recent marketing research (Walsh et al., 2011; Kim & Lennon, 2010). Both pleasure and arousal influence purchase behaviour. According to Sachdeva and Goel (2015), perceptions of pleasantness and arousal are important in consumer evaluations of physical and non-physical store elements. Petzer, Mostert, Kruger and Kuhn (2014) refer to PAD as three dimensions of brand romance dimensions, thereby categorising them as brand pleasure, brand arousal and brand dominance.

According to Sachdeva and Goel (2015), the manner in which these emotional states of PAD are combined determines whether a consumer approaches or avoids an environment such as a retail store. Consumers' positive emotions (i.e. pleasure, arousal, and dominance) increase their store preference (Cho & Lee, 2017). The Mehrabian and Russell (PAD) theory is based

on a scale that integrates three (3) independent emotions consisting of sixteen items that capture information concerning pleasure, arousal and dominance dimensions, as depicted in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) Framework

Factors	Components (Factor Loading Values)
Pleasure	Happy – Unhappy Pleased – Annoyed Satisfied – Unsatisfied Contented – Melancholic Hopeful – Despairing Relaxed – Bored
Arousal	Stimulated – Relaxed Excited – Calm Frenzied – Sluggish Jittery – Dull Wide awake – Sleepy Aroused – Unaroused
Dominance	In control – Cared for Controlling – Controlled Dominant – Submissive Influential – Influenced Important – Awed

Source: Mehrabian and Russell (1974)

Table 3.2 shows elements of the PAD scale which has wide-ranging bipolar applications to assess consumer reactions towards products, services, and shopping environments. This measurement scale presents a more accurate way of assessing emotions in response to product, services and shopping atmosphere (Rais, Musa & Muda, 2016). The PAD typology has been criticised for the narrow scope of its internal states responses (Eroglu, Machleit & Davis, 2001). Studies that were designed to test the PAD model have found that the pleasantness and arousal dimensions described well the affective space evoked by environments, while dominance was found to be of little predictive value in similar situations (Cheng, Wu & Yen, 2009). Thus, more recent summaries of the model define two rather than three basic dimensions: pleasantness and arousal. Accordingly, the dominance factor was not included in the current study.

3.2.5.1 Pleasure

Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) pleasure dimension refers to the affective state of feeling good, happy, blessed, satisfied, pleased or joyful in a situation (Chang et al., 2014; Eroglu, Machleit & Davis, 2003). According to Mehrabian and Russell (1974), pleasure relates to the consumers entertainment and enjoyment value derived from that experience. As highlighted by Vermaak and De Klerk (2017), pleasure is the easiest dimension to identify as it is part of whether an item or environment is liked or disliked. Pine and Gilmore (1998) pointed out that factors such as music and sound, lighting and colour, and aroma help create the sensory impressions that underlie experiences. Dunn, Gilbert and Wilson (2011) argued that happiness can stem from consumption based on research on money, income and spending habits, although most of the research on pleasure has also been more concerned with general life satisfaction and happiness than with particular product choices or consumption episodes. According to Morrison, Gan, Dubelaar and Oppewal (2011), greater levels of pleasure tend to be associated with higher amounts of money.

According to Alba and Williams (2013), consumers can serve as "moderators" of pleasure through their reactions to product experiences. There are many features of products that consumers find to be psychologically pleasurable, including the style put into a product and even what a product's basic essence is perceived to be with regard to its purity and authenticity (Alba & Williams, 2013). Firms can increase customer excitement or delight by promoting aesthetic and other hedonic qualities of their products (Townsend & Shu, 2010; Hagtvedt & Patrick, 2008). According to Noseworthy and Trudel (2011), consumers prefer aesthetically more interesting designs when they are confident about a product's functional utility. In accordance with Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) model, the sub-scale directed at measuring arousal includes the items "happy-unhappy"; "pleased-annoyed"; "satisfied-unsatisfied"; "contented-melancholic"; "hopeful-despairing"; "relaxed-bored". In this study, just like Kulviwat et al. (2014), these are evaluated using a Likert scale items anchored by 1= Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

3.2.5.2 Arousal

Mehrabian and Russell (1974) indicated that arousal is about stimulating the consumer so that they have a deeper, more meaningful engagement with the environment. Arousal has also been referred to as the degree of stimulation caused by an atmosphere, as stimuli are expected to correlate positively with arousal (Porat & Tractinsky, 2012). Arousal can be seen as a state

that ranges from being frantic with excitement to sleeping, (Vermaak & De Klerk, 2017). In a study conducted by Chung et al. (2015), motorsports spectators' arousal was significantly influenced by sights, sounds and smells. Previous study by Morrison et al. (2011) in a retail fashion store focusing on female youth, indicated that arousal induced by music and aroma results in increased pleasure levels, which in turn, positively influence shopper behaviours; their study also confirmed that arousal increases purchasing intention, as well as money spent in store and time spent in store. In accordance with Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) model, the sub-scale directed at measuring arousal includes the items "stimulated – relaxed"; "excited – calm"; "frenzied – sluggish"; "jittery – dull"; "wide awake – sleepy"; "aroused – unaroused".

3.2.5.3 Dominance

According to Vermaak and De Klerk (2017), dominance has to do with the consumer feeling that she is in control of the circumstances. Empirical evidence indicates that the more interaction that is provided to a consumer, the more command that consumer will feel over the experience (Zimmerman, 2012). As consumers have become more and more individualised in their desire for customisation, the dominance dimension has become a powerful tool in experience, especially in the online shopping experience (Zimmerman, 2012), often meaning that the more control consumers have over the entire shopping experience leading up to the transaction point, the more confident consumers will feel in the purchasing decision, although numerous emotional state studies have excluded the dominance dimension (De Nisco & Warnaby, 2014; Wu, et al., 2013; Walsh et al., 2011).

Broekens (2012) has criticised studies that have excluded the dimension of dominance when modelling or measuring effect, stating that if a customer feels dominant, this means they feel in control and/or powerful and/or not overwhelmed. Dominance (D), which is known to play the weakest role in the approach–avoidance decision (Russell & Pratt, 1980), has been inconsistently portrayed in prior research. Russell and Pratt (1980) argued that dominance is not purely an emotional response, because it requires cognitive interpretation, and they dropped dominance from their PAD model.

In conclusion, this study adopts the PAD paradigm with two dimensions: (pleasure and arousal) rather than three dimensions (pleasure, arousal and dominance) of emotional states.

The reasons are as follows; dominance does not appear to influence consumer behaviours in commercial settings (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982); they found that shopping measures were not related to measures of dominance. Furthermore, studies that tested the model found that pleasure and arousal dimensions underlie any affective responses to any environments, whereas dominance did not have a significant effect on approach or avoidance behaviours (Ryu & Jang, 2007). Donovan et al. (1994) mentioned that the dominance dimension is often omitted in research that uses the SOR paradigm because of a lack of empirical support. The PAD paradigm has been implemented frequently in the study of the environmental or consumer inputs on emotions (Li, Dong & Chen, 2012; Björk, 2010).

3.3 Empirical Literature

This section provides a discussion on the empirical literature of the study. The following variables are covered: brand experience, brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand faith, brand credibility and repurchase intention.

3.3.1 Brand Experience

Brand experience is derived from the Experiential Branding theory (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999) as well as the Multisensory experience theory (Hultén, 2011). Customers are looking for experiences in the brands that they enjoy every day. Chief Design Officer of Pepsi, Mauro Porcini, states that "consumers are not interested in individual products, rather in the experiences around those products" (Cooper, 2016, p. 1). Research on brand experience has therefore gained much importance in recent years as marketing practitioners have come to realise that understanding how consumers experience brands is critical for developing marketing strategies (Bapat & Thanigan, 2016; Yasin & Shamim, 2013). The customer's perception of a brand is related to customer experience (Cliffe & Motion, 2004). ''Marketing and external communications help to build the brand, but nothing is more powerful than the customer's actual experience'' (Berry, 2000, p. 136). Brand experience can be positive or negative, short-lived, or long-lasting (Sahin, Zehir & Kitapçı, 2012). When the experience is positive, it results in positive brand evaluation, it is therefore important for a company to develop the right brand experience. Zemke (1999) pointed out that a customer who has encountered a bad experience may tell 10 to 20 people. Brand experiences offer an opportunity to bring a brands personality to life and appeal to the participant's desires and aspirations (Smilansky, 2018).

Brand experience is not an emotional relationship concept but may result in emotional bonds with the brand (Brakus et al., 2009). Brand experiences arising out of contact with brands have a substantial impact on consumer behaviour (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009). Providing superior brand experience is essential to differentiate a brand from competitor brands, as it is the unique and memorable experience that becomes the distinguishing feature of a brand (Khan & Rahman, 2016; Lee & Jeong, 2014; Miao & Mattila, 2013). Although consumption is a critical part of the brand experience in fast moving consumer goods (FMCG), findings by Keinonen (2016) indicate that FMCG brands can create experiences without consumption. The concept of "experience" has been explored in the context of consumption experience in marketing (Hirschman & Holbrook 1982).

Pine and Gilmore (1998) argue that creating distinctive customer experiences can provide enormous economic value for firms. There is also a realisation that brands, which provide a greater experience to customers, thrive in the marketplace (Bapat & Thanigan, 2016). The consequences of brand experience include enhancement of consumers' behavioural intentions. Pine and Gilmore (2008) have urged marketers to create authentic brands and places, where consumers can anticipate and experience products as they actually are. Unfavourable brand experiences have been proven to lead to negative emotions such as anger, disappointment and are likely related to dissatisfaction responses, including complaining, negative word-of-mouth, and switching (Mattila & Ro, 2008). Brand experience has influenced consumer preferential treatment towards a brand (Shamim & Butt, 2013; Iglesias et al., 2011; Schmitt, 1999). This has resulted in consumers storing long lasting experiences that affects consumer decision making (Brakus et al., 2009). Schmitt (2011) highlights that being able to memorise an experience is one of the characteristics of an experience. In this study, the research is conducted using variables of experiential marketing that are sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural as expressed by Brakus et al. (2009).

3.3.1.1 Definition of Brand Experience

Brakus et al. (2009, p. 53) defined brand experience as "subjective internal consumer responses (sensations, feelings, cognitions and behavioural) evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications, and environments". Alloza (2008) defines brand experience as the perception of the consumers, at every moment of contact they have with the brand, whether it is in the brand images projected in advertising, during the first personal contact, or the level of quality concerning

the personal treatment they receive. Gentile et al. (2007) defined brand experience as customer experience with the product or company that is established through the customer's personal relationship with the product or company itself. Similarly, Rodrigues and Ferreira (2016) defined brand experience as the consumers' perception that builds a particular consumer universe where the brand lives, beyond the functional differentiation, also stimulating emotional differentiation, engaging consumers, encouraging longer-lasting and deeper relationships. Brand experience is defined from the point of view of consumers; whereas experiential marketing is from the point of view of marketers (Ding & Tseng, 2015). It is also important to note the definition of multi-sensory brand experience. As stated by Hultén et al. (2009), multi-sensory brand-experience takes place when more than one of the five senses contribute to the perception of sensory experiences. Furthermore, multi-sensory brand-experience supports individual value creation and refers to how individuals react when a firm interacts, and supports their purchase and consumption processes through the involvement of the five human senses in generating customer value, experiences, and brand as image (Hultén et al., 2009). For the purpose of the present study, Brakus et al.'s (2009) definition of brand experience is used.

3.3.1.2 Related Studies on Brand Experience

Brand experience has been studied in various contexts, for instance, Iglesias et al. (2011) verified brand experience dimensions for products such as cars, laptops and sneakers, and explained their impact on brand loyalty through affective commitment. In another study, Ishida and Taylor (2012) investigated the brand experience construct in retailing and verified three brand experience dimensions (sensory, behavioural and affective), and also suggested exploration of additional experiential attributes from retailing literature. Ding and Tseng (2015) likewise, studied the relationship among brand experience, hedonic emotions, and brand equity. The results of the study indicate that brand awareness/associations, perceived quality and hedonic emotions mediate the relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty, and they found that hedonic emotions play a powerful mediation role. Shamim and Butt (2013) collected data from 400 users of mobile handsets; they found that brand experience can directly and indirectly influence customer's brand attitude, brand credibility, purchase intention and customer-based brand equity. Kang, Boger, Back and Madera (2011) conducted a study amongst spa goers, they examined the relationships among environmental sensory components (i.e., sight, sound, smell, and touch), consumer emotions, and consumer

behavioural intentions in a spa context by applying the Mehrabian-Russell Stimuli-Organism-Response model. Kang et al. (2011) found that sight and touch had significant impacts on pleasure of emotion, and sound had a direct impact on customer behavioural intention. In addition, they also found that pleasure had a significant influence on customer behavioural intentions. It is therefore clear that marketers need to understand how to create and manage their sensory environmental resources to affect customer's emotion and behavioural intentions.

In Karjaluoto, Munnukka and Kiuru's (2016) study, experience and price were used as moderating effects, their research aimed to test and extend Carroll and Ahuvia's (2006) model on the antecedents and outcomes of brand love by examining the moderating effects of experience and price on the relationship between brand love and offline WOM and between brand love and electronic WOM (eWOM). The study's findings suggest positive associations between brand love and both types of WOM. Furthermore, Karjalotoo et al. (2016) noted that experience and price strengthen the relationship between brand love and offline WOM but not the relationship between brand love and eWOM. Sahin et al. (2012) investigated the effects of brand experiences, trust and satisfaction on building brand loyalty. They propose the effects of brand experiences to build long-lasting brand and customer relationship with brand trust, satisfaction, and loyalty. Ave et al. (2015) examined the effectiveness of using experiential marketing as a way of influencing consumers' purchase intentions in coffee shops, and concluded that scent and sight are predictors of purchase intention among Generation Y consumers in South Africa, as such, retailers can benefit from creating pleasurable experiences through sensory branding. Zarantonello and Schmitt's (2013) study reveals that brand experience, an antecedent of brand attitude, mediates the relationship between pre-event and post-event brand equity in all types of events (trade shows, street events, pop-up shops and sponsored events), they found that event attendance has a positive impact on brand equity. In their study, several different types of consumer events were included. The specific list of events selected included: a city marathon sponsored by Gatorade; a trade fair where Nokia had its own stand; three street events, two organised by Red Bull and one by Nokia; two pop-up shops, one by Fiat and the other one associated with a Nestlé brand. Brand experience represents an important outcome of event attendance because attending an event allows consumers to deal with brands directly and interactively (Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2013). While Brakus et al. (2009) do not explicitly refer to event marketing when listing the different 'brand-related stimuli' that can evoke a brand

experience, event marketing must be considered a tool that companies can use to generate a brand experience because events are part of the broad category of communications (Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2013).

Dolbec and Chebat's (2013) study provides retail marketers with avenues to offer increased in-store brand experiences by appealing to consumers' emotions, senses, behaviours, and cognition. They investigated the relationships between store image, brand experience, brand attitude, brand attachment and brand equity using store intercept. The study found that flagship stores, due to the powerful brand experiences they allow, have a stronger impact on brand attitude, brand attachment and brand equity compared to brand stores. Garg et al. (2015) identified a gap in understanding the relationship between brand experience and brand love; they highlighted that existing literature by Roy, Eshghi and Sarkar (2013) only investigated the relationship between affective experience and brand love. They pointed out the need to study brand experience with the inclusion of the other dimensions such as behavioural experience, intellectual experience, and sensory experience in relation to brand love.

3.3.1.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Experience

Brand experience is a multidimensional construct reflected by sensory, affective, cognitive and behavioural responses to brand-related stimuli (Brakus et al., 2009). The four dimensions of brand experience impact one another and brand experience should be viewed holistically, rather than being perceived as being formed of four individual dimensions. Brakus et al. (2009) constructed a scale with the intention to measure experiences. The sensory dimension of brand experience focuses on consumers' senses of vision, hearing, smell, taste, and touch that are presented by a brand (Brakus et al., 2009). The affective dimension refers to consumers' emotions and inner feelings towards the brand (Brakus et al., 2009). The cognitive dimension focuses on a consumers creative thinking (Brakus et al., 2009). The behavioural dimension focuses on customers physical experiences (Brakus et al., 2009). Brands offer affective, intellectual, behavioural, and sensory experiences through brand-related stimuli such as colours, shapes, slogans, logo, name, packaging, and marketing communication (Garg et al., 2015). According to Schmitt (1999), experiential marketing focuses on customer experiences, these customer experiences occur as a result of encountering, undergoing or living through things. Furthermore, Schmitt (1999) proposed five strategic experiential modules (SEMs) – to sense, to feel, to think, to act and to relate for experiential marketing.

Sensory marketing has revealed the importance of stimulating all the senses - sight, hearing, taste, smell and touch - in order to boost consumption experiences with products and services, which influence consumer perception and behaviour (Hultén et al., 2009; Krishna, 2010). Moreira et al. (2017) argue that brands have a huge advantage in using a multisensory stimulation approach, due to the positive effects it has on their customers' brand experience. Hultén (2011) has highlighted the power of sensory strategies influencing brand experience. This was also established by other researchers (Cleff, Lin & Walters, 2014; Gentile et al., 2007). It is evident that the sensory dimension strongly influences other dimensions.

The second variable, brand pleasure, is derived from the PAD theory (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974) and later adapted to a retail setting by Donovan and Rossiter (1982). Positive emotions (pleasure and arousal) enable consumers to make decisions quickly, thereby reducing the complexity of decision making, positive emotions could also be the outcome of a successful consumption/buying experience as consumers may feel energised after a successful shopping exercise (Saran, Roy & Sethuraman, 2016). Jang and Namkung (2009) describe pleasure as an effectual reaction indicating whether consumers find the environment enjoyable or not. Emotions (pleasure and arousal) strongly influence impulse buying behaviour (Beatty & Ferrell, 1998). Pleasure is considered to be a major attitudinal outcome and an antecedent of success (De Wulf, Schillewaert, Muylle & Rangarajan, 2006).

Sedikides, Wildschut and Baden (2004) note that when people have positive feelings about past memories, they tend to glorify the past memories. Alba and Williams (2013) classified the sources and determinants of pleasure into the following two viewpoints, namely, pleasure derived from the product and pleasure gained from person-product interaction. In their study, Alba and Williams (2013) focused on when, how and why consumers find pleasure in the products and events they experience. In this study, the empirical data comprises products in the energy drinks category, and utilises Alba and Williams' (2013) concept. Pleasure (P) in a store is known to create willingness to purchase and is considered to be the most significant factor among PAD in increasing approach behaviour (Cho & Lee, 2017). Numerous scholars (Essawy, 2017; Eroglu et al., 2003) showed that positive emotions (pleasure, arousal and dominance) have strong positive effects on both satisfaction and approach/ avoidance behaviours in the context of retail websites.

3.3.1.4 Definition of Brand Pleasure

The term 'pleasure' is defined as the degree to which a person feels good, happy, contented, or joyful in a certain situation, (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Mehrabian and Russell (1974) conceived pleasure as a continuum ranging from extreme pain or unhappiness to extreme happiness and used adjectives such as happy-unhappy, pleased-annoyed, and satisfied-unsatisfied to define a person's level of pleasure. According to Donovan and Rossiter (1982, p. 38) pleasure-displeasure refers to "the degree to which the person feels good, joyful, happy, or satisfied in the situation". Jang, Liu and Namkung (2011) refer to pleasure as the affective state of feeling good, happy, pleased, or joyful, while Chang et al. (2014) refer to pleasure as the degree to which a person feels good, happy, blessed, or satisfied. For the purpose of the present study, Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) definition of brand pleasure is used.

3.3.1.5 Related studies on Brand Pleasure

Ryu and Jang (2007) investigated the effects of atmospherics in upscale restaurants. Their results indicated that while both pleasure and arousal significantly affected behavioural intentions, pleasure had a stronger influence than arousal. Based on the SOR framework, physical stimuli such as colour, aroma, music, and illumination stimulate sensations such as pleasure, arousal, and dominance (Prashar, Vijay & Parsad, 2017). Similarly, Petzer et al. (2014) examined the impact of brand pleasure, brand arousal and brand dominance on brand loyalty; their results indicated that respondents' cell phone brands generate brand pleasure and brand arousal, but that these brands are not dominant in their minds. The three underlying dimensions of brand romance are statistically significant predictors of brand loyalty, with brand arousal being the best predictor of loyalty. In investigating how authentic atmospherics affects consumer emotions and behavioural intentions in Chinese restaurants in the USA, Jang et al. (2011) found that authentic atmospherics significantly influence consumers' positive and negative emotions. The authentic atmospherics include Chinese-style furnishing, Chinese-painting, Chinese-style table setting, Chinese-music, Chinese-menu design while positive emotions include pleasure, excitement, contentment, refreshment, interest, and relaxation and behavioural intentions include repeat purchase, recommendation, positive word-of-mouth. A total of 348 usable responses from full table service restaurants in the USA were obtained via self-administered questionnaires. De Wulf et al. (2006) point out that the content, organisation, and technology features of web sites were significantly related to pleasure. Koo and Ju's (2010) study was dominated by Generation Y respondents; their

study adopted the SOR framework and tested the effect of atmospheric cues of online stores on the intervening affective emotional states of consumers, which have a subsequent impact on behavioural intention. Their study confirmed that online atmospherics such as graphics, colours, and links have an impact on customer emotions such as pleasure and arousal, both of which have subsequent effects on intention. Similarly, Wu, Cheng and Yen's (2008) research shows that, in the retail context, colours that induce more relaxed feeling states (i.e. cool colours) lead to greater perceived satisfaction. Song et al. (2015) conducted an on-site survey with domestic visitors (Korean) at the Yeosu Expo. Their research shows that SE, AC and RE are the main factors that influence positive emotions (i.e. pleasure, arousal and dominance). However, FE and TH did not significantly influence PAD. The findings of the study suggested that the mega event organisers need to focus on stimulating visitors' senses (e.g. unique and surprising visual shows, music and food), facilitating active participations through various event programmes, relating each visitor to other visitors and providing the messages of the Expo related to visitors' lifestyle.

According to Jain and Bagdare (2011), ambient factors in a service environment include, but are not limited to music, light, colour, scent, air quality, furnishings and layout. Cheng, Wu and Yen (2009) state that both music and colour reveal significant effects on respondents' emotional responses (pleasure and arousal). Fast-tempo and high-volume music increase people's arousal levels which then lead people to walk faster and to talk and eat more quickly in restaurants (Milliman, 1986) because people tend to adjust their pace, either voluntarily or involuntarily, to match with the tempo of music. Likewise, low tempo and low volume music tend to have the opposite effect on arousal and thus lead the shoppers to walk less rapidly and hence, increased their level of impulse purchases (Cheng, Wu & Yen, 2009). Guilford and Smith (1959) argued that brighter and more saturated colours enhance greater pleasure, while colour researchers, Bellizzi and Hite (1992), reasoned that colour effects are more strongly linked to pleasure than they are to arousal and dominance. Zollinger (1999) also reported that cool colours are associated with happiness. Cho and Lee (2017) argue that consumers' positive emotions (pleasure, arousal, and dominance) will increase their store preference.

3.3.1.6 The Conceptualisation of Brand Pleasure

Pleasure has a six-item semantic differential verbal assessment of pleasure response to measure individuals' pleasure levels (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). This concept is usually measured with items such as happy/unhappy, pleased/annoyed, and contented/melancholic.

Ltifi and Gharbi (2015) pointed out that consumers no longer wish to be satisfied, but to be happier. Scholars have argued that happiness may result from consumers' experiences with sensory brand clues, social brand systems and the overall system of brands in a particular society, thus developing a research framework for further research into brand related happiness (Schmitt et al., 2014). Furthermore, limited empirical research continues to lead to an abundance of critiques. According to research, emotions such as happiness have a powerful influence on choice (Mogilner, Aaker & Kamvar, 2012); further research has indicated that the happiness of the cyber customer is directly and positively related to online buying intentions (Khelil, Othmani & Bouslama, 2015). Consumers seek happiness and they get happiness primarily from experiences (Schmitt et al., 2014). Researchers, such as Das (2013), have measured pleasure variables using five indicators on a five-point scale of agreement, where 1 stands for strongly disagree and 5 stands for strongly agree with happy, contented, pleasant, hopeful and relaxed.

3.3.2 Brand Arousal

Similar to brand pleasure, the third variable, brand arousal, is derived from the PAD theory by Mehrabian and Russell (1974). It was later adapted to a retail setting by Donovan and Rossiter (1982). Jang and Namkung (2009) state that arousal indicates how much the environment stimulates the consumers. Arousal among young consumers plays a key role in buying decisions; therefore arousal-driven strategy would be beneficial for a company to derive a long-term profit optimisation strategy over the period. Marketers need to generate consumer arousal and develop appropriate point-of-sales strategies for stimulating buying decisions. Rajagopal (2009) recommends that managers of retailing firms should develop arousal led sales with affordable products for young consumers. Arousal could be promoted through integrated marketing communication and exploring opportunities to develop relationships with young consumers (Rajagopal, 2009).

Rajagopal (2009) emphasises major factors that affect shopping arousal among young consumers in reference to recreational facilities and location of the store, shopping behaviour, and store loyalty, which are influenced by product attributes and services, brand value, perceived values, and price. These factors can improve the performance of retailing and increase sales. Perceived store luxury will enhance arousal, the emotion of arousal involves a mentally awake status—excitement rather than calm, aroused rather than unaroused, and wide awake rather than sleepy (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Arousal creates a positive

desire to interact with the store environment and increases the likelihood of return visits to the same environment (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982) as well as raising purchase intention and spending (Sherman et al., 1997). Arousal also increases willingness to approach a pleasant environment, but this decreases with unpleasant environments (Cho & Lee, 2017; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982).

3.3.2.1 Definition of Brand Arousal

The term 'arousal' is defined as the degree to which a person feels excited, alert, stimulated, awake, or active (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Mehrabian and Russell (1974) conceived arousal as a mental activity describing the state of feeling along a single dimension ranging from sleep to frantic excitement and linked to adjectives such as stimulated-relaxed, excited-calm and wide awake-sleepy to define arousal. As stated by Donovan and Rossiter (1982, p. 38) arousal-nonarousal refers to "the degree to which a person feels excited, stimulated, alert, or active in the situation". Arousal refers to the extent an individual feels stimulated, excited, alert, or active (Jang et al., 2011). Arousal is defined as a physiological or psychological (perceived) state of being excited or activated (Jeong & Biocca, 2012). For the purpose of the present study, Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) definition of brand arousal is used.

3.3.2.2 Related Studies on Brand Arousal

Retailers need to pay attention not only to the pleasantness of the store environment, but also to arousal-level expectations of young consumers (Wirtz, Mattila & Tan, 2007). They need to vigilantly manage the quality of arousal by developing adequate customer involvement in the buying process of young consumers (Mirand, Konya & Havira, 2005). An earlier article published in the Harvard Business Review discussed the fundamental factors of arousing young consumers, the scholars Quelch and Cannon-Bonventre (1983) highlighted that retailers may address the various interests of consumers through effective displays, designing appropriate retail ergonomics, easily identifiable packaging, making shopping exciting, and focusing in-store advertising to enhance the arousal of young consumers. Spangenberg, Crowley and Henderson (1996) performed a pre-test to determine the affective and arousing quality of five scent categories (i.e., floral, spices, woods, citrus, and mints). They found that scents in the citrus and mint categories were evaluated as more pleasant and arousing than other fragrances. Moreover, lemon was found to be the most pleasant scent (Spangenberg et al., 1996).

Chung et al. (2015) investigated the effects of sensory stimuli on motorsports spectators. The study examined how sensory stimuli from a live racing event affects spectators' intentions to revisit the event. Spectator's arousal was significantly influenced by sights, sounds and smells. Spectator's arousal had a significant indirect effect on their revisit intention. The study proposes that motorsports marketers make use of olfactory stimuli to provide racing spectators with memorable experiences. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to spectators at the 2010 Formula One Korean Grand Prix, and Structural Equation Modelling was used to test a proposed model that consisted of several correlations and causal relationships, including mediating effects among latent factors. Hui, Dube and Chebat (1997) found that music caused consumers to be more patient while waiting for service. Music is used as an environmental stimulus in many service settings including banks, medical clinics, hotels, restaurants, bars, and many other services to create a specific mood and influence the customers' image of the organisation (Lin, 2003). Previous studies of colour and arousal, which have used a small sampling of colours, are consistent in showing red to be more arousing than green (Lin, 2003). As noted by Raajpoot, Jackson and Lefebvre (2013), arousal mediates the relationship between similarities among customers in retail mall settings and repurchase intention.

A study by Das (2013) aimed at exploring the effect of pleasure and arousal on satisfaction and WOM. The results indicated that pleasure positively influences satisfaction, while arousal had a negative impact on satisfaction. Participants of this study included customers above 18 years from both public and private sector banks. It may therefore be noted that in the banking industry, arousal does not play any significant positive role in satisfaction opinion, while, pleasure can be viewed as an important antecedent of satisfaction in banking services. Bankers should therefore focus on customers' pleasure as a strategy in order to sustain their business in the competitive and growing market. Hyun, Kim and Lee (2011) collected data from chain restaurant patrons; they discovered that four dimensions of advertising (i.e. relevant news, stimulation, empathy, and familiarity) have an impact on inducing an emotional response from patrons. They found out that advertising-induced emotional responses positively influence patrons' perceived value. They also established that the level of arousal induced by advertising plays a moderating role in the relationship between patrons' emotional responses and hedonic value. As noted by Rajagopal (2007), leisure shopping attractions begin in September and rise to a peak during November-December, thus augmenting the consumer's opportunities to make impulsive and arousal-led

buying items for both gifts and personal use. During this period, shopping arousal tends to increase about 4.5% of sales on toys, video games and sports products per person for each day during the Christmas season. The difference between arousal-led shopping and regular shopping is 22.4% additional spending over regular spending on average (Rajagopal, 2007). Petzer et al. (2014) found that with respect to brand romance, respondents' current cell phone brands generate brand pleasure and brand arousal. Similarly, Sarker (2011) found that the three dimensions of brand romance, namely pleasure, arousal and dominance, predict brand loyalty; they suggested that cell phone marketers should attempt to increase consumers' brand romance to develop a brand loyal customer base.

3.3.2.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Arousal

Arousal has a six-item semantic differential verbal assessment of arousal response to measure individuals' arousal level (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). This concept is usually measured with items such as stimulated – relaxed, excited – calm, frenzied – sluggish, jittery – dull, wide awake – sleepy, aroused – unaroused. Researchers, such as Das (2013), have measured arousal variables using five indicators on a five-point scale of agreement, where 1 stands for strongly disagree and 5 stands for strongly agree with stimulated, excited, frenzied, waken and jittery.

3.3.3 Brand Love

Fourthly, brand love has been derived from the social exchange theory (SET) (Foa & Foa, 1974). The SET describes the mechanism for relationship building which involves a series of interdependent interactions between exchange partners (Blau, 1964). Numerous researchers consider love as a prototypical, basic emotion (Langner et al., 2015; Batra, Ahuvia, and Bagozzi, 2012; Rossiter, 2011). Brand love is emerging as a central outcome in brand management (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010), playing a strategic role as "a means of building sustainable consumer–brand relationships that may offer lucrative marketing opportunities" (Kohli, Melewar & Yen, 2014, p. 383). Brand love goes beyond brand attachment (Thomson, MacInnis & Park, 2005). Fournier (1998) includes love as one of the core elements of consumers' brand relationships. Brand love has been shown to influence important marketing variables such as repurchase intention, purchase intention, impulse buying, price sensitivity, recommend brand to others, resistance to competitive products, resistance to negative information about the brand, positive word-of-mouth, brand image, brand trust, brand commitment, brand loyalty, and willingness to pay a price premium

(Hegner, Fenko & ter Avest, 2017; Albert & Merunka, 2013; Yasin & Shamim, 2013; Batra, Ahuvia & Bagozzi, 2012; Loureiro, Ruediger & Demetris, 2012; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). The brand that invests in building brand love may reap benefits in the long term. Brand love has also been considered in relation to volume-based sales metrics. Rossiter and Bellman (2012) previously examined the relationship between brand love and personal purchases of the brand or "share of requirements". As discussed earlier, consumers are making their choices based on experiential factors that a brand offers (Brakus et al., 2009). These experiences with a brand create an emotional bond between the consumer and the brand in the form of brand love (Garg et al., 2015). Jamal Benmiloud, formerly leading the marketing team at the energy drink Monster, states that Monster was able to outsell Red Bull only because they focused on earning brand love from their consumers, rather than aiming for everyone to just be aware of the brand, they built a marketing team of millions (Brown, Benmiloud & O'Shannessey, 2015).

Brand love is an intense and positive emotional connection that develops over time, leads to passion-driven behaviours, and can be strengthened when the self is closely connected to the brand (Kwon & Mattila, 2015). Realising the power of brand love, many hospitality firms such as Starbucks explicitly use brand love in their marketing communications (Kwon & Mattila, 2015). Following Aaker's (1996) statement that consumers usually associate a brand with human personality traits, Fournier (1998) mentioned that this acts as a basis for building a relationship with the brand. As stated by Alnawas and Altarifi (2016), a consumer can form and develop a loving relationship with a brand, as if it were with another person. Other studies have demonstrated that consumers can actually experience a feeling of love for their brand (Batra et al., 2012; Albert, Merunka & Valette-Florence, 2008). Brand love does not only influence consumers' behavioural intention and attitudinal preference, but also their persistent stickiness toward the brand (Tsai, 2014; Reimann, Castano, Zaichkowsky & Bechara, 2012). Brand love constitutes the main objective of brand management (Langner et al., 2015). Rauschnabel and Ahuvia (2014) suggest that women experience greater brand love than men, and single consumers compensate their relationship status by engaging in brand relationships. According to Albert and Merunka (2013), consumers who love a brand are the most loyal, committed advocates of the brand.

3.3.3.1 Definition of Brand Love

Consumers' love for brands was first introduced by Carroll and Ahuvia (2006). They defined brand love as "the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name" (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006, p. 81). While Rubin (1973) defined brand love as an attitude that consumers held toward a particular brand which includes their ability to think, feel, and behave with regards to the particular brand. Similarly, Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) define brand love as friendliness that is felt with full passion for a brand. Brand love is considered as an emotional concept. In psychology, love is an affectionate connection between two parties that provide a deep interpersonal bond and reflect an intense desire to sustain a relationship (Alnawas & Altarifi, 2016). For the purpose of the present study, Carroll and Ahuvia's (2006) definition of brand love is used.

3.3.3.2 Related Studies on Brand Love

There is considerable evidence that shows that brand love has a major influence on repurchase intention (Garg et al., 2015; Turgut & Gultekin, 2015; Albert & Merunka, 2013; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010). Brand love has also been proven to have an impact on consumer forgiveness and attitude towards an extension. Consumers who are emotionally attached to a brand are most likely to continue purchasing the brand (Garg et al., 2015). Scholars, Rodrigues and Ferreira (2016), tested the impact of brand experience dimensions (sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural) in building brand love. They found that the sensory aspects of brand experience have more impact on brand love, they also discovered that the affective and intellectual dimensions of brand experience also influence brand love and that the behavioural dimensions do not influence brand love. According to Sarkar (2011), traditional researches in the field of branding showed that satisfaction had a direct influence on brand loyalty, however, present analysis challenges this conventional notion by stating that the relationship between satisfaction and brand loyalty is mediated by other variables, like romantic brand love and customer delight. Kwon and Mattila's (2015) study sought to understand factors driving positive WOM behaviours among consumers who love their hospitality brands. They recommend that marketers evoke consumers' independent self-construal by including words such as "enjoy yourself" and "create your own favourite drink," rather than "enjoy with your family" or "people like you" in their marketing messages. Furthermore, they indicated that emphasising individuality might be particularly salient when trying to increase self–brand connection among young consumers in cultures where the interdependent self tends to dominate people's notion of self. They also emphasise that

hospitality marketers might want to use one-to-one marketing in their branding efforts and personalisation in order to strengthen emotional bonding and, hence, spread positive WOM from brand lovers to other consumers, or the use of social media to build a collaborative brand personality among brand lovers in order to enhance emotional attachment among the customer base. Garg et al.'s (2015) study explores the factors that drive consumer love toward a brand and the opportunities a consumer's love can create for a brand in India. Data was collected through 23 in-depth interviews. The findings propose a conceptual model where respect, brand experience, and brand reputation have been identified as factors driving brand love and affective commitment, consumer citizenship behaviour, repurchases intention, consumer forgiveness, and attitude toward the extension as outcomes of brand love. They recommend that marketers should create favourable experiences for consumers at every touch point to leave a long-lasting impression on consumers. Interestingly, the study also indicates that participants in India are more willing to forgive a loved brand's transgression and restore their relationship.

To develop brand love, a consumer must have a positive brand attitude and positive experiences, as well as a feeling of psychological proximity to the brand (Joji & Ashwin, 2012). A Generation Y study by Ismail and Spinelli (2012) revealed that brand image is considered as a determinant of brand love that affects WOM along with brand personality. Their data was collected using a survey method among 250 undergraduate students. Ghosh and Sarkar (2016) found that sensory reference cues (visual, haptic, and olfactory) significantly influence destination emotion (joy, love, and positive surprise), and destination emotion in turn leads to desirable marketing outcomes, namely visit intention and spreading WOM. Park's (2015) study focused on the fast fashion industry, the results of the study show that affective brand experience and self-expressive brand influenced brand loyalty and positive word of mouth indirectly through fast fashion brand love. The data was gathered by surveying 280 university students through convenience sampling. Koo and Kim's (2013) study determined the effects of ambient, design, social, and merchandise cues on store love; and the effect of store love on store loyalty. They found that design and merchandise cues positively affected store love, and that store love was determined to be a significant predictor of store loyalty.

Pauwels-Delassus and Zarantonello (2016) explored how brand experience leads to brand love by examining the mediation role of three key affective factors such as brand attachment,

brand identification and brand nostalgia. Their results indicated that the relationship between brand experience and brand love is positive and significant, interestingly, their results also indicated that once the three mediator variables are introduced, the path from brand experience to brand love is not significant anymore. Furthermore, the researchers recommend that brands such as Nutella and Coca-Cola which are consumed during childhood should develop an experiential marketing strategy which emphasises brand nostalgia in order to increase brand love and that these kinds of brands use reminders of the consumer's positive past brand experience in advertising campaigns on TV or on social media to increase nostalgia and consequently, brand love. Turgut and Gultekin (2015) assessed the relation between brand love and brand trust, resistance to negative information, and intention to repurchase in clothing brands. Based on a sample of 400 respondents, who were predominantly between the ages of 18 and 25, the result indicated a positive effect of brand trust on brand love, resistance to negative information, and intention to repurchase. In addition, brand love was found to positively influence resistance to negative information and intention to repurchase. They further highlighted that marketers should invest in gaining consumers' trust in order to have a brand customer's love, which will eventually facilitate intention to repurchase.

3.3.3.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Love

Pioneering work by Rubin (1970) conceptualised brand love as a three-dimensional construct which is made of affiliation and dependence, predilection to help and absorption and exclusivity. Rodrigues and Ferreira (2016) argued that brand love includes the following aspects: passion about the brand, the connection with the brand, the positive evaluation of the brand, positive emotion in response to the brand and the declaration of love for the brand, while Sternberg's (1986) Triangular love theory states that romantic love consists of intimacy and passion, but does not include commitment. Thomson et al. (2005) conceptualised brand love based on three dimensions - passion, affection, and connection. Brand love includes the following characteristics: (1) passion for the brand, (2) attachment to the brand, (3) positive evaluation of the brand, (4) positive emotions in response to the brand and (5) declaration of love for the brand (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). It was further stated that brand love goes beyond brand attachment (Thomson et al., 2005). The more a consumer values a brand, the more the consumer accepts a price increase as the loss of a loved brand would be costly, in the form of distress and anxiety (Albert & Merunka, 2013).

3.3.4 Brand Faith

Brand faith is underpinned by the theory of brand religiosity which is related to theology, sociology and consumer-brand relationships (Sarkar & Sarkar, 2017; Huber & Huber, 2012; Parboteeah, Hoegl & Cullen, 2008). Brand faith refers to emphasis on brand as a religion; although branding has been asserted as an 'art', it is said to owe a debt to religion (Haig, 2006). The religious faith in the brand will generate satisfaction in an individual's life (Sarkar & Sarkar, 2017). Brand religiosity is defined as "the degree to which individual consumers attribute the properties of religiosity to brand" (Sarkar, Sarkar & Ponnam, 2015, p. 266). Brand religiosity is defined as perceiving brand meaning as equivalent to religious meaning (Sarkar & Sarkar, 2017). Brand religiosity is a community-based phenomenon where the individual consumer does not only feel emotionally connected to the focal brand, but also experiences emotional bonding with other community members devoted to the same brand (Sarkar & Sarkar, 2017). As discussed in section 1.9.7 in chapter 1, the researcher mentioned that brand faith has been studied from the point of view of at least three orientations (brand trust, brand engagement and brand community). Consumers develop faith in a brand when a brand produces a feeling of safety, comfort and self-assurance, as a result of the brand; consumers do not experience worry or concerns that they might have otherwise (Keller, 2008). Teng and Laroche (2007) mention that in cases where an individual is very familiar with or believes in the importance of a brand's attributes, he/she may carefully remember information about the brand. Also, when a brand makes consumers feel better about themselves, consumers feel a sense of pride, accomplishment or fulfilment (Keller, 2008). Brands such as Mini Cooper, Apple Inc. and Harley Davidson motorcycles have generated devoted followers through the use of emotional branding (Morrison & Crane, 2007). It is important for companies to position their brands in such a way that they inspire trust to the Generation Y consumer and that they can prove they deserve to be used (Pine & Gilmore, 2002). There are many brands available in the market, some are unfamiliar brands, but mostly, customers choose famous and well-known brands (Yasmin & Shammin, 2013).

Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie (2014) refer to customer-brand engagement as an emotional relationship construct. Presence in a consumer's mind shapes the development of key brand associations which provide the foundation for attachment, brands are crucial in this respect as consumers are able to draw on past knowledge, experience and satisfaction to confidently make present and future choices (Hutter, Hautz, Dennhardt & Füller, 2013). Furthermore, it is important that consumers think about a brand, as it can form part of a "consideration set"

when making a purchase decision within related products (Hutter et al., 2013). A necessary condition for consumers to create associations with the brand is the presence of the brand in consumers' minds (Hutter et al., 2013). As stated by Keller (2008), the strength of the presence or mental node decides how easily different kinds of information can become attached to the brand. Marketers can therefore facilitate brand religiosity by taking strong marketing actions, and make a brand really equivalent to religion (Sarkar & Sarkar, 2017).

3.3.4.1 Definition of Brand Faith

Faith has been defined in Cambridge Dictionaries Online (2016) as "great trust or confidence in something or someone". The Amplified Bible in Hebrews 11:3 states that faith is "an inherent trust and ensuring confidence". Magids et al., (2015) refer to having confidence in the future as a positive mental picture of what is to come. Haig (2006) points out that faith leads to life-long devotion and belief in the brand. For the purpose of the present study, the Amplified Bible in Hebrews 11:3's definition of faith is used, and applied as brand faith (i.e. trust, engagement and community)

3.3.4.2 Related Studies on Brand Faith

> *"I'm really faithful to Yamaha, but when sitting on a new R1 and a new GSXR1000 side by side, I have to say I like the Suzuki* (Felix, 2012, p. 227)

A study by Hyun (2010) focused on attributes in food service settings; the study found that five attributes (food quality, price, service quality, location, and environment) influence trust, but their impact is mostly mediated by satisfaction. The study also mentions that brand strength, awareness, and image could be significant influences on chain restaurant patrons' behaviour. Numerous studies have discussed the relationship between brand engagement and brand experience (Hollebeek et al., 2014; Hollebeek, 2011a, b; Van Doorn, Lemon, Mittal, Nass, Pick, Pirner & Verhoef, 2010). Similarly, Sarkar and Sarkar (2017) analysed the potential outcomes of brand religiosity. They state that brand religiosity would result in achieving a course of satisfied life, brand ritualism, brand evangelism as well as brand sub-culture/brand community. They analyse the antecedents of brand religiosity that have special importance to marketers, some of these include the need for unique self-identity and the need to belong. As stated by Weisberg, Te'eni and Arman (2011), the experience of past purchases will boost consumer confidence in doing anything in the future. This study established that consumer confidence toward Samsung's smartphone brand will influence the customer to re-

purchase or to recommend Samsung's smart-phone to others. A study by Arruda-Filho, Cabusas and Dholakia (2010) concerning mobile technology indicated that devoted customers were more concerned with enjoyment experience with some customers complaining about dropped calls or failed coverage, but still had no dissatisfaction. Furthermore, another study indicated that early iPhone v1 users expressed experiential reasons for purchasing the product, "as they were devoted Apple users who wanted the latest in innovative technology" (Arruda-Filho, & Lennon, 2011, p. 527). This positively reflects in the purchases of products they make. Brand experience has been used to test repurchase intention, however limited studies have tested this relationship via brand faith; being life-long devotion and belief in the brand. Laroche, Kim and Zhou (1996) found that familiarity with a brand influences a consumer's confidence toward the brand, which in turn, affects his/her intention to buy the same brand.

3.3.4.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Faith

Construct measures affecting brand faith are characterised based on brand trust, brand confidence, brand engagement and brand community.

3.3.4.3.1 Brand Trust

Brand trust is defined as the willingness to rely on a brand, based on beliefs about that brand, despite the risk or uncertainty associated with that brand (Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013), while Jung and Soo (2012) classify trust and commitment as brand relationship qualities. Fournier's (1998) concept of brand trust reflects the quality of the brand as a partner based on four dimensions: the judgements of the brand's overall dependability, reliability, and predictability; a felt positive orientation of the brand toward the consumer (e.g., making the consumer feel cared for); faith that the brand will deliver what is desired; as well as security in the brand's accountability for its actions.

3.3.4.3.2 Brand Confidence

Confidence is "the buyer's degree of certainty that his/her evaluative judgment of the brand is correct" (Howard, 1989, p. 34). The key to whether consumers have confidence in their assessment of a specific brand is the extent to which they remember the brand's attributes (Teng & Laroche, 2007). Consumers' confidence in using what is retrieved from their

memory reflects their cognitions toward a brand such as their conviction in their beliefs about the brand. (Teng & Laroche, 2007). Confidence refers to the sense of trust that consumers possess toward a certain brand and the confidence they derive from this trust (Huang, 2014).

3.3.4.3.3 Brand Engagement

The Marketing Science Institute (MSI) has identified consumer brand engagement as a key research priority (MSI, 2014). Dwivedi (2015) defines consumer brand engagement as consumers' positive, fulfilling, brand-use-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption. Ramaswamy and Ozcan (2016, p. 96) view brand engagement in a digital world as comprising "the joint capabilities of both individuals and enterprises, as an ecosystem of brand capabilities from which engagement platforms emerge, and are enabled and supported, as individuals and enterprises engage through these platforms in differentially creative ways. Keller (2013, p. 320) defined brand engagement as the extent to which consumers are willing to invest their own personal resources – time, energy, money – on the brand, beyond those resources expended during purchase or consumption of the brand".

3.3.4.3.4 Brand Community

Today, marketing literature on communities is classified into two categories, namely; brand communities (Muňiz & O'Guinn, 2001) and consumer tribes (Cova & Cova, 2001; Canniford, 2011; Goulding et al., 2013). According to Guimaraes, Stride and O'Reilly (2016), consumer tribes emphasise more on the consumer-to-consumer relationship than on the consumer-to-brand relationship, while the sustainability of brand communities depends on the exchange relationship between the brand offering and the consumer-members of the community. Brand community groups can be based locally, online or a combination of both (Felix, 2012).

Brand community is a new phenomenon exemplified by brand-worshipping fanatics who are emotionally devoted to and obsessed with purchasing certain name-brand products (Chan & Wang, 2015). Having many members in a specific brand community does not necessarily translate into a highly loyal customer base (Felix, 2012). Brand communities have sparked interest due to the high levels of brand loyalty and commitment observed in previous studies on brands such as Apple, Jeep, or Harley Davidson (Felix, 2012). Stokburger-Sauer (2010) mentioned that non-company-run communities bear the risk of community members transmitting brand information in a way not desired by the company. Felix's (2012)

qualitative study found that instead of single-brand loyalty, consumers for mainstream brands may be more prone to multi-brand loyalty.

The common denominator of the brands patronised in brand communities is a clear and unique positioning in combination with consumers who strongly identify with the brand (Felix, 2012). There are many examples of strong brand communities e.g. Harley Davidson, Apple, Starbucks, etc. (Guimaraes et al., 2016). For marketers, understanding what influences consumer attitudes, motivations and decision-making at both product and brand level is essential. Felix (2012) suggests that firms might gain greater insight into consumer thinking by becoming actively involved in non-company forums. For marketers, it is important to note that online communities welcome marketers only if they are contributing to the community, thus, marketers need to listen to and "engage in engaging" consumers in brand communications, which consumers perceive to be "non-commercially driven" within brand communities (Brodie, Ilic, Juric & Hollebeek, 2013). According to López, Sicilia and Moyeda-Carabaz (2017), for members, a brand community represents an opportunity to be affiliated to both the brand and to other people who also like that brand. Fournier and Lee (2009) state that brand communities generate more value when members control them—and when companies create conditions in which communities can thrive.

3.3.5 Brand Credibility

Brand credibility is underpinned by the signalling theory, suggesting that firms can use their brand as signals for conveying information about their products (Eidem, Swati & Louviere, 2002). Thus, at the heart of brands as signals is brand credibility (Eidem et al., 2002). Brands can therefore serve as credible signals because they embody the cumulative efforts of prior marketing communication strategies (Beak & King, 2011). Credible brands enjoy lower information-gathering and information-processing costs and lower perceived risk, thus adding value to the brand by increasing consumer-expected utility (Eidem & Swati 2004).

Brand credibility is significant with respect to emotion and reason in consumers' decision-making (Islam Rahman & Hossain, 2014; Mathis, Orenburg & Sickle, 2004). According to Militia, Prate and Guido (2013), brand emotional credibility may be important to the intention to purchase branded products with varying credibility. Customers may form judgements about the company or organisation behind the brand (Keller, 2008). Perceptions of credibility are important, but not enough if customers do not actually consider the brand

for possible purchase or use. Keller (2008) further highlights that, no matter how highly customers regard the brand or how credible they find it, unless they give it serious consideration and deem it relevant, customers will keep a brand at a distance and never closely embrace it. Marketers need to remember that each brand name may bring a certain level of credibility to mind (Aghdaie, Dolatabadi & Aliabadi, 2012). Brand credibility broadly depends upon consistency, brand investments and clarity (Sheeraz, Khattak, Mahmood & Iqbal, 2016). As noted by Jeng (2016), brand credibility can be created through increased consistency, clarity, and brand investment over time, through all practices and aspects of marketing communications such as brand image advertising, sponsorship, or sales promotion. According to Salniza, Salleh, Mohammed and Kasasbeh (2016), for a brand to be perceived as being credible, continuously maintaining the brand promise is crucial. Credible brands strive to minimise risk and increase consumer confidence (Kemp & Bui, 2011). Brand credibility reflects the consistency of the marketing mix through brand investments, such as advertising (Baek & King, 2011).

3.3.5.1 Definition of Brand Credibility

Brand credibility is defined as the believability of product position information contained in a brand, which entails that it consistently delivers what is promised (Erdem & Swait, 2004). However, Egan (2015) argued that making a claim that is unbelievable is unlikely to enhance the image and credibility of the brand. For the purpose of the present study, Erdem and Swait's (2004) definition of brand credibility is used.

3.3.5.2 Related Studies on Brand Credibility

A few studies have investigated the effect of brand credibility. Shamim and Butt's (2013) study demonstrated the impact of brand experience on customer-based brand equity, brand credibility and brand attitude. Their findings indicated that brand experience has a positive influence on customer-based brand credibility, brand attitude and brand equity. They also found that brand credibility yielded the highest standardised estimates. Based on the signalling theory, Jeng's (2016) study investigated how brand credibility affects consumer purchase intention in the airline sector. The findings of the study indicated that airline brand credibility increases consumer purchase intention by increasing consumers' decision convenience and enhancing affective commitment. The study suggests that airline brand credibility can strengthen the relational bond between consumers and an airline company.

Leischnig, Geigenmüller and Enke (2012) studied the influence of brand credibility on customers' repurchase intention in the service sector; the services selected included a fast food restaurant, an airline, and a café. Their findings indicate that brand credibility influences customers' repurchase intention in a service setting. Maathuis et al. (2004) indicated that brand credibility is significantly related to emotion and reason in consumers' decision making. Erdem and Swait (2004) also found that brand credibility can exert a positive influence on consumers' brand consideration and choice. Alam, Arshad and Shabbir (2012) found that brand credibility mediates the relationship of customer loyalty with trustworthiness, perceived quality and loyalty. They further attained a significant result for the moderating behaviour of religious orientation in the relationship between trustworthiness and brand credibility.

3.3.5.3 The Conceptualisation of Brand Credibility

Credibility is conceptualised as a two-dimensional construct reflected by expertise and trustworthiness as its second-order latent variables (Erdem & Swait, 2004). Trustworthiness suggests the brand delivers what it has promised while expertise suggests its capability to deliver it (Erdem et al., 2002). As noted by Baek and King (2011), trustworthiness means that whether a firm is willing to deliver what it has promised, and its expertise means whether a firm is able to meet what is promised. Hovland, Jannis and Kelley (1953) argued that expertise is the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be able to provide valid, accurate information. Keller, Parameswaran and Jacob (2011) recommend three dimensions of brand credibility: trustworthiness, expertise, and attractiveness. Wang and Yang (2010) stated that brand credibility consists of trustworthiness, expertise and likeability. According to Mathew, Thomas and Injodey (2012), marketers might use its marketing mix strategies for its brand, like high price, packaging, expensive endorsers as a signal for quality, and enhancing the brand's credibility.

3.3.6 Repurchase Intention

Competition is becoming fierce and acquiring new customers is costly, most marketers are therefore concerned with retaining customers (Kuo, Hu & Yang, 2013). Chen and Chen (2017) argue that repurchase intention, taking into account the individual's current situation and likely circumstances, is one of the most appropriate dependent variables in any system of relationships designed to develop management insight and improved strategic planning and

service delivery. In the SOR framework, the response represents the final outcome, the approach/avoidance behaviours. While approach behaviours refer to all positive actions that might be directed toward a particular setting, for example, intention to stay, explore, and affiliate, avoidance behaviours concern the opposite (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). In the current study, repurchase intention is selected as the target approach behaviour.

Customers' repurchasing is critical to the success and profitability of a company (Chiu et al., 2009; Gupta & Kim, 2007). Since consumer acquisition is many times more costly than retention (Shamim & Butt, 2013), many organisations rely on their brand to retain consumers, as repeat consumers are more profitable (Chen, Yen, Kuo & Capistrano, 2016; Chang, Gao & Zhu, 2015). A study conducted by Mainspring and Bain & Company (2000) signified that a customer has to make purchases four times at an online store before the store could actually gain profits from that respective customer. The cost of attaining new customers is five times higher than the cost of retaining repeat-purchase customers, which is a different aspect to why retaining them is highly beneficial (Kuo et al., 2013). Consumer repeat purchase intention is a vital and significant driver in retaining high profitability (Goh, Jiang & Tee, 2016). Profit generation comes by having customers who not only initially repurchase, but consistently re-repurchase, therefore repurchasing customers are fundamentally important to businesses. Marketing communication's primary goal is to get consumers to form an intention to purchase the marketed product (Hutter et al., 2013). The measurement of repurchase intention has become critical to managers and researchers.

3.3.6.1 Definition of Repurchase Intention

Repurchase intention, also known as repeat-purchase intention is a behaviour when customers are willing to buy the same product or service in recurrence sequence (Goh et al., 2016). Some experts have different definitions about repurchase intention. Among them, Bayraktar, Tatoglu, Turkyilmaz, Delen and Zaim (2012) defined repurchase intention as the individual's judgment about buying a service again, the decision to engage in future activity with a service provider and what form this activity will take, while Xie and Heung (2012) refer to it as the consumers' stated belief that they will repurchase a particular type of service, or particular brand. Lam et al. (2011) however, refer to intention to revisit as a customer's tendency of repatronage of a business. Goh et al. (2016) further stipulate that repeat purchase behaviour occurs when the product meets with the consumer's expectation and approval, which

signifies a high indication that they will buy and utilise it again in larger quantities. Behavioural intentions are considered to include revisit and word-of-mouth intentions (Jani & Han, 2011). Table 3.3 presents a summary of the definitions of repurchase intention by several authors.

Table 3.3: Definition of Repurchase /Repeat purchase intention

Authors	Year	Definition
Oliver	1997	Defined behavioural intentions (i.e., repurchase and word-of-mouth intentions) as 'a stated likelihood to engage in a behaviour'.
Hellier, Geursen and Rickard	2003	Repurchase intention refers to the individual's judgement about buying again a designated service from the same company, taking into account his or her current situation and likely circumstances.
Han, Back and Barrett	2009	Revisit intention is described as an affirmed likelihood to revisit the restaurant in both the absence and presence of a positive attitude toward the provider.
Kuo et al.,	2013	Repeat-purchase intention is the degree to which customers are willing to purchase the same product or service and it is a simple, objective, and observable predictor of future buying behaviour.
Mpinganjira	2014	Repeat purchase intention is defined as the degree to which customers are willing to purchase from the same online retailer in future.
Ebrahim, Ghoneim, Irani and Fan	2016	Repurchase intention refers to consumers' decision about repeating the action of purchasing the brand.

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

Table 3.3 shows the various definitions of repurchase intention. For the purpose of the present study, Ebrahim et al.'s (2016) definition of repurchase intention is used.

3.3.6.2 Related Studies on Repurchase Intention

Liao, Lin, Luo and Chea (2016) discovered that consumer satisfaction has a significant impact on repurchase intention in a range of services. Sahin et al. (2012) found that brand experiences, satisfaction, and trust have positive effects on repurchase intention for a brand.

Yang, Lee and Lee's (2012) study showed that brand experience affects attitude positively and brand experience affects repurchase intention positively. Brand Experience was found to have an influence on repurchase intention of Coca-Cola (Rambitan, 2013); the results indicated that the influence of brand experience, although positive, is not significant towards repurchase intention. In their studies, Trasorras, Weinstein and Abratt (2009) found that the service, quality, image and price have a significant correlation with customer repurchase intention. Mann and Rashmi's (2010) study revealed that brand specific–repeat purchase drivers value for money, brand trust and brand affect have a positive and significant effect on probability of repeat purchase made by consumers. They also found that demographics significantly affected repeat purchase probability. Studies on repurchase intention tend to focus on the identification of factors that affect it.

Ki and Kim (2016) examined the effect of positive emotional responses toward luxury brands, which ultimately lead to repurchase intention. Kim and Shin (2017) found out that, in terms of promoting repurchases of future platform-based products or services (e.g. Smartphones) and attracting new consumers, ICT firms should concentrate on providing positive and consecutive experiences and increasing satisfaction on their platform, rather than struggling to solve customers' dissatisfaction. Interestingly, the study of Kim and Shin (2017) indicated that positive incidents generally affect consumers' repurchases more than negative incidents do. Their result provided a different perspective to that of existing studies, which usually emphasise how consumers' negative experiences and dissatisfaction affect repurchase. In a study conducted amongst Indian respondents, results indicated that consumers repeat purchase those brands whose value for money equation is favourable as they pay less and get more (Mann & Rashmi, 2010). In the 2015 Digital Dopamine Report, it emerged that across the U.S. (76%), the U.K (75%), Brazil (60%) and China (79%), word-of-mouth came out as the top influencer for the purchase decision. It boosts the effect of paid media by 15% (Davidge, 2015). In a study conducted by Nielsen Global Survey in 2013, 84% of people indicated that they trust word-of-mouth messages from their family and friends.

3.3.6.3 The Conceptualisation of Repurchase Intention

Hossain (2006) mentioned that a repurchase intention can be classified under the more general concept of "behavioural intention". Furthermore, the researcher stated that behavioural intentions include repurchase intention, intention to purchase a product for the

first time, word-of-mouth intentions, and complaint intentions. According to Dlačić, Arslanagić, Kadić-Maglajlić, Marković and Raspor (2014), behavioural loyalty is considered as being consistent, repetitious purchase behaviour, while attitudinal loyalty reflects an emotional and psychological attachment.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the theoretical groundings that underpin the present study; it also explored empirical literature of the research constructs. Firstly, the concept of experiential marketing, the multi-sensory brand-experience model, the experiential branding model, the stimulus-organism-response (SOR) theory, and the pleasure arousal-dominance (PAD) framework were reviewed. Secondly, this was followed by a discussion of the empirical literature underlying the theoretical constructs of the study, such as brand experience, brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand credibility, brand faith and repurchase intention. In the next chapter, the conceptual model and hypotheses development are presented.

CHAPTER 4: CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

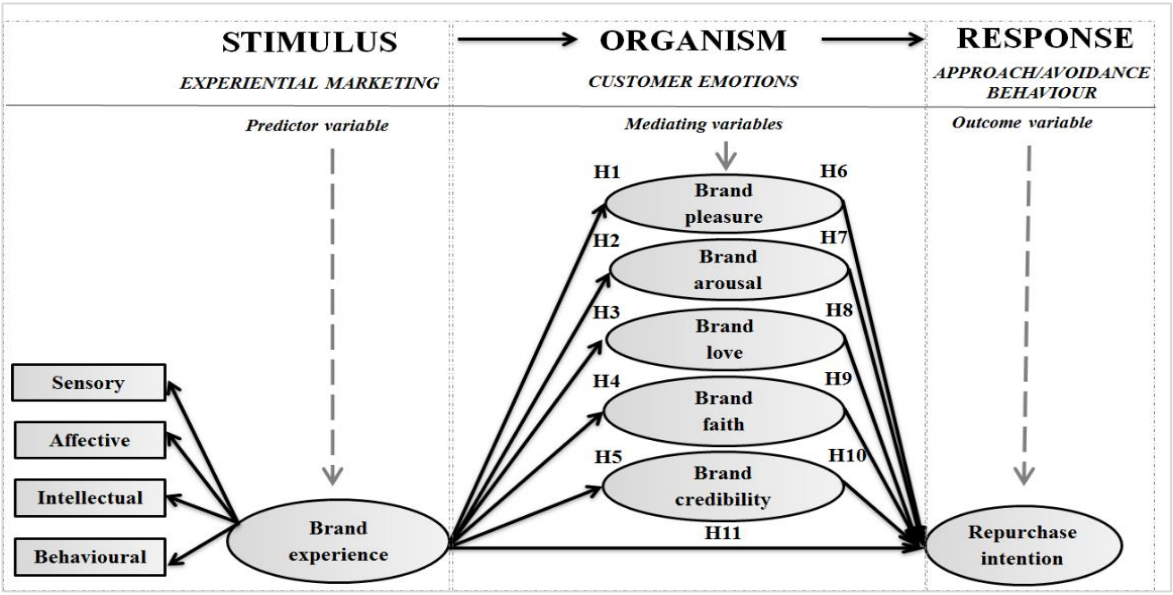
4.1 Introduction

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

4.2 Conceptual Model

The proposed research model is an extension of various theories, SOR, PAD, experiential marketing theory, multisensory theory, signalling theory, brand religiosity theory and TPB. These theories have been widely used in numerous empirical studies. Thus, these theories provide an excellent theoretical foundation for the study. Figure 4.1 presents the proposed conceptual model for the purpose of the present study.

Figure 4.1: Conceptual Model



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

Firstly, brand experience represents the predictor variable, with repurchase intention as the outcome variable. There are five mediators, namely brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand faith and brand credibility. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships between brand experience and repurchase intention, and the mediating role of the aforementioned five mediators. It is therefore proposed that brand experience has a positive influence on the five mediating variables, which in turn, has a positive influence on repurchase intention. For marketers, this means that when consumers experience a

favourable brand experience, it will have a positive effect on consumers brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand faith and brand credibility. This will therefore lead to repurchase intention.

4.3 Hypotheses Development

A hypothesis is a proposition that can be tested for association or causality against empirical evidence (Collis & Hussey, 2013). By means of a critical analysis of literature, this section discusses the creation of the conceptual model. This is followed by an overview of the development of the hypotheses.

a) The Linkage between Environmental Stimuli (S) and Organism (O)

The first linkage in the SOR paradigm is the linkage between environmental stimuli and the organism (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974):

4.3.1 Brand Experience

According to his view about experiential marketing, Bernd Schmitt (1999) stated that to define the purpose of marketing in terms of need satisfaction, problem solution or benefit delivery is too narrow. He further mentioned that the ultimate goal of marketing is providing customers with valuable experiences. Brand experience comprises four brand experience dimensions that are: sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural dimensions (Brakus et al., 2009). Experiences arising out of contact with brands have a substantial impact on consumer behaviour (Brakus et al., 2009; Pine & Gillmore, 1998; Schmitt, 1999). Regardless of the success of an experience, marketers should also pay attention to the existence of the brand itself in the experience (Marist, Yulianti & Najib, 2014).

Brakus et al. (2009) argued that with a better understanding of brand experience, the entire range of experiences evoked by brand-related stimuli should be understood. Shamim and Butt (2013) stated that the main part of a brand experience is shaped when someone is exposed to that brand's marketing mix. Brand experience ranges from the strength and intensity to positive or negative direction, depending on the consumer values matrix, stimulating its deepest and sincerest emotions (Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2016). Brand experience research has shown its influence in building several consumer emotional states and behaviours (Iglesias et al., 2011; Zarantonello & Schmitt, 2010; Brakus et al., 2009). Since brand experience is a set of feelings, sensations, cognitions and behaviours evoked by brand-related stimuli, the overall

brand experience can trigger several emotional responses such as brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand faith and brand credibility.

4.3.1.1 Brand Experience and Brand Pleasure (Hypothesis 1)

Generation Y perceive energy drinks to be attractive due to the catchy packaging and brand names synonymous with the category (BMI, 2017). Generation Y students who use energy drinks regularly stated that the main benefits included increased concentration, increased muscle strength, feeling happier, feeling less sleepy and feeling more energetic (Bulut et al., 2014). Generation Y value experiences, joyfulness, amusement and pleasure (Kruger & Saayman, 2015; Arsenault & Patrick, 2008). Designer clothing was ranked ahead of happiness in a Generation Y South Africa study (Seopa, 2008). The face of marketing in South Africa has changed drastically in the last two decades (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). Futhermore, many marketers have not adapted their marketing strategies to these challenges and developments in the last two decades, they are finding themselves in a position of having to adapt quickly in order to remain competitive (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). In South Africa, Chinomona (2013) highlighted the important influence of brand experience and the mediating role of brand satisfaction and brand trust, stating that these should be recognised as significant antecedents for gaining and sustaining brand attachment in South Africa. According to Xu's (2007) study, stimuli has a significant influence on Generation Y consumers' emotional states, the results of the study indicate that cues have a significant positive influence on pleasure, the study further suggested that in order to create an enjoyable experience for Generation Y, marketers that target this group could work to improve lighting, scents, and colours suitable to their consumer and image, furthermore activities, such as sales, may be used to create excitement.

Energy drinks demand in South Africa has been stimulated by various stimuli including aggressive marketing campaigns and promotional initiatives (Euromonitor, 2017). According to O'Brien, McCoy, Rhodes, Wagoner and Wolfson (2008), more than 33 percent of young persons between the ages of 18-24 are drinking energy drinks almost every day. Furthermore, a study by Arria, Cadeira, Kasperski, Vincent, Griffiths and O'Grady (2010) claims that the energy drink consumption within the last 30 days among college students is ranging from 39 percent to more than 57 percent. Generation Y enjoy stimulation in all aspects of their life, and they are very focused on the sensory, valuing it for fun and entertainment (Sheahan, 2005).

The relationship between brand experience and brand pleasure has been explored by numerous scholars (Chang et al., 2014; Ha & Im, 2012; Lin & Mattila, 2010). Mehrabian and Russell (1974) summarised evidence in support of a positive relationship between the intensity of pleasure and the tendency to approach a stimulus. A study by Lin and Mattila (2010) indicated that servicescape experience has a positive influence on pleasure, especially for Generation Y consumers. They found that restaurant service providers might be successful in adopting unique attributes to distinguish themselves from competitors, while enhancing the individual's pleasure level. Besides quality of food, these novel and unique attributes include music, music volume, temperature, exterior of restarurant's attractive character, interior decorated in attractive fashion, interior design, layout, and the use of colour. They advised that all these attributes have an impact on pleasure levels (such as relaxed, hopeful, happy, contented, pleased and satisfied) and should be taken into consideration for achieving the ultimate goal of creating memorable experiences for customers. In order to attract young consumers, Mzoughi and Brée (2016) investigated the influence of new packaging on young consumer perceptions, in their study; they integrated innovation in their designs: vivid colours and funny pictures. The results of their study indicated that the shape and design of a product achieves a particular sensory effect that extends brand communication and generates pleasure that influences consumer preferences (Mzoughi & Brée, 2016).

A total of 804 female college Generation Y students confirmed that website design positively influences pleasure and arousal (Ha & Im, 2012). They further indicated that web site design also shows a significant direct effect on perceived quality of product information. Indications are that colours, fonts, and background images used in the online retail web site induce pleasure and arousal and increase positive perception about the information provided in the web site (Ha & Im, 2012). Mummalaneni (2005) also showed that for Generation Y students, while the design factor (colourful, large-scale, comfortable) and ambience factor (attractive, pleasurable, cheerful) have a positive impact on pleasure, the ambience factor has no impact on arousal. Kang et al.'s (2011) study indicated that pleasure is a full mediator of sight and touch with customers' behavioural intentions in the spa industry. Furthermore, they found that haptic environmental cues (climate and softness of fabric) have the greatest influence on pleasure scores, although visual elements (e.g., colour, layout, design, cleanliness) also have a significant effect. Numerous studies have indicated that experience plays a key role in

influencing positive emotional states such as excitement and enjoyment (Ha & Stoel, 2009; Lin & Lu, 2000).

The studies presented are consistent with the propositions under the Stimulus-Organism-Response (SOR) theory as empirical findings by Othman, Musa, Muda and Mohamed (2016), Jacobs and Cassel (2015) as well as Bäckström and Johansson (2006) that highlighted the centrality of brand experience in determining positive brand pleasure. Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand experience, the higher the brand pleasure. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 1: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand pleasure* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.1.2 Brand Experience and Brand Arousal (Hypothesis 2)

Boosting mental alertness, enhancing physical performance and mood elevation are some of the benefits that are being promoted in the energy drinks category. Generation Y university students mentioned that the main reason for energy drink consumption was to provide energy while working overtime to finish a course project or working overtime (Barcelona et al., 2014). Generation Y in South Africa stated that if they attended an event they want music, fashion, beauty or free products as part of the experience (Moodie, 2014). They also prefer creative labels (Qenani-Petrela, Wolf & Zuckerman, 2007). Energy drink manufacturers focus advertising on the perception that energy drink consumption will enhance performance, boost mental alertness, improve endurance and energy, decrease fatigue, enhance metabolism, and improve overall performance (Rath, 2012). Concurrent to the emergence of the energy drink market in South Africa is the emergence of significant advertising and branding activities of manufacturers (Stacey et al., 2017). In addition, the researchers further state that since the entrance of energy drinks to the South African market in the nineties, a growing amount has been spent on above-the-line through television, the print media, radio, billboards and the internet as well as below-the-line marketing, which include in-store promotions and samplings, price promotions, phone messaging and roadshows (Stacey et al., 2017). Furthermore, the results of their study indicated that in South Africa, the majority of energy drink advertising expenditure has been on television advertising – focused generally on channels with a younger and more male audience (Stacey et al., 2017). Recent evidence

suggests that exposure to digital marketing campaigns of leading energy drink manufacturers' increases positive attitudes and intentions to use energy drinks among Generation Y (Hammond & Reid, 2017). In light of this, Xu's (2007) study also indicates that arousal among adult Generation Y consumers is positively affected by stimuli, that is, their feelings of alertness and excitement tend to increase, based on stimuli.

Red Bull South Africa makes use of consumer collectors to introduce the brand to potential customers, explaining its functionality and helping the consumers with their future purchase decision, these consumer collectors make sure that consumers are engaged in conversation where they are told about the functionality of the brand and the benefits it has (Koen, 2008). Furthermore, Koen (2008) states that, during the conversation, the consumer collector opens the cold can of Red Bull and hands it to the consumer who has to take a sip, giving a full can ensures that the consumer experiences the full functional benefit of the product. This Red Bull process has been carefully perfected to give the consumer the best experience and impression of the brand. Red Bull has converted new Mini Coopers cars into fun looking, attention catching branded Mini vehicles. In South Africa, conversions and customisations of all vehicles are according to strict rules that exist in terms of branding, artwork and colours (Koen, 2008). Sampling progammes in South Africa are done using the Red Bull branded Mini Coopers, for instance visiting clubs, restaurants to talk to potential consumers and introduce them to Red Bull (Koen, 2008). The teams also go to rural areas and not just urban areas, over the December holidays teams also drive along the major roads and engage with tired drivers stopping at big petrol stations (Koen, 2008). Red Bull POS is of high quality, durable and fits the latest trends and styles (Koen, 2008). According to Koen (2018), Red Bull does not easily allow any country to develop POS locally, except with some restrictions like South Africa DJ Black Coffee POS (Red Bull, 2017).

Numerous studies show that multisensory stimulation, especially when positive, can amplify the arousal or emotional response (Schreuder et al., 2016; Tajadura-Jiménez, Larsson, Väljamäe, Västfjäll & Kleiner, 2010). Similarly, Spangenberg, Grohmann, and Sprott's (2005) study found that the presence of a Christmas scent along with Christmas music led to more favourable store attitudes, stronger intentions to visit, greater pleasure, greater arousal, greater dominance, and a more favourable evaluation of the environment compared with a no-scent condition.

A study by Morrison et al. (2011) on Generation Y, found a congruency effect between music and scent; they stated that a combination of high volume music and vanilla aroma (congruent stimuli in the sense that they both induced arousal) significantly enhanced pleasure levels of Generation Y customers in a shopping environment, which in turn, positively affected their shopping behaviour. Kang et al. (2011) established a link between sensory marketing and brand arousal when conducting a study amongst spa goers. Furthermore, based on the model constructed by Kang et al. (2011), sensory components were found to have a direct impact on brand experience. Although the direct effect of sensory components on arousal was found to be positive, it was slightly weaker than the effect of sensory components on pleasure. Bellizzi and Hite (1992) mentioned that a cool colour (e.g., blue) is more affective on pleasure and arousal emotions that influence the customer's spending money and time. This was supported by Bitner (1992) who had stated that the physical environment such as lighting, colour, signage, style of furnishings, layout, and wall décor could be controlled by the organisation to increase customers' affective behaviour. The characteristics of music (i.e., tempo, tonality, and texture) stimulate customer's pleasure and arousal emotions and induce customer's behavioural reaction (Kang et al., 2011).

Spangenberg et al. (1996) pointed out that scent affects evaluation of the store and merchandise quality as well as induced revisit and purchase intention. Ryu and Jang's (2008) study found that pleasure and arousal had significant impact on behavioural intentions, and pleasure appeared to be the more influential emotion of the two. A study conducted by Nell (2017), in South Africa, infers that emotional reactions, such as pleasure and arousal, will most likely have an influence on consumers' behavioural responses. Ryu and Jang (2007) point out that arousal is important in consumer evaluations of physical and non-physical store elements. They concluded that by adding upbeat music, using bright colours and implementing other elements that create arousal, retailers can create a store that is perceived by shoppers as more pleasant. Rajagopal (2009) mentions that Generation Y consumers make holistic evaluations of retail stores in view of the arousing quality of ambient stimuli for buying products and derive satisfaction over their purchasing decisions. Arousal can be enhanced through recreational experiences related to fun and entertainment – for example organising events where they invite sport stars or famous TV personalities that endorse a certain brand or product (Sullivan & Heitmeyer, 2008). Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand experience, the

higher the brand arousal. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 2: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand arousal* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.1.3 Brand Experience and Brand Love (Hypothesis 3)

The Sunday Times Generation Next Study is the leading annual youth brand preference and consumer behaviour survey in South Africa; in this survey, Generation Y voted Red Bull Energy Drink as the coolest energy drink product, followed by Monster Energy, Play Energy Drink, Dragon Energy Drink and Score Energy Drink (Sunday Times Generation Next Results, 2016). Brand names are important for Generation Y, as they also like the ability to customise products to their unique needs (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). When it comes to diversity, Generation Y is the most culturally diverse generation (Msimang, 2008); this makes it difficult for marketers to develop marketing strategies which can target different segments (Rammile, 2009). Monster energy drink operates under a "waste not, want not" credo, investing all of its resources into cultivating brand love by converting their target market into fans who then go on to influence and recruit mainstream customers (Benmiloud, 2016). To symbolise the love that consumers have for the brand, hundreds of Monster energy drink fans have tattooed the Monster energy drink logo, and the actual can, on their bodies for life to show their loyalty to this 'lifestyle in a can' (Benmiloud, 2016). The Monster brand activations live within the Motorsports, Action Sports, E-Gaming and Punk Rock scenes, however these are shared with Red Bull, but Monster brings a more aggressive, rebellious and edgy personality to life (Benmiloud, 2016). According to Shapiro (2014), Red Bull has created emotional connections with its customers, engendering crazy love. More than just a drink, Red Bull is a lifestyle, the brand produces a wide range of video (including those on Red Bull TV), and other content focused on extreme sports, including behind-the-scenes footage, motivational videos, and sports-specific training. Red Bull also sponsors many extreme-sporting events. Furthermore, Shapiro (2014) states that for Red Bull, this creates a swell of empowering, fierce emotions among customers and prospects, as a result, Red Bull sells billion of cans of its product.

According to Naude (2012), the combination of great product experience as well as an aspirational brand makes consumers consider Red Bull as their preferred choice (love) and

they stay with it. The continuous high marketing investment and marketing efforts keep the brand awareness high in consumers' minds and further underlines the longevity of the Red Bull brand (Koen, 2008). According to Naude (2012), the Red Bull marketing mix in South Africa aims to connect emotionally with consumers by means of six pillars: i) Communication: through media advertising and advertorial; ii) Consumer collecting: through direct contact using Red Bull wings team and Student brand managers; iii) Opinion leader programmes: through athletes and culture opinion leaders; iv) Event marketing: to bring the brand world to life and to create content that others talk about through sports and culture events. Furthermore, Naude (2012) states that Red Bull South Africa aims to build brand love through v) On premise and vi) Off premise channels. According to Red Bull, if these six elements are executed in the Red Bull way, the marketing mix will succeed (Naude, 2012).

Since brand love can be defined as a relationship, but also as an emotion (Batra, Ahuvia & Bagozzi, 2012), brand experience may influence brand love, and thus be considered an actionable antecedent of brand love. Consumers are making choices based on experiential factors which a brand offers, these long lasting experiences with a brand help in creating an emotional bond between consumers and the brand in the form of brand love (Garg et al., 2015). Consumers desire something that touches their heart and engages their senses (Schmitt, 2009; Tynan & McKechnie, 2009). Numerous scholars have established that brand experiences encourage the development of the affective and cognitive bond between self and the brand (Chinomona, 2013; Dolbec & Chebat, 2013; Brakus et al., 2009).

A Generation Y study steered by Riivits-Arkonsuo and Leppiman (2015), demonstrated that if the informants were enabled to discuss their favorite, most preferred and loved brand, they often chose technology brands; the study revealed that a strong, meaningful emotional bond between a brand and a consumer forms, if common consumption experiences turn into meaningful experiences. Interestingly, another Generation Y study revealed that only brand image is considered as a determinant of brand love (Ismail & Spinelli, 2015). In South Africa, a study conducted by Chinomona (2013) examined the influence of consumer brand experience on their brand satisfaction, brand trust and brand attachment in an African context, most of the respondents were in the Generation Y cohort. The findings of the study indicated that brand experience can have a strong influence on brand trust and brand attachment via brand satisfaction. As noted by Rodrigues and Ferreira (2016), the overall brand experience influences brand love; their study was based on a survey to 560 consumers

of a major retail fashion brand, their study revealed that brand experience influences brand love. According to Garg et al. (2015), a gap exists in understanding the link between brand experience and love. They propose a conceptual model where respect, brand experience, and brand reputation have been identified as factors driving brand love and affective commitment, consumer citizenship behaviour, repurchase intention, consumer forgiveness, and attitude toward the extension as outcomes of brand love. Their findings indicated brand reputation, brand experience, and respect as the factors driving brand love and affective commitment, repurchase intention, consumer forgiveness, and attitude toward the extension as outcomes of brand love in the context of India. Furthermore, they confirmed that brand experience has an influence on brand love. As stated by Sarkar (2011), favourable brand experiences are likely to stimulate brand love, further suggesting that brand advertisements should contain romantic themes, as romantic advertising content will stimulate an individual's romantic feelings for a brand. There is a need to study brand experience with the inclusion of the other dimensions such as behavioural experience, intellectual experience, and sensory experience in relation with brand love. Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand experience, the higher the brand love. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 3: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand love* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.1.4 Brand Experience and Brand Faith (Hypothesis 4)

Generation Y's ultimate brand relationship is collaborative as they want to be asked for their opinion and have the ability to influence the product (Yarrow & O'Donnell, 2009). Approximately 95% of major South Africa brands have presence on social media (Boerma, 2012), with Facebook being the most popular social networking site in South Africa (World Wide Worx & Fuseware, 2016). They grew up in an "experience economy" era and therefore believe in an all-engaging, unparalleled experience across platforms and events (Kuhl, 2014; Valentine & Powers, 2013; Rageh, Melewar, Lim & Woodside, 2011).

In the pursuit to drive brand engagement, major global energy drink brands, such a Red Bull and Monster, engage in high-profile sports sponsorships, particularly those that appeal disproportionately to young people, such as the X Games, biking, skiing and skateboarding events (Hammond & Reid, 2017). Consistent with this marketing, energy drinks are being

consumed by youth to improve their performance (Hammond & Reid, 2017). Everything about Red Bull's brand content, marketing and communication efforts is about its customers and what is important to them, the product itself is secondary to the activities that the customer engages in, and cherishes (Collier, 2017). Red Bull makes a name for itself supporting athletes who exist on the fringe of pop culture, and proof-positive that they excel at authentic consumer engagement (Keller, 2015). According to Stacey et al. (2017), in South Africa, the viewers of the top energy drink advertisement channels were significantly more likely to consume energy drinks and significantly more likely to consume larger quantities of energy drinks; their study found an association between advertising exposure and energy drink consumption, suggesting that advertising is either targeting those already consuming or is being used to stimulate consumption among those who were not consuming (Stacey et al., 2017).

Consumers make purchase decisions based on various factors such as psychological, cultural, personal, tangible and intangible aspects of products and services and stimuli variables which many marketers do not really understand (Ekaputri, Rahayu & Wibowo, 2016). The marketing activities associated with the brand, affects the consumers "mind-set" with respect to the brand - what they know and feel about the brand (Sahin et al., 2012). As discussed, this study characterises brand faith based on brand trust, brand confidence, brand community and brand engagement. According to Alloza (2008), brand experience can be defined as the perception of the consumers, at every moment of contact they have with the brand, whether it is in the brand images projected in advertising, during the first personal contact, or the level of quality concerning the personal treatment they receive. Brand trust is based on a positive experience and, to an extent, can be considered a form of faith (Levitan, 2009). The effect of brand experience on brand trust has been supported in literature, where customers who have positive brand experiences demonstrate strong brand trust (Ramaseshan & Stein, 2014). Song, Hur and Kim (2012) state that positive purchase experience tends to elicit a positive emotional response (affect) and enhance perceptions of the reliability of the focal brand (trust) in the view of the customer.

When customers buy a certain product or service based on their own accord because they have an emotional connection to it, they are referred to as fans. Customers give their money, while fans give their hearts (Davidge, 2015). As stated by Krishnan (1996), trust is influenced by post-consumption experiences or satisfaction with the brand. High levels of

trust and commitment have a positive influence on the brand preference, the brand favourableness, and a purchase intention (Lee & Kang, 2012). Sahin et al.'s (2012) study aimed at investigating the effects of brand experience and service quality on repurchase intention with the role of brand relationship quality in durable goods industries (e.g. the automobile industry). They found that brand experiences, satisfaction, and trust have positive effects on repurchase intention for a brand. Interestingly, the sub-item of brand trust and brand confidence being "I feel confident in X" had the strongest influence, which is similar to "I have faith in the brand" of the faith scale measure by Plante and Boccaccini's (1997) Santa Clara strength of religious faith questionnaire. Memorable consumer experiences can forge higher Customer Life-time Value (CLV) and enhance profitability (Huang, Lee, Kim & Evans, 2015; Ou, de Vries, Wiesel & Verhoef, 2013).

The confidence construct was first proposed by Howard and Sheth (1969) as one of the determinants of purchase intentions. Furthermore, as Howard and Sheth (1969) postulated, confidence is the buyer's belief that the consumer can estimate the payoff of purchasing a particular brand. Hunneman, Verhoef and Sloot (2015) found that consumer confidence moderates the relationship between the store attribute perceptions and store satisfaction. Laroche and Sadokierski (1994) found a relationship between confidence and intention as well as the effects of competitive brands on the intention to buy a specific brand. According to Lassoued and Hobbs (2015), consumer confidence in credence attributes positively influences brand loyalty. Hahn and Kim (2009) found that consumer trust in an offline store was a significant predictor of perceived internet confidence and search intention for product information online offered by the offline retailer. Results support the theory that confidence is a predictor of purchase intention (Bergkvist, 2004).

Brand experience is the impression and experience brought by a brand after the consumer contacts and uses it (Lin, Ming & Bin, 2011). In their study, Lin et al. (2011) found that a pleasant brand experience can form and enhance consumers' positive perception of a virtual brand community, thereby strengthening the motivation for participation. They confirmed that brand experience has a positive effect on community participation. As social media technology increases, marketers aim to engage customers in online brand communities to enhance the customer brand experience (Pongpaew, Speece & Tiangsoongnern, 2017). Social media has the ability to foster brand community, and companies have rapidly added social media to their marketing and brand building activities (Dessart, Veloutsou & Morgan-

Thomas, 2015; Hollebeek & Chen, 2014). Customer-brand engagement and brand experience concepts are distinct but also related to each other (Hollebeek, 2011, a). As stated by Pongpaew et al. (2017), customer brand engagement (CBE) in brand communities can enhance the customer brand experience. Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand experience, the higher the brand faith. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 4: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand faith* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.1.5 Brand Experience and Brand Credibility (Hypothesis 5)

Generation Y values transparency and honesty in brands (Davidge, 2015); they utilise brands as an extension of themselves (Lazarevic, 2012). Energy drink consumers have come to believe the leading companies' claims of energy-sustaining benefits, through television advertisements as well as admiring the energy-boosting effects that they experience after drinking energy drinks. Generation Y is more open to new concepts of conspicuous products/services, as a means of self-expression or symbols of their desired lifestyle (O'Cass & Siahtiri, 2013; Phau & Cheong, 2009). When communicating with Generation Y, it is important to communicate how product and experience tie back to the brand promise and credibility (Coontz, 2015). For Red Bull energy drink, the brand communication does not only communicate the consumer benefit, but also the Red Bull image (Naude, 2012). Furthermore, a number of claims have been made by Red Bull; these include claims such as increases performance, increases concentration and reaction speed, improves vigilance, improves wellbeing and stimulates metabolism (Naude, 2012). The brand image that consumers have of Red Bull is that the brand remains the market leader, is trusted, aspirational, premium and drives consumer status; when consumers think about energy, Red Bull is the brand that comes to mind (Naude, 2012). Red Bull South Africa launched a programme at universities whereby student brand managers were hired to promote the product on campus; they were given free cases of Red Bull and encouraged to raise brand awareness as well as raise the profile of Red Bull in the university press (Koen, 2008). According to Woolsey (2010), giving trial products to the students at universities during certain occasions such as examination period to show them that these products work on reducing fatigue, help to fight stress, and improve their cognitive performance is a useful marketing strategy.

When marketing to Generation Y, marketers are advised to use celebrities in their advertisements when targeting university-age consumers (Noble et al., 2009) as this provides a level of credibility for Generation Y. Brand credibility is strongly linked with product positioning, signaling their greater consistency in the marketing mix and brand investments made over a period (Srivastava & Dey, 2016). Brand credibility concept suggests that firms can use their brands as signals for conveying information about their products (Spry, Pappu & Cornwell, 2011). Brands that fail to generate positive credibility as a result of poor marketing mix strategies always struggle to succeed (Shamim & Butt, 2013). The presence of credibility is never assumed to be the only source of building brand equity; its absence can surely dampen any chances of building it (Shamim & Butt, 2013). Aboutalebi and Kouloubandi (2016) state that brand experience has an effect on brand credibility. Similarly, Salniza et al. (2016) mention that brand credibility can be assessed through previous experiences. Moreover, Eager (2009) mentioned that brand credibility was the result of brand effectiveness. Previous research has shown that brand experience is the strongest direct predictor of brand credibility compared to brand attitude and consumer-based brand equity (Shamim & Butt, 2013). Shaoolian (2017) stated that leaving the right impression with users on your website and offering a pleasant user experience is critical to bolstering brand credibility. Brand experience plays a vital role in predicting brand equity, brand attitude and brand credibility (Schmitt, 2009). Wang and Yang (2010) found that brand image and brand awareness are found to positively moderate the relationship between brand credibility and consumers' brand purchase intention. Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand experience, the higher the brand credibility. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 5: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand credibility* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.2 Brand Pleasure

The M-R model devised by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) proposed that emotions such as pleasantness/unpleasantness and arousal/nonarousal influenced responses of individuals to their environments (Ryu & Jang, 2007; Donovan & Rossiter, 1982). Ladhari (2007) noted that pleasurable responses are considered action-oriented. This means that pleasurable responses lead to action by the consumer, resulting in some consequence, as consumers tend

to take positive actions based on pleasurable feelings. Numerous researchers have hypothesised that a causal relationship exists between pleasurable responses and revisit intentions, and have tested this hypothesis utilising empirical data (Jang & Namkung, 2009).

4.3.2.1 Brand Pleasure and Repurchase Intention (Hypothesis 6)

Energy drinks in South Africa have become an ever-expanding and growing industry with continuous annual double-digit growth (BMI, 2014). When Generation Y individuals experience pleasure in a store, they tend to buy more items (Xu, 2007). Generation Y in South Africa have pressure to be accepted in higher circles, as a result they have prioritised purchase of status and consumption products, such as premium branded cars, television sets, cellular phones, branded clothing and footwear (Duh & Struwig, 2015). Pleasure experienced from luxury consumption leads to the intent to repurchase luxury (Ki, Lee & Kim, 2017). For luxury retailers to maximise consumers' pleasure, the scholars recommend: (a) paying particular attention to the environment of their physical stores where consumers can walk in, touch and wear the products, and experience the store ambience, which will evoke consumers' positive emotions; and (b) providing exclusive promotions, such as private invitations to their new product launch and fashion shows, through which consumers can feel special and valued, which will lead to pleasure and eventually repurchase intention. These pleasurable brand experiences can lead to service brand differentiation, positive word of mouth, increase in sales, customer satisfaction, and repeat purchases (Khan & Rahman, 2016).

According to Ki, Lee and Kim (2017), existing studies have demonstrated a strong association between consumers' consumption-related emotions and their post consumption behaviour. In their study, they found that pleasure experienced from luxury consumption will positively lead to the intent to repurchase luxury. Otto and Ritchie (1996) argued that pleasurable brand experiences can lead to service brand differentiation, positive word of mouth, increase in sales, customer satisfaction, and repeat purchases. Li, Dong and Chen (2012) stated that emotions, such as pleasure and arousal, affect consumers' activity, intention and reaction with regard to consumption behaviour. Lunardo and Mbengue (2009) also demonstrated that pleasure has a positive impact on intention. Guests' perception of the company restaurant servicescape influenced their emotional states (pleasure and arousal) and through these emotions, their behavioural intentions (Ellen & Zhang, 2014). They further established that the restaurant's ambient conditions, signs, symbols, and artifacts had

significant effects on the level of pleasure and arousal experienced by the guests, and in addition, pleasure had a significant effect on behavioural intentions. Arousal, along with pleasure, are causal factors explaining variations in a consumer's behaviour and decision making (Koo & Lee, 2011). Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand pleasure, the higher the repurchase intention in South Africa. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 6: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand pleasure and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.3 Brand Arousal

Various environmental cues can affect arousal, including ambient scents, loud or fast-paced music, warm colours, and saturated colours (Lunardo & Roux, 2015). Arousing effects can be potent sources of inferences about the brands; these can influence consumers' perception on the image and appraisal of the brands. Marketers can manipulate the environments and induce arousal, which has proved to increase purchase probabilities, willingness to buy and propensities to spend extra time or more money in the store (Lunardo & Roux, 2015). Driving consumer arousal as a major influencing factor in making buying decisions is a recent strategy of retailers (Rajagopal, 2007). Arousal may be seeded through multifaceted activities that may be performed in various ways and embody different consumer feelings. Arousal conceived through the interactive modulation (i.e. touch, feel, and pick) of the sales process, which includes strategies of do it yourself (DIY) and recreational retailing, develops positive buying decisions among young consumers (Rajagopal, 2009). Arousal among young consumers plays a key role in buying decisions (Rajagopal, 2007). Retailers are faced with the challenge of enhancing in-store ambience to influence consumers to stay longer in the store (Rajagopal, 2007). Lunardo and Roux (2015) highlight that retailers should take care to avoid introducing overly high levels of stimulation such as very loud music, very bright colours and overly strong ambient scents, which may lead to counterproductive outcomes. For young consumers, shopping arousal is driven by store attractions, inter-personal influences, self-reference criteria and comparative gains (Rajagopal, 2007).

4.3.3.1 Brand Arousal and Repurchase Intention (Hypothesis 7)

Generation Y believes in immediate gratification and have the potential to be lifelong consumers (Jain & Pant, 2012). In the energy drinks category, 70% of energy drink purchases are driven by impulse behaviour and over half of energy drinks purchases are unplanned (Market Leaders, 2008). Generation Y exhibit stated brand preferences for specific energy drinks due to the fact that Generation Y responds to edgy advertising (Moore, 2009). A stimulating atmosphere – including tangible and intangible elements such as lighting, ambient music, odour and temperature – can induce specific emotional outcomes and lead consumers to spend more time and money in the store (Lunardo & Roux, 2015). As stated by Lee, Back and Kim (2009), emotions significantly contribute to the determination of repeat purchasing behaviour, and development of brand loyalty. Few studies have addressed the effect of arousal on different aspects of online behaviour. Scholars such as Wu et al. (2008), show that website fast tempo music and warm red colour has a positive impact on pleasure and arousal, which both influence intention to purchase.

Red Bull limited summer edition was launched in South Africa on October 2015, Red Bull aimed at arousing consumer's interest. The main communication of this was based on "same benefit, different taste"; the Red Bull Summer Edition was a functional beverage that combined the boost of a Red Bull Energy Drink with the taste of tropical fruits (BMI, 2016). McNab's introduced SuperCharge energy drink in South Africa, in January 2016; it was positioned as a natural energy drink with a refreshing and natural raspberry flavouring with a slight sparkle (BMI, 2016). Li, Dong and Chen (2012) point out that emotions, such as pleasure and arousal, affect consumers' activity, intention and reaction with regard to consumption behaviour. Lunardo and Roux's (2015) study suggests that practitioners need to carefully design their store environments, such that the arousal they create does not lead consumers to believe that the environment is manipulative. According to Kotler (1973), retailers can trigger high levels of arousal by manipulating a store's atmospherics. Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand arousal, the higher the repurchase intention. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 7: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand arousal and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.4 Brand Love

"I will always love you" directed at your partner, expressing these "deepest and most meaningful of sentiments" (Rubin, 1970) makes perfect sense. But in this day and age, it seems plausible that we feel passionate about an object, such as a brand, or even consider a brand to be a relationship partner (Huber, Meyer & Schmid, 2015). A consumer can love a brand (Sarkar, Ponnam & Murthy, 2012). Brand love can therefore be expressed as human love, since it is about the affection of a consumer for the brand which is formed when a consumer finds a brand attractive and the traits of his personality in the brand (Hassan, Rafi & Kazmi, 2016). Furthermore, brand love is considered as an emotional concept (Hassan et al., 2016).

In his BrandSquare Live Session, Creating Millennial Brand Engagement, Jeff Fromm, president of FutureCast, mentioned that the key to engaging Generation Y is by creating "brand love". Brand love is a new marketing construct that assesses satisfied consumers' passionate emotional attachment to particular brands (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). It requires further research either by looking at its antecedents or its consequences (Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2016). Recently, we have seen an increasing interest among both practitioners and academics in the concept of brand love (Pauwels-Delassus & Zarantonello, 2016; Albert & Merunka, 2013; Brata, Ahuvia & Bagozzi 2012; Rossiter, 2012; Albert et al., 2008), due to its consequences (i.e. brand commitment, positive word-of-mouth, brand loyalty, willingness to pay a premium price) and antecedents (i.e. satisfaction, brand identification, sense of community, trust and identification. Brand love has been considered an important concept in building several consumer attitudes (Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2016). Consumers who are really in love with a brand, will stick to it in order to avoid separation distress (Sarkar, 2011). Managerial relevance is dependent on finding actionable antecedents of brand love (Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2016). Roberts (2004, p. 57); the CEO of of Saatchi and Saatchi Worldwide, noted in his Lovemarks book, "I knew that love was the missing link, it was the only way to strengthen the emotional and to create the new kinds of brand relationship needed".

4.3.4.1 Brand Love and Repurchase Intention (Hypothesis 8)

Generation Y university students use different energy drinks per week (Aljaloud, 2016). For Generation Y, brand fit more strongly influences purchase intentions. Noble et al. (2009) established that issues relating to connectedness drive Generation Y consumers' product

purchases. Energy drinks are an ever-growing popular drink amongst South Africans and will be consumed for many more years (BMI, 2016). Generation Y is attractive to marketers because preferences and tastes formed during the teenage and young adult years can influence purchases throughout life. Influential South African radio DJ, recording artist and television presenter DJ Sbu launched the first fully black owned energy drink called MoFaya in South Africa during 2015, in order to capitalise on the booming energy drink market (Entertainment, 2015). The celebrity, DJ Sbu, has been seen selling MoFaya Energy Drink in the streets of Johannesburg (Unknown, 2017); the DJ has been promoting his product at university campuses in South Africa. The radio personality announced on Instagram that his energy drink, which has gained popularity among fans over time, will now be available nationwide through certain supermarkets (BETA TINZ, 2017).

Red Bull in its promotional activities is able to create meaningful dialogue with its consumers and cultivate a two-way relationship between culture and commerce; this helps them in creating loyalty among their target groups who are now a most valuable part of their success (Unknown, 2013). Furthermore, the authors mention that Red Bull's market entry strategy is to 'seed' places such as shops, clubs, bars and stores, focusing initially on opinion leaders who obtain positive direct experience with the brand; once word of mouth has created a buzz about the product, they then widen distribution to areas surrounding the "in" spots. The theoretical foundation behind creating these associations suggests that by creating these favourable connections between the brand, the experience, and the category, the more inclined a consumer will be to choose a particular brand over other competitors in the category (Unknown, 2013).

Brand love has been shown to influence desirable marketing outcomes (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Brands that invest in building brand love may reap benefits in the long term in the form of consumer willingness to repurchase the brand, to perform voluntary behaviour, demonstrate positive attitude toward the brand extension (Garg et al., 2015). Several studies demonstrate the positive relationship between brand love and consumers' intention to repurchase (Fetscherin, 2014; Ponnam, Murthy, 2012; Shuv-Ami, 2012; Vlachos & Vrechopoulos, 2012; Rossiter, 2012; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Keh, Pang & Peng, 2007). Batra et al. (2012), as well as Carroll and Ahuvia (2006), examined that consumers who are emotionally attached to the brands are more likely to continue the purchase of the same brand. Several previous studies have investigated the relationship between brand love

and repatronage intentions (Vlachos & Vrechopoulos, 2012; Yim, Tse & Chan, 2008; Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006).

Prior literature states that an individual strongly desires to possess a brand when he/she has intimate emotional and passionate feelings for a brand (Shimp & Madden, 1988). According to Matzler, Bidmon and Grabner-Kräuter (2006), brand affect (emotional feelings for a brand) positively influences purchase loyalty and/or the intention. Sarkar et al. (2012) found that brand intimacy and brand passion positively influence purchase intention. Meyer, Barnes and Friend's (2017) research suggests that in a transaction based environment, elevated emotions such as customer delight, represents a more powerful predictor of repurchase intentions. Sarkar (2011) mentions that brand love leads to positive word of mouth and a greater intention to pay a premium price. Numerous researchers have examined that consumers who are emotionally attached to the brands are more likely to continue the purchase of the same brand (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Batra et al., 2012). Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand love, the higher the repurchase intention. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 8: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand love and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.5 Brand Faith

In this study, brand faith has been defined as a higher degree of trust, comprising trust, engagement and community. Mosavi and Ghaedi (2012) reviewed literature on trust and highlighted that Anderson and Weitz (1992) define trust as one party's belief that its needs will be fulfilled in future by actions taken by the other party. Trust is when one party has confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity (Lee & Lin, 2005). When a customer has faith in a brand, it breeds trust (Mundondo, 2017).

4.3.5.1 Brand Faith and Repurchase Intention (Hypothesis 9)

Generation Y's lack of loyalty is possibly due to the fact that they have been more exposed to promotions than brand advertising (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009). They are a dominant segment of the future consumption market (Lazarevic, 2012). It is therefore important for marketers to engage in marketing activities that will convince the consumer to try their product and include it in their evoked set (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). For Red Bull, the tagline "Red Bull

gives you wings" and the words "energy drink" printed on the can hint at the product's potential benefits to revitalise the consumers' mind and body without making any direct claims, by using this ambiguous, non-quantitative tagline. According to Hegner and Jevons (2016), brand trust has a strong influence over purchase and repurchase behaviour. Trust weakens or strengthens by experience (Yoon, 2002). Similarly, Ha and Perks (2005) stated that trust is dependent on consumers' prior experiences or satisfaction judgments. Brand trust influences consumers' attitudes and brand related behaviours including purchases, attitudinal and behavioural loyalty, perceptions of brand value, brand commitment, and brand referrals (Becerra & Badrinarayanan, 2013). Consumers can have willingness to rely on a brand on the basis of perceptions, beliefs and the good characteristics of a brand despite any uncertainty associated with the brand (Hassan et al., 2016). Becerra and Badrinarayanan (2013) argue that a person trusts a brand when he perceives a brand to be reliable, competent and consistent. As stated by Sahin et al. (2012), brand trust has a significant effect on consumer repurchase intention for a brand; trusted brands should be purchased more often. Consumers with high commitment to specific brands have a higher level of intention to repeatedly purchase the same branded products (Chiu & Won, 2016). This finding is consistent with previous reports (Kim, Choi, Qualls & Han, 2008; Li & Petrick, 2008). Marketers can implement brand engagement strategies to build a high-quality relationship with their customers and to induce their repurchase behaviour (Zhan & Chen (2017). Furthermore, marketers should use effective strategies to encourage their customers' engagement, such as providing customers with an engagement platform, e.g., social media network (Zhan & Chen (2017). This is particularly relevant to Generation Y and the energy drinks category.

According to Mpinganjira (2016), little research exists on consumer engagement, resulting in limited understanding of the concept as well as its antecedents. As noted by Tormala and Petty (2004), the repeated mental processes of confidence or resistance lead to self-reinforcement in the mind of consumers. Teng and Laroche's (2007) study indicates that confidence influences consumers' purchase intentions. Previous studies of confidence mostly focus on the role of confidence as a predictor of attitude and behaviour (Huang, 2014), while Vermeir and Verbeke (2008) point out that confidence has a direct positive effect on intention to purchase sustainable diary, this means that highly confident respondents are more inclined to buy sustainable dairy products compared to less confident respondents. Therefore, it can

be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand faith, the higher the repurchase intention. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 9: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand faith and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.6 Brand Credibility

Brand credibility is significant with respect to emotion and reason in consumers' decision-making, although the importance may vary across different brands (Maathuis et al., 2004). Advertisers and marketers in service categories need to be mindful of managing their brand's credibility levels over time by executing various marketing communication campaigns (Baek & King, 2011). Erdem and Swait (1998) argued that brand management should include all aspects of credibility, such as the consistency of a brand's marketing mix strategies over time. Brand credibility in the service sector provides a goal for marketing communication campaigns that highlight the importance of consistency (Baek & King, 2011). As stated by Moorthy, Ratchford and Talukdar (1997), consumers who have more product or service experience tend to need less new information; this past experience may lead consumers to save on information costs. This means that familiarity associated with prior experience implies less information search effort regardless of a consumer's risk perception. It is therefore important for marketers to enhance consumer credibility and confidence as well as minimise uncertainty about product attributes.

4.3.6.1 Brand Credibility and Repurchase Intention (Hypothesis 10)

Generation Y has distinct purchasing behaviours and preferences, mostly looking for quality products at good prices (Chan & Wang, 2015). They can easily access product and market information (Duh, 2011). Scholars Leischnig et al. (2012) explored the effects of brand credibility on customers' repurchase intentions. Their research shows that brand credibility has a strong direct effect on customers' repurchase intentions. In South Africa, Kingsley Beverages launched a new energy drink variant in October 2015 (BMI, 2016), this was launched as a brand-extension to their existing Dragon Energy drink, therefore relying on credible claims of the motherbrand "New Dragon Sugar Free", free your energy, all the effects of Dragon without the kilojoules (BMI, 2016). As stated by Kim, Morris, and Swait

(2008), the more credible a brand as signal, the more loyal consumers are toward that brand in terms of repeat purchase. Literature has demonstrated that a customer who sees a company as being highly credible is more likely to purchase from them (Sweeney & Swait, 2008). Jin, Lee and Jun (2015) argue that brand credibility significantly and positively impacts consumers' brand preference; information cost saved, and brand prestige. They further state that brand preference, information cost saved, and brand prestige, in turn, significantly and positively impact behavioural intention (e.g. returning, positive word-of mouth, spend more than planned). Kemp and Bui (2011) found that brand credibility had a positive effect on brand commitment through the mediating role of purchase intention.

Matute, Polo-Redondo and Utrillas (2016) point out that only electronic word-of-mouth quality has a positive direct effect on consumers' repurchase intention while quantity has a negative influence. Furthermore, they indicate that perceived usefulness mediates the influence of all electronic word-of-mouth characteristics on online repurchase intention, and that electronic word-of-mouth credibility and quality also indirectly influences repurchase intentions through trust in the online vendor. Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand credibility, the higher the repurchase intention. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 10: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand credibility and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

4.3.7 Repurchase Intention

The South African economy is going through turbulent times with many factors affecting local markets; however, the energy drinks category has room for volume growth (BMI, 2017). It is therefore essential to retain category popularity amongst the Generation Y social media driven target market (BMI, 2017). The final variable, repurchase intention, acts as the outcome variable for the present study. Repurchase intention is similar to purchase intention except for the element of experience (Bojei & Hoo, 2012). Furthermore, repurchase intention was said to be an important indicator, due to its long term implications (Bojei & Hoo, 2012), especially in marketing (Fornell, 1992). Improving current customers' repurchase intentions is economically more advantageous than constantly seeking new customers (Kim & Ok, 2009). Reseachers therefore continuously attempt to find more new and/or industry-specific antecedents of repurchase intentions. In the SOR framework, Mehrabian-Russell (1974)

defined a human's behavioural responses to an environment and emotional state as approach or avoidance, whereby the approach behaviours represent all positive behaviours or behavioural intentions directly or indirectly affected by the environment, for example, intention to stay, explore, and affiliate; avoidance behaviours concern the opposite. Marketers constantly attempt to increase the purchase intention of the target buyer; furthermore, sales growth can be achieved through increasing the purchase intention (Sarkar et al., 2012). Hellier (2003) defined repurchase intention as the individual's judgement about buying a designated service again from the same company, taking into account his or her current situation and likelihood to repurchase. Repurchase intentions, willingness to pay a price premium, word-of-mouth, and complaining represent behavioural intentions (Ekaputri et al., 2016). Repurchase intentions simply refer to the likelihood of using a brand again in the future (Ekaputri et al., 2016). Miniard, Obermiller and Page (1983) noted that the prediction of purchase intention is a central concern in marketing. Repurchase intention has become a challenge to some companies, due to intense competition (Pappas, Pateli, Giannakos & Chrissikopoulos, 2014). As noted by Kang et al., (2011), the affective environmental component such as pleasant music, fresh scent, bright light, and soft fabrics evokes pleasure and arousal to lead to patronage intentions, consumers' willingness to buy, spending more time and money, revisit intentions' desire to stay more and longer, as well as liking to the extent of recommending the experience. Positive behavioural intentions to revisit the same site can have an impact on brand loyalty, increase positive word-of-mouth interaction, and decrease marketing costs (Clemes, Gan & Ren, 2011). Repurchase intention therefore appears to be possibly the most important outcome variable for marketers. Customers' repurchasing or loyalty is critical to the success and profitability of organisations. Further, understanding the elements which influence repeat purchases could provide a sustainable competitive advantage.

4.3.7.1 Brand Experience and Repurchase Intention (Hypothesis 11)

In South Africa, there are differences between Generation Y, in terms of whether they live in townships or suburbs; and in rural or urban areas (Duffett, 2015). Although general characteristics of this group include being technologically confident, competent and continually connected, independent, optimistic, self-confident, lifestyle-centered, entrepreneurial and having big aspirations and high levels of "entitlement" (Du

Chenne, 2011). Generation Y consumers have a free spending spirit and have the potential to generate trillions of dollars of business worldwide (Sundarapandiyan, Duraiarasi, Babu & Prabakaran, 2015). South Africa is seen as a leading emerging economy, with many challenges and developments facing companies competing in this environment and requires businesses to relook their business strategies (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). Numerous local businesses have quickly adapted to the new challenges and become very competitive (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013), especially when one thinks of energy drinks such as MoFaya, Dragon Energy Drink and Score Energy Drink.

Energy drink marketing has a high reach among young people (Hammond & Reid, 2017). Furthermore, expenditures for energy drink advertising have been increasing steadily, including on television (TV), magazines, Internet, radio, newspapers and outdoor advertising (Hammond & Reid, 2017). Red Bull contends that if Generation Y consumers are won, sustained growth is ensured (Naude, 2012). According to Naude (2012), in South Africa, there are nine million people within the Red Bull creative target market (15 to 29 years old) of which 73% are Black consumers, 13% are White, 11% are Coloured and 3% are Indian. Further to this, Naude (2012) states that South Africa's youth market is the power seat for brand update and ignition, and that marketing activity must be focused at the 15 to 29-year-old urban black youth consumer (Naude, 2012). Marketers should never discount the duality of South Africa's economy; on the one hand, marketers are faced with sophisticated wealthy consumers with demands not dissimilar to their counterparts in the developed world, while on the other hand, most South Africans are poor and focus on day-to-day survival (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). A peculiarity that marketers in South Africa do not contend with when entering the South Africa market is the loyalty that many South Africans exhibit to so-called home-grown brands (Petzer & De Meyer, 2013). In the energy drinks category, drivers of brand choice are very important, with price and pack size as the most important brand drivers of choice for consumers (Naude, 2012). Furthermore, Red Bull is still very successful in the brand drivers of brand, efficacy and taste (Naude, 2012).

According to Buchanan, Kelly and Yeatman (2017), Generation Y's exposure to digital marketing contents of energy drinks improved the experimental group participants' attitudes towards and purchase and consumption intention of energy drinks. Customer experiences are major driving forces behind their decision-making related to brand repurchase (Alam et al., 2012). Previous literature indicated that the stimulus can influence customers' response.

Customers make repeat visits when they receive unique and memorable brand experiences, and are more likely to develop brand loyalty (Brakus et al., 2009). As stated by Brakus et al. (2009), customers make repeat visits when they receive unique and memorable brand experiences. Sikdar, Kumar and Makkad (2015, p. 765) stated that "if the experience is positive it creates a desire for repeat usage". A study by Rambitan (2013) indicated that brand experience has an influence, but not significant, towards repurchase intention. The right sensory stimuli, if applied appropriately, can calm, relax, de-stress, energise, improve mood, influence decision-making and hence, the propensity to spend (Soars, 2009). According to Garrido-Morgado, González-Benito, and Martos-Partal (2016), stimuli usually trigger unplanned purchases, which now represent about 70% of total purchases. Kotler (1973) stated that atmospherics enhance purchase probability. Evidence also exists to support the notion that customers' evaluation of past experiences can influence repurchase intention (Curtis et al., 2011; Olaru, Purchase & Peterson, 2008).

Mungania's (2016) study found that store sight, scent, sound and touch influences consumer purchase in apparel stores at The Junction Mall. Yan, Lee and Lee (2012) found that brand experience affects attitude positively and brand experience affects repurchase intention positively. Sunyansanoa (2013) examined the factors that influence the repurchasing intention of credence products; the researcher found that satisfaction mediates the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention. As highlighted by Karjaluoto et al. (2016), without emotional connection, relationships are easily dissolved if "relationship enhancers" disappear. Therefore, repeat purchase behaviour alone is an insufficient measure of a strong relationship and an inadequate objective for customer relationship management (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995). The Stimuli Organism Response model consists of stimulus as an independent variable, organism as mediator, and response as the dependent variable. Most previous relevant literature agree on the three basic variables, except for Daunt and Harris (2012), Wong et al., (2012) and Lin (2004), who have argued against the SOR's three variables relationship. Bagdare and Jain's (2013) retail study found that customers' engagement with several activities during retail brand selection, purchase and post purchase stages brings a comprehensive experience that determines their satisfaction with the retailer and affects their revisit intention. According to Soars (2009), the right sensory stimuli, if applied appropriately, can calm, relax, de-stress, energise, improve mood, influence decision-making and the propensity to spend.

Visual effects associated with products often stimulate buying decisions among young consumers (Rajagopal, 2009), point-of-sales brochures, catalogues, and posters build assumptions about perceived-use value and motivational relevance of buying decisions. (Rajagopal, 2009). Brakus et al. (2009) argued that since brand experiences create pleasurable outcomes, these will affect future-oriented decision making: consumers are more likely to make repeat purchases and recommendations to others. Petruzzellis's (2010) mobile phone study proved that the re-buying process is highly linked to past experiences. Brakus, Schmitt and Zhang (2008) stated that brand experience is a personal source of information that can be utilised to form the basis of future decisions, such as repurchase intention (Brakus et al., 2008). Scholars Alshurideh, Nicholson and Xiao's (2012) recent study targeted the effect of experience on repeat purchase behaviour; the study established that there is a direct effect of experience on purchase behaviour, and then investigated the extent to which positive (negative) experience affects repeat (switching) customer purchase behaviour in the UK mobile phone sector (Alshurideh et al., 2012). The consequences of brand experience include enhancement of consumers' behavioural intentions. Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou (2013), as well as Rose et al., (2011), along with Zarantonello and Schmitt (2010), conclude that the relationship between attitudes towards brands and purchase intentions is stronger for holistic consumers who are interested in all kinds of experiences (i.e. sensory, emotional, intellectual and behavioural).

The Sweeney and Wyber (2002) study found that music influenced a willingness to buy at the store and a willingness to recommend the store. Previous studies by Cadwell and Hibbert (2002) indicated that music is one of the atmospheric elements that affect restaurant patrons' behaviour. Kim and Moon (2009) argued that the type and theme of restaurant customers' visits influences revisit intention. Zena and Hadisumarto (2012) argued that the experiential marketing used by Strawberry Cafe can affect customer loyalty positively; Strawberry Cafe serves a variety of food and beverages that are all based on strawberries. The researcher collected data from 142 respondents and analysed the data using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Yang's (2009) study proved that sense of experiential marketing is an indispensable factor and every construct of sense marketing also showed a significant correlation between consumer satisfaction of Mo's Burger and repurchase intention. Wahyuningtyas, Achmad and Zainul (2017) found that experiential marketing variables such as sense, feel, think, act and relate, have a significant influence on customer satisfaction and prove that customer satisfaction has a significant influence on customer loyalty. They find

further that memorable experience for the customer is one of the main factors in maintaining customer loyalty in a competitive business competition. Nigam (2012) indicated that if the consumer has a memorable experience with the restaurant, the purchasing intention would be higher. Daunt and Harris (2012), Wong et al. (2012) and Lin (2004) indicated that stimulus directly influence customers' response. Similarly, Han and Kim (2009) found that customers' previous experiences with a product or service results in the formation of an attitude toward the provider that is greatly associated with consumer intentions to repurchase and recommend. Therefore, it can be posited that for Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa, the stronger the brand experience, the higher the repurchase intention. Based on the reviewed literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H 11: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

b) The Linkage between Organism (O) and Responses (R)

The second linkage in the SOR model, between the organism and responses, was built upon findings in positive reinforcement and information rate (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974).

4.4 Conclusion

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

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

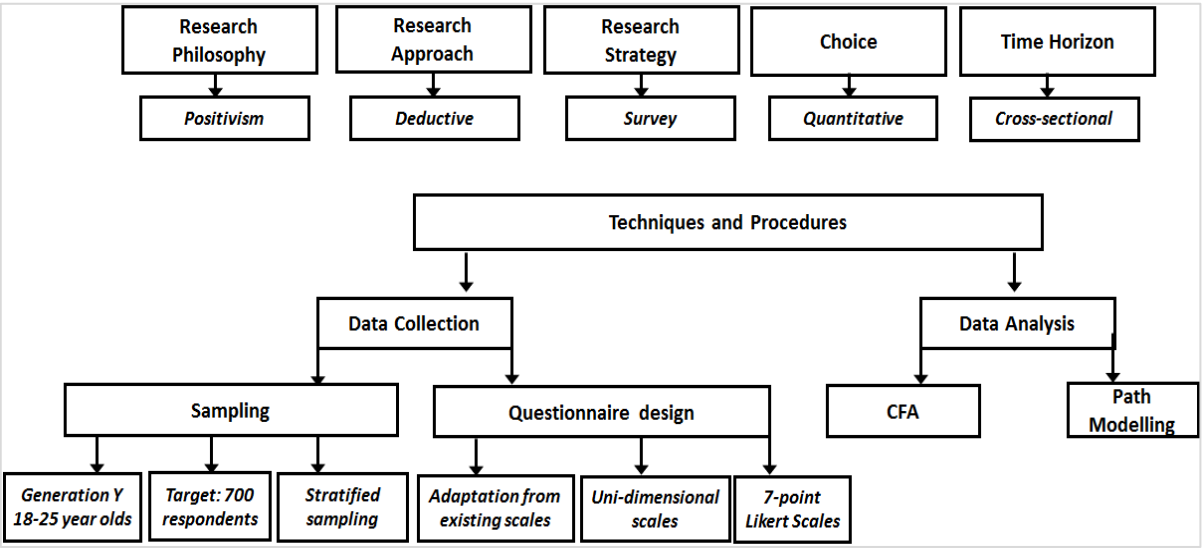
5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research approaches and data collection method adopted for the present study. The research philosophical standpoint is first outlined, followed by the argument for the methodological choices and thereafter an explanation of the data collection method. The chapter ends with a description and discussion of the techniques and procedures used for the purpose of the present study.

5.2 Research Methodology

Research methodology has been described as an approach to the process of the research encompassing a body of methods (Collis & Hussey, 2013). Research methodology, in essence, is focused around the problems to be investigated in a research study and therefore varies according to the problems investigated (Wedawatta, Ingirige & Amaratunga, 2011). Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) developed a research onion graphic which describes important parts of the research methodology, all the thoughts with regard to the research problem lie in the center and thus several layers have to be "peeled away" before coming to this central position. Each layer of the onion covers different states of the research process. This study discusses the following onion layers: research philosophy, research approach, research strategy, choices, time horizons as well as the last layer, techniques and procedures. As noted by Churchill and Sanders (2007), it is important in a doctoral study that there is consistency between research questions, methodological and theoretical approaches. Experiential marketing reviewers, Khan and Rahman (2015), highlight that approximately 62% of brand experience research has adopted a positivist paradigm and mainly comprises survey research design and quantitative data analysis techniques such as factor analysis, structural equation modelling, correlation, and regression. The research methodology summary for this study is presented in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Research methodology summary adopted for this study



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

As depicted in Figure 5.1, the research philosophy, approach, strategy, choice, and techniques are inherent components of the methodology.

5.2.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to the way in which a researcher thinks about the development of knowledge. The research philosophy is the first layer of the research onion and describes how the researcher sees the world (Saunders et al., 2009). Philosophy is necessary for seeking answers to the research assumptions and determines the research questions so that they can lead to the research methodology (Saunders et al., 2009). The research philosophy adopted by the researcher contains important assumptions about the way in which the researcher usually views the world and practical considerations. These philosophical worldviews are addressed through research paradigms. "A research paradigm is a framework that guides how research should be conducted, based on people's philosophies and their assumptions about the world and nature of knowledge" (Collis & Hussey, 2013, p. 10), while research philosophy refers to the philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study (Creswell, 2014). The fundamental beliefs of research paradigms are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Fundamental Beliefs of Research Paradigms

	Research Paradigms			
Fundamental Beliefs	**Positivism (Naïve realism)**	**Post-positivism (Critical Realism)**	**Interpretivism (Constructivism)**	**Pragmatism**
Ontology: *the researcher's view of the nature of reality or being*	External, objective and independent of social actors	Objective. Exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple	External, multiple, view chosen to best achieve an answer to the research question
Axiology: *the researcher's view of the role of values in research*	Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance	Research is value laden; the researcher is biased by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing	Research is value bound, the researcher is part of what is being researched	Values play a large role in interpreting the results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view
Research Methodology	Quantitative	Quantitative or qualitative	Qualitative	Quantitative and Qualitative (mixed or multi-method design)
Data collection techniques most often used	Highly structured, large samples, measurement, quantitative, but can use qualitative	Methods chosen must fit the subject matter, quantitative or qualitative	Small samples, in-depth investigations, qualitative	Mixed or multiple method designs, quantitative and qualitative

Source: (Wahyuni, 2012; Saunders et al., 2009).

As presented in Table 5.1, the research philosophy is commonly divided into four paradigms: positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism (Wahyuni, 2012).

5.2.1.1 Positivism

In positivism, the social world exists externally and is viewed objectively (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2011). It refers to the epistemological position that advocates working with an observable social reality. The emphasis is on highly structured methodology to facilitate replication, and the end product can be law-like generalisations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientists (Saunders et al., 2009). As stated by Neuman (2011),

positivist researchers believe in the power of replication research based on law-like generalisation while measuring social phenomena. The positivistic approach assumes that the social world consists of simple elements from which objective conclusions can be drawn (Fleischer & Wåhlin, 2016). Since positivism is composed of largely deductive approaches, it involves theory testing (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

5.2.1.2 Post-positivism

While the post-positivist approach also believes in generalisation, it tends to admit that knowledge is a result of social conditioning (Wahyuni, 2012). Post-positivism does not suggest that positivism is no longer relevant but rather offers that something exists subsequent to positivism that also is worth considering (Henderson, 2011; Brand, 2009).

5.2.1.3 Interpretivism

Qualitative researchers hold a different view about reality, ethics, knowledge and methodology, thus adopting Interpretivism as an underlying paradigm behind their studies (Addae & Quan-Baffour, 2015). Interpretivism refers to the epistemological position that advocates the necessity to understand differences between humans in their role as social actors (Saunders et al., 2009). Interpretivist researchers favour interacting and having a dialogue with the studied participants as they believe that individuals vary in background, assumptions and that their experiences contribute to the on-going construction of reality existing in their broader social context through social interaction (Wahyuni, 2012). Furthermore, interpretivism relies on qualitative data which provides rich descriptions of social constructs, as opposed to generalisations or the nomothetic approach adopted by post-positivist researchers (Wahyuni, 2012) as social reality changes.

5.2.1.4 Pragmatism

Pragmatist researchers favour working with both quantitative and qualitative data because it enables them to better understand social reality, pragmatism rejects positivism as it believes that no theory can satisfy its demands, pragmatism has been referred to as the philosophical basis for mixed methods (Addae et al., 2015). It argues that the most important determinant of the research philosophy adopted is the research question, arguing that it is possible to work within both positivist and interpretivist positions; it thereby applies a practical approach, integrating different perspectives to help collect and interpret data (Saunders et al., 2009).

5.2.1.4.1 Justification for this Study: Positivism

The present study follows a positivist approach, as it intends to investigate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The fundamental idea of positivism is to classify problems, state an hypothesis, verify the hypothesis, and summarise the data in order to provide generalisable, law-like conclusions (Sunyansanoa, 2013). It allows for the researcher to gain results from quantitative data and to seek data in order to confirm or falsify all or some parts of hypothesis tests and also extends to further research (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher measures social phenomena, uses statistical tests and applies a similar research process in investigating a large sample as it investigates the relationship between, and the exploration of the dependent and independent variables. The research started with a review of literature, followed by the development of a conceptual framework, thereafter research hypotheses were developed to test the relationships between dependent and independent variables. A summary of this study's paradigm is presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Summary of Classification Research Paradigm of the study – Positivism

Positivist component	Definition	Relative to this Study
Ontology	Nature of reality, people Objectivism	Target population/respondents
Epistemology	Natural science model, social reality	Finding truth
Axiology	Fundamental values, consciousness	Value-free
Research approach	Principal orientation to the role of theory in relation to research.	Deductive approach and testing of theory
Research strategy	Type of involvement with respondents	Quantitative research
Methodology	Verification of hypotheses	Questionnaire survey
Methods	Individual techniques for data collection	A structured interview, face-to-face

Source: Sunyansanoa (2013)

5.2.2 Research Approach

It is important to adopt the right research approach since it influences the research design as well as the research strategy (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008). After choosing a suitable research philosophy, it is important that the researcher decides how theory will be involved in the research project. The researcher then either follows a deductive approach

which entails theory testing or an inductive approach where theory is developed; this depends on the logic of the research (Creswell, 2014). Deductive research refers to the testing of concepts and patterns known from theory using new empirical data, while possibly refining, improving or extending it (Collis & Hussey, 2013; Bhattacherjee, 2012). Deductive reasoning works from the more general to the more specific as hypotheses are proposed from the beginning of the research after which data is tested (Mason, 2007). According to Hall, Griffiths and McKenna (2013), positivist researchers use deductive reasoning to generate hypotheses that emphasise rational, objective and logical thinking. Inductive research infers theoretical concepts and patterns from observed data while moving from specific observations to broader generalisations and theories (Collis & Hussey, 2013; Bhattacherjee, 2012). Similarly, Bryman (2016) refers to deductive and inductive approaches to the relationship between theory and research, where in deductive approach, theory leads to observations/findings and inductive approach, observations/findings leading to theory. The deduction approach emphasises scientific principles, involving moving from theory to data, to explaining causal relationships between variables and is highly structured (Saunders et al., 2009). In the deductive approach, deductive samples of sufficient size must be selected in order to generalise conclusions. The induction approach emphasises gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events; it offers the possibility of examining a link between specific variables without prior knowledge about the way individuals interpret their social surroundings (Saunders et al., 2009).

5.2.3 Justification for this Study: Deductive Approach

In this study, the deductive reasoning approach is thus used in this study since the purpose is to use existing theories and investigate a research gap. The study began with a literature review, the theoretical framework and hypotheses based on the extant research and available theory. A deductive approach is thus used in this study. There is substantial literature on the Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) stimulus-organism-response (SOR) theory, from which eleven hypotheses as well as a theoretical framework can be defined, the researcher decided to use a deductive approach. After a detailed literature review was performed by the researcher, a research gap was established. The deductive approach is related to positivism and can be adjusted to the natural sciences (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher intends to move from theory to quantitative analysis and needs to explain causal relationships between variables; a deductive reasoning approach is therefore applicable for this study.

5.2.4 Research Strategy

There are five different kinds of research strategies. When considering these different strategies, the researcher must use the one which fits the purpose of the research. The research strategy needs to enable the researcher to meet the research objectives as well as answer the research question; besides the research questions and objectives, the choice of the research strategy depends on factors like existing knowledge, the amount of time and other resources available, as well as the researcher's own philosophical underpinnings (Saunders et al., 2009). Research strategy provides the overall direction of the research including the process by which the research is conducted (Wedawatta, Ingirige & Amaratunga, 2011). According to Bryman (2016), research strategy refers to a general orientation to the conduct of social research. Common research strategies include experiment, survey, case study, action research, grounded theory, ethnography and archival research (Saunders et al., 2009). In the framework of a deductive approach, the survey strategy is often used among scholars and in business as it allows researchers to collect quantitative data (Saunders et al., 2009; Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff & Terblanche, 2008).

Survey research strategy is the most suitable data collection method for consumer opinions and behaviours of a large number of people (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). Furthermore, it offers the possibility for data to be standardised, allowing for easy comparison. This method allows for the collection of quantitative data that can then be analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Survey strategy allows the generation of findings that are representative of the whole population at a lower cost than collecting data for the whole population. When conducting a survey, it is important to ensure that the sample is representative and to conduct a pilot test to make sure the respondents understand the questions as intended. Despite the time spent in analysing the results, once the data is collected, the researcher becomes independent, which is critical in order to stay within the anticipated time frame (Saunders et al., 2009). Surveys are mostly used when using a quantitative research approach with a descriptive research and with a cross-sectional design. Previous researchers extensively used the survey approach to explore branding in different contexts (Alnawas & Altarifi, 2016; Tsai, 2014). It also has the ability to measure latent constructs, that is, variables that cannot be directly observed or quantified. Finally, it allows for investigation of problems in realistic settings and allows access to a wide range of participants, thus increasing the likelihood of generalising the results.

5.2.4.1 Justification for this Study: Survey Method

In this study, the researcher decided to adopt the survey strategy due to the large population of the research study, as the survey strategy offers a basis to collect data from a sizable population using minimal staff and limited financial resources. The survey research is able to gain a large number of respondents by interviewing them using the same questions (Neuman, 2006). Another advantage of the survey research for this study is that the collection of the data is structured, as it uses either structured observation or structured interview techniques. Due to the fact that data collected using a survey strategy can be used to suggest possible reasons for particular relationships between variables and to produce models of these relationships, the survey method was the most suitable for this study, as the study relies on hypotheses testing.

5.2.5 Method Choices: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Method

There are three research choices, namely qualitative, quantitative and mixed method research (Saunders et al., 2009). Qualitative research is a means of exploring meaning and understanding, often uses words, is structured, considers the point of view of participants, is theory emergent, unstructured and operates in natural settings (Bryman, 2016). It is also not about generalising, but more about understanding social behaviour in its natural setting (Babbie, 2016). Qualitative research is sometimes called interpretive research because it seeks to develop understanding through detailed description, as it builds theory but rarely tests it (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Qualitative research is often labelled as interpretative, ethnographic or phenomological (Egan, 2015). Qualitative research is based on the phenomenological/interpretivist paradigm while quantitative research is rooted in the positivist paradigm (Arghode, 2012). Quantitative research explores relationships, uses numbers, the point of view of the researcher, is based on theory testing, is structured and operates in artificial settings (Bryman, 2016). Quantitative research is often labelled as scientific, positivistic, natural science based or hypothetico-deductive (Egan, 2015). Mixed method refers to the use of quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures either at the same time (parallel) or one after the other (sequential), but not in combination (Saunders et al., 2009). Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) argue that multiple methods are useful if they provide better opportunities for the researcher to answer research questions and where they allow the researcher to better evaluate the extent to which research findings can be trusted and inferences made from them.

5.2.5.1 Qualitative and Quantitative Research: Definitions

Several writers (Bryman, 2016; Malhotra, 2010; Wagner, Kalluwich & Garner, 2012; Creswell, 2014) have defined both qualitative and quantitative research. The qualitative definitions are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Qualitative Definitions

	Definitions	Authors
1	"…qualitative research usually emphasises words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data…"(p. 694)	Bryman (2016)
2	"An unstructured, exploratory research methodology based on small samples that provides insights and understanding of the problem setting" (p. 171)	Malhotra (2010)
3	"Research that seeks to interpret or make sense of phenomena in terms of the meanings they have for participants" (p. 272)	Wagner, Kalluwich & Garner (2012)
4	"An approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem." (p. 4)	Creswell (2014)

Source: (Bryman, 2016; Malhotra, 2010; Wagner, Kalluwich & Garner, 2012; Creswell, 2014).

Table 5.3 presented the definitions of qualitative research from various authors. The definitions of quantitative research are presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Quantitative Definitions

	Definitions	Authors
1	"..quantitative research usually emphasises quantification in the collection and analysis of data…"(p. 694)	Bryman (2012)
2	"A research methodology that seeks to quantify the data and, typically, applies some form of statistical analysis"(p. 171)	Malhotra (2010)
3	"Research that aims to describe social phenomena through systematic numerical means, such as the application of mathematical statistical processes" (p. 273)	Wagner, Kalluwich & Garner (2012)
4	"An approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables." (p. 4)	Creswell (2014)

Source: (Bryman, 2016; Creswell, 2014; Wagner, Kalluwich & Garner, 2012; Malhotra, 2010).

Table 5.4 presented the definitions of quantitative research. For the purpose of the present study, Creswell's (2014) definition of quantitative research is used.

5.2.5.2 Comparison between Qualitative and Quantitative Research

In quantitative research, numbers are used to study the phenomenon or occurrence, thereby quantifying the participant responses and subsequently interpreting them to make decisions (Arghode, 2012), while in qualitative research, the researchers explore the meaning as understood by the participants, in a natural setting, through different methods such as interviews, case study or observations (Arghode, 2012). Qualitative studies have a small number of participants in their research, and the findings cannot be generalised to the broader population. Quantitative research focuses on proving or disproving an hypothesis based on a large number of participants' responses. A comparison between qualitative and quantitative research is presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Comparison of Qualitative and Quantitative Research

Feature	Qualitative	Quantitative
Type of research	Exploratory	Descriptive/causal
Sample size	Small	Large
Types of questions	Unstructured	Structured
Types of analysis	Subjective	Objective, statistical
Generalisability	Limited	High
Costs (typically)	Lower	More expensive
Time frame (Typically)	Shorter	Longer

Source: Clow & James (2013)

As shown in Table 5.5, features of qualitative differ from quantitative research, the differences include: the type of research, sample size, types of questions, type of analysis, generalisability, costs and time frame.

5.2.6 Justification for this Study: Quantitative Approach

Despite the criticism that quantitative research does not recognise the difference between natural science and the social world (Bryman & Bell, 2015), the researcher chose to use a quantitative approach in this study. The main reason behind this decision is the ability to obtain a high degree of precision and accuracy in the results, and to fulfil the purpose of investigating the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between experiential marketing and repurchase intention among Generation Y consumers in the energy drinks category. The researcher investigated causal relationships to describe issues and investigate the reason behind them. It is also critical for quantitative data to be generalisable and replicable (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

The method used by the researcher depends greatly on the research question addressed in the present study; furthermore, the researcher seeks correlation, relationships and causality (Schreier, 2012). The method chosen also allows the researcher to test objective theories by examining the relationship among variables using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2014). Quantitative research methods are objective in nature and seek to explain phenomena objectively (Muijs, 2011). Because of its nature, quantitative research allows for a broader study, which involves numerous subjects thereby allowing for generalisation of results and replication (Babbie, 2016). Moreover, the Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) stimulus-organism-response (SOR) theory has been used by scholars in numerous quantitative studies for behavioural research within different industries, in which the credibility of the established constructs has been proven.

5.2.7 Time Horizons

In terms of time horizons, research projects may be cross-sectional or longitudinal studies. Cross-sectional research refers to the study of a particular phenomenon (or phenomena) at a particular time, i.e. a 'snapshot' (Saunders et al., 2009). Longitudinal studies on the other hand, refer to the study of a particular phenomenon (or phenomena) over an extended period of time (Saunders et al., 2009). These reflect decisions of the priority being given to dimensions in the research process. Bryman (2016) however refers to these as generic research designs and states that there are five generic research designs, being cross-sectional design, longitudinal design, case study design, comparative design, and experimental design.

5.2.8 Justification for this Study: Cross-sectional Design

In this study, the researcher undertook a cross-sectional design as the researcher gather data at a single point in time, allowing the researcher to have a temporal view of the social phenomena in the limited time frame within which the research was conducted.

5.2.9 Techniques and Procedures

The techniques and procedures included data collection approach and data analysis approach. As stated by Saunders et al. (2009), time horizons are followed by techniques and procedures.

5.3 Data collection approach

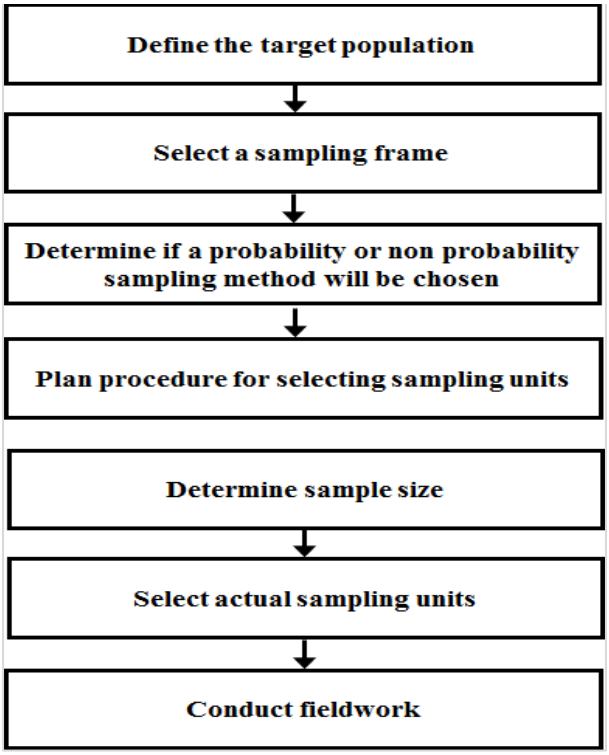
Data collection refers to the gathering of information to assist the researcher to answer research questions (Wagner et al., 2012). The following section provides a detailed description of the data collection approach that was adopted for the present study. More

specifically, the data collection techniques; sampling procedure, ethical considerations and the measurement instrument are discussed.

5.3.1 Sampling Procedure

When collecting data, it is necessary to decide if sampling is applicable to the research question and objectives. Sampling enables researchers to define a sub-group from which data is collected instead of all possible members or events within a population. Saunders et al. (2009) argue that the time saved by collecting data from a sample instead of a census can be used to design and pilot the means to collect the data. Figure 5.2 provides an overview of the sampling procedure.

Figure 5.2: Sampling Procedure



Source: Zikmund (2013)

As presented in Figure 5.2, the sampling procedure consists of seven steps. These steps have been applied in the current study.

5.3.1.1 Target Population

The target population refers to the group from which the sample will be selected (Lamb et al., 2008). Generation Y are principal users of energy drinks, especially university-aged Generation Y (Stacey et al., 2017; Aljaloud, 2016; Bulut et al., 2014). The population for this research study comprises all Generation Y members who are registered at SA Higher

education/universities. This is in line with Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin's (2013) suggestion that at the outset of the sampling process, the target population must be carefully defined so that the proper sources from which the data are to be collected can be identified. The target population refers to a specified group of many cases from which a researcher draws a sample, and to which results from a sample are generalised (Neuman, 2014).

The target population for this study was specified as male and female 468,122 full-time contact South Africa Higher education institution Generation Y students (DHET, 2016). University students are typically between the ages of 18 and 24 years (Tan, Teoh, Tan, Teo & Tan, 2013). The Gauteng province was selected due to its having the largest share of the South African student population (DHET, 2016) and because Gauteng province is responsible for 52.2% of energy drinks' volume in South Africa (BMI, 2016). University aged students were selected for participating in the study, as they consume more energy drinks than other age cohort (Bulut et al., 2014; Packaged Facts, 2013; McGuinness & Fogger, 2011).

5.3.1.2 Sampling Frame

A database of universities from which a number of students were drawn, was obtained from the Department of Higher Education and Training in South Africa (DHET). The aforementioned database had 468,122 full-time contact students, of which 159,002 were Gauteng students. The DHET data base list provided the names of universities, including the numbers of university-aged Generation Y South Africans; male and female full-time contact students enrolled in South Africa universities. The sample frame for this study is therefore, people who are eligible to take part in the study. A sampling frame is drawn-up once the target population is defined (Tull & Hawkins, 1993). Zikmund et al. (2013) refer to a sampling frame as a list of elements from which a sample may be drawn; also called a working population. It is important that the sampling frame is complete and correct since it will be used as a tool for drawing conclusions about the population (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The sampling frame for this study is presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: List of Full-Time Students in Public HEIs by institution

Institution	Full-time Contact
Cape Peninsula University of Technology	24 081
University of Cape Town	20 691
Central University of Technology, Free State	9 964
Durban University of Technology	19 586
University of Fort Hare	10 987
University of the Free State	20 013
University of Johannesburg	38 083
University of KwaZulu-Natal	33 523
University of Limpopo	16 724
Mangosuthu University of Technology	7 603
University of Mpumalanga	647
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University	19 993
North West University	29 910
University of Pretoria	39 503
Rhodes University	6 479
Sefako Makagtho Health Science University	3 755
Sol Plaatjie University, Northern Cape	335
University of South Africa	-
University of Stellenbosch	23 203
Tshwane University of Technology	40 580
University of Venda	11 821
Vaal University of Technology	11 558
Walter Sisulu University	21 987
University of Western Cape	15 513
University of Witwatersrand	25 523
University of Zululand	16 060
Total	**468 122**

Source: Statistics on Post School Education and Training in South Africa (2015, p. 16)

Table 5.6 shows a complete list of all the cases in the population from which the sample for the study has been drawn.

5.3.2 Sampling Techniques: Probability or Non-Probability sampling

There are two approaches to selecting a sample, namely: probability and non-probability sampling methods.

5.3.2.1 Probability Sampling

Probability sampling (or representative sampling) is often associated with survey strategies, where conclusions regarding the population are made based on the sample to answer the

research question (Saunders et al., 2009). The chance, or probability, of each case being selected from the population is known and is not zero since the sample is chosen statistically at random (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher can specify the probability that any case will be included in the sample. Lamb et al. (2008) refer to it as a method where every element in the population has a known statistical likelihood of being selected. Zikmund et al. (2013) refers to probability sampling as a sampling technique in which every member of the population has a known, non-zero probability of selection while non-probability sampling is referred to as a sampling technique in which units of the sample are selected on the basis of personal judgement or convenience; the probability of any particular member of the population being chosen is unknown. Cooper and Schindler (2011) state that probability sampling is a controlled randomised procedure that assures that each population element is given a known, non-zero chance of selection. Lamb et al. (2008) further state that it's most desirable feature is that scientific rules can be used to ensure that the sample represents the population. The probability sample allows the researcher to generalise the results of the sample to the entire population, which is a major advantage above non-probability samples. (Lamb et al., 2008). The choice of a probability sample is often influenced by availability of a sampling frame; if a sampling frame is not available, researchers are often forced to use a non-probability sample. Probability methods include; simple random, systematic, stratified, cluster and multistage (Bryman, 2016; Zikmund et al., 2013; Saunders et al., 2009).

5.3.2.2 Non-Probability Sampling

Non-probability (or non-random) sampling methods provide a range of techniques which are based on the subjective judgement of the researcher. Non-probability sampling is an arbitrary and subjective sampling procedure where each population element does not have a known, non-zero chance of being included (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Saunders et al. (2009) refer to it as a sampling technique in which the chance or probability of each case being selected is not known. Lamb et al. (2008) state that any sample in which little or no attempt is made to get a representative cross-section of the population can be considered a non-probability sample. Limited resources or the inability to specify a sampling frame may dictate the use of one or a number of non-probability sampling techniques (Saunders et al., 2009).

According to Lamb et al. (2008) non-probability samples are acceptable as long as the researcher understands their non-representative nature, as the findings are applicable to that sample only and cannot be generalised to the entire population. Due to their low cost,

convenience and speed of data collection, non-probability sample are used in many marketing research studies. A comparison of non-probability methods is presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Comparison of Sampling Methods: Non-probability Samples

Nonprobability Samples			
Methods	**Cost and Degree of Use**	**Advantages**	**Disadvantages**
1. *Convenience:* The researcher uses the most convenient sample or economical sample units.	Very low cost, extensively used	No need for list of Population	Unrepresentative samples likely; random sampling error estimates cannot be made; projecting data beyond sample is relatively risky
2. *Judgement:* An expert or experienced researcher selects the sample to fulfil a purpose, such as ensuring that all members have a certain characteristic.	Moderate cost, average use	Useful for certain types of forecasting; sample guaranteed to meet a specific objective	Bias due to expert's beliefs may make sample unrepresentative; projecting data beyond sample is risky
3. *Quota:* The researcher classifies the population by pertinent properties, determines the desired proportion to sample from each class, and fixes quotas for each interviewer.	Moderate cost, very extensively used	Introduces some stratification of population; requires no list of population	Introduces bias in researcher's classification of subjects; non-random selection within classes means error from population cannot be estimated; projecting data beyond sample is risky
4. *Snowball:* Initial respondents are selected by probability samples; additional respondents are obtained by referral from initial respondents.	Low cost, used in special situations	Useful in locating members of rare populations	High bias because sample units are not independent; projecting data beyond sample is risky

Source: Zikmund et al. (2013)

Table 5.7 shows non-probability sampling methods, these include convenience, judgement, quota and snowball (Bryman, 2016; Zikmund et al., 2013; Saunders et al., 2009). However, for this research study, the researcher used a probability sampling method. The sample was chosen via the stratified sampling approach. The rationale for choosing probability sampling method and stratified sampling is discussed below.

- **Rationale for Probability Sampling in this study**

The researcher used probability sampling as each unit in the population has a known probability of being selected. In this study, the sampling frame was obtained from the Department of Higher Education and Training in South Africa (DHET) database list of statistics on Post School Education and Training in South Africa, therefore every element in the population has a known statistical likelihood of being selected. In this study, each element in the population has an equal chance of being selected for the sample. The researcher was therefore able to generalise the results to the entire population.

- **Rationale for Stratified Sampling in this study**

Stratified sampling was adopted in this study since different strata of the research population are concerned. The researcher aimed at including a proportional representation of students across various universities in the Gauteng province, South Africa. Therefore, the researcher employed stratified sampling by selecting four universities in Gauteng. The stratified random sampling technique allows for such representation, as it includes important sub-populations (strata) with increased precision, and it involves drawing separate probability samples within the subgroups to make the sample more efficient. Saunders et al. (2009) refers to stratified random sampling as a probability sampling procedure in which the population is divided into two or more relevant strata and a random sample (systematic or simple) is drawn from each of the strata. Zikmund et al. (2013) refer to stratified sampling as a probability sampling procedure in which simple random sub-samples that are more or less equal on some characteristic are drawn from within each stratum of the population. According to Malhotra (2010), stratified sampling involves a two-step process to divide the population into sub-groups that are called strata, thereafter elements are selected from each stratum by a simple random procedure. In stratified sampling, a sub-sample is drawn using simple random sampling within each stratum (Zikmund et al., 2013).

In drawing a sample with stratified sampling, the population is divided into sub-populations or strata and uses simple random sampling on each stratum (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). The advantages and disadvantage of a stratified sampling method are presented in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Stratified Sampling Method Advantages and Disadvantages

Advantages	Disadvantage
1. Control of sample size in strata 2. Increased statistical efficiency 3. Provides data to represent and analyse subgroups 4. Enables use of different methods in strata	1. Increased error if subgroups are selected at different rates 2. Especially expensive if strata on population must be created 3. High cost

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

In stratified sampling, a sub-sample is drawn using simple random sampling within each stratum. For the purpose of the study, the researcher divided Gauteng based universities into four strata and then drew participants at the identified universities based on simple random sampling within each stratum. With a stratified sample, the sample variances are expected to differ by strata as illustrated in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Strata's for the study

University (strata)	Population	Proportional sample/ Stratified sample	Disproportional sample/Simple random sample
University of the Witwatersrand	24,780	168	318
University of Pretoria	38,188	258	196
University of Johannesburg	38,263	259	128
Monash University	2,000	15	47
Total	**103,431**	**700**	**689**

Source: Statistics on Post School Education and Training in South Africa (2014)

The strata for this study are specified in Table 5.9. A proportional sample size would have the same percentages as in the population, whereas the disproportional sample size for each stratum is not allocated in proportion to the population size but is dictated by analytical considerations (Zikmund et al., 2013). Thus, the respondents were intercepted by employing systematic random sampling in the selected universities.

5.3.2.3 Sample Size

There are several ways of determining the sample size. The sample size refers to the number of elements included in the study (Malhotra, 2010). In general, it can be said that the larger the sample size, the lower the probability for an error in the generalisation of the population (Malhotra, Birks & Wills et al., 2012). According to Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, Terblance, Elliot and Klopper (2013), the larger the sample size, the more reliable the data it can yield. Similarly, Hair et al. (2010) suggested that a larger sample size can indicate an increased level of information trustworthiness. For this study, 700 surveys were distributed to people between ages 18 – 25, male and female full-time contact students from four Gauteng universities in South Africa (University of the Witwatersrand, University of Johannesburg, University of Pretoria and Monash University). The criteria were that respondents aged 18-25 were required to have consumed an energy drink within the last six months. The Gauteng province was selected due to this province: 1) comprising the largest share of the South African student population (DHET, 2016) and 2) the fact that 52.2% of energy drinks per volume in South Africa is sold in Gauteng province (BMI, 2016).

This sample size is large enough to account for incidence rates and completion rates (Malhotra, 2010). This sample is able to "estimate a proportion near 0.5 with a 95 percent confidence level and 5 percent precision level" (Malhotra & Peterson, 2006, p. 405). Saunders et al. (2009) highlight that for most business and management research, researchers are content to estimate the population's characteristics at 95 per cent certainty to within plus or minus three to five per cent of its true values.

For the present study, the sample size of 700 was chosen for the following reasons:

- Raosoft calculator as base - Sample size calculator of Raosoft (2004) was used to calculate the required sample size for this study. Thus, with a confidence level of 95%, a confidence interval of 5, and the population of 103,431 full-time contact SA Higher education/university students, the sample size needed was equal to 385.
    i. Non-response factor - A number of variables to be measured in this study contained multi-items, and the questionnaires were somewhat long. Considering that this might cause fatigue (Struwig & Stead, 2001), and risk the extent to which some questionnaires would be satisfactorily completed, the intended sample size was doubled – from Raosoft (2004) a precalculated size of 385 to 700 – to accommodate situations where some questionnaires would not be fully completed.

- Publications – As pointed out by McIntosh (2007) and Barrett (2007) structural equation modelling (SEM) analyses using N < 200 are not suitable for publication.
- Previous research sample size - The sample size of this study n=700 was in line with previous studies conducted in Malaysia among 700 college students producing (679/700) a 3% spoiled result (Haghighi, Othman, & Hashim, 2011). Duh and Thorsten (2016) previously surveyed 750 university-age Generation Y in South Africa within the ages of 18-25 with a valid response rate of 100%. Another survey was conducted in Cameroon among 700 students producing (644/700) valid response rate of 94.9% (Kongnyuy, Ngassa, Fomulu, Wiysonge, Kouam & Doh, 2007), and among students at the three oldest state universities in India (734/918), 80% valid questionnaires were found useful for analysis (Annamdevula & Bellamkonda, 2016); and among college students in Texas, out of the 600 questionnaires distributed, 405 were received, yielding a 67.5% response (Blankson, Paswan & Boakye, 2012) as well as in South Africa by Maduku (2013) where 394 usable responses were realised from 700 planned (394/700) 56% valid response rate. Other similar studies on young adults also sampled 18-25 year old adults (Osman, Ong, Othman & Khong, 2014). In Lues and De Klerk's (2016) study of gender differences amongst African Generation Y students, 750 questionnaires were distributed with only 625 usable which translated into an 83% response rate. In Bagdare and Jain (2013), there was a sample size of 700 with 676 usable. A summary of previous research sample size is presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Summary - Previous Research Sample Size

Article Sample	Year	Targeted Sample size
Kongnyuy et al.,	2007	700
Haghighi, Othman, & Hashim	2011	700
Blankson, Paswan & Boakye	2012	600
Maduku	2013	700
Bagdare & Jain	2013	700
Duh & Thorsten	2016	750
Annamdevula & Bellamkonda	2016	918
Lues & De Klerk	2016	750
Sample size for this study		**700**

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

This study aimed for a sample size of 700. Saunders et al. (2009) highlight that samples of larger absolute size are more likely to be representative of the population from which they are drawn than smaller samples and, in particular, the mean (average) calculated for the sample is more likely to equal the mean for the population; calling this the law of large numbers (Saunders et al., 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) also highlight that a 100% response rate is unlikely and so a sample will need to be larger to ensure sufficient responses.

5.3.2.4 Fieldwork

Fieldworkers or interviewers are often used to collect primary data in marketing research (Lamb et al., 2008). In this study, the researcher ensured that capable people were selected to gather the data. Surveys involve interviews with a large number of respondents using a predesigned questionnaire, and have been described as the most flexible way of obtaining data (Malhotra, 2010). In this study, trained fieldworkers obtained data from the respondents. A field worker is an individual who is responsible for gathering data in the field (Zikmund et al., 2013). Questionnaires were administered by three trained fieldworkers through structured paper based self-administered surveys, at the selected universities to students of the four universities in Gauteng province of South Africa (University of the Witwatersrand, University of Johannesburg, University of Pretoria and Monash University). The researcher conducted a briefing session with the fieldworkers to ensure that each fieldworker was trained and provided with common information. Trained fieldworkers approached prospective participants to determine whether they qualified to take part in the study, and requested their participation. The trained fieldworkers were therefore able to provide quality data, with a quicker turnaround time and higher response rate. At the specified universities, trained fieldworkers selected respondents and conducted the survey amongst those between 18 – 25 years that had consumed an energy drink within the past six months; with the use of several filter questions, the researcher ensured that the respondents fitted within the pre-defined parameters.

5.3.3 Ethical Considerations

A strict ethical procedure was followed during the research process. Ethics approval was obtained from the Ethics Review Committee of the University of the Witwatersrand. The Ethics Committee issued the researcher ethics clearance. The Protocol Number was

H16/06/32 and a copy of the certificate is attached in Appendix IX: Ethics Clearance Certificate. Permission to collect data was granted by three universities (University of the Witwatersrand, University of Pretoria and Monash University), the fourth university (University of Johannesburg) indicated that students were busy and therefore could not commit to granting a permission letter; in this instance, the researcher then requested special permission with the university and permission was given to conduct the research in a smaller controlled class environment at the University of Johannesburg. This however compromised the proportional sampling technique used for stratified sampling. Cooper and Schindler (2014) recommend that researchers should guarantee respondents of confidentiality and privacy, right of privacy means that one has the right to refuse to answer any questions or participate in the survey, and that participants have a right to refusal. In the study, the rights of the respondents have been taken into consideration. Respondents were assured of confidentiality and privacy and the right to withdraw from the study at any time. The respondents' involvement was voluntary. The respondents willingly took part and signed a consent form. They were informed that the results of the study would be used only for academic purposes.

5.3.4 The Measurement Instrument

The measurement instrument was designed through a process of drawing from literature, in relation to the constructs being tested. In this study, the researcher employed a fully structured measurement instrument. A structured data collection instrument refers to a research survey in which all respondents are asked exactly the same questions in the same order with the aid of a formal interview schedule (Bryman, 2016). Only respondents who indicated they had consumed an energy drink within the previous six months and were between the ages of 18 and 25 were considered and requested to participate in the study. Participants were first asked to specify an energy drink brand that they truly love. The participants had to answer the survey in consideration of their favourite energy drink brand. When the participants answer a survey based on their most favourite brand, it facilitates responses; this is in line with previous research (Fetscherin, Boulanger Filho & Souki, 2014; Huber et al., 2015; Rauschnabel & Ahuvia, 2014). Having identified a brand that they love, participants answered questions tapping into three main parts: customers' perception of experiential marketing, emotional states, and behavioural intentions. The questionnaire included six constructs (brand experience, brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand credibility, brand faith and repurchase intention). Following the suggestions of Churchill

(1979), existing scales were adopted, modified, and extended. In this study, modifications from the original scale items were necessary to reflect the research setting. These are presented in Table 5.1 while a detailed overview of the original scales can be viewed in Appendix I: Measurement Scale Items.

Table 5.11: Existing Measurement Instruments

Construct	Acronyms	Author	Items	Variable
Brand experience	BE	(Beckman, Kumar & Kim, 2013)	12	Independent
Brand credibility	BC	(Hanzaee & Taghipourian, 2012)	6	Mediators
Brand faith	BF	(Plante & Boccaccini, 1997)	10	
Brand love	BL	(Rageh & Spinelli, 2012)	7	
Brand pleasure	BP	(Kulviwat et al., 2014)	6	
Brand arousal	BA	(Kulviwat et al., 2014)	6	
Repurchase intention	RI	(Beckman, Kumar & Kim, 2013)	4	Dependent

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

In this study, the items per factor range between four and 12 as illustrated in Table 5.1. According to Hair et al. (2010), three or four items per factor at a minimum can provide adequate identification for a construct.

5.3.4.1 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was designed; this ensured that all respondents were asked exactly the same series of questions (Lamb et al., 2008). The quality of the data gathered with a questionnaire depends significantly on the structure of the questionnaire, the design of the questions, as well as the thoroughness of the pilot testing (Saunders et al., 2009). The required data for this study were collected by means of a self-administered structured questionnaire seven pages long, a double-sided document that included a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, a consent form as well as a screening question, which assisted the trained fieldworkers in determining whether prospective participants met the set criteria to take part in the study, as recommended in the extant literature (Jain, Khan & Mishra, 2017; Shukla, 2011; Han, Nunes & Drèze, 2010). A qualifying question was asked of respondents to indicate if they had consumed an energy drink within the last six months so that data were collected only from regular drinkers of energy drinks. The questionnaire was

divided into eight different sections (section A to H) to assess all the variables used in this study. In Section A, the participants' demographical information was requested, and respondents were asked to indicate their favourite energy drink brand. In section B to Section H, the constructs in the proposed conceptual model were measured, namely; brand experience, brand credibility, brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand faith and repurchase intention. The questionnaire items were adapted to suit the present study. The questionnaire is presented in Appendix IV: Questionnaire.

5.3.4.2 Measurement Scales

The present study used a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). According to Malhotra (2010), Rensis Likert's (1932) widely used Likert scale allows for respondents to indicate a level of agreement or disagreement based on a series of statements that are related to the stimulus object. Zikmund et al. (2013) referred to a Likert scale as a measure of attitudes designed to allow respondents to rate how strongly they agree or disagree with carefully constructed statements, ranging from very positive to very negative attitudes toward some object. The choice of the seven-point scale in this study was informed by assertions by Finstad (2010), who noted that seven-point scales provide more reliable measures of a participant's evaluation than a five-point scale. The advantage of the Likert scale is its ease in construction and comfort in administration (Bajpai, 2011). For the researcher, it is easier to construct, while for the respondent, it is easier to understand.

5.3.4.2.1 Independent (Predictor) variable

Independent variables are also described as antecedent, predictor, presumed cause, stimulus, treatment or manipulated variables as they tend to cause, influence or affect outcomes (Creswell, 2014). According to Leroy (2011, p. 30) an independent or predictor variable signifies a "causal event that is under investigation". Cooper and Schindler (2011) argue that an independent variable is the variable manipulated by the researcher to cause an effect on the dependent variable. Hair et al. (2010) refer to it as variables selected as predictors and potential explanatory variables of the dependent variable. In this study, the independent variable is measured using a unidimensional scale. As stated by Cooper and Schindler (2011), a unidimensional scale seeks to measure only one attribute of the participant or object in a single dimension.

a) Brand Experience

The brand experience scale evaluates the four brand experience dimensions, such as sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural, which is done using 12 items (Brakus et al., 2009). The test of uni-dimensionality refers to the loading of the measurement variables on a single factor (Hair et al., 2010). Brand experience was measured using Beckman et al.'s (2013) 7-item Likert scale. The dimensions were adapted to suit the context of the study. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). Table 5.12 presents the adapted brand experience scale.

Table 5.12: Adapted brand experience (BE) Scale

Coding	*Item*
BE1	*This brand makes a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses.*
BE2	*I find this brand interesting in a sensory way.*
BE3	*This brand appeals to my senses.*
BE4	*This brand induces feelings and sentiments.*
BE5	*I have strong emotions for this brand.*
BE6	*This brand generates emotional experiences.*
BE7	*I engage in physical actions and behaviours when I use this brand.*
BE8	*This brand results in bodily experiences.*
BE9	*This brand is action oriented.*
BE10	*I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand.*
BE11	*This brand makes me think.*
BE12	*This brand stimulates my curiosity.*

5.3.4.2.2 Mediating Variables

Mediating variables, also known as intervening variables, stand between the independent and dependent variables, and mediate the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable (Creswell, 2016). A mediating effect is the effect of a third variable/construct intervening between two other related constructs (Hair et al., 2010; Baron & Kenny, 1986).

a) Brand Credibility

Brand credibility was measured using Hanzaee and Taghipourian's (2012) 5-item Likert scale (1 – disagree completely to 5 – agree completely). However, the scale was amended to be a 7-item Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). Table 5.13 presents the adapted brand credibility scale.

Table 5.13: Adapted brand credibility (BC) Scale

Coding	*Item*
BC1	*This brand delivers (or would deliver) what it promises*
BC2	*Product claims from this brand are believable*
BC3	*Over time, my experiences with this brand led me to expect it to keep its promises*
BC4	*This brand is committed to delivering on its claims*
BC5	*This brand has a name you can trust*
BC6	*This brand has the ability to deliver what it promises*

b) Brand Faith

Brand Faith was measured by adapting Plante and Boccaccini's (1997) 4-item Likert scale, however, for the purpose of this study, the scale was adapted to be a 7-item Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree).

Table 5.14 presents the adapted brand faith scale.

Table 5.14: Adapted brand faith (BF) Scale

Coding	*Item*
BF1	*I have faith in this brand*
BF2	*I think about this brand daily*
BF3	*This brand inspires me*
BF4	*This brand provides meaning and purpose in my life*
BF5	*I consider myself an active member of this brand*
BF6	*This brand is important to who I am as a person*
BF7	*My relationship with this brand is extremely important to me*
BF8	*I enjoy being around others who are devoted to this brand*
BF9	*I look to this brand as a source of comfort*
BF10	*This brand name plays a significant role in my decisions to purchase*

c) Brand Love

To measure Brand Love, Rageh and Spinelli's (2012) 7-item Likert scale was used (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The dimensions that were used to measure brand love are presented in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Adapted brand love (BL) Scale

Coding	*Item*
BL1	*This is a wonderful brand.*
BL2	*This brand makes me feel good*
BL3	*This brand is totally awesome*
BL4	*This brand makes me very happy*
BL5	*I love this brand*
BL6	*This brand is a pure delight*
BL7	*I'm very attached to this brand*

d) Brand Pleasure

Brand Pleasure was measured by adapting Kulviwat et al.'s (2014) 5-point bipolar adjectives. For the present study, Kulviwat et al.,'s (2014) scale was amended to a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). This is presented in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Adapted brand pleasure (BP) Scale

Coding	*Item*
BP1	*I am really happy about this brand*
BP2	*I am pleased with this brand*
BP3	*I am satisfied with this brand*
BP4	*I am contented with this brand*
BP5	*This brand gives me a hopeful feeling*
BP6	*This brand makes me feel relaxed*

e) Brand Arousal

Brand Arousal was measured by adapting Kulviwat et al.'s (2014) 5-point bipolar adjectives. For the present study this scale was amended to a 7-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The adapted brand arousal scale is presented in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Adapted brand arousal (BA) Scale

Coding	*Item*
BA1	*This brand makes me feel stimulated*
BA2	*This brand makes me feel excited*
BA3	*This brand makes me feel frenzied*
BA4	*This brand makes me feel jittery*
BA5	*This brand makes me feel wide-awake*
BA6	*This brand makes me feel aroused*

i. Dependent (Outcome) variable

Dependent variables are also described as criterion, outcome, presumed effect, response, predicted consequence or measured outcome variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). They depend on the independent variables as they are the outcomes or results of the influence of the independent variables (Creswell, 2014). Leroy (2011) mentions that a dependent variable is also called an outcome or response variable and represents the outcome of a treatment. Hair et al. (2010) refer to it as a variable being predicted or explained by the set of independent variables.

a) Repurchase Intention

Beckman, Kumar and Kim's (2013) repurchase intention scale was used and adapted to suit this study. A 7-item Likert scale was used (1 – strongly disagree; 2 – disagree; 3 – slightly disagree; 4 – neutral; 5 – slightly agree; 6 – agree; 7 – strongly agree). The adapted repurchase intention scale is presented in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Adapted repurchase intention (RI) Scale

Coding	*Item*
RI1	*I intend to repurchase this brand.*
RI2	*I plan to repurchase this brand.*
RI3	*I desire to purchase this brand.*
RI4	*I probably will repurchase this brand.*

5.3.4.3 Pre-and Pilot Test

Once the survey was developed, a preliminary pilot study was conducted to test the measurement instrument. This was done using a two-step process, firstly, a pre-test was done, and thereafter a pilot-test was conducted prior to performing the final and formal survey in order to validate the research instrument. As stated by Grimm (2010), a pre-test or pilot test can improve the data quality and minimise potential errors. A pilot test refers to a small-scale study to test a questionnaire in order to minimise the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering the questions and of data recording problems as well as to allow some assessment of the questions' validity and the reliability of the data that will be collected (Saunders et al., 2009). As stated by Quinones, Kirshstein and Loy (1998), a pilot test provides information on how long the data collection can be expected to take and a preview of how difficult the items will be to complete. To determine the stability of the instrument, a pre-test survey must be carried out; this can help determine the stability of the instrument (Atashzadeh-Shoorideh & Yaghmaei, 2016). As stated by Saunders et al. (2009),

test-retest estimates of reliability are obtained by correlating data collected with those from the same questionnaire collected under as near equivalent conditions as possible; the questionnaire therefore needs to be administered twice to respondents. Pre-testing assists in identifying and eliminating potential problems before re-administering the instrument.

A pre-test was conducted to refine the research instrument with marketing academics. Participants' suggestions (e.g., wording changes) were incorporated accordingly in the revision of the questionnaire, and, then, a pilot-test was conducted with fifty university (50) students to examine the internal consistency reliability of the scale items. This was done during a postgraduate class at the University of the Witwatersrand. Scales were purified as some wording was slightly modified for clarity; the changes improved the intended meaning of the questions and helped to decrease the likelihood of dropouts. The improved questionnaire was administered to the final sample.

The results from the reliability tests indicated acceptable Cronbach Alpha values as they exceeded the minimum threshold of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010), such as brand experience (0.89); brand pleasure (0.90); brand arousal (0.81); brand love (0.94); brand faith (0.92); brand credibility (0.89) and repurchase intention (0.90), all values were higher than the cut-off value of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010). All the measurement items were retained in the final questionnaire. These measures were taken in order to validate the instrument and to confirm content validity. Subsequent to the pilot study, the questionnaire was distributed to participants of the main study. Ethical clearance (Ethics Clearance Number: H16/06/32) was obtained from the Ethical Committee of the University of the Witwatersrand. Registrars at each of the four universities (University of the Witwatersrand, University of Johannesburg, University of Pretoria and Monash University) were contacted and asked whether they would allow the questionnaire to be distributed to their students. Participating universities were shown the ethics clearance certificate and a copy of the questionnaire. Once permission was obtained, the questionnaire was distributed for voluntary completion between 01 August 2016 and 30 September 2016.

5.3.4.4 Measures used to enhance Response Rate

From the 700 questionnaires that were distributed, 689 usable questionnaires were returned, which translates into a response rate of 98.4%. Response rate refers to the number of questionnaires returned or completed divided by the number of eligible people who were asked to participate in the survey (Zikmund et al., 2013). Numerous authors have presented

strategies on how to make a survey effective (Bryman, 2016; Jin, 2011; Millar & Dillman, 2011). According to Fan and Yan (2010), response rate refers to the number of completed units divided by the number of eligible units in the sample. Zikmund et al. (2013) refer to the response rate as the number of questionnaires returned or completed divided by the number of eligible people who were asked to participate in the survey. Response rates are used as a common metric for evaluating survey quality under the premise that a higher response rate will produce findings that are more representative of the population of interest (Johnson & Wislar, 2012).

Researchers have developed a number of techniques that can help increase response rate, these include: designing and formatting attractive questionnaires and wording questions so that they are easy to understand (Zikmund et al., 2013). Bryman (2016) points out that clear instructions and an attractive layout of the questionnaire help to ensure a high response rate. The lower the response rate, the greater the concern that the resulting sample will not adequately represent the population (Zikmund et al., 2013). For this study, 700 questionnaires were distributed to participants, a total of 689 valid forms were received, therefore constituting a response rate of 98.4%. This result of the study is in line with Neuman (2011) who suggested response rates of up to 90% for face-to-face interviews; although this study was a self-administered survey, all three trained fieldworkers were present during the time of each survey completion.

i. Cover letter

A standardised cover letter accompanied each questionnaire, thereby inducing the reader to complete and return the questionnaire. It also explained the reason for the importance of the study, guaranteed confidentiality, and explained that the survey would take 15 minutes to complete (Bryman, 2016; Zikmund et al., 2013).

ii. Interesting questions

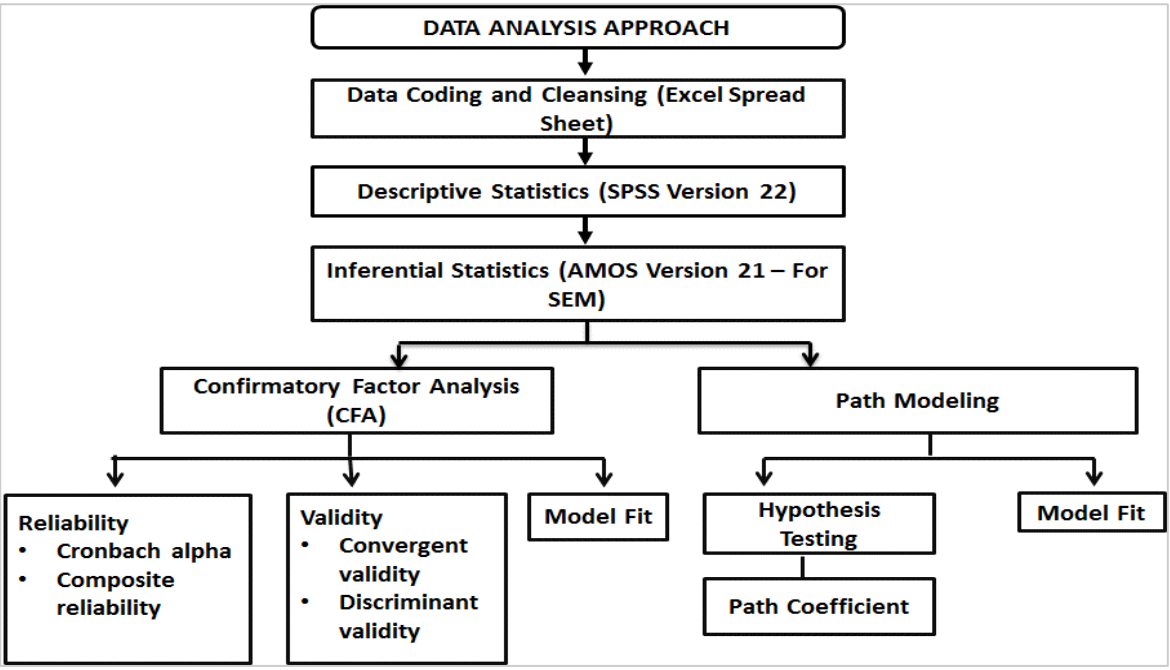
Interesting questions were added to the questionnaire to stimulate respondents' interest and to induce cooperation (Zikmund et al., 2013). The questionnaire included packaging visuals of popular energy drinks brands.

5.4 Data preparation and analysis approach

Once the data collection phase was completed, the researcher proceeded to data preparation, which was followed by the data analysis. The following section provides an overview of the

data preparation and analysis approach that was applied to the present study. Data preparation included editing, coding, and data entry and was the activity that ensured the accuracy of the data and their conversion from the raw form to reduced and classified forms that were more appropriate for analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). In this study, data analysis was performed using three statistical tools, namely, Excel, SPSS 23 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) and AMOS 23. Firstly, data was collected, and coded on an Excel spreadsheet. Quality checks were conducted in order to check and correct any missing entries. Secondly, the Excel data was then imported to SPSS 23 format in order to perform descriptive statistics. Finally, the researcher proceeded to inferential statistics using AMOS 23 statistical software in order to conduct inferential statistics using structural equation modelling through a two-stage approach, being confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and path modelling. The use of sophisticated statistical techniques depends on the researchers' objectives and the nature of the data collected (Lamb et al., 2008). Figure 5.3 outlines the data analysis approach of this study.

Figure 5.3: Data Analysis approach



5.4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics deals with measures of different aspects of a population. Descriptive statistics, a statistical procedure, describes the characteristics of the data by giving frequencies, measures of central tendency, and dispersion (Cooper & Schindler, 2011).

Descriptive statistics describe either the characteristics of a sample or the relationship among variables in a sample (Babbie, 2016). Descriptive statistics are used in describing parameters of respondents and inferential statistics are used to test hypotheses (Komolmas, Chaipoopirutana & Lukose, 2016). In this study, demographic characteristics are analysed through descriptive statistics. Figure 5.3 illustrates the process followed in this study. The demographic characteristics of the participants such as gender, age, employment/dominant status, frequency of energy drinks consumption, importance of human senses, and favourite energy drink are presented in this study.

5.4.2 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics is a statistical procedure and includes the estimation of population values and the testing of statistical hypotheses (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). Inferential statistics move beyond the description of specific observations to make inferences about the larger population from which the sample observations were drawn (Babbie, 2016). Figure 5.3 illustrates the process followed in this study regarding inferential statistics. The proposed research framework of this study consists of multiple relationships between the research constructs. That is why the structural equation modelling (SEM) technique was employed in this phase of the study. SEM allows the evaluation of the entire research model by accommodating multiple interrelated dependence relationships (Hair et. al, 2010), which brings a higher-level perspective to the analysis (Kline, 2011). Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) has been embraced due to the researchers' desire to test and complete theories and concepts, particularly in marketing research (Wong, 2013; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011). Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a widely used multivariate technique based on variables in both the measurement and structural models (Rosseel, 2012; Hair et al., 2010). SEM is a confirmatory rather than exploratory analysis, which is based on theory testing rather than theory development. It combines confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and path analysis ((Byrne, 2010; Nusair & Hua, 2010). In the measurement model, each set of indicators for a construct acts collectively (as a variate) to define the construct. In the structural model, constructs are related to one another in correlational and dependence relationships. As stated by Blunch (2015), SEM is a set of tools for verifying theories; it is confirmatory rather than exploratory.

SEM should never be attempted without a strong theoretical basis for specification of both the measurement and structural models (Hair et al., 2010). SEM is considered as a confirmatory analysis, as it is useful for testing and potentially confirming theory, as theory is

needed to specify relationship in both measurement and structural models. SEM is a confirmatory method guided more by theory than by empirical results. Furthermore, SEM causal inference hypothesised the cause-and-effect relationship (Hair et al., 2010). Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) has indeed become one of the techniques of choice for researchers across disciplines, especially in the social sciences (Hooper & Coughlan, Mullen, 2008). If SEM is used, it is crucial for the researcher to do model fit testing and assessment, as the results cannot be fudged for the sake of ‘‘convenience’’ or simple intellectual laziness on the part of the investigator (Barrett, 2007).

5.4.3 Traditional Statistical Methods and Structural Equation Modelling

The statistical method employed is based on the research question raised and data available (Creswell, 2014). Some of the traditional statistical methods include t-test, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), analysis of variance (ANOVA), person product moment correlation, cluster analysis, correlation, discriminant analysis, factor analysis, MANOVA as well as regression – bivariate; multiple; logistic as multiple regression (Hair, 2015). SEM is a statistical procedure for testing measurement, functional, predictive, and causal hypotheses, it complements multiple regression and ANOVA and others (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). SEM is a set of versatile and powerful tools which can simultaneously solve all the equations in a casual theoretical model that consists of either manifest (observed) or latent (unobserved) variables (Chin, Peterson & Brown, 2008). SEM provides a conceptual way to verify theory (Hair et al., 2010). The main aim of SEM statistics is to simultaneously test the relationship of multiple equations and also to measure whether or not the model fits or anticipates the other statistics; and which is appropriate for SEM. Thus a structural modelling procedure over the traditional method of multiple regressions is preferred (Meyers et al., 2006). One of the appealing attributes of SEM is that it allows for tests of theoretically derived models against empirical data (Chen, Curran, Bollen, Kirby & Paxton, 2008). For researchers using SEM techniques, evaluation of the fit of an hypothesised model to sample data is crucial to the analysis (Chen et al., 2008).

i. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

This section provides a broad conceptual discussion of SEM. SEM implies a structure for the covariances between observed variables, and accordingly it is sometimes called covariance structure modelling (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). SEM can estimate many relationships at once, thus this technique differs from some traditional statistical methods such as multiple

regression, which can only estimate a single relationship. SEM allows the modelling of complex relationships that are not possible with any of the other multivariate techniques (Hair et.al, 2010).

As a statistical tool, SEM analyses multivariate data and goes beyond ordinary regression models to incorporate multiple independent and dependent variables as well as hypothetical latent constructs (Savalei, & Bentler, 2010). Multivariate techniques are those statistical techniques which focus upon and bring into bold relief the structure of simultaneous relationships among three or more phenomena (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). SEM has recently become the most popular statistical technique to test theory (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015; Nusair & Hua, 2010). Multivariate analysis techniques play a crucial role in today's research. SEM is most appropriate when the researcher has multiple constructs, each represented by several measured variables, and these constructs are distinguished based on whether they are exogenous or endogenous. SEM can be thought of as a combination of factor analysis and multiple regression analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

According to Hair et al. (2012), SEM has become one of the most important and influential statistical developments in recent years. Because SEM is a modelling tool, and not a tool for ''descriptive'' analysis, it fits models to data (Barrett, 2007). These models require testing in order to determine the fit of a model to the data. Measure of fit have been an integral part of SEM as fit indexes quantify the degree of correspondence between a hypothesised latent variable model and the data (Kenny & McCoach, 2003). Goodness of fit indicates how well a specified model reproduces the observed covariance matrix among indicator variables (Hair et al., 2010). SEM uses several measures to measure goodness of fit, the Chi-square value should be lower than <3, the values of goodness-of-fit index (GFI), normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), incremental fit index (IFI) and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) should be equal to or higher than 0.90 (Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011; Geiser, 2013) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value should be equal to or less than 0.08 (Hair et al., 2010; Hooper et al., 2008). SEM aims at establishing close rather than exact fit between hypothetical models and observed data (McIntosh, 2007).

5.4.4 Reliabilty and Validity Tests of Measurement Scales

In this study, the researcher adopted a statistical tool to analyse data, this was done through Structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM has a two-stage approach, first being Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to assess reliability and validity and thereafter path

modelling (Nusair & Hua, 2010). Malhotra (2010) refers to these as two models of SEM, being the measurement model and the structural model, stating that the measurement model uses the technique of CFA while the structural model shows how the constructs are interrelated with each other.

5.4.5 Measurement Model Assessment: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

In Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the researcher specifies which variables define each construct or factor, as it seeks to confirm if the number of constructs or factors and the loading of observed variables on them conform to what is expected on the basis of theory (Malhotra, 2010). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a statistical technique that verifies the factor structure of a set of observed variables (Suhr, 2006). CFA allows the researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs exists (Malhotra, 2010). CFA is often used to test the degree to which the alternative hypotheses suggested in the proposed theoretical model are supported by the observed data (Van Niekerk, Petzer & De Beer, 2016).

In this study, the researcher used knowledge of the theory, empirical research, postulated the relationship pattern and then tested the hypotheses statistically. The researcher used reliability, validity and model fit for CFA to see if the indicator variables loaded as predicted on the expected number of factors.

5.4.5.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which a variable or set of variables is consistent in what it intended to measure (Hair et al., 2010). It suggests that the same data would have been collected each time in repeated observations of the same phenomenon (Babbie, 2016). "In other words, are we accurately measuring what we think we are measuring?" (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013, p. 307). In this study, reliability was established using tests of internal consistency and test-retest reliability, being Cronbach's alpha and Composite Reliability (CR) in order to measure reliability.

5.4.5.2 Cronbach Alpha (α)

Cronbach's alpha (α) is used to test the reliability of the measurement instrument. It measures the reliability of the scales' internal consistency and ranges from 0 to 1, it considers the values of 0.60 to 0.70 to have a lower limit of acceptability, while a higher level of Cronbach's alpha indicates a higher reliability of the measurement scale (Kline, 2011; Hair et al., 2010). Clow and James (2013) refer to Cronbach's alpha reliability scores above 0.70 as

good scales, although Malhotra and Birks (2006) as well as Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1992) previously indicated that a threshold of 0.6 is satisfactory for internal consistency reliability, indicating that all the items in each latent variable form a single, strongly cohesive and conceptual construct.

5.4.5.3 Composite Reliability (CR)

When true reliability is estimated using structural equation modelling, the resulting estimate is typically referred to as composite reliability (CR) (Peterson & Kim, 2013). A composite reliability index value equal to or higher than 0.7 indicates good reliability of the construct (Nusair & Hua, 2010).

The composite reliability was examined using the following formula:

$CR\eta=(\Sigma\lambda yi)2/[(\Sigma\lambda yi)2+(\Sigma\varepsilon i)]$

Composite Reliability = (square of the summation of the factor loadings)/{(square of the summation of the factor loadings)+(summation of error variances)}

5.4.5.4 Average Value Extracted (AVE)

The Average Value Extracted (AVE) estimate reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators, as accounted for by the latent variable. A high AVE denotes that the indicators are truly representative of the latent construct (Hair et al., 2010; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). AVE reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct (Hair et al., 2010). The overall amount of variance that is present in the indicators is reflected by the Average Value Extracted (Malhotra, 2010). A good representation of Average Value Extracted (AVE) needs to be above 0.5 for the construct to be considered reliable (Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams & Hair, 2014). Some scholars such as Fraering and Minor (2006), as well as Chin (1998), contend that an AVE of above 0.4 is acceptable Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (2006) previously mentioned that 0.3 is an acceptable minimum threshold in social sciences. Malhotra (2010, p. 734) contends that "on the basis of composite reliability (CR) alone, the researcher may conclude that the convergent validity of the construct is adequate, even though more than 50 percent of the variance is due to error".

To calculate the Average Value Extracted (AVE), the standardised factor loading values in the CFA results are used. The Average Variance Extracted was examined using the following formula:

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

AVE = summation of the square of factor loadings/ {(summation of the square of factor loadings) + (summation of error variances)}.

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

Another measure for evaluating discriminant validity is evidenced by AVEs that are greater than the highest Shared Value (SV) (Nusair & Hua, 2010).

5.4.6 Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which a measure or set of measures correctly represents the concept of study (Hair et al., 2010). Malhotra and Dash (2011) refer to validity as the extent to which differences in observed scale scores reflect the true differences among objects or the characteristics being measured. As stated in Muijs (2011, p. 55), "validity asks the question, are we measuring what we want to measure?". In this study, validity has been assessed through convergent validity and discriminant validity.

5.4.6.1 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which the scale correlates positively with other measures of the same construct (Malhotra, 2010). According to Zikmund et al. (2013), convergent validity means that concepts that should be related to one another are in fact related, they continue to state that highly reliable scales contain convergent validity. Convergent validity recommends that the factor loading for each construct be above the required threshold of 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). A threshold of ideally higher than 0.7 has also been suggested (Malhotra, 2010). A factor loading above the required threshold indicates that the constructs converge well and are therefore valid (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Convergent validity measures the extent to which indicators of a specific construct share a high proportion of variance in common (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, collectively it could be perceived that convergent validity was met.

5.4.6.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity examines the uniqueness of each construct in relation to others (Hair et al., 2010; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In this study, it was assessed through an inter-construct correlation matrix, Average Value Extracted (AVE), as well as comparing the AVEs with highest Shared Value (SV).

5.4.6.3 Model Fit Assessment

A number of model fit criteria have been developed in order to interpret CFA and SEM as part of various model building assumptions (Chinomona, 2011). In this study, the researcher checked and assessed the model fit for CFA as well as path modelling using various model fit criteria such as: Chi-square ($\chi 2$); Comparative Fit Index (CFI); Goodness of Fit Index (GFI); Incremental Fit Index (IFI); Normed Fit Index (NFI) Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA); Chi-square (CMIN) (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). As stated by Hooper et al. (2008), while fit indices are a useful guide, a structural model should also be examined with respect to substantive theory, if researchers allow model fit to drive the research process, it moves away from the original, theory-testing purpose of structural equation modelling.

5.4.6.4 Chi-square ($\chi 2$)

The Chi-square ($\chi 2$) is a statistical measure of difference used to compare the observed and estimated covariance matrices (Hair et al., 2010). It measures the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The Chi-square test is affected by sample size. A Chi-square value of two or less reflects a good fit (Paswan, 2009); while Kline (2011) indicates that three or less is considered acceptable. In this study, a chi -square of < 3.0 was used to indicate a good model fit.

5.4.6.5 Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

The Comparative Fit Index is a revised form of the NFI and performs well even when sample size is small (Hooper et al., 2008). CFI assumes that all latent variables are uncorrelated and compares the sample covariance matrix with this null model. Fit is considered adequate if the CFI cut-off criterion values are > 0.90, better if they are >.95 (Van de Schoot, Lugtig & Hox, 2012; Blunch, 2015; Milfont, & Fischer, 2015). The study used a value greater than 0.9 as an acceptable value.

5.4.6.6 Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)

The Goodness-of-Fit statistic (GFI) calculates the proportion of variance that is accounted for by the estimated population covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) is required to be >0.90 (Hair et al., 2010). It has also been seen to have an upward bias with large samples (Hooper et al., 2008). The current study used a value greater than 0.9 to indicate a good model fit.

5.4.6.7 Incremental Fit Index (IFI)

Incremental fit indexes (IFI) are also known as comparative fit indexes and indicate the relative improvement in fit of the researcher's model compared with a statistical baseline (Kline, 2011). Miles and Shevlin (2007) indicated that IFI does not measure model adequacy as it only indicates the relative improvement in fit over a statistical model that is likely to be false. In this study, a value greater than 0.9 was deemed fit for the model.

5.4.6.8 Normed Fit Index (NFI)

The Normed Fit index (NFI) assesses the model by comparing the $\chi 2$ value of the model to the $\chi 2$ of the null model (Hooper et al., 2008). It ranges between 0 and 1, although values greater than 0.90 indicate a good fit (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980). Some suggestions have recommended the cut-off criteria should be greater than 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). One disadvantage is that it is sensitive to sample size (Mulaik, James, Van Alstine, Bennet, Lind & Stilwell, 1989; Bentler, 1990), and thus not recommended to be solely relied on (Kline, 2010). This drawback was rectified by the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), an index that prefers simpler models. In the current study, a value greater than 0.9 was used to indicate a good fit.

5.4.6.9 Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)

The Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) is similar to the NFI; however, TLI is not normed, as it is a comparison of the normed chi-square values for the null and specified model (Hair et al., 2010). TLI attempts to correct for complexity of the model, but is somewhat sensitive to a small sample size (Van de Schoot et al., 2012). TLI values are >.90, and better if they are >.95 (Blunch, 2015; Geiser 2013; Byrne, 2010; Hu & Betler, 1999). In this study, a value greater than 0.9 was used to indicate a good fit.

5.4.6.10 Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is referred to as a badness of fit index where a value of zero indicates the best fit (Kline, 2011). RMSEA tells us how well the model fits the populations' covariance matrix (Hooper et al., 2008). It examines the closeness of fit. The recommended cut-off value is RMSEA < 0.08, better is < 0.05 (Kenny, Kaniskan & McCoach, 2015). RMSEA provides information in terms of discrepancy per degree of freedom for a model (Steiger, 1990). Browne and Cudeck (1993, p 144) recommended that ''a value of the RMSEA of about 0.05 or less would indicate a close fit of the model in relation to the degrees of freedom,'' and that ''the value of about 0.08 or less for the RMSEA would indicate a reasonable error of approximation and would not want to employ a model with a RMSEA greater than 0.1". When RMSEA is higher than 0.05, it is

described as ‘‘sensitive’’ to the misspecification (Hu & Bentler, 1998). RMSEA is insensitive to sample size, but sensitive to model complexity (Van de Schoot et al., 2012; Bowen & Guo, 2012). A value of less than 0.08 was considered as an acceptable model fit for this study.

5.4.7 Structural Model: Path Model Assessment

Once the researcher evaluated the model fit using CFA, path analysis was followed as the next phase of data analysis using SEM (Stein, Morris & Nock, 2012; Byrne, 2010). Path analysis is a SEM technique focused on the interrelation of observed (measured) variables (Shamim & Butt, 2013). This stage has been referred to as a structural model by Malhotra (2010), who further explained that this shows how the constructs are interrelated to each other, often with multiple dependence relationships. Path modelling defines the relationship amongst observed or measured variables as well as theoretical constructs (Roche, Duffield & White, 2011). It allows for examination of causal processes between observed relationships and to estimate the importance of alternative paths of influence. The structural relationship between variables is empirically represented by the path estimate (Hair et al., 2010). In this study, the researcher portrays a graphical form known as a path diagram.

5.4.7.1 Testing for the Mediating Effect

The model identified emotions as mediators. The role of the mediators was examined following Hayes (2013), Hair et al., (2010), as well as Baron and Kenny (1986). Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1173, 1178) describe a mediator variable as the following: “the generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable of interest . . . (and) Mediation . . . is best done in the case of a strong relation between the predictor and the criterion variable”. There are valuable references for researchers regarding mediation (Holland, Shore & Cortina, 2016; Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2016; Ledgerwood & Shrout, 2011). Mediation exists when there is an indirect effect of one variable (X) on another (Y) that is carried or transmitted by a third ‘‘mediator’’ variable (M) (Holland et al., 2016). Full mediation, as presented in Figure 5.4 occurs when the effect of X on Y is transmitted via an intermediate variable or mediator (M), and partial mediation as presented in Figure 5.5 occurs when the effect of X on Y is transmitted both directly and indirectly through M (LeBreton, Wu, & Bing, 2009).

Figure 5.4: Simple mediation

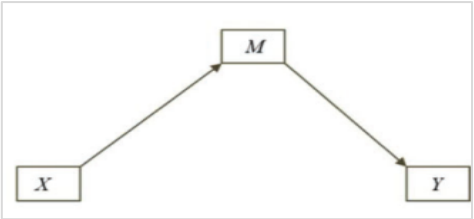
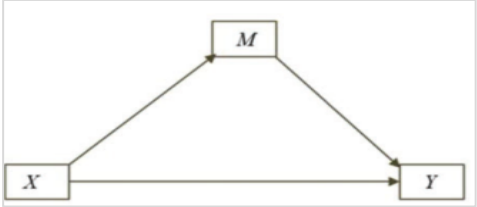


Figure 5.5: Partial mediation



Source: Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg (2016)

❖ **Justification of Mediation in this Study**

When it comes to the reasons for using mediation, James, Mulaik and Brett (1982) recommend that, for confirmatory models, some conditions must be satisfied. These conditions include: (a) providing a theoretical rationale for causal hypotheses and specifying both (b) causal order and (c) direction. In this study, the researcher makes use of the SOR paradigm, where stimuli lead the organism then moves to the response. As stated by Shadish and Sweeney (1991, p. 883), "the independent variable causes the mediator which then causes the outcome". This study follows partial mediation as H11 proposes a direct path between (S of the SOR) and (R of the SOR) as supported by literature (Wong et al., 2012; Daunt & Harris, 2012; Lin, 2004) which indicated that stimulus directly influences customers' response S-R. The researcher has taken note of Kenny (2008), as well as James and Brett (1984), who stated that omitting a legitimate direct effect from one's model not only results in a misspecified conceptual model, it also affects one's results by yielding incorrect coefficients for the second stage of the mediation model. According to Zhao, Lynch and Chen (2010), justification of partially mediated models requires discussion of M as a mediator of the X-Y effect, in this study; this is the SOR paradigm, as well as the other reasons for the X-Y relationship, as per literature discussed earlier in this study (S-R).

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented the research methodology adopted for the study. A comprehensive justification and rationale for the chosen method was discussed. Firstly, the research philosophy was discussed. This was followed by a discussion of the research approach. The research strategy, choices, and time horizons were then discussed. Finally, the data collection and analysis techniques and procedures that were applied to the study were presented. The next chapter presents the data analysis and findings from the study.

CHAPTER 6: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an exposition of the research findings from the statistical analysis as well as interpretation of data obtained from the data collected on how brand experience influences the repurchase intention of energy drinks among university-aged Generation Y students at Gauteng universities. The chapter starts by presenting the descriptive statistics, followed by in-depth and detailed analysis of the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments used. The inferential statistics are presented, as well as confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that discusses validity and reliability, thereafter testing of the hypotheses.

6.2 Descriptive Statistics

The researcher used descriptive statistics to describe certain characteristics and used them as a supporting tool for the analysis (Pallant, 2013). As stated by Bryman and Bell (2011), descriptive statistics are used to show a summary about a sample and the measures that have been performed. Descriptive statistics could include variables such as age, gender, education and geography. Descriptive statistics summarise and analyse data in an easily understandable manner (Zikmund et al., 2013), they condense large volumes of data into a few summaries, and they are used for observational decision making (Wagner, 2010). In this study, the researcher used descriptive statistics to give an explanation about the sample characteristics of the study. The researcher provides summaries about the sample pertaining to the demographic profile of respondents.

6.2.1 Sample Description

This section presents the demographic profile of the respondents. Firstly, a discussion on their gender, then age, then dominant occupation status. Secondly, a discussion on energy-drink use and related behaviours among the respondents that includes, frequency of energy drinks consumption, importance of human senses, and favourite energy drink.

A total of 700 questionnaires were fielded, of which 689 questionnaires were suitable for analysis. This means that approximately 98.4% of completed questionnaires were usable. The remaining 1.6% (11) was mainly a result of partially answered questionnaires, therefore the researcher did not include the spoiled questionnaire papers. The questionnaires were distributed on campus, around campus, in hostels and in classrooms; the completed questionnaires were collected immediately. The high response rate was mainly due to (1) questionnaires were only distributed to those who consumed an energy drink within the past

six months, (2) three dedicated trained fieldworkers with the exception of one university that handed it out in class, (3) face-to-face survey interviews produce good response rates as the researcher is able to control who responds, (4) paper-based interviewer-administered questionnaires allow for better data quality (Burns & Bush, 2014), these facilitated the completion of questions in full and allowed for closer scrutiny by the fieldworkers since the fieldworkers were remunerated for each completed questionnaire.

6.2.2 Sample Demographic Characteristics

In terms of the sample demographic characteristics of respondents, the following factors are considered: gender, age, and dominant occupation status. Table 6.1 presents the number of university students who participated in the survey.

Table 6.1: Participation of university students

Participants University Name	**Participants = %**	**Number = n**
University of the Witwatersrand	46.2	318
University of Pretoria	28.4	196
University of Johannesburg	18.6	128
Monash University	6.8	47
Total	**100.0**	**689**

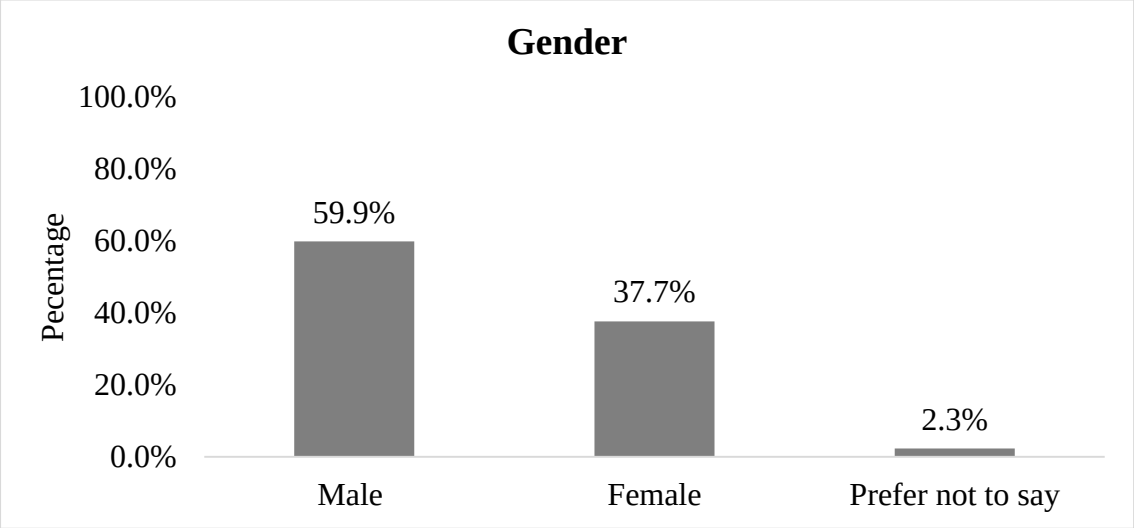
Source: Compiled by Researcher

As depicted in Table 6.1, respondents were from four universities, a total of 689 fully completed questionnaires were usable.

6.2.2.1 Gender Profile

Figure 6.1 presents the gender profile among the sample of respondents, followed by a discussion thereof.

Figure 6.1: Respondents' distribution by Gender

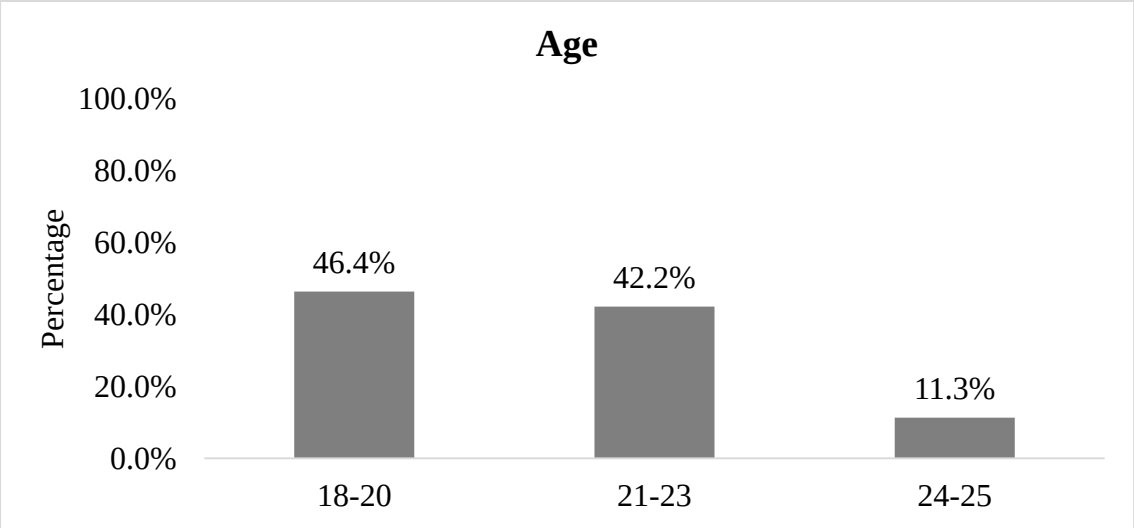


As shown in Figure 6.1, the respondents were predominantly males 413 (59.9%), with 260 (37.7%) female, and 16 (2.3%) preferred not to say. A study conducted in South Africa indicated that the consumption of energy drinks is higher among males than females (Stacey, Van Walbeek, Maboshe, Tugendhaft & Hofman, 2017). Bulut et al. (2014) indicated that males consumed more energy drinks than females. Also, Aljaloud's (2016) energy drink study amongst college students indicated that more males (52.5%) participated in their survey. Similarly Gunja and Brown's (2012) energy drinks results were congruent with these findings.

6.2.2.2 Age Profile

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

Figure 6.2: Respondents' distribution by Age



As presented in Figure 6.2, the results indicate that 320 (46.4%) of participants were between the ages of 18 and 20, with 291 (42.2%) between 21 and 23. Only 78 (11.3%) were between the ages of 24 and 25 years of age. Attila and Çakir's (2011) study indicated that consumption of energy drinks is common amongst college students, specifically those between the 18 and 24 age group. The findings of this study are consistent with those of Attila and Çakir (2011).

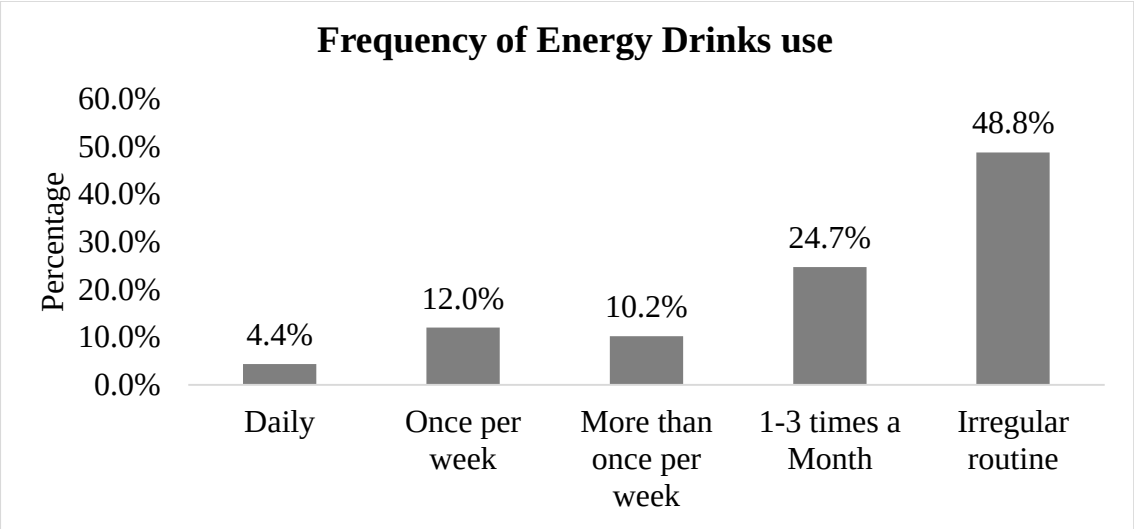
6.2.3 Energy Drink use and Related Behaviours among Respondents

This section presents the findings from descriptive statistics on energy-drink use and related behaviours among the respondents and includes frequency of energy drinks consumption, importance of human senses, and favourite energy drink among respondents.

6.2.3.1 Frequency of Energy Drink Consumption

In establishing the frequency of energy drink consumption, the respondents were asked to indicate the number of times they used energy drinks; the results are illustrated in Figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3: Frequency of Energy Drinks Usage



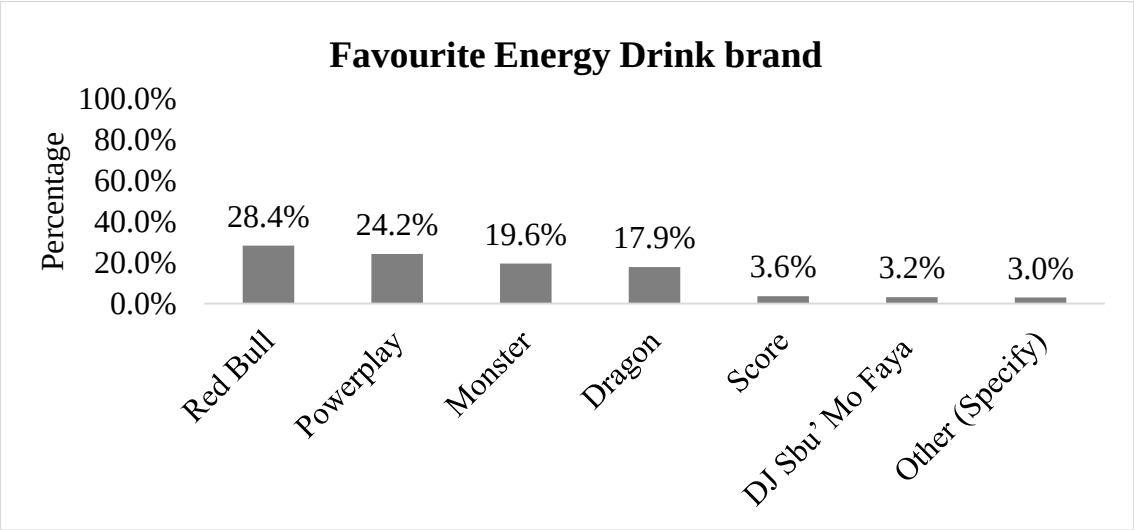
As presented in Figure 6.3, approximately 336 (48.8%) of respondents indicated that their energy drink consumption frequency is irregular routine, while 170 (24.7%) indicated their energy drink consumption frequency as 1 to 3 times a month, 70 (10.2%) indicated more than once per week, 80 (12.0%) indicated once per week and 30 (4.%) of the respondents indicated that they consumed energy drinks daily. These findings are consistent with those of

Aljaloud (2016), whose results indicated that the mean energy drink usage among university students was two to five energy drinks per week, Furthermore Aljaloud's (2016) study revealed that a high percentage of college students (71.6%; n = 338) use different energy drinks per week.

6.2.3.2 Favourite Energy Drink Brand

Figure 6.4 presents the favourite energy drink brand among the sample of respondents, follwed by a discussion.

Figure 6.4: Favourite Energy Drink Brand



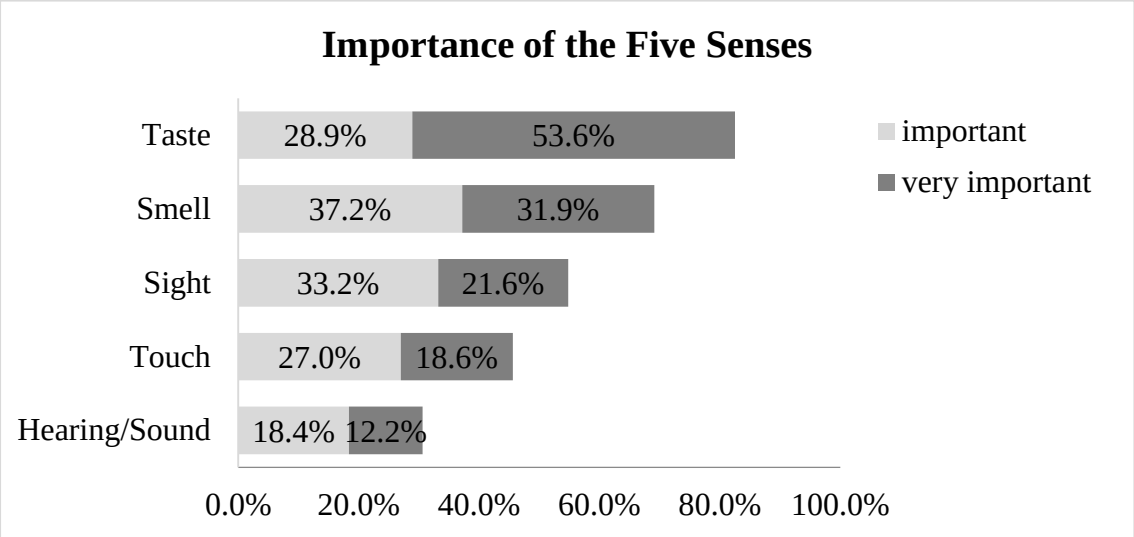
As evidenced in Figure 6.4, the majority of respondents' favourite energy drink brand is Red Bull at 196 (28.4%), followed by Power Play at 167 (24.2%), Monster at 135 (19.6%), Dragon at 123 (17.9%), Score at 25 (3.6%), and DJ Sbu' MoFaya at 22 (3.2%). While 'other' at 21 (2%) of the respondents indicated brands such as Rockstar, BioPlus, Burn, Orlando Pirates Energy Drink and Lucozade.

These findings are similar to the use of energy drinks among college students in the Saudi Arabian study conducted by Aljaloud (2016) which indicated that Red Bull (n = 107; 31.7%) was the most popular energy drink used among the students; in his study, other energy drinks brands included brands that are not retailed in South Africa, these included, Code Red, Bison, Bugzy, Power Horse, Double Horse, Blu Day, Black, Boom Boom and Shark. A study by Barcelona et al. (2014) also indicated that Red Bull and Monster Energy were significantly more popular among students at 29% and 7%, respectively. Customers develop feelings or sentiments and exhibit greater emotions with their favourite brand (Bapat & Thanigan, 2016).

6.2.3.3 Favourite Energy Drink Brand: Five Senses

In establishing the influence of the five senses (taste, smell, sight, touch and sound) on consumer purchase, respondents were asked to what extent did the different human senses contribute positively to the purchase intent of an energy drinks brand; the results are presented in Figure 6.5.

Figure 6.5: Importance of the Five Senses Consumer Experience



As presented in Figure 6.5, of the respondents, 369 (53.6%) indicated that taste sense was very important and contributed the most to energy drinks' consumer experience. These findings are similar to the study by Visram et al. (2016) and Visram et al. (2017) studies reported taste as the primary driver motivating the purchase and consumption of energy drinks. Smell was second with 220 (31.9%) in terms of being very important, followed by sight 149 (21.6%), touch 128 (18.6%), and sound 84 (12.2%). In summary, taste attracted the higher ratings, and hearing/sound gathered the lowest values. As a sensorial strategy, taste includes much more than the actual flavour and relates to such sensory expressions as interplay, symbiosis and synergy, emphasising the significance of other senses (Hultén, 2011). An expert in the area of sensory marketing expressed this in an interview: Customers call it taste, but it is everything: how it looks, smells, feels, and sounds. All of this, the customer more or less merges into the concept of "taste" (Hultén, 2011). As noted by Hultén (2011), a taste experience can include such other sensory expressions as scent, sound, design or texture, that build on the interplay and synergies between different senses. Furthermore, Siegrist and Cousin (2009) emphasise that the industry uses advertising, packaging and product information to generate favourable sensory expectations, which may influence

consumers' reactions toward food products, of which such information about a product may shape consumers' taste experience.

6.3 Inferential Statistics

Following the generation of descriptive statistics of the data, the inferential statistics discussion follows. Inferential statistics generalises sample findings to the broader population, they are used for rigorous statistical decision making (Wagner, 2010).

6.3.1 Structural Equation Modelling

This study used SEM, as there are multiple dependent and independent relationships which can only be tested simultaneously with SEM. The SEM was utilised to investigate the path relationship in the structural model. The measurement model included all the constructs, namely: brand experience, brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand faith, brand credibility and repurchase intention, which were all measured. Several methods are available for testing reliability, validity and model fit. In this section, the results of the reliability, validity and model fit of the measurement instrument are analysed, justified and discussed. Based on the extant literature, all values obtained were within acceptable ranges (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). These results are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Accuracy Analysis Statistics

Research Construct		Descriptive Statistics				Cronbach's Test		C.R. Value	AVE Value	Highest Shared Variance	Factor Loading
		Mean Value		Standard Deviation		Item-total	α value				
BE	BE1	4.987	4.460	1.405	1.552	0.470	0.894	0.870	0.362	0.361	0.507
	BE2	5.067		1.259		0.485					0.508
	BE3	5.035		1.311		0.479					0.500
	BE4	4.209		1.521		0.590					0.588
	BE5	3.936		1.662		0.653					0.703
	BE6	3.685		1.608		0.642					0.637
	BE7	4.570		1.721		0.622					0.584
	BE8	4.556		1.609		0.676					0.619
	BE9	4.745		1.459		0.610					0.591
	BE10	4.408		1.684		0.678					0.635
	BE11	4.261		1.718		0.662					0.637
	BE12	4.061		1.662		0.671					0.667
BP	BP1	4.909	4.723	1.310	1.396	0.740	0.877	0.945	0.593	0.572	0.831
	BP2	5.033		1.263		0.763					0.880
	BP3	5.080		1.249		0.748					0.815
	BP4	4.951		1.270		0.749					0.808
	BP5	4.142		1.547		0.637					0.691

	BP6	4.222		1.734		0.551					0.546
BA	BA1	5.032	4.715	1.488	1.521	0.657	0.842	0.853	0.498	0.315	0.715
	BA2	4.663		1.453		0.745					0.888
	BA3	4.475		1.493		0.739					0.754
	BA4	4.412		1.533		0.606					0.564
	BA5	5.541		1.394		0.495					0.670
	BA6	4.167		1.763		0.518					0.592
BL	BL1	5.104	4.649	1.281	1.445	0.712	0.919	0.925	0.640	0.572	0.748
	BL2	4.681		1.388		0.771					0.838
	BL3	4.913		1.379		0.794					0.835
	BL4	4.395		1.447		0.787					0.836
	BL5	4.864		1.439		0.801					0.785
	BL6	4.671		1.441		0.786					0.813
	BL7	3.913		1.737		0.636					0.737
BF	BF1	5.074	3.848	1.347	1.687	0.462	0.926	0.936	0.596	0.695	0.876
	BF2	3.906		1.693		0.729					0.750
	BF3	3.922		1.656		0.782					0.809
	BF4	3.324		1.724		0.751					0.746
	BF5	4.219		1.729		0.738					0.757
	BF6	3.755		1.674		0.813					0.844
	BF7	3.392		1.691		0.832					0.834
	BF8	3.409		1.713		0.790					0.771
	BF9	3.231		1.764		0.743					0.708
	BF10	4.251		1.877		0.524					0.581
BC	BC1	5.199	5.080	1.270	1.309	0.735	0.910	0.902	0.608	0.577	0.741
	BC2	5.035		1.298		0.725					0.723
	BC3	4.996		1.351		0.753					0.788
	BC4	4.949		1.271		0.817					0.878
	BC5	5.136		1.362		0.681					0.715
	BC6	5.165		1.300		0.785					0.819
RI	RI1	5.469	5.376	1.449	1.464	0.863	0.921	0.928	0.763	0.362	0.931
	RI2	5.319		1.481		0.875					0.919
	RI3	5.023		1.561		0.786					0.859
	RI4	5.694		1.367		0.757					0.777

BE-Brand Experience; BP-Brand Pleasure; BA-Brand Arousal; BL-Brand Love; BF-Brand Faith; BC-Brand Credibility; RI-Repurchase Intention

6.3.1.1 Testing for Reliability

Reliability refers to the degree to which a scale produces consistent results every time if repeated measurements are made under the same conditions on the characteristic (Creswell, 2014). The researcher used Cronbach's alpha (α), item to total values, Composite Reliability (CR) to evaluate the measurement instruments reliability. The following section provides an overview of the results from these three tests.

i. Cronbachs Alpha (α)

In this study, Cronbach's alpha was used to assess internal reliability of the constructs in the measurement scale. Based on the reliability of the variables, the Cronbach Alpha values for each construct were as follows: brand experience = 0.894, brand pleasure = 0.877, brand arousal = 0.842, brand love = 0.919, brand faith = 0.926, brand credibility = 0.910, and repurchase intention = 0.921. Therefore, all of the constructs were deemed to be highly reliable and as they are above the cut-off value of 0.70, recommended by Hair et al. (2010), this implies that the survey instrument is reliable to measure all constructs consistently and is free from random error. The Cronbach alpha results are presented in Table 6.2, while Appendix V: Cronbach Coefficient Alpha's, presents the results of the Cronbach alpha values.

ii. Item to total values

Item to total values are shown in Table 6.2, these ranged from 0.470 to 0.87. These are above the cut-off point of 0.3, showing that the item is measuring something different from the scale as a whole (Pallant, 2010).

iii. Composite Reliability (CR)

Internal reliability was also evaluated using Composite Reliability (CR). Composite reliability of all the latent variables should be greater than 0.70 (Carmines & Zeller, 1988). The CR for all the latent factors achieved the acceptable range of 0.7 (ranging from 0.853 to 0.945), or above, as recommended by Hair et al. (2010), indicating high reliability for all of the constructs (Nusair & Hua, 2010). A manual calculation for estimating the Composite Reliability (CR) was also conducted in Appendix VI: Composite Reliability Calculations, and the results are shown below in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Composite Reliability Estimates

				Composite reliability (CR)			
					summation of error terms		**CRη=(Σλyi)2/[(Σλyi)2+(Σεi)]**
				$(\sum\lambda Yi)^2$	$\acute{\varepsilon}i$	$\sum\acute{\varepsilon}i$	CR
BE	<---	BE1	0.507	51.495	0.743	7.662	0.870
	<---	BE2	0.508		0.742		
	<---	BE3	0.500		0.750		
	<---	BE4	0.588		0.654		
	<---	BE5	0.703		0.506		
	<---	BE6	0.637		0.594		
	<---	BE7	0.584		0.659		
	<---	BE8	0.619		0.617		

	<---	BE9	0.591		0.651		
	<---	BE10	0.635		0.597		
	<---	BE11	0.637		0.594		
	<---	BE12	0.667		0.555		
BP	<---	BP1	0.831	20.894	0.309	1.218	0.945
	<---	BP2	0.880		0.226		
	<---	BP3	0.815		0.336		
	<---	BP4	0.808		0.347		
	<---	BP5	0.691		0.523		
	<---	BP6	0.546		0.702		
BA	<---	BA1	0.715	17.497	0.489	3.014	0.853
	<---	BA2	0.888		0.211		
	<---	BA3	0.754		0.431		
	<---	BA4	0.564		0.682		
	<---	BA5	0.670		0.551		
	<---	BA6	0.592		0.650		
BL	<---	BL1	0.748	31.2705	0.440	2.522	0.925
	<---	BL2	0.838		0.298		
	<---	BL3	0.835		0.303		
	<---	BL4	0.836		0.301		
	<---	BL5	0.785		0.384		
	<---	BL6	0.813		0.339		
	<---	BL7	0.737		0.457		
BF	<---	BF1	0.876	58.9210	0.233	4.045	0.936
	<---	BF2	0.750		0.438		
	<---	BF3	0.809		0.346		
	<---	BF4	0.746		0.443		
	<---	BF5	0.757		0.427		
	<---	BF6	0.844		0.288		
	<---	BF7	0.834		0.304		
	<---	BF8	0.771		0.406		
	<---	BF9	0.708		0.499		
	<---	BF10	0.581		0.662		
BC	<---	BC1	0.741	21.7529	0.451	2.354	0.902
	<---	BC2	0.723		0.477		
	<---	BC3	0.788		0.379		
	<---	BC4	0.878		0.229		
	<---	BC5	0.715		0.489		
	<---	BC6	0.819		0.329		
RI	<---	RI1	0.931	12.1522	0.133	0.947	0.928
	<---	RI2	0.919		0.155		
	<---	RI3	0.859		0.262		
	<---	RI4	0.777		0.396		

BE-Brand Experience; BP-Brand Pleasure; BA-Brand Arousal; BL-Brand Love; BF-Brand Faith; BC-Brand Credibility; RI-Repurchase Intention

6.3.1.2 Testing for Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which research is accurate (Hair et al., 2010). In this study, validity tests that included convergent and discriminant validity were conducted. The results of the CFA provided evidence of the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

i. Convergent Validity

The convergent validity was assessed by examining the factor loadings of the constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). For assessing the convergent validity of the scales, it was required that the value of standardised factor loadings should be greater than 0.5 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The standard factor loadings presented in Table 6.2 exceeded the criterion of 0.5, thus indicating that the minimum requirement for convergent validity is met. This indicates that the respective constructs converge well into a single construct and are therefore valid (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, convergent validity was established.

ii. Discriminant Validity

To test for discriminant validity, the inter-construct correlation matrix, AVE, as well as AVE and SV were assessed.

a) Inter-Construct Correlation Matrix

The inter-construct correlation matrix was used to determine how distinct and/or less similar the constructs were from one another (Hair et al., 2010). The results indicate that 0.756 is the highest correlation. Since these inter-factor correlation values for all paired latent variables were below the recommended maximum threshold of 1.0 (Hair et al., 2010) there was satisfactory discriminant validity in the measurement scales. As presented in Table 6.4, the inter-correlation values for all paired latent variable were lower than 1.0, therefore confirming the existence of discriminant validity.

Table 6.4: Inter-Construct Correlations Matrix

	BE	BP	BA	BL	BF	BC	RI
BE	1						
BP	0.585**	1					
BA	0.561**	0.558**	1				
BL	0.550**	0.756**	0.538**	1			
BF	0.601**	0.643**	0.505**	0.695**	1		
BC	0.535**	0.590**	0.430**	0.577**	0.473**	1	
RI	0.472**	0.602**	0.484**	0.597**	0.505**	0.518**	1

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

BE-Brand Experience; BP-Brand Pleasure; BA-Brand Arousal; BL-Brand Love; BF-Brand Faith; BC-Brand Credibility; RI-Repurchase Intention

b) Average Value Extracted (AVE)

Average value extracted (AVE) greater than 0.50 indicates that the validity of both the construct and the individual variables is high (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Other researchers have indicated that an AVE of 0.4 is acceptable (Mohan et al., 2013; Floyd & Widaman, 1995). However, guidelines by Pezeshkian and Sadeghi (2015) suggest that the average value extracted should exceed 0.50 for a construct or be below 0.50 if composite reliability is above 0.60. Hair et al. (2006) previously contended that 0.3 is an acceptable minimum threshold in social sciences. In this study, AVE values range between 0.362 and 0.763, which is within 0.4 marginally acceptable range and CR is between 0.853 to 0.945, therefore convergent validity of all constructs are still adequate.

In this study, of the seven AVE and seven CR values, all exceeded the corresponding thresholds except the one for AVE; it was found that one construct had a relatively low AVE value below the recommended threshold (BE) 0.362. A similar study among college students' consumption of credit cards accepted an AVE of 0.38 (Blankson et al., 2012) and in a retail study, 0.327 (Bagdare & Jain, 2013). Numerous researchers have accepted an AVE of 0.40 (Baporikar 2015; Pezeshkian, & Sadeghi, 2015; Magner, Welker & Campbell, 1996). Other scholars have indicated that when AVE is less than 0.5 and composite reliability is above 0.6, then AVE is deemed as acceptable (Huang, Wang, Wu & Wang, 2013; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As stated by Hair et al. (2011), weaker indicators are sometimes retained on the basis of their contribution to content validity. In summary, only the average variance extracted of brand experience (AVE =0.362) is slightly below the suggested threshold. Since the deviation from the threshold is only marginal for one construct, convergent validity can thus be assumed. All these statistics are to be found in Appendix VII: AVE Calculations show that measures adopted in this study have convergent validity.

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

According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), discriminant validity is confirmed by testing if the AVE value was greater than the highest shared value (SV). As shown in Table 6.5, the loadings of all constructs satisfy this criterion as the highest shared value (HSV) exceeds AVE. Coefficients in bold italic represent the highest correlation shared by two variables. Table 6.2 earlier indicated that AVE is greater than the highest shared values (HSV < AVE). Thus, we can conclude that discriminant validity is achieved.

Table 6.5: Highest Shared Value

	BE	BP	BA	BL	BF	BC	RI
BE	1	0.342	***0.315***	0.303	0.601	0.535	0.223
BP	0.342	1	0.311	***0.572***	0.643	***0.590***	***0.362***
BA	0.315	0.311	1	0.289	0.505	0.430	0.234
BL	0.303	***0.572***	0.289	1	***0.695***	0.577	0.356
BF	***0.361***	0.413	0.255	0.483	1	0.473	0.255
BC	0.286	0.348	0.185	0.333	0.473	1	0.268
RI	0.223	0.362	0.234	0.356	0.505	0.518	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Note: Numbers in bold italic represent the highest correlation shared by two variables
BE-Brand Experience; BP-Brand Pleasure; BA-Brand Arousal; BL-Brand Love; BF-Brand Faith; BC-Brand Credibility; RI-Repurchase Intention

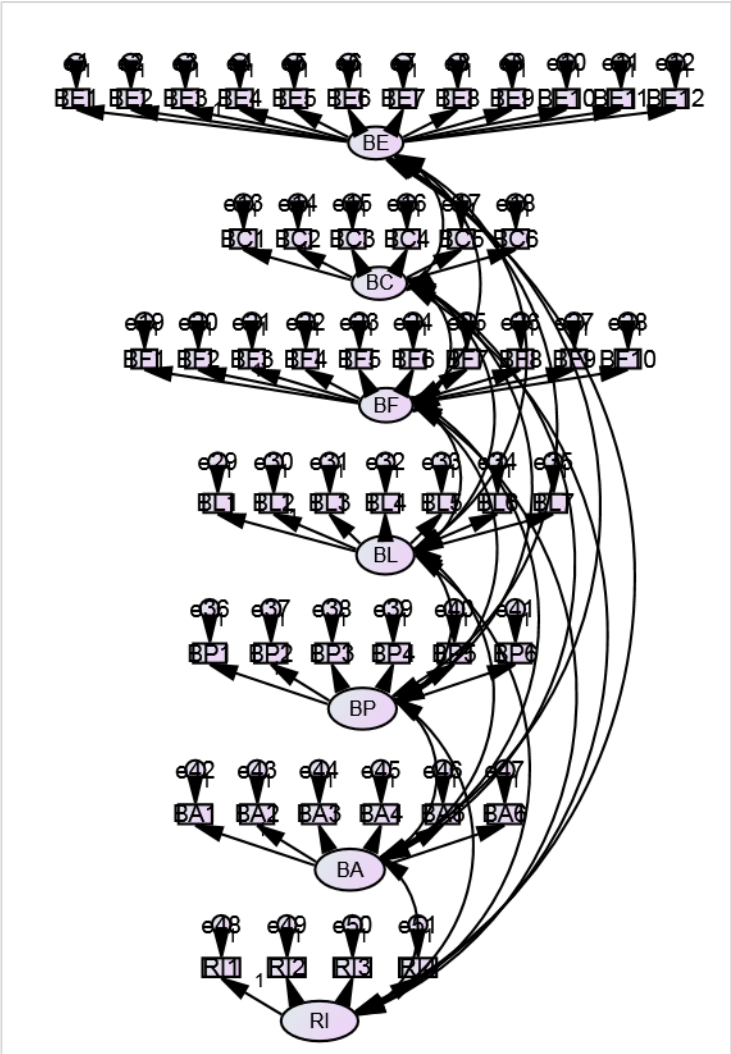
6.3.2 Model and Model Fit Assessment: CFA

The study adapts the two-step model approach: a measurement model and a subsequent structural model, as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). The first, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and the second, structural equation modelling (SEM).

6.3.2.1 Model Fit Assessment

To evaluate the measurement model, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using AMOS 23 software. The CFA model for the study is presented in Figure 6.6.

Figure 6.6: CFA Model



Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

Note: BE= Brand Experience; BP= Brand Pleasure; BL= Brand Love; BF= Brand Faith; BC=Brand Credibility; Repurchase Intention= RI; e=measurement error

As depicted in Figure 6.6, the model contains latent variables which are represented in circular shape, as well as observed variables which are in rectangular shapes. The measurement errors are represented in circular shapes and are adjacent to observed variables. The relationship between latent varables are represented by directional arrows.

6.3.3 Model Fit Assessment results

The measurement model included all the constructs: brand experience toward energy drinks (twelve-item scale), brand credibility (six-item scale), brand faith (ten-item scale), brand love (seven-item scale), brand pleasure (six-item scale), brand arousal (six item scale) and

repurchase intention of energy drinks (four-item scale). The resulting model produced good-fit indices: the Chi-square ($\chi 2/df$ = 1.754 which is acceptable, the criterion for acceptable model fit should be less than 3 (Kline, 2011). The robust values of CFI 0.974, IFI= 0.974, TLI= 0.964 and NFI= 0.943 exceed the recommended guideline of >0.9 for a good-fitting model (Shadfar & Malekmohammadi, 2013; Hair et al., 2010; Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Goodness-of-fit Index (GFI) is slightly above the recommended cut-off point of >0.9 (Byrne, 2010), which is 0.906. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) of 0.033 is lower than the recommended 0.05, which confirms a good model fit (Moutinho & Hutcheson, 2011). In view of the aforementioned results, it can be observed that all the indicator values in this study meet the above stated thresholds. Based on the extant literature, all values obtained were within acceptable ranges (Hair et al., 2010). A summary of model fit indices with thresholds is presented in Table 6.6 below.

Table 6.6: Summary of Model Fit results CFA

Model Fit Indices	**Acceptable Threshold**	**Study Threshold**	**Acceptable/ Unacceptable**
Chi-Square Value: $\chi 2/df$	<3	1.754	Acceptable
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	> 0.900	0.943	Acceptable
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	> 0.900	0.974	Acceptable
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	> 0.900	0.964	Acceptable
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	> 0.900	0.974	Acceptable
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	> 0.900	0.906	Acceptable
Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA)	< 0.08	0.033	Acceptable

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

Overall, the fit indices, validity and reliability measures suggest that the proposed model of the study fits the collected data well. Thus, we proceed to examine the structural model.

6.3.4 The Structural model and Analysis of Paths

After confirming the measurement model, the structural model estimation was done by means of IBM Amos version 23, using a maximum likelihood estimate. SEM is used to analyse the measurement model, estimate the structural model and test the proposed research hypotheses. The hypothesised relationships among constructs were tested in the structural model. This

being the second-phase of the SEM two-step model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), the structural equation modelling (SEM) was utilised for path analysis and path modelling in order to examine the structural pathways of the hypothesised research model. Malhotra (2010) refers to this phase as the second of the two models estimated by SEM, and describes that it represents the theory that specifies how the constructs are related to each other. The permissible limits of indices and actual value of indexes of the proposed model on the basis of field data is presented in Table 6.7 below.

Table 6.7: Summary of Model Fit results – Structural Model

Model Fit Indices	Acceptable Threshold	Study Threshold	Acceptable/ Unacceptable
Chi-Square Value: $\chi 2/df$	<3	1.856	Acceptable
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	> 0.900	0.935	Acceptable
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	> 0.900	0.969	Acceptable
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	> 0.900	0.959	Acceptable
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	> 0.900	0.969	Acceptable
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	> 0.900	0.902	Acceptable
Random Measure of Standard Error Approximation (RMSEA)	< 0.08	0.035	Acceptable

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

Table 6.7 shows the model fit for the path analysis. The structural model had good fit: chi-square value of ($\chi 2/df$ = 1.856) which was well within the acceptable range of 3, as recommended by Hair et al. (2010). CFI = 0.969; TLI = 0.959; IFI = 0.969; GFI = 0.902; NFI = 0.935. All these indices were within the recommended acceptable value range of 0.90 or above (Hair et al., 2010). RMSEA = 0.035 which was beneath the acceptable cutoff level of below 0.08 or below 0.05 which is better (Kenny, Kaniskan & McCoach, 2015; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The structural model had a good fit with all the fit-indices better than the recommended cut-off values.

6.3.4.1 Hypothesis Testing

After confirming the model fit, the researcher continued to testing the hypotheses. The structural paths, as per the hypothesised relationships, were examined after assessing the model fit. The 1%, 5%, and 10% (p < 0.01, 0.05, and 0.1) significance levels have been used. Table 6.8 presents the findings from the hypotheses.

Table 6.8: Hypothesis Results and Path Coefficients

Hypothesised Path	**Hypothesis**	**Path Coefficient**	**P-Value**	**Assessment** ***(*** p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.1)***
BE → BP	H1	0.814	***	Supported and Significant at 1% level *p<0.01*
BE → BA	H2	0.820	***	Supported and Significant at 1% level *p<0.01*
BE → BL	H3	0.790	***	Supported and Significant at 1% level *p<0.01*
BE → BF	H4	0.916	***	Supported and Significant at 1% level *p<0.01*
BE → BC	H5	0.752	***	Supported and Significant at 1% level *p<0.01*
BP → RI	H6	0.412	***	Supported and Significant at 1% level *p<0.01*
BA → RI	H7	0.103	0.083*	Supported and Significant at 10% level *p<0.1*
BL → RI	H8	0.192	0.014**	Supported and Significant at 5% level *p<0.05*
BF → RI	H9	0.066	0.329^{ns}	Not Supported and Not Significant
BC → RI	H10	0.231	***	Supported and Significant at 1% level *p<0.01*
BE → RI	H11	0.058	0.636^{ns}	Not Supported and Not Significant

*Notes: (^{ns}) is not significant at *** p<0.01; **p<0.05; *p<0.1)*

BE-Brand Experience; BP-Brand Pleasure; BA-Brand Arousal; BL-Brand Love; BF-Brand Faith; BC-Brand Credibility; RI-Repurchase Intention

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

The results are presented in Table 6.8. In assessing the probability value or the p-value, it was observed that seven of the hypotheses were significant at 1% significance level out of the eleven that were stated at a significance level of 0.01 which are indicated with asterisks (***)

as shown in Table 6.8. Hypothesis 7 was supported and significant at 10% level $p<0.1$ with asterisk (*), while Hypothesis 8 was supported and significant at 5% level $p<0.05$ with asterisks (**), however Hypotheses 9 and 11 are not supported and not significant (^{ns}).

6.3.4.2 Discussion of Hypotheses Results from the conceptual model of the study

All the eleven investigated paths are discussed:

H 1: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand pleasure* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

Results of H1 indicate a positive and significant relationship between brand experience and brand pleasure. The results show a path coefficient value of 0.814 at $p < 0.01$, as indicated by p-value of ***, therefore strong evidence in favour of the relationship between brand experience and brand pleasure exists. Thus, implying that the more favourable the experience, the more pleasant and enjoyable Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa find the brand. This finding is consistent with findings of numerous researchers (Salwah & Junita, 2017; Chang et al., 2014; Ha & Im, 2012) who indicated a positive relationship between brand experience and brand pleasure.

H 2: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand arousal* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

Hypothesis 2 (H2) also reflects a positive and significant relationship. The strength of this relationship is explained by the path coefficient value of 0.820, at the significance level of $p < 0.01$, as indicated by p-value of ***, reflecting a strong relationship. This means that a positive brand experience is likely to increase physical and mental activation or arousal levels. The study's findings are consistent with other findings on the same relationship such as Walsh et al. (2011) as well as Sweeney and Wyber (2002).

H 3: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand love* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

The results of Hypotheses 3 are significantly positive. The path coefficient is 0.790, at the significant level of $p < 0.01$, as indicated by p-value of *** therefore indicating a strong

relationship between brand experience and brand love. This can be interpreted to indicate that brand experience influences brand love. This means that customers are more likely to love that brand if their brand experience is favourable. The finding is consistent with numerous researchers (Rodrigues and Ferreira, 2016; Sarkar et al., 2012) who indicated a positive relationship between brand experience and brand pleasure.

H 4: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand faith* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

The findings indicate that there is a strong relationship between brand experience and brand faith. Upon examining the path coefficient of 0.916, at significance level of $p < 0.01$ with p-value of ***, the relationship indicated a significantly positive relationship between these two variables. In other words, a positive brand experience is likely to increase the faith levels that customers have with the brand. Numerous scholars (Jung & Soo, 2012; McAlexander & Koenig, 2007; Mohamed & Musa, 2012) have supported the relationship between brand experience and brand faith.

H 5: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand credibility* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

Results of Hypotheses 5 (H5) indicate that a significantly positive relationship exists between brand experience and brand credibility. The path coefficient of 0.752, at a significant level of $p < 0.01$ with p-value of *** reflected a positive and strong correlation between the two variables. Spry et al. (2011) as well as De Klerk and Lubbe (2008) affirmed the finding of the current study that, brand experience has a positive relationship with brand credibility.

H 6: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand pleasure and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

The influence of brand pleasure on repurchase intention was significantly positive with path coefficient of 0.412, at a significant level of $p < 0.01$ represented by ***. In other words, if customers have pleasurable emotions towards the brand, they are likely to repurchase the brand. The results further indicate that pleasure is a major contributor to behavioural intention for energy drinks among Generation Y consumers in South Africa; it is important for marketing strategies to be directed toward pleasure-generating experiences. Ryu and Jang

(2007) affirmed the findings of the current study that, brand pleasure has a positive relationship with repurchase intention.

H 7: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand arousal and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

H7 hypothesised a significantly positive relationship between brand arousal and repurchase intention of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa. The result is supported, thus indicating that brand arousal has a significantly positive influence on repurchase intention. The strength of the relationship is reflected by the path coefficient of 0.103 with p-value of 0.083*. The relationship is supported and significant at 10% level $p < 0.1$. This means that if customers have arousal emotions towards the brand, they are more likely to repurchase the brand. The finding is consistent with findings of numerous researchers (Essawy, 2017; Koo & Ju, 2010) who indicated a positive relationship between brand arousal and repurchase intention.

H 8: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand love and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

The relationship between brand love and repurchase intention was found to be positive. The path coefficient is 0.192, indicating that the relationship is positive with a p-value of 0.014**. This relationship is supported and significant at 5% level $p < 0.05$. This means that customers who love the brand are more likely to repurchase the brand. Supporting literature (Garg et al., 2015; Park, 2015) indicates a positive relationship between brand love and repurchase intention.

H 9: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand faith and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

The results for Hypothesis 9 indicate that the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention was found to be not significant, hence the relationship is not supported. The path coefficient is 0.066 with p-value of 0.329. This finding is consistent with Bulut (2015) who suggested that the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention should be mediated through mediators such as brand loyalty.

H 10: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand credibility and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

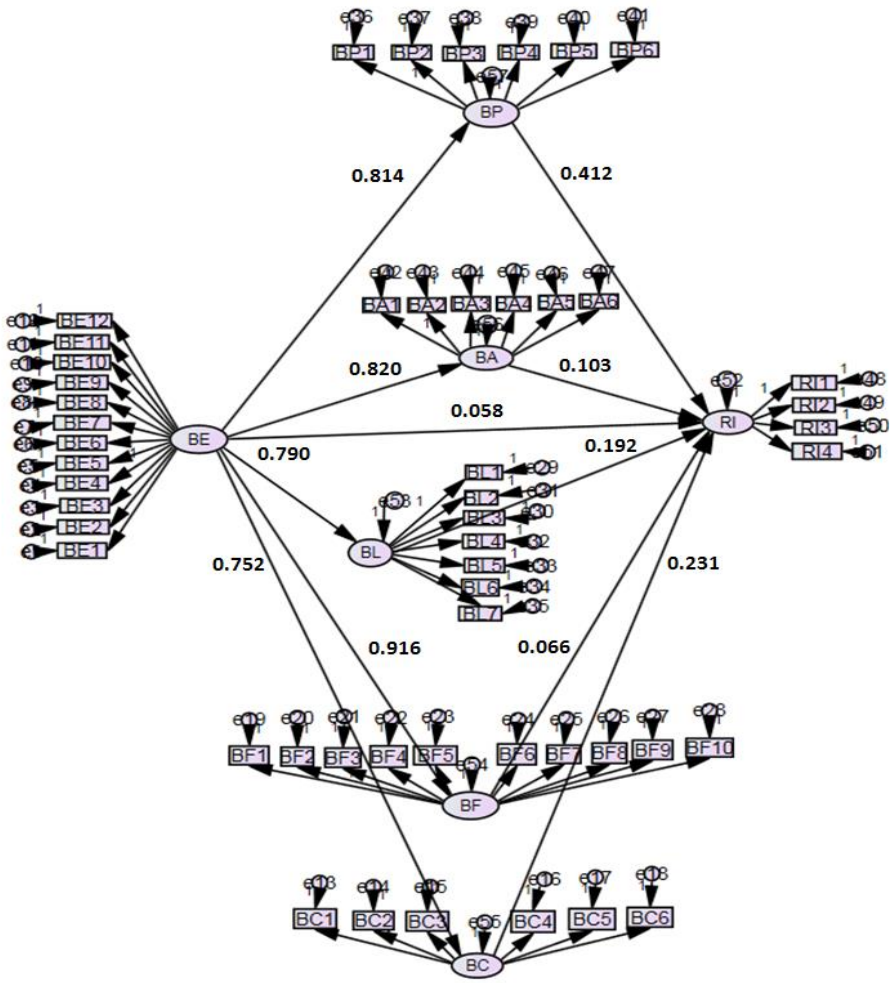
Hypothesis 10 was significant and supported. In assessing the results, brand credibility and repurchase intention have a significant positive relationship. The strength of the relationship is reflected by the path coefficient value of 0.231 and p-value of ***. This relationship is supported and significant at 1% level $p < 0.01$, indicating a strong relationship between the variables. This means that the more the customers find the brands credible, the more likely they are to repeat purchase. Garg et al. (2015) and Park (2015) affirmed the finding of the current study that, brand credibility has a positive relationship with repurchase intention.

H 11: **There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.**

Finally, H11 was not significant, thus not supported. The p-value is 0.636 with path coefficient value of 0.058. This finding is consistent with the findings of numerous researchers who suggested that the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention should be mediated through brand preference (Ebrahim, Ghoneim, Irani & Fan, 2016); brand relationship quality (Sahin et al., 2012) as well as brand satisfaction (Ekaputri et al., 2016; Lin & Lekhawipat, 2014) .

As presented in Table 6.8, these results indicate a good fit. Malhotra (2010) refers to this graphical form as a path diagram, it shows the complete set of relationships among the constructs as dependence relationships are portrayed by straight arrows and correlational relationships by curved arrows. Constructs are represented in ovals or circles, while the measured variables are represented by squares. The results of structural equation model (SEM) testing are presented in Figure 6.8.

Figure 6.8: Result of Structural Equation Model (SEM) Testing



Note: BE= Brand Experience; BP= Brand Pleasure; BL= Brand Love; BF= Brand Faith; BC=Brand Credibility; Repurchase Intention= RI; e=measurement error

Figure 6.8 depicts the results of the SEM testing, showing the direction and magnitude of the direct impact through the standardised path coefficients.

6.3.4.2.1 Testing for the Mediating Effect

Recommendations by various authors (Hayes, 2013; Holmbeck, 1997; Baron & Kenny, 1986) were followed to test for mediation using SEM. The study follows a partial mediation as the effect of stimuli (S of SOR) on response (R of SOR) is transmitted both directly and indirectly through organism (O of SOR) as recommended by LeBreton, Wu and Bing (2009). Prior research also shows the mediating effect of emotion on behavioural intentions, for instance Liu and Jang (2009); Ryu and Jang (2008). The results confirmed that emotions mediate the relationship between experiential marketing and repurchase intention.

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter presented the research findings from the statistical analysis as well as interpretation of data obtained from the data collected on how brand experience influences repurchase intention of energy drinks among university-aged generation Y in Johannesburg universities. Two main sections are discussed. Firstly, the chapter started by presenting the descriptive statistics, followed by analysis of the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments used. Secondly, the inferential statistics were presented, as well as confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that discusses validity and reliability, thereafter testing of the hypotheses followed. In the following chapter, the research findings are discussed.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a critical discussion of the research findings in light of previous literature. The chapter is structured in two phases. The first part presents the demographic data of the respondents while the second phase presents the results of each hypothesis, including a comparison of the results with previous literature, as well as a discussion of the application of the results to marketing practice.

7.2 The Study's Demographic Characteristics

The demographic variables used in the present study were gender, age, and occupation of the respondents. The study's demographic characteristics are presented in the subsequent headings.

7.2.1 Gender Characteristics of the Respondents

The gender characteristics of the respondents in the study observed that 59.9% were male while 37.7% were female, and 2.3% remainder of respondents preferred not to say Interestingly, Aljaloud (2016) and Bulut et al.'s (2014) energy drinks study also reported a dominance of male users. Similarly, past literature shows that male consumers are becoming increasingly more involved in shopping than in the past (Jackson, Stoel & Brantley, 2011; Theodoridis & Chatzipanagiotou, 2009). Scholars such as Melnyk, Van Osselaer and Bijmolt (2009) indicated that there are differences between men and women regarding their loyalty. In addition, Meyers-Levy and Loken (2015) argued that compared with females, males are likely to favour promotions that benefit the self (versus others), spend more money to elevate their status when they shop with others, favour more efficient online shopping, and use detachment to cope with negative emotions.

7.2.2 Age Characteristics of the Respondents

Respondents in the 18-20 year age group were found to be approximately 46.4% of the total respondents surveyed, followed by 21-23 year old respondents 42.2%, and lastly 24-25 year old respondents, 11.3%. The age profile for this sample provided a contrast with another study concerning energy drinks among university students conducted by Attila and Çakir (2011) where the predominance of 21-24 year olds was observed.

7.3 Discussion of Results from the Conceptual Model of the Study

The results of the hypotheses testing provide various insights to experiential marketing with regard to the product type, energy drinks and the context, Generation Y energy drink users in South Africa, where the study was conducted. Results from the hypotheses testing suggest the following information:

7.3.1 Brand Experience and Brand Pleasure

H 1: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand pleasure* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 1 results show a significant relationship between brand experience and brand pleasure with a path coefficient of 0.814 at the significance level of $p < 0.01$. H1 is therefore strongly supported. The results were also consistent with numerous researchers (Chang et al., 2014; Ha & Im, 2012; Lin & Mattila, 2010) who indicated a positive relationship between brand experience and brand pleasure. Furthermore, Salwah and Junita (2017) applied strategic experiential modules (SEMs) in Bangu's Korean Fan Café; it was observed that these had a positive and significant impact on pleasure. In addition, sensory stimulation may provide pleasure and excitement and thus can be used to affect consumer emotional states (Hultén, 2011; Schmitt, 1999). For instance, Walsh et al. (2011) found that pleasure was influenced by music, aroma, merchandise quality, service quality and price. This finding is an important insight for marketers of energy drinks as these can be used to enhance brand pleasure. Furthermore Cheng, Wu and Yen (2009) mentioned that music has also been believed to induce emotions of pleasure. Scholars, Baumgartner, Lutz, Schmidt and Jäncke (2006) found that congruent visual and musical emotional stimuli automatically evoke strong emotional feelings and experiences. Similarly, Hepola, Karjaluoto and Hintikka (2017) mention that scents and music, for instance, may affect consumer affects. In addition, Kang et al. (2011) highlighted that sight and touch had significant impacts on the pleasure of emotion. Digital tools such as brand websites are able to provide pleasurable experiences that encourage consumers to repeat their purchase (Zimmerman, 2012). Also, a combination of television advertising and social media can enhance pleasure (McCormick et al., 2014). It is therefore important for marketing strategies to be directed toward pleasure-generating environments through enhancing the perceived quality (Ryu & Jang, 2007). For marketers, a high degree of integration is required so that at every touch point, customers not only feel satisfied but also receive pleasurable brand experiences (Khan & Rahman, 2016).

In summary, brand experience is a predictor of brand pleasure. Within the context of this study, this indicates that the more pleasant the brand experience in terms of sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural experience, the more likely that Generation Y energy drink consumers will have a pleasant experience.

7.3.2 Brand Experience and Brand Arousal

H 2: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand arousal* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 2 results show a significantly positive relationship between brand experience and brand arousal with a path coefficient of 0.820 and p-value represented by ***, at the significant level of $p < 0.01$. This result also proved the viewpoint of previous studies done by other researchers (Walsh et al., 2011; Gustafsson, Öström, Johansson & Mossberg, 2006; Sweeney & Wyber, 2002) and colour (Cheng, Wu & Yen, 2009). However, Spangenberg et al. (2005) reported that pleasant scents trigger approach behaviours, but do not find a direct link between music and levels of arousal and pleasure. Similarly, Kellaris and Kent (1993) found a link between music tempo and arousal. Cheng, Wu and Yen (2009) found that Generation Y respondents felt more aroused and pleasant when they were exposed to fast music and warm colour conditions than those who were exposed to an environment with slow music and cool colours.

A study by Hansen, Jensen and Gustafsson (2005) used all five senses for the ultimate meal experience, for sight, the appearance of the different components and their colours, their shine or gloss, translucency, size and shape and surface texture; for hearing, the sounds made when you chew as well as the sounds produced by the mode of preparation, for smell, the aroma of the dish; for taste, the taste of the various flavour combinations of the dish; and for touch, the texture, for instance, of fish and the contrasts between different textures in the dish. The Hansen et al. (2005) study indicated that all the senses must be in harmony to create agreement that it was a good meal experience, and these were the inner frames of the experience of the product, furthermore, culture and social context are crucial factors. A beautiful brand name and a colourful store can easily engender pleasurable and memorable brand experience (Roswinanto, 2011; Chapman, 2010). Retailers may arouse consumers through effective displays, appropriate retail ergonomics, easily identifiable packaging, making shopping exciting, and focusing on in-store advertising to enhance the arousal of young consumers (Quelch & Cannon-Bonventre, 1983). As stated by Zimmerman (2012), if

the consumers are stimulated by the online shopping experience, the desire to relive that experience will lead to the consumer's intention to revisit the website. The visual effects associated with products often stimulates the buying decision among young consumers. Point of sale posters build assumption of the perceived use value and motivational relevance of buying decisions of a product (Rajagopal, 2007). Arousal in shopping makes young consumers stay longer in-store, experience the pleasure of products and promotes buying decisions (Rajagopal, 2007). Furthermore, Rajagopal (2007) recommends that retailers should develop arousal-led sales with affordable fashion and entertainment products for young consumers, furthermore, the lack of availability of merchandise and appropriate techniques of managing the shopping emotions of young consumers may cause dissatisfaction and prompt decision switch behaviour. Marketers should use sales promotions to stimulate consumer trial, to improve purchase or repurchase rate and to cement long-term customer relationships (McCormick et al., 2014), some of these can include discounted prices, multi-buy options and BOGOFs (Buy One Get One Free offers) to more specialist promotions that add value for consumers. These can be used short term to stimulate sales. It can be used heavily over the key sales period of summer and Christmas. Sales promotions can be done in a variety of ways with the intention of attracting consumers in store and clearing stock; can either be promoted in press or online. Marketers must be careful as sales promotion offers can affect brand perception and ultimately change consumer behaviour; leading to customers who will not buy until there is an offer (McCormick et al., 2014). Furthermore, marketers can use visual merchandising in-store which can get customers into store and in bringing the experience and brand to life (McCormick et al., 2014; Kerfoot et al., 2003).

7.3.3 Brand Experience and Brand Love

H 3: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand love* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 3 is significantly positive. Therefore, consumers with a favourable brand experience related to a brand are more likely to love the brand, in comparison to customers who have a negative or neutral experience towards the brand. The strength of the relationship is reflected by the path coefficient of 0.790 and p-value represented by ***, at the significant level of $p < 0.01$, showing a strong relationship. Therefore, brand experience is regarded as a predictor of brand love. This finding is supported by Rodrigues and Ferreira (2016) who

indicated that brand experience influences brand love and that the sensory experience dimension has the most impact on brand love. Sarkar et al.'s (2012) study indicates that favourable affective brand experiences give rise to both brand intimacy and brand-passion.

Marketers should be aware that in order to build a brand that is loved by the consumer demands creating and managing sensorial, affective, intellectual experiences as an important marketing asset since it fosters emotional responses (Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2016). Brand experiences could happen in a variety of settings when the consumers search for, shop for, and consume brands (Brakus et al., 2009). Consumers love brands that act in more human and personal ways (Davidge, 2015). Marketers should therefore create favourable experiences for consumers at every touch point to leave long-lasting impressions on consumers. Concentrating on design cues and merchandise cues would be cost efficient in increasing consumers' emotional attachment to single-brand apparel stores (Koo & Kim, 2013). Marketers should work on the consumers' suggestions for further improvement in their product development. Davidge (2015) suggests that brands should be seeking 1,000 people who love them, rather than 10,000 people who merely like them.

Marketers should formulate an appropriate strategy so that the brand has a strong emotional appeal and target customers to fall in love with the brand. For example, press advertising in magazines is still a key channel for marketers to use to promote their ranges and offers (McCormick et al., 2014). Magazine advertising reaches consumers in subtly different states of mind, often consumers choose to read and engage with their magazine for relaxation and research shows that a strong and loyal bond to a particular title can be formed (Moriarty, Mitchell & Wells, 2012). Furthermore, marketers can use direct marketing to create a strong brand dialogue with consumers, although this needs continuity, interaction, targeting and control (McCormick et al., 2014).

7.3.4 Brand Experience and Brand Faith

H 4: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand faith* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 4 findings show a significantly positive relationship between brand experience and brand faith. The path coefficient for H4 was significantly positive at 0.916 path coefficient and p-value represented by ***, at the significant level of $p < 0.01$. In other words, the more pleasant the brand experience the more likely consumers are to have faith

towards the brand. This finding is supported by Schouten, McAlexander and Koenig (2007) who found that when consumers' unique experiences of high-value expectation were met, they would have a positive attitude to the brand marketing activities and strengthen their relationship with the brand community. Mohamed and Musa (2012) pointed out that brand experience has a positive significant effect on trust and resonance but not on commitment. They suggested that food service marketers need to focus on the antecedents of brand experience that include product quality, service quality, store image, promotional activities' credibility in order for brand experience to have a greater influence on brand trust and brand resonance. Furthermore, Jung and Soo (2012) pointed out that affective brand experience affects brand trust and brand commitment positively.

Xie, Poon and Zhang's (2017) found that brand relationship quality (i.e trust, satisfaction, emotional intimacy, behavioural commitment and self-connective attachment) mediates the effects of the four dimensions of brand experience (i.e., sensory, affective, behavioural, and intellectual) on customer citizenship behaviour. Experience with a brand will enhance the acceptance of information and make consumers' beliefs firmer, and thus it affects their purchase decisions (Huang, 2014). Furthermore, Khan and Rahman (2016) stated that when individuals have experiences that are highly relevant to them, they feel confident about the ability of the brand to deliver promises, which in turn develops trust in the brand. According to Ramaseshan and Stein (2014), the process by which individuals develop trust toward the brand relies on their experience with that brand. Brodie, Hollebeek, Jurić and Ilić (2011) argued that customer engagement arises by virtue of interactive experiences. As noted by Hepola et al. (2017), highly engaged consumers are holistically invested in the brand interactions and thus develop a deep bond with the brand.

Communities that are built around a brand offer many advantages to companies (Seo, Kelleher & Brodie, 2017). People that identify with the community show a higher level of loyalty towards it, greater community engagement equates to more intention to participate in the community and a higher level of trust in the community (Seo et al., 2017; Yeh & Choi, 2011). Marketing managers can carry out marketing campaigns to build aspects of brand relationship quality, such as self-connective attachment, satisfaction, commitment, trust and emotional intimacy (Xie et al., 2017). According to Xie et al. (2017), behavioural brand experience is found to have the strongest impact of brand relationship quality, organisations are therefore suggested to enable their customers to participate in more activities, e.g.,

increasing the interactions between customers and the brand, and the interactions between customers and other customers. They further state that for affective brand experience, marketers should provide customised offerings, such as the customer's name in order to facilitate customer sentiments and positive feelings in order for affective experience of the customer to be greatly enhanced. Xie et al. (2017) suggest that for sensory brand experience, marketers may have specific brand themes or a symbolic colour or mascot or provide entertainment in order for the brand to be more distinguished and easier to be remembered by the customers. As intellectual brand experience is related to mental activities, marketers may try and trigger customer's curiosity and ask them to participate in co-creation (Xie et al., 2017). The perfect storm in a brand campaign occurs when everyone talks about it, when consumers reaffirm their faith in a brand and when a new generation of consumers endorse it (Star, 2016). For example, through online advertising, marketers can remind consumers about brands when they visit websites, deliver information in the form of online advertisements, and offer enticements to other websites using banners and buttons (McCormick et al., 2014). Furthermore, it can also help consumers to find product reviews (McCormick et al., 2014).

Hepola et al. (2017) suggest that sensory brand experience provides managers with a way to build brand equity. They further state that brand managers should consider how they can harness five human senses to effectively co-create powerful sensations with their customers, as well as leveraging consumer's involvement with the brand although its direct impact is relatively small. Schouten et al. (2007) found that at a brandfest such as Camp Jeep, customers engage their product possessions intensively, learning more about them and gaining greater personal mastery of and through them. According to Lopez et al. (2017), companies can create brand communities on Twitter that consumers can follow. Furthermore Lopez et al. (2017) state that many companies are willing to develop their own brand communities because membership enhances preference towards the brand, stimulates positive word-of-mouth (WOM) around the brand, and maximises opportunities to attract and closely collaborate with highly loyal consumers of the brand.

7.3.5 Brand Experience and Brand Credibility

H 5: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand credibility* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 5 findings show a significantly positive relationship between brand experience and brand credibility with path coefficient of 0.752 and p-value represented by ***, at the significant level of $p < 0.01$. In other words, brand experience is a significant predictor of brand credibility. This finding is supported by De Klerk and Lubbe (2008), who found that sight and touch play a role in evaluating the quality of a product, furthermore, they indicated that colour and texture (because of the materials utilised) bring about an experience of pleasure.

Brand credibility is constructed with trustworthiness and expertise; marketers should therefore improve both areas, by enabling consumers to perceive that their brand has the ability and willingness to continuously deliver what has been promised. Spry et al. (2011) discussed that celebrity endorsement is an effective tool for building brand credibility. From a practical perspective, airline companies such as British Airways, Emirates and Turkish Airlines have used celebrity endorsements and have been successful at it (Jeng, 2016). As noted by Baek and King (2011), brand credibility can be enhanced through brand investment, such as advertising, logos and sponsorship, and socially responsible corporate action, showing that the company believes in and is committed to the brand. They further state that advertising can be used to convey the tangible information and meaning attached to the brand name in order to establish brand credibility.

Marketers should generate positive emotional reactions from consumers about the brand in order to establish credibility (Kemp & Bui, 2011). The authors further state that marketers of healthy brands must support claims about product offerings with science. Alam et al. (2012) suggest that managers should focus on promotion strategies like media campaigns, but must provide a true picture of their product, avoiding claims that cannot be justified upon the use of the product. The authors observed that younger respondents have higher brand credibility scores, therefore marketers should attract this age group by promoting and advertising the brand with issues that are of interest to the younger generation. In addition, marketers can target public relations (PR) activities, such as exhibitions, event management, launch parties, events/shows, and sponsorship tie ups to build brands (McCormick et al., 2014). Marketers can also use social media within a PR mix through the use of Facebook, Twitter, bloggers and other tools to spread positive word of mouth about their brands in order to enhance brand credibility. Furthermore, marketers can use celebrity endorsement and sponsorship in order to use the power of the endorser or sponsor to enhance the brand advertised, thus leading to

increased brand equity (McCormick et al., 2014), however the correct celebrity will attract attention from both consumer and media and create better brand recall and brand prestige (Hollensen & Schimmelpfennig, 2013). Similarly, Egan (2015) argued that the celebrity should be appropriate for both the product and target audience. Marketers need to realise that the greater the celebrity's influence on a particular target audience, the greater the wish to mimic that celebrity (Egan, 2015).

7.3.6 Brand Pleasure and Repurchase Intention

H 6: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand pleasure and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 6 findings show a significantly positive relationship between brand pleasure and repurchase intention with path coefficient value of 0.412 and p-value represented by ***, at the significant level of $p < 0{,}01$. In other words, the pleasure that customers have with a brand is likely to influence repurchase intention, the higher the pleasure, the greater the possibility that customers will repurchase. Therefore, the result of this study is the same as the research result of Donovan et al. (1994) that stated that when consumers experience pleasantness, the experience can have a significant positive influence on their purchasing behaviour. Ryu and Jang (2007) found that emotions (pleasure and arousal) positively influenced behavioural intentions (e.g., recommendation and spending more). Furthermore, their study further indicated that pleasure appeared to be a major contributor to behavioural intentions.

7.3.7 Brand Arousal and Repurchase Intention

H 7: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand arousal and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 7 shows that there is a significantly positive relationship between brand arousal and repurchase intention indicated by path coefficient value of 0.103 and p-value of 0.083, at the significant level of $p < 0.1$. This finding is also in line with Koo and Ju (2010) who stated that brand arousal has an influence on repurchase intention. Sas, Dix and Su (2009) examined users' emotional attachment to Facebook and their most memorable Facebook experiences. Their results showed that users' experiences were mostly associated with positive emotion, in particular, when they interacted and connected with people on Facebook. As noted by Essawy (2017), the positive emotions (pleasure, arousal, and dominance) of the

users have significant impacts on behavioural intentions. Raajpoot et al. (2013) established a clear link between arousal and repurchase intention. Furthermore, Koo and Lee's (2011) study indicated that arousal, along with pleasure, are causal factors explaining variations in a consumer's behaviour and decision making.

7.3.8 Brand Love and Repurchase Intention

H 8: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand love and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 8 findings show that the relationship between brand love and repurchase intention is significantly positive, showing a path coefficient of 0.192 as well as p-value of 0.014 and significant at 5% level $p < 0.05$. Therefore, the result of this study is the same as the research result of Garg et al. (2015) who proposed a conceptual model where respect, brand experience, and brand reputation have been identified as factors driving brand love and affective commitment, consumer citizenship behaviour, repurchase intention, consumer forgiveness, and attitude toward the extension as outcomes of brand love. They indicated that consumers in love with a brand prefer to repurchase the loved brand. Thomson et al. (2005) previously stated that an individual's emotional connection and passion for a brand have positive influences on proximity maintenance with the brand. Previous researchers suggested that brand love influences consumer's purchase intention (Batra et al., 2012; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). As pointed out by Whang, Allen, Sahoury and Zhang (2004), commitment or behavioural loyalty can be an outcome of romantic brand love. A positive experience with the brand encourages the consumer to sacrifice money for a loved brand (Loureiro, 2011). Brand love contributes to consumers' positive post-purchase behaviours (Park, 2015); marketers should therefore make more efforts to develop marketing strategies to promote brand love.

7.3.9 Brand Faith and Repurchase Intention

H 9: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand faith and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 9 results show the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention is not significant, thus not supported as it reports a path coefficient of 0.066 and p-value of 0.329; this means that brand faith has no significant impact on repurchase intention. These results are not in line with the opinion of previous researchers who conducted research on the

four sub-dimensions of brand faith: brand community López et al. (2017), brand trust Hegner and Jevons (2016), brand confidence Verbeke (2008), brand engagement Zhan and Chen (2017). Unlike the findings of these researchers, the results of this study show that brand faith has no significant direct effect on repurchase intention.

Brand loyalty (Bulut, 2015) could be used as a mediator to strengthen the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention. In addition, the result of this hypothesis could be due to research conducted by previous researchers that had different objects and locations. The object and location researched in this study was energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. Within the South Africa context, marketers of energy drinks can strengthen the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention through marketing activities focused on Generation Y that are based on brand faith dimensions such as brand community, brand engagement, brand confidence, and brand trust. *1)Brand community:* In a study conducted by López et al. (2017), the authors found that it is more likely that consumers who identify with a brand community buy the brand in question when they need to buy that type of product, thus, this sense of belonging to the brand community will manifest in a repeat buying behaviour. Furthermore, they stated that platforms such as Facebook, Twitter and Google+ are being used by consumers to interact with other consumers, as well as with the brands they like, thus satisfying their need for affiliation (López et al., 2017). To strengthen the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention, marketers can leverage these platforms in order for this relationship to be supported and significant within a South African context, as numerous studies (Moodie, 2014, Chinje & Chinomona, 2015) of Generation Y in South Africa indicated that these digital platforms can be used to strengthen brand engagement. *2)Brand engagement*: In the context of South Africa, brands can best engage with the Generation Y segment via social networking sites (Bevan-Dye, 2016). In South Africa, 74% of Generation Y choose to connect with companies on social media, with 76% accessing social media/web through their cell phone (Moodie, 2014). As part of driving brand engagement amongst Generation Y energy drink consumers, Red Bull South Africa recently hosted Red Bull Culture Clash events that showcase artists performing various genres and songs; at these events thousands of fans attend (Nkosi, 2017). *3)Brand Trust:* In addition, Becerra and Badrinarayanan (2013) stated that brand trust had the greatest total effect on purchase intentions. In a South Africa Generation Y study, 65% reported to be using online reviews when making purchase decisions (BusinessTech, 2012); this highlights the importance of digital to marketers when aiming to build brand trust for the digitally savvy

Generation Y. Findings in the South African context suggest that Generation Y view local celebrities as being trustworthy and credible product endorsers within marketing communication messages (Bevan-Dye, 2016; Molelekeng, 2012), with the role model status of such celebrities positively influencing their brand loyalty towards those endorsed products (Bevan-Dye, 2016).

7.3.10 Brand Credibility and Repurchase Intention

H 10: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand credibility and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

Hypothesis 10 results show a significantly positive relationship between brand credibility and repurchase intention. The strength of the relationship is reflected by the path coefficient of 0.231 and p-value represented by ***, at the significant level of $p < 0.01$; showing a strong evidence in favour of the hypothesis. This finding is also in line with Myrden and Kelloway (2014) and Baek, Kim and Yu (2010) stated that credibility has influence on repurchase intention. Brand credibility can exert a positive influence on consumers' brand consideration and choice (Erdem & Swait, 2004). Similarly, Erdem and Swait (2004) pointed out that it is more likely for brand to be included in the consideration set while purchasing if there is a positive effect of brand credibility.

7.3.11 Brand Experience and Repurchase Intention

H 11: There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and repurchase intention* of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

The result for Hypothesis 11 show that the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention is not significant, thus not supported, since the results show a path coefficient of 0.058 and p-value of 0.636. This is not appropriate to research conducted by numerous researchers who believe in a significant relationship between brand experience repurchase intention (Razi & Lajevardi, 2016; Khan & Rahman 2014; Nigam, 2012; Wong, et al., 2012; Rose, Hair & Clark, 2011). This finding could be due to research conducted by previous researchers that has different objects and locations. The object and location that was researched in this study was based on energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. To strengthen the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention, mediators such as brand preference (Ebrahim, Ghoneim, Irani & Fan, 2016); brand relationship quality

(Sahin et al., 2012) brand satisfaction (Ekaputri et al., 2016; Lin & Lekhawipat, 2014) can be used.

In South Africa, researchers Dalle Ave, Venter and Mhlophe's (2015) study indicated that brand experience (i.e. scent and sight) and repurchase intention are mediated through brand attitude Generation Y consumers in coffee shops. Their findings indicate that scent and sight and brand attitude have an influence on consumers' buying behavior thorough mediation. Similarly, the seminal work of Mehrabian and Russell (1974) conceptualised the SOR framework that explains the impact of environmental stimuli (S), which affect organisms (O) and result in approach or avoidance response (R) behaviours (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974).

Researchers Lu et al. (2007) revealed that sense experience had impacts on satisfaction and repurchase intention, although satisfaction was a mediator of the relationship between sense experience and repurchase intention. Ekaputri et al. (2016) also echoed that satisfaction mediates the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention. Aligned with the findings of Lu et al (2007) and Ekaputri et al. (2016) is the study of Sebopa (2016) conducted amongst Generation Y university students in South Africa highlighted that in the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention, satisfaction mediates this relationship, although sense experience was found to have the strongest relationship with customer satisfaction, the researcher further recommended that when marketers use experiential marketing, sense experience must be the focus compared to other elements of experiential marketing. Based on the literature gathered by numerous researchers (Dalle Ave, Venter & Mhlophe, 2015; Sebopa, 2016, Lu et al. 2007; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974), it is recommended that the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention goes through a mediation for it to be significantly positive.

7.4 Summary of Findings

The results of the hypotheses in the study are presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Results of Research Hypotheses

	Hypothesis	**Result**
H1	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience and brand pleasure.*	Supported and Significant
H2	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience* and *brand arousal.*	Supported and Significant
H3	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience* and *brand love.*	Supported and Significant
H4	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience* and *brand faith.*	Supported and Significant
H5	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience* and *brand credibility.*	Supported and Significant
H6	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand pleasure* and *repurchase intention.*	Supported and Significant
H7	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand arousal* and *repurchase intention.*	Supported and Significant
H8	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand love* and *repurchase intention.*	Supported and Significant
H9	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand faith* and *repurchase intention.*	Not Supported and Not Significant
H10	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand credibility* and *repurchase intention.*	Supported and Significant
H11	There is a significantly positive relationship between *brand experience* and *repurchase intention.*	Not Supported and Not Significant

Source: Compiled by Researcher (2016)

Table 7.1 summarises the results of measurement and structural model test. In particular, most aspects of H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8 and H10 were supported. Only H9 and H11 were not supported.

7.5 Conclusion

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

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the main findings of the study. It also discusses the best practices and recommendations of the study, the contributions and limitations, and lastly, areas recommended for future research.

8.2 Conclusion of Main Findings

This study attempts to examine the influence of experiential marketing on emotions and the effect of the emotions on repurchase intention of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. The research goes beyond the notion of experience by employing the Mehrabian and Russell (1974) Stimuli-Organism-Response (SOR) theory in examining the relationship between the attributes. Specifically, the current study postulated eleven hypotheses and to test these hypotheses, data were collected from Generation Y in South Africa.

From the empirical results of the study, it can be concluded that (H1) brand experience has a positive and significant influence on brand arousal, (H2) brand experience has a positive and significant influence on brand arousal, (H3) brand experience has a positive and significant influence on brand love, (H4) brand experience has a positive and significant influence on brand faith, (H5) brand experience has a positive and significant influence on brand credibility, (H6) brand pleasure has a positive and significant influence on repurchase intention, (H7) brand arousal has a positive and significant influence on repurchase intention, (H8) brand love has a positive and significant influence on repurchase intention, (H9) brand faith does not have a significant influence on repurchase intention, (H10) brand credibility has a positive and significant influence on repurchase intention, and (H11) brand experience does not have a significant influence on repurchase intention. There are several reasons why (H9 and H11) brand experience and brand faith did not significantly influence repurchase intention. This could be mainly due to the fact that the object and location of this study was based on energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

For (H9) the results tell us that the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention is not significant, marketers should therefore pay attention to creating experiences that contribute towards building brand faith in order to influence repurchase intention. Futhermore, mediators such as brand loyalty should be used to strengthen the relationship

between brand faith and repurchase intention. The energy drinks market in South Africa is still in its infancy as compared to other markets; Red Bull was the first to enter the market in 1997 (Naude, 2012), meaning that energy drinks have been in the market for over twenty years, while other markets have been in the energy drinks category as early as 1987. In order to build brand faith in this category, marketers need to ensure that the sub-segments of brand faith such as brand trust, brand confidence, brand engagement and a sense of brand community with the consumer are key focus areas in marketing activities. In South Africa, some energy drink brands have started to reinforce brand trust through the use of celebrities, as research has confirmed that Generation Y in South Africa view local celebrities as being trustworthy and credible product endorsers within marketing communication messages. Marketers can continue to leverage this insight as it has been proven that the role model status of such celebrities positively influences brand loyalty towards the endorsed product in South Africa. Since the majority of Generation Y in South Africa choose to connect with companies on social media, brands can best engage with Generation Y through social networking sites such as Facebook, Twitter and Instagram as well as through content marketing in order to build an engaging brand. In addition, brands can encourage consumers to participate in brand marketing activities by hosting events and giving a platform for consumers to interact with other product users, brand engagement can also be driven though product sampling activations as well as through sports, music, culture and event sponsoring. In South Africa, Generation Y desire to be part of brand communities while being allowed to co-create brands; research has proven that a sense of belonging to brand community can manifest in repeat buying behaviour. Another key insight for Generation marketers in South Africa is that this segment is willing to be brand ambassadors and adopt brands as their own, if the brands share the same values. In summary, energy drink brands need to improve brand faith of their products through aggressive focus on the sub-segments of brand faith. Although brand faith has no significant impact on repurchase intention of Generation Y energy drinks consumers in South Africa, it is still important to increase repeat purchase intention by promoting brand trust, brand confidence, brand engagement and a sense of brand community so that Generation Y in South Africa can remain users of the energy drinks category.

For (H11), the results tell us that the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention is not significant. This relationship can be strengthened through mediators such as brand preference, brand relationship quality and brand satisfaction. Findings from literature

indicated that the sense (sensory) dimension can be viewed as a central dimension of brand experience, thus these sensory experiences include scent, sound, taste, sight and touch. Marketers can use these cues to stimulate, excite, make consumers feel aroused, happy, pure delight and believe in the brand product claims. Scent is able to stimulate and arouse consumers, while music/jingles/brand signature music is able to excite. Sight can drive brand love through emotions of pure delight, happiness by using design, packaging, style, the right colour, graphics, mascots and brand characters. Taste can lead towards building an image for the brand, thus marketers can give people an opportunity to sample and taste the product. Touch can drive arousal through packaging and displays as it allows consumers to touch and interact with the products.

Although brand experience has no significant impact on repurchase intention of Generation Y energy drinks consumers in South Africa, it is still important to increase repeat purchase intention by driving brand experience cues that evoke connections of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa.

8.2.1 Summary of Key Learnings from Holistic Framework

The study addresses consumer brand experience in a different geographical area than the majority of the studies that focus on developed countries. This provides an understanding of consumer behavioural responses of Generation Y energy drink consumers in South Africa. The study's finding of the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention add new insights: first, it suggests that consumer decisions to repurchase the brand and repeat their experiences will not occur unless it results in favourable emotions (i.e. pleasure, arousal, love, faith, credibility) towards a certain brand. Thus, emotions stand as an evaluation of consumer experiences, with the brand interpreting his/her desire to repeat the experiences and repurchase the brand.

Second, interestingly, two path results from the research data are insignificant (H9 and H11); this contributes towards enhancing theoretical knowledge of the repurchase intention effect. The findings of the study did not support the direct impact of brand faith on brand experience (H9), however the literature shows that brand faith will result in an increased likelihood to repurchase but in this study, brand faith is not directly related to repurchase intention. Thus, marketers of energy drinks in South Africa should evaluate other ways of designing and implementing experiential campaigns that have a clearer purpose in terms of the brand faith

attribute. An important methodological implication is the utilisation of the four attributes to measure brand faith (i.e. brand engagement, brand community, brand trust and brand confidence). Accordingly, several mediators between brand faith and brand experience have been recommended by some researchers, these include brand loyalty (Bulut, 2015).

The insignificance of a direct relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention (H11) points to a phenomenon that additional mediators can act as an evaluation of brand experience. This result however proved the viewpoint of previous studies that have proposed mediation in the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention, these include brand preference (Ebrahim, Ghoneim, Irani & Fan, 2016), the researchers argued that brand experience plays a fundamental role in determining consumer preferences and future decisions; brand relationship quality (Sahin et al., 2012), their research findings indicate that brand experience appears to be far more salient than brand constructs in shaping and building meaningful and long-lasting relationship with consumers; brand satisfaction (Ekaputri et al., 2016; Lin & Lekhawipat, 2014), in their case, customer satisfaction is a mediation between the brand experience consumers received and repurchase intention; the study also found that the highest dimension of brand experience was the sensory dimension. Thirdly, the holistic framework therefore offers managers a new perspective for building strong brands that are able to gain consumer likelihood to repurchase.

8.2.2 Summary of Best Practices and Key Learnings

The section presents the best practices that marketers should refer to when crafting experiential marketing strategies. Moreover, companies should review the following best practices and key learnings:

i. Strategic Experiential Modules (SEMs) as presented in Table 8.1.
ii. Sensory Experience Dimensions as presented in Table 8.2.

The Strategic Experiential Modules (SEMs) best practices and key learnings for this study are presented in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: Experiential Branding Model: Best Practices and Key Learnings

(SEMs)	SEMs relevance	Other categories/best practice	Key Learnings for this study
Sensory	Vision, hearing, smelling, taste, and touch.	• For example, Tiffany & Co's sense approach conveys elegance with colour. • For example, interior design, decoration, and jazz music in a Starbucks coffee shop.	• Sensory Marketing: sound, smell, taste, touch and see strategies.
Affective	Emotional, relaxed, fashionable, exotic, considerate, and novel atmosphere.	• For example, Haagen-Daz's ice cream creates the feeling of romantic themes. • For example, Starbucks makes consumers think that drinking coffee is romantic.	• IMC: romantic/exotic themes in communication.
Behavioural	Physical experience, life style, and interactions.	• For example, Starbucks is a better place than home or office. • Rogaine with an 800-number, bald men jot down phone number; Martha Stewart Living; Nike-"Just do it".	• Lifestyle: physical experiences.
Intellectual	Intelligence, use cognitive thinking, solution to problems by creative approach.	• For example, Apple Computer's revival by innovation; Microsoft-"Where do you want to go today?"	• Creative approach: credible claims.
Relate	Interact or belong to others, community or culture.	• For example, New York Yankees baseball team fans shop; Harley-Davidson.	• Engagement: brand community, brand ambassadors.

Source: (Liu, 2011; Lu et al., 2008)

Table 8.1 shows how the strategic experiential modules (SEMs) have been practically applied by marketers and retailers. This includes key learnings for this study. The Sensory Brand Experience Dimensions best practices are presented in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2: Sensory Brand Experience Model: Best Practises and Key Learnings

Sensory dimensions	Other categories/best practices	Key Learnings for this study
Smell	• The unmistakable fragrance, "Fierce No. 8," spread throughout all Abercrombie & Fitch stores, onto the clothes and beyond the front doors (EHL, 2016) • Stockholm Grocery Store used the artificial scent of oranges in its fruits and vegetables section for a limited period, which led to a noticeable increase in the sale of its oranges (Kumar, 2014).	• Brand signature scents can be used to create a tailored and consistent customer experience and entice brand recognition.
Sensory dimensions	**Other categories/best practices**	**Key Learnings for this study**
Sound	• The iconic sound of a Coca-Cola can being opened and the drink poured over a glass of ice cubes (EHL, 2016). • Abercrombie & Fitch, also known as A&F, is an American retailer that focuses on casual wear for customers aged between 18 and 22, the signature sound at Abercrombie & Fitch is expressed through famous songs that have been mixed to create the right atmosphere in their service landscape, the music played is very loud and gives the impression of a night club, both customers and employees dance to it in-store (Kumar, 2014).	• Music can be used to connect brands with customers, thereby making the experience unique and memorable.

Sensory dimensions	Other categories/best practices	Key Learnings for this study
Sight	• Signature colour giving a special identity differentiation can be shown so that it may give a great impression in the sight of the customers. In the hotel industry - be it the design of hotel, title, its logo, execution of brand appeal, colours of the surrounding, materials that were used in the hotel, lights, layout, signage, textures, style of furnishings, wall décor, etc. (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015).	• High quality visuals for offline and online; packaging, instore, website, social media accounts as well as other marketing materials. High quality and appealing brand visual identity with brand front, colour palette.
Sensory dimensions	**Other categories/best practices**	**Key Learnings for this study**
Taste	• Signature taste can surely be an important aspect in attracting the customer (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015).	• This can include sensory expressions as scent, sound, design or texture, which build on the interplay between different senses.
Sensory dimensions	**Other categories/best practices**	**Key Learnings for this study**
Touch	• Touch Sense also has a significant value. Hotels with controlled temperature in the various environments, different touch points, smoothness of the furniture, bed facilities, bathrooms, softness and all the other touch related things will really involve the customer in the environment and thereby their purchasing behaviour will be affected which will result in revising behaviour as well (Nagarjuna & Sudhakar, 2015). • Britain's ASDA grocery chain took the wrappers off several brands of toilet paper, inviting customers to feel for themselves, resulting in a 50 per cent increase in sales (Kumar, 2014).	• A touch experience is facilitated through such material and surface, temperature and weight. Photography can be used to convey a feeling.

Source: Compiled by Researcher based on review of literature (2016)

Table 8.2 shows how the strategic experiential modules (SEMs) have been practically applied by marketers and retailers. This includes key learnings for this study.

8.3 Recommendations

The present study offers a number of recommendations for energy drink marketers and retailers. These recommendations are based on the conclusion of the main findings of the research as well as best practices and key learnings highlighted in Table 8.1 and Table 8.2.

8.3.1 Recommendations: the influence of brand experience and brand pleasure

The study found a positive and significant relationship between brand experience and brand pleasure of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. By creating favourable sensory, affective, behavioural, intellectual and relate experiences highlighted in Table 8.1, marketers are more likely to influence pleasurable brand experiences. Marketers in the energy drinks category can also use sensory experience (i.e. sound, smell, sight, taste and touch) key learnings of best practices highlighted in Table 8.2. For sound, music can be used to connect energy drink brands with Generation Y, thereby making the experience unique and memorable. As for scent, brand signature scents can be used to create a tailored and consistent customer experience and entice brand recognition of energy drinks. Through sight, energy drinks marketers can create and implement high quality visuals for offline and online; packaging, instore, website, social media accounts as well as other marketing materials. Energy drink brands should aim to have high quality and appealing brand visual identity with brand front, colour palette. For touch, this could be facilitated through packaging material, temperature and weight while brand photography can be used to convey a touch feeling. As for taste, energy drinks marketers can include sensory expressions as scent, sound, design or texture, which build on the interplay between different senses in order to create favourable brand pleasure. The use of sound such as jingles, music and unique music signature can evoke pleasure. These attributes such as music, music volume, temperature, scents, packaging, the use of colour in the energy drinks category can influence brand pleasure levels such as feeling happy, satisfied, hopeful feeling, and feeling relaxed.

8.3.2 Recommendations: the influence of brand experience on brand arousal

The study found a significantly positive relationship between brand experience and brand arousal of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. In order for marketers to ensure that brand arousal levels are evoked, the brand experience elements need to stimulate, excite, make energy drink consumers feel wide awake and aroused. In order to drive stimulation, excitement within the energy drinks category in South Africa marketers have predominantly spent on billboards, radio, television, social media, content marketing, mobile marketing as well as on in-store promotions, price promotions, displays, sampling, and

roadshows. For marketers, it is important to remember that scent can arouse feelings to buy a product as it also arouses perceived quality, specifically the smell of grapefruit, orange, mint and citrus have proven to evoke arousal. From a sight perspective, catchy packaging designs and brand names synonymous with the energy drinks category can drive arousal. Visual elements of packaging can evoke strong emotions; the colour of packaging can be used to capture attention as colours can assist with evaluation. Visual merchandising, such as displays, also have an influence on emotions, even the right colour display can influence emotions. For Generation Y, congruency between music and scent has been identified as a combination of high volume music and aroma and can enhance pleasure levels of Generation Y. Music (i.e., tempo, tonality, and texture) can stimulate both pleasure and arousal.

Energy drink marketers can enhance arousal through Integrated Marketing Communication (IMC) media touchpoints and sensory cues, for example, personal selling and space (in-store/events) to enhance taste and hearing sensory cues, while PR and publicity may be used to enhance smell and taste cues, advertising may be enhanced through sight and smell, event and sponsorship could be enhanced through sight and touch cues, and finally, promotion which can be enhanced though touch and hearing. Another key learning on behavioural experience outlined in Table 8.1 is that behavioural marketing can influence change in lifestyle or behaviour through associating a product or service with role models, for example, marketers of energy drinks can drive arousal through partnering with role models in the music, fashion, sports industries thereby driving product association. The taste of innovative flavours can be used to arouse customers; marketers need to remember that from a young age, consumers' consumption behaviour is influenced by taste and flavour. Flavour for example, can be adapted to regional preferences. Because flavours are mainly classified as sweet, sour, bitter and salty, respectively, consumers tend to link these to the red, green, blue and yellows colours. Marketers should also convince customers through sampling or free-tasting promotional operations, as this is important in the consumption industry, also customers are more disposed to purchase a product that they have already tasted and liked.

8.3.3 Recommendations: the influence of brand experience on brand love

The study found a significantly positive relationship between brand experience and brand love of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. In order for marketers to ensure that brand love levels are evoked, the brand experience elements need to evoke feelings of happiness and pure delight. A key learning on affective experience outlined in

Table 8.1 is that affective experiences such as romantic or exotic themes in communication can evoke feelings of happiness and pure delight. Romantic content in marketing communications can elicit romantic feelings for the brand; marketers can also simplify marketing messages by using bold and bright colours in their advertisements. In summary, when brand advertisements contain romantic themes, as romantic advertising content, this will stimulate an individual's romantic feelings for a brand. As energy drink marketers aim to drive brand experience cues that drive attributes of brand love like happiness and pure delight, it is important to consider international cultural perspectives. Brand love can also be evoked through sight experience by packaging and style, colour, graphics, designs, slogans, mascots and the use of brand characters. Taste can also be used to delight customers. Marketers can adapt to regional preferences, thereby delighting consumers through taste. In addition, marketers can drive brand love though advertising, brand ambassadors, targeting opinion leaders through music, fashion, sports and culture opinion leaders. Through event marketing and brand festivals energy drink marketers can bring the brand world to life, thereby creating content for the brand. Through execution in the various trade channels such as on-premise and off-premise, marketers can evoke brand love.

8.3.4 Recommendations: the influence of brand experience on brand faith

The study found a significantly positive relationship between brand experience and brand credibility of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. In order for marketers to ensure that brand faith levels are evoked, the brand experience elements need to make consumers think about the brand, feel inspired, become interested to hear more about the brand and feel that the relationship is important. In this study, these have been discussed as concepts of brand engagement, brand community, brand trust and brand confidence. A key learning on affective experience outlined in Table 8.1 is that using relational experience marketers can create products that drive brand communities and brand ambassadors through brand engagement.

In order to drive brand engagement, Generation Y marketers should use social media platforms such as Facebook (i.e. product visuals, brand events); Twitter (i.e. brand news, ambassador mentions); Pinterest (i.e. interesting images); Instagram (i.e. hashtags, product images) and YouTube (i.e. behind the scene, collaboration) to enhance customer experience and to engage with online brand communities. This can assist to enhance positive perceptions of virtual brand communities. Marketers can also drive brand engagement through brand marketing activities which allow energy drink consumers to interact with other

product users. Generation Y is all for brand co-creation, they desire to be part of a brand hence the sense of belonging to a brand community. Marketers can create platforms to make them become brand ambassadors. In South Africa, marketers can use local celebrities in marketing communication messages to endorse energy drinks, as Generation Y in South Africa find them to be trustworthy and credible. Marketers can also develop their own brand communities because membership has been proven to enhance preference towards the brand as well as stimulate positive word-of-mouth (WOM) around the brand.

8.3.5 Recommendations: the influence of brand experience on brand credibility

The study found a significantly positive relationship between brand experience and brand credibility of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. In order for marketers to ensure that brand credibility levels are evoked, the brand experience elements need to assure consumers on brand promises, believable product claims, that the brand name can be trusted, and that the brand delivers on promises. A key learning on affective experience outlined in Table 8.1 is the intellectual experience; marketers can appeal to a consumer's intellect and trigger their creative side or problem-solving abilities. Marketers in the energy drink category can therefore use creative approaches to credible claims of energy drinks. Taste experience can be used to assure brand promises and to build the customer's perception of believable product claims. Taste can also lead towards building the image of the brand. For marketers, it is important to give people an opportunity to sample and taste products. As highlighted in Table 8.2, photography can be used to convey a feeling that the brand can be trusted and deliver on promises. Through the touch experience, displays can encourage touch and interaction with products. A brand must be willing to continuously deliver what it promises. Though corporate social responsibility programmes, a brand can enhance credible perceptions as this can show that a company believes and is committed to the brand. Marketers can reinforce brand promises, drive believable product claims, and assure consumers that the brand name can be trusted, though brand experience cues such as public relations through exhibitions; event management, launch parties, events/shows, and sponsorship tie ups to build brands. Social media can also be used within PR to assure consumers that the brand can be trusted and that its claims are credible, which can be done through the use of Facebook, Twitter, bloggers and other tools to spread positive word of mouth about their brands in order to enhance brand credibility. Marketers can also use celebrity endorsement and sponsorship in order to use the power of the endorser or sponsor to enhance the product in order to assure that the brand can be trusted. Furthermore, marketers

can increase brand credibility through trustworthiness by inviting media, such as respected reviewers or getting endorsement from well-recognised celebrities which can increase its credibility. It is important to avoid claims that cannot be justified upon the use of the product.

8.3.6 Recommendations: the influence of brand pleasure on repurchase intention

The findings of the study indicate that brand experience has a significant positive influence on the brand pleasure of energy drinks amongst Generation Y, and this, in turn, leads to a significantly positive consumer repurchase intention. The results of the study indicated that pleasure has the strongest influence on repurchase intention. It is therefore important for marketers to ensure that relevant brand experience cues that evoke pleasure are in marketing activities of energy drinks for Generation Y in South Africa.

8.3.7 Recommendations: the influence of brand arousal on repurchase intention

The study found a positive and significant relationship between brand experience and brand arousal of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. Marketers need to ensure that brand experience cues that influence arousal are implemented in order to drive repurchase intention. This means that the more stimulated, excited, wide awake the consumer is, the more consumers might increase their likelihood to repurchase energy drinks.

8.3.8 Recommendations: the influence of brand love on repurchase intention

The study found a positive and significant relationship between brand experience and brand love of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. The more readily consumers feel delighted and happy from the experience, the more readily they will intend to repurchase energy drinks.

8.3.9 Recommendations: the influence of brand faith on repurchase intention

The relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa is not significant, thus not supported. This tells us that although brand faith can lead to repurchase intention, it is not a strong predictor of repurchase intention. Mediators, such as brand loyalty, can be used to strengthen the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention. Furthermore, marketers in South Africa can strengthen the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention through marketing activities focused on Generation Y that are based on brand faith dimensions such as brand community, brand engagement brand confidence and brand trust.

8.3.10 Recommendations: the influence of brand credibility on repurchase intention

The study found a significantly positive relationship between brand experience and brand arousal of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa. The more consumers feel that a brand delivers on its promises, has believable product claims and that the brand name can be trusted, the more their likelihood to repurchase energy drinks.

8.3.11 Recommendations: the influence of brand experience on repurchase intention

The relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention of energy drinks amongst Generation Y in South Africa is not significant, thus not supported. This tells us that although brand experience can lead to repurchase intention it is not a strong predictor of repurchase intention. Mediators such as brand preference, brand relationship quality and brand satisfaction can be used to strengthen the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention.

8.4 Contributions

The contributions of this study are threefold: conceptual, theoretical and practical, and are discussed in detail in the following sections.

8.4.1 Conceptual Contribution

Conceptually, the present study makes a significant contribution to research in emerging markets, particularly South Africa. This study was conducted amongst Generation Y university aged students and their buying behaviour of energy drinks. More specifically, it studied the importance and influence of experiential marketing on repurchase intention. This study investigates brand experience and branding constructs within a South African context. By proposing and testing the conceptual model, this study adds to contextual knowledge on experiential marketing. Furthermore, branding constructs, such as brand pleasure, brand arousal, brand love, brand credibility, and brand faith have not been used previously as a holistic framework to measure the impact of brand experience on repurchase intention. The results from the study also revealed interesting insights on two relationships in the holistic framework that were not significant within energy drinks among Generation Y in South Africa, these insights contribute significantly to the context of the study and towards theory.

8.4.2 Theoretical Contribution

The present research contributes to existing marketing and branding literature. The first evident contribution in this research is the examination of the brand experience construct within the energy drinks category. This research contributes to the theory of experiential

marketing by providing a validated theoretical framework, which explains the relationship between the constructs of brand experience, emotions and repurchase intention. The research has developed a conceptual framework that captures the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention. Specifically, emotions mediate the effects of the four dimensions of brand experience (i.e., sensory, affective, behavioural, and intellectual) on repurchase intention. This study is premised on and constructed from four influential theories including a theory within the emotional literature to predict how specific emotions may differentially affect and systematically influence consumption behaviour. Furthermore, the study captures emotional responses with five dimensions: pleasure and arousal, love, faith and credibility. The value of this study is the addition of the new dimensions (love, faith and credibility) to the PAD scale, named as Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance-Love-Faith-Credibility (PADLFC). According to Maguire and Geiger (2015), consumers can experience a broad range of consumption emotions in a single consumption incident.

From the research findings, two path results from the research data are insignificant (H9 and H11), this contributes towards enhancing theoretical knowledge of the repurchase intention effect. Possible mediators should be used to strengthen the insignificant relationships; for H9 brand loyalty; for H11 brand preference, brand relationship quality and satisfaction. These findings have a major contribution to theory.

As a growing body of literature is exploring the use of experiential marketing in products and services to create a competitive advantage, this study not only significantly contributes to this body of literature but also provides researchers with an in-depth understanding of consumer responses.

8.4.3 Marketing Contribution

One of the primary goals of marketing practitioners is to build strong brands that are able to stimulate future purchasing decisions. By investigating brand experience and its impact on consumers' repurchase intention, the findings provide marketing practitioners with a better understanding of strategies that may be employed to influence consumers' buying behaviour. Based on the findings of the study, marketers in South Africa can strengthen the relationship between brand faith and repurchase intention through marketing activities focused on Generation Y that are based on brand faith dimensions such as brand community, brand

engagement brand confidence and brand trust. Furthermore, marketers can use multisensory branding strategies and methods to influence consumer emotions. For example, the findings of the study indicated that taste was the most preferred sensory dimension in the energy drinks category amongst Generation Y in South Africa. Marketers must also ensure that brand stimuli such as colour, music, packaging, and scent are pleasant. Focusing on brand-building strategies around brand experience will help marketers devise better and effective marketing strategies to enhance brand experience, and in return, build stronger brands (Khan & Rahman, 2015). In other words, by creating pleasant brand experiences, consumers are likely to have positive emotions that will lead to an increased possibility of repurchasing the brand. To take advantage of the number of Generation Y consumers, it is recommended that marketers successfully implement these strategies in order to increase sales, improve market share and customer lifetime value. Marketers can educate consumers on responsible usage of energy drinks. Although energy drinks have been said to increase energy and improve performance, they have also been associated with adverse health effects and death (Costa et al., 2014); this is crucial for policy makers.

8.5 Limitations

While this study makes significant contributions to both academia and practice, it has its own limitations, which therefore provide avenues for future research directions. This research aimed to gain a better understanding of the concept of brand experience and its impact on repurchase intention. First of all, the main limitation of this study is the selected use of university-aged Generation Y students. The study can be strengthened by including older consumers in Generation Y. The findings of this study must be interpreted in consideration of the fact that respondents were aged between 18-25 years. Moreover, the study was limited to students at four universities in South Africa. Secondly, the scope of this study is confined to energy drinks. In future, studies may be performed with respect to other beverage categories, sports drinks, sparkling soft drinks, juices, etc. Thirdly, this research has been conducted in a single province of South Africa, namely Gauteng, and thus, it is confined to only one geographical location. In South Africa, energy drinks are showing steep growth and even provinces like Kwa-Zulu-Natal, Western Cape, Free State, etc. are showing an increased demand for energy drinks. Future studies could be performed in other provinces in South Africa to obtain a wider perspective of buyers' energy drink behaviour across the country.

8.6 Directions for Future Research

The results of the study contribute to the literature on experiential marketing, brand management and customer retention. By providing a critical analysis of the brand experience and its impact on emotions and consumer buying behaviour, marketers are able to manipulate cues and stimuli to influence the buying behaviour of energy drinks. Replication of this study with a more diverse (such as non-university subjects, older Generation Y) sample of Generation Y in South Africa may project a different view. Studies in future ought to investigate factors which may act as mediators, such as brand preference and brand relationship quality in the relationship between brand experience and repurchase intention. Furthermore, future research should further examine the relationship between pleasure and behavioural intentions and compare different ways of modelling these links as pleasure had the strongest mediating relationship. Future research may also try to validate (or invalidate) the results of this study by involving other different brands (e.g. laptop brands, mobile brands, etc.) or services (e.g. airlines, banking, hotels). There is a need to use interpretive perspectives for measuring brand experience to gain a deeper insight into customer experiences with brands (Khan & Rahman, 2015), therefore qualitative research methods such as online ethnography (netnography) may further facilitate brand experience measurement (Khan & Rahman, 2015). Studies on the moderating effects of gender, age, income and education could be pursued, as these have been seen to be key consumer characteristics moderators that affect consumption emotion such as pleasure and arousal (Mishra, Bakshi & Singh, 2016; Ali, Kapoor & Moorthy, 2010). Most past studies suggested other moderators such as personality, culture, ethnic group and customers' involvement level. Also, future studies in the beverage category should consider weather as a moderator (Murray, Di Muro, Finn & Leszczyc, 2010) or ethnicity as a moderator (Yoon, Piew & Fa, 2012) on consumers' behaviour towards repeat purchase of energy drinks. Future studies could look at the perceived health-related consequences of energy drink consumption. Future studies may extend this research by including the other emotional variables such as negative emotions and other positive emotions. Product usage and involvement could also be investigated.

Research on negative emotions toward brands is scarce (Zarantonello, Romani, Grappi & Bagozzi, 2016; Sarkar & Sreejesh, 2014; Fournier & Alvarez, 2013; Yi & Baumgartner, 2004), therefore future studies could address this. Upon investigating the use of energy drinks among college students in Saudi Arabia, Aljaloud (2016) found that college students

generally seemed to have a lack of overall knowledge about energy drink ingredients or the potential negative consequences of consuming these popular beverages. In addition, there has been little research regarding the effects of energy-drink consumption by university students and the potential for related health hazards (Attila & Çakir, 2011). Future studies could therefore investigate this and give recommendations to marketers and policy makers. Further research is needed to test empirically how technology can make sensory integration more practical and affordable for marketers looking out for logical new frontiers.

8.7 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the main findings of the study. It also presents best practices and the recommendations of the study. The chapter also presented the various contributions and limitations, as well as suggestions for future research.

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Appendix I: Measurement Scale Items

ORIGINAL ITEMS	ADAPTED ITEMS
Brand Experience (BE) (Beckman, Kumar & Kim, 2013).	**Brand Experience (BE) (Beckman, Kumar & Kim, 2013). Adapted**
Sensory	**Sensory**
1. This downtown makes a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses.	1. This brand makes a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses.
2. I find this downtown interesting in a sensory way.	2. I find this brand interesting in a sensory way.
3. This downtown appeals to my senses.	3. This brand appeals to my senses.
Affective	**Affective**
4. This downtown induces feelings and sentiments.	4. This brand induces feelings and sentiments.
5. I have strong emotions for this downtown.	5. I have strong emotions for this brand.
6. This downtown generates emotional experiences.	6. This brand generates emotional experiences.
Behavioral	**Behavioral**
7. I engage in physical actions and behaviors when I experience this downtown.	7. I engage in physical actions and behaviors when I use this brand.
8. This downtown results in bodily experiences.	8. This brand results in bodily experiences.
9. This downtown is action oriented.	9. This brand is action oriented.
Intellectual	**Intellectual**
10. I engage in a lot of thinking when I visit this downtown.	10. I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand.
11. This downtown makes me think.	11. This brand makes me think.
12. This downtown stimulates my curiosity.	12. This brand stimulates my curiosity.
Brand Credibility (BC) (Hanzaee & Taghipourian, 2012).	**Brand Credibility (BC) (Hanzaee & Taghipourian, 2012).**
1. This brand delivers (or would deliver) what it promises	1. This brand delivers (or would deliver) what it promises
2. Product claims from this brand are believable	2. Product claims from this brand are believable
3. Over time, my experiences with this brand led me to expect it to keep its promises.	3. Over time, my experiences with this brand led me to expect it to keep its promises.
4. This brand is committed to delivering on its claims	4. This brand is committed to delivering on its claims
5. This brand has a name you can trust	5. This brand has a name you can trust
6. This brand has the ability to deliver what it promises	6. This brand has the ability to deliver what it promises
Brand Faith (BF) (Plante & Boccaccini, 1997).	**Brand Faith (BF) (Plante & Boccaccini, 1997). Adapted**
1. My religious faith is extremely important to me.	1. I have faith in this brand
2. I pray daily.	2. I think about this brand daily
3. I look to my faith as a source of inspiration.	3. This brand inspires me
4. I look to my faith as providing meaning and purpose in my life.	4. This brand provides meaning and purpose in my life
5. I consider myself active in my faith or church.	5. I consider myself an active member of this brand
6. My faith is an important part of who I am as a person.	6. This brand is important to who I am as a person
7. My relationship with God is extremely important to me.	7. My relationship with this brand is extremely important to me
8. I enjoy being around others who share my faith.	8. I enjoy being around others who are devoted to this brand
9. I look to my faith as a source of comfort.	9. I look to this brand as a source of comfort
10. My faith impacts many of my decisions.	10. This brand name plays a significant role in my decisions to purchase
Brand Love (BL) (Rageh & Spinelli, 2012).	**Brand Love (BL) (Rageh & Spinelli, 2012).**
1. This is a wonderful brand	1. This is a wonderful brand
2. This brand makes me feel good	2. This brand makes me feel good
3. This brand is totally awesome	3. This brand is totally awesome
4. This brand makes me very happy	4. This brand makes me very happy
5. I love this brand	5. I love this brand
6. This brand is a pure delight	6. This brand is a pure delight
7. I am passionate about this brand	7. I am passionate about this brand
8. I am very attached to this brand	8. I am very attached to this brand
Brand Pleasure (Kulviwat, Bruner & Neelankavil, 2014).	**Brand Pleasure (Kulviwat, Bruner & Neelankavil, 2014). Adapted**
1. Happy	1. I am really happy about this brand
2. Pleased	2. I am pleased with this brand
3. Satisfied	3. I am satisfied with this brand
4. Contented	4. I am content with this brand
5. Hopeful	5. This brand gives me a hopeful feeling
6. Relaxed	6. This brand makes me feel relaxed
Brand Arousal (Kulviwat, Bruner & Neelankavil, 2014).	**Brand Arousal (Kulviwat, Bruner & Neelankavil, 2014). Adapted**
1. Stimulated	1. This brand makes me feel stimulated
2. Excited	2. This brand makes me feel excited
3. Frenzied	3. This brand makes me feel frenzied
4. Jittery	4. This brand makes me feel jittery
5. Wide-awake	5. This brand makes me feel wide-awake
6. Aroused	6. This brand makes me feel aroused
Repurchase Intention (RI) (Beckman, Kumar & Kim, 2013).	**Repurchase Intention (RI) (Beckman, Kumar & Kim, 2013). Adapted**
1. I intend to revisit this downtown	1. I intend to repurchase this brand
2. I plan to revisit this downtown	2. I plan to repurchase this brand

3. I desire to visit this downtown	3. I desire to purchase this brand
4. I probably will revisit this downtown	4. I probably will repurchase this brand

Appendix II: Participant Information Sheet

University of the Witwatersrand
Date: August 2016

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: COMPLETION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

My name is Neo Phiri student number 692755 and I am currently completing a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree in Marketing at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. My current research is titled **"The Mediating Role of Emotions in the Relationship between Experiential Marketing and Repurchase Intention of Energy Drinks: A Case of Generation Y"** Through my research, I aim to investigate the impact of experiential marketing in the energy drinks category amongst youth in South Africa.

The findings of this study will contribute to the literature in experiential marketing. I am inviting you to be a participant in my current research study. The research is purely for academic purposes and the information obtained will be kept confidential.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and you can be assured that your personal details will remain anonymous throughout this study. You as the participant have the right to withdraw from this study if in any instance you feel uncomfortable. By being a participant in this study you will not receive payment. The information you disclose will be used in the research report. The findings of the study will form part of a Doctor of philosophy (PhD) in Marketing thesis and will be available through the University's website. Should you require a summary of the study; the researcher can make it available to you.

Energy drinks are "drinks" that contain a high level of caffeine and give a short-term adrenaline rush. They constitute performance enhancing products.

SEE EXAMPLES OF ENERGY DRINKS:

Red Bull	**Monster**	**Powerplay**	**Dragon**	**Score**	**DJ Sbu' Mo Faya**

I appreciate your assistance in completing the attached questionnaire. It will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Should you have any further questions or queries you are welcome to contact the researcher or the Supervisors, Professor Richard Chinomona and Dr Marike Venter at any time at the contact details provided below.

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Appendix III: Consent Form for completing the Research Questionnaire

I acknowledge that I understand the research and that the research has been fully explained to me. I also understand that the information which I offer to the researcher will be used in the research report.

I further acknowledge that the researcher has promised me the following:

- That my participation in this research is voluntary
- That my personal details will remain anonymous throughout the research study as well as in the research thesis
- That I can refuse to answer any questions which I feel uncomfortable with

I hereby consent to being a participant for the research study titled: **"The Mediating Role of Emotions in the Relationship between Experiential Marketing and Repurchase Intention of Energy Drinks: A Case of Generation Y"**

Signature ☐ **(Please Sign with an X)**

Date Signed _____

Appendix IV: Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions by marking the appropriate answer(s) with an ✓.

SECTION A: GENERAL INFORMATION

The section is asking your background information. Please indicate your answer by ticking **[✓]** on the appropriate box.

Have you consumed an ENERGY DRINK within the last 6 (six) months? [✓]:

Yes *If answer is "Yes" -**CONTINUE with survey***	**No** *If answer is "No" -**CLOSE survey***
1	2

A1 Please indicate your gender [✓]:

Male	Female	Prefer not to say
1	2	3

A2 Please indicate your age category [✓]:

18-20	21-23	24-25
1	2	3

A3 Please indicate your dominant status? [✓]:

Student	Employed	Self-employed	Unemployed
1	2	3	4

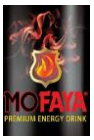
A4 Please indicate how often you consume ENERGY DRINKS? Tick one [✓]:

1	Daily	
2	Once per week	
3	More than Once per week	
4	1-3 times a month	
5	Irregular routine	

A5 How important are the FIVE SENSES to your ENERGY DRINK experience? Tick [✓]:

		Very unimportant [1]	**Unimportant [2]**	**Neutral [3]**	**Important [4]**	**Very important [5]**
1	Sight - (product: appeal/packaging/colour/graphics)	1	2	3	4	5
2	Hearing/Sound - (product: sound inside the mouth)	1	2	3	4	5
3	Smell - (product: pleasant aroma/brand scent)	1	2	3	4	5
4	Taste - (product: taste well/delight)	1	2	3	4	5
5	Touch - (product: temperature/weight)	1	2	3	4	5

A6 Indicate your <u>favourite</u> ENERGY DRINK brand? Please tick one only [✓]:

						
Red Bull	**Monster**	**Powerplay**	**Dragon**	**Score**	**Dj Sbu' MoFaya**	**Other (Specify)**
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The questions below are all based on your favourite energy drink you have indicated above.

Below are statements about **Brand Experience, Brand Credibility, Brand Faith, Brand Love, Brand Pleasure, Brand Arousal and Repurchase Intention** of your favourite energy drink. Place a tick (✓) in the block that best corresponds to your answer from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree".

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

SECTION B: BRAND EXPERIENCE

Please indicate to what extent you strongly disagree/ strongly agree with each statement as the statement relates to your experience with **your favourite energy drink brand**

		Strongly Disagree [1]	**Somewhat Disagree [2]**	**Disagree [3]**	**Neutral [4]**	**Agree [5]**	**Somewhat Agree [6]**	**Strongly Agree [7]**
BE1	This brand makes a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses *(e.g sight, sound, smell, taste, touch).*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE2	I find this brand interesting in a sensory way *(e.g sight, sound, smell, taste, touch).*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE3	This brand appeals to my senses *(e.g sight, sound, smell, taste, touch).*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE4	This brand induces feelings and sentiments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE5	I have strong emotions for this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE6	This brand generates emotional experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE7	I engage in physical actions and behaviors when I use this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE8	This brand results in bodily experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE9	This brand is action oriented.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE10	I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE11	This brand makes me think.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BE12	This brand stimulates my curiosity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: BRAND CREDIBILITY

Please indicate to what extent you strongly disagree/ strongly agree with the following statements regarding your brand credibility towards **your favourite energy drink brand**								
		Strongly Disagree [1]	**Somewhat Disagree [2]**	**Disagree [3]**	**Neutral [4]**	**Agree [5]**	**Somewhat Agree [6]**	**Strongly Agree [7]**
BC1	This brand delivers (or would deliver) what it promises.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC2	Product claims from this brand are believable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC3	Over time, my experiences with this brand led me to expect it to keep its promises.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC4	This brand is committed to delivering on its claims.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC5	This brand has a name you can trust.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC6	This brand has the ability to deliver what it promises.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D: BRAND FAITH

Please rate your faith towards **your favourite energy drink brand** from strongly disagree to strongly agree								
		Strongly Disagree [1]	**Somewhat Disagree [2]**	**Disagree [3]**	**Neutral [4]**	**Agree [5]**	**Somewhat Agree [6]**	**Strongly Agree [7]**
BF1	I have faith in this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BF2	I often think about this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BF3	This brand inspires me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BF4	This brand provides meaning and purpose in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BF5	I am interested in hearing more about this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BF6	This brand is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BF7	My relationship with this brand is extremely important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BF8	I enjoy being around others who are devoted to this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BF9	I look to this brand as a source of comfort.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BF10	This brand name plays a significant role in my decision to purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION E: BRAND LOVE

Please indicate to what extent you strongly disagree/ strongly agree with the following statements regarding your brand love towards **your favourite energy drink brand**								
		Strongly Disagree [1]	**Somewhat Disagree [2]**	**Disagree [3]**	**Neutral [4]**	**Agree [5]**	**Somewhat Agree [6]**	**Strongly Agree [7]**
BL1	This is a wonderful brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BL2	This brand makes me feel good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BL3	This brand is totally awesome.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BL4	This brand makes me very happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BL5	I love this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BL6	This brand is a pure delight.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BL7	I'm very attached to this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION F: BRAND PLEASURE

Please indicate to what extent you strongly disagree/ strongly agree with each statement as the statement relates to your experience with **your favourite energy drink brand**								
		Strongly Disagree [1]	**Somewhat Disagree [2]**	**Disagree [3]**	**Neutral [4]**	**Agree [5]**	**Somewhat Agree [6]**	**Strongly Agree [7]**
BP1	I am really happy about this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BP2	I am pleased with this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BP3	I am satisfied with this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BP4	I am content with this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BP5	This brand gives me a hopeful feeling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BP6	This brand makes me feel relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION G: BRAND AROUSAL

Please indicate to what extent you strongly disagree/ strongly agree with each statement as the statement relates to your experience with **your favourite energy drink brand**								
		Strongly Disagree [1]	**Somewhat Disagree [2]**	**Disagree [3]**	**Neutral [4]**	**Agree [5]**	**Somewhat Agree [6]**	**Strongly Agree [7]**
BA1	This brand makes me feel stimulated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BA2	This brand makes me feel excited.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BA3	This brand makes me feel frenzied.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BA4	This brand makes me feel jittery.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BA5	This brand makes me feel wide-awake.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BA6	This brand makes me feel aroused.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION H: REPURCHASE INTENTION

Please indicate to what extent you strongly disagree/ strongly agree with each statement regarding your willingness to repurchase your favourite energy drink brand								
		Strongly Disagree [1]	Somewhat Disagree [2]	Disagree [3]	Neutral [4]	Agree [5]	Somewhat Agree [6]	Strongly Agree [7]
RI1	I intend to repurchase this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
RI2	I plan to repurchase this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
RI3	I desire to purchase this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
RI4	I probably will repurchase this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you.

Appendix V: Cronbach Coefficient Alpha's

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.894	12

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BE1	4.987	1.4054	689
BE2	5.067	1.2592	689
BE3	5.035	1.3114	689
BE4	4.209	1.5211	689
BE5	3.936	1.6623	689
BE6	3.685	1.6079	689
BE7	4.570	1.7215	689
BE8	4.556	1.6085	689
BE9	4.745	1.4593	689
BE10	4.408	1.6837	689
BE11	4.261	1.7181	689
BE12	4.061	1.6616	689

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BE1	48.533	143.807	.470	.892
BE2	48.453	145.324	.485	.891
BE3	48.485	144.800	.479	.891
BE4	49.311	138.223	.590	.886
BE5	49.583	133.767	.653	.883
BE6	49.835	135.060	.642	.883
BE7	48.949	133.871	.622	.885
BE8	48.964	133.884	.676	.882
BE9	48.775	138.541	.610	.885
BE10	49.112	132.501	.678	.881
BE11	49.258	132.477	.662	.882
BE12	49.459	133.138	.671	.882

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.877	6

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BP1	4.909	1.3103	689
BP2	5.033	1.2634	689
BP3	5.080	1.2486	689
BP4	4.951	1.2704	689
BP5	4.142	1.5468	689
BP6	4.222	1.7342	689

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BP1	23.428	31.556	.740	.847
BP2	23.303	31.703	.763	.844
BP3	23.257	32.034	.748	.847
BP4	23.386	31.810	.749	.846
BP5	24.194	30.831	.637	.865
BP6	24.115	30.590	.551	.887

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.842	6

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BA1	5.032	1.4880	689
BA2	4.663	1.4527	689
BA3	4.475	1.4931	689
BA4	4.412	1.5330	689
BA5	5.541	1.3941	689
BA6	4.167	1.7627	689

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BA1	23.258	33.331	.657	.810
BA2	23.627	32.406	.745	.793
BA3	23.816	32.107	.739	.794
BA4	23.878	33.694	.606	.819
BA5	22.749	36.552	.495	.839

BA6	24.123	33.213	.518	.842

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.919	7

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BL1	5.104	1.2807	689
BL2	4.681	1.3882	689
BL3	4.913	1.3792	689
BL4	4.395	1.4470	689
BL5	4.864	1.4393	689
BL6	4.671	1.4408	689
BL7	3.913	1.7366	689

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BL1	27.435	54.272	.712	.911
BL2	27.859	51.987	.771	.905
BL3	27.627	51.694	.794	.902
BL4	28.145	50.982	.787	.903
BL5	27.676	50.841	.801	.901
BL6	27.869	51.076	.786	.903
BL7	28.627	50.612	.636	.922

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.926	10

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BF1	5.074	1.3475	689
BF2	3.906	1.6934	689
BF3	3.922	1.6556	689
BF4	3.324	1.7240	689
BF5	4.219	1.7287	689
BF6	3.755	1.6738	689

BF7	3.392	1.6914	689
BF8	3.409	1.7129	689
BF9	3.231	1.7638	689
BF10	4.251	1.8769	689

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BF1	33.408	154.605	.462	.930
BF2	34.576	139.832	.729	.918
BF3	34.560	138.686	.782	.915
BF4	35.158	138.456	.751	.917
BF5	34.263	138.860	.738	.917
BF6	34.727	137.242	.813	.913
BF7	35.090	136.201	.832	.912
BF8	35.073	137.277	.790	.915
BF9	35.251	138.017	.743	.917
BF10	34.231	144.718	.524	.930

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.910	6

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BC1	5.199	1.2700	689
BC2	5.035	1.2980	689
BC3	4.996	1.3506	689
BC4	4.949	1.2709	689
BC5	5.136	1.3625	689
BC6	5.165	1.3002	689

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BC1	25.282	30.557	.735	.895
BC2	25.446	30.431	.725	.897
BC3	25.485	29.602	.753	.893
BC4	25.531	29.584	.817	.884
BC5	25.344	30.400	.681	.903
BC6	25.315	29.687	.785	.888

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.921	4

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
RI1	5.469	1.4485	689
RI2	5.319	1.4814	689
RI3	5.023	1.5606	689
RI4	5.694	1.3674	689

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
RI1	16.036	15.788	.863	.882
RI2	16.186	15.445	.875	.878
RI3	16.482	15.677	.786	.910
RI4	15.811	17.339	.757	.918

Appendix VI: Composite Reliability Calculations

a) Brand Experience

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)^2 = (0.507+0.508+0.500+0.588+0.703+0.637+0.584+0.619+0.591+0.635+0.637+0.667)^2 = 18.820$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.507^2)+ (1-0.508^2)+ (1-0.500^2)+ (1-0.588^2)+ (1-0.703^2)+ (1-0.637^2)+ (1-0.584^2)+ (1-0.619^2)+ (1-0.591^2)+ (1-0.635^2)+ (1-0.637^2)+ (1-0.667^2)] =7.662$

CR = 18.820/(18.820+7.662) = 0.870

b) Brand Pleasure

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)^2 = (0.\ 0.831+0.880+0.815+0.808+0.691+0.546)^2 = 12.657$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.831^2)+ (1-0.880^2)+ (1-0.815^2)+ (1-0.808^2)+ (1-0.815^2)] =2.442$

CR = 12.657/(12.657+2.442) = 0.945

c) Brand Arousal

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.715+0.888+0.754+0.564+0.670+0.592)^2 = 8.915$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.715^2)+ (1-0.888^2)+ (1-0.754^2)+ (1-0.564^2)+ (1-0.670^2)+ (1-0.592)] =3.014$

CR = 8.915/(8.915+3.014) = 0.853

d) Brand Love

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.748+0.838+0.835+0.836+0.785+0.813+0.737)^2 = 20.055$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.748^2)+ (1-0.838^2)+ (1-0.835^2)+ (1-0.785^2+ (1-0.813^2)+ (1-0.737^2)] =2.522$

CR = 20.055/(20.055+2.522) = 0.925

e) Brand Faith

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.876+0.750+0.809+0.746+0.757+0.844+0.834+0.771+0.708+0.58)^2 = 35.463$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.876^2)+ (1-0.750^2)+ (1-0.809^2)+ (1-0.746^2)+ (1-0.757^2+ (1-0.844^2)+ (1-0.834^2)+ (1-0.771^2)+ (1-0.708^2)+ (1-0.581^2)] =4.045$

CR = 35.463/(35.463+4.045) = 0.936

f) Brand Credibility

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.741+0.723+0.788+0.878+0.715+0.819)^2 = 13.291$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.741^2)+ (1-0.723^2)+ (1-0.788^2)+ (1-0.878^2+ (1-0.715^2)+ (1-0.819^2)] =2.354$

CR = 13.291/(13.291+2.354) = 0.902

g) Repurchase Intention

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.931+0.919+0.859+0.777)^2 = 9.320$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.931^2)+ (1-0.919^2)+ (1-0.859^2)+ (1-0.777^2)] =0.947$

CR = 9.320/(9.320+0.947) = 0.928

Appendix VII: AVE Calculations

i) Brand Experience

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)^2 = (0.507^2+0.508^2+0.500^2+0.588^2+0.703^2+0.637^2+0.584^2+0.619^2+0.591^2+0.635^2+0.637^2+0.667^2) = 4.388$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.507^2)+ (1-0.508^2)+ (1-0.500^2)+ (1-0.588^2)+ (1-0.703^2)+ (1-0.637^2)+ (1-0.584^2)+ (1-0.619^2)+ (1-0.591^2)+ (1-0.635^2)+ (1-0.637^2)+ (1-0.667^2)] =7.662$

AVE = 4.388/(4.388+7.662) = 0.362

ii) Brand Pleasure

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)^2 = (0.\ 0.831^2+0.880^2+0.815^2+0.808^2+0.691^2+0.546^2) = 3.558$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.831^2)+ (1-0.880^2)+ (1-0.815^2)+ (1-0.808^2)+ (1-0.815^2)] =2.442$

AVE = 3.558/(3.558+2.442) = 0.593

iii) Brand Arousal

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.715^2+0.888^2+0.754^2+0.564^2+0.670^2+0.592^2) = 2.986$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.715^2)+ (1-0.888^2)+ (1-0.754^2)+ (1-0.564^2)+ (1-0.670^2)+ (1-0.592)] =3.014$

AVE = 2.986/(2.986+3.014) = 0.498

iv) Brand Love

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.748^2+0.838^2+0.835^2+0.836^2+0.785^2+0.813^2+0.737^2) = 4.478$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.748^2)+ (1-0.838^2)+ (1-0.835^2)+ (1-0.785^2+ (1-0.813^2)+ (1-0.737^2)] =2.522$

AVE = 4.478/(4.478+2.522) = 0.640

v) Brand Faith

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.876^2+0.750^2+0.809^2+0.746^2+0.757^2+0.844^2+0.834^2+0.771^2+0.708^2+0.581^2) = 5.955$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.876^2)+ (1-0.750^2)+ (1-0.809^2)+ (1-0.746^2)+ (1-0.757^2+ (1-0.844^2)+ (1-0.834^2)+ (1-0.771^2)+ (1-0.708^2)+ (1-0.581^2)] =4.045$

AVE = 5.955/(5.955+4.045) = 0.596

vi) Brand Credibility

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.741^2+0.723^2+0.788^2+0.878^2+0.715^2+0.819^2) = 3.646$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.741^2)+ (1-0.723^2)+ (1-0.788^2)+ (1-0.878^2+ (1-0.715^2)+ (1-0.819^2)] =2.354$

AVE = 3.646/(3.646+2.354) = 0.608

vii) Repurchase Intention

$(\Sigma\gamma yi)2 = (0.931^2+0.919^2+0.859^2+0.777^2) = 3.053$

$\Sigma\varepsilon i = [(1-0.931^2)+ (1-0.919^2)+ (1-0.859^2)+ (1-0.777^2)] =0.947$

AVE = 3.053/(3.053+0.947) = 0.763

Appendix VIII: P-Values

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
BP	<---	BE	.801	.059	13.586	***	par_45
BA	<---	BE	.760	.062	12.313	***	par_46
BF	<---	BE	.497	.048	10.318	***	par_47
BC	<---	BE	.685	.054	12.715	***	par_48
BL	<---	BE	.738	.055	13.349	***	par_54
RI	<---	BP	.335	.055	6.126	***	par_49
RI	<---	BA	.125	.057	2.185	.029	par_50
RI	<---	BF	.127	.095	1.335	.182	par_51
RI	<---	BE	-.006	.129	-.047	.963	par_52
RI	<---	BC	.246	.059	4.203	***	par_53
RI	<---	BL	.284	.063	4.472	***	par_55
BE1	<---	BE	.756	.065	11.587	***	par_1
BE2	<---	BE	.698	.059	11.885	***	par_2
BE3	<---	BE	.733	.061	11.967	***	par_3
BE4	<---	BE	1.000				
BE5	<---	BE	1.253	.083	15.160	***	par_4
BE6	<---	BE	1.161	.079	14.685	***	par_5
BE7	<---	BE	1.176	.084	14.079	***	par_6
BE8	<---	BE	1.161	.079	14.686	***	par_7
BE9	<---	BE	.981	.071	13.898	***	par_8
BE10	<---	BE	1.249	.083	14.990	***	par_9
BE11	<---	BE	1.263	.085	14.882	***	par_10
BE12	<---	BE	1.262	.083	15.254	***	par_11
BC1	<---	BC	1.000				
BC2	<---	BC	.995	.047	20.969	***	par_12
BC3	<---	BC	1.091	.049	22.331	***	par_13
BC4	<---	BC	1.120	.045	24.849	***	par_14
BC5	<---	BC	1.010	.050	20.130	***	par_15
BC6	<---	BC	1.090	.047	23.385	***	par_16
BF1	<---	BF	1.000				
BF2	<---	BF	1.973	.155	12.769	***	par_17
BF3	<---	BF	2.068	.157	13.144	***	par_18
BF4	<---	BF	2.093	.161	12.993	***	par_19
BF5	<---	BF	1.970	.156	12.647	***	par_20
BF6	<---	BF	2.189	.164	13.378	***	par_21
BF7	<---	BF	2.281	.169	13.529	***	par_22
BF8	<---	BF	2.148	.163	13.164	***	par_23
BF9	<---	BF	2.090	.163	12.862	***	par_24
BF10	<---	BF	1.539	.145	10.642	***	par_25
BL2	<---	BL	1.148	.051	22.696	***	par_26
BL3	<---	BL	1.183	.050	23.736	***	par_27
BL4	<---	BL	1.204	.053	22.869	***	par_28
BL5	<---	BL	1.226	.052	23.533	***	par_29

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
BL6	<---	BL	1.195	.052	22.787	***	par_30
BL7	<---	BL	1.190	.065	18.209	***	par_31
BP1	<---	BP	1.000				
BP2	<---	BP	1.027	.034	30.233	***	par_32
BP3	<---	BP	.970	.035	28.118	***	par_33
BP4	<---	BP	.952	.036	26.505	***	par_34
BP5	<---	BP	.819	.050	16.408	***	par_35
BP6	<---	BP	.793	.058	13.760	***	par_36
BA1	<---	BA	1.000				
BA2	<---	BA	1.152	.056	20.401	***	par_37
BA3	<---	BA	1.162	.058	20.083	***	par_38
BA4	<---	BA	1.000	.059	17.000	***	par_39
BA5	<---	BA	.682	.053	12.799	***	par_40
BA6	<---	BA	.952	.067	14.127	***	par_41
RI1	<---	RI	1.000				
RI2	<---	RI	1.040	.027	38.688	***	par_42
RI3	<---	RI	.976	.033	29.785	***	par_43
RI4	<---	RI	.813	.030	26.874	***	par_44
BL1	<---	BL	1.000				

Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
BE	0.86	0.1	8.574	***	par_56
e53	0.495	0.045	10.907	***	par_57
e54	0.214	0.033	6.467	***	par_58
e55	0.568	0.051	11.18	***	par_59
e56	0.629	0.065	9.694	***	par_60
e57	0.663	0.054	12.386	***	par_61
e52	0.922	0.064	14.406	***	par_62
e1	1.481	0.082	18.034	***	par_63
e2	1.165	0.065	17.991	***	par_64
e4	1.451	0.082	17.63	***	par_65
e5	1.411	0.083	17.065	***	par_66
e6	1.423	0.082	17.285	***	par_67
e7	1.769	0.101	17.506	***	par_68
e8	1.424	0.082	17.285	***	par_69
e9	1.3	0.074	17.562	***	par_70
e10	1.489	0.087	17.15	***	par_71
e11	1.577	0.092	17.20	***	par_72
e12	1.387	0.081	17.015	***	par_73
e13	0.639	0.04	16.093	***	par_74
e14	0.72	0.044	16.394	***	par_75
e17	0.863	0.052	16.703	***	par_76
e18	0.533	0.035	15.032	***	par_77
e19	1.387	0.076	18.223	***	par_78
e20	1.204	0.07	17.087	***	par_79

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
e21	0.913	0.056	16.425	***	par_80
e22	1.1	0.066	16.746	***	par_81
e23	1.33	0.077	17.229	***	par_82
e24	0.755	0.048	15.664	***	par_83
e25	0.638	0.043	14.84	***	par_84
e26	0.962	0.059	16.375	***	par_85
e28	2.507	0.138	18.122	***	par_86
e29	0.675	0.041	16.616	***	par_87
e32	0.696	0.044	15.822	***	par_88
e34	0.698	0.044	15.87	***	par_89
e36	0.5	0.033	15.014	***	par_90
e37	0.313	0.025	12.573	***	par_91
e39	0.512	0.033	15.431	***	par_92
e40	1.575	0.088	17.814	***	par_93
e43	0.613	0.048	12.77	***	par_94
e44	0.705	0.053	13.422	***	par_95
e45	1.221	0.074	16.399	***	par_96
e46	1.417	0.08	17.697	***	par_97
e48	0.338	0.028	12.007	***	par_98
e49	0.293	0.028	10.564	***	par_99
e50	0.759	0.048	15.939	***	par_100
e51	0.707	0.043	16.627	***	par_101
e3	1.255	0.07	17.978	***	par_102
e35	1.649	0.095	17.431	***	par_103
e27	1.244	0.073	16.96	***	par_104
e33	0.622	0.04	15.379	***	par_105
e15	0.666	0.042	15.739	***	par_106
e16	0.394	0.029	13.526	***	par_107
e30	0.552	0.036	15.222	***	par_108
e31	0.656	0.041	15.922	***	par_109
e38	0.413	0.028	14.504	***	par_110
e41	2.24	0.124	18.065	***	par_111
e42	1.085	0.067	16.124	***	par_112
e47	2.082	0.12	17.415	***	par_113

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

			Estimate
BP	<---	BE	.674
BA	<---	BE	.664
BF	<---	BE	.706
BC	<---	BE	.644
BL	<---	BE	.697
RI	<---	BP	.289
RI	<---	BA	.104
RI	<---	BF	.065

			Estimate
RI	<---	BE	-.004
RI	<---	BC	.190
RI	<---	BL	.218
BE1	<---	BE	.499
BE2	<---	BE	.514
BE3	<---	BE	.519
BE4	<---	BE	.610
BE5	<---	BE	.699
BE6	<---	BE	.670
BE7	<---	BE	.634
BE8	<---	BE	.670
BE9	<---	BE	.624
BE10	<---	BE	.689
BE11	<---	BE	.682
BE12	<---	BE	.705
BC1	<---	BC	.777
BC2	<---	BC	.756
BC3	<---	BC	.797
BC4	<---	BC	.869
BC5	<---	BC	.731
BC6	<---	BC	.827
BF1	<---	BF	.485
BF2	<---	BF	.761
BF3	<---	BF	.816
BF4	<---	BF	.793
BF5	<---	BF	.745
BF6	<---	BF	.855
BF7	<---	BF	.881
BF8	<---	BF	.819
BF9	<---	BF	.774
BF10	<---	BF	.536
BL2	<---	BL	.812
BL3	<---	BL	.842
BL4	<---	BL	.817
BL5	<---	BL	.836
BL6	<---	BL	.814
BL7	<---	BL	.673
BP1	<---	BP	.842
BP2	<---	BP	.896
BP3	<---	BP	.857
BP4	<---	BP	.826
BP5	<---	BP	.584
BP6	<---	BP	.504
BA1	<---	BA	.714
BA2	<---	BA	.842
BA3	<---	BA	.827
BA4	<---	BA	.693
BA5	<---	BA	.519

			Estimate
BA6	<---	BA	.574
RI1	<---	RI	.910
RI2	<---	RI	.926
RI3	<---	RI	.820
RI4	<---	RI	.777
BL1	<---	BL	.767

Appendix IX: Ethics Clearance Certificate

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Phiri

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H16/06/32**
PROJECT TITLE	The mediating role of emotions in the relationship between experiential marketing and repurchase intention of energy drinks: A case of Generation Y
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Ms N Phiri
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Economics and Business Science/
DATE CONSIDERED	24 June 2016
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved unconditionally
EXPIRY DATE	17 July 2019

DATE 18 July 2016 **CHAIRPERSON** _____ (Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Professor R Chinomona

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10005, 10th Floor, Senate House, University.

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

_____ Signature

21 / 07 / 2016 Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES