



**Experiential marketing –
A consumption of fantasies, feelings and fun.**

*An investigation of the relationship between brand experience and loyalty
within the context of the luxury cosmetics sector in Thailand.*

*A Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
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ABSTRACT

The concept of 'brand experience' has evolved as an essential area of study within the brand management and marketing discipline. Despite the importance of (and the attention paid to) this concept in recent years, the theory of brand experience has remained unclear and there is a less of theoretical support. In addition to this, several scholars content that there is a connection between brand experience and loyalty. This study aims to address the gap in the literature and provide a better understanding of the concept of 'brand experience' together with its consequences, with particular regard to consumer loyalty. The objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between brand experience and consumer loyalty in the luxury cosmetic brand industry (Thailand). This empirical study proceeds with a systematic review of the existing literature, leading to the development of a theoretical framework.

The research adopts a mixed method (quantitative and qualitative) approach, use of a quantitative survey to collect data, validated and enhanced qualitatively by personal interviews. The questionnaires were completed by Thai customers who frequent the luxury cosmetic brand counters in three particular stores in Bangkok. The data analysis uses descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and linear/multiple regression analysis for hypotheses testing. The personal interviews use a purposive sampling technique.

The results of this study demonstrate that sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience form the dimensions of luxury cosmetic brand experience. In addition to this, there is a positive direct relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty. In addition, luxury cosmetic brand experience has a positive *indirect* relationship with consumer loyalty through brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction; albeit, brand trust is the most significant of these.

A key contribution of the present study is the conceptual model the study offers that explains the phenomenon of luxury cosmetic brand experience and its consequences. This study contributes further knowledge to the marketing literature, brand management literature and, also, consumer behaviour literature (particularly in the luxury cosmetic brand sectors in Thailand and other Asian countries) and suggests directions for future research. Finally, the

present study will facilitate luxury cosmetic brand managers' endeavours to identify both the experiential needs of their customers and the marketing strategy necessary to achieve consumer loyalty.

KEYWORDS: luxury cosmetic brand experience, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction, consumer loyalty, Thailand

DEDICATION

To my parents for their continual love and support, which has helped me to achieve my dream.

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I would like to express my gratitude to many people for the support I received from them during my studies at Brunel. First of all, I would like to sincerely thank my first supervisor, Dr. Geraldine Cohen for her guidance and constant support. I am extremely blessed to have had her as my first supervisor; working under her supervision has been a gratifying experience that has contributed greatly to the completion of the thesis.

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Finally, my warm and heartfelt thanks for to my father and my mother for their everlasting love and support which has sustained me in the years it took to bring this work to completion. Without them, this thesis would not have been possible. Thanks for everything.

DECLARATIONS

I declare that the ideas, research work, analyses and conclusions reported in my PhD thesis *Experiential marketing – A consumption of fantasies, feelings and fun. An investigation of the relationship between brand experience and loyalty within the context of the luxury cosmetics sector in Thailand* are entirely my effort, except where otherwise acknowledged. Also, I certify that this thesis contain no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree. Some of the material contained here has been presented in the form of the following:

Professional Conference Paper (Published)

1. Uecharoenkit, S., and Cohen, G. (2011) ‘Investigating the relationship of brand experience and loyalty: A study of luxury brand in Thailand’. European and Mediterranean Conference on Information Systems. (EMCIS 2011)
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This doctoral research investigates the relationships between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty in the Thailand context. Following a brief introduction to the background and justification of the study, this chapter provides a general picture of the structure of the study, including the research background, the research problem and the objective of the study. The chapter then identifies the research questions and research methodology, the expected research contribution is outlined in the following section. The final sections of this chapter discuss several limitations of this study before outlining the structure of this thesis and finally concluding.

1.2 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

1.2.1 Experiential Marketing

Marketing managers from a wide range of industries have endeavoured to apply experiential marketing in order to achieve greater market success. New marketing tools such as technology and media have great potential for driving products and services. In view of this, there are several reasons why marketing managers should consider utilising product, brand or customer experience in their products or services.

Experiential marketing has been discussed for over 20 years; it was researched in the late 1900s (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) stated that experiential marketing is a consumption of fantasies, feelings and fun; Csikszentmihalyi (1991) referred to experience as the *flow*: it is something beyond mere need satisfaction or something beyond ‘stimulus-response’. He claimed that ‘flow’ is an ultimate experience and enjoyment in life (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991). Schmitt (1999b) explained the important role of experiential marketing along with the dimensions of experience. Subsequently, in 2008, the

concept of experiential marketing was stressed once more by Schmitt and Roger (2008) in their book *Handbook on Brand and Experience Management*.

The idea of experiential marketing has been widespread in the marketing literature in different contexts, including brand experience, consumption experience, product experience, shopping experience and service experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2010). A general notion of brand experience has existed since 1980, but until Schmitt's research in 1997 the subject area was not recognised. Schmitt pointed out that brand experience originates from a set of interactions between a customer and a brand, a company, or a part of the organisation involved (Schmitt, 2009). Measures of brand experience aspects were later researched by Brakus et al. (2009).

Brakus et al.'s (2009) research presented how consumers experience a brand, how brand experience is measured and whether brand experience affects consumer behaviour (Brakus et al., 2009). Following the emergence of this notion of brand experience, along with research contributions from scholars focusing on brand experience, it was evident that brand experience could add value for companies (Brakus et al., 2009; Atwal and Williams, 2008; Schmitt, 1999b; Chang and Chieng, 2006; Ha and Perks, 2005; Kent, 2011). A careful review of the existing marketing literature and brand management literature revealed that there have been relatively few attempts to define the notion of brand experience along with its dimensions. In other words, the concept of brand experience has not yet been researched in different contexts.

Thus, the present study aims to address the gap in the literature and contribute to a better understanding of the concept of brand experience and its consequences from the consumer perspective in the luxury cosmetic brand industry.

Applying brand experience in marketing strategy is significant to marketers in today's marketplace. An outstanding brand experience will result in brand satisfaction, brand trust, brand awareness and brand loyalty and will maximise a company's profit.

From the late 1990s onwards, the concept of brand experience has become a mainstream topic for many scholars; it is agreed that brand experience can be categorised into five

distinct dimensions: sensorial-perceptual, affective, behavioural, social and cognitive (Schmitt, 1999a; Gentile et al., 2007; Fornerino et al., 2006; Chang and Chieng, 2006). Therefore, this study not only focuses on the concept of brand experience, but also investigates the consequences of brand experience, paying particular attention to consumer loyalty as a final dependent variable of brand experience.

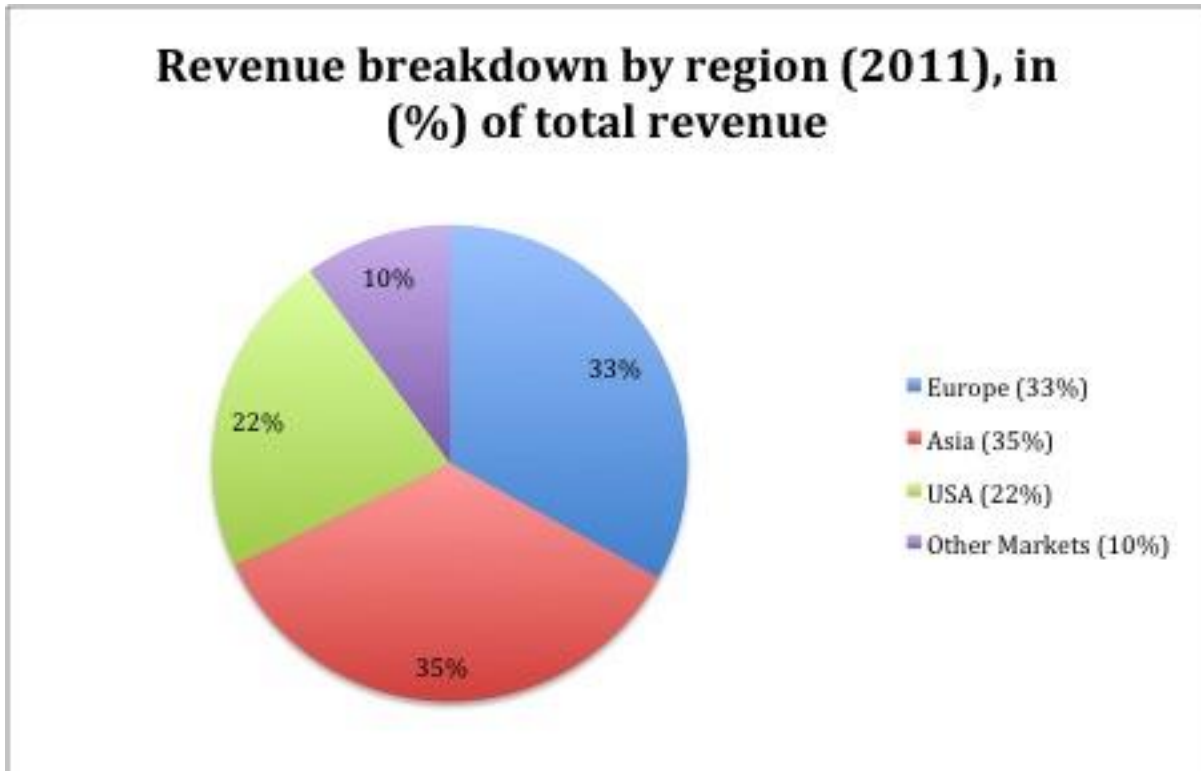
1.2.2 Luxury Brands and Luxury Cosmetic Brands

Okonkwo observes that branding was launched in the time of the ancient Greek and Roman empires through the procedure of “carving out shop route signs and product descriptions in stone along footpaths” (2007, p. 13). But what of the origins of luxury fashion and its branding? Okonkwo (2007) asserts that after the First World War, a time when the world’s monarchies and the world’s aristocracy – along with the social class systems – began to disappear, there emerged a ‘change in luxury fashion’.

Several luxury fashion brands lay claim to being ‘the oldest brand’. Louis Vuitton, Gucci and Guerlain – from France and Italy – emerged in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Okonkwo, 2007). Later, in the twentieth century, came European brands Ralph Lauren and Donna Karan, and Far Eastern brands like Yohji Yamamoto and Issey Miyake (Okonkwo, 2007). While the above-mentioned fashion-related brands did not arrive on the world scene until the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, luxury has been around for a long, long time.

Many of the luxury brands known in 2011 were launched during the nineteenth century; in fact in nineteenth-century France the government passed legislation that was favourable to the textile and fashion sectors of the economy. Meanwhile, in the first part of the twentieth century, fashion was perceived as ‘frivolous’ in terms of the economy; even so, during that time there was an explosive growth of the beauty and cosmetics sector, especially in the Asian market (Figure 1.1), and in the twenty-first century there was a fashion revival led by Coco Chanel, Jeanne Lanvin Madeline Vionnet and Bernard Arnault among others (Okonkwo, 2007).

Figure 1.1: Global Luxury Product Revenues (%), 2011

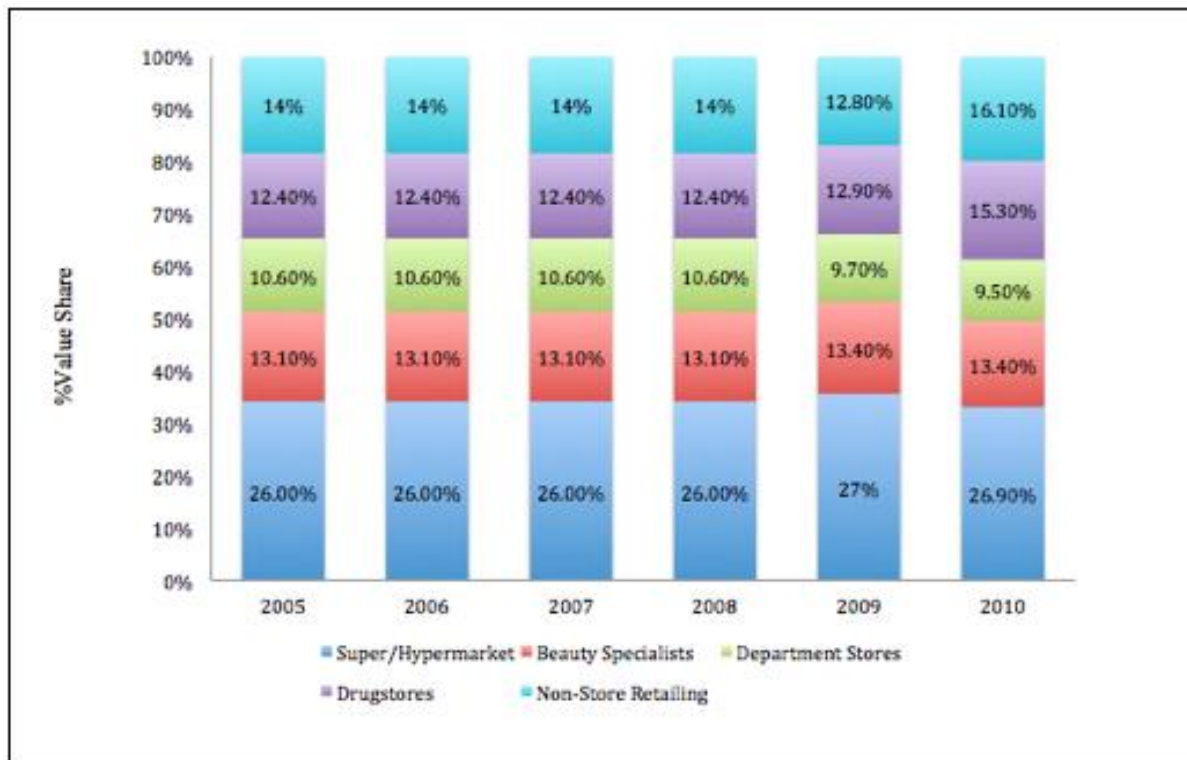


Source: www.LVMH.com

Moving to the cosmetic brand sector, the cosmetics industry generates about \$230 billion each year in sales (Ejiofor, 2006), with L’Oréal (which owns 20 brands, including Maybelline) and Estée Lauder (which owns 25 brands, including Prescriptives, Bobbi Brown, Origins, Tommy Hilfiger Fragrances and so on) as the market leaders in the luxury cosmetics field (Ejiofor, 2006). For example, Estée Lauder sold more than three million of its Clinique brand ‘Quickliner for Eyes’ in 2006.

A 2006 report by O’Loughlin revealed that cosmetics consumers spent almost the same amount annually on cosmetic products (\$1,454) as they spent on clothing (\$1,940), thus illustrating the importance of cosmetic products. Over 90 per cent of females use at least one cosmetic product every day, with daily use averaging 7.4 products and 4.4 brands (Guthrie and Kim, 2009). The importance of beauty retailing continues to increase (Figure 1.2).

Figure 1.2: The Importance of Beauty Retailing



Source: Adapted from Barbalova (2011), www.in-cosmetics.com.

1.2.3 Global Luxury Cosmetics

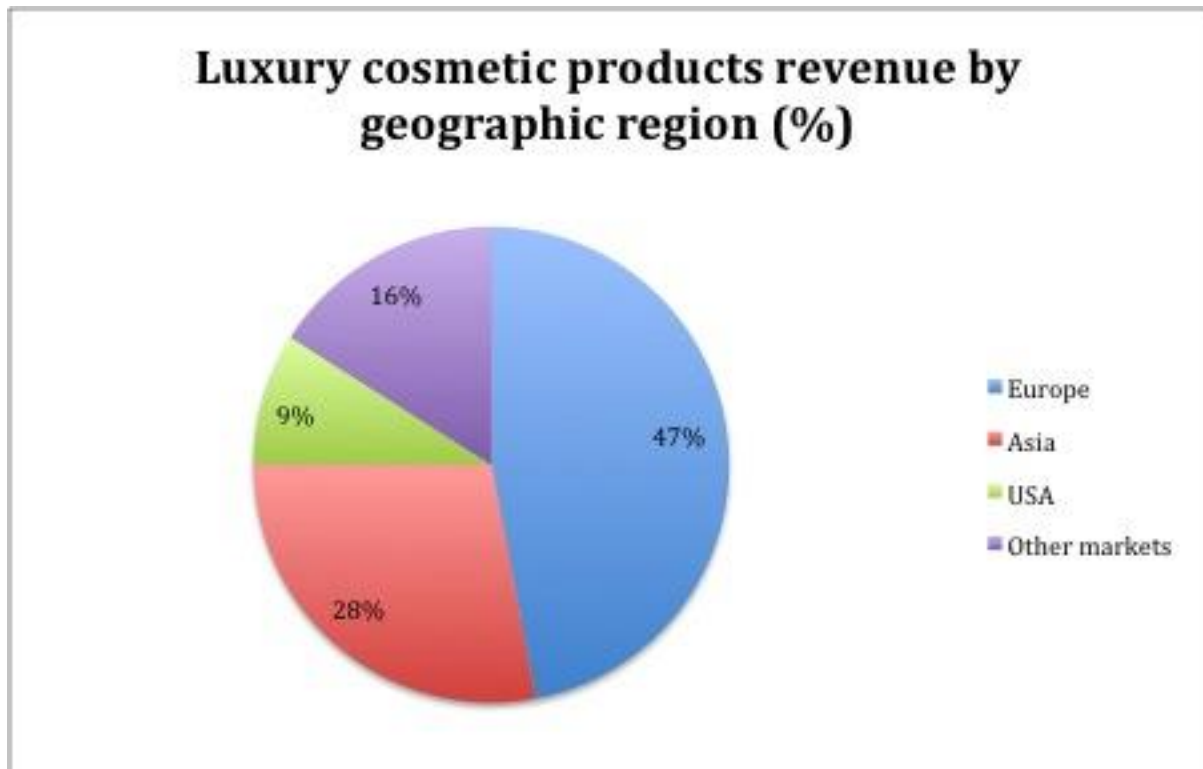
LVMH (Moët Hennessy – Louis Vuitton), the world’s leading luxury products group, indicated that the demand for luxury cosmetic products was approximately 2,700 million euros in 2009, 3,100 million euros in 2010 and 3,200 million euros in 2011 (see Table 1.1). Europe is the biggest market with 47 per cent, followed by Asia with 28 per cent, other markets with 16 per cent and the United States with 9 per cent. As a result, Asia falls within the category of the top three global regions (Figure 1.3).

Table 1.1: Luxury Cosmetic Revenues (EUR Millions); 2009–2011

	2011	2010	2009
Revenues (EUR Millions)	3195	3076	2741
Revenues by product category (%)			
Perfumes	49	48	53
Cosmetics	34	34	28
Skincare products	17	18	19
Total	100	100	100

Source: www.LVMH.com.

Figure 1.3: Luxury Cosmetic Products Revenue by Geographic Region (%); 2011



Source: www.LVMH.com.

It is certainly agreed that the consumption of luxury cosmetic brands varies by region. Luxury brand products in Thailand were selected as the context for this study owing to the fact that several Asian countries have had positive results in the introduction and expansion of the luxury brands market (Okonkwo, 2007) (Appendix 6). Furthermore, Asian consumers have a reputation of being shopping lovers and materialistic shoppers. It is frequently maintained that cities such as Bangkok, Hong Kong, Singapore and Kuala Lumpur are perceived as shopping paradises. Despite the global economic slowdown, in Thailand the cosmetics market over the period 2006–2009 demonstrated an annual growth rate of between

15 and 20 per cent (Thanison, 2012). Additionally, Thailand's government is striving to improve the country's economic situation by encouraging international investors, relaxing foreign investment laws and regulations, and developing the country's infrastructure: as a result of these measures, Thailand's economy is demonstrating its highest economic growth for the past 17 years (NESDB, 2013). Thailand, as an emerging market, considers that investors should seek opportunities for both the luxury cosmetic industry and other industries, in preference to other Asian countries such as Hong Kong, China and Singapore, which have already reached maturity in this type of investment (Leelahongjudha, 2007).

This research aims to examine the effect of consumer behaviour on the luxury cosmetics brand experience from the customer perspective in Thailand: a perspective that could be representative of other Asian countries due to a similarity of culture, way of thinking and lifestyle (Huang and Tai, 2003). Thus, the researcher selects Thailand as a representative of Asian countries. Section 1.6 will show the rationale for the choice of the context in detail.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

To date, marketing managers' strategy has for the most part revolved around customer retention and the acquisition of new customers by promoting their services and the quality of their products in the hope of resultant consumer loyalty. However, high quality services and products are insufficient as a long-term strategy, the marketplace is constantly evolving, with new products and services emerging every day. The features, benefits and applications of these new products are what differentiates them, not just the brand quality and supplier services (Schembri, 2006; Berry et al., 2002).

Gounaris and Stathakopoulos (2004) and Dick and Basu (1994) suggest that achieving high consumer satisfaction is a key important strategy in business. Several pieces of research have focused on the relationship between consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty and argued that it is an essential factor in building consumer loyalty and consumer satisfaction (Bolton, 1998; Jones and Suh, 2000; Chandrashekar et al., 2007; Yang and Peterson, 2004; Bodet, 2008; DeWult et al., 2001; Robert et al., 2003). On the other hand, Meyer and Schwager (2007) propose that measuring consumer satisfaction does not in itself show how to achieve consumer loyalty. The above arguments make it somewhat challenging for marketing

managers to find out what is really the precursor of consumer loyalty. In an effort to answer this, it is submitted that brand experience affects loyalty behaviours (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 2009). Academics and practitioners have considered that consumer satisfaction is no longer enough, and should consider ‘brand personality’ (Aaker, 1997; Kim et al., 2001, Maeder et al., 2000) and ‘brand trust’ (Lau and Lee, 1999; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; DeWulf et al., 2001; Robert et al., 2003; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2012). Brand personality is the relationship between the personal characteristics that are related with a particular brand (Aaker, 1997). It is a customer criterion to select a brand that is able to reflect their personality and taste as well as their self-image. Then, brand trust relates to the willingness to rely on brands or the feeling of security with a particular brand that no other brands can provide (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Although the value of brand personality and brand trust continually increase, customers are well aware of company marketing strategy. Customers are seeking more than products or services; they are seeking something unique that is able to fulfil their needs (Vandenbosch and Dawar, 2002). Therefore, this research implies that brand experience could fulfil customers’ needs and result in brand loyalty.

Brand experiences related to internal consumer responses are categorised into sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual, evoked by brand-related stimuli (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Padgett and Allen, 1997; Brakus et al., 2009). Brand experiences are more likely to sustain brand loyalty (Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle, 2006; Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 2009; Ghodeswar, 2008; Gentile et al., 2007). Brand experience is a new phenomenon and is not yet well known to many academics, but it has received attention in several fields (Chang and Chieng, 2006; Atwal and Williams, 2008; Ha and Perks, 2005). For example, Chang and Chieng (2006) studied the consumer–brand relationship by using the experiential view in coffee shop context; Ha and Perk (2005) completed a study on the effects of consumer perceptions of brand experience on the Web. Thus, the concept of brand experience has not yet been developed across more varied contexts.

However, there is no agreement about what constitutes brand experience, and brand experience needs more academic research. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to explore the concept of brand experience in the luxury cosmetics brand sector and to explore the emotional/rational consequences of this under-researched construct and how the luxury cosmetic brand experience contributes to building consumer behaviour (loyalty) in the

Thailand context. It could be said that the statement of the problem is: what are the dimensions and consequences of the brand experience in the specific field of luxury cosmetics brands?

The present study provides an overview of the existing literature on brand experience. In addition to this, the specific context of brand experience is investigated in luxury cosmetic brand products. The study supports dimensions contributed from previous research. They are: sensory experience, affective experience, intellectual experience, behavioural experience and social experience. The context of this study (luxury brands) is presented in Chapter 2 of the present study. The concept of experiential marketing together with the field of experience in consumer and marketing research is discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 of this study sheds light on the definitions and dimensionality of brand experience. Chapter 5 depicts the proposed conceptual framework and the consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand experience, as well as the hypotheses. Next, the methodology (chapter 6) conducted in the present research and finally, the results and conclusions together with the research limitations and future research are presented.

1.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

This research's aims are to identify the dimensions of the luxury cosmetic brand experience, and explore what the emotional/rational consequences are of this experience and how the experience contributes to building consumer behaviour (loyalty) in the Thailand context. To attain these general goals, the following list of more precise objectives is addressed.

1. To explore the concept of the luxury cosmetic brand experience and its dimensions via mixed method approach.
2. To identify the consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand experience via mixed method approach.
3. To develop a conceptual framework regarding the relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and its consequences.
4. To investigate the impact of the luxury cosmetic brand experience on customer loyalty.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The particular research questions are shown below, to further exhibit how the study objectives are integrated into the current study.

1. What are the dimensions comprising the luxury cosmetic brand experience?
2. What are the consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand experience?
3. Does the luxury brand experience have either a direct or an indirect relationship with customer loyalty?

1.6 RATIONALE FOR THE CHOICE OF CONTEXT

In an attempt to achieve the research aims, the researcher endeavours to investigate brand experiences with various products and services. However, there is a limited timeline available in this research. Furthermore, the researcher attempts to select one context that is specific to the nature of brand experiences. In order to conduct a study that identifies the dimension of brand experience and a set of consequences that specifically pays attention to consumer loyalty, the current study applied experiential marketing that emphasises consumer experience with a brand (Schmitt, 1999b). Particularly, the luxury cosmetic brand sector was deemed a good sector to undertake the current research due to luxury cosmetic brands being considered as having a prominent role in societies, economics and government, as well as it being generally affirmed that global luxury brands are estimated to be worth US\$130 billion and have an approximately 20 per cent annual growth rate (Okonkwo, 2007).

From the late 1980s, as the standard of living in Thailand has developed, so too has a niche market in luxury cosmetics brands (Tovikkai and Jirawattananukool, 2010). Thailand has a unique culture, traditions and arts. Thai people naturally appreciate luxury and fine things; luxury is not unfamiliar to Thai people due to the presence of the deeply revered and respected Thai royal family (Tovikkai and Jirawattananukool, 2010).

Thailand has been open for trade to other countries since the nineteenth century without ever having been a colony of western countries. In the late 1980s especially, there was significant investment in Thailand, including investment by luxury brands such as Hermès, Louis

Vuitton, Prada and other international luxury brands (Chadha and Husband, 2006). In addition, Club 21 (a Singaporean luxury products importer) has been an established business in Thailand since 1972 and imports international luxury brands such as Mulberry from the United Kingdom, Yohji Yamamoto from Japan and Jil Sander from Germany (Gale, 2010).

The Thai luxury cosmetic sector was considered as suitable for this research for several reasons. Firstly, Thailand has dramatically developed and modernised its industry and economy to draw alongside other countries in the same region. Secondly, Thailand's Department of Export Promotion selected 'luxury cosmetics' as one out of 12 target products to be promoted (Leelahongjudha, 2007). Thailand is one of the most popular Asian countries for purchasing luxury goods. In Thailand, the luxury brand market is rapidly growing and now Thailand is seen as a 'Shopping Paradise' to rival other well-known cities (Hong Kong, Singapore and Kuala Lumpur). Fourth, Thailand is acknowledged to be one of the main markets to have experienced a big growth in luxury products within Asia (LVMH, 2012). Thailand's luxury cosmetic brand consumption has increased to 16 million euros in 2009 due to the ever increasing number of rich and middle-class people and the improvement of the media and communication (Tovikkai and Jirawattananukool, 2010; Heinze, 2011). Finally, the Thai government was keen to promote Thailand as a fashion hub and a shopping paradise for luxury goods (Gale, 2010), and the Bangkok fashion city project was launched to compete with Singapore and Australia with a budget of over 40 million US dollars (Chadha and Husband, 2006).

Currently, the luxury brands in Thailand are purchased not only by high-class people but also by middle-class people, and sometimes lower-class people, due to the success of advertising (Tovikkai and Jirawattananukool, 2010). The majority of the luxury brands endeavour to increase sales volumes by using elaborate store decoration to showcase their brands' power and brand image (Tovikkai and Jirawattananukool, 2010). And let us not forget the power of celebrity to promote luxury brands (Chadha and Husband, 2006).

Thailand divided into 76 provinces; Bangkok is a capital city of Thailand. Thailand has population about 69 millions, approximately 12 per cent live in Bangkok (8.3 millions) (Wikipedia, 2014). The city occupies only 1,568.7 square kilometres with 8.3 millions people, it is really making Bangkok an extreme primate city. Therefore, the sample will be

selected based in Bangkok for several reasons. First, Bangkok is a capital city of Thailand where is a centre of business, economy, education, media and modern society. Secondly, Bangkok is a metropolitan city and the majority of the shopping malls are located in downtown Bangkok such as Central Chidlom, Central World, Gaysorn Plaza, MBK, Siam Discovery, Siam Paragon, The Emporium and more. However, Siam Paragon, The Emporium and Central World were selected as locations to conduct the questionnaire because they are generally known as luxury brand shopping centres for local customers. Third, the middle class and high class people stay in Bangkok which is the target sampling (wealth consumer) of the current research.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The aims of this present research are to identify the dimensions of the luxury cosmetic brand experience, and explore the emotional/rational consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand experience and how the luxury cosmetic brand experience contributes to building consumer behaviour (loyalty) in the Thailand context. This present study has been developed on the basis of the existing literature review and the conceptual model.

To accomplish the aims of this research, a mixed method ('quantitative' and 'qualitative') empirical study was performed. The quantitative method was the foremost research method in the present research, with the subsequent employment of a qualitative method to refine the results of the quantitative method and to gain a better understanding. A self-administered questionnaire, developed on the basis of the literature review, was used to measure each of the constructs of the study. The self-administered questionnaire was distributed among 483 Thai consumers who visit the luxury cosmetic brand counters in three particular department stores, namely The Emporium, Siam Paragon and Central World department stores in downtown Bangkok (Thailand). The questionnaire was designed using a five-point Likert scale to measure the study constructs. The respondents were asked to rate their agreement with each item, ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Thereby, some questionnaire items have been taken from previously valid scales. In addition to this, personal interviews were employed in the study in order to refine the results from quantitative study, uncover overlooked issues and gain better information. Personal interviews were conducted

among 22 Thai customers who regularly buy luxury cosmetic brands. Chapter 6, the methodology chapter details the justification of the methods used in this research.

Thailand, particularly downtown Bangkok, was chosen as the context for this thesis because Bangkok is well known, specifically among Asian countries, for beauty makeovers. Importantly, the previous research has shown that the sales volume of cosmetic products in Thailand was over 82 million Euros including both luxury cosmetic products and non-luxury cosmetic products (Charoenrungsiri and Oonsuphab, 2010). It grows approximately 4 to 5 percent annually. A recent annual review by Moët Hennessy – Louis Vuitton (LVMH), the world's leading luxury products group, averred that Asian countries generate the highest profits on luxury products (colour cosmetics, skin cares and perfumes) compared to other regions (Figure 1.1), with the potential for more profit every year (Appendix 6) (LVMH, 2012). In order to analyse descriptive statistics for this thesis, SPSS version 18.02 was employed; moreover, linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis was used to test the relationships of all the variables in the framework.

Regression analysis is a statistical technique used to analyse the relationships between variables. The present study used linear regression analysis to examine the significant relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience (independent variable) and brand personality (dependent variable); the luxury cosmetic brand experience (independent variable) and consumer satisfaction (dependent variable); and the luxury cosmetic brand experience (independent variable) and brand trust (dependent variable). Multiple regression analysis was applied to analyse the relationship between the dependent variable (consumer loyalty) and a set of independent variables (brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction) in order to find the best predictor equation for a set of variables. The details of the regression analysis have been explained in Chapter 6 (methodology chapter).

1.8 THE RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION

This research contributes to the knowledge of both academicians and practitioners in the field of marketing. It contributes academic knowledge not only to the marketing literature but also to the consumer behaviour and branding literatures. Concurrently, this research highlights the

potential benefits of developing a luxury cosmetic brand experience that will impact positively on consumer behaviour (loyalty) in a new context of study.

1.8.1 Academic Contribution

This thesis attempts several contributions. Firstly, this research contributes to the theory of brand experience by providing a validated theoretical framework that explains the relationships between the construct of the brand experience in the luxury cosmetic sector. Additionally, the study develops and tests a research model to explain the relationship between the construct of the luxury cosmetic brand experience and its consequences in a new context (Thailand). Brand experience is considered as a new research topic and presents an extremely low number of academic papers; the little research that has been undertaken has taken place in different contexts such as banking (Atwal and Williams, 2008), online services (Ha and Perks, 2005) and coffee shops (Chang and Chieng, 2006).

The next contribution of this research is that it is well defined and confirms the dimensions that contribute to luxury cosmetic brand experience. This research confirms the current knowledge in marketing and branding literature by use of an exploratory factor analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis methodology, and personal interviews to confirm the dimensions of the brand experience, thereby obtaining a better understanding of the concept of brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand context. The exploratory factor analysis technique loads and extracts related factors into groups. It is a technique that is normally used in social science research to identify latent variables and groups a large set of observed variables into a smaller number of factors which are highly correlated to each other (Hair et al., 2006). The confirmatory factor analysis methodology has been widely used as a marketing research method to test and confirm factors that have strong literature support. What's more, the use of confirmatory factor analysis allows the researcher to define an appropriate research conceptual framework in a new context, followed by regression analysis to investigate the relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and its consequences, and contributing further knowledge to the brand experience literature in the luxury cosmetic brands context.

Moreover, another contribution of this research is that it introduces and validates a new construct, which is ‘brand trust’, to continue the exploration of the luxury cosmetic brand experience among women in Bangkok.

In terms of methodology, the major contribution of this study stems from the use of quantitative methods, even though the research measurement items were taken from valid measurement scales, they were refined and tested for validity and reliability.

Furthermore, the present research uses a mixed methods approach. This particular methodology combination (linear/ multiple regression analysis and personal interviews) has not previously (to my knowledge) been used in the experiential marketing research, and therefore could be said to set a new benchmark for future research. Further discussion on this point can be found in Chapter 10.

1.8.2 Marketing Contribution

The study will benefit marketing managers in its demonstration of the value of brand experience towards their customers – which may be entirely different from the experience developed by the company itself. The findings from this research suggest that in order to build strong brand-loyal customers in the luxury cosmetic brand experience, marketing managers should focus on brand personality, consumer satisfaction and particularly on brand trust, this trio results in consumer loyalty. By designing the luxury cosmetic brand experience, the luxury cosmetic company will perform well compared to other luxury cosmetic brands that have not developed a luxury cosmetic brand experience.

The research identifies the significant factors that are likely to influence the luxury cosmetic brand experience. This study guides marketing managers to select the factors which are able to contribute to the greatest brand experience with the utmost care. Most of these factors are controllable, such as sensory factors including smell, sight and sound. Therefore, companies should try to maximise those factors by providing ambient aromas, visuals and resonances. This contribution will help brand managers to better understand the importance of brand experience resulting in improved customer–brand relationships.

This research has studied brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand industry from the customer's perspective and its relationship with consumer loyalty. Although the results of the present research are market and product specific, it offers marketing contributions for luxury product consumption research in general, and in the luxury cosmetic brand sector in particular. The findings of this research highlight the variables of the consumer loyalty requirement for: brand experience, brand personality, consumer satisfaction, and brand trust. Chapter 10 presents a critical discussion of this area.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

This research provides an extensive examination of the constructs of brand experience, its dimensions and its consequences in the luxury cosmetic brand context. Due to time restrictions of any research, it is difficult to investigate every element that causes a phenomenon. Thus, this research has some limitations. First, the study is only focused on luxury cosmetic brands; therefore, the results may not be suitable for general application to other non-luxury products. Second, the study is conducted in Thailand to investigate only Thai consumer behaviour. Thus, the results may not be representative of overall luxury cosmetic brand consumer behaviour internationally. Third, the measurement scale: the present research predominantly focuses on a quantitative study, and the questionnaire employed included many measurement scales adapted from previous literature. The measurement scales were adapted from valid and reliable sources and so were appropriate for the collection of the specific data. However, some measurement items did not meet the minimum requirement of the factor loading analysis and so were deleted during the item purification stage. The research limitations are explained in detail in Chapter 10 (conclusions chapter).

1.10 THESIS SYNOPSIS

This section draws a review of the organisation of the thesis. Ten chapters are presented in this research.

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter gives a general introduction to the research topic, research problem, context background, aims and objectives, and an abstract of the methodology that has been used. Also, it concludes with an outline of the structure of this thesis.

Chapter 2: Literature Review of Luxury Brands

This chapter provides a review of luxury brands. This is followed by a comprehensive review of the literature on luxury brands, definitions and generic backgrounds on luxury brands. It demonstrates the conceptualisation of marketing on luxury consumers and the dimensions of luxury strategies, and reviews the luxury cosmetics industry.

Chapter 3: Literature Review of Experiential Marketing

This chapter introduces and reviews the literature relating to experiential marketing, explaining the general theories and concepts of experiential marketing which contribute to the evolution of brand experience. Also, this chapter highlights the relating definition of experiential marketing in various disciplines.

Chapter 4: Literature Review of Brand Experience and Other Brand Constructs

This chapter introduces a review of the relevant literature on brand experience and the relevant theories and concepts which contribute to the knowledge in the research. This chapter also explains other brand constructs relating to the research, namely brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty.

Chapter 5: The Development of the Conceptual Framework and Research Hypotheses

This chapter presents the relevant theoretical frameworks and a conceptual research model that identifies and explains the underlying consequences of luxury cosmetic brand experience among women in Bangkok. This present research has exposed that there is no previous research exploring the consequences of brand experience as part of the luxury cosmetic brand industry.

Chapter 6: Methodology Approach and Strategy

In chapter six, the research methodology set out in this thesis is discussed. The focus of this research is the investigation of the relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience

and consumer behaviour (loyalty). Self-administered survey questionnaires and personal interviews are conducted as a method of data collection.

Chapter 7: The Quantitative Analysis and Findings

This chapter identifies the findings and reports the results of the quantitative data. The findings are obtained from the data analysis of 483 self-administered questionnaires collected over an eight-week period in 2011. An exploration into the luxury cosmetic brand experience among women in Bangkok (Thailand) is the centre of this study.

Chapter 8: The Qualitative Findings

This chapter explains the qualitative data collection and analysis procedures. It identifies the findings of the qualitative study which consisted of 22 personal interviews in 2011. The qualitative study aims to gain in-depth information, better understanding of the luxury cosmetic brand context and to refine the result from quantitative study.

Chapter 9: Discussion

This chapter provides a discussion relating to the empirical study. Three key consequences relating to the luxury cosmetic brand experience that affected consumer loyalty were investigated; these were (a) brand personality, (b) consumer satisfaction, (c) brand trust. An evaluation of the research hypotheses and their significance are summarised.

Chapter 10: Conclusions

This chapter presents the research contributions in relation to the theoretical (academic), managerial (marketing) and methodological contributions made. In addition to this, it describes the limitations of the research and draws recommendations for future research based on the results of this thesis.

1.11 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has presented the foundations of this thesis by describing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives. A brief

explanation of the mixed method research methodology (self-administrated questionnaires and personal interviews) was also employed. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were introduced before outlining the research limitations and reviewing the contents of each chapter.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW OF LUXURY BRANDS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter has:

Presented the foundations of this thesis by introducing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives and a brief explanation of the research methodology. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were outlined followed by a summary of the research limitations and a brief review of the contents of each chapter.

The discussion undertaken in previous chapter presents an overall picture of luxury brands, luxury cosmetic brands, and the growth and revenue of luxury cosmetic products. The purpose of this chapter is to review the concept of luxury brands and luxury cosmetic brands.

The approach adopted has been:

- To provide general information of what luxury brands are, their characteristics and how they are defined.
- To review the marketing concepts of luxury brand consumers together with luxury brand consumption.
- To explore the dimension of luxury brands applied in experiential marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing.
- To review the context of this study; the luxury cosmetics sector in Thailand.

During the last two decades, the luxury phenomenon has generated interest in both business and academic areas. Luxury brands now occur in every aspect of life, and are no longer only available for upper-class consumers, but are also affordable for middle-class consumers. Luxury defines “beauty; it is art applied to functional items. They offer more than mere objects: they provide reference of good taste” (Kapferer, 1997, p. 253).

2.2 LUXURY BRANDS

Previously, luxury brands were purchased by high-market consumers and were represented as privilege products, but have now become more affordable to middle-market consumers (Tsai, 2005).

Several scholars that have studied and contributed to knowledge on luxury brand characteristics (Vigneron and Johnson, 1999; 2004; Vickers and Renand, 2003; Dubois et al., 2001), but Kapferer and Bastien (Kapferer, 1997, 2004; Kapferer and Bastien 2009) are well-known scholars who have concentrated on the luxury brand sector. In addition, the discussion of luxury brands and consumer perceptions has drawn recent interest from a large number of scholars (Tsai, 2005; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004; Wiedmann et al., 2007; Kapferer, 1998; Vigneron and Johnson, 1999; 2004).

2.2.1 Defining Luxury Brands

The luxury brand market has been growing steadily, by a minimum of 10 per cent each year for over 20 years (Kastanakis, 2010). Jackson (2004) claimed that luxury brands have been determined by specific product categories, comprising fashion and leather goods; watches and jewellery; perfumes and cosmetics; wines and spirits; selective businesses, other retail businesses and other businesses usually associated with luxury by the arts. In addition to this, White (2007) highlighted that the term ‘luxury brands’ is widespread in houses, furniture, household products, hotels and holidays. For example, several designer brands such as Chanel, Prada and Paul Smith have launched travel accessory kits, furniture, household goods and sport kits. It is generally maintained that luxury brands are present in almost every market category (White, 2007).

The term ‘luxury’ appears everywhere in our everyday lives that refers to products or services. Luxury has been defined by Nueno and Quelch as “a work of art designed for an exclusive market” (1998, p.62). However, Kapferer (2006) noted that the luxury term is difficult to accurately define due to people’s perspectives, moods and experiences, and individual classifications of luxury. Therefore, the definition of luxury brand has been made from an accumulation of the previous literature (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Luxury Definitions

Definition	Source(s)
“Luxury defines beauty; it is art applied to functional items. They offer more than mere objects: they provide reference of good taste ... Luxury is the appendage of the ruling classes.”	Kapferer (1997, p. 253)
“...those whose ratio of functional utility to price is low while the ratio of intangible and situational utility to price is high.” “...is a work of art designed for an exclusive market.”	Nueno and Quelch (1998, p. 62)
“...luxury brands compete on the ability to evoke exclusivity, a well known brand identity, [...] brand awareness and perceived quality.”	Phau and Prendergast (2000, p. 123–124)
“...that which nobody needs but desires.” “...it’s more than an extra; luxury is more ‘more’.”	Danziger (2005, p. xvi and p. 17)

It is certainly accepted that a luxury brand product may seem to be just a product for simple use, but in fact it is valuable in terms of its psychological properties, it can boost the esteem of the owner or impresses others (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). A luxury brand product is able to satisfy consumers both in functional use and in psychological use; the psychological aspect being the more prevalent of the two (Arghavan and Zaichkowsky, 2000). Therefore, it could be said that the luxury brand product refers to a high quality, superior, exclusive and functional item that provides psychological added value in term of self-esteem and self-awareness.

In addition to this, a luxury brand is not simply just an overpriced product, and an elegant or unique status symbol, but is also the associated luxury brand history along with the following characteristics (Hamilton, 2010):

- Consistent premium quality from the most expensive to the least expensive.
- Craftsmanship, professional or well-trained producers.
- Style or design recognition (consumer is able to notice the brand from the appearance, not the label).
- Limited production represents an exclusive product.
- Contributes emotional appeal.
- Global reputation, world-class well-known brand.

- Associated with a country of origin that has been well-recognised as a source of excellent material or hand crafted (e.g. Prada made in Italy).

2.2.2 The Development of Luxury Brand Literature

Branding was launched as long ago as during the ancient Greek and Roman empires – through the procedure of “carving out shop route signs and product descriptions in stone along footpaths” (Okonkwo, 2007, p. 3). These instances are among the earliest known branding efforts, but by the sixteenth century companies that distilled whisky were shipping their product in wooden barrels with the name of the company ‘burned into them’, another step in the development of brands (Okonkwo, 2007). Moving on through the years, Okonkwo (2007) explains that with the industrial revolution, urbanisation, improvements in transportation and the evolution of the social infrastructure, branding became an important tool for identifying products.

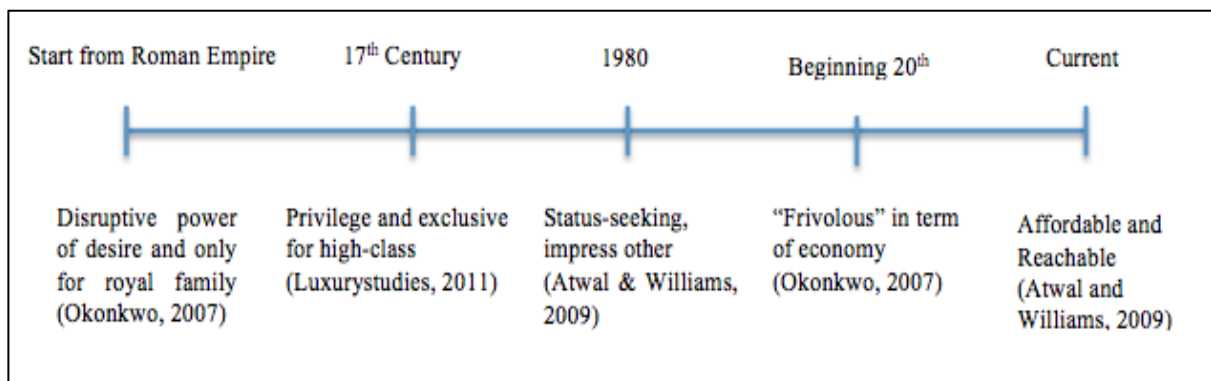
Companies like Twinings in England introduced their branded products ‘as early as 1706’ and Schweppes began branding its ‘branded drinks in 1798’ (Okonkwo, 2007). But what of the origins of luxury fashion and its branding? After the First World War, Okonkwo (2007) explains, at a time when the world’s monarchies and the world’s aristocracy – along with the social class systems – began to disappear, there emerged a ‘change in luxury fashion’.

Of the companies that market luxury fashion, those that have the oldest brands include Louis Vuitton, Gucci and Guerlain (from France and Italy), and they emerged in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Okonkwo, 2007). They were followed by European brands such as Ralph Lauren and Donna Karan, and Far Eastern brands such as Yohji Yamamoto and Issey Miyake (Okonkwo, 2007). Although the above-mentioned fashion-related brands did not arrive on the world scene until the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, luxury has been around for a long, long time.

Okonkwo traces the growth and expansion of luxury fashion, from the Byzantine Empire and ancient Rome to the Middle Ages, asserting that the “explosion of the Renaissance period changed the face of fashion and art forever” (Okonkwo, 2007, p.20). Iconic artists like Leonardo Da Vinci and Sandro Botticelli, along with “the birth of literature in Italy, France,

Spain and England”, had an enormous influence on society’s outlook “on the arts and fashion” (Okonkwo, 2007, p. 20). Many of the luxury brands known in 2011 were launched during the nineteenth century; in fact, in nineteenth-century France the government passed legislation that was favourable to the textile and fashion sectors of the economy.

In the first part of the twentieth century, fashion was perceived as ‘frivolous’ in terms of the economy. Even so, during that time there was “an explosive growth of the beauty and cosmetics sector”, followed by a fashion revival in the twenty-first century led by Coco Chanel, Jeanne Lanvin and Madeleine Vionnet, among others – including Bernard Arnault (Okonkwo, 2007, p. 8). Recently luxury goods have become reachable and affordable for middle-class consumers and occasionally lower-class consumers due to variety of product range such as perfume, cosmetic and accessory (Atwal and Williams, 2009). The timeline of luxury branding shows below.



2.3 MARKETING THE CONCEPTUALISATION OF LUXURY CONSUMERS

In terms of marketing the conceptualisation of luxury consumers, Kapferer (1998) asserts that there is no single word to describe what a luxury brand really is; in his point of view, luxuries can be categorised by consumers’ segmentation regarding values or functions. Kapferer (1998) categorised luxury brands into four segments:

- The first segment defined luxury brand as the beauty of the object and excellence of the product.
- The second segment focused on the value of creativity.

- The third segment is characterised by the key attributes of being ‘classic’ and ‘never out of fashion’.
- The last segment is characterised by the feeling of ‘uniqueness’ and ‘belonging to a minority’.

In addition to this, Dubois et al. (2005) classified luxury consumers into three groups: elitists (luxury for the small elite), democrats (luxury as open to a larger audience) and distant (not interested in luxury). Furthermore, ‘distant’ consumers actually have a negative point of view towards luxury, perceiving it as either useless or over priced and are therefore unlikely to purchase luxury (Dubois et al., 2005). Distant consumers also view luxury consumers as snobbish or trying to exhibit their wealth (Dubois et al., 2005).

Dubois and Laurent (1996) noted that each luxury product has a different role to fulfil a certain set of functions. Moreover, Kastanakis (2010) states that it is useful to understand each segment of luxury consumers for several reasons, such as to compare between situational determinants and the variety of products from various luxury categories, to understand better the functions of luxury goods and importantly, to evaluate why people buy or reject particular luxury products.

2.4 CONSUMPTION OF LUXURY BRANDS

The consumption of luxury has changed dramatically. Tsai (2005) noted that previously luxury brands were claimed by the privileged few and were unreachable, but recently they have become reachable and affordable for middle-class consumers and occasionally lower-class consumers. The consumption of luxury brands increased steadily by a minimum of 10 per cent annually and reached 25 per cent in 1989, even if the luxury brand was claimed as executive and for high-class consumers only (Kastanakis, 2010). Since luxury brands became affordable to middle-class consumers, the consumption of luxury brands has increased by 50 per cent (Keane and McMillan, 2004).

Vigneron and Johnson (2004) differentiate the consumption of luxury into personal-orientated perception and non-personal-orientated perception. Non-personal-orientated perception means the perception of conspicuousness, uniqueness and quality (Vigneron and

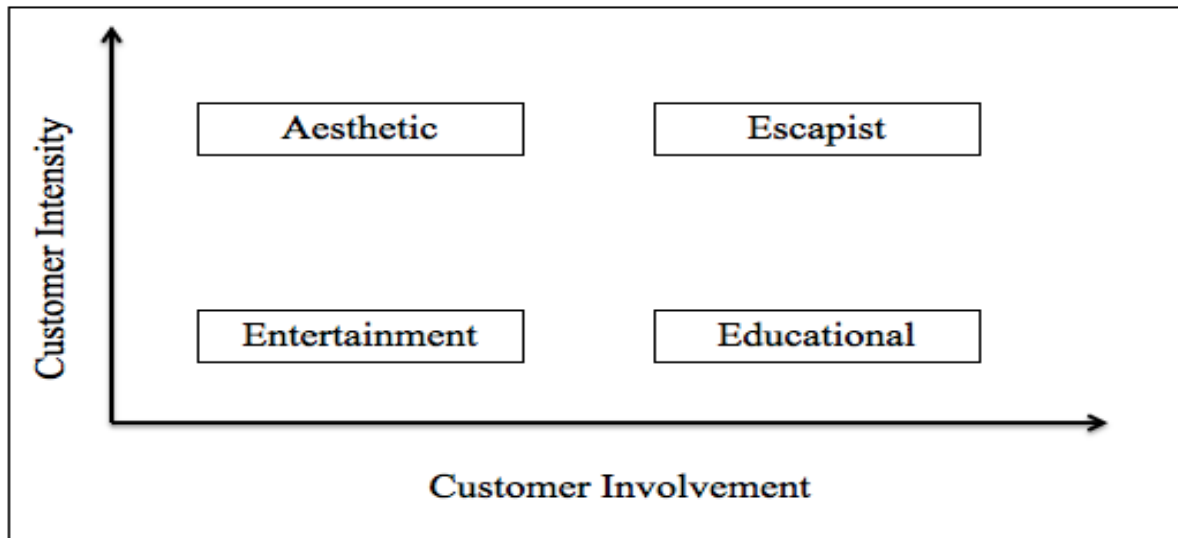
Johnson, 2004). The work by Atwal and Williams (2009) claims that from the 1980s to the 1990s the western consumption of luxury was primarily motivated by status-seeking and appearance; while Dubois and Duquesne (1993) state that the consumption of luxury was motivated by a desire to impress others, with a willingness to consume experience products/services; therefore, this consumption involves the display of wealth. Atwal and Williams use the following example to support their claim: a Jaguar owner explains his driving experience as “I love the way that I catch people admiring the XJ-S as I blast past them and the way that people often give me right of way in traffic and then watch the car as it goes by” (2009, p. 339) – an example that indicates that the consumption of luxury brands is associated with social status.

However, Dubois and Duquesne (1993) reveal that the consumption of luxury is not only used to create identities or develop a sense of belonging, but also what they symbolise which is a personal-orientated perception. Personal-orientated perception is characterised by hedonic consumption and extended self-personality (Dubois and Duquesne, 1993). In addition to this, Atwal and Williams point out that the concept of personal-orientated perception is a changing point of luxury consumption from a transactional relationship to a holistic experience (2007), stating that, “the expression of today’s luxury is about a celebration of personal creativity, expressiveness, intelligence, fluidity, and above all, meaning” (2009, p. 340).

2.5 THE EXPERIENTIAL LUXURY MARKETING DIMENSION

Pine and Gilmore (1998) imply that there are two bi-polar constructs across experiences: customer participation and customer connection. Atwal and Williams modified this notion to become customer involvement and customer intensity constructs across experiences (2009). The bi-polar constructs from Atwal and Williams (2009) identify four experiential zones, which are entertainment, education, escapist and aesthetic (Figure 2.1) (Atwal and Williams, 2009). They assert that ‘customer involvement’ means the interaction between the supplier and the customer, while ‘customer intensity’ means the strength of feeling in the interactions between suppliers and customers (Atwal and Williams, 2009).

Figure 2.1: Experiential Zones



Source: Atwal and Williams (2009)

The concept of four experiential luxury marketing zones is explained below:

Entertainment: this experiential zone involves a low degree of customer involvement and intensity. It is usually related to fashion shows at designer boutiques and upmarket department stores (Atwal and Williams, 2009). An example of this experiential zone is that the flagship Gucci and Chanel stores in Tokyo have added restaurants and bistros with famous chefs (Atwal and Williams, 2009).

Educational: this experiential zone involves a high degree of customer involvement and a low degree of customer intensity. In this experiential zone, sometimes called ‘edutainment’, customers are required to develop new skills or increase their previous skills (Atwal and Williams, 2009). An example is the Ferrari Driving Experience two-day programme, which was developed to educate customers in driving with Ferrari’s performance capability.

Escapist: this experiential zone involves a high degree of customer involvement and a high degree of customer intensity. This zone mostly relates to the luxury tourism and hospitality sector (Atwal and Williams, 2009). An example of this is the Royal Tented Taj Spa (Taj Hotels Resorts and Palaces) at the Rambagh Palace in Jaipur (India). Taj Hotels Resorts and Palaces offer a luxury stay with luxurious decorations redolent of the Mughal emperors of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries (Atwal and Williams, 2009).

Aesthetic: this experiential zone balances a high degree of customer intensity and a low degree of customer involvement. It could be said that evidence of this activity is the effects of its environment, such as interior design (Atwal and Williams, 2009). For example, the Ermenegildo Zegna store in New York tried to engage visitors through all the senses by redesigning the flagship store; it was inspired by its Italian textile-weaving heritage (Atwal and Williams, 2009). It has been stated by Kent (2011, p.8) that “flagships provide the opportunity to experience these within distinctive, often memorable and in places unique, physical environment”. Flagship store is one of the marketing communication strategies and could make a significant change to the visibility of retail brands (Kent, 2011).

2.6 STRATEGIES FOR EXPERIENTIAL LUXURY MARKETING

The demand for luxury goods has grown year on year, not only in Europe and the USA, but also in China, India and the Middle East (Tynan et al, 2009). Additionally, Thailand, an emerging country, has experienced significant growth in the luxury market over the past few years, and even during the global economic recession. Developing a luxury strategy has become more difficult due to the constant growth of the luxury market globally and the corresponding increase in the number of competitors: elevated status, a superb level of service and a brand name, which have so far been considered as a traditional luxury strategy, are no longer effective in the luxury market due to changes in consumer behaviour (Atwal and Williams, 2009). Recently, consumers have begun to place more emphasis on unique experiences, values and differences (Schmitt, 1999b). Therefore, experiential marketing strategy should be applied into the luxury market.

Several academics and practitioners have developed experiential luxury marketing strategies (Smith, 2003; Atwal and Williams, 2007; Okonkwo, 2007). Smith (2003) suggested that there are five steps in the experiential luxury marketing strategy. The first step is to study a concept of customer experience in order to evaluate the current experience of the brand. Then, the second step is to define a brand position, and the third step is to design the brand experience, which involves the brand processes and products against the brand proposition. The fourth step is the communication of the brand between the external and the internal, and the last step is to ensure that the strategy has been completed and met the objectives. In addition to this,

Hogan et al. (2005) posit that there are four steps to accomplish brand experience in luxury marketing, asserting that the first step is to identify the customer segment. This step will help brand-marketing managers to choose the most profitable target given the changing consumption of luxury brands (Tsai, 2005). The second step in this process is developing a touchpoint. A touchpoint is an interaction between the brands and their target customer during pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase (Davis, 2005). The third step is to convert the findings into project priorities. Hogan et al. (2005) claim that the touchpoints can be different depending on consumer behaviour. Atwal and Khan (2008) reveal that searching is a significant aspect in the purchase decision-making process for female fashion consumers in India. The last step is to implement and monitor the strategy.

Online marketing also used to develop luxury experiential marketing. As a consequence of the dramatic increase in the number of Internet users, new technology developments can be applied in experiential marketing strategies (Atwal and Williams, 2009). The evidence from Pedraza (2007) demonstrates that of the 88 per cent of wealthy consumers use the Internet to search for luxury products and services, 38 per cent purchase luxury products online, and 33 percent of luxury consumers prefer to buy luxury goods in the stores.

Another marketing strategy that is applicable to luxury experiential marketing is that of a flagship store. Flagship store marketing strategy has become ubiquitous since luxury brands became prominent in society (Manlow, 2013). In the 1970s, the concept of a flagship store was introduced (Kozinets et al, 2002; Kent and Brown, 2009; Moore et al, 2010); Carusone and Moscové (1985) referred to the flagship store as a method of store decoration to encourage the consumer to enter. In addition to this, Kent (2011,p.14) stated that “flagships provide the opportunity to experience these within distinctive, often memorable and in places unique, physical environment”. It is generally seen that flagship store strategy is effective when applied to luxury brands (Kent and Brown, 2009; Moore et al., 2010; Arnold and Reynolds, 2003; Kapferer and Bastien, 2009). Riewoldt (2002) noted that a luxury flagship store aims to stimulate customer experience via sensory experience (image) and affective experience (emotion); hence, a luxury product is a hedonic consumption. Manlow (2013) claimed that the luxurious environment of the flagship store delivers desire and positive emotion in the shopping experience for consumers.

2.7 THE LUXURY COSMETICS INDUSTRY

The cosmetics industry generates approximately \$230 billion each year in sales, according to an article in *Forbes* (Ejiofor, 2006). The trends among consumers (according to *Global Cosmetics Industry Magazine*) are for ‘high-tech’ and ‘natural-based’ products. The hottest company in the luxury cosmetics genre in 2006 was Clinique, selling more than three million of its Estée Lauder brand ‘Quickliner for Eyes’ (Ejiofor, 2006). The main companies in the luxury cosmetics field are L’Oréal (which owns 20 brands, including Maybelline) and Estée Lauder (which owns 25 brands, including Prescriptives, Bobbi Brown, Origins and Tommy Hilfiger fragrances) (Ejiofor, 2006).

In China in 2005, luxury cosmetic brands were purchased by “urban, female, white-collar workers who had the disposable income to afford foreign cosmetics”: 29.2 per cent came from France, 24.4 per cent from the United States and 22.6 per cent from Japan (Ireland et al., 2008, p. 223). Chinese women often bought “select luxury products to complement specific low-and-mid-range products they were familiar with, and were comfortable using” (Ireland et al., 2008, p. 223).

Among the South East Asian countries, Vietnam has significant growth in the cosmetics market, with a growth rate of 14 per cent during 2000–2005 (Mai and Sirikhoon, 2008). The Vietnamese cosmetics market comprises approximately 95 per cent imported cosmetic products, including Estee Lauder, Clinique, Lancôme, Clarins and so on (Vietnam Cosmetic Market Brief, 2012). The market share for imported cosmetic brands is as follows: 30 per cent Korea; 23 per cent EU; 17 per cent Japan, 13 per cent Thailand; 10 per cent USA; and 7 per cent other countries (Vietnam Cosmetic Market Brief, 2012).

In India, luxury cosmetic brands are purchased by women aged 22–45 (Nair and Pillai, 2007). Bhattacharya (2007) noted that demand for highest quality products in India has increased due to the rapid growth of the Indian middle class. Moreover, international brands are preferred to local brands due to the perception of international brands as quality products (Bhattacharya, 2007). This has resulted in an increasing volume of international cosmetic brands and the growth of the luxury cosmetic industry in India. Research from Nair and Pillai (2007) investigated Indian cosmetic purchasing behaviour; their study showed that Indian

cosmetic purchasing behaviour is influenced by occupation and education. For instance, a housewife is likely to purchase cosmetics with her family; whereas other occupations such as students, professionals or business people prefer to purchase cosmetics individually.

2.8 THE DRIVERS OF LUXURY COSMETIC BRAND STRATEGIES

Jean-Noel Kapferer and Vincent Bastien posit that there are two fundamental sociological trump cards today in the world of cosmetic luxury marketing and sales: those trump cards are ‘female emancipation’ and ‘world peace’ (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009). Female emancipation has been pivotal for luxury items, albeit there has always been a market for luxuries among the wealthy; and ‘world peace’, of course, is just a myth and a wish, but though it is ‘theoretical’, it is a ‘publicly proclaimed’ desire of civilised societies (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009, p. 11). Beyond those sociological trump cards the most important driver of luxury and the one explanation that helps explain the current success of luxury items is ‘democratisation’ (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009).

Kapferer and Bastien (2009) remind readers that there is a certain irony in the fact that the democratic process is helping to drive the luxury market, because “logically, the democratic process, which favours transparency and levelling out (not so much economic as cultural), should have signalled the demise of luxury” as it tends to push “transcendent ... leading classes” into oblivion (p. 12). But just the opposite has happened with democratic societies, and that is because “luxury, the offspring of the ‘transcendent’ stratification of society, does not die just because this stratification has disappeared: instead, it has become its creator and driver” (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009, p. 12).

Another driver in the growth of cosmetic luxury goods is the increase in spending power of people vis-à-vis the “linear growth in the consumption of most products” (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009, p. 13) – such as food, clothing and those things that help people “live a little better” (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009). In addition to this, another driver in the growth – the dimension – of luxury items is globalisation, which offers “accessibility to completely new products that can be sources of luxury” (as were silk and spices in the sixteenth century and French wines in the twentieth century) (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009, p. 13). The fourth verifiable driver for luxury goods in the twenty-first century is the rapidly emerging advances

in communication (through digital technologies such as the Internet, computers, cellular phones, etc.).

Mai and Sirikhoon (2008) assert that gift promotion and service from an expert (consultant) are other drivers for luxury goods in the Vietnamese cosmetics market. There is no doubt that consumers buy cosmetic products to improve their appearances, therefore an expert consulting service is very important in this market as the experts are seen to be knowledgeable and able to make recommendations for visible improvements. Cosmetics are considered as being a high involvement product, simply meaning that the higher the price, the more information the consumer searches for (Mai and Sirikhoon, 2008).

With the creation of showbiz marketing has emerged a powerful driver in the cosmetic luxury business (Chadha and Husband, 2006). The beautiful models that present the collections of Chanel and Christian Dior to small salons make a splash, but nothing like the huge media empires with global coverage that are driving sales today (Chadha and Husband, 2006). It is certainly correct that celebrities have been hired for a number of years now, ever since a need for “this new kind of marketing was clear” (Chadha and Husband, 2006, p. 31). The (now outdated) idea that luxury goods were to be marketed based on skilled craftsmanship, exclusivity and longevity has become increasingly irrelevant (Chadha and Husband, 2006).

2.9 COSMETIC INDUSTRY IN THAILAND

Thailand’s Department of Export Promotion placed great emphasis on cosmetic products; selecting the cosmetic products category as one of 12 target products it promoted (Leelahongjudha, 2007). In addition, Thailand’s cosmetics market grew by more than 45 per cent from 2007 to 2009, demonstrating great potential for further growth. Imports have continually increased, and the volume of the total cosmetics market reached 16 million euros in 2009 (Heinze, 2011). Surprisingly, during the economic slowdown in Thailand (2006–2009), the cosmetics market showed an annual growth rate of between 15 and 20 per cent (Thanisorn, 2012). Thailand’s market for cosmetics buyers consists of some 18 million women between the ages of 15 and 50 years old resulting in a very high volume of cosmetics purchases (Thanisorn, 2012).

Phupoksakul (2005) submits that cosmetic products in Thailand are found at all levels, including luxury international brands, domestic brands and low-cost brands. Thailand is also claimed as a major manufacturer of cosmetic products for both local and international companies, including several well-known cosmetic manufacturers such as Johnson and Johnson, Procter and Gamble and Unilever and so on. Thailand's cosmetics manufacturers mostly focus on middle-range cosmetics, hair care products and skin care products (Phupoksakul, 2005).

Besides Thai cosmetic products, international cosmetic products (luxury cosmetic products) have achieved popularity in the Thai market; international cosmetic products demonstrated a growth rate of 20 per cent in 2006. It is generally believed that the growth rate of international cosmetic products has increased due to their brand image and a positive perception of product quality (Phupoksakul, 2005).

In a 2006 report, Phupoksakul found that international cosmetic products account for 70 per cent of the total Thai cosmetics market. There are four major international competitors which account for 70 per cent of Thailand's luxury cosmetics sector. The first major luxury cosmetics exporter is the US-based Lauder Group: Estée Lauder, Clinique, Mac, Bobbi Brown, La Mer, Prescriptives, Origins, DKNY, Stila and Aveda; which placed 33.5 per cent of the luxury segment. The second competitor is Shiseido of Japan: Shiseido, 5S, Clé de Peau and IPSA; which had conquered 16.5 per cent of the luxury segment. Next is L'Oréal, with the brands Lancôme, Biotherm, Helena Rubinstein, Giorgio Armani and Ralph Lauren, which accounted for a 16 per cent share; and last is the other France-based group LVMH, which accounted for 5.1 per cent of the luxury cosmetics market (Turpin, 2004). In summary, the major cosmetics exporters are the Lauder Group, Shiseido of Japan, L'Oréal and LVMH Group, respectively.

Furthermore, Phupoksakul (2005) asserts that more than 60 per cent of the total imported cosmetic products are luxury skin care products. He also notes that the luxury cosmetic brands Estée Lauder, Clinique, Lancôme, MAC and Christian Dior are the leading luxury cosmetic brands, along with medium-range cosmetic brands L'Oréal, Maybelline and No. 7.

Recently, cosmetic products have been purchased by not only adults but also teenagers. The number of young Thai females using make-up and skin care cosmetic products is increasing dramatically (Phupoksakul, 2005, resulting in the introduction of several medium-range cosmetic brands from Japan, South Korea and Taiwan to the Thai market.

The cosmetics market in Thailand is concentrating cosmetic brands, suppliers and distributors (direct sale, counter sale and hanging sales). In order to maintain the market share, they frequently introduce new products that offer a problem-solving ability such as anti-wrinkle products and brightening products. Moreover, the cosmetics companies invest a large portion of money in promotion and advertisements (Phupoksakul, 2005).

It is claimed that there are three distribution channels for cosmetic products in Thailand, namely direct sales, counter sales and stall or hanging sales. First, direct sale is the most popular selling method in Thailand and accounts for 60 per cent of the total sales, but this sales channel is only suitable for medium- to low-range cosmetic products. Second, counter sales are mostly located in department stores, and offer a suitable and effective channel for luxury cosmetic products. The last sales channel is stall or hanging sales – a major sales channel for low-end and local cosmetic products (Phupoksakul, 2005; 2006).

2.10 THAI CONSUMER CONSUMPTION

Wang et al.'s (2004) research claimed that the consumer usually perceives international products and domestic products differently. The consumer in a developed country prefers to purchase domestic products rather than international products; while the consumer in a developing country prefers international products over domestic ones (Bilkey and Nes, 1982). Wang et al. (2004) suggested that the consumer in a developing country has a positive attitude toward an international product due to a perception of better product quality and product image; they view international products as superior, sophisticated and able to impress others.

As a developing country, Thailand's import rate has increased year on year; this reflects the increasing trend towards international product consumption (Chaisithiroj, 2007). Research from Masayavanij (2007) and Cengiz and Kirkbir (2007), supports the above argument: that

Thais have a positive attitude toward international products because they perceive that an international product is of a better quality than domestic products (Sae-Jiu, 2007). Not only is there a perception regarding product quality, but Thais also view foreign products as being more durable, attractive and fashionable (Sae-Jiu, 2007). Other research from Hoon and Lim (2001) claims that Thai people are proud of their work achievements and financial assets; they love to share their wealth and achievements with other people. It could be said that the materialistic Thai people purchase perceived status from luxury brands in order to represent themselves in society, hence Thai consumers are passionate toward international brands. Thus, the above could be significant factors toward the Thai consumer's perception and behaviour.

Thai consumers are characteristically innovators; Chaisitthiroj (2007) claims that Thai consumers constantly change and try different cosmetic brands based on new technologies and product innovations: they easily switch brands in the event of new technology or innovation. However, 80 to 85 per cent of Thai consumers demonstrate brand loyalty with low product involvement (Speece, 1998).

In addition to this, Thai cosmetics consumers consider these influential factors (scientific research, brand image and product ingredient) before making a purchase decision: it is generally maintained that brand name is the most important and influential factor in the decision making process (Phoosangthong and Sermsiriwivat, 2006). With regard to demographic issues, Phoosangthong and Sermsiriwivat (2006) note the following in Thai consumer behaviour: the more income they earn, the greater the purchasing volume of cosmetic products; in addition, the older the consumers are, the higher price they are willing to pay for cosmetic products.

2.11 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has reviewed developments in the literature on luxury brands. Various terms relating to luxury brands have been examined, including economic, psychological and marketing perspectives. The term 'luxury' appears everywhere in our everyday lives. Therefore, Kapferer (1997), who is a dominant luxury brand scholar, states that, "luxury

defines beauty; it is art applied to functional items. They offer more than mere objects: they provide reference of good taste ... Luxury is the appendage of the ruling classes” (p. 253).

Several scholars that have studies and contributed to knowledge on luxury brand characteristics (Vigneron and Johnson, 1999; 2004; Vickers and Renand, 2003; Dubois et al., 2001). Luxury brand research had been applied to luxury handbag (Joshie, 2011), luxury hotel (Pollitt, 2013), luxury fashion (Kim, 2013). Therefore, this research contributes to knowledge on luxury cosmetic sector.

The present chapter aimed to present an essential background for this research – the concept of luxury brands, particularly luxury cosmetic brands and luxury brand applied to experiential marketing. It provided a rationale why this study has been conducted in Thailand in the industry of luxury cosmetic brands. This chapter explained the previous definitions of the luxury brand and the background of the luxury brand, referring back to the ancient Greek and Roman empires, where luxury began. Also, this chapter demonstrated the consumption of luxury, and the significant differences between the historic and contemporary consumption of luxury resulting from luxury products and services having become reachable and affordable for middle-class consumers (and occasionally low-class consumers). Narrowing the focus of this research, the dimensions of experiential luxury marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing were set out. While some existing studies have applied experiential marketing to luxury brands in general, there is significant scope for improvement. Furthermore, this study places the attention particularly on the luxury cosmetic industry; the luxury cosmetic company strategy and consumer perception in various countries has been illustrated in the previous chapter. An explanation of the drivers of luxury cosmetic brand strategy as conceived by Kapferer and Bastien (2009) has been offered in this chapter – drivers which are particularly important in this study.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW OF EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have:

1. Presented the foundations of this thesis by introducing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives and a brief explanation of the research methodology. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were outlined followed by a summary of the research limitations and a brief review of the contents of each chapter.
2. Provided the concept of luxury brands, outlined definitions, perspectives and characteristics of luxury brands. Reviewed the marketing concepts of luxury brand consumers together with luxury brand consumption. In addition, explored the dimension of luxury brands applied in experiential marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing. Presented the context used for this study; the luxury cosmetics industry in Thailand.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the essential background of research related to the experiential marketing phenomenon. This chapter addresses the scholarly as well as existing literature relating to this topic and provides an overview of the current study.

Section 3.2 of this chapter gives a background of experiential marketing. Next to be considered is the literature pertaining to the management of experience that is applied in the philosophy, science, sociology and psychology, anthropology and ethnology, management science and marketing literatures. Then, the fields of experience – product experience, service experience, shopping experience and consumption experience – will be presented. The congruence between traditional marketing and experiential marketing will be explained and discussed.

3.2 BACKGROUND OF EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING

Pine and Gilmore (1999) were the original researchers who introduced experiential marketing in the economics literature. They explained that, “when a person buys a service, he purchases a set of intangible activities carried out on his behalf. But when he buys an experience, he pays to spend time enjoying a series of memorable events that a company stages to engage him in a personal way” (p. 2).

Therefore, Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), the founders of experiential marketing in the consumption and marketing areas, stated that experiential marketing is a consumption of fantasies, feelings and fun. The idea of experience has been widespread in the marketing literature in different contexts comprising brand experience, consumption experience, product experience, shopping experience and service experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2010). It is generally believed that today’s consumers not only purchase products or services based on their functional usage but also consider their experience with the products/services offered, this characteristic of consumer behaviour could potentially guide marketing managers to novel marketing strategies, for example on how to fulfil customers’ demands and build customer loyalty is based on the concept of experiential marketing.

As a result, the concept of experiential marketing had been applied in branding theory (brand personality, brand attitude, brand trust and brand attachment) and continues to draw interest and the attention of scholars and practitioners (Schmitt and Rogers, 2008; Smith and Milligan, 2002; Lindstrom, 2005; Gobé, 2001; Morrison and Crane, 2007; Fournier, 1998). The questions for this study are: What is the relationship between brand experience and other brand constructs and how is it affected when it is applied in the luxury cosmetic brands industry? How is brand experience defined and thereby distinguished from related constructs? However, due to brand experience being a relatively new topic and there being a less of consensus regarding what brand experience really is, there is little information to answer these questions. As a result, an understanding of how brand experience relates to luxury cosmetic brands, and thereby affects consumer behaviour (loyalty) directly or indirectly via brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction, has remained elusive.

3.3 THE CONCEPT OF EXPERIENCE

Most recently, there has been a dramatic increase in terms of recognition of the value of experience; companies have begun to move away from their traditional commercial approach towards developing brand experience and by doing so adding value to their products and services (Brakus et al., 2009; Alloza, 2008; Schmitt, 2009; Ha and Parks, 2005). Experience has been adaptive in various fields including science, philosophy, sociology and psychology, and anthropology and ethnology (Carù and Cova, 2003). Studies of customers' experience conducted over the last few years have resulted in the realisation of the notion of brand experience. However, brand experience is still a relatively new concept and there is a paucity of literature relating to it. Therefore, this study will mention the essentials of brand experience as recognised at the present time.

The definition of experience has been stated using a variety of terms. According to the Collins Advanced Dictionary (2009, p. 544), the definition of experience is that, “experience is knowledge or skill in a particular job or activity which you have gained because you have done that job or activity for a long time” or “the past events’ knowledge and feelings that make up someone’s life or character” or “something that you do or that happens to you especially something important that affects you”.

Another definition according to the A.S. Hornby (2010) Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (p. 533–534) is that, “experience is knowledge and skill that you have gained through doing something for a period of time” or “the things that have happened to you that influence the way you think and behave” or “events or knowledge shared by all the members of a particular group in society that influences the way they think and believe” or “to have and be aware of a particular emotion or physical feeling”.

From these definitions, the conclusion has been made that experience is generally claimed as an accumulation of previous knowledge or skills and/or activity and something important that affects feelings and behaviour. Ismail (2010) identified that, “emotions [are] provoked, sensations felt, knowledge gained and skills acquired through active involvement with the firm pre, during and post consumption” (Table 3.1). However, in the marketing literature Schmitt (1999) argued that, “experiences occur as a result of encountering, undergoing or

living through things ... provide sensory, emotional, cognitive, behavioural, and relational values that replace functional values” (p. 57).

Table 3.1: Definitions of Experience in Different Disciplines

Discipline	Definition
Science	In the generic sense inherited from positive sciences, an experience is similar to an experiment based on objective facts and data that can be generalised. It is important to recognise a distinction between experience in general and a <i>scientific</i> experience. A common experience provides the individual with particular knowledge, a scientific experience provides universal knowledge valid for all (Agamben, 1989, p. 5 cited in Carù and Cova, 2003).
Philosophy	An experience is a personal trial which generally transforms the individual: to ‘experience’ something leads to an accumulation of knowledge. Moreover, this is singular and not universal knowledge. Experience is therefore gained when what happens is translated into knowledge, not when it only remains a simple lived occurrence (Dilthey, 1976, p. 61).
Sociology & Psychology	Experience is a subjective and cognitive activity which allows the individual to develop. The notion of experience is generally defined (Dubet, 1994, p. 3) as ‘a cognitive activity’, ‘a test’, ‘a means to construct reality and, above all, to verify it’. There is (Dewey, 1934) an intrinsic connection between experience, whether natural or social, and aesthetic form.
Anthropology & Ethnology	Experience is the way in which individuals live their own culture and, more precisely, ‘how events are received by consciousness’ (Bruner, 1986:4). In conceptual terms, it is also distinguished from the concept of event, as the latter is something general which happens to others, to society, to the world. Experience is something singular which happens to the individual (Abrahams, 1986, p.5).
Management Science	Experience is all about personal occurrence, often with important emotional significance, founded on the interaction with stimuli which are the products or services consumed (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982, p.132).

Source: Adapted from Carù and Cova (2003)

The notion of experience has been developed over the period from Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), the founders of experience in the consumption and marketing fields. After several years, Addis and Holbrook (2001) described experience as a key element in understanding

consumer behaviour; in 1999 Pine and Gilmore studied experience in the economy; and most recently, experience has been adapted in marketing studies (Schmitt, 1999; LaSalle and Britton, 2003; Brakus et al., 2009).

Table 3.2: Experience Definition by Authors

Authors	Years	Definitions
Holbrook and Hirschman	1982 (p.132)	Experience is a personal occurrence, often with important emotional significance, found on the interaction with stimuli which are the products or services consumed.
Pine and Gilmore	1999 (p. 12)	Experiences are events that engage individuals in a personal way
Schmitt	1999 (p. 60)	Experiences involved the entire living being. They often result from direct observation and/or participating in the event- whether they are real, dreamlike or virtual.
Brakus et al.	2009 (p. 52)	Brand experience as subjective, internal consumer responses that can be categorised into sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual intentions evoked by brand-related stimuli.
Gentile et al.	2007 (p. 397)	The customer experience originates from a set of interactions between a customer and a product, company, or part of its organization, which provoke a reaction. Experience is divided into five dimensions: sensory experience, affective experience, cognitive experience, physical experience and social-identity experience.
Meyer and Schwager	2007 (p. 2)	Experience is “the internal and subjective response that customers have of any direct or indirect contact with a company. Direct contact generally occurs in the course of purchase, use and service, and is usually initiated by the customer. Whereas, indirect contact most often involves unplanned encounters with representations of a company’s products, services, or brands and takes the form of word-of-mouth recommendations or criticisms, advertising, news reports and reviews”
Fornierino et al.	2006	Experience categorises into five distinct dimensions: sensorial-perceptual, affective, behaviour, social and cognitive (cited in Gentile et al, 2007, p. 389).

Ismail	2010 (p. 22)	Emotions provoked, sensations felt, knowledge gained and skills acquired through active involvement with the firm pre, during and post consumption.
Author	2011	Brand experience is conceptualised as a sensory, affective, behavioural, intellectual and social-related evoked by brand related stimuli which divides into two categories namely: external brand experience and internal brand experience. External brand experience comprises behavioural and social-related experience. It refers to the outsource experiences that affect a perception of experience such as experience from advertising, neighbour, celebrity, family, social norm and community. Internal brand experience refers to an actual experience or self-experience, and includes sensory, affective and intellectual experiences.

3.3.1 Typologies of Experience

In an article by Carù and Cova (2003) it is suggested that experience generally falls into three categories: flow experience, peak experience and extraordinary experience.

Flow Experience

Csikszentmihalyi (1988) pioneered research in flow experience, having first noticed the phenomenon while studying certain aspects of group behaviour. Csikszentmihalyi (1977) identified that the concept of flow experience occurs when there is “a unified flowing from one moment to the next, in which he is in control of his actions, and in which there is little distinction between self and environment, between stimulus and response, between past, present and future” (p. 36). Moreover, flow experience is characterised as an intense concentration and enjoyment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Csikszentmihalyi (1997) highlighted that there are two dimensions of flow experience: the skills and the challenge. While Csikszentmihalyi (1990) posits that flow experience is an enjoyable experience, a flow experience for one consumer may be unfavourable or unappreciated by another consumer; the enjoyment of the flow experience generally depends on the associated skills and challenges (Arnould et al., 2002; Kent, 2010).

Peak Experience

In the 1960s, Maslow explained peak experience as a central phenomenon in humanistic psychology – a powerful feeling, an unusual experience of joy, intensity, cheerfulness and so on (Maslow, 1968). Furthermore, he noted peak experience as a period of supreme happiness, pleasure and achievement (Maslow, 1968). Similarly, Davis et al. (1991) gave a clear definition of the peak experience as “the best, happiest, most wonderful moments of one’s life. A peak experience has some (but usually not all) of the following characteristics: an almost overwhelming sense of pleasure, euphoria, or joy, a deep sense of peacefulness or tranquillity, feeling in tune, in harmony, or at one with the universe, a sense of wonder or awe, altered perceptions of time and/or space, such as expansion, a feeling of deeper knowing or profound understanding, a deep feeling of love (for yourself, another, or all people), a greater awareness of beauty or appreciation, a sense that it would be difficult or impossible to describe adequately in words” (p. 88).

Extraordinary Experience

An earlier study in the 1980s on the extraordinary experience defined it as the “sense of newness of perception and process” (Privette, 1983, p. 1366). Later on, Arnould and Price (1993) asserted that the extraordinary experience provides positive, enjoyable, intense experience, attention, individual control, power of awareness, joy and valuing. This experience evokes a high level of emotional intensity and experience happens from an unexpected or remarkable situation. Moreover, it could be an unusual positive event that leads to surprise and excitement (Oliver, 1999). Abrahams (1986) highlighted the difference between the ordinary experience and the extraordinary experience, saying “on the one hand there is a flow of activity and on the other, distinctive marked-out acts and events, all going under the name of experience. Moreover, the very flow of the everyday assures that continuity between routine activities and the more extraordinary ones. We have become aware of the continuities between the ordinary and the ‘deeper’ or ‘higher’ events through performed mimetic experiences, which openly imitate (and stylize) everyday acts and interactions” (p. 68).

To sum up, emotional intensity and the relational mode are the keys identifying the differentiation between peak, flow and extraordinary experiences (Arnould and Price, 1993).

Unexpected situations are the most significant characteristic of the extraordinary experience and contribute emotional intensity, especially the importance of interpersonal interaction.

3.3.2 Field of Experience: The Experience Concept in Consumer and Marketing Research

It is generally discussed in the consumer and marketing research arenas that consumers often perceive experience when they search for products, shop, get services and also consume them. The discussion below will provide a clear explanation.

Product Experience

Brakus et al, (2009) noted that product experience might occur in either a direct or indirect way in consumers as long as they have interactions with the product; product experience directly affects customers when they consume the products, and indirectly by advertisements, word of mouth and so on.

It is generally agreed that advertising plays a crucial role in the consumer's perception of product experience (Hoch and Ha, 1986). Advertising has been considered as a firsthand experience before consumers purchase or try products (Wright and Lynch, 1995). There is some argument concerning the advantages and disadvantages of advertising; some consumers indicate that advertising insults their intellect. Conversely, consumers claim that advertising helps them to make a better decision (Hoch and Ha, 1986). Wright and Lynch (1995) contend that advertising is a less effective source of information compared to direct experience. Hoch (2002) maintains that personal experience is stronger and more trusted than information received via marketing sources; people are likely to believe and trust their own experience more than what they are told by marketing sources. As advertising campaigns have become low-credibility sources, people are placing more trust in their ability to learn about new and existing products themselves rather than believing the surrounding information such as advertisements. However, efficient product advertising *can* create positive experience by showing proof of product performance in the advertising (Hoch and Ha, 1986).

Furthermore, the majority of consumers do not adjust their previous experience of a product and so doubt their familiarity with a new product, not to mention actual product knowledge. In other words, consumers often become confused by recalling knowledge from their previous experience; sometimes wrongly expecting the same result even for a new product (Hoch, 2002). Kempf and Smith (1998) contend that the experience gained from external information is insufficient – advertising cannot provide better experience than the direct experience of the actual products due to direct experience of the product affecting the consumer's attitude and behaviour. The above assertion has been supported by Moore and Lutz (2000); they argued that older children, because of the education and knowledge they have received, tend to trust product experience more than younger children: adolescents adopt greater critical thinking based on the information received by other experiences or advertising programmes. Experience affects attitudes and beliefs, it could be said that when people believe in something, they make less considered judgements (Ofir and Itamar, 2001).

In the main, advertising is firsthand experience before purchasing and trying, although Wright and Lynch (1995) argue that advertising can happen *after* using the product due to a product trial, such as a free sample. Kempf and Smith (1998) defined a product trial as “a consumer's first usage experience with a brand and a critical factor in determining brand beliefs, attitude and purchase intentions” (p. 325). It may be noted that consumers may perceive the product experience from product trials (Kempf and Smith, 1998). The study demonstrated that advertising has an influence on the consumers' perceptions in product trials (Deighton and Schindler, 1988; Smith, 1993).

It is the true that experience engages consumer intuitiveness and is stored in their memory for a period; awful or fantastic product experiences will affect customers' purchase intentions, and so experience has a relationship with senses and feelings (Simon, 1995; Hoch, 2002). However, to increase consumer confidence in advertising, Hoch and Ha (1986) suggest that product experience should provide more certain evidence, and data-driven and accommodative processing.

Service Experience

Recently, the phenomenon of service experience has been found to be vital in the consumer behaviour area, and most notably in satisfaction/dissatisfaction theory (Brakus et al., 2009; Hui and Bateson, 1991). Satisfaction is highly related to cognitive and affective responses to a purchase decision (Griffin, 1998; Bagozzi et al. (1999), the detail of which is explained in Chapter 4. Hui and Bateson (1991) define service experience as “the consumer’s emotional feelings during the service encounter” (p. 174). Hume et al. (2006) inform us that, “service experience relates to a number of contributory events and a number of transactions or interactions between a customer and a provider in the exchange of the service” (p. 307).

The service experience does not happen in isolation, but happens when there is an interaction between the consumers and the surrounding environment, such as the atmosphere, sellers, advertising and so on (Singh, 1991; Hume and McColl-Kennedy, 1999).

There is widespread belief that the service experience occurs when consumers encounter services such as a store environment, service from staff, assortment and prices (Bolton et al., 2000; Singh, 1991; Sherman et al., 1997; Verhoef et al., 2009): essentially, the service from staff, staff behaviour, attitude, their ability to satisfy customers’ demands and provide a differentiation from their competitors. Therefore, it could be said that only employees can offer an ultimate service: Alloza (2008) declares that the employees in the organisation are its ambassadors.

Furthermore, the studies by Sherman et al. (1997) and Verhoef et al. (2009) counsel that store atmosphere, scent, music and colour influence the service experience; generally speaking an attractive store environment affects customers’ emotions, affecting such areas as decision-making and could reduce the decision-making process while increasing the service experience.

It is recognised that service quality relates to service experience via consumer perception and expectation (Boulding et al., 1993). In the same way, positive or negative service experiences occur from the quality of that service. A large number of scholars have studied service quality: for example, Gronroos (1984) asserts that service quality is divided into three factors

– technical, functional and reputational; Parasuraman et al. (1985) utilises the SERVQUAL model to identify the difference between the customer expectations and the perception of service performance. Gronroos (1984) concludes that service quality depends on two variables, namely expected service and perceived service. An article by Gronroos (1984) argues that previous service experience also affects consumer expectations of service quality. The perception of service quality takes place when there is a comparison between consumer expectations and the service experience. Hence, expected service influences service experience; there is a factor that affects expected service, which is promise; it can be generated from advertising and/or word of mouth. Promises can be used to engage customers and also give an expectation to them. Gronroos (1984) suggests that to avoid overly high expectations of service quality, the promises from either advertising or other communication methods should be based on reality.

Nonetheless, Bolton et al. (2000) and Hume et al. (2006) recommend that loyalty programmes and customer satisfaction do play a crucial role related to service experience. Customer loyalty and customer satisfaction result from good service experiences. Again, a high level of satisfying experience will make it less likely that customers will switch to another service provider (Bolton et al., 2000).

Other existing literature suggests that marketers or researchers should be aware of the factors that cause service experience – it is not only the interaction between the company or its employees and the customers that causes good or bad service experience, but also the interaction between the customers themselves (Baron et al., 1996; Martin, 1996; Martin and Pranter, 1989).

Shopping Experience

Over the past decade, there have been several arguments regarding the essential strategy for success in business; therefore, the creation and the maintenance of customers remains crucial (Parasuraman et al., 1985; Reichheld and Sasser, 1990; Zeithaml et al., 1990). As a result, a customer satisfaction strategy is a key factor in the retention of existing customers; however, Arnould et al. (2005) claim that a customer satisfaction strategy may be ineffective because it may lead customers to expect faultlessness from companies. Schlossberg (1990) opines that

customer delight is another important aspect under customer satisfaction. Customer delight happens when a customer perceives an unexpected (positive) experience – such enjoyable experiences are powerful in developing loyal customers. Obviously, in order to create customer delight, a company has to think further than a traditional satisfaction marketing strategy; the literature on social psychology and marketing present that emotion and experience are key factors to the improvement of customer delight (Rivera et al., 1989; Oliver and Westbrook, 1993). Moreover, the context of the shopping experience will be used to examine how to delight or appal customers.

Many researchers (Schlossberg, 1990; Rivera et al., 1989; Oliver and Westbrook, 1993) have studied the aspect of shopping, but Csaba and Askergaard (1999) first discussed the context of the shopping experience in malls. Babin et al. (1994) observe that the study of the shopping experience was focused on behaviour and utilitarianism before shifting to the importance of the hedonistic value of shopping. A positive emotional experience while shopping results in more time spent in store, higher purchasing volume, more unplanned purchases and an affirming experience in the store (Babin et al, 1994). Carù and Cova (2003) discerned that consumers are mostly involved in internal responses during their shopping – the sensory, imaginary and emotive aspects.

The shopping experience for the most part happens when a consumer interacts with the products or environment in a store, but recently, due to the rapid improvement of technology, consumers can also have a shopping experience via a cyber world – commonly known as e-shopping. The different factors affecting customers' shopping experience between traditional shopping (in-store shopping) and online shopping will be presented later on. It has been frequently maintained that there are several variables affecting attitudinal and behavioural responses in the shopping experience; for example, price, product quality, salespeople and value of perception (Roger et al., 1992). The above factors are likely to influence customer satisfaction, patronage decisions and purchase behaviour. It has been confirmed by Ghosh and McLafferty (1987, cited in Kerin et al., 1992) that, “The value a customer receives from shopping at a particular store is determined jointly by the quality of the shopping experience and price” (p. 377). Similarly, Kerin et al. (1992), Zeithaml (1988) and Buyukkurt (1986) state that price and value perception affect customers' perceptions when they go shopping. Kerin et al. (1992); Kent and Kirby (2009) also maintain that the shopping place has a

relationship between consumer perception and the shopping experience; for instance, the perception of the price and product quality in the retail store generally affects the store image.

The shopping experience can result in favourable or unfavourable experiences, depending on the customer's perspective (Arnould et al., 2005). In a store, shopping experiences can be influenced by a salesperson, the store's atmosphere and the ambience (Kerin et al., 1992). As mentioned above, a salesperson is one of the most important factors affecting the shopping experience; Arnould et al. (2005) confirm that seller behaviours (the speed of response, politeness and an ability to fulfil customer demands) influence the customer's perception of the shopping experience. Schneider and Bowen (1999) provide illustrations of poor shopping experiences; they observe that customers usually perceive a shopping experience as unfavourable when they have been charged for an extra item or a salesperson breaks a promise; impolite behaviours that indicate that the salesperson does not care.

The shopping experience affects consumers in both direct and indirect ways. For example, a customer receives his/her shopping experience directly from the store's ambience. In addition to this, merchandise prices, the quality of the products, advertising, the store's location and promotions indirectly affect a customer's shopping experience (Zimmer and Golden, 1988; Kent and Kirby, 2009). Kerin et al. (1992) argue that there are several factors to maintaining a positive shopping experience, such as the perception of crowdedness, product prices and the store's atmosphere. However, the results from Kerin et al.'s (1992) research claims that the perceptions regarding product prices are slightly more essential than those regarding product quality in relation to the store shopping experience.

In contrast, even though online customers cannot perceive the value of the products in a store or have the attention of a salesperson, Parsons (2002) identifies that customers are able to perceive music, background stimulus and other images via sensory stimulation. He also proves that these stimulations affect customers' purchasing behaviour and their spending time on a website (Parsons, 2002). Furthermore, Ahmad (2002) reveals that product quality and service quality are significant aspects that influence online shopping. Ahmad (2002) states that the major problems in online shopping come from product errors and/or a lack of service quality such as defective products, late delivery, expensive shipping costs and wrong products. However, regarding these online shopping experiences, while people may fear

Internet shopping the number of online customers is continually increasing due to attractive product prices, convenience and promotions (Parsons, 2002).

Consumption Experience

Consumption experiences normally happen when consumers actually use products/services. Havlena and Holbrook (1986) briefly describe the consumption experience as strong feelings or emotions about the situation and their reactions.

Researchers and scholars concentrate on the emotion, imagination and evaluation components of the consumption experience. The role, and important factors of, the consumption experience are mentioned in the work of Holbrook and Hirschman (1982). Holbrook et al., (1986, cited in Havlena and Holbrook, 1986) claim that the characteristics of consumption experiences include utilitarian/hedonic, tangible/intangible or subjective/objective components; on the other hand, consumption experiences tend have subjective components such as emotional feelings, rather than objective components. In a later work, Havlena and Holbrook (1986) assert that one of the most essential aspects of consumption experience is the emotional aspect.

In terms of the consumption experience, the emotional aspect means a multiple discriminant analysis (Havlena and Holbrook, 1986); it may be argued that the emotional aspect should be discussed more in order to understand consumer behaviour, product usage, leisure activities and so on. Emotions in the consumption experience arena truly affect consumers' behaviour and decisions. For instance, people might feel they want to buy an iPhone more than a Blackberry smart phone, even though they offer have the same primary function (communication) and many of the same features. Hence, it is certainly claimed that the consumption experience is an antecedent of the emotional experience, which generally occurs after consumers consume the products/services, or even brands.

1. Definition and varieties of the consumption experience

Consumption should not be characterised as “a mere act of devouring, destroying, or using things” (Firat and Dholakia, 1998, p. 96), for it is equally engaged in producing the

consumption experience, the source of consumer value (Holbrook, 1999), so much so, in fact, that consumption itself might be considered as “an experiential phenomenon. Indeed, in a phenomenological sense consumption consists of the generation of internal thoughts [and] sensations, which constitute the content of experience” (Hirschman, 1984, p. 115).

As with other species of experience, the experience generated by consumption is always an experience of something, pointing in this case to a consumption object, which can be physical, phenomenal, mental or even spiritual in nature. Relationally defined as well, consumption experience cannot be understood in isolation from its object, whose corresponding valence, qualities and content lend meaning to experience (Mitias, 1982). Another key element in consumption experience, of course, is that the consumer is ubiquitous; the ever present ‘I’ in every experience’s narrative. This ‘I’, after all, is the author of its experience; it is the unity of its experiences. It is also the agent which structures the experience. During the experience, ‘I’ remains the subject which authors the experience and also the medium within which the object becomes a living, meaningful reality in the experience (p. 159).

The phenomenon of the consumption experience is described further below, beginning with a general, literature-based typology. The typology will serve as the framework for a perspective on the consumption experience. The final section presents the rationale for focusing the study on a single consumption experience.

2. The varieties of consumption experience

Consumer research scholars (Addis and Podesta, 2005) regard experience as “the core of consumption, and at the same time the core of marketing, for one simple reason: experience is the decomposition of the individual’s life” (p. 404). Small wonder, then, that the phenomenon of the consumption experience is increasingly the subject of scholarly inquiry, particularly in the marketing research informed by evolutionary psychology (Bagozzi and Nataraajan, 2000; Brakus, 2001; Cary, 2000; Colarelli and Dettmann, 2003; Hantula, 2003; Lynn et al., 1999; Saad, 2006; 2007; Saad and Gill, 2000; Schmitt, 1999a; Zarantonello et al., 2007).

According to psychoevolutionary theory, the experience of consuming is not a seamless cognitive event, but rather a kaleidoscopic mosaic continuously refreshed by an ongoing stream of cognitive events – each produced by a highly selective, domain-specific psychological adaptation shaped by the forces of natural selection. The cognitive functions of such evolved mechanisms are analogous to the optical mechanics of the eye, which is designed to gather and process precisely those bands of the electromagnetic spectrum that evolution has deemed relevant to humans as a species. These equally specialised and discerning evolved cognitive mechanisms respond only to the stimuli and cues representing certain contextual, informational or situational domains of evolutionary significance – each of which corresponds to a particular adaptive problem. The experiences these mechanisms frame as neurocognitive events are defined by these same domains. Viewed through an evolutionary lens then, human consumption experience reveals a complex underlying structure of diverse, domain-specific events, all products of the special-purpose cognitive mechanisms that comprise the psychobiological endowment of humans as a species (Buss, 1995; 1999; Cosmides and Tooby, 1987;1994;1997; Duchaine et al., 2001; Geary and Huffman, 2002; Kenrick et al., 1998; Pinker, 1997; Tooby and Cosmides, 1990; 2005; Wells, 1998).

Because experience is both organised and classified by mechanisms that evolution has designed to operate within a particular cognitive domain, consumption “experiences can be dissected into different types, each with [its] own inherent structures and processes” (Schmitt, 1999b, p. 64). The marketing literature points to a typology of consumption experiences with seven distinct dimensions: aesthetic, affective, epistemic, generative, hedonic, relational and transformative (Brakus, 2001; Brakus et al., 2009; Lai, 1995; Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Poulsson and Kale, 2004; Richins, 1997; Schmitt, 1999a; 1999b; Zarantonello et al., 2007). These evolutionarily defined consumption experiences can be summarised as follows:

Aesthetic consumption focuses perceptive attention on the gestalt of sublime, often captivating qualities that characterise the aesthetic consumption object. These qualities attract and promote consumer interest in a potentially positive aesthetic experience. In so doing, they not only prompt an assessment of the object’s perceived aesthetic value but trigger feelings based on that valuation – feelings that ground consumption experience aesthetically (Charters, 2006; Mitias, 1982;1988). Across the consumptions cape, the aesthetic emotions of

consumers both motivate and guide their preferences and behavioural choices. Underlying this whole dynamic are psychological mechanisms that have evolved specifically to detect as well as respond to aesthetic value, particularly those phenotypic qualities identified with beauty. *Neurocharms*, for instance, serve as beauty detectors within each domain of aesthetic judgement. They are also designed to mediate the changes in brain chemistry and mental state that make the experience of beauty emotionally moving and psychologically rewarding. Moreover, insofar as these aesthetic adaptations are an integral part of human evolutionary history and fitness, today's consumers are, in effect, reliving the aesthetic experience of ancestral humans – especially in terms of day-to-day, species-typical consumption choices involving, say, physical attractiveness, social status, habitat and mate selection. In such domains, consumers reprise their evolutionary role as aesthetes (Charters, 2006; Etcoff, 2000; Gangestad and Scheyd, 2005; Postrel, 2004; Saad, 2006; 2007; Saad and Gill, 2000)

Affective consumption does not hinge or focus on any one particular species of consumption objects; nor does it merely qualify a type of relational experience with those objects. The reason for affective consumption in this sense is found in the nature of emotion itself. First and foremost, emotions are the neuropsychological substrate of all experience, including consumption (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). This is why, for example, retrieved memory (i.e. stored experience) comes with its own emotional 'tag' (LeDoux, 1998). Along with others of the brain's deep mental structures, basic emotions perform a core evolutionary function as well (Neese, 1990): as psychoneural prototypes, they generate valenced affective states, which are themselves the source of the affective 'values' (i.e. fitness-based behavioural parameters) that motivate and otherwise steer individuals towards situationally adaptive behaviour (Panksepp, 2005). It is through such affective states that emotions condition as well as participate in the consumption experience. That these experiences are emotionally charged does not mean, however, that they also carry the same experiential values. In fact, as their typology reveals, the various consumption experiences can and do differ in terms of object-related experiences and values.

Epistemic consumption harnesses the epistemic content of knowledge objects. These objects enable consumers to assimilate the kaleidoscopic world around them and build a cognitive-experiential base for successful decision-making. The advent of the knowledge society, characterised by its knowledge-based industries (e.g. microbotics, distance learning

and bioengineering) and content-rich technology (e.g. personal electronic devices, e-shopping and artificial intelligence), has only increased the dependence of consumers on knowledge objects. In spite of their growing importance, knowledge objects tend to be elusive, offering consumers only “layered revelation” (Zwick and Dholakia, 2006b, p. 17). For consumers, this means “a continuous knowledge project” (p. 21), over the course of which the “epistemic consumption objects reveal themselves progressively through interaction, observation, use, examination, and evaluation” (p. 17), all consumption behaviours that reflect the pursuit of epistemic value. A ready illustration of this epistemic quest is the interplay between consumer-investors and the stock market, doubtless the ultimate knowledge objects in a market-driven economy (Zwick and Dholakia, 2006a).

Generative consumption excites consumer behaviour through a combination of inspiring, memorable and motivational experience. Drawing upon its emotional content, resonance and intensity, as well as contextual salience, this type of consumption experience provides the psycho behavioural impetus for heightened and sustained interaction with a consumption object. In relation to market objects, generative experience creates the conditions for behavioural loyalty and emotional commitment – as evidenced, say, in return patronage, participation in a consumption community, brand devotion and evangelism, and the purchase of brand extensions and memorabilia (Baldinger and Rubinson, 1996; Bloemer and Kasper, 1995; Jacoby and Kyner, 1973; Keller, 2001a; Knox and Walker, 2001; McAlexander et al., 2003; Muñiz, 1998; Muñiz and O’Guinn, 2001; Pimental and Reynolds, 2004). Among the better-known practitioners of what might be called generative marketing are Apple, Harley-Davidson and professional sports teams.

Hedonic consumption is directed at experiential sources of pleasure, novelty, sensation, play, intellectual stimulation, satiety and emotional gratification (Hirschman, 1984; Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Hopkinson and Pujari, 1999). This species of consumer behaviour, then, is at once self-interested – guided by a pleasure principle of “fun, amusement, fantasy, arousal, sensory stimulation, and enjoyment” (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982, p. 135). The consummatory experiences of pleasurable consumption elicit positively valenced emotions, such as joy, passion, contentment, exuberance, love and jubilation (Havlena and Holbrook, 1986; Hirschman and Stern, 1999; Richins, 1997). Hedonically charged emotions are generated in a wide variety of experiential contexts, including theme

parks (Bigné et al., 2005; O’Guinn and Belk, 1989), games (Holbrook, Chestnut, Oliva and Greenleaf, 1984), high-risk leisure activities (Arnould and Price, 1993; Arnould, et al., 1999; Celsi et al., 1993), music (Lacher, 1989;1991; Santoro and Troilo, 2007), shopping (Langrehr, 1991; Scarpi, 2005) and sporting events (Holt, 1995; Pimental and Reynolds, 2004).

Relational consumption engenders a sense of connection with consumption objects, spurring the formation of emotional bonds and dyadic relationships (Fournier, 1998). In respect of brand objects, relational interaction is tied to consumer perceptions of brand attributes – personality, value and resonance in particular. Brands that incorporate human personality traits, for example, creating the impression of shared emotions, meanings and values, can more readily serve as vehicles of consumer self-expression as well as social and self-identity. Consumers also gravitate towards, and as a result tend to invest emotional capital in, brands perceived as embodying personalities similar to their own (Aaker, 1997). This same relational dynamic applies to the set of consumption benefits (e.g. affective, epistemic, hedonic and transformative) that showcase the consumer value of brand experiences and relationships (Lai, 1995). The most enduring of brand relationships, though, develop from brand resonance, which not only inspires a depth of brand loyalty and commitment that approaches religious devotion but a kind of evangelical zeal and intensity as well (Keller, 2001a; 2001b). Brands that resonate with consumers amplify brand experience in positive, meaningful and memorable ways, creating the psycho-relational context for brand attachment (Thomson et al., 2005).

Transformative consumption involves experiences that motivate effecting fundamental, if affirmative, change in the lives of consumers, especially in ways that benefit consumer welfare, development, quality of life, ecology and potentialities (Mick, 2006). Transformative experiences are not limited to revelatory, road-to-Damascus-type events, however; they can also culminate in a series of staged or customised experiences specially designed to bring about some desired personal change (e.g. the restoration of a positive body image through the use of health and fitness products; Pine and Gilmore, 1999). Also transforming are the cumulative effects of natural phenomena, psychological flow, immersion and adrenalised adventure, “a combination that converted white-water rafting, for instance, into an experience steeped in – river magic” (Arnould and Price, 1993, p. 24–45), with the

power to transform the minds and emotions of consumers in ways that enable them to be more in touch with nature, to join in fellowship (i.e. communities) and open themselves to self-renewal (Arnould et al., 1999). Thus, despite differences in the circumstances or context of their appearance and operation, transformative experiences all share the same goal: effecting a transformation in which the consumer is also the product (Pine and Gilmore, 1999).

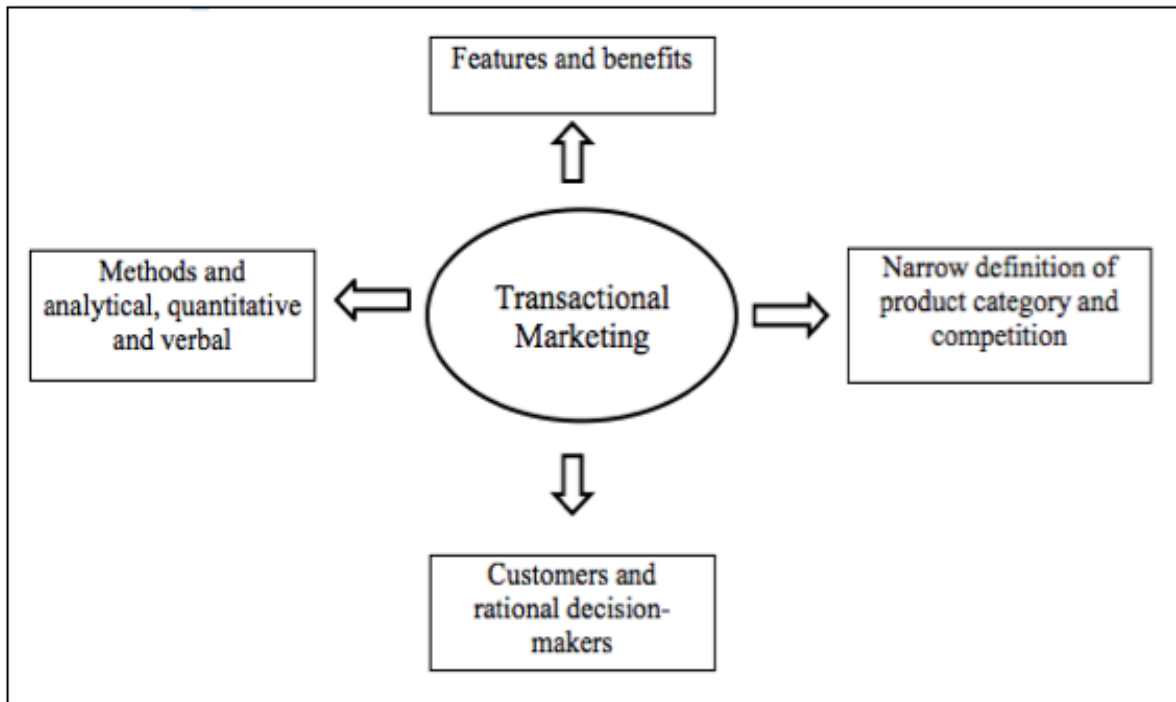
The source of both consumer value (Holbrook, 1999) and consummatory benefits (Lai, 1995), these consumption experiences are readymade for an experience economy in which experience is the new currency (Pine and Gilmore, 1998).

To sum up, the majority of research demonstrates that experience plays an important role especially in marketing practice. The literature on marketing and consumer behaviour highlights that experiences happen in everyday life such as when consumers participate with products and services including searching, shopping, receiving and consuming (Arnould et al., 2002; Brakus, Schmitt and Zhang, 2008; Holbrook, 2000; Brakus et al., 2009). Furthermore, the concept of experience can be applied indirectly via advertising and marketing communication (Brakus et al., 2009). However, it is necessary to understand the fundamentals of transactional marketing due to transactional marketing being powerful strategies in some particular businesses.

3.4 CONGRUENCE OF TRANSACTIONAL MARKETING AND EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING

Experiential marketing is a new approach in marketing strategy; previously, transactional marketing has emphasised consumers as rational decision makers that take functional features and benefits as the first criteria. Conversely, experiential marketing mainly focuses on consumers as rational and emotional decision makers (Schmitt, 1999a). In addition, marketers and practitioners imply transactional marketing consists of the principles and concepts of product features, the behaviour of consumers and competitive activities (Schmitt, 1999a). Thus, these concepts have been used to develop (improve) new products, communication campaigns and strategies against competitors (Schmitt, 1999a).

Figure 3.1: Characteristics of Transactional Marketing

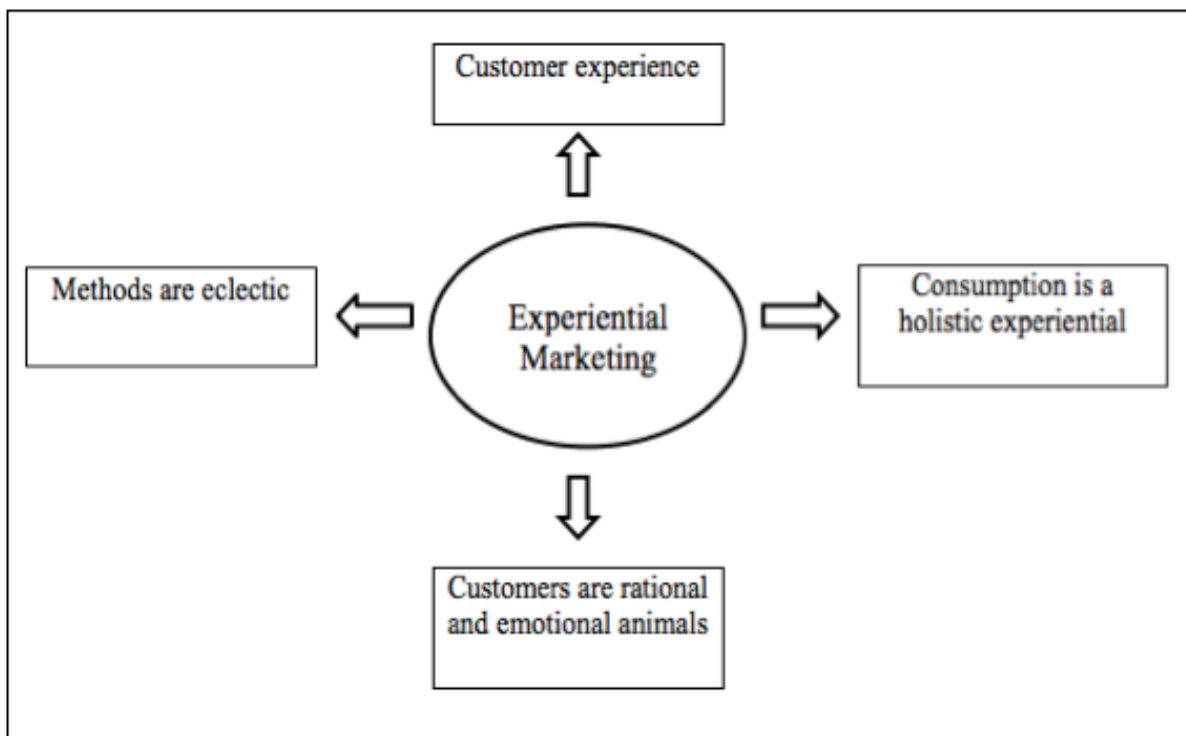


Source: Adapted from Schmitt (1999b)

Evidently, there are four characteristics of transactional marketing, namely functional features and benefits, product category and competition, customer rational decision makers, and methods and tools (Schmitt, 1999b). First, functional features and benefits have been mainly emphasised in transactional marketing. In terms of features, Kotler (1994) describes that a feature is a basic function of a product or a characteristic of a product’s function. Transactional marketers try to differentiate their products by promoting their product’s benefits from the product’s features because they believe that consumers select products based on the functional usage of the products (Schmitt, 1999b). For instance, marketers advertise toothpaste based on its features and benefits: cavity prevention, tartar control and whitening (Schmitt, 1999a). Second, product category and competition are narrowly defined. It is generally agreed that the product line is a significant consideration factor in terms of competition (Schmitt, 1999b). In the same way, Schmitt (1999b) observes that with the competition strategy in the transactional marketplace, companies are likely to compete against the other competitors in the same range (product line). For example, Pepsi competes against Coke but not against Green Tea; L’Oréal competes against Max Factor, Rimmel and Revlon but L’Oréal does not compete against Chanel, Dior and La Mer. Last but not least, customers are viewed as rational decision makers in transactional marketing. It refers to

reasoned decision steps providing need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and consumption (Schmitt, 1999a). Finally, methods and tools: it is certainly correct that typical marketing uses analytical, quantitative and verbal methods and tools to evaluate consumers (Schmitt, 1999b). In order to forecast consumer purchasing behaviour, product choices and/or product positioning, marketers collect data by interviews as verbal information, or surveys as quantitative data (Schmitt, 1999a).

Figure 3.2: Characteristics of Experiential Marketing



Source: Schmitt (1999b)

On the other hand, Schmitt (1999b) describes another four characteristics of experiential marketing: customer experiences, consumption as a holistic experience, customers being rational and emotional, and methods and tools.

First, there is a contrast between transactional marketing and experiential marketing; while the above mentioned that transactional marketing is likely to focus on features and benefits of products, experiential marketing puts a heavy weight on customer experiences (Schmitt, 1999a). Experiences comprise sensory, affective, intellectual, behavioural and social-related aspects; all of these aspects can replace functional values (Schmitt, 1999b). Second, experiential marketing views consumption as a holistic experience. For example, experiential

marketers will not market individual products but they will market and advertise them as a package to enhance customer experience (Schmitt, 1999a). In terms of competition, instead of a narrow product category, experiential marketing focuses on all product lines under the same category. The example from Schmitt (1999a) informs that McDonald's compete against not only Burger King or KFC but also every fast-food product including 'quick bite' or 'hang-out' (other brands of fast-food products). Third, in experiential marketing, customers are emotional decision makers; therefore, consumers are likely to select products or brands based on their emotions more than rationale (Schmitt, 1999b). According to Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), experiences pursue fantasies, feelings and fun; Robinette et al. (2002) claim that experience accumulates from senses, information and emotions. Fourth, there are analytical, quantitative and verbal methodologies in transactional marketing, whereas experiential marketers use multi-faceted techniques such as eye-movement methodology to analyse the way consumers think about products or advertisements, and the brain-focusing method to understand imagination and creative thinking (Schmitt, 1999a).

3.5 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has been an overview of the previous thinking and current thinking on the meaning of experience in various disciplines such as the psychology discipline, marketing discipline and philosophy discipline; however, this study focuses on the marketing discipline. This chapter has provided a clear review of the overall background of experience, the typology of experience as well as experience in various contexts comprising consumption experience, service experience, shopping experience and product experience. Moreover, it has demonstrated an explanation of transactional marketing and experiential marketing together with their importance. These are essential to the background of research related to experiential marketing as applied in the study of the luxury cosmetic brand experience. Therefore, today's consumers not only purchase products or services based on their functional usage, but also consider their experience with the products/services offered; transactional marketing would not be enough to create effective strategic marketing, instead experiential marketing is needed. Experiential marketing characteristics could potentially guide marketing managers to novel marketing strategies, for example, on how to satisfy customers and build customer loyalty based on the concept of experiential marketing.

Most of researches conduct experiential marketing theory in area of product experience (Hoch and Ha, 1986; Brakys et al, 2009; Hoch, 2002; Ofir and Itamar, 2001), service experience (Hui and Bateson, 1999; Hume et al, 2006; Verhoef et al, 2009), shopping experience (Parsons, 2002; Carù and Cova, 2003; Kent and Kirby, 2009) and consumption experience (Addis and Podesta, 2005; Saad, 2006; Brakus et al., 2009). However, brand experience is a relatively new topic with little existing research, further research is needed to inform our lack of understanding in this regards, how experiential marketing applies into brand phenomenon, what is really meant by brand experience and what dimensions constitute brand experience.

The following chapter will explore the literature on the branding phenomenon, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty, and highlight the main focus of the present study: brand experience. It will also provide the theoretical application for this research.

CHAPTER 4

LITERATURE REVIEW OF BRAND EXPERIENCE AND OTHER BRAND CONSTRUCTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have:

1. Presented the foundations of this thesis by introducing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives and a brief explanation of the research methodology. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were outlined followed by a summary of the research limitations and a brief review of the contents of each chapter.
2. Provided the concept of luxury brands, outlined definitions, perspectives and characteristics of luxury brands. Reviewed the marketing concepts of luxury brand consumers together with luxury brand consumption. In addition, explored the dimension of luxury brands applied in experiential marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing. Presented the context used for this study; the luxury cosmetics industry in Thailand.
3. Reviewed inconsistencies relating to the definition of experience in various disciplines. Presented fields of experience including product experience, service experience, shopping experience and consumption experience. Importantly, this chapter showed the congruence between transactional marketing and experiential marketing.

This chapter delves into the phenomenon of branding and other brand constructs, especially brand experience – the main focus of this study. The chapter gives an explanation and definition of a brand and other brand constructs. Thus contextualised, the rationale behind the study's intended focus on brand experience, the source of its dependent variables, is presented.

The author will highlight the meaning of brand, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction, consumer loyalty and eventually, the heart of this research, brand experience. The concept of brand experience will be described clearly, including the major components

of brand experience: sensory experience, affective experience, intellectual experience, behavioural experience and social experience; In addition, the study's criterion variables (consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty) will be reviewed along with a discussion of the previous research relating to the research variables.

4.2 THE CONCEPT OF BRANDS AND OTHER BRAND CONSTRUCTS

A large number of scholars have traced the evolution of brands. Brands as trade or proprietary names have been found since 1922 (Stern, 2006). Today, brands impact on every aspect of life, and are not simply a means of differentiating products or services from competitors. The definition and the concept of brands and other brand constructs, namely brand experience, brand personality, brand trust, brand satisfaction and brand loyalty, are demonstrated below.

4.2.1 Conceptual Definition of a Brand

There are large numbers of definitions of a 'brand' in the existing literature; Aaker (1991) describes a brand as a signal to the customer, the source of the product and what makes the product different from those of the competitors. A brand comprises a name, symbol, letter and slogan, the most vital of which is the name – which should remain constant. It provides the means by which customers can identify products or services (Weilbacher, 1995). Additionally, from the customer perspective, brands can be defined as a collective of their experiences and can create customer contact points. The following definitions offer other perspectives on what can be considered a brand "A brand is not a product; it is the product's source, its meaning and its direction and it defines its identity in time and space" (Kaperer, 1992, p. 12). "A product is anything that meets the needs of the consumers whereas the brand is a name, symbol ..." (Doyle, 1989, p. 78).

Moreover, Keeble (1991) asserts that brands can be perceived differently by virtue of emotions, rationale, physical reactions, packaging and price. Bullmore (1984) claims that the difference between a brand and a product is that a product is made in a factory; the product is tangible, while the brand is something bought by consumers with a complex set of

perceptions and satisfactions (Bullmore, 1984). In addition to this, a brand is also generally recognised as a cluster of value satisfactions that is used to differentiate it from the competitors (Levitt, 1983). From these definitions, it can be concluded that, “Brand is a name, sign, symbol or design or a combination of them which is intended to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and differentiate them from those of the competition” (Kotler, 1994, p. 295).

It is widely accepted that branding and brand management have been well recognised and used as companies’ strategic objectives for many years (Kapferer, 1992; Keller, 2008; Post, 2008). Building a strong brand is one of the crucial goals of a brand management strategy. Strong brands result in higher revenues (Aaker, 1991; Kapferer, 2004; Keller, 2003), enjoy customer loyalty, charge premium prices (Ghodeswar, 2008), reduce cost and greater security of demand (Temporal, 2000). The brand concept and how a brand affects consumer behaviour have been developed by brand researchers. The brand concept includes brand personality (Aaker, 1991), brand community (Fournier, 1998; Grossman, 1998; McAlexander et al., 2002; Muñiz and O’Guinn, 2001), brand relationships (Fournier, 1998), brand trust (Lau and Lee, 1999; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2012) and brand attachment (Thomson et al., 2005). All of these brand concepts pull brand researchers and practitioners to develop and discover further knowledge.

4.2.2 Brand Experience

4.2.2.1 The Notion of Brand Experience and its Importance

The term brand experience is frequently employed in relation to the creation of a competitive advantage for companies, as well as a positive impact on the brand. However, there is still much debate over exactly what brand experience is and what constitutes brand experience. Therefore, this section will provide brand experience definitions in the marketing, brand management and consumer behaviour literature, as well as an overall concept of brand experience.

In 1997, Schmitt referred to ‘superficial out of profundity’ (SOOP) as a brand experience. The author described that the concept of SOOP is to focus on the experience perception of

brand rather than the other influential variables such as price and information processors. The brand experience originates from a set of interactions between a customer and a brand, a company or a part of the organisation involved. Nowadays, the term ‘experiential branding’ is of interest to marketing academics; also, in the business arena ‘experiential marketing’ has become mainstream to discuss (Schmitt, 2009). For example, the SEB bank in Frankfurt (Germany) is building its brand by using an experiential marketing strategy: by providing an affective experience (emotional and feeling) whereby customers are greeted personally in a wide open area with a warm welcoming atmosphere, forming a peaceful and comfortable impression on their customers, unlike traditional banks (Atwal and Williams, 2008). Schmitt (1999a) stated that experiences are stimuli responses that happen in the realistic, dream or cyber world.

Brand experience refers to the knowledge and familiarity of consumers towards a brand or brand category (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). It is generally agreed that internal consumer responses are significant dimensions of experiential marketing. Brand experience can give both positive and negative perceptions; also, it can remain in the mind short-term or long-term (Brakus et al., 2009). Weinberg (2001), Murphy and Smith (1982) note that brand experience is more crucial than product experience; brand experience is able to be held in long-term memory and have deeper meaning, which can contribute to brand trust. Companies improve their brand philosophy by re-evaluating customers’ contact points, analysing what the customers’ essential needs are and delivering the ‘right’ brand experience (Ghodeswar, 2008).

Braunsberger and Munch (1998) conclude that brand experience is an exposure of a high-level expression of familiar things with a particular subject. Hirschman and Holbrook (1982), Padgett and Allen (1997) and Brakus et al. (2009) contend that brand experience consists of subjective, internal consumer responses that can be categorised into sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual intentions evoked by brand-related stimuli. These brand-related stimuli have been shown to be a part of brand identity (brand logo, brand name), packaging, communications and environments (Schmitt, 2009). In addition, Schmitt (1999a) and Gentile et al. (2007) categorise experience into five types: sensory experience (sense), which is visual, sound and olfactory; affective experience (feel), which refers to feelings and emotions; cognitive experience (think); physical experience (act) and social-identity

experience (relate). Fornerino et al. (2006, cited in Gentile et al., 2007) categorise experience into five distinct dimensions: sensorial-perceptual, affective, behavioural, social and cognitive. There will be more explanations of the five distinct brand experience dimensions later on in page 61.

Chang and Chieng (2006) divide brand experience into two categories: individual experience and shared experience: individual experience includes ‘sense’, ‘feel’ and ‘think’ experiences, while ‘act’ and ‘relate’ experiences are subsets of shared experiences. According to Meyer and Schwager (2007), experience is “the internal and subjective response that customers have of any direct or indirect contact with a company. Direct contact generally occurs in the course of purchase, use and service, and is usually initiated by the customer. Whereas, indirect contact most often involves unplanned encounters with representations of a company’s products, services, or brands and takes the form of word-of-mouth recommendations or criticisms, advertising, news reports and reviews” (p. 2).

Moreover, the author suggests that brand experience is conceptualised as sensory, affective, behavioural, intellectual and social-related evoked by brand-related stimuli, which divides into two categories, namely external brand experience and internal brand experience. External brand experience comprises behavioural and social-related responses. It refers to the outsource experiences that affect the perception of experience such as experience from advertising, neighbours, celebrities, family, social norms and the community. Internal brand experience implies an actual experience or self-experience; it includes sensory, affective and intellectual responses. Thus, Schmitt (1999b) gives an explanation of the nature of experiential marketing, that efficient experiential marketing management is created when there is an effort to manage and bond the customer’s experience with the product and brand.

In today’s changing market environment, brand experience is a significantly important matter. The feature ‘brand experience’ is arguably essential; Schmitt (1999b) asserts that desirable customer experiences generated by information technology, brands, entertainment and integrated communications are successful keys for future business and the global marketplace. In the marketing literature, the concept of ‘brand experience’ has been used diversely; however, this field of research has not witnessed any notable progress, and this arguably accounts for the absence of any lucid dimensions of brand experience. To this end,

the following section will provide an explanation of perception theory centred on brand experience, brand experience dimensions and the previous research regarding brand experience.

4.2.2.2 Theoretical Foundation of Brand Experience

Branding theory construction has been influenced by various disciplines – cognitive information processing approaches of economic and behavioural sciences, consumer psychology and social communication-based approaches (Wilkie and Moore, 2003; Nandan, 2005; Swystun, 2006). In addition to this, branding theory has contributed to financial and strategic management disciplines (Wood, 1996).

There are a large number of renowned academics such as David Aaker, Jean-Noel Kapferer, Susan Fournier, Kevin Lane Keller, Bernd H. Schmitt and Josko Brakus who have established branding principles and theoretical frameworks. It is undisputed that all have made extensive contributions and also developed theoretical frameworks in the strategic brand management literature (Aaker, 1991, 1996; Keller, 2003; Kapferer, 2004; Schmitt, 1999a; Fournier, 1998). The present research will build upon the study of Bernd H. Schmitt and Josko Brakus.

Offering experience is argued to be a solution to developing a new trend of strategic marketing (Schmitt, 1999a) for every type of business that seeks to offer the consumer emotional, sensory, cognitional and behavioural experience. Schmitt (1999b) explained that, at present, customers are not only looking for products, but they are also searching for a new experience. For example, Tiffany & Co., applied sensory marketing into their product: the image of the blue box with the white ribbon sends a message of an elegant and fine jewellery experience to their customers (Schmitt, 1999b). Moreover, the research from Brakus et al. (2009) supports that a positive experience results in consumer loyalty. Thus, the following section will discuss the perception theory of brand experience and the dimensions of brand experience.

A) Brand Experience and Consumer perception Theory

The theory of self-perception originates from Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance (Bem, 1967). Bem's work explains that cognitive dissonance occurs when a person experiences a feeling of discomfort from holding two conflicting beliefs. Bem (1967) states that self-perception is "an individual's ability to respond differentially to his own behaviour and its controlling variables is a product of social interaction" (p. 184).

The trend of 'experience' has increased and has drawn the interest of companies that are striving to create their core company competency and/or competitive advantage (Schmitt, 1999a;1999b; Schmitt and Rogers, 2008; Joseph, 1910; Mascarenhas et al., 2006; Chang and Chieng, 2006). There are several discussions on experience perception and how consumers perceive and evaluate experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Chang and Chieng, 2006; Schmitt, 1999b).

Lau and Lee (1999) observe that brand experience can be understood as consumers' feelings *after* they consume particularly in the area of usage, while Davis et al. (2000) and Padgett and Allen (1997) offer evidence that brand experience is a response to brand-related stimuli and occurs *during* the consumption. Additionally, Alloza (2008) contends that it is not always recognised that brand experience happens only after consumption or during consumption, but it also happens *before* consumption, including interaction between the consumers and the brands. For example, customers judge or predict the brand based on their knowledge or perception before they decide to have a relationship with the brand (Lau and Lee, 1999). It could be said that brand experiences may happen anytime as long as they involve an interaction with the brand (Brakus et al., 2009).

Conversely, brand experiences may be delivered to customers without any interaction with the product – by marketing communication (television or radio broadcast, and the most important, word of mouth) or referrals (family, friends and colleagues) (Lau and Lee, 1999). Furthermore, brand experience does not always result in a positive experience; a consumer may have an existing preconception about the brand that affects his forecast of its future performance (Lau and Lee, 1999; Brakus et al., 2009). When they do occur, positive brand experiences often have a positive effect on the price (non-sensitive prices). Brand experience

is associated with purchase intention and influences brand trust (Ha and Perks, 2005), consumer satisfaction (Brakus et al., 2009; Oliver, 1997) and brand personality (Brakus, 2009). Ha and Perks (2005) provide an example of Internet consumer behaviour; internet shoppers are usually price seekers, but positive brand experience can change price seeker behaviour to loyal behaviour – internet users become non-sensitive to price when they have a positive brand experience.

The above paragraph demonstrates that there are several ways to perceive an experience. Additionally, Alloza (2008) comments that brand experience can be propagated by the employees of the company; a positive experience is generated by the delivery of good service and brand promises to the customers. Thus, employees are an absolutely essential factor in delivering brand experiences. Alloza (2008) indicates that it is not only the interaction between the customer and the brand that is able to contribute a brand experience but also the employee's role is considered as an essential aspect: the employee generates positive brand experience, brand trust and long-term relationships with their customers when they satisfy their customer's objectives and wishes. The employee (employee behaviour and employee attitude) is effectively a marketing tool to create brand experience. Therefore, it could be said that brand experiences have a relationship with customer expectations (Alloza, 2008; Nairn, 2008). Nairn (2008); DeWulf et al (2001); Robert et al (2003); Papista and Dimitriadis (2012) assert that brand trust results in consumer loyalty and long-term commitment.

B) Dimensionality of Brand Experience

As explained above, Schmitt (1999a) and Gentile et al. (2007) divide experience into five dimensions, namely sensory (sense), affective (feel), cognitive (think), physical (act) and social identity (relate). In addition, Fornerino et al. (2006, cited in Gentile et al., 2007) also suggested that there are five distinct dimensions that contribute experience: sensorial-perceptual, affective, behavioural, social and cognitive. A recent research of Brakus et al. (2009) argued that there are four dimensions that are included in the brand experience scale: sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural. The following section will present an explanation of the five dimensions of the brand experience.

1. Sensory experience

The term sensory experience relates to both experience and perceptions concerning our senses – sight, sound, scent, touch, taste and smell (Brakus et al., 2009). The purpose of sense marketing is to present an aesthetic impact via sensory stimulation. Simonson and Schmitt define sensory experience as “marketing aesthetics as the marketing of sensory experiences in corporate or brand output that contribute to the organization’s or brand’s identity” (Schmitt, 1999b, p. 18). The marketing aesthetic literature explains that sensory experiences can be used to create brand identities (Schmitt, 1999b).

A study by Schifferstein and Desmet (2007) describes the roles of sensory modalities, and how the users feel or experience if the sensory modalities are blocked. People receive information during the interaction with a product by the different senses: Schifferstein and Desmet (2007) state that, “each sensory modality is sensitive to a different type of energy and is stimulated by different product properties” (p. 2026). They contend that an assessment of people’s sensory functions plays a crucial role in ergonomics research because each sensory modality results in different information; for example, the vision sense results in functional information, the auditory sense results in communication capacity and feeling, and the olfaction sense mainly results in the total intensity of the experience (Schifferstein and Desmet, 2007). It is necessary to understand each sensory modality as they help to predict and forecast how the product is experienced.

The Role of Sensory Modalities

There is widespread belief that vision is the most significant sensory modality and dominates human experience (Fiore and Kimle, 1997). In contrast, Schifferstein (2006) found that vision is not always the most important one; he argued that the significant role of sensory modality depends on the category of the product, product usage in general and its role; for instance, for a vacuum cleaner the sound characteristics were considered to be the most important, for beverages the taste is crucial and for a cleaning product, it is its smell (Schifferstein and Desmet, 2007). In addition, Hinton and Henley (1993) researched the difference between processing visual information and processing olfactory information. The result demonstrated that the olfactory modality is more likely personal and has stronger affective components

than the visual modality. Moreover, the adjectives used to describe the smell normally refer to the smell experience itself – such as sweet and sour for a strawberry; while the visual modality evokes the texture, colour and shape, characteristics that are considered cognitive components (Hinton and Henley, 1993). However, the functional use of the olfactory is limited to particular products such as cleaning products, perfumes or personal care and food items (Schifferstein, 2006). Hinton and Henley (1993) inform that visual stimuli are directly stored in people's minds – visual stimuli capture images such as information on products and the region of origin and store them in people's memory.

Touch and audition are also important components in sensory modality. Fischer et al. (1976) reveals that people receive product information from touching; the sense of touch helps people to identify and recognise objects easily. On the other hand, Peck and Wiggins (2006) argue that the tactual sensory does not provide product information, but rather it evokes an affective response which affects consumer decision-making.

Furthermore, audition (voice), such as speech and music, is generally maintained as a critical aspect in the expression of emotion (Scherer, 2003; Herz, 1998; Krumhansl, 2002). Sounds or voices connected with products may affect the emotions towards products (Schifferstein and Desmet, 2007). What's more, audition is considered as a part of verbal communication. Schifferstein and Desmet (2007) suggest that audition can be used as a tool to transfer product information and communicate to people.

From the experience perspective, Schifferstein and Desmet (2007) conclude that vision and touch are the most powerful senses in order to provide product details. Although vision and touch are able to obtain more information compared to other modalities, Jones and O'Neil (1985) argue that vision relatively provides more information than touch due to the vision sensory attaining product information on various aspects and more rapidly than touch. In contrast, audition in verbal processing does not afford useful information. Comparing between all the sensory modalities (vision, audition, touch and olfaction), it is commonly agreed that olfaction is the least likely to obtain information about a product (Schifferstein and Desmet, 2007). Thus, sensory modalities influence the information perceived and the product/service experience.

Consequences of Missing Sensory Information

It is frequently maintained that absent sensory information will influence receiving information, increasing the risk of missing information and the difficulty in anticipating information; therefore, it is likely that an incorrect or inappropriate decision will be made (Schifferstein and Desmet, 2007). Obviously, sensory modalities affect a person's feelings; thus, sensory impairment results in feelings of uncertainty and confusion due to the limitation in the information received.

Rover and Ganguli (1998), Scilley and Owsley (2002) and Lin et al. (2004) concur that cognitive function decreases when the visual sensory is blocked. Without the visual sensory people lose the means of reference to judge locations etc. (Marcel and Dobel, 2005). It is recognised that people with visual impairments face difficulties in day-to-day 'living' activities and participation in social and recreational activities (Owsley et al., 2001). Schifferstein and Desmet (2007) expound that without the visual sensory, products are experienced as less pleasant and less familiar. In addition, tactual impairment prevents a person from making sense of the physical experience (Cole, 1991). Schifferstein and Desmet (2007) agree that people who have lost their proprioception of sense lose the ability to perform motor movements that most people would deem natural.

Audition impairment has been associated with mortality and hopelessness (Anstey et al., 2001; Weinstein and Ventry, 1982; Jones et al., 1984), it is the major component of communication difficulties and information cut-off; it. Miwa et al. (2001) and Blomqvist et al. (2004) show that odour impairment influences overall satisfaction; they demonstrate that overall satisfaction can drop by 50 per cent in the case of an olfactory problem; also, it is likely to increase depression symptoms. Similarly, a lack of the olfactory sense is dangerous and can be a health hazard – consider, for example, leaking gas and toxic fumes (Schifferstein and Desmet, 2007). Significantly, olfactory impairment reduces the intentional and emotional senses in product experiences (Schifferstein and Desmet, 2007). Schifferstein and Desmet (2007) explain that hearing and smelling impairments are slightly less important in terms of receiving tasks and experiencing products, but found that the products were perceived as less predictable and less pleasant as a result.

Regardless of the disadvantages of sensory impairment, there can be some advantages – imperviousness from unlikeable stimuli such as noise and unpleasant smells (Schifferstein and Desmet, 2007) – consequently, sensory impairment reduces a large number of distraction stimuli. Moreover, there is widespread belief that when vision has been blocked, the experience becomes more intense as heightened attention is paid to other sensory modalities (Schifferstein and Desmet, 2007).

Sensory Experiences in Experiential Marketing

Sensory experiences can be adapted to marketing in order to differentiate either products or services (Schmitt, 1999b). Parsons and Conroy (2006) assert that sensory stimulation not only affects products but also affects sales and services such as entertainment services. Parsons and Conroy (2006) state that sensory stimulation “is a part of browsing experience” (p. 78). In 1974, Kotler noted that the senses stimulated in a physical department store affect consumer behaviour during their shopping – music (Yalch and Spangenberg, 2000), colours (Crowley, 1993) and store atmosphere (D’Astous, 2000). Store atmosphere has become the emotional criterion to attract customers (Turley and Milliman, 2000). Store atmosphere delivers emotional experience, feelings and excitement to consumers during their store visit, therefore, the perception has changed, it has shifted from a utility perspective based on information seeking, to a hedonic perspective where the store atmosphere influences them (Yalch and Spangenberg, 2000). The sensory and affective experiences are likely to evoke emotion stimuli and generate a vision of an environment of hedonic gratification (Turley and Milliman, 2000).

In contrast, Persons (2002) application of sensory stimuli in an online store had the result that the sensory stimuli was not found to affect online shoppers apart from aural and visual stimulation. Previous research by Milliman (1982) determined that background music on a website affects shopping duration – slow background music leads consumers to spend more time shopping; likewise it may be used to motivate customers and increase the value of products/services (Schmitt, 1999a).

Moreover, there is the example of Tiffany & Co., a successful company that is using sensory marketing to enhance the experience of their products. Colour is one of the company’s main

marketing strategies – the majority of consumers perceive that the blue box with the white ribbon is a signature of Tiffany & Co. The image of the blue box with the white ribbon links to elegance and fine jewellery, to the extent that it is known people sometimes buy jewellery from elsewhere and package it in a Tiffany & Co. box in order to increase the perceived product value (Schmitt, 1999b).

2. Affective experience

The phenomenon of affective experience is not only reviewed in the psychology literature but also in consumer research and marketing research. The word ‘affective’, in all languages, has become an all-embracing term which is often used to express feelings, moods and emotions. According to Pallister and Isaacs (2003, p. 18), affective is “one of three main components of the attitudes a person (potential customer) can have regarding an object or phenomenon. The effective component is concerned with the customer’s emotional reaction and involves such questions as: Is this brand good or bad? Is it desirable? Is it likeable?”

The objective of affective experience is to understand consumers’ feelings rather than their thoughts (Edell and Burke, 1987). The perception of fun and enjoyment refers to the affective experience; affective experience ranges from an extremely positive to a terribly negative mood. It could be said that affective experience comes from the customer’s inner feelings and emotions. The research by Fazio and Zanna (1978) and Smith and Swinyard (1983) indicates that affective experience has a strong influence on future purchasing and consumer behaviour due to a relationship between affective and prior experience. People use their feelings of being satisfied or dissatisfied, liking or disliking during the experience to direct their future purchase (Cowley, 2007). However, Christian and Safer (1996) argue that affective not only occurs *during* the prior experience, but is also evoked *before* (for instance, positive or negative feelings generated from an advertisement or a story told by another person (Cowley, 2007)) or *after* the experience.

To create a positive engagement between a customer and a brand or service, companies need to focus on understanding the stimuli that can trigger a customer’s emotions (Schmitt, 1999a). Schmitt (1999b) observes that the more a company understands moods and emotions, the more they can create and develop a strategic marketing plan.

Emotions are deep intense feelings, such as attraction, longing, shame, discontent and love. Some cosmetic companies choose their product name based on an emotional state: for example, Clinique has a perfume called ‘Happy’, then there is Gucci’s ‘Envy me’, followed by Estée Lauder’s ‘Beautiful’ perfume, the advertising of which shows a charming bride with a fantastic gown, surrounded by adorable little girls. This advertising captures a connection between the happiness and joy of the wedding day and the experience of using the Estée Lauder perfume –this advertising recalls strong emotions (Schmitt, 1999b). Edell and Burke (1987) discern that the affective component may be judged and/or perceived differently depending on an individual’s personality traits. The affective experience is one of many companies’ strategic plans, using experience as a key driver.

Furthermore, previous researchers have explained that affective or emotions can be created by product experiences and services situations, but most often happen during consumption situations (experience) (Richins, 1997). Schmitt (1999b) supports that feelings have a significant effect during consumption; strong feelings arise from contact points and when consumers interact with products or services, they continue to develop and accumulate over a period. For instance, activities such as eating Haagen-Dazs ice-cream, driving jet-skis and skydiving, all result in enhancing strong emotions and impressions over time, the most important being that they create a positive experience.

3. Intellectual experience

Analyses of intellectual experience can be found in the psychology literature and in cognitive studies (Guilford, 1956). Intellectual experiences are mostly referred to as thinking, cognitive and problem solving, with the concept of ‘intellectual’ be divided into two major factors – thinking and memory factors; other factors include cognition, product and evaluation factors (Guilford, 1956; 1959), divergent thinking and convergent thinking (Guilford, 1956; 1950).

Schmitt (1999b) states that the aim of the thinking factor is to stimulate and encourage customers to think creatively about a company and its brands; this aim may result in company innovation and creative products. The object of the memory factor is to ensure the company and brand are recognised, both in the near future and over a longer period (Guilford, 1959). Cognition refers to discovery, which can be differentiated by the kinds of things discovered,

such as classes, patterns, problems and relations (Guilford, 1956). The process of product thinking encourages people to contribute new ideas, to recall previous information, think widely and search for more information/knowledge, it is popularly used in technology products and it is common in product design, retailing and communication in companies (Schmitt, 1999a; Guilford, 1959). The evaluation factor is mostly concerned with the decision-making process, rethinking the result, determining whether it is good or bad. It could be called the judgemental step (Guilford, 1956). Schmitt (1999b) explains that convergent thinking is systematic and critical thinking. Conversely, divergent thinking is flexible (the idea being able to change easily), brainstorming thinking (the ideas generated from different sources) and unusual thinking (out of the box ideas) (Schmitt, 1999b).

Apple provides a good example of intellectual experience – the iMac innovation was launched using an intellectual marketing campaign under the slogan ‘think different’; this campaign guided people to think differently regarding Apple computers and other computer brands, other computer software and Macintosh; it also encouraged people to *experience* differently when they used Apple products (Schmitt, 1999b).

Schmitt contends that the objective of intellectual experience is to urge customers to think differently (1999b). Thus, intellectual experiences drive customer creativity (Schmitt, 1999a; Chang and Chieng, 2006); however, consumers are required to have existing basic knowledge in order to think differently.

4. Behavioural experience

Behavioural experience has been reviewed in the physical body experiences, consumer behaviour and marketing literature (Schmitt, 1999a; 1999b; Gentile et al., 2007). Schmitt and Rogers (2008) claim that behavioural experience is an ‘act’ experience; its objective is to influence behaviour, physical experience, lifestyles and interactions. Additionally, Xu and Chan (2010) inform that behavioural experience is another experience that reflects the customer’s personality, lifestyle and brand. Different types of brands and customer’s perceptions can also reflect behaviour, such as people perceiving Apple computer users as more creative and more innovative than IBM computer users (Fitzsimons et al., 2008). Behavioural experience comes from the action of doing something; it does not occur after

consuming products or services but does cover all of the product life-cycle stages (Gentile et al., 2007). Thus, it could be said that people are likely to behave based on the characteristics of products and especially brands.

Behavioural experience includes physical body experience – the flesh, motor actions, interactions, lifestyles and reasoned actions (Schmitt, 1999b). Lifestyle is one aspect of behavioural experiences; it generally comes from the values and beliefs that often affect people's behaviour (Gentile et al., 2007). However, behaviours and lifestyles can be changed by motivation, inspiration and emotions (Gentile et al., 2007), and through analytical and rational approaches (Schmitt and Rogers, 2008). For instance, behavioural experience has been motivated and changed by celebrities or movie stars (Schmitt, 1999a). Nike is a classic example of act marketing – by launching the 'just do it' campaign and using famous athletes to promote the brand, resulting in 160 million pairs of shoes selling out in one year (Egan, 1998). It has been frequently affirmed that behavioural experiences can be used in the marketing practice in terms of analysing and targeting customer behaviour based on their lifestyle.

For example, a cosmetic company launched a campaign for whitening essence products in Asia because Asian people assume white skin is attractive while US people prefer to have tanned skin (Schmitt, 1999b). The above example is a good demonstration of physical body experience and behavioural experience; they help companies to allocate suitable products to the right markets and to customise their target market.

5. Social experience

Social experience has been highlighted in the brand community literature (McAlexander et al., 2002; Algesheimer et al., 2005), consumer research (Muñiz and O'Guinn, 2001), social psychology (Lau, 1989) and marketing research (McAlexander et al., 2002; Schmitt, 1999a; 1999b). Social experience goes beyond individual experience; it links to spheres outside the market as the experience from neighbourhoods may be able to change consumption behaviour; therefore, the sociology literature notes that, "social relation shapes the experience of consuming" (Edgell et al., 1997, p. 5). In addition, Schmitt (1999b) observes that social experiences go beyond all aspects, sensory experience, affective experience, intellectual

experience and behavioural experience, because they relate between the individual self (that they want to commit to) and socially towards the brand.

Social experiences comprise associations, brand communities, social identities, groups (ethnic), cultural values, social influences and interrelationships (Schmitt, 1999b). Social experiences happen when there is participation (connection) with other people or within communities among consumers; it affects the group feeling. Also, people engender a positive social experience by referring to colleagues, family and spouses (Schmitt, 1999a). Furthermore, social experience is commonly acknowledged as comprising activities within society; somehow, social experience is affected by culture. Hence, the formation of a brand community is a good description of social experience (McAlexander et al., 2002; Algesheimer et al., 2005). Muñiz and O’Guinn (2001) assert that a brand community is “a specialized, non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of relationships among admirers of a brand” (p. 412). Obviously, people from a community share ideas and experiences towards similar brands. Brand community is discussed further below.

Community theory has been the subject of interest in a variety of arenas, including sociology, philosophy and marketing practice literature, leading to some vital definitions of community; in one such study by Gusfield (1978), he notes that the most essential aspect of a community is the ‘consciousness of kind’ – the attitude perceived by members towards others and the different perceptions towards others outside the community. Community is claimed as an ancient group sharing the same norms, duties, sense of moral responsibility and even religion. Latterly, due to the improvement of technologies such as the telephone, magazines and especially the internet, community has been freed of restrictions such as geographical limitations and so has become a wider construct – the ordinary understanding of shared identity (Muñiz and O’Guinn, 2001). All of these technologies alter the previous concept of community (Wilson, 1990). The increase of modern technology raises a marketing issue; it inspires marketers to apply brands in the community concept (Muñiz and O’Guinn, 2001).

Muñiz and O’Guinn (2001) define brand community as being “based on a structured set of relationships among admirers of a brand” (p. 412). This is similar to community commitment, which is the sharing of common interests in a brand. They suggest that brand community is a customer–customer–brand triad (McAlexander et al., 2002). Moreover, Gardner and Levy

(1995) and Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) claim that the brand community is a social aggregation of brand users and their relationships with the brand itself. Its structure is based on the social relationship which has a similar preferred brand (Muñiz and O’Guinn, 2001). The majority of brands have their own community, some communities were created by those within the community and some created by an external group of people. It has been frequently maintained that a community works efficiently in terms of promoting brands or increasing the number of purchasers when it works with a strong brand image (Muñiz and O’Guinn, 2001). It could be said that a brand with a strong sense of community can generate more value compared to a brand with a weak sense of community.

In addition, it transpires that brand community is of interest to scholars in terms of its ability to influence members’ perceptions and actions (Muñiz and Schau, 2005), the study of consumer behaviour (of advantage for the company to run a competitive strategy) and also it increases opportunities to have interactions with customers and work with loyal customers (Franke and Shah, 2003). A variety of companies have applied social experience (brand community) in their marketing strategies – social experience developed marketing campaigns. Social experience consists of influences from a person, reference-group and service (Schmitt, 1999b); Martha Stewart, creator of cooking and lifestyle programmes on television, in magazines and books, exemplifies an elegant and relaxed lifestyle: Martha Stewart is perceived by most people as a model of housewife (Schmitt, 1999b). Schmitt says: “The idea – regrettably, my own – was to see whether I could be Martha Stewart in time for the holidays” (1999b, p. 173).

Moving now to the reference-group social experience example, there can be no doubt that Harley-Davidson became the most powerful motorcycle brand by using social experience or related experience. Harley-Davidson builds an extremely strong social experience for their customers. The community develops when customers buy their Harley-Davidson motorcycle; they are invited to join the local Harley-Davidson’s Harley Owner Group (HOG). Harley-Davidson hold meetings and social events, allowing Harley-Davidson’s customers to participate and share ideas. This social experience has an effective outcome, due not only to customers having similar tastes being able to share ideas and attitudes, but also from Harley-Davidson’s provision of utilitarian support and maintenance tips to HOG members. In addition to this, many owners of Harley-Davidson motorcycles willingly have the Harley-

Davidson logo tattooed on their arms in order to show the relationship between themselves and the brand (Schmitt, 1999b). As Teerlink (1996) observes, “if you ride a Harley, you are a member of brotherhood, and if you don’t, you are not” (p. 6). Moreover, it has been demonstrated that the strong brand community of the Harley Davidson Group increases members’ affection for the Harley brand, drives up customer satisfaction, tightens customers’ commitment and, importantly, influences social experience (Fournier et al., 2001). Harley-Davidson demonstrates a clear example of brand community (Fournier et al., 2001; Schouten and McAlexander, 1995).

Furthermore, the successful Harley-Davidson brand community has inspired powerful brands to create their own brand communities, such as Macintosh user groups (Belk and Tumbat, 2005), the Star Wars fan base (Brown et al., 2003), and Sun’s Java Center community (Williams and Cothrel, 2000). All of these companies duplicate Harley-Davidson’s brand community strategy. From Harley-Davidson’s successful example above, it cannot be denied that brand community works efficiently to bond customers and create value for firms (Algesheimer et al, 2005). Hence, brand community helps a company to maintain the brand–customer relationship and provide assistance on behalf of the brand (Muñiz and O’Guinn, 2001).

As discussed above, social experiences are influenced by people, reference-groups and so on. People use various methods to demonstrate themselves as a member of a specific group (Kim et al., 2001). Schmitt (1999b) gave an example of how social experience can be associated with brands by the use of celebrities: using a celebrity name as a product name will capture greater attraction from consumers. Michael Jordan (the famous basketball player) launched a perfume under his name (Michael Jordan) and his appeal had associations such as ‘home runs’, ‘sexy’, ‘sensual’ and ‘cool’. The Michael Jordan product represents the image of Michael Jordan as an Olympic Gold medallist, and the most valuable player. People purchase Michael Jordan’s products because they want others to perceive them in line with the image or characteristics of Michael Jordan (Schmitt, 1999b).

To sum up, brand experience has been distinguished into five dimensions comprising sensory experience, affective experience, intellectual experience, behavioural experience and social identity experience. It is generally agreed that all five dimensions affect the perception of

brand experience. However, the study by Brakus et al. (2009) contended that social identity experience is not a dimension of brand experience due to its low test value, because of this it is considered a less important dimension.

C) Previous Research of Brand Experience

The research undertaken by Ha and Perks (2005) investigated the relationship of brand experience, brand familiarity, brand satisfaction and brand trust on the Web. The results indicated that only brand experience has a significant influence on brand trust and revealed that a strong brand image increases the level of trust while contributing to a positive brand experience. This was a Web-based study, a limitation of which is that internet users' behaviour can change all the time.

Similarly, Lau and Lee (1999) studied consumer trust in a brand and the link to brand loyalty, researching the congruence of consumer trust in a brand and brand experience, and whether experience is likely to increase the level of trust towards a brand. They deduced that, “a consumer's experience with a brand is positively related to the consumer's trust in that brand” (Lau and Lee, 1999, p. 350). Lau and Lee's findings demonstrated that experience is an antecedent of trust; meaning experience in a brand does indeed result in an increase in brand trust (Lau and Lee, 1999). A limitation of Lau and Lee's research is one of language – the questionnaire was conducted in English and may have caused a bias in the process of selecting the respondents, Singapore has four official languages (English, Chinese, Malay, and Tamil), however, the questionnaire was limited to the English speaking participants. Moreover, the research had been narrowed by product category and durable products (not frequently purchased) were excluded. It may be argued that brand trust is more necessary in durable products because any purchasing mistake will stay with consumers for a longer period (Lau and Lee, 1999).

Additionally, brand experience has been used to test purchasing intention via brand attitude (Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2010). Consumers with a strong sense of positive brand experience similarly have a positive brand attitude, resulting in an increase in the intention to purchase. Likewise, consumers prefer to buy goods or services that provide various

experiences such as the sensory experience, affective experience, social experience and so on (Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2010). However, Zarantonello and Schmitt's (2010) study was conducted only in Italy; it is a possibility that consumers in other countries may consider functionality over experience.

4.2.3 Brand Personality

A common denominator in any type of previously suggested brand experience is the production of brand personality (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999b; Aaker, 1997; Sirgy, 1982; Dolich, 1969; Belk, 1988). Furthermore, brand personality is often cited as one of the most important theories in the consumer behaviour literature. The following paragraphs will highlight the concept of brand personality by detailing its definitions, dimensions and measurements based on an extensive review of literature, especially marketing literature and psychology literature.

Personality research explains the relationship between human behaviour and psychology. It has drawn the attention of academic researchers and practitioners in a variety of fields including sociology, management and marketing. In the management area, personality links to job satisfaction and leadership (Heller et al., 2002). In the area of marketing, researchers have studied consumer perception, preference and even behaviour, whether or not it affects consumer personality (Westfall, 1962; Sirgy, 1985). Consumer perception of brands has been considered as a very important area because of its influence over consumer purchasing decisions between products with the same functionality but different branding. Consumer research has investigated how self-expression is encouraged by brand personality (Belk, 1988; Kleine et al., 1993; Malhotra, 1981), with researchers questioning the role of the consumer's attachment style in the impact of brand personality (Swaminathan et al., 2009). There is general agreement that brand personality influences consumer purchase decisions (Phau and Lau, 2001; Freling and Forbes, 2005), customer satisfaction and loyalty (Brakus et al., 2009; Magin et al., 2003; Fournier, 1998).

However, several marketing researchers have investigated the relationship between brand personality and consumer behaviour. The findings of this research have demonstrated that the

majority of customers purchase products based on brands through which they can reflect or present their personality (Mulyanegara et al., 2007; Austin et al., 2003).

In the study of this brand construct, the researchers have examined the brand as an object identifying human characteristics (Aaker, 1997). Brand personality is used to describe human characteristics in human participation with the brand (Aaker, 1997). Correspondingly, Aaker (1997) gives a clear definition of brand personality, that is “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (p. 347). Moreover, in consumer behaviour research, there is an explanation of brand personality as the instrument to express the consumer’s ideal self or their actual self (Belk, 1988; Escalas and Bettman, 2005).

Consumers tend to use brands to describe themselves or identify their characteristics as a means of self-expression (Malhotra, 1981; 1988; Sirgy, 1982). Similarly, consumers claim a brand as a representative: they choose the brand based on the degree of similarity to their character and demonstrates their personal identities to themselves and to others. This is supported by Aaker, who claims that, “the greater the congruity between the human characteristics that consistently and distinctively describe an individual’s actual or ideal self and those that describe a brand, the greater that preference for the brand” (Aaker, 1997, p. 348).

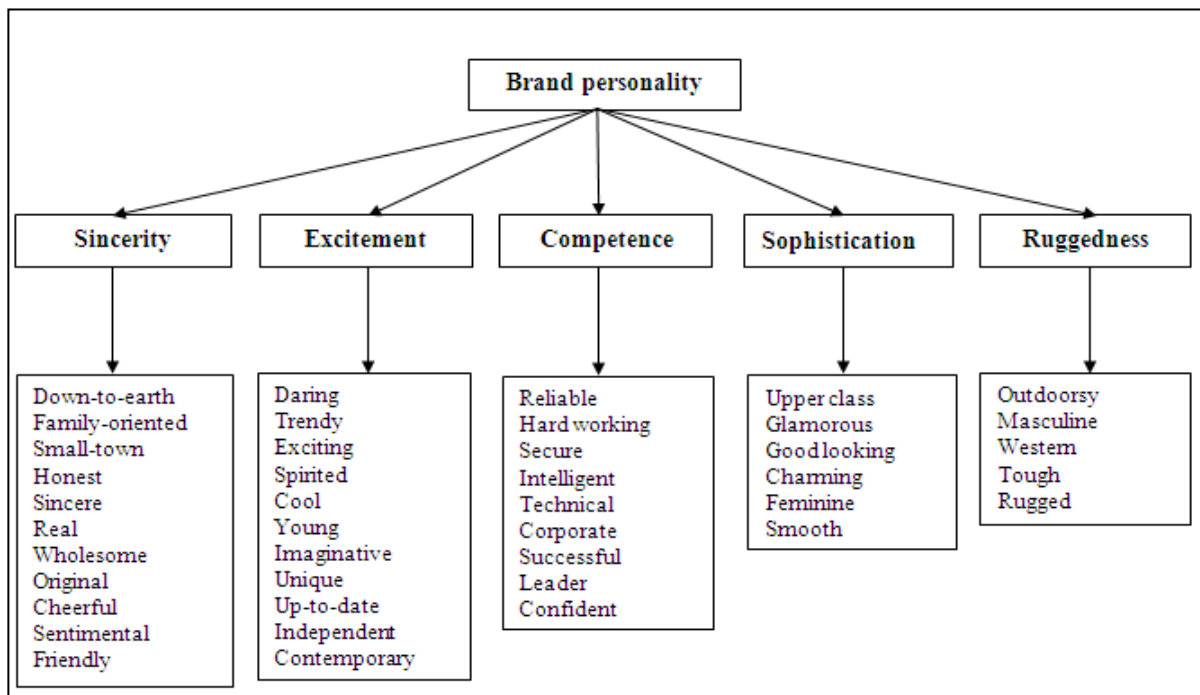
This presents an opportunity for marketers to create brand images to support the consumer’s sense of self (Batra et al., 1993). Marketers contend that the differences in consumer perceptions and attitudes towards product categories are likely to depend on emotional appeal (cigarettes, clothes and so forth) rather than utility appeal (such as cleaning products) (BBDO, 1988). For instance, Chanel sends a message of glamour and upper-class characteristics, Marlboro cigarettes show masculinity and toughness (Kim, 2000) and Absolut Vodka reflects coolness and 25-year-old age group (Aaker, 1997).

Brand personality can be measured in two ways (Aaker, 1997): firstly, ad hoc scales, which use a set of 20–300 traits, commonly applied for specific research; secondly, human personality scales, which are not popular and not valid in the context of brands. Kassarian has the following to say in connection with the measurement of brand personality “if unequivocal results are to emerge consumer behaviour researchers must develop their own

definitions and design their own instruments to measure the personality variables that go into the purchase decision” (Kassarjian, 1971, p. 415).

Aaker’s (1997) work on brand personality led to the development of a new measurement scale. She found that brand personality could be measured by using 42 human personality traits and five dimensions (Figure 4.1). The Big Five Model by Aaker has been widely used in the study of personality traits and human behaviour. Aaker’s five dimensions provide sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness. According to Aaker (1997), sincerity is typified by traits such as honesty, warmth, being down-to-earth, and family orientation. Furthermore, having independence and daring, and being contemporary and imaginative are characteristics of excitement. Being intelligent and secure, glamorous and charming are characteristics of competence and sophistication, respectively. Lastly, ruggedness demonstrates traits such as being masculine, tough, outdoorsy and strong (Freling and Forbes, 2005). These five dimensions are applied to consumers’ characterisation of brands (Aaker, 1997). However, Aaker’s study (1997) has not shown how brand personality affects important marketing variables such as brand attitude, brand trust and brand attachment. Therefore, sections that follow will shed light on the factors that influence brand personality.

Figure 4.1: Brand Personality Scale



Source: Adapted from Aaker (1997)

Influence of Brand Personality

Various scholars have shown that brand personality is affected by demographics, marketing mix (e.g. price), in-store promotions and advertising programmes (Aaker, 1997; Grohmann, 2009; Piacentini and Mailer, 2004). While personality traits are influenced by demographic characteristics such as gender, age, class and country/region (such as region) (Aaker, 1997; Grohmann, 2009; Piacentini and Mailer, 2004). As mentioned above, Absolut Vodka send a message to people of the 25-year-old age group, and Harley-Davidson represents American tough men. Mulyanegara et al. (2007) discuss the difference in brand choice between male and female, in that male consumers express their personality by selecting particular brands based on their own characteristics, while female consumers use brands that are related to others. The findings suggest that male consumers show their personality based on their self-expression unlike female consumers (Mulyanegara et al, 2007). Thus, brand managers should consider the difference between males and females when they apply brand personality in their marketing strategy. Researchers investigating brand personality in-depth found that user imagery, advertising, packaging, price and in-store promotion are the antecedents of brand personality (Grimm, 2005). Likewise, it is generally recognised that the consequences of brand personality are consumer preference and usage (Sirgy, 1982), consumers' emotions (Biel, 1993) and a positive relationship at the level of trust and loyalty (Fournier, 1998; DeWulf et al., 2001; Robert et al., 2003; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2012).

Batra et al., (1993) assert that marketing strategy such as symbols, image and advertising media create brand personality. It could be said that consumers perceive brand personality via the above elements. Furthermore, it is not only the marketing mix that can create the perception of brand personality, but also visual and verbal advertising factors. Advertising is a crucial factor in the creation of brand personality (Ang and Lim, 2006).

In terms of advertising communication media, there are several ways to communicate with consumers but it is clearly demonstrated that marketers commonly apply either figures and pictures (metaphors) or text (literal) to deliver a message to consumers. Paivio and Clarke (1986) claim that consumers will perceive more excitement by using metaphoric advertising elements than using literal advertising elements as metaphors evoke imagery, resulting in the

perception of the brand; Berlyne (1971) agrees that metaphoric advertising elements result in excitement and emotions which are related to the perception of brand personality.

Goldman (1986) supports the above statement and explains that when consumers interpret the advertising metaphors their imagination is engaged, and so the ‘imaginative’ trait of the brand personality ‘excitement’ dimension (Aaker, 1997). Conversely, it may be argued that consumers will perceive brands advertised using a literal advertising element as more sincere than those using a metaphoric advertising element; consumers might perceive a literal advertising element’s message as factual and direct (Black, 1979), and therefore genuine and honest. The genuine and honest brand perceptions match the brand personality trait of sincerity. Brand advertising communication is another possible channel to send a message to consumers; it affects the consumer’s perceptions towards brands. Consumers may perceive different brand personality dimensions via brand advertising communication using both metaphoric and literal advertising elements.

In addition to this, Ang and Lim (2006) explain that different consumers’ perceptions can be delivered via product category. Woods (1960) and Keller (1998) state that products can be categorised as symbolic or utilitarian. Symbolic products (products that are able to reflect the user’s image) are consumed with the purpose of fulfilling the consumer’s needs and providing affective-orientated benefits. Quality products and non-essential items such as designer clothes, computers and mobiles allow consumers to express their image (Khalil, 2000). Symbolic products relate to emotional behaviour and consumer purchasing behaviour; purchasing occurs based on preference rather than functional usages. Hence symbolic products generate more subjective characteristics (cheerfulness, sociability and elegance) (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Conversely, utilitarian product purchasing is more rational and provide cognitive-orientated benefits (Wood, 1960). Most utilitarian products are primary-need products (typically supermarket products). Consumers purchase utilitarian products such as cleaning products and medicines based on the function of the products rather than self-preference (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Maehle and Shneor, 2010).

Therefore, the utilitarian products are purchased based on the function of the products. The utilitarian products are likely to be perceived as more sincere and competent than symbolic products. Conversely, symbolic products tend to be perceived as more sophisticated and

exciting than utilitarian products due to the consumption objectives: people purchase symbolic products to reflect their image, to achieve and affective feeling e.g. enjoyment and fun (Ang and Lim, 2006).

To sum up, it is generally agreed that consumer decision-making is influenced by several factors regarding brand personality. Advertising communication, the product category and brand image are all related to the perception of brand personality. In addition to this, consumers are likely to purchase the brand that reflects their identity.

Brand Personality Theoretical Foundation

Researchers in psychology theory and consumer behaviour theory view that brand personality is one of the most crucial factors that influences consumer purchasing behaviour – a consumer purchases products or services based on their perception of self-image and social identity (Levy, 1959). Several studies conclude that brand personality has a relationship with society, community, environment (Belk, 1988), brand preference (Dolich, 1969), product image (Hamm and Cundiff, 1969) and brand perception (Vitz and Johnson, 1965).

Previous research in the psychology literature views the product as a symbol. Several researchers have studied brand personality and consumer perception regarding brand image (Sirgy, 1982); for example, the relationship between brand personality and consumer perception of different makes of car, different brand of beer and cigarettes etc. (Dolich, 1969). In terms of brand personality traits, people tend to use brands that are accepted in society rather than their preferred brands. In the same way, consumers will generally select a brand that demonstrates greater power towards their environment and society (Belk, 1988). For instance, consumers in a social group tend to select a brand that will exhibit their self-image to their society rather than one that will satisfy their individual needs. Consumers show their sophistication and sincerity brand personality dimension via the sophistication brand personality dimension capturing the trait of being sensitive to people and the sincerity brand personality dimension capturing the trait of strong social and people orientations (Maehle and Shneur, 2010). Conversely, Sirgy (1982) argues that consumers normally compare their self-concept with the brand image and will ultimately choose the brand that represents them regarding the self-congruity theory.

4.2.4 Brand Trust

Trust emerged in the business field and has crossed this frontier to marketing, it has been considered as a novel example of business, especially in brand management (Lau and Lee, 1999; Ha and Perks, 2005; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2001; 2005; Andaleeb, 1992; Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003; Hiscock, 2001).

Trust has been studied by academics in a variety of disciplines such as psychology (Deutsch, 1960), sociology (Remple et al., 1985; Schlenker et al., 1973) and management (Lau and Lee, 1999; Schmitt and Gues, 2006), as well as consumer behaviour (Ha and Perks, 2005) and marketing (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2001; DeWulf et al., 2001; Robert et al., 2003). The existing literature on brand trust can be described according to its primary theoretical research orientations (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005; Lau and Lee, 1999; Delgado-Ballester, 2003).

Trust, therefore, is defined as the ability to act without evaluating the costs and benefits (O'Shaughnessy, 1992). Lau and Lee give an explanation of trust, that it is the willingness to rely on something without any security issues even if there is a risk; the willingness occurs from the understanding of previous experience (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005; Lau and Lee, 1999). In the same way, Weigert (1985) asserts that trust is an ability to face a risk with confidence.

Accordingly, trust in a brand is a feeling of confidence held by the consumers towards a brand due to the belief and expectation that the brand will deliver a positive result for the customers (Lau and Lee, 1999). Delgado-Ballester (2001), Andaleeb (1992) and Doney and Cannon (1997) argue that trust in a brand does not only come from personal belief, but that it is also important that the brand's reputation should be reliable, honest, credible, consistent and responsible to customers. It is clear that trust in a brand differs from trust in a person in that the brand is a symbol (Lau and Lee, 1999); brand trust could be described as trust in the symbols that are the brand's representative. Finally, Delgado-Ballester (2003) defines brand trust as the "feeling of security held by the consumer in his/her interaction with the brand, [. . .] based on the perceptions that the brand is reliable and responsible for the interests and welfare of the consumer" (p. 11).

Delgado-Ballester et al. (2003) provide research on brand trust regarding which dimensions contribute brand trust, finding that there are two dimensions that affect brand trust, namely brand reliability and brand intention. Brand reliability relates to the competence-based nature of a brand and is commonly known as an ability to keep promises and satisfy customer demands. Brand intention is the (positive) attitude of the brand related to customer welfare; for example, a company that is willing to take responsibility in the case of product errors by recalling the product back from their customers and replacing it with a new one. There is widespread belief that if a company is able to supply consumer demand in terms of brand reliability and brand intention the result will be a positive consumer perception of brand trust (Lau and Lee, 1999; Luk and Yip, 2008).

Moreover, Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2005) observe that the relationship between a consumer and a company affects brand trust. As Hiscock (2001) contends, “the ultimate goal of marketing is to generate an intense bond between the consumer and the brand, and the main ingredient of this bond is trust” (p. 1). Brand trust also has a relationship with brand personality via reliability characteristics; people who have high competence traits (intelligent, reliable and successful characteristics), result in a high degree of trust in a brand (Mulyanegara et al., 2007; Maehle and Shneor, 2010). Hence, brand trust is not only important in brand attributes but is also significant in terms of brand development (Bainbridge, 1997). The following section highlights the relationship between brand trust and experience, which is the principle of brand experience.

Trust and Experience

Drawing on the research on brand trust developed by Yoon (2002), Jonker and Treur (1999), Garbarino and Johnson (1999) and Geyskens et al. (1999), the level of trust between the consumer and the company relies on the experience and the perception of consumers. It may be argued that the consumer’s evaluation of trust is influenced by experiences (Keller, 1993; Krishnan, 1996). Also, there is widespread belief that the consumer perceives experience as either a direct experience by actual consumption or an indirect experience via word of mouth, information and company reputation (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005). Thus, all of these experiences are crucial aspects contributing to brand trust (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005).

In the brand management literature, trust is positively related to the customer experience towards brands. However, the characteristics of the brand such as reliability, intention, credibility and honesty are positively associated with the customer's trust in the brand (Luk and Yip, 2008; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005). Moreover, Koufaris and Hapton-Sosa (2002) argue that positive trust experiences can be generated by the seller. However, in order to contribute positive trust experiences, the seller should have these characteristics – expertise in products and willingness to assist customers in any condition. Consumers feel safe when they trust a salesperson and they believe that the seller will deliver them a positive outcome.

In addition, Jonker and Treur (1999) have studied the models for the dynamics of trust based on experiences. They claim that trust can be classified into two categories: trust-negative experience and trust-positive experience. Moreover, they categorise trust into two characteristics: initial trust and trust dynamics. Initial trust can be either positive or negative – initially trusting or initially distrusting. Initially trusting means, without any previous experiences, consumers have the ability to trust without any suspicion. Conversely, initially distrusting refers to a capability to distrust without any related experiences. Trust dynamics can be divided into six types: blindly positive (unconditional trust), blindly negative (unconditional distrust), slow positive and fast negative (require a lot of experience to gain trust but require only a few experiences to lose trust), balanced slow (slow process to increase/decrease either positive or negative trust after experience), balanced fast (fast process to increase/decrease in positive and negative sense of trust after experience), and slow negative and fast positive (require a few positive experiences to gain trust but require a lot of negative experience to lose trust).

Additionally, Jones and George (1998) observe that attitudes, moods and emotions have an influence on trust experience, claiming that positive attitudes, moods and emotions result in positive trust experiences. Similarly, Koufaris and Hampton-Sosa (2002) researched customer trust online: examining the role of experience from websites. Their results showed that the experience from websites affects customer trust: the customer receives experience from their beliefs and perceptions towards a website.

Initially, trust experience required further investigation due to different consumers having different attitudes, moods and emotions. Today, although brand trust is associated with experience, there is no clear distinction between brand trust and brand experience.

4.2.5 Satisfaction

As the importance of satisfaction began to grow, a plethora of satisfaction schemes were introduced into the academic literature. Starting in the 1980s, satisfaction appeared as a significant factor in service organisations (Swan et al., 1981); they believed that the quality of services is likely to affect the number of retentions and the level of customer satisfaction (Bolton, 1998). Later on, in the 1990s the phenomenon of satisfaction was presented as an essential strategy for organisations and an obsession for many; this increasing concern was mainly due to intense competition (Honomichl, 1993). The facet of satisfaction has become widespread and developed into various means of strategic marketing. For example, several organisations have started to examine how satisfaction affects customer retention (Bolton, 1998), commitment and the ability to make profits (Jones and Sasser, 1995; Reichheld, 1996; Mittal and Kamakura, 2001), and changes in consumer behaviour and purchasing intention (Birgelen et al., 2006; Mittal and Kamakura, 2001; Bolton, 1998; DeWulf et al., 2001; Robert et al., 2003). Most interesting is that satisfaction has been applied in brand experience and customer experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Rebekah et al., 2005; Patterson and Johnson, 1995; Mano and Oliver, 1993; Ha and Perks, 2005). It is widely accepted that satisfaction is one of the most vital variables in marketing research (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Mittal and Kamakura, 2001; Birgelen et al., 2006; Brakus et al., 2009; Patterson and Johnson, 1995; Mano and Oliver, 1993; Ha and Perks, 2005; Bolton, 1998). The following paragraphs will detail the customer satisfaction concept and offer a definition of satisfaction, including brand satisfaction and customer satisfaction.

Customer satisfaction is divided into two conceptualisations (Johnson, 2001). First, satisfaction evaluated by perceptions, attitudes and beliefs towards products or services (Oliver, 1980), and second, satisfaction derived from previous experiences with a company, product and service (Anderson et al., 1994; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Mittal et al., 1999; Rebekah et al., 2005; Bolton, 1998; Patterson and Johnson, 1995); these will be explained respectively.

Brand satisfaction is defined as “the outcome of the subjective evaluation that the chosen alternative (the brand) meets or exceeds the expectations” (Engel et al., 1990, p. 481). Howard and Sheth (1969) assert satisfaction to be “the buyer’s cognitive state of being adequately or inadequately rewarded for the sacrifices he has undergone” (p. 145). There are many definitions of satisfaction, but mostly the definition of satisfaction is based on the disconfirmation paradigm (Oliver, 1980). Satisfaction has been conceptualised as an attitude under beliefs and evaluations, the customer’s fulfilment response, especially in the evaluation stage – emotions used in order to evaluate services or products (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Birgelen et al., 2002). The emotional aspect includes emotions such as surprise, anger, envy, happiness and jealousy (Yu and Dean, 2001; Liljander and Strandvik, 1997). Furthermore, the emotions can be divided into like/dislike, which is claimed in satisfaction theory as satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Cadotte et al., 1987; Westbrook, 1981).

In addition, Babin and Griffin (1998) and Bagozzi et al. (1999) assert that satisfaction includes both cognitive and affective responses to a purchase situation. The cognitive factor relates to a customer’s judgement after perceiving the performance (Liljander and Strandvik, 1997; Wirtz, 1993). It could be said that satisfaction happens when the level of the product or service’s performance meets the customer’s expectations. Conversely, if the performance of products or services fails to meet the customer’s expectations, it will cause disconfirmation, which is dissatisfaction (Patterson et al., 1997). Cognition in satisfaction also refers to pre-consumption expectancy, observation of products or services’ performance, disconfirmation perception, attribution and equity/inequity (Oliver, 1993). Obviously, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are affected by products’/services’ performance in both a direct way from consumer observation and an indirect way from the outcome of the comparison between products’/services’ performance and customer expectations (Bolton and James, 1991). It has been demonstrated that consumer satisfaction happens when they receive equitable behaviour or their outcome is more favourable than others (Oliver, 1993). In contrast, Westbrook (1987; Weiss and Cropanzana, 1996) contend that affective reactions affect attitudes (a positive attitude or a negative attitude). Oliver (1989) asserts that the affective in satisfaction occurs only after purchasing, while cognition in satisfaction occurs before purchasing.

Disconfirmation and Expectancy Theory

Disconfirmation and expectancy theory are of the utmost significance when considering satisfaction. Disconfirmation, also known as the expectation model, refers to satisfaction and dissatisfaction; it arises from a cognitive evaluation of pre-purchase or previous knowledge and beliefs compared to cognitions of actual product-related experiences (Westbrook and Reilly, 1983). The result of this comparison is expectancy disconfirmation; it ranges from negative through equal to positive. A negative outcome results when the actual outcomes are below expectations, equal outcomes result when expected outcomes are equal to actual outcomes and positive outcomes result when actual outcomes exceed expected outcomes (Westbrook and Reilly, 1983).

However, Oliver (1980) comments that disconfirmation itself cannot explain satisfaction responses; meanwhile, he observes that satisfaction is directly related to pre-choice expectations and affects disconfirmation independently. Westbrook and Reilly (1983) describe that, “pre-choice expectations act as a frame of reference for post-choice disconfirmation. Outcomes poorer than expected are evaluated below the reference point, while those better than expected are evaluated above this base” (p. 258). It is generally affirmed that satisfaction arises from a combination, the expectation level and subsequent disconfirmation (Oliver, 1980; Swan, 1977; Linda and Oliver, 1979).

Additionally, it is recognised that disconfirmation of the expectation model of satisfaction has been viewed in the consumer satisfaction literature (LaTour and Peat, 1979). LaTour and Peat (1979) point out that in the situation that the preferable brands are not available, consumers have no choice but to select substitute brands. In this situation, satisfaction, expectation and/or disconfirmation via consumers’ actual products cannot be evaluated because they are forced to purchase substitute brands; this may result in lower satisfaction due to the preferred brand not being consumed.

A review of the satisfaction concept, a definition of satisfaction comprising customer satisfaction and brand satisfaction, as well as the important theories applied to satisfaction, namely the disconfirmation theory and expectation theory had been explained. The next section will recount several studies regarding satisfaction, loyalty and experience.

Background of Satisfaction Studies

There is considerable evidence that shows that satisfaction has a major influence on brand loyalty in either a direct or an indirect way (Bolton, 1998; Jones and Suh, 2000; Chandrashekar et al., 2007; Yang and Peterson, 2004; Bodet, 2008; Bloemer and Lemmink, 1992; DeWulf et al., 2001; Robert et al., 2003). The work of Yang and Peterson (2004) tested the relationship between customer satisfaction and brand loyalty applied in the online marketing context. The findings demonstrated that customer satisfaction and positive perceptions of products or services have a positive effect on customer loyalty (Yang and Peterson, 2004). What's more, in order to satisfy online customers, Yang and Peterson (2004) suggested that a company should focus on the quality of customer services, security/privacy, ability to fulfil customer needs, differentiating the products and ease of use.

Several researchers have illustrated that satisfaction has a relationship towards brand trust and customer experience (Papadopoulou et al., 2001; Urban et al., 2000). Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2001) noted that satisfaction is more related to brand trust: dissatisfaction results in negative word of mouth, whereas satisfaction leads to positive word of mouth. Positive word of mouth tends to increase brand trust (Athanassopoulos et al., 2001). The research by Ha and Perks (2005) confirms that brand satisfaction has a significant effect on brand trust; also, brand familiarity affects satisfaction via both cognitive and emotional factors. However, cognitive and emotional factors can be changed depending on the context and situation (Ha and Perks, 2005).

To sum up, it has been frequently affirmed that expectations, perceived quality and disconfirmation (Yi, 1991; Oliver, 1977; 1980) are antecedents of satisfaction and retention; repurchase intentions (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993) and brand loyalty are consequences of satisfaction (Bolton, 1998; Jones and Suh, 2000; Chandrashekar et al., 2007; Yang and Peterson, 2004; Bodet, 2008).

Satisfaction and Experience

Experience is a fundamental requirement in order to result in satisfaction and dissatisfaction; similarly, customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction normally occur after consumers perceive the value of products or services (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993). The work by Berry et al.

(2002) contends that companies should not only offer products or services but, in order to gain more satisfaction, the companies should also provide a satisfactory experience to customers. Patterson et al. (1997) and Richins and Bloch (1991) claim that experience is a crucial aspect to forecasting consumer behaviour and purchasing intention, and impacts on subsequent purchases (Oliver, 1980). It is recognised that customers are likely to switch away from a brand once they receive a negative experience; therefore, the after-sale service should be excellent in order to maintain the customer's positive experience (Rebekah et al., 2005). Satisfaction is collected from past experience and positive experience tends to increase the number of repurchases (Ganesan, 1994; Anderson and Sullivan, 1993).

East (1997) recounts that experience reduces the decision-making process and purchasing time. He notes that consumers without any experience take the time to think about the cognition search process for the first purchase; once they have experience, they are likely to avoid the cognition search process and engage in automatic processing. Simon (1993) contends that the more satisfactory an experience they have, the more they are engaged with the brand which also leads to brand loyalty. Additionally, a high level of satisfaction results in positive customer experience only when they are satisfied with the particular brand and only the preferred brand can drive up the satisfaction-brand attitude (Simon, 1993).

Bolton (1998) suggests that highly satisfying experience increases the duration of the customer's relationship with a company. He remarks that satisfaction is a key determinant in whether the customer wants to stay loyal or stop their relationship with the brand. Also, the strength of the relationship between the period of time and the level of satisfaction is based on the duration of the experience towards the brand; for instance, a customer who has a lengthy experience with a brand is likely to weigh prior cumulative satisfaction rather than a customer who has a shorter experience time (Bolton, 1998). Therefore, it could be said that the customer's prior satisfaction has a positive relationship with consumer purchase intention and subsequent behaviour; experience in satisfaction may affect customer decision making about the duration of their relationship with the brand (Bolton, 1998).

To sum up, when consumers perceive (positive) satisfaction, the consumers are likely to experience positivity and stay loyal with the particular brand. In contrast, when consumers perceive dissatisfaction (negative satisfaction), the consumers are likely to experience

negativity and stop the relationship with the brand. Westbrook and Reilly (1983) also found that positive satisfaction occurs immediately after the consumption exceeds expectation. It is also suggested that positive experience over the duration of the experience results in positive satisfaction (Bolton, 1998; Ganesan, 1994; Anderson and Sullivan, 1993).

4.2.6 Loyalty

Relationship marketing refers to the marketing strategy adopted in order to build, maintain and enhance relationships with customers by the exchange of a mutual benefit and fulfilment (Gronroos, 1994). Harker (1999, p.16) states, “relationship marketing is an organization engaged in proactively creating, developing and maintaining committed, interactive and profitable exchanges with selected customers [partners] overtime is engaged in relationship marketing”. The development of strong relationship marketing can be achieved via staff satisfaction, company performance and company/staff trustworthiness (Reichheld, 1993,1996; Sharma and Sheth, 1997). Therefore, effective relationship marketing results in increased consumer loyalty (Heffernan et al., 2008).

It has been frequently maintained that loyalty programmes create a competitive advantage and increase the large number of benefits for companies, as well as having a positive impact on the brand. Therefore, this section will deal with the advantages of loyalty and provide a description of loyalty in the marketing, consumer behaviour, brand management and psychology literature.

It is recognised that loyalty is one of the most significant company core strategies applied to obtain a sustainable competitive advantage (Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004; Dick and Basu, 1994). Loyalty reduces marketing costs such as advertising, promotion and information, it costs less to retain existing customers than to acquire new customers (Aaker, 1992; Reichheld, 1996; Uncles and Laurent, 1997); and the loyal customer is less price-sensitive (Bowen and Shoemaker, 1998; Tepeci, 1999). Loyalty reduces the number of brand switches, loyal customers are less likely to search for more information and other substitute products (Uncles and Dowling, 1998; Dick and Basu, 1994). Thus, businesses seek to foster loyalty by improving the brand experience of their consumers. However, Aaker (1991)

informs that consumers *are* likely to switch to other brands when the price or a product feature has been changed. Buzzel and Gale (1987) observe that brand loyalty increases the rate of return on investment by increases in market share.

Copeland (1923) describes a phenomenon he calls ‘brand insistence’ related to brand loyalty. Consequently, research has been undertaken to investigate loyalty in various contexts such as customer loyalty (Dick and Basu, 1994; Chandrashekaran et al., 2007; Magin et al., 2003; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2001; Souiden and Pons, 2009; Mascarenhas et al., 2006), brand loyalty (Bloemer and Kasper, 1995; Rebekah et al., 2005; Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004; Lau and Lee, 1999; Demsetz, 1962), repurchase loyalty (Olsen, 2007), store loyalty (Sirohi et al., 1998) and so on (the majority of researchers emphasise customer loyalty and brand loyalty). Researchers have studied brand loyalty along with variables such as the relationship between consumer satisfaction and brand loyalty (Bloemer and Kasper, 1995), the antecedents and consequences of brand loyalty (Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004), the relationship between brand trust and brand loyalty (Lau and Lee, 1999; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2012) and the effect of consumer experience on brand loyalty (Demsetz, 1962).

In the marketing literature, loyalty is referred to as consumer behaviour such as repurchase, commitment and allegiance (Ehrenberg, 1988; Hawkes, 1994; Thiele and Mackay, 2001; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2012). However, in the economic psychology literature, Bloemer and Kasper (1995) argue that brand loyalty is different from repurchase. They claim that repurchase is only the behaviour of re-buying a product under the same brand, but it is absent from the consumer’s degree of commitment to the brand (Bloemer and Kasper, 1995). Ha (1998) states that, “consumers are brand loyal when both attitude and behaviour are favourable” (p. 52). From the existing literature, Gounaris and Stathakopoulos (2004) contend that loyalty can be divided into three categories, namely the behavioural, the attitudinal and the reasoned action perspectives.

The Theoretical Foundation of Brand Loyalty

Creating brand loyalty is a recognised effective marketing strategy in all businesses. It may be argued that loyalty is one of the most powerful strategies for competing with competitors in today’s fierce markets, as well as benefitting companies in terms of their finances,

marketing, management and especially the positive impact on the brand. The following paragraphs will discuss three theories of brand loyalty.

1. Behavioural Theory

Brand loyalty from behavioural perspective has been reviewed as repurchase (Uncles and Hammond, 1995; Kuikka and Laukkanen, 2012; Frost et al., 2010; Broyles et al., 2011; Jensen, 2011). In the behavioural aspect, Sheth (1968) defines brand loyalty as follows: “brand loyalty is a function of a brand’s relative frequency of purchase in time-independent situations, and it is a function of relative frequency and purchase pattern for a brand in time-dependent situations” (p. 398). While Olsen (2007) states that loyalty is a “behavioural response expressed over time by some decision-making unit with respect to one or more alternatives” (p. 319).

Smith and Swinyard (1983) define behaviour as a commitment; high commitment meaning high economic, social, or psychological costs. Furthermore, Smith and Swinyard (1983) contend that the behavioural aspect is influenced by attitude: attitude is used to predict the consumer behavioural model which leads to loyalty behaviour (further detail will be explained under the attitudinal theory section below). On the other hand, Ha (1998) claims that in the absence of the cognitive aspect, it is generally agreed that the behavioural aspect (repeat purchase) is used to measure brand loyalty.

2. Attitudinal Theory

From an attitudinal perspective, loyalty theory is referred to as a strong internal attitude of repurchase towards a brand (Day, 1969; Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978; Jacoby and Kyner, 1973). Ha (1998) asserts brand loyalty in terms of the attitudinal aspect as “the tendency for a person to continue over time to exhibit similar attitude in situations similar to those he/she has preciously encountered” (p. 52). Additionally, the attitudinal model is divided into three categories, namely cognitive, affective and conative (Dick and Basu, 1994).

Cognitive attitude is related to information retrieved – accessibility is a cognitive attitude determinant. Accessibility can be viewed as an attitude retrieved from memory, the strength

between the attitude object and the evaluation influence on the accessibility. Also, the accessibility attitude is likely to predict consumer behaviour (Dick and Basu, 1994). Furthermore, brand recognition primes (information from the point of purchase) may result in repurchase behaviour; Dick and Basu (1994) found that (direct or indirect) experience has been used to evaluate which attitude is accessible; leading to consistent behaviour. Surprisingly, the repurchase behaviour results from advertising repetition; it could be said that the repetition of advertising enhances the cognitive attitude via accessibility without an evaluation process (Dick and Basu, 1994).

Affective attitude refers to feelings towards the brand, including emotions, moods, primary affect and satisfaction (Dick and Basu, 1994). The author here will emphasise satisfaction due to Bolton (1998), Jones and Suh (2000), Chandrashekar et al. (2007), Yang and Peterson (2004) and Bodet (2008) having discussed that brand loyalty is a consequence of satisfaction. There is widespread belief that positive satisfaction occurs when consumer expectations are lower than perceived performance; positive satisfaction normally happens after consumption (Dick and Basu, 1994). Satisfaction has a relationship with loyalty; positive satisfaction increases repeat purchase, while negative satisfaction (dissatisfaction) decreases the number of purchases (Dick and Basu, 1994). Moreover, satisfaction is considered as an emotion distinct from cognitive attitude (Dick and Basu, 1994) (more details of satisfaction are explained under the satisfaction construct).

Conative attitude refers to an attitude towards behavioural disposition comprising switching costs, sunk costs and expectations (Dick and Basu, 1994). Porter (1980) states that switching costs are “one-time costs facing the buyer of switching from one supplier’s product to another” (p. 10). A company develops switching costs to increase loyalty; take for example computers and software – when people purchase an Apple computer they consequently have to purchase software that works on a Macintosh, this excludes IBM software (Dick and Basu, 1994). It is likely that switching costs influence the first purchase. Airline reward and/or loyalty programmes can be considered as a switching cost because once consumers purchase a ticket, they automatically receive a frequent flyer point reward for continuing to fly with the same airline, they are able to use that point to redeem a gift, upgrade seats or acquire tickets (Dick and Basu, 1994). ‘Sunk costs’ is another attitude that affects consumer purchasing behaviour; for instance, video rental shops which do not require an administration fee are

likely to have more customers than the video rental shops that require an administration fee (Dick and Basu, 1994). Lastly, expectation refers to consumers' future expectations and current purchasing (Dick and Basu, 1994). As a result, consumers may change their needs (attitude) and purchase the substitute products.

Faiswal and Niraj (2011) explain that attitudinally loyal customers usually repurchase a particular brand, based on a strong internal predilection. Moreover, attitudinal loyalty is viewed as “the extent of the customer’s psychological attachments and attitudinal advocacy towards the organization” (Rauyruen and Miller, 2007). Attitudinal loyalty can encourage repurchasing intention, positive word-of-mouth and the ability to recommend and suggest that others try the products or services (Zeithaml et al, 1996). Faiswal and Niraj (2011) demonstrated that attitudinal loyalty has a positive effect on behavioural loyalty: the marketer needs to present a positive attitudinal perspective to the customer, which will result in positive behavioural intentions from the customer. Not only can attitudinal loyalty lead to consumer loyalty, but it can also result in willingness to spend more money (Faiswal and Niraj, 2011). Loyal consumers are those loyal to the brand, their loyalty is rooted in a strong affective commitment toward the brand (Aurier and Lanauze, 2012). Trust and commitment affect attitudinal loyalty, it could be said that they appear to be important antecedents of attitudinal loyalty (Aurier and Lanauze, 2012). Thus, a company should try to increase the level of trust in order to develop attitudinal loyalty (Aurier and N’Goala, 2010).

The attitudinal perspective comprises cognitive, preference and commitment aspects and purchase intention that affect the behavioural aspect; a positive relationship between attitudinal and behavioural brand loyalty increases the number of loyal customers (Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004). It has been confirmed by Day (1969) and Smith and Swinyard (1983) that both the behavioural and the attitudinal aspects should be used to evaluate brand loyalty.

3. Reasoned Action Theory

Another theory that explains brand loyalty is the reasoned action theory; the reasoned action theory is a combination of the behavioural aspect and the attitudinal aspect (Ha, 1998). Fishbein (1980) asserts that the theory of reasoned action is used to describe consumer

behaviour that leads to particular purchasing. The work by Ryan and Bonfield (1975) and Dick and Basu (1994) highlights that there are two antecedents that affect purchasing behaviour: attitude towards buying (attitudinal aspect is a primary factor in purchasing) and subjective norms (social influence control). In addition, Lutz (1991) draws attention to the fact that there are two essential reasons underlying the theory of reasoned action. First, to forecast consumer purchasing behaviour, it is important to study the attitude towards actual purchase behaviour rather than the attitude towards a product. For instance, a person may never buy jewellery even though she/he has a positive attitude towards it. Second, apart from the attitude towards the behaviour, the subjective norm is one of the determinants in the theory of reasoned action. Ha (1998) observes that subjective norm is used to predict purchase behaviour based on social influences (family, friends and peers). It could be said that consumer purchase behaviour is influenced by social norms. For instance, even if people are favourable towards a brand, they may not buy it because of a partner and/or their family disliking that brand (Ha, 1998). Another example, teenagers may have a positive attitude to buying fashion clothes but they cannot due to their parents claiming that fashion clothes have a relatively high price (Dick and Basu, 1994).

It has been demonstrated that the three theories above link to brand loyalty; especially, reasoned action due to it being a combination of the behavioural aspect and the attitudinal aspect. All three theories have been used to explain the concept of loyalty in different ways; behavioural theory refers to frequency and purchase patterns, while attitudinal theory explains the internal attitude of repurchase. Moreover, reasoned action theory implies consumer purchasing behaviour.

4.3 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has explained the central concepts of branding and other related brand constructs in this study. The importance of a brand as a symbol, name and letter to identify and differentiate products or services from competitors has been demonstrated. The phenomenon of the brand has been applied in various literatures, especially the marketing and brand management literatures. The theoretical and empirical developments relating to the literature on branding offers insights into the complexities regarding the definition of branding and other brand constructs in the present study. Also, this chapter has provided a clear

interpretation of the notion of the variables in this study (brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction, consumer loyalty and brand experience). Brand experience is the main focus in the study; the review in this chapter included a definition, an explanation of the dimensions of brand experience, as well as outlining the problems that occur when there is a lack of brand experience dimensions.

Brakus et al., (2009) had been studies brand experience theory and its dimensions in North America but no specific context of product. Additionally, Chang and Chieng (2006) developed a research of brand experience in consumer perception at coffee chain stores in Shanghai and Taipei. However, this research aims to research brand experience theory, its dimensions and its relationship toward consumer loyalty in luxury cosmetic brand setting in Thailand (Bangkok). Thus, the variables explained in this chapter have been formulated and examined, the consequences of brand experience are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have:

1. Presented the foundations of this thesis by introducing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives and a brief explanation of the research methodology. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were outlined followed by a summary of the research limitations and a brief review of the contents of each chapter.
2. Provided the concept of luxury brands, outlined definitions, perspectives and characteristics of luxury brands. Reviewed the marketing concepts of luxury brand consumers together with luxury brand consumption. In addition, explored the dimension of luxury brands applied in experiential marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing. Presented the context used for this study; the luxury cosmetics industry in Thailand.
3. Reviewed inconsistencies relating to the definition of experience in various disciplines. Presented fields of experience including product experience, service experience, shopping experience and consumption experience. Importantly, this chapter showed the congruence between transactional marketing and experiential marketing.
4. Reviewed the phenomenon of branding and other brand constructs related to this study. It has highlighted the meaning of brand, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction, consumer loyalty and eventually, the main construct of this research, brand experience. Thus contextualised, the rationale behind the study's intended focus on brand experience, the source of its dependent variables, was presented.

The review of the relevant literature in the previous chapter has led to the creation of a conceptual model that begins with a set of factors as the consequences of any luxury cosmetic brand experience. Five main constructs are considered in this research, namely luxury cosmetic brand experience, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and

consumer loyalty. This chapter will organise the proposed research conceptual framework and identify the research hypotheses for testing. The predictions of this research will be presented under the main constructs.

5.2 THAILAND'S LUXURY BRAND SECTOR

Experiential marketing has become a focus of much recent research in the literature reviews of retailing, tourism and especially marketing. The marketing of luxury product or service companies (e.g. travel, hospitals, hotels, bags, cosmetics and clothes) has become increasingly complex by being focused not only on conveying an image of quality, performance and authenticity, but also on striving to increase brand experience by relating it to the consumers' lifestyles, which provide sensory, emotional, cognitive and relational values to sustain a competitive advantage in fierce competition (Atwal and Williams, 2009). Recently, research by Kent (2011); Atwal and Williams (2009) explored the use of sensory experience in experiential marketing of luxury brands. Atwal and Williams (2009) noted that the environment, such as attractive architectural or interior design of designer boutiques, affects the customer's sensory experience towards brands. Peter Marino designed Ermenegildo Zegna's flagship store in New York to deliver the sense of an Italian textile-weaving brand to people (Atwal and Williams, 2009).

The first department store in Thailand was opened in 1956 in Bangkok (Wigglesworth and Brotan, 1966). In the late 1980s, Thailand gained a footing in the global economy and many international luxury brand companies such as Hermes, Louis Vuitton, Prada and other premium international brands chose to invest there (Chadha and Husband, 2006). The consumption of luxury brands has been steadily increasing and has (at the time of writing) reached 300 million US dollars. According to Smith and Basu (2000), luxury products in Thai department stores are not easy to find because of brand-owner marketing policies (premium prices and restricted distribution); exclusive distribution is the only way to ensure that prices are never discounted.

By its very nature, luxury brand consumption is associated with materialism (Sangkhawasi and Fohri, 2007). Sangkhawasi and Fohri (2007) have the following to say in connection with materialism: materialism means "having more than others" and "associating more value than

others” (p. 276). In addition to this, materialism is associated with a sense of insecurity, some people try to use materialism as a way to find happiness (Sangkhawasi and Fohri, 2007). However, there are various perceptions of materialism from different nationalities. Americans generally view materialism as unreasonable consumption, while Western Europeans and Turks are likely to perceive materialism as a sign of quality and wealth (Sangkhawasi and Fohri, 2007). Consumer perception of luxury brands and consumer behaviour regarding luxury brands across cultures differ: not only does each country have its own social and economic circumstances, but also the characteristics of its citizens are different.

Hoon and Lim (2001) claim that Thai people are proud of their work achievements and financial assets. They love to share their wealth and achievements with other people. It could be said that materialistic Thai people purchase perceived status from luxury brands in order to represent themselves in society. Sangkhawasi and Fohri (2007) explain that there is a different level of materialism (referring to the ability to consume luxury brands) among Thais, which varies by class, education and income.

There is a wide range of product categories, including luxury products; it is unsurprising therefore that luxury brands, especially luxury fashion, have become popular in the branding literature (Okonkwo, 2007; White, 2007). However, experiential marketing in the luxury brands context does not appear to have permeated the existing theories revolving around consumer behaviour and brand management. This study endeavours to determine the behaviour of the luxury consumer in Thailand, applied to the luxury cosmetic brand experience. The author raises the following question: Is there any direct relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty, or any indirect relationship via brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction in the Thailand context?

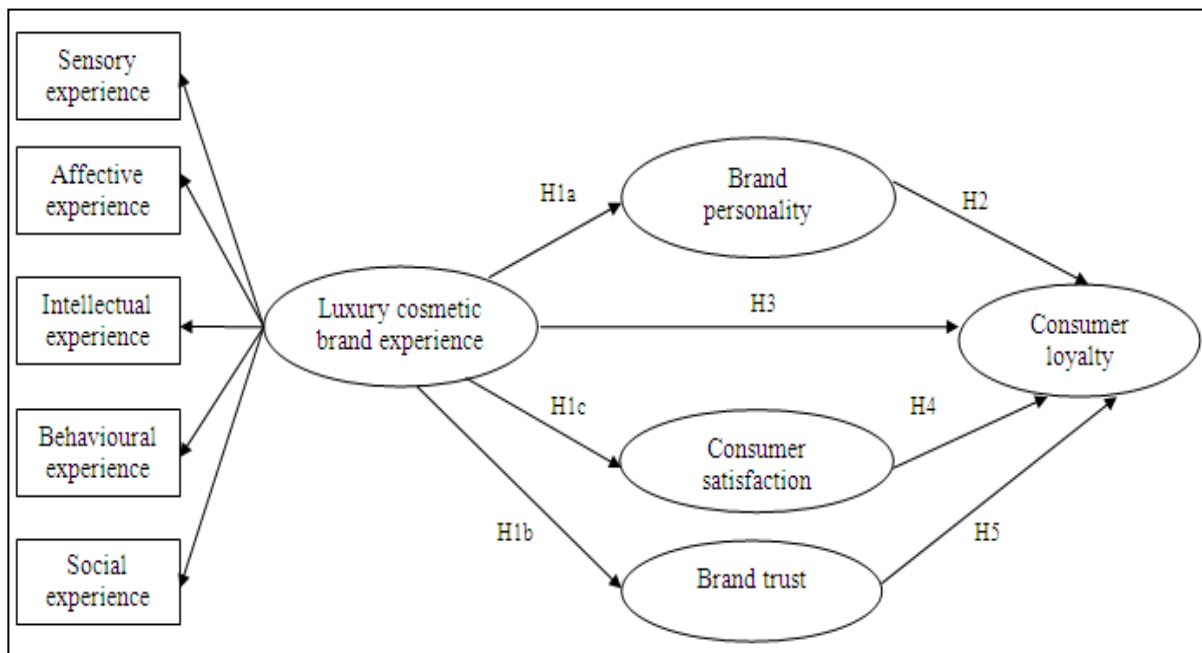
5.3 RESEARCH FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Carù and Cova (2008) assert that experience is something unique and personal that happens to an individual and researchers are not able to access directly. Furthermore, the research methodology typically used is quantitative research, such as questionnaires and surveys (Brakus et al, 2009). The lack of understanding of the topic ‘brand experience’ has inspired researchers to think about mixed-approach research where both quantitative and qualitative

methods are conducted to investigate this domain that is unknown or has received rare attention to date (Brakus et al., 2009; Ha and Perk, 2005; Chang and Chieng, 2006). However, the present study is different from previous studies in that it builds a conceptual framework from the brand’s experiential view and endeavours to clarify these causal relationships among the different constructs and a number of variables affecting the luxury cosmetic brand experience, and thus endeavours to clarify conceptual ambiguities that exist in studies of experiential marketing.

From the review of the relevant literature in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 (Figure 5.1) a set of consequences are hypothesised as related to the luxury cosmetic brand experience, and the luxury cosmetic brand experience is hypothesised as related to consumer behaviour in terms of loyalty. Also, luxury cosmetic brands are applied in brand experience theory and used as a context in this study.

Figure 5.1: Conceptual Framework of Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience



5.3.1 Consequences of Brand Experience in Luxury Cosmetic Brands

The consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand experience are those factors that are the result or outcome of the perceived luxury cosmetic brand experience during, before or after

consumption. The review of the related literature illustrates that there are many factors that result from brand experience. The findings indicate that some aspects such as brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty have a strong relationship with brand experience; thereby increasing or decreasing the likelihood of perceiving an outstanding luxury cosmetic brand experience. These factors will be discussed in the following section.

Various international luxury brands (e.g. Chanel, Louis Vuitton, Ritz Carlton Hotel and Tiffany & Co.) strive to increase and develop their brand experience or brand image to sustain a competitive advantage in fierce competition. As mentioned earlier, the brand experience concept and its measurement was developed by Brakus et al. (2009); Schmitt, (1999b).

Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience

The luxury cosmetic brand experience is one of the most significant ways through which a framework of expectations is set. It is generally agreed that brand experience begins through an interaction between a customer and a brand or a company, or other part of the organisation. Schmitt (1997) explains that the concept of brand experience refers to the perception of the customer when they experience a particular brand, and not of other influential aspects such as price and information processing. Schmitt (2009) discusses that the concept of ‘experiential branding’ guides marketing managers to create a new managerial strategy for this market. The majority of organisations are moving away from their transactional marketing strategy to experiential marketing (Atwal and Williams, 2009).

Hirschman and Holbrook (1982), Padgett and Allen (1997) and Brakus et al. (2009) observe that brand experience is related to internal consumer responses that can be categorised into sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual dimensions, evoked by brand-related stimuli. Moreover, Schmitt (1999a) and Gentile et al. (2007) divide brand experience into five categories: sensory experience (sense), affective experience (feel), cognitive experience (think), physical experience (act) and social experience (relate).

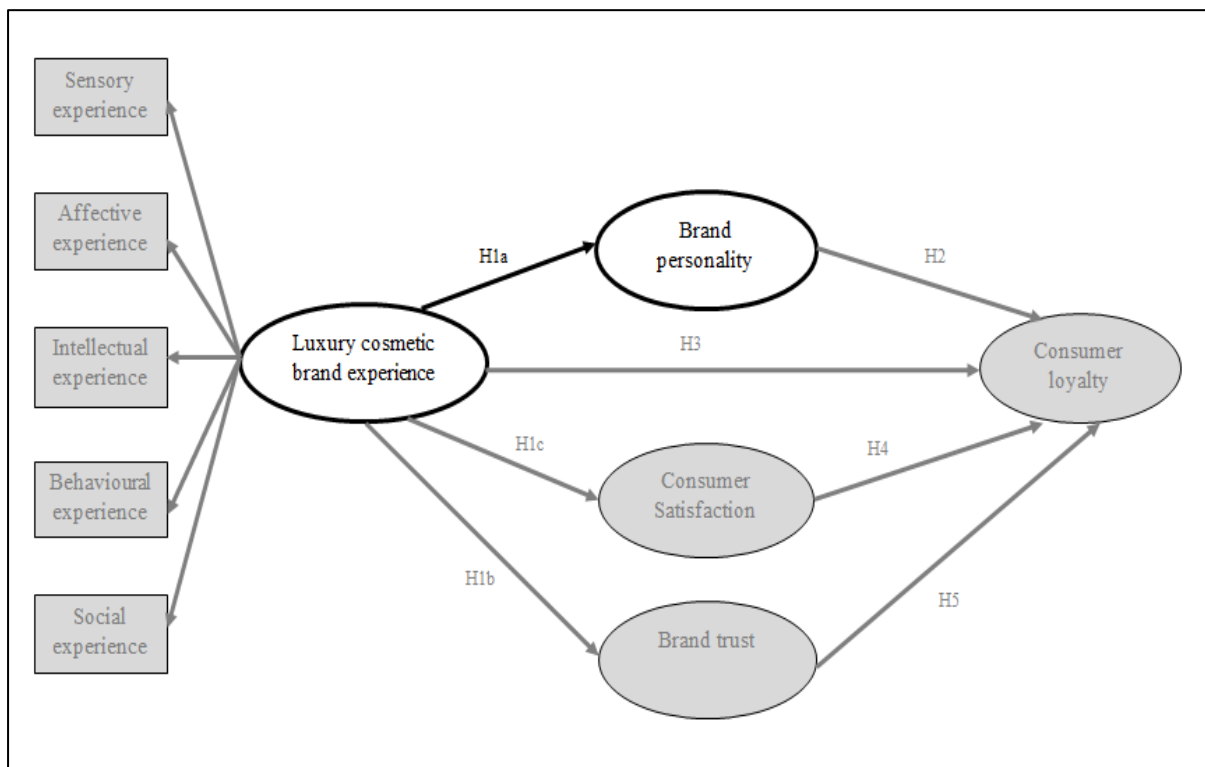
The elements of brand experience comprise signals perceived by the customer to identify (evaluate) his/her personality. Brand personality has received great attention for many years, it has been researched with regard to many brands and products, such as durable goods, luxury goods and more (Kumar et al., 2006; Mengxia, 2007). Govers and Schoormans (2005) note that consumers' brand preferences are based on their brand personality, personality traits and their attitudes. Sometimes, consumers will purchase a particular brand not because of any particular functionality of the brand, but because of how they would ideally like to see themselves and be seen by others, in other words because of an ideal self-concept and social self-concept. Therefore, it could be said that a function of brand personality is to demonstrate the brand-users character. A study by Aaker (1997) observes that a brand is an object used to identify human traits, saying "[brand personality is] the set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Aaker, 1997, p. 374). Brand personality is associated with the relationship between the consumer's perception of the brand's characteristics and their perception of their own personality (Liu et al., 2013). For instance, if the consumer perceives an automobile brand as outgoing and aggressive, they may in turn refer back to judge if their own personality is outgoing or aggressive to match with their potential car's brand (Liu et al., 2013). What's more, the characteristics regarding a brand's excitement, sophistication, sincerity, competence or ruggedness can be classified into a specific sensory, affective, intellectual, behavioural or social experience (Brakus et al., 2009). For instance, Harley-Davidson motorcycles or Marlboro cigarettes (social experience) might be perceived as 'rugged' brands (Aaker, 1996). Similarly, a consumer may display his or her 'sophisticated' taste by way of a sensory experience (brand colours); for example Tiffany & Co.'s blue box and white ribbon (sensory experience), which alludes to charm and high class (Schmitt, 1999b). Computer brands or IT brands are seen as possessing innovative and trendy characteristics by taking intellectual experience as a mediator; for example, the Apple computer brand continually launches new products with the latest technology.

Thereby, it is essential that in order to deliver a sufficient message to their target customer, companies must create their brand experience carefully. For companies, brand experience is an intangible and valuable asset that helps transfer the image, quality and knowledge associated with the brand. Therefore, a major problem in the issue of brand experience is which experience method to utilise for the brand among sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience. In general,

brand experience plays a significant role in enhancing a brand personality (Aaker, 1997). Not only does the brand experience provide information about the brand image (sensory experience), but it also strongly participates in the decision-making process of choosing the product that is able to represent the consumer’s self-image or social image (Dolich, 1969).

Particularly, the studies by Sirgy (1982), Dolich (1969) and Belk (1988) agree that brand personality has an impact on consumer perception in terms of brand image (sensory experience). Moreover, Dolich (1969) explores the concepts of real self and ideal self; it is generally agreed that the real self and ideal self conceptions influence the decision-making process regarding self-image or social image (social identity experience). As a result, the author assumes that brand experience is an antecedent of brand personality.

H1a: Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects brand personality positively.



Brand Trust

Trust has been studied in academia in a variety of disciplines such as psychology, sociology and in particular management, consumer behaviour and marketing (Lau and Lee, 1999; Esch et al., 2006; Ha and Perks, 2005; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2001; DeWulf et

al, 2001; Robert et al, 2003; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2012). O'Shaughnessy (1992) describes trust as the ability to act without evaluating the costs and benefits. In addition, Lau and Lee (1999) assert that brand trust is a feeling of confidence held by the consumer towards the brand due to the belief and expectation that the brand will deliver a positive result for the customer. Therefore, trust is perhaps the most important element in the business arena (Lau and Lee, 1999).

According to Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2005), and Lau and Lee (1999), trust in a brand is determined by the understanding of previous experience, as well as brand experience. Furthermore, Weinberg (2001) and Murphy and Smith (1982) assert that brand experience is considered to be more crucial than product experience. Thus, brand experience is likely to be held in the consumer's long-term memory and have a deeper meaning, thereby contributing to the brand trust.

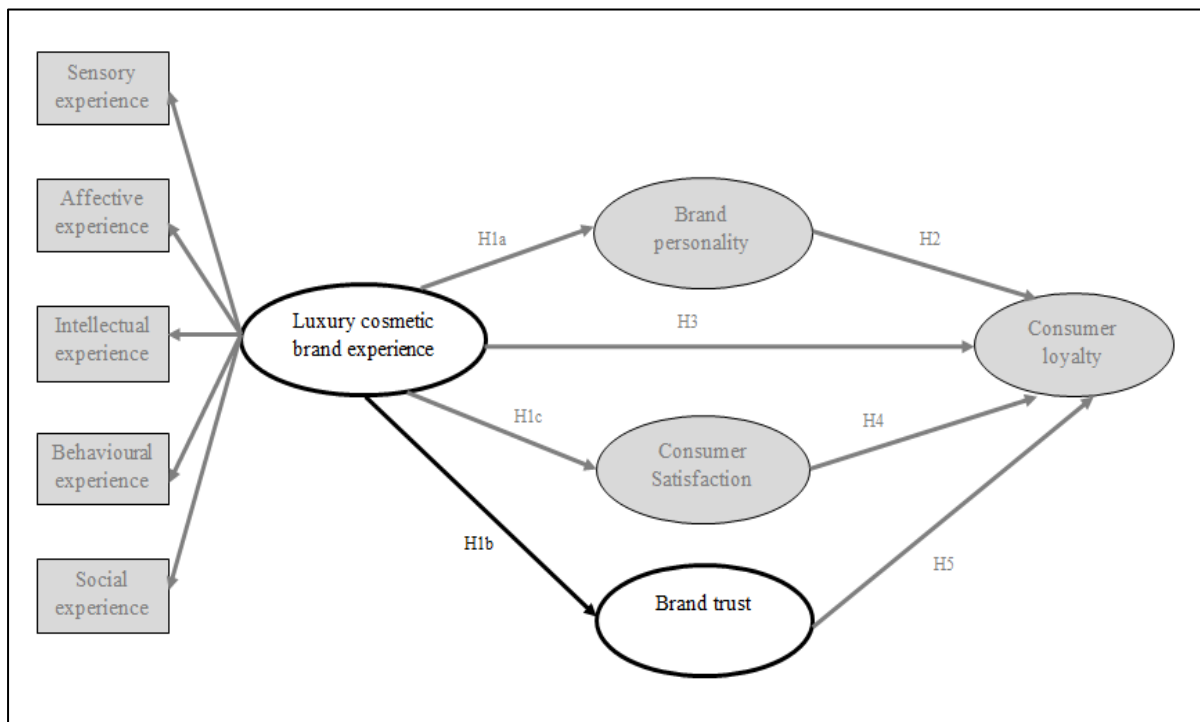
The brand experience of trust is concerned with how brand experience is comprehended by customers and how brand experience creates a strong engagement to brands. Yoon (2002) and Jonker and Treur (1999) highlights that previous experience and information are likely to increase or decrease the level of trust. Trust in a brand can arise from brand experience, especially sensory experience, thoughts about the brand image; it should be reliable, be honest, have credibility, be consistent and be reliable (Delgado-Ballester 2001). In social identity experience, the consumer is likely to perceive brand trust from indirect experience such as family, peers' and friends' influence or social norms and values (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005). Consequently, positive brand experiences often have a positive effect on prices associated with purchase intention and influenced by brand trust (Ha and Perks, 2005).

Combining the previous literature, an inference can be made that consumers may use brand experience as an indicator of brand trust. In a study completed by Ha and Perks (2005), they tested the relationship of brand experience, brand familiarity, brand satisfaction and brand trust in the context of the Web. Their findings determined that only brand experience has an impact on brand trust, and a positive brand experience tends to increase via a strong brand image.

In addition to this, another study by Lau and Lee (1999) explored the relationship between brand trust and brand experience. They made the assumption that, “a consumer’s experience with a brand is positively related to the consumer’s trust in that brand” (Lau and Lee, 1999, p. 350). The findings showed that there is a positive relationship between brand trust and brand experience; similarly the findings indicated that brand experience is an antecedent of trust (Lau and Lee, 1999).

From the review of previous research on brand experience and trust, the author believes that there is a connection between brand experience and trust. Therefore,

H1b: Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects brand trust positively.



Consumer Satisfaction

Consumer satisfaction is perhaps the most intangible aspect in marketing in relation to predicting consumer behaviour (Brakus et al., 2009). The issue of consumer satisfaction has become widespread and has been incorporated into various means of strategic marketing. It is generally agreed that consumer satisfaction is a key influence on consumer behaviour and purchasing intention (Birgelen et al., 2006; Mittal and Kamakura, 2001; Bolton, 1998;

DeWulf et al, 2001). Bolton (1998) reports there is an impact of satisfaction on consumer behaviour via customer retention.

Satisfaction is concerned with consumer perception towards brands and it is a key element to predicting consumer behaviour; Engel et al. (1990) state that satisfaction is “the outcome of the subjective evaluation that the chosen alternative (the brand) meets or exceeds the expectations” (p. 481). Generally, positive satisfaction will occur when actual consumption goes above expectation. Regarding experiential marketing, several scholars have highlighted that satisfaction is relevant both in brand experience and customer experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Bennett et al., 2005; Sirohi et al., 1998; Mano and Oliver, 1993; Ha and Perks, 2005). Anderson and Sullivan (1993) agree that experience is one of the most essential factors that affect satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

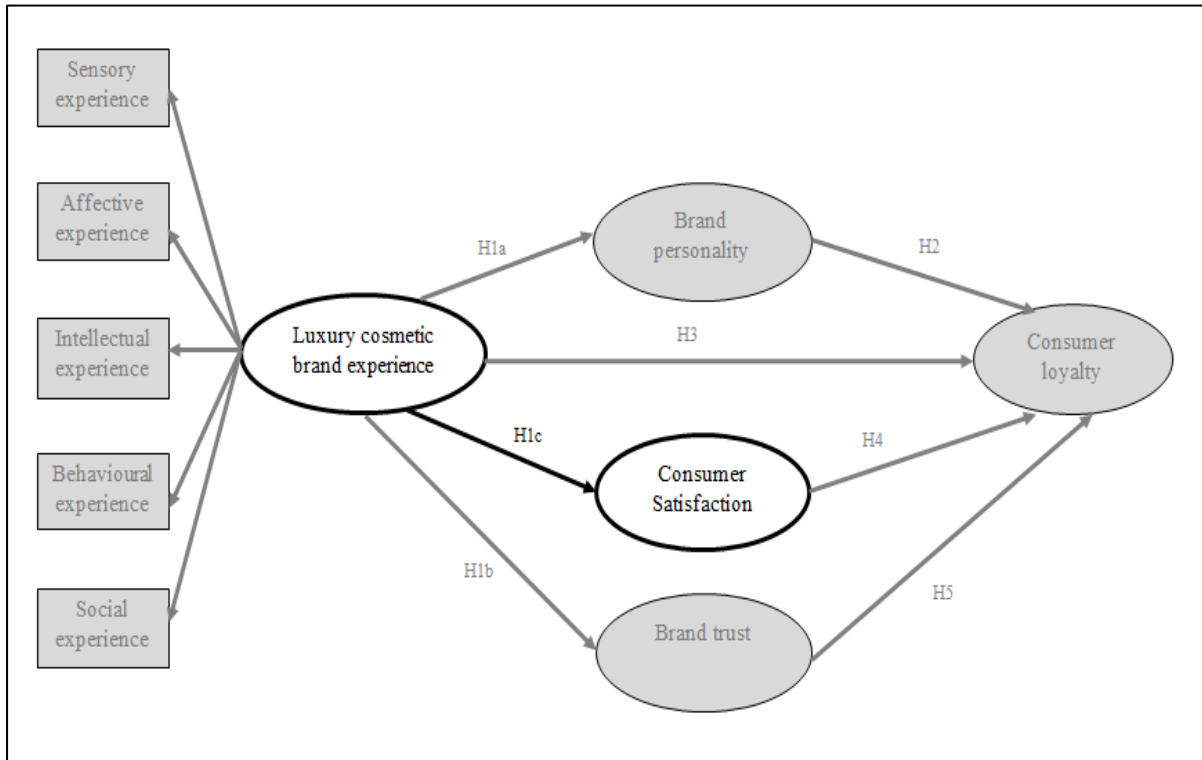
In addition, Patterson et al. (1997) and Richins and Blach (1991) support that experience is the main key to predicting consumer behaviour and purchasing intention, and that it affects repurchasing behaviour. Moreover, satisfaction affects consumer behaviour in terms of experience towards the brand. Firstly, the experience is influenced by the society (Schmitt, 1999b). Secondly, it is reasonable that consumer satisfaction comes from the senses of sight and hearing, and even olfactory senses (Schmitt, 1999b), the experience is then comprehended. The stated satisfied/dissatisfied experience for a particular brand may be then compared to the other satisfied/dissatisfied experience of other brands. As a result, an attitude is formed towards a particular brand (Simon, 1993). The experience of a product or service is shown to have an essential effect on the consumer’s perception and attitude towards the brand (Simon, 1993).

It is apparent that companies should offer a positive and memorable brand experience together with products or services to customers in order to receive a higher satisfaction rating (Berry et al., 2002). Equally, consumers are likely to change their preferred brand when they have an unsatisfactory experience. It has been frequently affirmed that previous experience shortens the decision-making process (East, 1997), and there is no doubt that a highly satisfied experience leads to high brand engagement and so results in brand loyalty (Simon, 1993).

There are many empirical investigations into the relationship between consumer satisfaction and experience (Bennett et al., 2005; Bolton, 1998; Patterson and Johnson, 1995; Brakus et al., 2009). For example, Anderson et al. (1994), Garbarino and Johnson (1999), Mittal et al. (1999), Bennett et al. (2005), Bolton (1998) and Patterson and Johnson (1995) agree that the level of customer satisfaction is related to the consumer's past experience with a company, product or service. It could be said that consumer satisfaction is received through previous experience in purchase or service situations. Bolton (1998) studied the impact of satisfaction on the length of consumers' relationship with a particular brand and found that consumer satisfaction increases the duration of the customer's relationship with a brand. As a result, the customer's existing satisfaction has a positive relationship with consumer purchase intention and repurchase behaviour; thereby, a satisfactory experience is likely to affect consumer decision making and so the duration of their relationship with the brand (Bolton, 1998).

Recently, Brakus et al. (2009) investigated the relationship between brand experience and consumer behaviour via consumer satisfaction. The objective of this study is to predict consumer behaviour from the concept of brand experience. Investigations into the relationship of brand experience and consumer satisfaction revealed that brand experience has a behavioural effect on consumer satisfaction (Brakus et al., 2009). However, there is a limitation in this study regarding the context (North America); in light of this, the author here questions the relationship between brand experience and consumer satisfaction in Thailand, applying brand experience into the luxury cosmetic brand sector. Thus far, the answers remain elusive. Based on the discussion above, it is expected that:

H1c: Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer satisfaction positively.



Brand Personality

Personality is an area that has received much attention – personality is the relationship between human behaviour and psychology that can be designed or manipulated to create a consumer behavioural and emotional response (Heller et al., 2002; Aaker, 1997; Westfall, 1962; Sirgy, 1985). Personality has been popularly applied and developed in marketing strategy in terms of branding (Aaker, 1997). According to Aaker (1997), brand personality is used to describe the human characteristics when they participate with the brand. Moreover, a widely known definition of brand personality is “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (Aaker, 1997, p. 374).

The brand personality construct can be viewed as a brand image component that includes the human characteristics that the consumers associate with the brand (Aaker, 1997). Farquhar (1990) explains that brand personality is fundamental to emotion and meaningful differentiation, while Ambler (1997) highlights that consumers are able to demonstrate their attributes and identity via their preferable brands. It could be said that the congruence

between brand image and the customer's image are aspects in socio-psychological change barriers (Wilson and Mummalaneni, 1986).

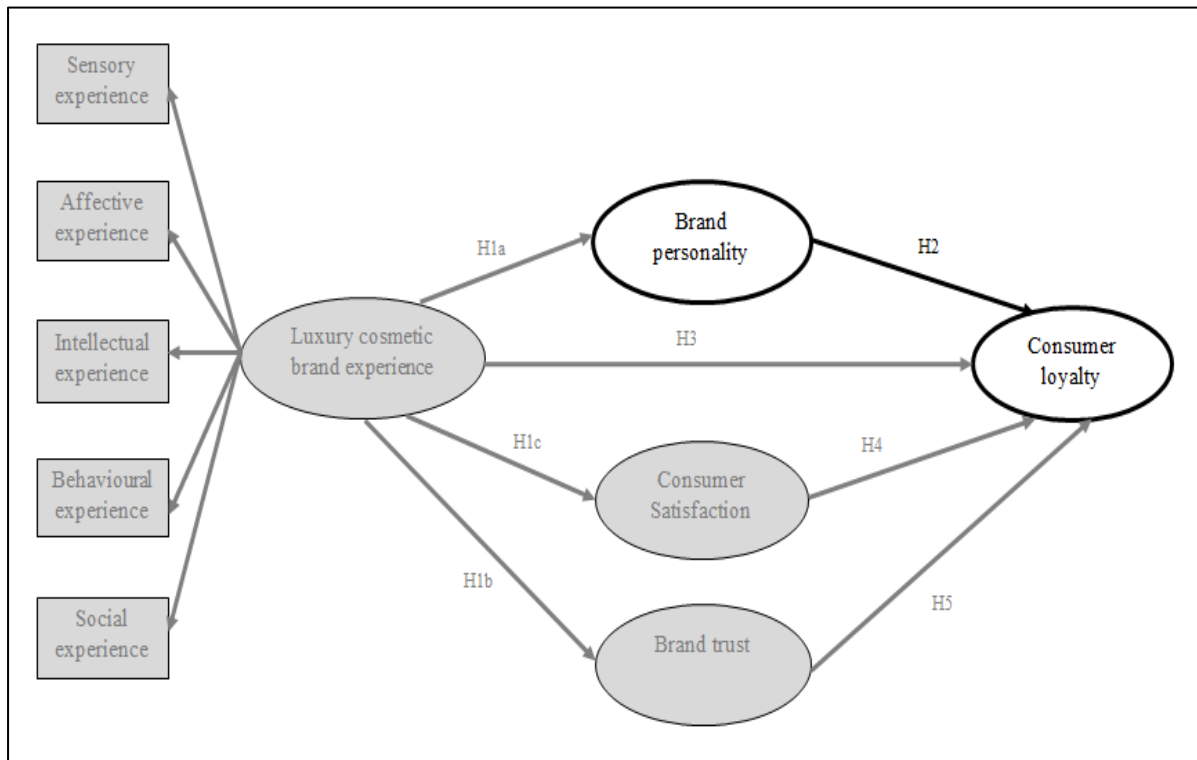
It is generally affirmed that a brand is a name or symbol; thereby, the symbolic value of a products or service is essential and will influence consumers (Magin et al., 2003). Likewise, a symbol represents a perceivable representation of an object; companies frequently develop their marketing strategy by attaching a distinctive personality to their products and services rather than attempting to meet their consumers' demands (Magin et al., 2003). Hence, companies are likely to add particular attributes to their products or services in order to create the brand image.

Many companies try to attract consumers by building a particular distinctive brand image for their products and/or services (Kim et al., 2001). For example, promotions of Harley-Davidson emphasise the image of 'ruggedness' and 'American', and those of Chanel emphasise the image of 'sophistication', 'upper class' and 'luxury' (Aaker, 1997). These kinds of human characteristics generally associated with a brand are called 'brand personality'. The majority of people tend to express themselves by choosing a specific brand.

Prior research has demonstrated that brand personality perception and self-personality perception derive consumers' brand loyalty (Lastovicka and Joachimsthaler, 1988; Maeder et al., 2000). Therefore, the concepts of brand personality and human personality (self-congruity) together are determined as important factors that contribute to consumer loyalty. Upshaw (1995) observes that brand personality may derive greater loyal consumers from the brand image. On the other hand, Kim et al. (2001) reveal that even though brand personality has a positive impact on brand identification and word-of-mouth communication, there is no direct effect on brand loyalty.

To sum up, previous research has argued the direct and indirect effects of brand personality and loyalty. Additionally, in this study, the author hypothesises that brand personality plays a crucial role in consumer loyalty; the researcher expects that the more consumers identify with the brand personality, the more the consumer demonstrates loyalty. Taking into consideration the results of these previously indicated studies, the following can be assumed:

H2: Brand personality affects consumer loyalty positively.



Consumer Loyalty

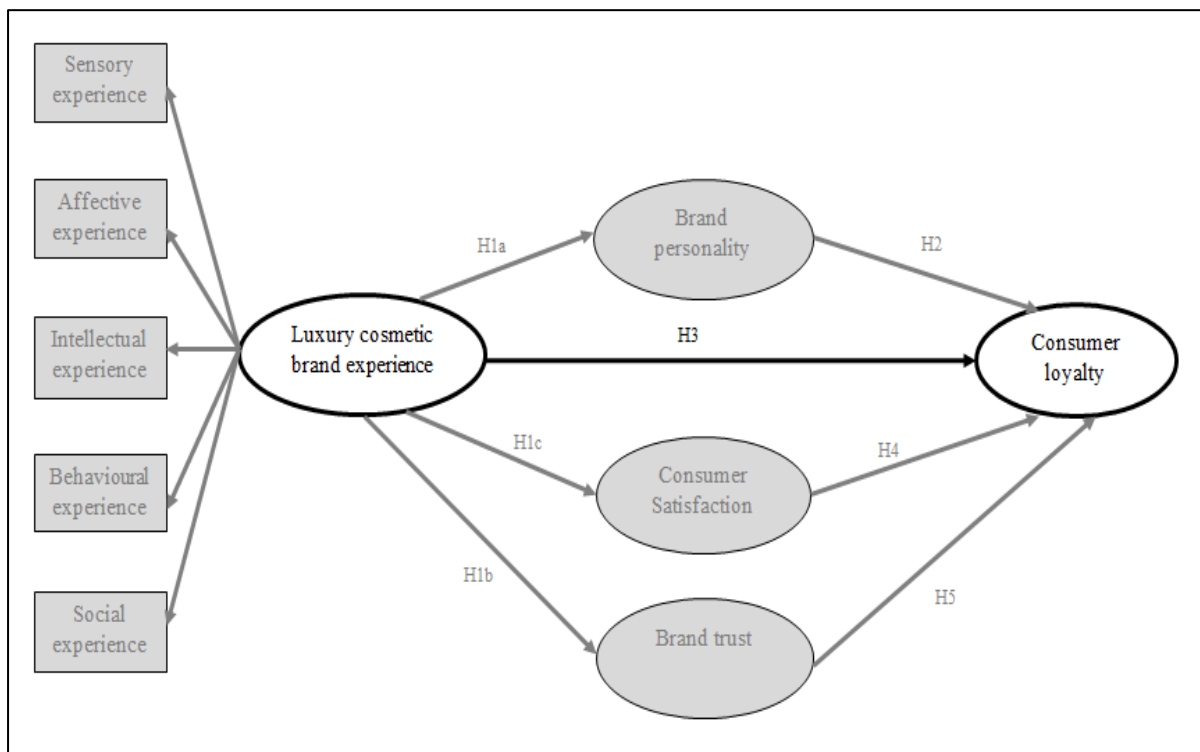
Consumer loyalty is one of the main focuses of this study. This research attempts to determine the relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty. Loyalty is one of the most significant company core strategies employed in order to obtain a sustainable competitive advantage (Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004; Dick and Basu, 1994). The marketing literature informs that loyalty is a consumer behaviour related to repurchase, commitment and allegiance (Ehrenberg, 1988; Hawkes, 1994; Thiele and Mackay, 2001). Furthermore, Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle (2006) observe that there are two cases that affect the likelihood of brand experience relating to loyal customers: firstly, consumers are willing to repurchase the same brand over and over again because of a memorable past experience; and secondly, consumers believe that the brand experience delivers a valuable benefit for the price paid for it. Loyal customers rarely switch brands because of the price, they are considered as non-price-sensitive consumers.

The consumer loyalty construct was conceptualised as a behavioural response in terms of repurchasing a particular brand (Coulson, 1966; Tucker, 1964). While Jacoby and Chestnut

(1978) sought theoretical support for a reliable behavioural measurement of loyal customers (repurchase behaviour), in the late 2000s research by Brakus et al. (2009) proffered the explanation that the behavioural dimension under the brand experience theory has an impact on consumer loyalty both directly and indirectly via brand personality and consumer satisfaction.

In the current study and in accordance with the literature on brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999b; Schmitt, 2009; Ghodeswar, 2008; Schmitt, 1999a; Gentile et al., 2007), the author implies that well-coordinated experience from brands is likely to be a key contributor in building consumer loyalty – a positive brand experience will result in consumer loyalty. Therefore,

H3: Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer loyalty positively.



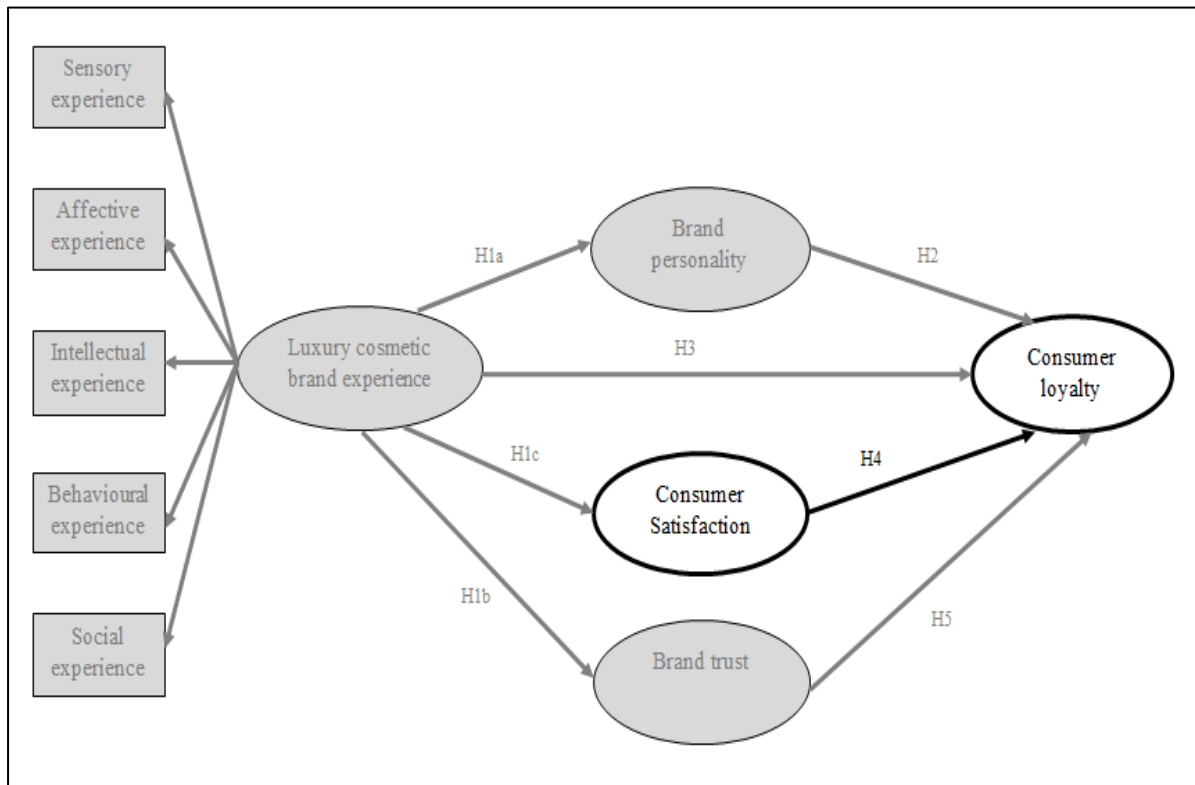
However, satisfying customers is likely to be crucial for the success of any business; therefore, satisfaction is the reason why the consumers are loyal to the products, services or brands. Consumer loyalty is identified as an important aspect that is influenced by satisfaction (Bolton, 1998; Chandrashekar et al., 2007). In addition to this, Magin et al. (2003); DeWult et al. (2001); Robert et al. (2003) claim that a satisfied customer is a potential

loyal customer. Satisfaction will affect customers in terms of the behavioural aspect, attitudinal aspect and so on (Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004). It is generally agreed that satisfaction has both a positive and negative relationship with consumers' attitudes, beliefs (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Birgelen et al., 2006; Westbrook, 1987; Weiss and Cropanzana, 1996) and emotions (Yuting and Dean, 2001; Liljander and Strandvik, 1997). However, it could be said that attitude, belief and emotion have been widely emphasised for the success of creating loyal customers. Intuitively, positive satisfaction results in more engagement in brand loyalty (Jones and Suh, 2000).

Several pieces of research have focused on the relationship between consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty and argued that it is an essential factor in building consumer loyalty and consumer satisfaction (Bolton, 1998; Jones and Suh, 2000; Chandrashekar et al., 2007; Yang and Peterson, 2004; Bodet, 2008; DeWult et al., 2001; Robert et al., 2003). Particularly, the research by Yang and Peterson (2004) supports the above discussion that consumer satisfaction contributes a positive effect on consumer loyalty in the online marketing context. Moreover, in the online marketing context the security system, ease of use and variety of products seem to be important for increasing the number of loyal customers (Yang and Peterson, 2004). The customer service provided by the companies or brands is argued to affect customer satisfaction as well as customer loyalty (Yang and Peterson, 2004).

In addition to this, previous research has emphasised consumer satisfaction as a major determinant of consumer loyalty; when a consumer has a positive feeling or appreciates products or brands, the level of loyalty and commitment increases (Brakus et al., 2009). Brakus et al.'s research took place in North America, which is considered a Western country; taking into consideration the results of these previously indicated studies, this author assumes that consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty will give the same result in the Thailand context. Therefore,

H4: Consumer satisfaction affects consumer loyalty positively.



Brand trust is established as an important aspect in the concept of loyalty (O’Shaughnessy, 1992). O’Shaughnessy believes that trust is fundamental to loyalty. The power of trust in altering our everyday thought processes is well-stated in the psychology literature (Deutsch, 1960). Generally, it is also asserted that brand trust has an impact on both negative and positive purchase decisions (Lau and Lee, 1999).

The importance of brand loyalty has been demonstrated in the marketing arena for over three decades (Howard and Sheth, 1969). In this connection, previous research in marketing and brand management has fundamentally recognised that brand trust has a significant impact on consumer loyalty and leads to certain marketing advantages such as reduced marketing costs, increased market share and enjoying a premium price (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Moreover, this has been well-acknowledged by several researchers (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Lau and Lee, 1999). The explanations by Reichheld (1996) and Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) reveal that loyal customers are happy to pay more for particular brands because they perceive the brand to have a unique value that no substitute brands can provide. It could be said that the value and uniqueness of specific brands may derive from greater trust in the

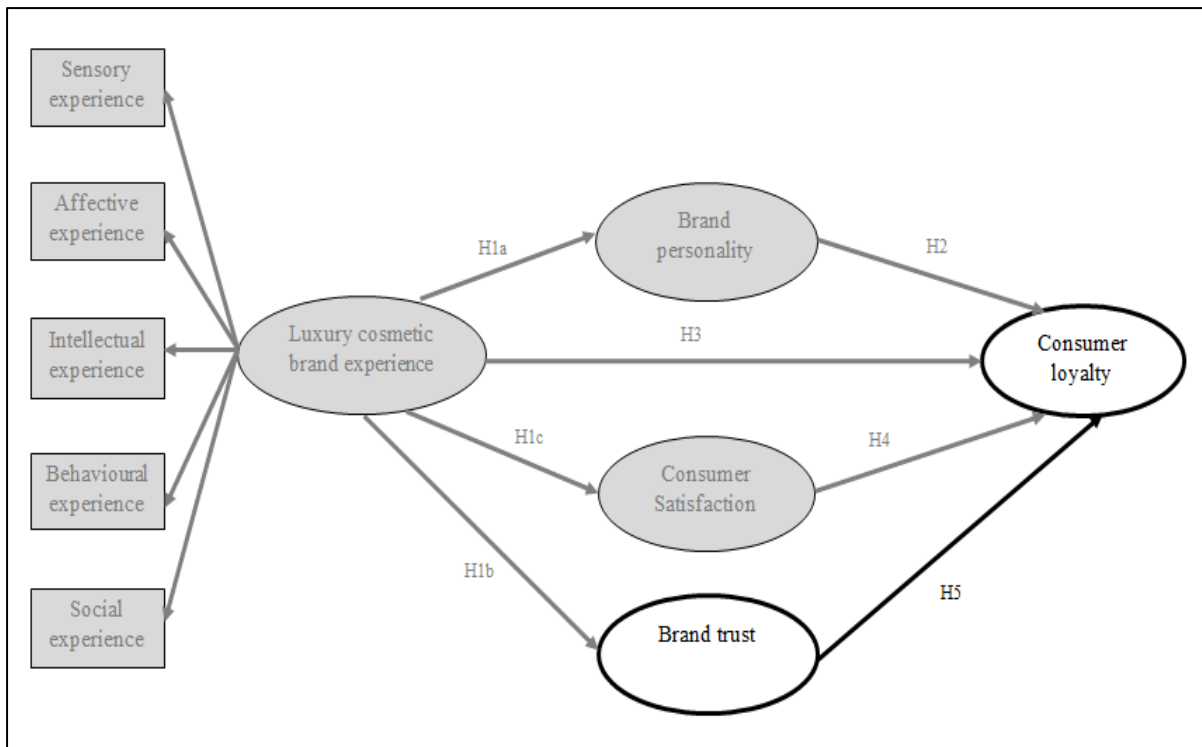
reliability of a brand. Consider for example, patrons of one restaurant: the explanation for this behaviour could be an absence of knowledge of other restaurants, thus revisiting a single place occurs. Additionally, another possible reason is that consumers have visited several restaurants and they found that this restaurant gives them a unique experience such as the quality of food and service, ambience and so forth, which other restaurants do not have, as well as the belief that the specific restaurant can be trusted and relied on in the above criteria (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Thus, consumers are likely to purchase or engage in one particular restaurant or brand that derives their trustworthiness.

Currently, the brand phenomenon is more likely related to emotion; Morgan and Hunt (1994) assert brand trust as “the willingness of the average consumer to rely on the ability of the brand to perform its stated function” (p. 23). The customer’s perception of the brand results in either trust or distrust, and this will subsequently affect their evaluation to continue the relationship with the brand (Lau and Lee, 1999). For example, when customers become involved or engaged with their preferable brand, they will most likely perceive the entire experience in a more positive attitude, including the brand’s trustworthiness. Therefore, a positive attitude or delightful experience results in repurchase behaviour or loyal customers. In the current study, brand trust is assumed to be highly correlated to consumer loyalty, because consumers will choose their preferred and trusted brand. Morgan and Hunt (1994) support that brand trust has an essential impact on brand loyalty and/or commitment due to trust being a crucial aspect in exchange relationships. In addition to this, a study by Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) researched the impact of brand trust on brand loyalty. In this study, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) divided brand loyalty into two perspectives: first, purchase loyalty, which could be defined as a willingness to purchase the same product or service over and over again; second, attitudinal loyalty, which refers to the level of commitment towards the brand. The findings showed that brand trust has a positive relationship with brand loyalty (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2012). However, brand trust has a slightly more significant effect on purchase loyalty than attitudinal loyalty (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Hence, trust in a brand is likely to increase patronage and evoke a higher degree of attitudinal commitment.

Every day, consumers are persuaded to buy different products or services. Trust in a brand raises the consumer’s expectations by making promises about a product or service. When the

promise is always kept, consumers have a delightful experience. Therefore, when trust in a brand rises, positive perceptions must go beyond brand trust in order to result in greater consumer loyalty. On the other hand, if companies are pouring money into creating brand trust or a brand image but they do not keep their promises, it follows that they are investing with a risk due to delivering poor brand trustworthiness. Thus, the following proposition was formulated:

H5: Brand trust affects consumer loyalty positively.



5.4 CONCLUSIONS

First, this chapter reviewed various theories that were related to this study and confirmed that none of the theories had been applied to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer behaviour (loyalty) in the Thailand context. Second, this chapter provided a detailed investigation of the constructs (consequences) that are expected in relation to the investigation processes regarding women in Bangkok (Thailand) in relation to luxury cosmetic brand experience. Taking into account all of the variables (luxury cosmetic brand experience, brand trust, brand personality, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty), a conceptual framework of luxury cosmetic brand experience and loyalty was

formulated (Figure 5.1). Seven main hypotheses were proposed in order to test model validation (Table 5.1). Moreover, these hypotheses were developed on the basis of the luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty theories. The aim is to investigate whether the luxury cosmetic brand experience has an effect on consumer loyal directly, and/or indirectly, by applying brand personality theories, brand trust theories and consumer satisfaction theories. The hypotheses illustrated the different relationships between the research constructs in the integrative framework presented.

The hypotheses will be examined in a quantitative (statistical) manner and the results refined by use of a qualitative approach. The philosophical foundation of the research design and the methodology to test the above hypotheses will be elaborated in the next chapter.

Figure 5.1: Conceptual Framework of Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience

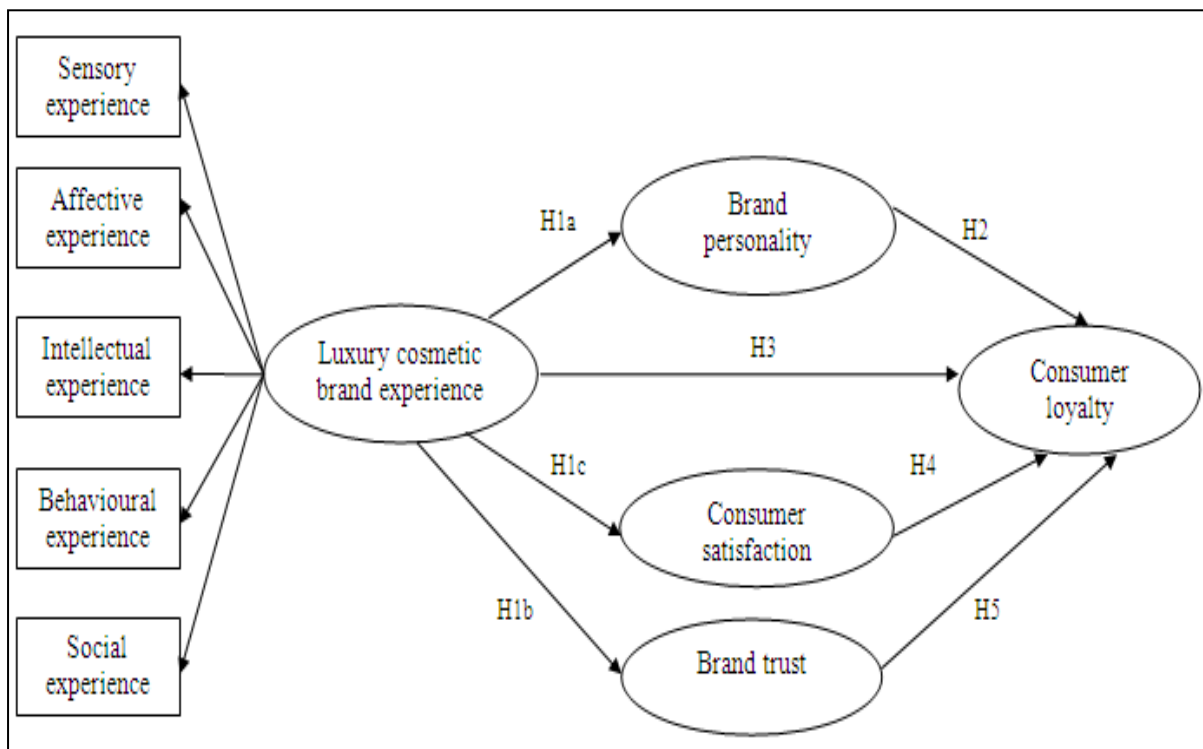


Table 5.1: List of Hypotheses

Investigated Consequences	Code	Hypothesis Content	Authors
Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience-Brand Personality	H1a	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects brand personality positively.	Sirgy (1982); Belk (1988); Dolich (1969); Brakus et al (2009); Aaker (1997)
Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience-Brand Trust	H1b	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects trust positively.	Lau and Lee (1999); Jonker and Treur (1999); Ha and Perks (2005); Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2001,2005)
Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience-Satisfaction	H1c	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer satisfaction positively.	Brakus et al (2009); Bennett et al (2005); Ha and Perks (2005); Berry et al (2002); Mittal et al (1999)
Brand Personality-Loyalty	H2	Brand personality affects consumer loyalty positively.	Lastovicka and Joachimsthaler (1998); Maeder et al (2000); Upshaw (1995); Kim et al (2001)
Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience-Loyalty	H3	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer loyalty positively.	Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle (2006); Brakus et al (2009); Schmitt(2009); Ghodeswar (2008); Gentile et al (2007).
Satisfaction-Loyalty	H4	Consumer satisfaction affects consumer loyalty positively.	Bolton (1998); Magin et al (2003); Chandrashekar et al (2007); Jones and Suh (2000); Yang and Peterson (2004); Bodet (2008); Brakus et al (2009)
Brand Trust-Loyalty	H5	Brand trust affects consumer loyalty positively.	O’Shaughnessy (1992); Lau and Lee (1999); Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001); Reichheld (1996); Morgan and Hunt (1994); Papista and Dimitriadis (2012)

CHAPTER 6

METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have:

1. Presented the foundations of this thesis by introducing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives and a brief explanation of the research methodology. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were outlined followed by a summary of the research limitations and a brief review of the contents of each chapter.
2. Provided the concept of luxury brands, outlined definitions, perspectives and characteristics of luxury brands. Reviewed the marketing concepts of luxury brand consumers together with luxury brand consumption. In addition, explored the dimension of luxury brands applied in experiential marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing. Presented the context used for this study; the luxury cosmetics industry in Thailand.
3. Reviewed inconsistencies relating to the definition of experience in various disciplines. Presented fields of experience including product experience, service experience, shopping experience and consumption experience. Importantly, this chapter showed the congruence between transactional marketing and experiential marketing.
4. Reviewed the phenomenon of branding and other brand constructs related to this study. It has highlighted the meaning of brand, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction, consumer loyalty and eventually, the main construct of this research, brand experience. Thus contextualised, the rationale behind the study's intended focus on brand experience, the source of its dependent variables, was presented.
5. Explored the relevant theoretical frameworks related to the variables used in this research and outlined the conceptual model, explaining the constructs relating to luxury cosmetic brands among women in Thailand. Provided the proposed research conceptual framework and identified the research hypotheses for testing. The chapter highlighted the four main consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand

experience namely brand personality, consumer satisfaction, brand trust and consumer loyalty.

Methodology describes the procedures used to acquire knowledge (O’Shaughnessy, 1992). Its foundations are dependent on a set of conceptual framework and philosophical hypotheses that justify a particular method (Pay and Payne, 2004).

The purpose of this chapter is to justify and outline the methodology used for empirically validating the proposed conceptual model, and to answer the research questions of this study. Following the introduction, this chapter is divided into five major sections. The first section provides a description of the research strategy in the current study, including research philosophy, research approach and justification, and a description of the quantitative/qualitative methodology. The second section demonstrates the research design, overview and development of the questionnaire to be used in the data collection phase. Then, the third section explores pre-testing of the instrument together with reliability testing, discussion of the main survey, sample, sample size and the data techniques of data analysis are explained in this phase. This step is followed by qualitative study regarding techniques of data collection, sample selection and procedures of data analysis. Lastly, the ethical considerations are conducted.

6.2 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The researcher started with pointing out the nature of the research objectives. This study aims to identify the significance, the importance and the dimensions of brand experience from the consumer’s point of view. The study also aims to explain a set of factors in the rational/emotional consequences of brand experience with particular attention paid to consumer loyalty. All of these constructs have been derived from the relevant literature and theories from their respective fields of study – brand management, marketing and consumer behaviour literature. The following objectives have been established:

- 1) To explore the concept of luxury cosmetic brand experience and its dimensions via mixed method approach.

- 2) To identify the consequences of luxury cosmetic brand experience via mixed method approach.
- 3) To develop a conceptual framework regarding the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and its consequences.
- 4) To investigate the impact of luxury cosmetic brand experience on customer loyalty.

Thus, this study's research problem is developed from what is already known from other previous research and as a consequence, a theoretical framework is developed as the starting point of this research. The framework includes constructs that are acknowledged to be significantly related to brand experience in the luxury brand context and furthermore, demonstrate the path to consumer loyalty.

In order to achieve the research objectives, the researcher considers that it is essential the research method is based on the purpose and the research questions. Therefore, the following paragraphs will present the philosophy of social research and justify the research methods used in this study.

6.3 RESEARCH STRATEGY

6.3.1 The Philosophy of Social Research

Research philosophy refers to the way that a researcher thinks about the development of knowledge. Research philosophy is divided into four groups, namely: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). These four research philosophies can be category into three schools of thought: ontology, epistemology and methodology (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Ontology relates to the phenomenon to be examined, epistemology relates to the relationship of problems to be researched, and methodology refers to the methods or techniques using for collecting and analyse data (Guta and Lincoln, 1994). The characteristic of these four research philosophies are presented below:

Table 6.1: Underlying research philosophical paradigms

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

Source: Guba and Lincoln (1994)

Positivism and post-positivism are generally recognised as deductive methods or quantitative research methods (Creswell, 2009). These two perspectives are suitable for a small set of variables and dealing with statistical data (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). However, critical theory and constructivism theory are also called inductive, qualitative research methods and are related to subjectivism and interpretivism, they are usually used for elaborating a theory (Hussy and Hussy, 1997).

This present research selects positivism research philosophy based on the research aim, objectives and nature of the research problems. The present research intends to investigate the relationship between, and exploration of, the independent and dependent variables. The research started with a review of the related literature and developed a conceptual framework for the empirical examination. In order to support the theory with the conceptual framework, the research has developed hypotheses to investigate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The method for this research has employed a quantitative research method followed by a qualitative research method for the data collection and analysis.

6.3.2 Research Strategy: Quantitative and Qualitative

Creswell (2003) noted that a quantitative approach is a deductive approach, that has a positivism epistemology and deals with numerical data. The positivist approach is typically used for understanding human behaviours and attitudes (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Moreover, Hussey and Hussey (1997) assert that the positivist approach is related to the facts or causes of social science circumstances. In addition to this, Burrell and Morgan (1979) note that in order to explain and predict the social science (human behaviour), quantitative research should be used to identify regularities and casual relationships between its constituent elements. The positivist method is appropriate for developing the validity and reliability of data collected from society; it can be statistically analysed in order to explain social phenomena.

The research also uses a post-positivism philosophy, this philosophy is qualitative in its approach; an extra stage of interviews has been taken to explore the relationship of all the variables and to demonstrate the cause and effect of the dependent and independent variables. Qualitative approach usually concerned with descriptive data collection in order to understand human behaviours. According to Cavana et al. (2001), the qualitative approach's benefit is to gain deep understanding of human behaviour including values and beliefs. Also, this approach will result in the explanation of how and why phenomena occur, especially in descriptive ways (Sharif, 2004; Sarantakos, 1993).

Therefore, the quantitative method is a statistical way to analyse data and explain the result (Gilbert, 2001). It uses deduction, which is a theory developing hypotheses (Gilbert, 2001). However, the qualitative method is an exploratory method to gain deep understanding of human behaviour (Cavana et al., 2001). It is used inductively, which is related to observing relationships. The quantitative method starts from the theory, then develops hypotheses, then collects and analyses data, and results in accepting or rejecting hypotheses. However, the qualitative method starts with information on observations, next analysing patterns, then grouping the relationships and then developing a theory to support above assumption, and finally developing hypotheses.

Both methods have their strengths and weaknesses (Amaratunga et al., 2002). Thus, it is essential to choose a suitable method for the research field. The quantitative approach is less time-consuming, more economical and suitable for a large number of participants, although the approach is not flexible during the data collection method. The qualitative approach is used to gain deep understanding of people and their ideas, but it is more difficult to analyse and interpret the results than the positivist approach (Amaratunga et al., 2002).

6.3.3 Research Approach Adopted for this Study

The present research employed a mixed methods approach (quantitative and qualitative). The research predominantly focuses on a quantitative research method. As described above, the positivism philosophy uses deduction, which starts with hypotheses: Hussey and Hussey (1997) suggest that the normal process of the positivist approach is to establish a theory and hypotheses based on the literature. There are several reasons to employ a quantitative method as a main methodology for the data collection for this research. Firstly, this study will measure and investigate the relationships between the constructs. Secondly, this study focuses on the social fact that is related to ontology. Ontology philosophy is concerned with social phenomena and it is related to the positivist approach (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Thirdly, this study examines beliefs and attitudes, which refer to the epistemological position. Finally, in order to maintain quality in the research, a large sample size will be taken – a characteristic of the positivist approach.

By adhering only to the positivist approach some significant issues could potentially be overlooked. Thus, this study also employed the post-positivism philosophy to strengthen the research; an extra stage of interviews was undertaken to explore the cause and effect relationship, to further examine all the important issues, and to strengthen the results. Despite that there are several researches regarding brand experience, this research is newly applied to the luxury cosmetic brand industry. In this respect, a qualitative research method was employed in a subsequent stage of the research to refine the results from quantitative study and explore the cause and effect relationship between all variables.

There are several names for the mixing of methods in social research, namely: blended research, multi-method, triangulated studies and ethnographic residual analysis (Harrison and

Reilly, 2011). Johnson et al., (2007) assert that the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study has received positive attention from academicians. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, p. 5) assert that mixed methods research is “a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many stages in the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone”. A mixed methods approach allows the researcher to be more flexible and to conduct complex research questions (Powell et al., 2008). It is certainly maintained that a mixed methods approach produces effective research; it provides strengths that offset any inherent weaknesses in both the quantitative and qualitative research. This is supported by Freshwater (2007), who claimed that there should be no methodology gap in research conducted using a mixed methods approach. Table 6.2 outlines the differences between qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods.

Table 6.2: Comparison of Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods

Typically	Qualitative methods	Quantitative methods	Mixed methods
Use these philosophical assumptions	Interpretivist knowledge claims	Positivist knowledge claims	Pragmatic knowledge claims
Employ these strategies of enquiry	Phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study, interviews	Surveys and experiments	Sequential concurrent and transformative
Employ these method	Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text or image data	Closed questions, predetermined approaches	Both open- and closed-questions, both emerging and predetermined approaches and both quantitative and qualitative data and data analysis
Use these practices of research as a researcher	Collects participant meanings. Brings personal values to the study. Studies the context or setting of participants. Validates	Tests or verifies theories or explanations. Identifies explanations. Identifies variables to study. Relates variables in questions or hypotheses. Uses	Collects both qualitative/quantitative data. Develops a rationale for mixing. Integrates the data at different stages of

	<p>the accuracy of findings. Makes interpretations of the data. Creates an agenda for change of reform. Collaborates with participants</p>	<p>standards of validity and reliability. Observes and measures information numerically. Uses unbiased approaches. Employs statistical procedures.</p>	<p>inquiry. Presents visual pictures of the procedures in the study. Employs the practices of both qualitative and quantitative research.</p>
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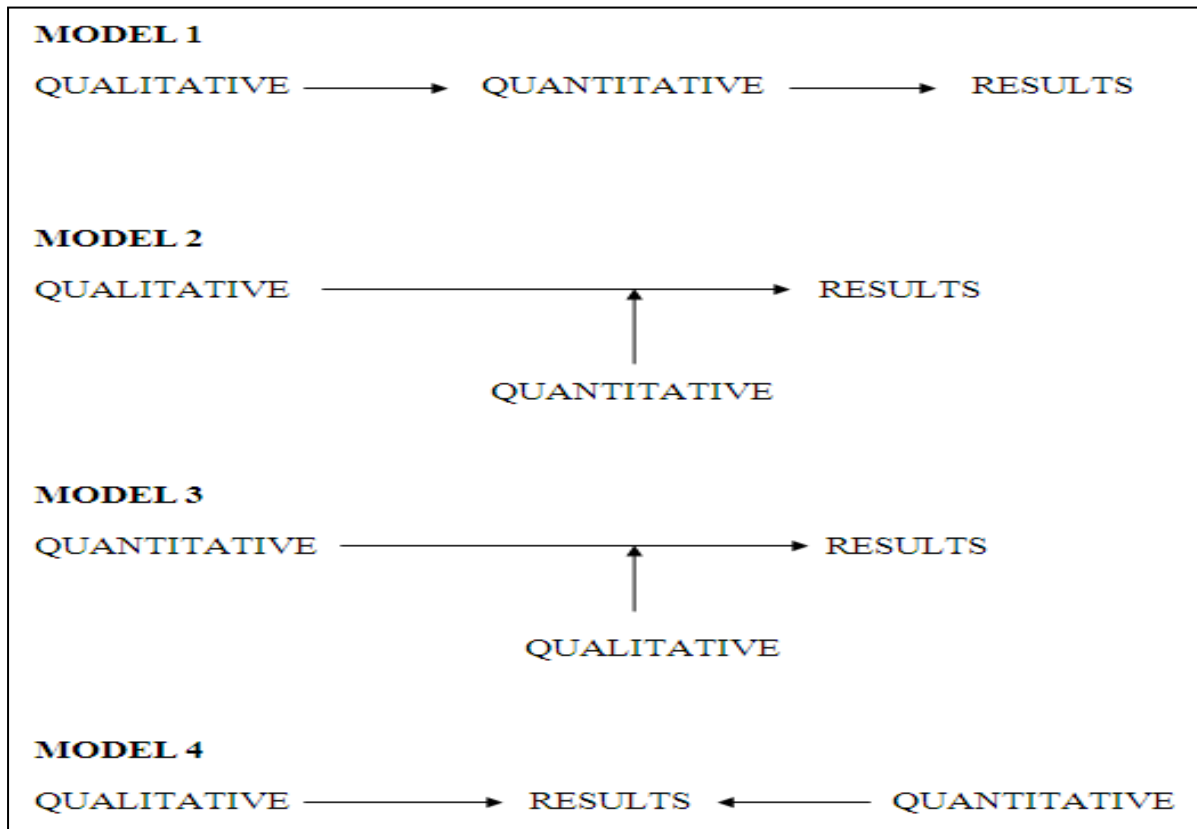
Source: Creswell (2009, p. 17)

Therefore, the mixed methods approach had been applied in the current research for several reasons. First, to investigate the relationship between all research constructs and understand the relationship between them, as well as the cause and effect relationship. By conducting only a quantitative method, some issues could potentially be overlooked; likewise, some important aspects would be better understood by using a qualitative method. Some relationships between variables would better interpreted in a descriptive way than a numerical one. It is generally agreed that a mixed methods approach minimises methodology gaps (Freshwater, 2007).

6.3.4 Methodological Triangulation

Neuman (2003) explains that methodological triangulation is the use of two or more methods, in this research due to the limitations of each method both a quantitative and qualitative method is used. The aim of methodological triangulation is to observe something from several angles rather than one angle (Neuman, 2003). Using methodological triangulation can strengthen and enhance a study producing rich results (Greene and Caracelli, 1997). According to Steckler et al. (1994) there are four types of methodological triangulation. The first model, the triangulation of measures uses more than more measure for the same phenomena. The second model, the triangular of observation, is when the data has been observed by different fields. The third model, the triangulation of theory, has been used when there are multiple theoretical perspectives. The last model is a triangulation of methods in which qualitative and quantitative methods are used equally (Neuman, 2003).

Figure 6.1 Methodological Triangulation



Source: Adapted from Steckler et al. (1994)

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) explain that the choice of triangulation models depend on the research approach and research questions. It can be seen from the figure above that the four models above aim to collect data by both quantitative and qualitative approaches, clearly this indicates that data will be mixed at some stage of the research. For example, researchers can begin with a qualitative method to explore a theory and then followed by a quantitative method to generate a large sample size. Conversely, researchers may start with a quantitative method to test the theory and then move to a qualitative method to enhance in-depth information. Therefore, the present study has employed the first model of triangulation, employing a quantitative method as a prominent method to test the relationship between all variables and to investigate the consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand experience, followed by a qualitative method to endorse the results from quantitative method and to interpret the relationship between all the variables and the cause and effect relationship among them.

6.3.5 The Quantitative Approach

This study employed quantitative methods to collect data in the first phase due to the study being focused on human facts and causes of social phenomena, which are related to the epistemology research philosophy. Also, the aim of this research is to understand the relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experiences and consumer behaviour (loyalty), particularly in Bangkok (Thailand). The conceptual approach presented in the literature reports several aspects and attitudes that can influence the luxury cosmetic brand experience, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty. These aspects indicate that the study is concerned with social, perception and attitude issues. This study was conducted in three separate shopping malls, namely Siam Paragon, The Emporium and Central World located in Bangkok (Thailand), where consumers can develop perceptions, attitudes and behaviours on the basis of brand experience phenomena. There is, thus, a need for a research approach that allows the researcher to understand the consumer behaviour from a luxury cosmetic brand experience point of view.

6.3.6 Rationale for the Quantitative Research

Experience is concerned with transferring knowledge that affects feelings and behaviour. Transferring experience can develop consumer behaviour due to differences in individual attitudes, level of trust, personality and knowledge. The literature supports the idea that the main focus of luxury cosmetic brand experience can be brand trust, brand personality and behaviour (satisfaction and loyalty).

Chapters 2, 3 and 4 (literature chapter) demonstrate the concept of brand experience and the field of luxury cosmetic brands. The purpose of the previous researches are similar to the present research, the majority of the researchers have employed a positivist approach (quantitative method) through survey questionnaires (Table 6.3).

A survey questionnaire is able to seek information on individual attitudes, feelings and perceptions (Baruch and Holton, 2008). Similarly, Chen (2005) asserts that attitude can be measured by asking the participants not only what they feel about the particular aspect but

also what they believe about it. The questionnaire in this study uses Likert scaling to measure the attitudes, feelings and perceptions individually; Likert scales benefit from a range of answers that allows the respondents to state their answer more accurately (Oppenheim, 1992).

The present research intends to examine the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience, the personality, the feeling of satisfaction, trust and loyalty, which are related to the consumer behaviour, perceptions, feelings and attitudes towards his or her cosmetic brand experience. It is the intention to employ a quantitative method, which is generally acknowledged to be one of the major approaches in the business and social sciences research methodology. This design aims to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty, whether there is a direct effect of luxury cosmetic brand experience on consumer loyalty or an indirect effect via brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction. Table 6.3: Brand Experience Studies

Paper Description	Author's Name(s) & Years	Sample Size	Instrument Used
Focal brand experience and product-based norms as moderators in the satisfaction formation process	Patterson and Johnson (1995)	128	Quantitative survey
Effects of consumer perceptions of brand experience on the Web: Brand familiarity, satisfaction and brand trust	Ha and Perks (2005)	203	Quantitative survey
Experience as a moderator of involvement and satisfaction on brand loyalty in a business-to-business setting	Bennett et al (2005)	267	Quantitative survey
Brand experience: What is it? How is it measured? Does it affect loyalty?	Brakus et al (2009)	209	Quantitative survey
Building consumer–brand relationship: A cross-cultural experiential view	Chang and Chieng (2006)	1,233	Quantitative survey
Using the brand experience scale to profile consumers and predict consumer behaviour	Zarantonello and Schmitt (2010)	1,134	Quantitative survey
Perhaps it would be better if materialistic birds of a feather did not shop together: materialism, accountability, and luxury brand consumption experiences	Freeman et al (2008)	95	Quantitative survey

6.3.7 The Research Quantitative Survey

This study proposed to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer behaviour (loyalty) via direct or indirect effects from brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction. Brand experience and especially brand personality could change according to the brands the subjects evaluated. The differences in the brands depend on the product categories due to brand personality being related to consumer traits, namely ruggedness, sophistication, competence, excitement and sincerity. Moreover, consumers are likely to have different levels of involvement, perception and attitude towards brands. To avoid bias and examine the effects of involvement, perception and attitude, the luxury

product categories were pre-selected on the basis of the results of the product pre-test to represent different traits, degrees of involvement, perceptions and attitudes.

Moreover, the brands themselves were not under investigation, the present research used brands as a method to access the luxury cosmetic brand experience by the participants. The subjects were free to select their favourite luxury cosmetic brands in the product categories allocated to them. Since brand experience and brand personality are intangible and personal based on individual perception, the consumers' attitudes towards the brands be and what relationship existed between the consumers and the brands could not be predicted? The importance of the brand was critical to the participants' perceptions and attitudes. In order to stimulate the subjects' perceptions and attitudes to resemble reality as closely as possible the use of existing brands was required.

6.3.8 Rationale for the Qualitative Research

By conducting the research using only a quantitative method, some significant issues could potentially be overlooked; likewise, some important issues could be better interpreted by descriptive method. Thus, this study also employed the qualitative method to further examine all the important issues and strengthen the results. As mentioned in the research design, the second step of the empirical study was the use of a qualitative approach. Gummerrsson (2000) states that personal interviews are able to gain rich information by using an indirect questionnaire. As this study focuses on the luxury cosmetic brand industry context, qualitative enquiry is considered to be valuable. The research aims to employ qualitative approaches after quantitative approaches in order to endorse the results from the quantitative study, gain in depth information, better understanding and to address the research questions.

6.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research attempts to investigate the relationship between the independent and dependent variables such as luxury cosmetic brand experience, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty. Initially, the literature was reviewed to explore the gap in the research and develop an understanding of the main investigation. It was discovered that

brand experience has a behavioural impact; it has a direct effect on consumer loyalty and an indirect effect via brand personality and consumer satisfaction (Brakus et al., 2009).

However, brand experience has not been applied in the luxury brand context, particularly in cosmetic products. By applying brand experience to luxury cosmetic products, the researcher attempts to investigate the relationship between brand experience and loyalty. This research has been conducted in Bangkok (Thailand), where luxury cosmetic brands have been steadily promoted.

For this study, the research design was developed based on a research model. Hussey and Hussey (1997) observe that research design is one of the critical processes in the methodology section as it helps the researcher to set up the boundaries of the study by: setting up the study, defining the type of investigation and other relevant issues. Hussey and Hussey (1997) claim that effective research can only result when the researcher has selected the research design correctly.

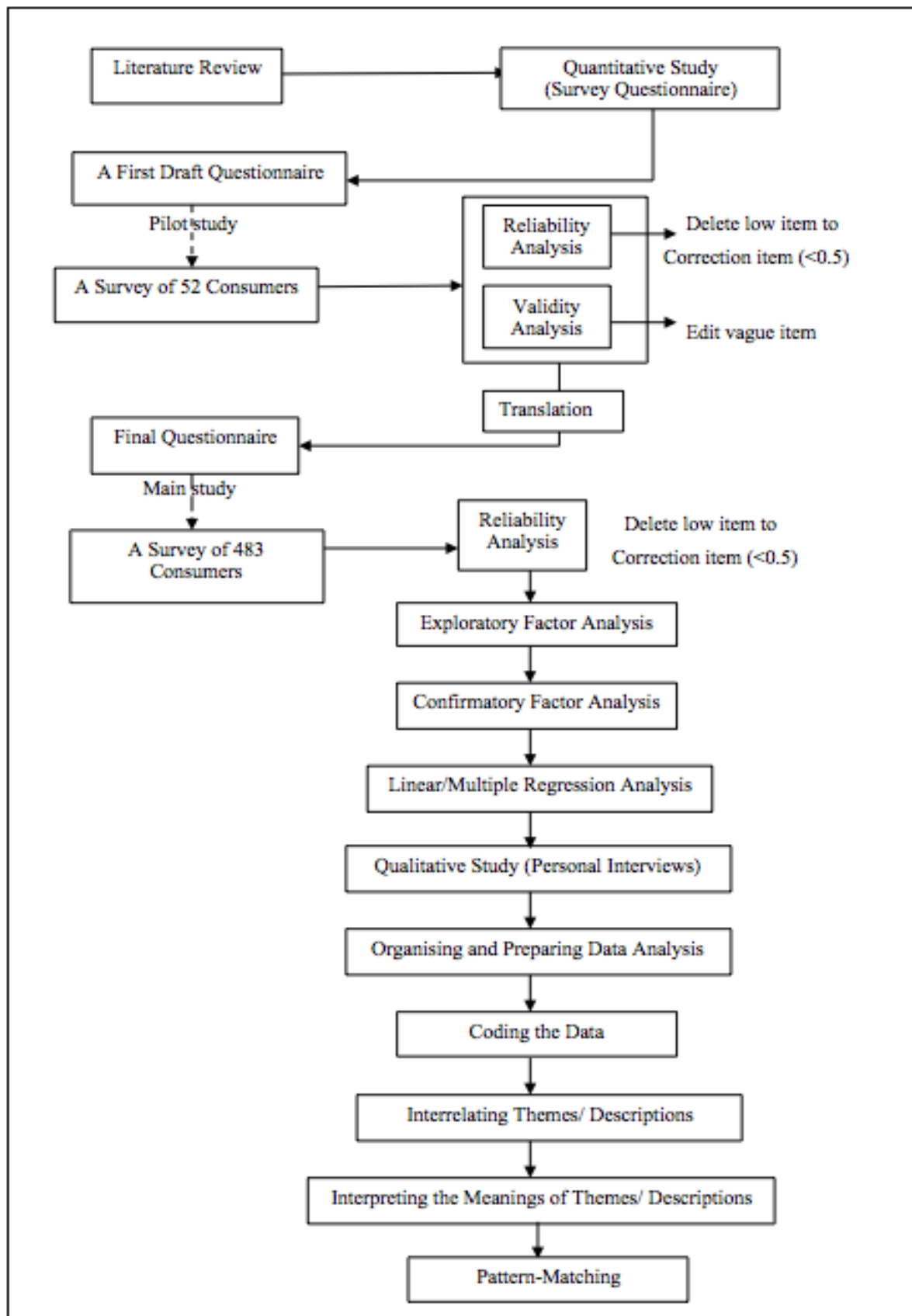
The research design employed for the present research is the hypothetico-deductive approach and inductive approach. The hypothetico-deductive approach starts with a review of the literature, a theoretical framework, then a formulation of the hypotheses and finally critical deductions are made from the results (Sekaran, 2006). The hypothetico-deductive approach helps researchers to answer the research question and justifies the hypotheses. Basically, the research starts with a review of the relevant literature in order to define the main point of research. After the researcher identifies a research gap, the next step is to formulate a conceptual framework. In the conceptual framework in this study, several constructs have been connected regarding the understanding of brand experience, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty. To test the model, data is required to validate the research hypotheses.

The present study uses a self-administered data collection method, where questionnaires were personally handed to the respondents one by one. There are several reasons for having selected this method. First, the self-administered data collection method allows the respondents to ask questions during the completion of the survey, which will result in satisfactory information. Second, it is fast and versatile (Grossnickle and Raskin, 2001).

Third, Sekaran (2000) claims that the self-administered data collection technique results in higher response rates due to the questionnaires being collected instantly they are completed. Finally, it is highly confidential due to the participants not being required to disclose their identities (Burns and Bush, 2002).

In order to contribute an effective research, the researcher decided to select a quantitative research method as a strategy for the theory testing and a qualitative research method as a strategy for in-depth information. The research design process is shown below in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2: Research Design Framework



It is generally accepted that ethical issues should be checked before the data collection process. In order to test the reliability and validity of the research instrument and measurement scale, a pilot study was conducted to check the language, unclear questions, instructions and questionnaire items. Then, to confirm the face validity, some questionnaires were completed by lecturers who specialise in the research area. After that, the data were analysed by using descriptive statistics – SPSS version 18.02. Linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis were applied to test the relationship of the variables in the proposed framework. After analysing the data, the study provided an in-depth discussion, as well as research limitations and recommendations for future research.

Measures used

This present study tests the hypotheses developed in Chapter five. The data for the study were collected from luxury cosmetic consumers in Bangkok (Thailand) by a quantitative survey. In the domain of experience of brands, many researchers have used survey questionnaires to gather the data. Among them are Brakus et al. (2009), who worked on how to measure brand experience, what brand experience really is and how brand experience has a relationship with consumer loyalty; Chang and Chieng (2006) studied the consumer–brand relationship by using the experiential view; Ha and Perk (2005) completed a study on the effects of consumer perceptions of brand experience on the Web. All these researchers employed survey questionnaires to collect the data, which is a satisfactory way to gather data for particular variables of interest. Brakus et al.'s (2009) survey's aim was to find out how brand experience affects consumer behaviour. However, this present study is concerned with determining the consumer perceptions, attitudes, behaviours and consequences created by the luxury cosmetic brand experience in Thailand. This research aims to show the pathway relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty in Thailand. Obviously, perceptions, attitudes and behaviours are influenced by beliefs, assessment of which involved asking the participants about what they feel about luxury cosmetic brand experience. A Likert scale is normally used to measure perceptions, attitudes and behaviour in a survey questionnaire (Miller and Brewer, 2003). In addition to this, the Likert scale is popularly used in survey questionnaires due to the range of answers that allow the respondents to answer accurately. The following section provides an overview and structure of the research questionnaire.

6.4 OVERVIEW AND STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A quantitative questionnaire is an effective method for collecting information from a large number of respondents. It is generally agreed that the survey is designed to generate, in an economical and efficient way, data for a particular project's research objectives (McDaniel and Gates, 2006). Moreover, a survey questionnaire is able to provide individual behaviours, attitudes and perceptions.

The questionnaire items are related with the variables that have been used to develop the hypotheses for the study (Chapter 5). The questionnaire items were adapted to measure the variables for analysing the hypotheses particular to this research. However, some items were used to collect demographic information such as age, level of education, occupation and marital status. In order to gain sufficient information, the research has adapted some of the measurement scales in terms of the language used. During the development of the questionnaire, some elements were identified that could possibly lead to bias. For instance, some questions involving the positive effect of experience may be answered based on emotions. In order to avoid the problem of bias and balance the questionnaire, negative effect questions were conducted.

The researcher began by combining literature related to this research and formulating items that could serve as indications for each variable. Also, the researcher identified existing measurement scales and combined them through a review of prior research for the following constructs: brand experience, brand personality, consumer satisfaction, brand trust and consumer loyalty. The research questionnaire is structured as follows (the full questionnaire is attached in Appendix 1).

The research questionnaire starts by introducing some basic background information for the respondents: this includes general information on the author, the aims of the research (academic study from Brunel Business School), the substantive area (luxury cosmetic brands), the context (Thailand, downtown Bangkok), as well as reassurance about the ethical aspects regarding the law and provisions of codes of research, anonymity and confidentiality.

Also, participation in this questionnaire is on a voluntary basis. Furthermore, there are general guidelines showing the approximate time to complete the questionnaire, clearly stating that there is no right or wrong answer and thanking the respondents in advance for their participation. In respect of the terms used in this questionnaire, the researcher defined and explained the meaning of each variable used in the questionnaire. The first question asks the participants if they are luxury cosmetic brand customers. If not, they are asked to abandon the questionnaire due to this research focus being particularly on luxury cosmetic brands.

The main part of the quantitative survey consists of seven sections. The first section lists 16 different luxury cosmetic brands, and has one option allowing participants to write down their favourite luxury cosmetic brand. Sections 2–6 are measurement scales of each variable (brand experience, brand personality, consumer satisfaction, brand trust and consumer loyalty), consisting of 49 measures in the form of 5-point Likert scales ranging from strong disagreement to strong agreement and descriptive to extremely descriptive. Section 7 relates to demographic information such as age, marital status, level of education and occupation. Sections 1–6 are the most important sections, while section 7 is less important. Section 7 was placed at the end of the questionnaire for two reasons: firstly in order to avoid a possible ‘lead effect’, secondly because the participant might be slightly tired after they have read and answered all the measurement questions the researcher decided to put the most important questions first in order to get sufficient answers to those questions.

6.4.1 Measurement Scales

In the present research, dependent and independent variables were used to measure the consumer behaviours, attitudes and perceptions regarding the luxury cosmetic brand experience. The luxury cosmetic brand experience variable served as an independent variable, and the brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty variables served as the dependent variables. In addition to this, other variables such as age, education level, occupation and marital status were included. In this research, five existing scales were adopted, namely brand experience scale, dimensions of brand personality scale, brand trust scale, satisfaction scale and loyalty scale. All of these modified scales were pre-tested by doctor of philosophy (PhD) candidates and faculty members who specialise in the

research field from Brunel Business School (UK). A self-administered pilot study was undertaken using a different sample from the main study to participate in the questionnaire. Pre-testing (pilot study) aims to check the questionnaire instructions, language used and time to complete the questionnaire. After the reliability and validity of the questionnaire instrument had been approved, it was applied to collect data for the main study from Thai luxury cosmetic consumers in Bangkok (Thailand).

More specifically, the following measures were used:

Independent (Predictor) Variables

Measurement of Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience

At the beginning, the respondents were asked to select just one favourite luxury cosmetic brand among 16 different luxury cosmetic brands. The independent variable of this research is luxury cosmetic brand experience. The researcher had constructed 13 statements describing five dimensions of luxury cosmetic brand experience, namely sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience.

Sensory experience

Sensory experience is created by sense experiences and sense perceptions; it appeals to the senses of sight, scent, sound, touch, taste and smell (Brakus et al., 2009). It could be said that the consumers perceive the sensory experience through music, colour, atmosphere and more; in this regard, marketers apply sensory experience to create brand identities (Schmitt, 1999b).

Affective experience

Affective experience refers to consumer emotions, feelings and moods about objects. Marketers can create a positive engagement between the customer and the brand by focusing on an understanding of the aspects that can trigger the customer's emotions (Schmitt, 1999a). It is well-known that several cosmetic brands have created the name of their products based on emotional status; such as a Clinique's perfume called 'Happy', and Estee Lauder's perfume called 'Beautiful'.

Intellectual experience

Intellectual experiences mostly refer to thinking, cognitive and problem solving (Guilford, 1956). The objective of intellectual experience is to urge consumers to think differently (Schmitt, 1999b). Intellectual experience was applied successfully to brand management by Apple after they launched the iMac under the slogan ‘think different’.

Behavioural experience

Schmitt and Rogers (2008) note that behavioural experience is an act experience; it aims to influence behaviours, physical experiences, lifestyles and interactions.

Social experience

Finally, Schmitt (1999b) claims that social experience is related to associations, brand communities, social identities, groups, culture values, social influence and interrelationships. People rely on their community and it is difficult to switch a community once they are engaged with it. Also, referrals such as from colleagues, family and friends have a strong influence on social experience (Schmitt, 1999a).

The questionnaire instructed the participants to rate (on a 5-point Likert scale) their experience of their favourite luxury cosmetic brands described in each of 13 statements.

The 13 statements are presented here:

Measurement of Brand Experience

Brand experience was measured using Brakus et al.’s (2009) scale and Chang and Chieng’s scale (2006). To assess the extent of what the brand experience dimensions are when they are applied to luxury cosmetic brand experience in Thailand the participants were asked to rate their agreement with the following statements:

Items measuring the sensory experience:

My favourite cosmetic brand makes a strong impression on my senses (e.g. sound, smell, image)

I find my favourite cosmetic brand interesting in a sensory way (e.g. sound, image, smell).

My favourite cosmetic brand is focused on experience sensory appeal.

Items measuring the affective experience:

My favourite cosmetic brand induces feelings.

My favourite cosmetic brand is an emotional brand (e.g. Gucci envy me, Clinique happy).

My favourite cosmetic brand tries to put me in a certain mood.

Items measuring the behavioural experience:

My favourite cosmetic brand tries to remind me of activities I can do (e.g. charity, event).

My favourite cosmetic brand tries to make me think about lifestyle.

Items measuring the intellectual experience:

My favourite cosmetic brand engages my thinking when I encounter this brand (e.g. make-up trend).

My favourite cosmetic brand stimulates my curiosity (e.g. product ingredient).

My favourite cosmetic brand intrigues me (e.g. high technology, innovation).

Items measuring the social-related experience:

My favourite cosmetic brand tries to make me think about human relationships (e.g. brand recommends from friend).

I can relate to other people through my favourite cosmetic brand (e.g. brand community).

Dependent (Outcome) Variables

The dependent variables comprise brand personality, consumer satisfaction, brand trust and consumer loyalty. All of these scales are taken from existing published research and assessed on a 5-point Likert scale.

1. Measurement of Brand Personality

Brand personality was measured with the ‘Dimension of Brand Personality Scale’ (Aaker, 1997):

Items measuring sincerity:

<i>Honest</i>
<i>Wholesome</i>
<i>Original</i>
<i>Cheerful</i>
<i>Friendly</i>

Items measuring excitement:

<i>Trendy</i>
<i>Spirited</i>
<i>Cool</i>
<i>Young</i>
<i>Unique</i>
<i>Independent</i>

Item measuring competence:

<i>Reliable</i>
<i>Secure</i>
<i>Intelligent</i>
<i>Successful</i>

Items measuring sophistication:

<i>Upper class</i>
<i>Glamorous</i>
<i>Good looking</i>
<i>Charming</i>
<i>Feminine</i>

Item measuring ruggedness:

Western

Tough

2. Measurement of brand Trust

The scale of brand trust was adapted from Delgado-Ballester et al. (2003) in the literature of development and validation of brand trust scales. It has been measured by two main components (reliability and intentionality):

Item measuring reliability:

My favourite cosmetic brand is a brand name that meets my expectations.

I feel confidence in my favourite cosmetic brand.

My favourite cosmetic brand is a brand name that never disappoints me.

My favourite cosmetic brand guarantees satisfaction.

Item measuring intentionality:

My favourite cosmetic brand would be honest and sincere in addressing my concerns.

I could rely on my favourite cosmetic brand.

My favourite cosmetic brand would make any effort to satisfy me.

3. Measurement of Consumer Loyalty

The following consumer loyalty scale was adapted from Brakus et al. (2009) in ‘Brand Experience: What Is It? Measured? Does It Affect Loyalty?’. Brand loyalty aims to measure the commitment and repurchase consumer behaviour towards brands:

I will buy my favourite cosmetic brand again.

I will not buy another brand if my favourite cosmetic brand is not available at the store.

I would highly recommend my favourite cosmetic brand to others.

My favourite cosmetic brand will be my first choice in the future.

4. Measurement of Consumer Satisfaction

The consumer satisfaction scale intends to measure the outcome of the subjective evaluation that the chosen brand meets or exceeds the expectations. The following scale was adapted from a version of Brakus et al. (2009):

<i>My choice to get my favourite cosmetic brand has been a good decision.</i>

<i>I am satisfied with my favourite cosmetic brand and its result.</i>
--

<i>If I could do it again, I would buy a brand different from my favourite cosmetic brand.</i>
--

<i>I am not happy with the result of my favourite cosmetic brand.</i>

The present study employed a 5-point Likert scale to collect the data. Sekaran (2000) asserts that the 5-point Likert scale is easy to use and is generally applicable to a survey questionnaire. What's more, there is evidence that a 5-point Likert scale is able to increase response rates by up to 90 per cent of compared to a 7-point Likert scale or 11-point Likert scale (Hartley and MacLean, 2006). Dawes (2002) contends that there is no difference between a 5-point Likert scale and an 11-point Likert scale in terms of the mean. However, there are several unsystematic differences between a 5-point Likert scale and an 11-point Likert scale in kurtosis and skewness. In addition to this, Neumann (1983) suggests that a 5-point Likert scale and a 7-point scale will generate the same outcome. Therefore, this research employed a 5-point Likert scale in the questionnaire.

6.4.2 Translation of the Research Instrument

The present research was conducted in Thailand but the research instrument was written in English; obviously, there is a language problem due to Thailand not being an English-speaking country and some phrases used in the research are likely related to the psychology field. Even though the original language was translated into the target language, the process of translation creates its own problems. Brislin (1970; 1980) claims that there are several problems with language translation such as:

1. Some technical words are easily understood in English but may have no meaning in another language.
2. The translator may not have knowledge of the research field.

To avoid and minimise such translation problems, Brislin (1970) suggests several key translation methods, namely one-way translations, back-translations, bilingual techniques, the committee approach and pre-testing. Within the limitations of time and cost, this research used two translation methods –one-way translations and back-translations.

The stages of the translation procedures are shown below.

First, the research instrument's (questionnaire) English questions were translated into Thai by a professional translation service.

Second, the researcher applied the back-translation approach by giving the questionnaire (Thai version) to two independent translators to translate back from Thai into English in order to check the content and meaning of the research instrument. As suggested by Brislin (1970), the back-translation method requires a minimum of two independent translators.

Third, the semi-final translated version was handed to a Thai editor to refine in terms of words used, and then was translated back into English to ensure that the translation was correct.

6.5 PRE-TESTING (PILOTING) THE INSTRUMENT

The quantitative survey demonstrated above is the final version of a long and laborious process that has involved many steps, including the development of the original first draft survey and the improvement step (piloting stage) in order to produce this last version that was used to collect the research.

After the development of the quantitative survey, Bryman and Bell (2007) suggest that researchers undertake pilot testing to ensure that a questionnaire research instrument is sufficient to be administered, especially in the case of a self-completion questionnaire in order to minimise errors by the respondents. McDaniel and Gates (2006) contend that in order to minimise errors, the questionnaire should present clear questions, be unambiguous and easy to answer.

After the preliminary questionnaire was developed, it was evaluated by six academics who specialised in branding and consumer behaviour (professors and lecturers at Brunel Business School), as well as for the items regarding the independent variables, luxury cosmetic brand experience, and dependent variables, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty, to assess face validity. Following the face validity test, and in order to evaluate the item content, clarity of the instructions, the language and the functionality of the quantitative survey, the researcher pre-tested the quantitative survey with a small sample group. Bryman and Bell (2007) recommend the use of a small set of respondents who are dissimilar to the sample which will be used for the full research. As a result, the pilot survey was conducted among 56 students at Brunel University, UK, using the convenience sampling technique. Their comments are likely related to the terms of wording (confused words and misleading questions) and length.

After the researcher applied the comments and edited the survey, another pilot test (English version) was conducted with 20 PhD students and academics from Brunel Business School, Brunel University, UK. In this stage, the researcher has used techniques recommended by Krosnick (1999). Krosnick suggested behaviour coding and cognitive pre-testing; techniques used to monitor respondents' behaviour physically and mentally during the questionnaire completion. In order to do this, the researcher assessed the respondents individually and asked them to 'think aloud' while completing the questionnaire (cognitive pre-testing); the researcher wrote down whatever came out from their mind. The researcher was also monitoring reactions, hesitations and other cues such as the problems in understanding and how smooth the process of completing the questionnaire is for the participants (behaviour coding). These techniques assist the researcher to understand how the questions were comprehended and answered, as well as to identify sources of confusion and misunderstanding. The researcher received feedback regarding the same problems (wording and unclear questions) and functionality, and received comments which generated improvements in many aspects of the survey, particularly solutions for wording and rewriting unclear questions. After the second pilot test, the researcher edited the survey by correcting the wording and provided examples for some questions which were unclear.

However, as the first and second pilot tests had been completed by highly educated respondents, following the feedback from these pilot tests the researcher produced a third version of the quantitative survey. The third questionnaire eliminated possible weaknesses (wording), and reduced measurement errors and misunderstood questions. The third pilot test used a convenience sampling technique with a sample of 52 individuals from Central Bangkok (Thailand) and determined that there were no essential problems detected and the questionnaire instrument was ready to be used. This third version is the final version comprising a total of six pages.

6.5.1 Reliability and Validity

It is generally claimed that the reliability of the research is determined by the accuracy and credibility of the data collection. Reliability emphasises the ability to repeat the research. It could be said that the research must result in the same outcome when it applies the same procedure. However, Robson (1993) explains that data reliability may be influenced by several factors such as subject error, bias and observation error, and bias threats. Subject error refers to the time and date that the data have been collected. Subject bias involves the authority to say what they want. Furthermore, observer error involves the organisation of the questionnaire, whereas observer bias involves how the researcher explains the questionnaire instrument.

The present research has employed a deductive approach in order to obtain sufficient data for particular variables. The survey questionnaire was adapted to gather information from Thai luxury cosmetic brand consumers. The researcher's contact number and address were attached on the first page of the survey questionnaire in order to respond to the participants if they had any question. To ensure the reliability of the questionnaire instrument, measure reliability was checked by the internal consistency method (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Cronbach's coefficient alpha is commonly used to measure the reliability of the survey instrument. The result of Cronbach's coefficient alpha should be over 0.7 in order to show the reliability of the questionnaire instrument (Hair et al., 1995).

Research validity refers to the context of the research findings (Collis and Hussy, 2003). There are two methods to test research validity comprising the external and internal. Reige (2003) observed that internal validity refers to the phenomenon about real life experience and external validity means the basic outcomes. Yin (1994) asserts that external and internal validity can be tested by the replication logic approach. The replication logic approach should be applied for the questionnaire. The means of the replication logic approach is the ability to get the same result when the theory has been tested several times.

According to Hussey and Hussey (1997), the validity in the positivistic paradigm is more likely low compared to the phenomenological paradigm due to its emphasis on the accuracy of the measurement. Also, any misunderstood questions will result in low validity. In order to avoid low validity, pre-testing (pilot) was applied before the main data collection. Thus, all the vague questions and unclear language were eliminated. Moreover as this is a self-administered questionnaire data collection technique, the participants were allowed to ask about any unclear questions during completion of the quantitative survey.

The pilot study aims to check the reliability and validity of all the construct measurements. The pilot study was conducted on 52 Thai luxury cosmetic brand consumers in Bangkok (Thailand) (see Table 6.4 and Table 6.5). The data from 52 respondents was analysed in order to check the reliability.

Table 6.4: Demographic Profile of Thai Luxury Cosmetic Brand Consumers’ Pilot Study Sample (N=52)

	Sample size (n)	%	N
Age-	21	11.5	6
	22	25	13
	23	17.3	9
	24	32.7	17
	25	7.7	4
	27	1.9	1
	29	1.9	1
	34	1.9	1
Total		100	52
Marital status-	Single	75	39
	Married	7.7	4
	Divorced	17.3	9
Total		100	52
Education Level-	Up to high school	-	-
	Bachelor’s degree	69.30	36
	Master’s degree or higher	30.8	16
	N/A	-	-
Total		100	52
Occupation-	Student	32.7	17
	Self employed	3.8	2
	Employee	63.5	33
Total		100	52

Table 6.5: Coefficient Alpha and Correlations of Scales for the Pilot Study

Constructs		Items	Cronbach's alpha
Luxury cosmetic-brand experience	Sensory experience	SEN1 SEN2 SEN3	0.773
	Affective experience	AFF1 AFF2 AFF3	0.824
	Behavioural experience	BEHAVE1 BEHAVE2	0.769
	Intellectual experience	INTELL1 INTELL2 INTELL3	0.885
	Social identity experience	SOC1 SOC2	0.699
Brand personality-	Sincerity	SIN1 SIN2 SIN3 SIN4 SIN5	0.891
	Excitement	EXCITE1 EXCITE2 EXCITE3 EXCITE4 EXCITE5 EXCITE6	0.848
	Competence	COM1 COM2 COM3 COM4	0.753
	Sophisticated	SOP1 SOP2 SOP3 SOP4 SOP5	0.804
	Ruggedness	RUGG1 SUGG2	0.821
	Brand trust-	Reliability	RELY1 RELY2 RELY3 RELY4
	Intention	INTENT1 INTENT2 INTENT3	0.769
Consumer loyalty		LOY1 LOY2 LOY3 LOY4	0.799
Consumer satisfaction		SAT1 SAT2 SAT3 SAT4	0.817

6.6 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

It is essential that the survey's instructions and measurement items be carefully written, easy to understand and not vague. The study used only a self-administered questionnaire to collect the data for the main survey from consumers who visited luxury cosmetic counters in the three major department stores in Bangkok (Thailand), namely Siam Paragon, The Emporium and Central World, from 15th August 2011 to 6th October 2011. The sampling method including the sample size and the process of accessing the respondents will be explained in the following section.

6.6.1 The Selection of the Sample

Basically, the population is referred to “the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected. The term ‘units’ is employed because it is not necessarily people who are being sampled – the researcher may want to sample from a universe of nations, cities, regions, firms, etc. Thus, ‘population’ has a much broader meaning than the everyday use of the term, whereby it tends to be associated with a nation’s entire population” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p. 182).

It is generally agreed that sampling is a fundamental element of the research design. The sample is implied to be a subset of the population; it is a process of obtaining information from a subset of a population which is related to the research questions. It is selected for investigation; it is a process of systematically choosing a sub-set of the total population (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The survey design has outlined it is appropriate to clarify the sampling process. In the case of the present research, the population has been defined as wealthy consumers of luxury cosmetic brands in Bangkok, Thailand.

The next decision to be made was related to the method of sample selection that should be used: the method of selection of the sample is based on two approaches, namely the probability approach and the non-probability approach (Bryman and Bell, 2007). A probability sample means “a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected. It is generally assumed that

a representative sample is more likely to be the outcome when this method of selection from the population is employed” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p. 182).

In addition to this, Bryman and Bell (2007) explain that the aim of probability sampling is to minimise sampling errors. On the other hand, a non-probability sample refers to “a sample that has not been selected using a random selection method. Essentially, it implies that some units in the population are more likely to be selected than others” (Bryman and Bell, 2007, p. 182). Although probability sampling methods strengthen the validity of the results more than non-probability, they are time-consuming and costly. Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 198) state that, “in the field of business and management, convenience samples are very common and indeed are more prominent than are samples based on probability sampling”. Therefore, this survey is based on non-probability sampling, or ‘convenience sampling’. A convenience sampling technique was employed (Hair et al., 2006) on luxury cosmetic brand consumers who visited luxury cosmetic brand counters in three specific department stores, namely Siam Paragon, Central World and The Emporium, which are located in downtown Bangkok.

As mentioned above, the survey in this study is based on non-probability sampling (convenience sampling approach). In this case, bias normally occurs because the sample represents an unknown number of the population (unrepresentative sample); it is usually called ‘selection bias’ (Black, 1999). In order to avoid a selection bias problem, the researcher must be aware when using a convenient sample not to generalise the population (Black, 1999). On the other hand, the convenient sample technique is one of the most common methods of sampling due to it being easy to access people, although it is unrepresentative. In addition to this, the convenient sample method is appropriate in this study due to the time limitation; the convenience sample method is rather quick compared to other sampling methods (Black, 1999).

Furthermore, it is generally agreed that sometimes samples are not able to participate in the survey. It could be said that non-response bias is the bias when a sample is not willing to respond in a proper way (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). Armstrong and Overton (1977) highlight that the interest hypothesis affects people’s attitudes and subjects a bias problem; when respondents find the objective of the questionnaire is related to their interests, they are likely to respond more readily and give precise answers. It is not only an unrepresentative sample or interest hypothesis but also a poor measurement process resulting in bias. In order

to minimise bias, a pilot test was employed in this study. Comments and feedback from the respondents regarding the measures and the information were used to create a satisfactory questionnaire. All the data was double-checked carefully and precisely.

The samples were selected from Thai citizens who live in Bangkok, the capital city, and are likely to purchase luxury cosmetic brand products, particularly from Siam Paragon, The Emporium Shopping Mall and Central World. Convenience samples selected from Thai woman who walked pass by cosmetic zone in three particular department stores. Considering the time and travel costs, the researcher selected the sample from only three luxury shopping malls in downtown Bangkok. Sampling from this sector was considered as appropriate because Asian countries represent a high purchasing volume of luxury brands (Okonkwo, 2007). Thailand is recognised as having luxury product shoppers; particularly, Bangkok was named as a ‘shopping paradise’ for both local and international customers. Moreover, the majority of the luxury brands such as Chanel, Bobbi Brown, Clinique, Kose, SK II, Anna Sui, Yves Saint Laurent and so forth are located in downtown Bangkok.

6.6.2 Sample Size

The details below show the size of the research sample. Bryman and Bell (2003) explain that the sample size depends on a number of considerations but the most crucial aspects are 1) time; and 2) cost. Therefore, in order to produce quality research, the timeframe should be adapted to suit the methodology. In order to produce quality research and sufficient data, the researcher selected the self-administered data collection technique, allowing the participants to ask questions during the completion of the questionnaire, and a target sample size of 520 respondents. The literature claims that the self-administered questionnaire results in almost 100 per cent response rates (Sekaran, 2000). The researcher has estimated a response rate of 100 per cent would result in an achieved sample of $n = 520$. This estimated size is considered to be a good level to analyse the data. Also, this sample size is considered as more than enough compared to previous research, especially in the area of luxury: Phau and Prendergast (2000), $n = 116$; Kapferer (1998), $n = 200$; Dall’Olmo et al., (2004), $n = 90$.

Accordingly, 520 questionnaires were collected and 37 were excluded due to a large amount of missing data. Consequently, 483 valid questionnaires for the analysis were obtained.

The data for the main survey were intended to focus on luxury cosmetic brands that were located in Siam Paragon, The Emporium shopping mall and Central World, Bangkok (Thailand). The questionnaire was structured in six pages stapled with a covering letter appearing on the front cover. To encourage people to participate in this research and maximise customer participation, a souvenir (pen) was given. As a result, the researcher obtained 483 completed surveys from the total 520 distributed surveys.

6.6.3 Data Analysis Techniques

Descriptive statistics were conducted by using SPSS 18.02 after completion of the data collection. Descriptive statistics provide respondents' details such as age, marital status, level of education, etc. Then, the mean and the standard deviation were calculated to demonstrate the central tendency and dispersions of the variable. Moreover, skewness and kurtosis were tested for normal data distribution. After that, the reliability test was applied to check the credibility and the reliability of the instrument in the main survey. Churchill (1979) claims that the reliability test aims to test the scales used to measure the constructs and refine the measures. Then, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to clarify the measurement scale, followed by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis and purify the final measurement scale. The test of validity is employed to check the measurement scales. Finally, linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis (SPSS version 18.02) were used to test the hypotheses for this study.

The pilot study was applied to test the reliability of the multi-measurement scale before collecting the main study data. Cronbach's coefficient alpha (α) is a well-known reliability test instrument (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Furthermore, the face validity of the survey questionnaire had been tested by academics who were experts in the research field (Brunel Business School, UK). For the main study, the questionnaire reliability and validity were checked by using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows. However, the construct validity of the questionnaire was assessed by composite validity, Cronbach's alpha reliability, and average variance extracted methods. Lastly, linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis (SPSS version 18.02) tested the relationships of all the variables in the framework.

In order to clean the data, the treatment of the missing data was applied by using SPSS 18.02 version for Windows; descriptive statistics, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and the outlier test will be demonstrated in Chapter 7. Finally, linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis (SPSS version 18.02) tested the hypotheses proposed in Chapter 5 as well as the relationships of all the variables in the framework.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Hair et al. (2006) explain that exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a technique that loads and extracts related factors into groups. It is commonly known as a technique to ‘take what the data gives you’ (Hair et al., 2006). It is a technique that is normally used in social science research to identify the latent variables and group a large set of observed variables into a smaller number of factors which are highly correlated to each other (Hair et al., 2006). The present study employed exploratory factor analysis to group the data into a factor and then employed confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis.

Exploratory factor analysis in SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used for this study. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) explain that there are several methods of factor extraction and rotation in SPSS; therefore, this research employed the principal component extraction method and orthogonal (varimax) rotation method. The present research assessed the adequacy of the extraction and the number of factors by using eigenvalues and the scree plot. The other issue is the variance score; it is generally claimed that variance scores need to be calculated before doing the factor extraction; therefore, the variance scores can be calculated by communality (Field, 2006). In addition to this, a value of communality = 1 means that the variable has no specific variance, whereas a value of communality = 0 means that the variable shares nothing with other variables (Hair et al., 2007). Thus, Hair et al. (2007) suggest that the value of communality should be more than 0.5 and more than 0.7 for a large sample size. SPSS version 18.02 was applied to calculate the communality (table 7.11) for this study.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted after the exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Netemeyer et al. (2003) explain that confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a technique commonly used to confirm *a priori* hypotheses of the relationship between a series of measurement items and their respective factors. Hair et al. (2006) assert that CFA is used to test whether the relationships on the theory-based are present in the data. CFA was applied to this study for several reasons. First, to ensure the relationships between the observed variables and the latent variables (unobserved variables) met the unidimensionality assumption. Second, to check the standardised factor loading values; the standardised factor loading values demonstrate the relationship between the items and the construct. It is generally agreed that the standardised factor loading values should be more than 0.60 in order to show a strong association.

Then in the study, for reliability assessment (Cronbach's alpha), the test of internal consistency was applied to the factor results from the confirmatory factor analysis (Churchill, 1979). The result of the Cronbach's coefficient alpha should be over 0.7 as a good reliable value (Hair et al., 1995). However, Nunnally (1978) noted that Cronbach's coefficient alpha is accepted within 0.5–0.6.

Scale Validity

The scale validity of a measurement instrument refers to testing the measurement designed for particular research (DeVellis, 2003). Therefore, it is important to check the measurement scale validity. The below section describes three types of validity applied in the present research for the main study.

Content validity, which refers to the extent to which the measurement scales are relevant to the domain content of the study. The present research's content validity was tested by considering the measurement scales which have been developed by previous research (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2004). Thus, the present study used the measurement scales developed from marketing literature, brand management literature and consumer behaviour literature.

Discriminant validity, which refers to checking that a measurement item does not highly correlate with other measurement items of different variables (Hair et al., 2003). Chin (1998) notes that discriminant validity can be examined by the cross-loading within factor loading. Appendix 4 demonstrates the discriminant validity test; all the measuring items in the same variables should present a value higher than all of its cross-loadings in a row and column. In addition to this, Hair et al. (2006) asserts that in order to obtain discriminant validity, all the cross-loadings should be less than 0.4.

Convergent validity, which refers to independent measures of the same construct. It is to test the degree to which two or more measurement items under the same variable are correlated; therefore, a high correlation means that the scale is measuring its concept (Zikmund, 2003). Robinson (1991) suggests that inter-item correlations greater than 0.3 and item-to-total correlations greater than 0.50 are considered as high correlations. Thus, convergent validity of this study illustrates in Appendix 5.

The validity of all three scales was tested in the present study. In addition to this, SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used to test convergent and discriminant validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). According to Babin et al. (2000), convergent validity can be checked by composite reliability, the average variance extracted and the item's reliability. While, Joreskog and Sorbom (1996) claim that factor loading of items (pattern coefficient) is able to check the convergent validity.

Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is a statistical technique used to analyse the relationships between variables. There are two regression analysis techniques – linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis. Linear regression analysis is used to examine the relationship between two variables, whereas multiple regression analysis is used to examine the relationship between one dependent variable and two or more independent variables (Ho, 2006). Therefore, both techniques aim to investigate the relationships between variables (Ho, 2006). Normally, regression analysis focuses on using the relationship for prediction (Ho, 2006).

The present study applied linear regression analysis to examine the significant relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience (independent variable) and brand personality (dependent variable), luxury cosmetic brand experience (independent variable) and consumer satisfaction (dependent variable), and luxury cosmetic brand experience (independent variable) and brand trust (dependent variable). Multiple regression analysis was applied to analyse the relationship between a dependent variable (consumer loyalty) and a set of independent variables (brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction) in order to find the best predictor equation for a set of variables.

A multicollinearity problem often occurs when performing a multiple regression analysis. It is a statistical problem when there are two or more independent variables and they are highly correlated to the same independent variable (Field, 2005). Myers (1990) notes that the variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance statistic indicate a problem of multicollinearity. Therefore, showing that there is no multicollinearity diagnostic, the VIF value should be less than 10 and the tolerance more than 0.10 (Ho, 2006).

6.7 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

6.7.1 Qualitative Data Collection Methods

Semi-Structured Interviews

Easterby-Smith et al. (2008, p. 144) state that a personal interview aims to “probe deeply, to uncover new clues, open up new dimensions of a problem and to secure vivid, accurate inclusive accounts that are based on personal experience”. Interviews are advantageous to the researcher by allowing the researcher to ask more details and follow-up questions. However, there are several disadvantages of the interview method. For example, bias responses by the researchers and difficulty in comparing the evidences due to different participants having their own responses (Creswell, 2009). The interview methods range from unstructured, which allow participant to talk freely and gain in depth information, to highly structured, which are based on questions (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Thus, the present study selected a semi-structured interview to conduct an effective research.

The semi-structured interview approach is flexible as it allows the interviewer to follow a pre-prepared outline and ask additional questions (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). The semi-structured interview approach has the advantages of being systematic and comprehensive, while being informal (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). Providing a structured interview is not advised as this may prevent additional information being proffered by interviewees. Thus, the semi-structured interviews are appropriate for this present research. The interview guide demonstrates the major areas of enquiry (Appendix 8).

Sample Selection

Purposive sampling techniques are usually applied in qualitative researches (Teddie and Yu, 2007; Bryman and Bell, 2007). Teddie and Yu (2007) explain that the purposive sampling technique is selecting units such as individuals or groups depending on the particular purposes concerned with the research questions. In comparison with probability sampling techniques which use a large number of samples, purposive sampling aims to select a small number of samples (usually not more than 30 samples) in order to achieve in depth information (Patton, 1990).

In this present study, the sampling for the second research stage included Thai consumers with experience in luxury cosmetic brand products – for this study a sample of 22 luxury cosmetic brand consumers, representing as wide a cross section of Thai luxury cosmetic brand consumers. It is generally agreed that a small sample size is used in a qualitative approach. The small sample size is able to give rich and saturated results (Kvale, 1996). Table 6.6 shows the profile of participants.

Table 6.6: Profiles of Interviewees

Interviewee	Favourite cosmetic brand	Duration of brand usage	Interview duration (Minutes)
1	Shiseido1	3 years	20
2	Lanvin	5 years	40
3	Shiseido2	Almost 2 years	20
4	Philosophy	1 year	30
5	Bobbi Brown1	10 months	25
6	Chanel1	Almost 1 year	20

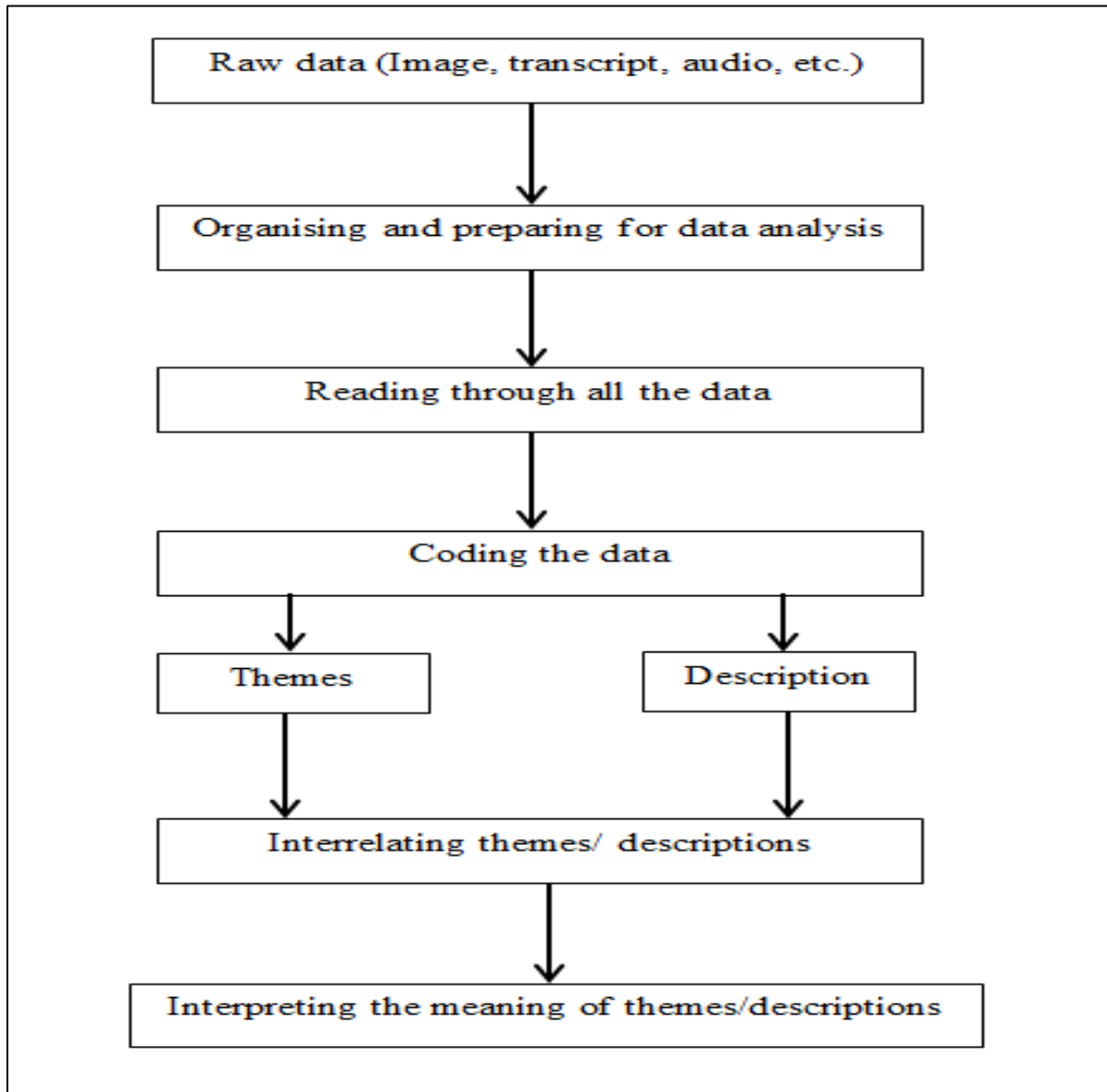
7	M.A.C1	5 months	20
8	Laura Mercier1	Almost 1 year	30
9	Benefit	1 year	35
10	Laneige	3-4 years	35
11	Bobbi Brown2	1 year	30
12	Sulwhasoo	7 months	20
13	Giorgio Armani	Almost 3 years	40
14	Urban Decay	1.5 years	40
15	Chanel2	1 year	15
16	Laura Mercier2	1 year	30
17	Chanel3	5 months	20
18	M.A.C2	1-2 years	30
19	Chanel4	6 months	30
20	Cellcosmet	Several months	15
21	Laura Mercier3	1 years	20
22	Nars	1-2 years	30

Procedures of Data Analysis

The following figure (see figure 6.3 overleaf) demonstrates an overview of the data analysis process for a qualitative approach.

The first stage of qualitative approach for this research is to organise and prepare the data for analysis by transcribing interviews. The second step is to read through all of the data to get an overall background and sense of information. Then begins the coding process to manage all of the information, the data are analytically coded and carefully categorised. The fourth step is to produce a ‘description’ and ‘themes’. Descriptions result from in depth searching and questioning. In this study, the ‘description’ is the luxury cosmetic brand. In addition to this, ‘themes’ are generated by this description. The ‘themes’ were linked into theoretical model and the results from the quantitative study. The next stage involves a themes discussion and interconnection. This stage could be called ‘pattern-matching’, it refers to a prediction of a pattern of outcomes based on existing theory to explain what you expect to find (Saunders e al., 2000). The last stage is an interpretation stage which compares the qualitative data analysis and findings from the literature, resulting in the final conclusion.

Figure 6.3: Data Analysis in Qualitative Research



Source: Creswell (2009)

6.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical issues are one of the most important issues in the research. Ethical issues are generally considered to be a crucial issue when the research involves human matters. The researcher must protect the human rights (privacy and confidentiality) during the participation (Neuman, 2003).

This research followed and met the ethical requirements. Before collecting the data, the objective of the research was explained to the participants. Also, participants were assured that the data collected would be used for academic purposes only. In term of the qualitative study, the participants were asked if the interview could be recorded. Again, the participants were told that this interview was used for academic purpose only. Moreover, this survey had been approved by the Brunel Business School Ethics Committee. The participants were asked to participate voluntarily and allowed to withdraw from the study at any time. The participants were told that there was no right or wrong answer and that the survey was anonymous and so their information would remain confidential and be analysed as an aggregate.

This study followed the Brunel Business School Ethics Form, which adhered to the expectations of the Ethics Committee. The Brunel Business School Ethics Form provided information on the research, data collection process, several considerations (ethical and risk issues) and declarations. As part of the ethics procedure, a Brunel Business School Research Ethics Form must be signed by the researcher and the research supervisor and this form along with a consent form and the questionnaire were submitted to the Brunel Ethics Committee.

6.9 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provided an explanation of the two main research paradigms, namely the positivist and phenomenological approaches. There are advantages and disadvantages of both approaches. Also, there are many researchers in the domain of marketing, particularly in brand experience, that have employed a positivist and post-positivist approaches; therefore, this research was using a quantitative method (positivist approach) to answer the research questions and to test the proposed hypotheses, and a qualitative method (post-positivist

approach) to refine the results from quantitative method, better understanding all variables and gain in depth information regarding the research questions. The data for the present study were collected from luxury cosmetic consumers in Bangkok (Thailand) through a survey questionnaire and semi-structured interview.

The study used a self-administered questionnaire among 483 Thai luxury cosmetic customers. The questionnaire was developed based on existing measurement scales. The questionnaire instrument was structured in seven sections comprising ‘list of luxury cosmetic brands’, ‘luxury cosmetic brand experience’, ‘brand personality’, ‘brand trust’, ‘consumer satisfaction’, ‘consumer loyalty’, and demographic questions such as age, marital status, education level and occupation. Five-point Likert scales were applied to measure this study. Before collecting the main data, pre-testing (pilot study) had been applied with 52 respondents in order to check the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The process of sample selection, the sample size, measurement scales and the data analysis process were discussed in this chapter. After cleaning the data, data codes were entered into SPSS version 18.02. Data analysis techniques, including SPSS version 18.02, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were explained. Then, there was a discussion about the main data analysis techniques linear/multiple regression analysis using SPSS version 18.02 (the software to test hypotheses). Qualitative data collections via semi-structured interviews were conducted among 22 Thai luxury cosmetic customers. Finally, the ethical considerations have been presented in this chapter. Chapter 7 provides the results and findings from the quantitative stage of the investigation.

CHAPTER 7

THE QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have:

1. Presented the foundations of this thesis by introducing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives and a brief explanation of the research methodology. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were outlined followed by a summary of the research limitations and a brief review of the contents of each chapter.
2. Provided the concept of luxury brands, outlined definitions, perspectives and characteristics of luxury brands. Reviewed the marketing concepts of luxury brand consumers together with luxury brand consumption. In addition, explored the dimension of luxury brands applied in experiential marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing. Presented the context used for this study; the luxury cosmetics industry in Thailand.
3. Reviewed inconsistencies relating to the definition of experience in various disciplines. Presented fields of experience including product experience, service experience, shopping experience and consumption experience. Importantly, this chapter showed the congruence between transactional marketing and experiential marketing.
4. Reviewed the phenomenon of branding and other brand constructs related to this study. It has highlighted the meaning of brand, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction, consumer loyalty and eventually, the main construct of this research, brand experience. Thus contextualised, the rationale behind the study's intended focus on brand experience, the source of its dependent variables, was presented.
5. Explored the relevant theoretical frameworks related to the variables used in this research and outlined the conceptual model, explaining the constructs relating to luxury cosmetic brands among women in Thailand. Provided the proposed research conceptual framework and identified the research hypotheses for testing. The chapter highlighted the four main consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand

experience namely brand personality, consumer satisfaction, brand trust and consumer loyalty.

6. Proposed the research approach and methodology applied in this study. Explained the research methodology and sample selection, measurement used and the statistical techniques. The dominant research approach is a quantitative method using a quantitative survey. A qualitative approach is employed in this research to refine the result from the quantitative study in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand in Thailand.

This chapter will show the process of the data collection and the results obtained from the data analysis of 483 self-administered questionnaires collected from 15th August 2011 to 6th October 2011. The research population are women in Bangkok (Thailand) who visited luxury cosmetic brand counters in three specific department stores, namely Siam Paragon, The Emporium Shopping Mall and Central World. This chapter will start by demonstrating the demographic characteristics and response rates among the sample. Next, the screening of the data in preparation of further quantitative analyses will be addressed. Rounding out, the items were clarified by exploratory factor analysis to identify their factors. The results from the exploratory factor analysis were measured again by confirmatory factor analysis. Finally, linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis were used to test the hypothesised relationships between the research variables as proposed in the conceptual framework. Conclusions are drawn in the last section.

7.2 RESPONSE RATE

The questionnaire was distributed to 520 Thai consumers who visited luxury cosmetic brand counters in three specific department stores, namely Central World, The Emporium and Siam Paragon, from 15th August 2011 to 6th October 2011. A self-administered data collection method was employed, where the researcher handed a questionnaire to the respondent and monitored the respondent while they completed it. After screening, 37 questionnaires were eliminated due to reasons such as incompleteness or inaccuracy in responding to the questions. Thus, 483 valid questionnaires were used in this present research. This calculates to a 93 per cent response rate (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1: Response Rate in this Research

Total questionnaire distributed	520	100%
Total respondents in this research	483	93%
Invalid questionnaires	37	7%
Valid questionnaire in this research	483	93%

7.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

The main study was completed over the two months from 15th August 2011 to 6th October 2011. Chapter 6 explained that the data for the main study were collected from women in Bangkok (Thailand) who visited luxury cosmetic brand counters in three particular department stores. Of the 520 questionnaires distributed by the self-administered data collection technique, 483 were valid questionnaires, which calculated as a response rate of 93 percent. This high response rate could be owing to the use of the self-administered questionnaire method. The data were coded and cleaned before analysing the results. Incomplete questionnaires were discarded from the study.

Demographic information characteristics assist researchers to determine the representative of the target population. It demonstrates how the results of the research can be related to the target population. The present research looks at the distribution of the sample including age, marital status, level of education and occupation.

Age

There was no minimum age requirement for this research provided the respondents were visitors of the luxury cosmetic brand counters in the three particular department stores that were mentioned in Chapter 6.

Marital Status

Table 7.2 presents the marital status of the women in Bangkok who participated in the present research.

Table 7.2: Marital Status of Female Participants in Bangkok

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	338	70.0	70.0	70.0
	Married	139	28.8	28.8	98.8
	Divorced	6	1.2	1.2	100.0
	Other	-	-	-	-
Total		483	100.0	100.0	

Level of Education

Table 7.3 presents the level of education of the women in Bangkok who participated in the present research.

Table 7.3: Level of Education of Female Participants in Bangkok

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Up to high school	5	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Bachelor's degree	275	56.9	56.9	58.0
	Master's degree or higher	194	40.2	40.2	98.1
	N/A	9	1.9	1.9	100.0
Total		483	100.0	100.0	

Occupation

The occupations of the women in Bangkok who participated in this research are shown in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4: Occupation of Female Participants in Bangkok

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Student	75	15.5	15.5	15.5
	Self employed	48	9.9	9.9	25.5
	Employee	352	72.9	72.9	98.3
	Unemployed	8	1.7	1.7	100.0
Total		483	100.0	100.0	

As main focus of this research is on the context of luxury cosmetic brands, only female luxury cosmetic brand consumers were observed. The results show that: the majority of the respondents were between the ages of 23 and 35 (84 per cent); most were single (70 per cent); a high percentage of the participants (57 per cent) held at least a bachelor's degree, as well as 40 per cent having a master's degree or higher education; 73 per cent of respondents were employed, followed by students and self-employed, 15 per cent and 10 per cent, respectively.

7.4 DATA SCREENING

Without doubt, precise results come from accurate data. There are some issues that frequently occur in data handling such as missing data, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and outliers, affecting the relationship between the variables or results (Hair et al., 2006). To deal with such issues, SPSS version 18.02 has been used.

7.4.1 Missing Data

It is widely believed that missing data is one of the most significant problems in data analysis (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Missing data happens when participants leave questions unanswered. Moreover, missing data usually occurs in every research, especially social science research, due to overly long questionnaires. In social science research, Stevens (2002) suggests to replace missing data by using the mean scores on the variance. While Norušis (1995) contends that the missing data problem is resolved by removing a sample(s). In addition to this, Hair et al. (2006) asserts that missing data can be ignorable data. Ignorable data means data that are expected to be left unanswered; it is a technique of research design. For example, question number one asked the participants to skip question number two if the answer was 'no', thus question number two is classified as ignorable missing data. Furthermore, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) claim that missing data is a less important problem if the missing data score shows less than 5 per cent. To maximise the quality of the research, the researcher chose to discard questionnaires with missing data.

7.4.2 Detection of Outliers

Hair et al. (2006) defines outliers as “observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as distinctly different from the other observations” (p. 73). Outlier scores can be very high or very low and may result in non-normality data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). Moreover, all the variable’s scores have to be converted to standard scores before identifying univariate outliers. It is frequently maintained that an outlier standard score is ± 2.5 when there is a small sample size ($n \leq 80$), while its standard score can be ± 3 when there is a relative large sample size ($n \geq 80$) (Hair et al., 2006).

An outlier arises when there is a data entry error or wrong coding, the result of an extraordinary event and so on (Hair et al., 2006). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and Field (2006) suggest that there are three methods to detect outliers, which are:

- a) Univariate detection
- b) Bivariate detection
- c) Multivariate detection.

In addition to this, Hair et al. (2006) advises that Mahalanobis D^2 (d-squared) is a multivariate outlier detection test, which is a multi-dimension of a z-score to measure the distance from the multi-dimensional mean of a distribution by giving the multi-dimensional variance of the distribution. SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used to compute Mahalanobis D^2 . Therefore, a multivariate outlier occurs when the p-value is 0.05 or less.

However, Hair et al. (2006) claims that an outlier does not cause any problems or benefits but it causes bias of the mean and inflates the standard deviations. Thus, it is generally agreed to be aware of an outlier because its bias may cause a result of model fitting (Field, 2006). The present research employed a graphical method for univariate outlier detection and Mahalanobis’s distance to find multivariate outliers. The results showed that 33 univariate outliers had been found (Table 7.5) and 51 indicated Mahalanobis’s distance test of multivariate outliers (Table 7.6).

Table 7.5: Univariate Outliers

No.	Variable	Case of outlier	Standardised values i.e. z-scored > ±3.0
1	SEN	8	-3.06998
		11	-3.06998
2	AFF	119	-3.09424
3	INTELL	67	-3.79518
		68	-3.79518
		218	-3.79518
		268	-3.34391
		332	-3.34391
4	BEHAVE	No case	-
5	SOC	67	-3.09974
		68	-3.09974
		277	-3.09974
		338	-3.09974
		240	-3.09974
6	SIN	278	-3.54492
		268	-3.05474
7	EXCITE	438	-3.51147
		278	-3.23339
		270	-3.23339
		269	-3.23339
		268	-3.23339
8	COM	258	-3.72293
9	SOP	1	-4.45326
		268	-4.15522
10	RUGG	268	-4.00006
		66	-4.00006
11	LOY	270	-3.04561
		269	-3.04561
12	SAT	270	-3.55041
		269	-3.55041
		275	-3.09746
		271	-3.09746
13	BT	270	-3.77137
		269	-3.77137

Note: SEN = Sensory experience, AFF = Affective experience, INTELL = Intellectual experience, BEHAVE = Behavioural experience, SOC = Social experience, SIN = Sincerity, EXCITE = Excitement, COM = Competence, SOP = Sophistication, RUGG = Ruggedness, LOY = Consumer loyalty, SAT = Consumer satisfaction, BT = Brand trust

Table 7.6: Multivariate Outliers

Count	Case of outlier	D ² /df ^a	Mahalanobis D ²	p-value
1	1	4.863674	58.36409	0
2	215	4.075473	48.90567	0
3	438	3.773243	45.27892	0
4	268	3.659303	43.91163	0
5	67	3.110303	37.32364	0
6	66	2.849557	34.19468	0
7	274	2.723863	32.68635	0
8	276	2.487018	29.84422	0
9	4	2.420943	29.05131	0
10	439	2.411998	28.94398	0
11	258	2.353648	28.24378	0.01
12	277	2.345237	28.14284	0.01
13	338	2.343883	28.1266	0.01
14	28	2.329079	27.94895	0.01
15	332	2.307288	27.68746	0.01
16	275	2.292158	27.50589	0.01
17	271	2.289917	27.479	0.01
18	201	2.288002	27.45602	0.01
19	391	2.287308	27.4477	0.01
20	209	2.267272	27.20726	0.01
21	447	2.252217	27.0266	0.01
22	257	2.229382	26.75258	0.01
23	387	2.221198	26.65437	0.01
24	272	2.175733	26.1088	0.01
25	68	2.171818	26.06181	0.01
26	190	2.137713	25.65256	0.01
27	289	2.134703	25.61643	0.01
28	286	2.042434	24.50921	0.02
29	40	2.037637	24.45164	0.02
30	442	2.027162	24.32594	0.02
31	250	2.003265	24.03918	0.02
32	218	1.999344	23.99213	0.02
33	331	1.991205	23.89446	0.02
34	460	1.988943	23.86731	0.02
35	352	1.940226	23.28271	0.03
36	119	1.934146	23.20975	0.03
37	8	1.932634	23.19161	0.03

38	284	1.931198	23.17438	0.03
39	343	1.916556	22.99867	0.03
40	65	1.910589	22.92707	0.03
41	70	1.896686	22.76023	0.03
42	269	1.887704	22.65245	0.03
43	91	1.867184	22.40621	0.03
44	3	1.847417	22.169	0.04
45	21	1.846552	22.15862	0.04
46	82	1.815441	21.78529	0.04
47	211	1.81064	21.72768	0.04
48	69	1.792701	21.51241	0.04
49	206	1.780445	21.36534	0.05
50	204	1.777945	21.33534	0.05
51	328	1.770519	21.24623	0.05

Note: ^adf = 13

7.4.3 Normality

A test of normality of distribution was assessed after a missing data screening and an outlier's detection. Normality is a test of data distribution, which is an assumption in measuring the variation of variables. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) observe that the test of normality is not compulsory in data analysis but that it is good to test when the variables are normally distributed. While Hair et al. (2006) suggest that the result is invalid if the variation from the normal distribution is relatively large due to the normality test used, the F and t statistics.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) claim that the test of normality can be assessed by statistical methods (SPSS 18.02 for Windows in this present study). Kurtosis and skewness tests and the Kolmogorov and Shapiro methods can be used to measure the test of normality (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2006). The kurtosis and skewness tests are shown in the descriptive statistics table, assessed by SPSS version 18.02 for Windows (Table 7.7). The value of the kurtosis test is zero for a normal distribution, while the skewness test shows the balance of the distribution (Curran et al., 1996). The value of the skewness test is zero, showing a normal distribution (Currant et al., 1996). Also, the value of the skewness test can be either positive or negative; a positive means a distribution shift to the left and a negative means a distribution shift to the right (Hair et al., 2006). In the present study, as shown in

Table 7.7, the analysis demonstrated that all the variables fell inside an acceptable range, which is ± 3 skewness and kurtosis value (Hair et al., 2006). All the variables used in this study were found to be normally distributed.

Table 7.7: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
LCBE	483	1.80	5.00	3.5417	.55376	-.108	.111	.281	.222
BP	483	1.60	5.00	3.9290	.51938	-.605	.111	.831	.222
SAT	483	1.25	5.00	3.7412	.71080	-.307	.111	-.045	.222
BT	483	1.75	5.00	3.9969	.59578	-.252	.111	-.054	.222
LOY	483	2.00	5.00	3.9705	.64700	-.353	.111	-.234	.222

Valid N = 483 (list wise)

Note: LCBE = luxury cosmetic brand experience; BT = brand trust; BP = brand personality; SAT = consumer satisfaction; LOY = consumer loyalty.

The Kolmogorov and Shapiro tests are an alternative method used to test the normality of the data (Field, 2006). In Table 7.8, the result demonstrates that all the variables were significant. This could be because the sample of the present study is relatively large ($n = 483$). Field (2006) reveals that the test of normality is very sensitive to large sample sizes and a minor deviation from normality will show the test as significant.

Table 7.8: Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
LCBE	0.035	483	0.000	0.995	483	0.000
BT	0.046	483	0.000	0.979	483	0.000
BP	0.044	483	0.000	0.979	483	0.000
SAT	0.103	483	0.000	0.974	483	0.000
LOY	0.083	483	0.000	0.965	483	0.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Note: LCBE = luxury cosmetic brand experience; BT = brand trust; BP = brand personality; SAT = consumer satisfaction; LOY = consumer loyalty

7.4.4 Linearity

Linearity is a test of the correlation between variables. It is generally agreed that it is essential to know the level of relationship between variables in the process of data analysis. Hair et al. (2006) suggests that there are several multivariate methods associated with co-relational measures of association, comprising logistic regression, multiple regression, factor analysis and structural equation modelling. The most general test of linearity is the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient that measures the strength of the linear association of the variables by a straight line (Hair et al., 2006). The present study employed Pearson’s correlations to test the linearity of the variables. In Table 7.9, the analysis demonstrates that all the independent variables are significantly positively correlated to the dependent variable. It could be said that all the variables are associated with each other.

Table 7.9: Pearson’s Correlations

	LCBE	BT	BP	SAT	LOY
LCBE	1				
BT	0.412**	1			
BP	0.497**	0.671**	1		
SAT	0.070	0.475**	0.366**	1	
LOY	0.368**	0.665**	0.539**	0.524**	1

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

Note: LCBE = luxury cosmetic brand experience; BT = brand trust; BP = brand personality; SAT = consumer satisfaction; LOY = consumer loyalty

7.4.5 Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity is a test of the variance between the independent variables and the dependent variable. Homoscedasticity is an assumption that the dependent variables have an equal variance across the range of the independent variables (Hair et al., 2006). Field (2006) claims that the assumption of variables in multiple regression analysis should be constant. On the other hand, unequal variance, which is commonly known as ‘heteroscedasticity’, is problematic for multivariate analysis (Hair et al., 2006). Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) assert that homoscedasticity refers to the assumption of the normality test due to the relationships between the variables being homoscedastic when the assumption of the multivariate

normality is accepted. Hair et al. (2006) suggests that homoscedasticity can be measured by both graphical and statistical methods. In this present study, the researcher applied Levene’s test of homogeneity of variances to test the homoscedasticity. In Table 7.10, the results indicate that Levene’s test is not significant at the level 0.05, which means none of the variables lack homogeneity.

Table 7.10: Levene’s Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
BP	2.202	1	481	0.141
SAT	0.871	1	481	0.351
BT	0.004	1	481	0.950
LCBE	0.271	1	481	0.603
LOY	1.512	1	481	0.216

Note: LCBE = luxury cosmetic brand experience; BT = brand trust; BP = brand personality; SAT = satisfaction; LOY = loyalty.

7.5 FACTOR LOADING

Factor analysis is a technique that aims to simplify a large number of measurements to the main representative factors. The use of factor analysis is to understand a group of variables and to reduce a mass of data sets while the original data is maintained (Field, 2006). Factor analysis comprises dimensions that have a set of variables with the same meaning. In the same way, factor analysis is an assumption that all the variables are correlated to the same degree. It could be said that those variables share similar circumstances under the same dimensions. Therefore, those variables should be highly correlated where they share the same dimension (Ho, 2006). There are several techniques to perform factor analysis such as the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Both techniques aim to achieve the same result, which is data reduction. Hair et al. (2006) claims that the difference between exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis is that exploratory factor analysis is used to ‘take what the data gives you’, whereas confirmatory factor analysis is used for grouping and confirming the variables on a factor. The present research applied both exploratory factor analysis techniques to group the data, and confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis.

7.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was applied to inspect all the measurements before performing the confirmatory factor analysis; all the questions had been coded, as well as the negative questions reverse coded.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) explain that there are several methods of factor extraction and rotation in SPSS; this research employed the principal component extraction method and orthogonal (varimax) rotation method. The present research assesses the adequacy of extraction and the number of factors by using eigenvalues and a scree plot.

Field (2006) asserts that the variance score of all the variables used in the research must be calculated before performing the factor extraction. It is generally agreed that communality indicates the amount of variance in each variable. Field (2006) also explains that a value of communality = 1 means that the variable has no specific variance, and communality = 0 means that the variable shares nothing with other variables. Hair et al. (2007) suggests that the value of communality should be more than 0.5 and more than 0.7 for larger sample sizes. SPSS version 18.02 was applied to calculate the communality for this study. The results demonstrate that all the variables in the factor loading have communality values at the acceptable level, ranging from 0.504 to 0.737. The results of the communality values are illustrated in Table 7.11.

Table 7.11: Communality Test

Variable	Initial	Extraction	Variable	Initial	Extraction	Variable	Initial	Extraction
SEN1	1.000	0.737	EXCITE1	1.000	0.504	RELY4	1.000	0.588
SEN2	1.000	0.719	EXCITE2	1.000	0.551	INTENT1	1.000	0.553
SEN3	1.000	0.659	EXCITE3	1.000	0.678	INTENT2	1.000	0.666
AFF1	1.000	0.622	EXCITE4	1.000	0.565	INTENT3	1.000	0.627
AFF2	1.000	0.654	EXCITE5	1.000	0.607	LOY1	1.000	0.624
AFF3	1.000	0.616	EXCITE6	1.000	0.568	LOY2	1.000	0.519
BEHAVE1	1.000	0.580	COM1	1.000	0.674	LOY3	1.000	0.595
BEHAVE2	1.000	0.643	COM2	1.000	0.634	LOY4	1.000	0.549
INTELL1	1.000	0.516	SOP1	1.000	0.571	SAT1	1.000	0.593
INTELL2	1.000	0.615	SOP2	1.000	0.685	SAT2	1.000	0.649
INTELL3	1.000	0.660	SOP3	1.000	0.647	SAT3	1.000	0.602
SOC1	1.000	0.508	SOP4	1.000	0.718	SAT4	1.000	0.635
SOC2	1.000	0.573	SOP5	1.000	0.562			
SIN1	1.000	0.562	RUGG1	1.000	0.599			
SIN2	1.000	0.579	RUGG2	1.000	0.569			
SIN3	1.000	0.551	RELY1	1.000	0.510			
SIN4	1.000	0.636	RELY2	1.000	0.642			
SIN5	1.000	0.647	RELY3	1.000	0.627			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Note: SEN = Sensory experience, AFF = Affective experience, BEHAVE = Behavioural experience, INTELL = Intelligent experience, SOC = Social experience, SIN = Sincerity, EXCITE = Excitement, COM = Competence, SOP = Sophisticate, RUGG = Ruggedness, RELY = Reliability. INTENT = Intention, SAT = Satisfaction, LOY = Loyalty

7.5.2 Eigenvalues

Eigenvalues associate with a variance which shows the importance of the factor (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Eigenvalues and variance establish the number of factors to extract (Hair et al., 1998). A factor that provides an eigenvalue of more than 1 is significant and important, whereas a factor that shows an eigenvalue of less than 1 is not significant and important (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Thus, the factor which has an eigenvalue greater than 1 was extracted (Pallant, 2001). This research found five factors that demonstrated an eigenvalue of more than 1 (Table 7.12).

Table 7.12: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	13.837	27.674	27.674	13.837	27.674	27.674	6.806	13.611	13.611
2	3.812	7.624	35.298	3.812	7.624	35.298	3.797	7.595	21.206
3	2.281	4.562	39.860	2.281	4.562	39.860	3.184	6.368	27.574
4	1.840	3.681	43.540	1.840	3.681	43.540	3.015	6.030	33.604
5	1.646	3.292	46.833	1.646	3.292	46.833	2.891	5.781	39.385
6	0.998	3.226	50.058						
7	0.991	2.882	52.940						
8	0.975	2.609	55.549						
9	0.919	2.238	57.788						
10	0.883	2.142	59.930						
11	0.866	1.991	61.921						
12	0.838	1.955	63.876						
13	0.811	1.882	65.758						
14	0.804	1.828	67.586						
15	0.777	1.654	69.239						
16	0.769	1.599	70.838						
17	0.757	1.514	72.353						
18	0.730	1.459	73.812						
19	0.701	1.403	75.215						
20	0.684	1.367	76.582						
21	0.650	1.300	77.882						
22	0.632	1.265	79.147						
23	0.614	1.229	80.376						
24	0.594	1.188	81.564						
25	0.580	1.161	82.725						
26	0.564	1.127	83.852						
27	0.518	1.036	84.888						
28	0.497	0.994	85.882						
29	0.479	0.958	86.841						
30	0.465	0.929	87.770						
31	0.448	0.896	88.666						
32	0.426	0.853	89.519						
33	0.414	0.828	90.347						
34	0.399	0.797	91.144						
35	0.387	0.774	91.918						
36	0.369	0.738	92.657						
37	0.350	0.701	93.357						
38	0.331	0.663	94.020						
39	0.321	0.643	94.663						
40	0.300	0.601	95.263						
41	0.298	0.596	95.859						
42	0.280	0.559	96.418						
43	0.278	0.556	96.974						
44	0.263	0.526	97.500						
45	0.253	0.507	98.007						
46	0.238	0.477	98.484						
47	0.227	0.454	98.938						
48	0.194	0.388	99.326						
49	0.171	0.342	99.668						
50	0.166	0.332	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

7.5.3 Scree Plot

As mentioned above an eigenvalue of more than 1 is significant and important. A scree plot is normally used to confirm the maximum number of variables and can also be used to determine the number of factors (Hair et al., 2006). Usually, a scree plot is employed to confirm the factors extracted through eigenvalues.

Figure 7.1: Scree Plot

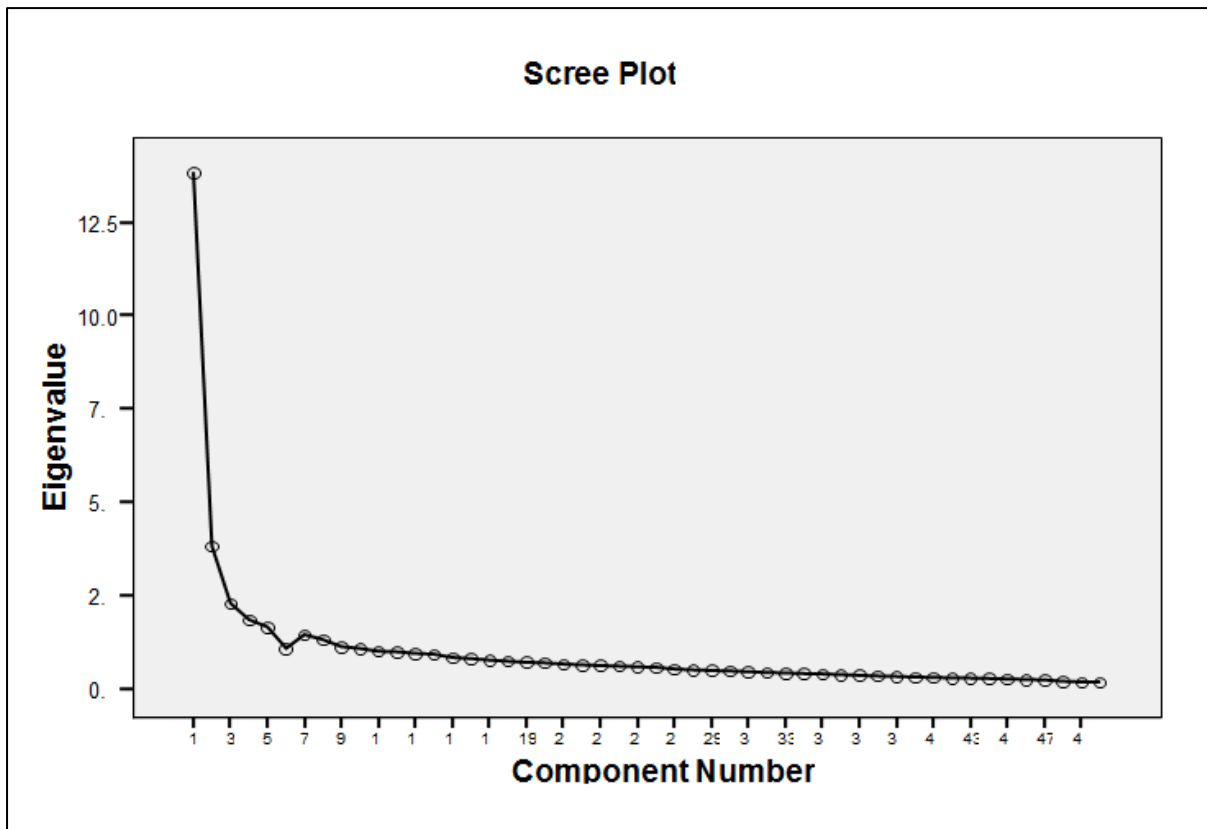


Table 7.13: Factor Loading

Factors	1	2	3	4	5
SEN1	0.773				
SEN2	0.823				
SEN3	0.674				
AFF1	0.751				
AFF2	0.691				
AFF3	0.579				
BEHAVE1	0.898				
BEHAVE2	0.842				
INTELL1	0.849				
INTELL2	0.531				
INTELL3	0.688				
SOC1	0.853				
SOC2	0.888				
SIN1		0.632			
SIN2		0.846			
SIN3		0.599			
SIN4		0.617			
SIN5		0.534			
EXCITE1		0.623			
EXCITE2		0.596			
EXCITE3		0.741			
EXCITE4		0.876			
EXCITE5		0.569			
EXCITE6		0.598			
COM1		0.752			
COM2		0.833			
COM3		0.714			
COM4		0.755			
SOP1		0.824			
SOP2		0.798			
SOP3		0.705			
SOP4		0.839			
SOP5		0.707			
RUGG1		0.850			
RUGG2		0.788			
RELY1			0.784		
RELY2			0.896		
RELY3			0.741		
RELY4			0.865		
INTENT1			0.701		
INTENT2			0.939		
INTENT3			0.798		
LOY1				0.698	
LOY2				0.501	
LOY3				0.779	
LOY4				0.913	
SAT1					0.808
SAT2					0.813
SAT3					0.584
SAT4					0.699

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax Kaiser Normalization

Note: SEN = sensory experience; AFF = affective experience; BEHAVE = behavioural experience; INTELL = intellectual experience; SOC = social identity experience; SIN = sincerity; EXCITE = excitement; COM = competence; SOP = sophistication; RUGG = ruggedness; RELY = reliability; INTENT = intention; LOY = consumer loyalty; SAT = consumer satisfaction

The table above (Table 7.13) illustrates the results of the factor loading using the exploratory factor analysis technique; 50 measurement items were extracted into five main measurement items. In addition to this, Table 7.13 explains that all the measurement items of sensory experience, affective experience, intellectual experience, behavioural experience and social experience were extracted into one factor, which is the luxury cosmetic brand experience. Also, all the measurement items of sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness were loaded into only one factor – represented as brand personality. Seven measurement items were extracted into one main factor (brand trust) and four measurement items were represented as a consumer loyalty variable. Finally, all the measurement items of consumer satisfaction were extracted into one variable.

7.5.4 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) Test and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) test has been computed to determine if using factor analysis is suitable (Norušis, 1992). Hinton (2004) observes that the closer the KMO value is to 1, the better; however, an acceptable KMO value is 0.6. Table 7.14 shows that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy of this study is above the acceptable value of 0.6 as it is 0.912. The results confirmed that these data are suitable for factor analysis.

Bartlett's test of sphericity aims to determine the relationship between the variables. Hinton (2004) claims that a factor analysis can be discarded if there is no relationship between the variables. It is generally recommended that $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ means there is a relationship between the variables and it is appropriate to continue with the factor analysis. Table 7.14 demonstrates that $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$); therefore, there are relationships between the variables and it is appropriate to continue with the factor analysis. After the exploratory

factor analysis, the following section provides a factor analysis for each variable and Cronbach’s alpha reliability test.

Table 7.14: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) Test and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.912
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	11654.546
	df	1225
	Sig.	0.000

7.5.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted after the exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Netemeyer et al. (2003) explains that confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a technique commonly used to confirm *a priori* hypotheses of the relationship between a series of measurement items and their respective factors.

Factor 1: Luxury cosmetic brand experience (LCBE) – This factor provides the information regarding brand experience dimensions (Brakus et al., 2010; Schmitt, 1997; 1999a; Padgett and Allen, 1997; Gentile et al., 2007); 13 items were adapted based on the brand experience original scale (Brakus et al., 2010; Chieng and Chang, 2006). Applying factor loading and deleting items which demonstrated loading values of less than 0.5 (Field, 2006), Table 7.15 below shows the luxury cosmetic brand experience factor loading, excluding factors which loaded less than 0.5.

Table 7.15: Factor Loading and Cronbach’s Alpha of Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience Scale

Factors and Related items	Factor Loading	Cronbach’s Alpha
Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience (LCBE)		
Sensory Experience:		
My favourite cosmetic brand makes a strong impression on my senses (e.g. sound, smell, image)	0.853	0.785
I find my favourite cosmetic brand interesting in a sensory way (e.g. sound, image, smell).	0.868	
My favourite cosmetic brand is focused on experience sensory appeal.	0.791	
Affective Experience:		
My favourite cosmetic brand induces feelings.	0.823	0.741
My favourite cosmetic brand is an emotional brand (e.g. Gucci Envy Me, Clinique Happy).	0.801	
My favourite cosmetic brand tries to put me in a certain mood.	0.813	
Behavioural Experience:		
My favourite cosmetic brand tries to remind me of activities I can do (e.g. charity, event).	0.872	0.685
My favourite cosmetic brand tries to make me think about lifestyle.	0.872	
Intellectual Experience:		
My favourite cosmetic brand engages my thinking when I encounter this brand (e.g. make-up trend).	0.679	0.685
My favourite cosmetic brand stimulates my curiosity (e.g. product ingredient).	0.846	
My favourite cosmetic brand intrigues me (e.g. high technology, innovation).	0.820	
Social Experience:		
My favourite cosmetic brand tries to make me think about human relationship (e.g. brand recommends from friend).	0.826	0.53
I can relate to other people through my favourite cosmetic brand (e.g. brand community).	0.826	

Factor 2: Brand personality (BP) – This factor covers the human characteristics associated with a brand (Aaker, 1997); 23 measurements were adapted from the original brand personality scale (Aaker, 1997) and applied to this study. Table 7.16 demonstrates factor loading values of more than 0.5 (Field, 2006). Those items with a factor loading of 0.5 (Field, 2006) were removed from Table 7.16 (cheerful and friendly under sincerity dimension). Moreover, sincerity and ruggedness factors demonstrated slightly low Cronbach’s alpha

values at 0.649 and 0.571 respectively. This is another reason for employing the subsequent qualitative research.

Table 7.16: Factor Loading and Cronbach’s Alpha of Brand Personality Scale

Factors and Related items	Factor Loading	Cronbach’s Alpha
Brand Personality (BP)		
Sincerity:		
Honest	0.842	0.649
Wholesome	0.861	
Original	0.502	
Excitement:		
Trendy	0.716	0.785
Spirited	0.618	
Cool	0.806	
Young	0.749	
Unique	0.745	
Independent	0.531	
Competence:		
Reliable	0.857	0.817
Secure	0.847	
Intelligent	0.699	
Successful	0.823	
Sophistication:		
Upper class	0.706	0.831
Glamorous	0.819	
Good looking	0.813	
Charming	0.840	
Feminine	0.691	
Ruggedness:		
Western	0.837	0.571
Tough	0.837	

Factor 3: Brand trust (BT) – This factor provides a measure of the feeling of confidence held by consumers towards a brand (Lau and Lee, 1999; Ha and Perks, 2005; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2001; 2005; Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003). A seven-item scale was employed developed by Delgado-Ballester (2003). There is no item removed from Table 7.17.

Table 7.17: Factor Loading and Cronbach’s Alpha of Brand Trust Scale

Factors and Related items	Factor Loading	Cronbach’s Alpha
Brand Trust (BT)		
My favourite cosmetic brand is a brand name that meets my expectations.	0.739	0.823
I feel confidence in my favourite cosmetic brand.	0.844	
My favourite cosmetic brand is a brand name that never disappoints me.	0.850	
My favourite cosmetic brand guarantees satisfaction.	0.784	
My favourite cosmetic brand would be honest and sincere in addressing my concerns.	0.814	
I could rely on my favourite cosmetic brand.	0.900	
My favourite cosmetic brand would make any effort to satisfy me.	0.850	

Factor 4: Consumer satisfaction (SAT) – This factor covers consumer satisfaction of brands (Brakus et al., 2009; Rebekah et al., 2005; Patterson and Johnson, 1995; Mano and Oliver, 1993; Ha and Perks, 2005). Four measurement questions from Brakus et al. (2009) were modified for the present research. Again, factor loading degrees of less than 0.5 were removed (one factor was removed as a result of this). Table 7.18 demonstrates factor loadings of more than 0.5.

Table 7.18: Factor Loading and Cronbach’s Alpha of Consumer Satisfaction Scale

Factors and Related items	Factor Loading	Cronbach’s Alpha
Satisfaction (SAT)		
My choice to get my favourite cosmetic brand has been a good decision.	0.786	0.681
I am satisfied with my favourite cosmetic brand and its result.	0.796	
I am not happy with the result of my favourite cosmetic brand.	0.738	

Factor 5: Consumer loyalty (LOY) – This factor covers consumer loyalty behaviour towards brands (Copeland, 1923; Tepeci, 1999; Bloemer and Kasper, 1995; Rebekah et al., 2005; Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004; Lau and Lee, 1999). All four measurement items were taken from Brakus et al. (2009) and applied to the study in the context of luxury cosmetic brands. Table 7.19 shows items with factor loadings loaded at 0.5 and above.

Table 7.19: Factor Loading and Cronbach’s Alpha of Consumer Loyalty Scale

Factors and Related items	Factor Loading	Cronbach’s Alpha
Loyalty (LOY)		
I will buy my favourite cosmetic brand again.	0.787	0.681
I will not buy another brand if my favourite cosmetic brand is not available at the store.	0.546	
I would highly recommend my favourite cosmetic brand to others.	0.895	
My favourite cosmetic brand will be my first choice in the future.	0.844	

The factors structured above in Table 7.14 met the acceptable value of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO = 0.912). Bartlett’s test of sphericity (p-value < 0.05) showed that the factor analysis was applied precisely. The factors which had eigenvalues of greater than 1 were preserved. The value of Cronbach’s alpha for each factor demonstrated a satisfaction level of 0.6 and above (Nunnally, 1978); only one factor showed Cronbach’s alpha at 0.533, which is acceptable. Table 7.20 below shows the result of the confirmatory factor analysis of the main survey.

Table 7.20: The Result of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Main Survey

Constructs	Items	Loadings	Alpha
Luxury cosmetic brand experience	Sensory Experience:		
	My favourite cosmetic brand makes a strong impression on my senses (e.g. sound, smell, image)	0.853	0.785
	I find my favourite cosmetic brand interesting in a sensory way (e.g. sound, image, smell).	0.868	
	My favourite cosmetic brand is focused on experience sensory appeal.	0.791	
	Affective Experience:		
	My favourite cosmetic brand induces feeling.	0.823	0.741
	My favourite cosmetic brand is an emotional brand (e.g. Gucci Envy Me, Clinique Happy).	0.801	
	My favourite cosmetic brand tries to put me in a certain mood.	0.813	
	Behavioural Experience:		
	My favourite cosmetic brand tries to remind me of activities I can do (e.g. charity, event).	0.872	0.685
My favourite cosmetic brand tries to make me think about lifestyle.	0.872		
Intellectual Experience:			
My favourite cosmetic brand engages my thinking when I encounter this brand (e.g. make-up trend).	0.679		
My favourite cosmetic brand stimulates my curiosity (e.g.			

	<p>product ingredient). My favourite cosmetic brand intrigues me (e.g. high technology, innovation).</p> <p>Social Experience: My favourite cosmetic brand tries to make me think about human relationship (e.g. brand recommends from friend). I can relate to other people through my favourite cosmetic brand (e.g. brand community).</p>	0.846 0.820 0.826 0.826	0.685 0.53
Brand personality	<p>Sincerity: Honest Wholesome Original</p> <p>Excitement: Trendy Spirited Cool Young Unique Independent</p> <p>Competence: Reliable Secure Intelligent Successful</p> <p>Sophistication: Upper class Glamorous Good looking Charming Feminine</p> <p>Ruggedness: Western Tough</p>	0.842 0.861 0.502 0.716 0.618 0.806 0.749 0.745 0.531 0.857 0.847 0.699 0.823 0.706 0.819 0.813 0.840 0.691 0.837 0.837	0.649 0.785 0.817 0.831 0.571
Brand trust	<p>My favourite cosmetic brand is a brand name that meets my expectations.</p> <p>I feel confidence in my favourite cosmetic brand.</p> <p>My favourite cosmetic brand is a brand name that never disappoints me.</p> <p>My favourite cosmetic brand guarantees satisfaction.</p> <p>My favourite cosmetic brand would be honest and sincere in addressing my concerns.</p> <p>I could rely on my favourite cosmetic brand.</p> <p>My favourite cosmetic brand would make any effort to satisfy me.</p>	0.739 0.844 0.850 0.784 0.814 0.900 0.850	0.823
Consumer satisfaction	My choice to get my favourite cosmetic brand has been a good decision.	0.786	

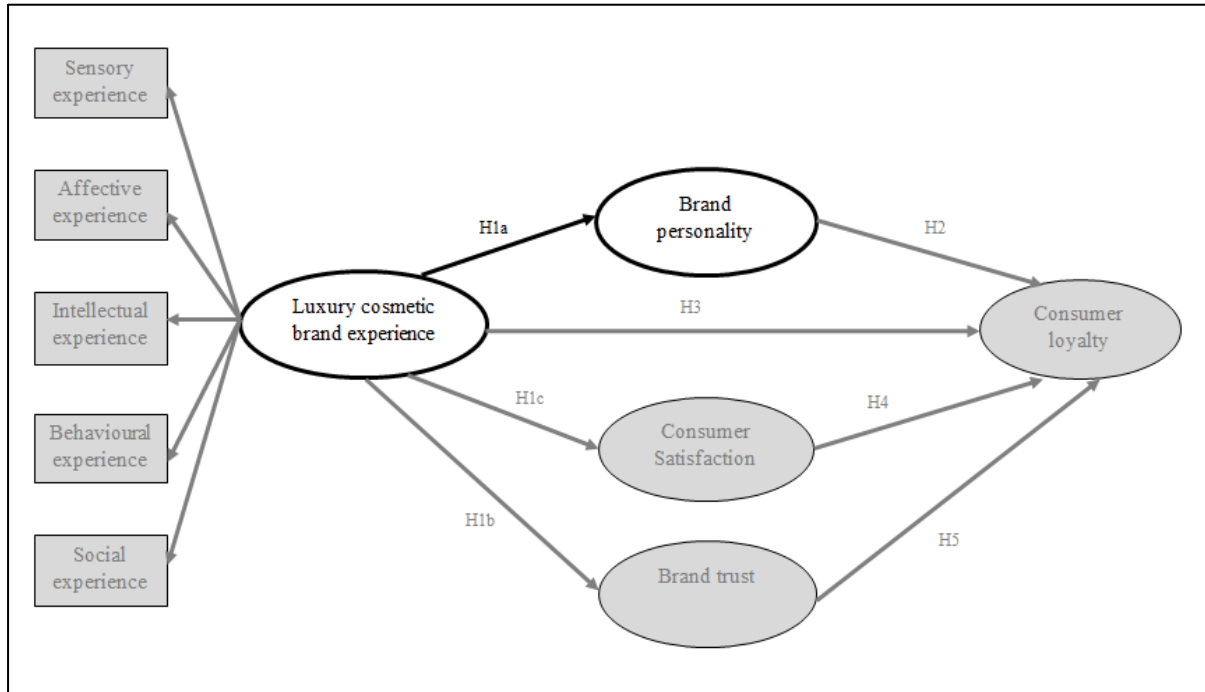
	I am satisfied with my favourite cosmetic brand and its result.	0.796	0.681
	I am not happy with the result of my favourite cosmetic brand.	0.738	
Consumer loyalty	I will buy my favourite cosmetic brand again.	0.787	
	I will not buy another brand if my favourite cosmetic brand is not available at the store.	0.546	
	I would highly recommend my favourite cosmetic brand to others.	0.895	0.681
	My favourite cosmetic brand will be my first choice in the future.	0.844	

7.6 LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Linear regression analysis is used to examine the relationship between two variables (Ho, 2006). It aims to investigate the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable (Ho, 2006). The present study employed linear regression analysis to examine the significant relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience (independent variable) and brand personality (dependent variable), luxury cosmetic brand experience (independent variable) and consumer satisfaction (dependent variable), and luxury cosmetic brand experience (independent variable) and brand trust (dependent variable).

7.6.1 Linear Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Brand Personality

Figure 7.2: Linear Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Brand Personality



A linear regression analysis was employed using SPSS version 18.02 to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience (LCBE) and brand personality (BP). Luxury cosmetic brand experience is an independent variable, while brand personality is a dependent variable. The regression analysis results between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand personality are demonstrated in tables 7.21, 7.22, 7.23 and 7.24.

The results show that the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand personality is significant at the 95 per cent confidence level ($P < 0.05$) in Table 7.22. In this relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand personality, the multiple correlation coefficient (R) is 0.483, and the R-square is 0.233 (Table 7.21). Thus, the predictor variable of luxury cosmetic brand experience has demonstrated 23.3 per cent of the variance in the dependent variable of brand personality (Table 7.21). Table 7.23 demonstrates the standardised beta coefficient (β) between the predictor variable luxury cosmetic brand experience and the dependent variable brand personality. The beta coefficient (β) is shown to

be positive and statistically significant at the 0.001 level. Therefore, the higher the luxury cosmetic brand experience scores, the higher their brand personality scores ($\beta = 0.483$, $t = 12.086$, $P < 0.001$). In addition to this, the hypothesis (H1a) is supported at t -value $> \pm 1.96$ (Table 7.24).

Table 7.21: The Linear Regression Analysis Result for the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Brand Personality: Model Summary^(b)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.483 ^a	0.233	0.231	0.46455

a. Predictors: (Constant), LCBE

b. Dependent Variable: BP

Table 7.22: Regression Analysis: ANOVA^(b)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	31.523	1	31.523	146.071	0.000 ^a
Residual	103.803	481	0.216		

a. Predictors: (Constant), LCBE

b. Dependent Variable: BP

Table 7.23: Regression Analysis: Coefficients^(a)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1(Constant)	2.314	0.137		16.893	0.000
LCBE	0.462	0.038	0.483	12.086	0.000

a. Dependent Variable: LCBE

Table 7.24: Hypothesis Assessment

Research hypothesis	β	t-value	Result
H1a: LCBE \longrightarrow BP	0.483	12.086	Supported

7.6.2 Linear Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Brand Trust

A linear regression analysis was employed using SPSS 18.02 to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience (LCBE) and brand trust (BT). Luxury cosmetic brand experience is an independent variable, while brand trust is a dependent variable. The regression analysis results between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand trust are illustrated in tables 7.25, 7.26, 7.27 and 7.28.

The results show that the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand trust is significant at the 95 per cent confidence level ($P < 0.05$) in Table 7.26. In this relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand trust, the multiple correlation coefficient (R) is 0.412, and the R-square is 0.170 (Table 7.25). Thus, the predictor variable of luxury cosmetic brand experience has illustrated 17 per cent of the variance in the dependent variable of brand trust (Table 7.25). Table 7.27 displays the standardised beta coefficient (β) between the predictor variable luxury cosmetic brand experience and the dependent variable brand trust. The beta coefficient (β) is shown to be positive and statistically significant at the 0.001 level. Therefore, the higher the luxury cosmetic brand experience scores, the higher their brand trust scores ($\beta = 0.412$, $t = 9.909$, $P < 0.001$) (Table 7.27). In addition to this, the hypothesis (H1b) is supported at t-value $> \pm 1.96$ (Table 7.28).

Figure 7.3: Linear Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Brand Trust

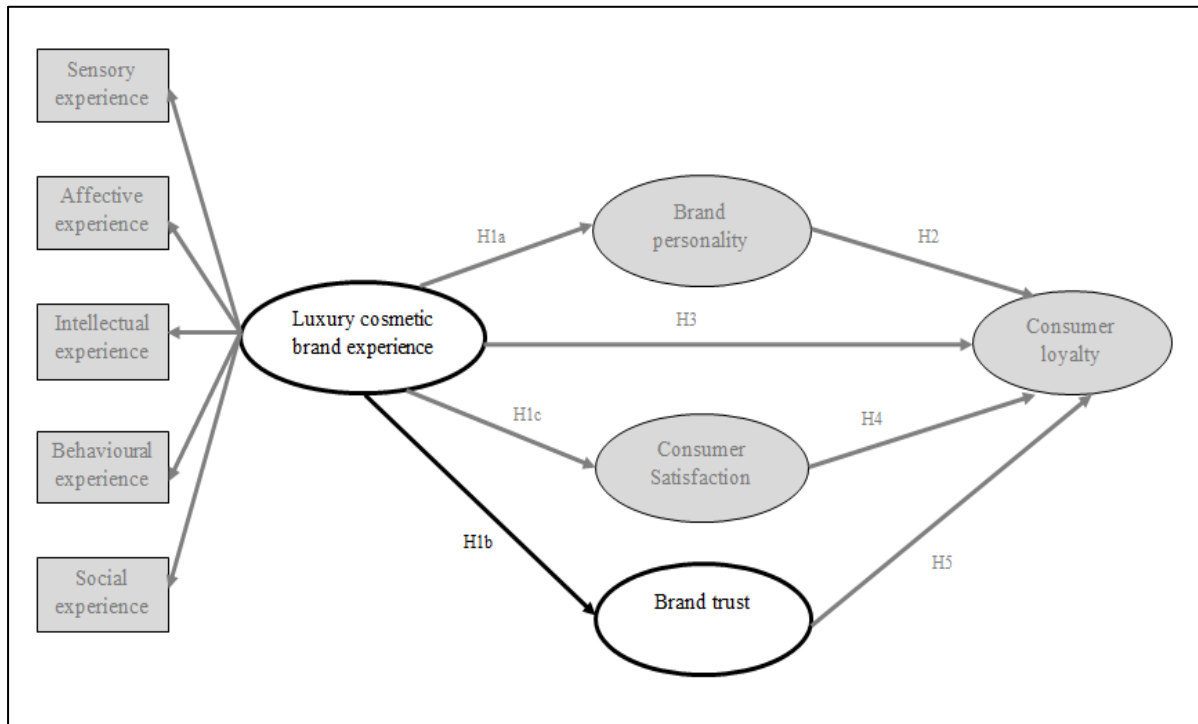


Table 7.25: The Linear Regression Analysis Result for the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Brand Trust: Model Summary^(b)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.412 ^a	0.170	0.168	0.54350

a. Predictor: (Constant), LCBE

b. Dependent Variable: BT

Table 7.26: Anova^(b)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	29.004	1	29.004	98.189	0.000 ^a
Residual	142.082	481	0.295		

a. Predictor: (Constant), LCBE

b. Dependent Variable: BT

Table 7.27: Coefficients^(a)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1(Constant)	2.428	0.160		15.152	0.000
LCBE	0.443	0.045	0.412	9.909	0.000

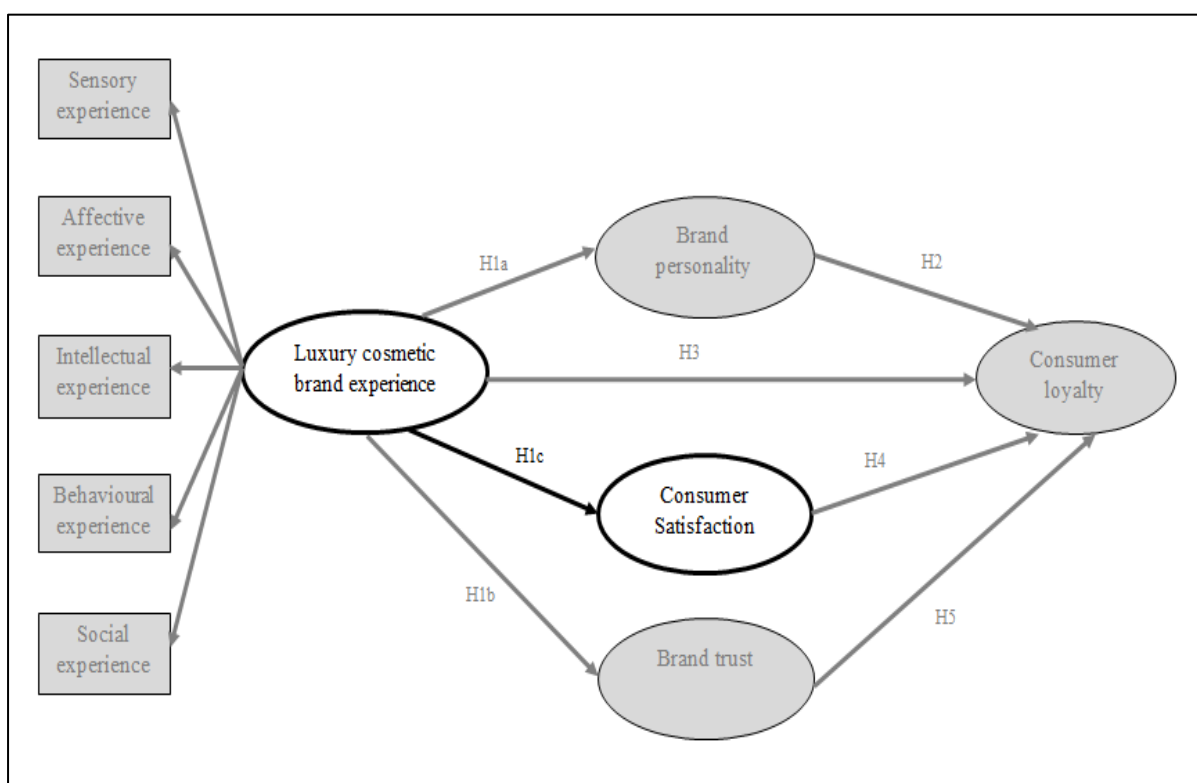
a. Dependent Variable: BT

Table 7.28: Hypothesis Assessment

Research hypothesis	β	t-value	Result
H1b: LCBE \longrightarrow BT	.412	9.909	Supported

7.6.3 Linear Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Consumer Satisfaction

Figure 7.4: Linear Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Consumer Satisfaction



A linear regression analysis was employed using SPSS 18.02 to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience (LCBE) and consumer satisfaction (SAT). The aim was to examine the linear regression analysis with luxury cosmetic brand experience as an independent variable and consumer satisfaction as a dependent variable. The regression analysis results between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand trust are illustrated in tables 7.29, 7.30, 7.31 and 7.32.

The results show that the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand personality is significant at the 95 per cent confidence level ($P < 0.05$) in Table 7.30. In this relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer satisfaction, the multiple correlation coefficient (R) is 0.156, and the R-square is 0.024 (Table 7.29). Thus, the predictor variable of luxury cosmetic brand experience has explained 2.4 per cent of the variance in the dependent variable of consumer satisfaction (Table 7.29). Table 7.31 displays the standardised beta coefficient (β) between the predictor variable luxury cosmetic brand experience and the dependent variable consumer satisfaction. The beta coefficient (β) is shown to be positive and statistically significant at the 0.001 level. Therefore, the higher the luxury cosmetic brand experience scores, the higher their consumer satisfaction scores ($\beta = 0.156$, $t = 3.468$, $P < 0.001$). In addition to this, the hypothesis (H1c) is supported at t -value $> \pm 1.96$ (Table 7.32).

Table 7.29: The Linear Regression Analysis Result for the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Consumer Satisfaction: Model Summary^(b)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.156 ^a	0.024	0.022	0.72765

a. Predictors: (Constant), LCBE

b. Dependent Variable: SAT

Table 7.30: ANOVA^(b)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	6.370	1	6.370	12.030	0.001 ^a
Residual	254.675	481	0.529		

a. Predictors: (Constant), LCBE

b. Dependent Variable: SAT

Table 7.31: Coefficients^(a)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1(Constant)	3.211	0.215		14.966	0.000
LCBE	0.208	0.060	0.156	3.468	0.001

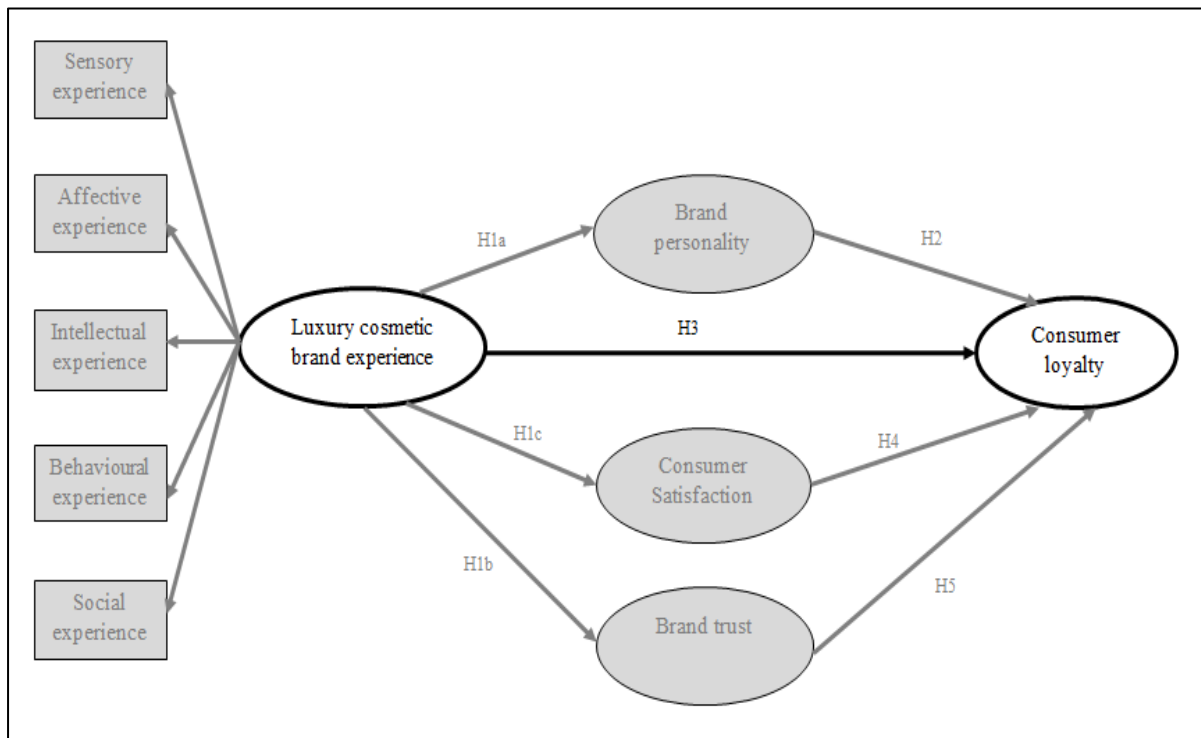
a. Dependent Variable: SAT

Table 7.32: Hypothesis Assessment

Research hypothesis	β	t-value	Result
H1c: LCBE \longrightarrow SAT	0.156	3.468	Supported

7.6.4 Linear Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Consumer Loyalty

Figure 7.5: Linear Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Consumer Loyalty



A linear regression analysis was employed using SPSS 18.02 to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience (LCBE) and consumer loyalty (LOY). Luxury cosmetic brand experience is an independent variable and consumer loyalty is a dependent variable. The linear regression analysis results between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty are illustrated in tables 7.33, 7.34, 7.35 and 7.36.

The results show that the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty is significant at the 95 per cent confidence level ($P < 0.05$) in Table 7.34. In this relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty, the multiple correlation coefficient (R) is 0.368, and the R-square is 0.135 (Table 7.33). Thus, the predictor variable of luxury cosmetic brand experience has explained 13.5 per cent of the variance in the dependent variable of consumer loyalty (Table 7.33). Table 7.35 displays the

standardised beta coefficient (β) between the predictor variable luxury cosmetic brand experience and the dependent variable consumer loyalty. The beta coefficient (β) is shown to be positive and statistically significant at the 0.001 level. Therefore, the higher the luxury cosmetic brand experience scores, the higher their consumer loyalty scores ($\beta = 0.368$, $t = 8.679$, $P < 0.001$). In addition to this, the hypothesis (H3) is supported at t -value $> \pm 1.96$ (Table 7.36).

Table 7.33: The Regression Analysis Result for the Relationship between Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience and Consumer Loyalty: Model Summary^(b)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.368 ^a	0.135	0.134	0.60223

- a. Predictors: (Constant), LCBE
- b. Dependent Variable: LOY

Table 7.34: ANOVA^(b)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	27.318	1	27.318	75.323	0.000 ^a
Residual	174.449	481	0.363		

- a. Predictors: (Constant), LCBE
- b. Dependent Variable: LOY

Table 7.35: Coefficients^(a)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1(Constant)	2.448	0.178		13.786	0.000
LCBE	0.430	0.050	0.368	8.679	0.000

Dependent Variable: LOY

Table 7.36: Hypothesis Assessment

Research hypothesis	β	t-value	Result
H3: LCBE \longrightarrow LOY	0.368	8.679	Supported

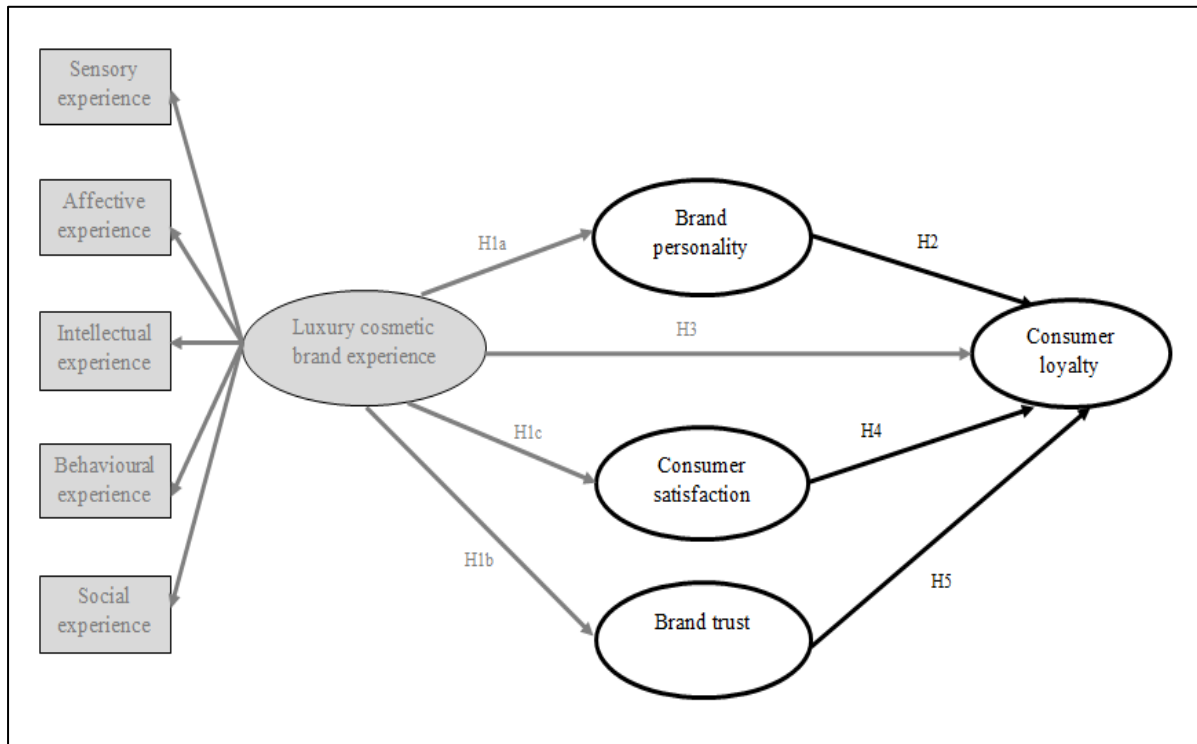
7.7 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis is a statistical technique used to analyse the relationships between variables. Multiple regression analysis is used to examine the relationship between one dependent variable and two or more independent variables (Ho, 2006). The present study used multiple regression analysis to analyse the relationship between a dependent variable (consumer loyalty) and a set of independent variables (brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction) in order to find the best predictor equation for a set of variables.

7.7.1 Multiple Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Brand Personality; Brand Trust; Consumer Satisfaction and Consumer Loyalty

A multiple regression analysis was employed using SPSS 18.02 to investigate the relationship between brand personality and consumer loyalty, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty, and brand trust and consumer loyalty. Brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust are independent variables, whereas consumer loyalty is a dependent variable. Tables 7.37, 7.38, 7.39, 7.40 and Figure 7.1 demonstrate the multiple regression analysis results for the relationship between brand personality and consumer loyalty, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty, and brand trust and consumer loyalty.

Figure 7.6: Multiple Regression Analysis: Examining the Relationship between Brand Personality; Brand Trust; Consumer Satisfaction and Consumer Loyalty



The results show that the relationships between brand personality and consumer loyalty, consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty, and brand trust and consumer loyalty are all significant at the 95 per cent confidence level ($P < 0.05$) in Table 7.38. The beta weights (β) are shown as indicators of the relative importance of the predictor variables. This relationship demonstrated that brand trust has the strongest relationship with consumer loyalty, while the other two independent variables (consumer satisfaction and brand personality) are weaker at beta value 0.299 and 0.139, respectively (Table 7.39). Therefore, the hypotheses (H2, H4 and H5) are supported at t -value $> \pm 1.96$ (Table 7.40).

Table 7.37: The Regression Analysis Result for the Relationship between Brand Personality; Brand Trust; Consumer Satisfaction and Consumer Loyalty: Model Summary^(b)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.722 ^a	0.521	0.518	0.44918

a. Predictors: Constant), BT, SAT, BP

b. Dependent Variable: LOY

Table 7.38: ANOVA^(b)

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	105.123	3	35.041	173.675	0.000 ^a
Residual	96.644	479	.202		

a. Predictors: Constant), BT, SAT, BP

b. Dependent Variable: LOY

Table 7.39: Coefficients^(a)

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	VIF
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
1(Constant)	.493	.164		3.001	0.003	
BP	0.170	0.052	0.139	3.263	0.001	1.818
SAT	0.262	0.034	0.299	7.829	0.000	1.455
BT	0.443	0.050	0.408	8.880	0.000	2.111

a. Dependent Variable: LOY

Figure 7.7: The Multiple Regressions for the Relationship between Brand Personality; Brand Trust; Consumer Satisfaction and Consumer Loyalty

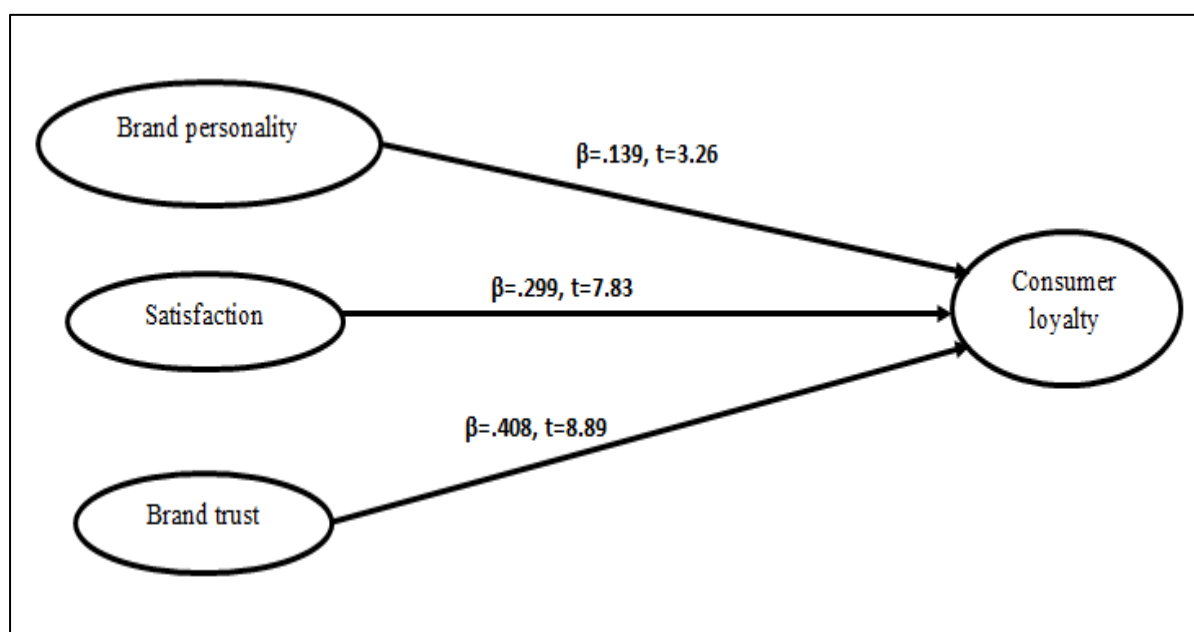


Table 7.41: Hypothesis Assessment

Research hypothesis	β	t-value	Result
H2: BP \longrightarrow LOY	0.139	3.263	Supported
H4: SAT \longrightarrow LOY	0.299	7.829	Supported
H5: BT \longrightarrow LOY	0.408	8.880	Supported

7.7.2 Multicollinearity Diagnostics

The multicollinearity problem frequently occurs when performing a multiple regression analysis. It refers to a statistical problem when there are two or more independent variables and they are highly correlated to the same independent variable. High levels of multicollinearity cause problems in the model due to the standard errors of the beta-coefficients increasing; thus, the high level of beta-coefficients will usually turn out to be statistically significant (Field, 2005).

Multicollinearity can be checked by the value of VIF (variance inflation factor) and tolerance statistics. Myers (1990) claims that a VIF value of less than 10 and tolerance greater than 0.10 indicate no multicollinearity diagnostics. In this present research, (Table 7.39) the largest value of VIF is 2.111 and the lowest value of tolerance is 0.474; therefore, it can be concluded that there is no multicollinearity problem in this research.

Figure 7.8: Theoretical Framework Summary

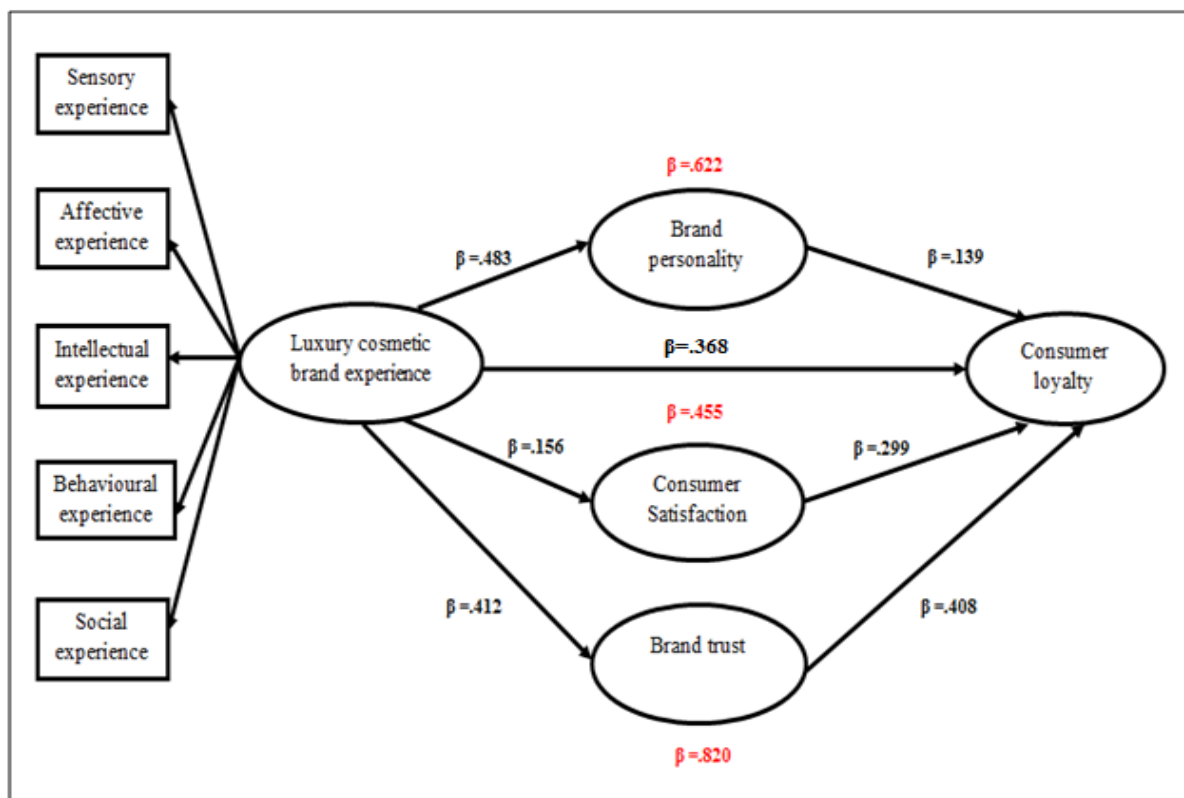


Table 7.41: Research Hypotheses Assessment

Code	Hypothesis Content	Results
H1a	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects on brand personality positively.	Supported
H1b	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects brand trust positively.	Supported
H1c	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer satisfaction positively.	Supported
H2	Brand personality affects consumer loyalty positively.	Supported
H3	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer loyalty positively.	Supported
H4	Consumer satisfaction affects consumer loyalty positively.	Supported
H5	Brand trust affects consumer loyalty positively.	Supported

7.8 CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, this chapter draws an explanation of the research findings from the final purified scales and hypotheses testing. The data used in this research has been cleaned to allow precise research. The accuracy of the data was assessed through linearity, normality, outlier and homoscedasticity tests to infer accurate results from the data. Then, followed an explanation of factor loading to eliminate those variables that present low correlation while maintaining those variables that show high correlation in the same dimension. An exploratory factor analysis technique was applied to purify and minimise the data and group similar data into the same factor. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis technique was used to confirm the relationship of the variables to the factors. Employing the principal component method and factor rotation by varimax of the orthogonal technique, all the factors in the same dimension were extracted into one dimension and the one group which shown high eigenvalues was selected. Next followed a test of the reliability and validity tests; all the measurement scales were found reliable and valid at satisfactory levels.

The results demonstrated statistically significant positive relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable. The first step, a linear regression analysis, indicated that the independent variable, which is luxury cosmetic brand experience, positively and significantly correlated with the dependent variable (brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction). The second step, a multiple regression analysis, showed that brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction were positively and significantly related to consumer loyalty. All the hypotheses in this present research were accepted (Table 7.41). The results of the significant relationships between the constructs were as theoretically expected. The following chapter will shed light on the qualitative findings.

CHAPTER 8

THE QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have:

1. Presented the foundations of this thesis by introducing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives and a brief explanation of the research methodology. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were outlined followed by a summary of the research limitations and a brief review of the contents of each chapter.
2. Provided the concept of luxury brands, outlined definitions, perspectives and characteristics of luxury brands. Reviewed the marketing concepts of luxury brand consumers together with luxury brand consumption. In addition, explored the dimension of luxury brands applied in experiential marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing. Presented the context used for this study: the luxury cosmetics industry in Thailand.
3. Reviewed inconsistencies relating to the definition of experience in various disciplines. Presented fields of experience including product experience, service experience, shopping experience and consumption experience. Importantly, this chapter showed the congruence between transactional marketing and experiential marketing.
4. Reviewed the phenomenon of branding and other brand constructs related to this study. Described the meaning of brand, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction, consumer loyalty and eventually, the main construct of this research, brand experience. Thus contextualised, the rationale behind the study's intended focus on brand experience, the source of its dependent variables, is presented.
5. Explored the relevant theoretical frameworks related to the variables used in this research and outlined the conceptual model, explaining the constructs relating to luxury cosmetic brands among women in Thailand. Provided the proposed research conceptual framework and identified the research hypotheses for testing. Explored the four main consequences of luxury cosmetic brand experience namely brand personality, consumer satisfaction, brand trust and consumer loyalty.

6. Proposed the research approach and methodology applied in this study. Explained the research methodology and sample selection, measurement used and the statistical techniques. Described that the dominant research approach is a quantitative method by means of a quantitative survey. Described the supporting qualitative approach to refine the result from quantitative study employed in this research in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand in Thailand.
7. Presented the quantitative results obtained from the data analysis of 483 self-administered surveys collected over a period of eight weeks in 2011. Presented the demographic characteristics and response rates – followed by screening the data to prepare for further quantitative analyses, exploratory factor analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis. Linear/ multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses and their significance.

This chapter presents the qualitative study conducted through 22 semi-structured interviews (Table 8.1). The qualitative study aims to gain in-depth information, better understanding of the luxury cosmetic brand context and refine and endorse the results from quantitative study as well as explain cause and effect among the variables. The rationale of doing qualitative research was discussed in chapter six.

This chapter starts with an overview of the procedures followed in qualitative analysis. The qualitative results related to each theme identified in the conceptual framework are presented. Conclusions have been drawn in the last section.

Table 8.1: Profiles of Interviewees

Interviewee	Favourite cosmetic brand	Duration of brand usage	Interview duration (Minutes)
1	Shiseido1	3 years	20
2	Lanvin	5 years	40
3	Shiseido2	Almost 2 years	20
4	Philosophy	1 year	30
5	Bobbi Brown1	10 months	25
6	Chanel1	Almost 1 year	20
7	M.A.C1	5 months	20
8	Laura Mercier1	Almost 1 year	30
9	Benefit	1 year	35

10	Laneige	3-4 years	35
11	Bobbi Brown2	1 year	30
12	Sulwhasoo	7 months	20
13	Giorgio Armani	Almost 3 years	40
14	Urban Decay	1.5 years	40
15	Chanel2	1 year	15
16	Laura Mercier2	1 year	30
17	Chanel3	5 months	20
18	M.A.C2	1-2 years	30
19	Chanel4	6 months	30
20	Cellcosmet	Several months	15
21	Laura Mercier3	1 years	20
22	Nars	1-2 years	30

8.2 OVERVIEW OF THE PROCEDURES FOLLOWED IN QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

The starting point in conducting this qualitative study is the proposed framework developed based on the literature. Coding is an initial stage of the qualitative study. In the present study, the luxury cosmetic brand experience and its dimensions, the consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand experience set the framework for coding and analysing data. The coding process has three phases: open coding, axial coding and selective coding (Miles and Huberman, 1984; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). ‘Open coding’ links the qualitative data and the research identified from the literature. The qualitative data were reviewed line-by-line and coded to the start list or those codes that were newly created as the understanding of the data increased. The ‘open coding’ aims to find themes in the qualitative data which are related to the literature (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). ‘Axial coding’, the second stage, compares and contrasts themes to identify patterns in the qualitative data. Spiggle (1994, p. 495) claims that the third stage, ‘selective coding’, “involves moving to a higher level of abstraction with the developed paradigmatic constructs, specifying relationships, and delineating a core category or construct around which the other categories and constructs revolve and that relates them to one another”.

Spiggle (1994) suggests that the analysis and interpretation of the research should make use of the principles of the constant comparative method. Themes and codes received from different texts were compared and comparisons also drawn relating to the conceptual framework.

Several differences exist between quantitative studies and qualitative studies in terms of the quality of outcomes. Reliability and validity measurements are used to check the quality of outcomes from quantitative studies, while the concept of trustworthiness is substituted for these checks and measures in qualitative studies (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). To ensure the reliability and trustworthiness of the results, the present study used triangulation through both the qualitative and quantitative methods.

In addition to this, the reliability of the coding was tested by an independent researcher, familiar knowledge with the topic. Moreover, the qualitative study was conducted in the Thai language but the thesis was written in English; obviously this leads to a language problem. To minimise problems of language, the researcher used both one-way translations and back-translations.

The stages of the translation procedures are shown below.

First, the qualitative data was translated into English by the researcher.

Second, the researcher applied a back-translation approach by giving the data transcript (English version) to a professional translation service to confirm the accuracy of the translation.

Therefore, reliability and validity were attained for the qualitative analysis.

8.3 QUALITATIVE RESULTS

8.3.1 Dimensions of the Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience

The majority of luxury cosmetic consumers in this research agree with the conceptualisation of the luxury cosmetic brand experience dimensions from the existing literature (Schmitt, 1999a, 1999b; Gentile et al, 2007; Fornerino et al, 2006). The existing literature demonstrate the dimensions of the luxury cosmetic brand experience as the following:

- Sensory experience: appeals to the senses by sight, sound, scent, touch, taste and smell.
- Affective experience: feelings and emotions.
- Intellectual experience: stimulates thinking, cognition.
- Behavioural experience: relates to bodily experience and lifestyles.
- Social experience: associates with brand communities, social identity, groups, family and friends.

Sensory Experience

Sensory experience represents the sensory appeal in terms of receiving an experience. Sensory appeal is an important dimension of brand experience (Brakus et al, 2009; Schmitt, 1999a:1999b). The sensory experience aspect of the luxury cosmetic brand in the participants' experience was generally agreed. Findings from the qualitative study indicated that the smell and sight (packaging) are important elements that directly affect their purchasing decision: "my favourite luxury cosmetic brand appeals to my eyes because of its lovely packaging". "The store decoration catches my eye". Additionally, the following responses emerged:

"I first came across this brand when I attended a make-up class in 2006. Since then I have really liked Bobbi's philosophy. I love the products' smell, texture, image and everything!" (Bobbi Brown1)

"The smell of the cosmetic is very important. A bad smell can put me off from buying it. Also the looks and innovative designs can pull me towards buying the product." (Chanel)

"The product smell, texture, colour of cosmetic as well as packaging leaves very lasting impression upon me." (Laneige)

“For me, packaging is the first thing to be considered when buying cosmetic products and Laura Mercier has beautiful packaging.” (Laura Mercier)

“I have a strong impression toward my favourite luxury cosmetic brand in terms of brand image and brand packaging. Benefit’s brand image involves their cosmetics being perceived as natural products that suit my sensitive skin. Moreover, the playful design and environmentally-friendly packaging draw me to use their products.”(Benefit)

“... one of the strongest impressions of a cosmetic brand for me is its image and packaging. Pretty and creative packaging would play an important role in that brand becoming my favourite choice of brand. ... the reason for me to purchase a cosmetic brand would be the design of the packaging.” (Urban decay)

“I love the smell of their perfume; they have a unique smell. Their package is also modern looking.” (Chanel2)

Affective Experience

This represents the capacity of the brand experience to obtain experience particular to the luxury cosmetic brand products. Affective experience is all about the feelings, moods and emotions (Schmitt, 1999b), the participants perceive affective experience in luxury cosmetic brand products to be based on feelings and emotions. Affective experience is an important dimension of the luxury cosmetic brand context (Brakus et al, 2009; Schmitt, 1999a:1999b; Fornerino et al, 2006). Below are some of the comments:

“My favourite luxury cosmetic brand has a good balance of sweet floral and citrus scents that make me happy and feel feminine.” (Lanvin)

“Girls use make-up to look prettier. Bobbi Brown does this for me. I always enjoy putting the make-up on and it’s fun!” (Bobbi Brown1)

“It gives me a positive feeling, fresh, sets me up for a good day. Yeah, it really makes me feel good and more outgoing.” (M.A.C)

“Perhaps. It tries to offer me a feeling of relaxation and ease, knowing that the products are water-based and very natural (or what I think they are guiding me to perceive).” (Laneige)

“In terms of the variety of products, Bobbi Brown continually launches new colours (lipstick, eye shadow) or limited edition products so their customers can enjoy trying different shades. I do enjoy trying different make-up styles each day.” (Bobbi Brown2)

“I strongly believe that cosmetic products are selling beauty both in term of looks and emotions. These two elements are highly subjective and extremely emotion oriented; and, therefore the impact will vary from person to person. As a consequence it is very important that in cosmetic sales, the company not only sells the quality of their products, but also the mood, image, and feeling they want to associate with their products ... sexy, playful, sporty, professional, casual, etc.” (Giorgio Armani)

“I personally like Laura Mercier, and I feel that this brand reflects the sense of being natural because it is not too chemical, giving a natural feeling for everyday use, while some other brands put me in a joyful and fun mood.” (Laura Mercier2)

Intellectual Experience

Participants confirmed the concept of brand experience from the literature – that intellectual experience is one of the brand experience dimensions. When the researcher presented the definition of intellectual experience from the literature and questioned the intellectual experience in the luxury cosmetic brand context, the following responses emerged:

“I would love to know what contributes to the top/middle/base notes and how it was produced.” (Lanvin)

“Definitely! I want to know the ingredients of every product I intend to use as I have very sensitive skin. I need to check all the ingredients carefully to avoid side effects.” (Benefit)

“I read magazines pretty often and I try to find products that suit me. I search for new cosmetics technology and new product ingredients. I guess it’s very important that we know what we are applying.” (Bobbi Brown1)

“As I told you earlier, this brand has clear product details on the packaging that leads me more towards buying it compared to other brands. And, an expensive product makes me curious about the quality and why it is more expensive than the other brands in the same category.” (Philosophy)

“I always research the product ingredient before I buy it. My skin is very sensitive to some chemicals or extracts, which is the reason why I should know the product ingredients.” (Sulwhasoo)

“Newly invented technology, also new formulas and mixtures. Normally, I keep myself up to date to new products and check out whether they have released a new formula or not. ... they come up with new and developed products all the time, which attracts me the most, and most of the time when they launch these new products I end up buying it as I like to try new things.” (Laura Mercier3)

Behavioural Experience

This represents the brand experience ability to respond to luxury cosmetic brand needs in a behavioural experience aspect. The behavioural experience dimension contributes to the luxury cosmetic brand experience in term of lifestyles and activities.

“When I think of my favourite cosmetic brand, I think of leisure time, a day out.” (Lanvin)

“Even though Benefit didn’t join the campaign [donating some part of the profit for charity], at least the environmentally-friendly packaging reminds me of the activities I should do.” (Benefit)

“It reminds me of nightlife activities, such as parties, and fun events. For me, I would need to apply eye shadow (NAKED) before going out to a night party. I love how the brand named their product, ‘NAKED’ because it reminds me that I cannot go out partying with my face naked, so I had better apply some ‘NAKED’ before going out on a party!” (Urban Decay)

“Yes, absolutely I remember the ‘Viva Glam’ collection of M.A.C. cosmetic is the collection to create the M.A.C. Aids Fund. Which was developed to support people who are living with HIV/AIDS worldwide, as well as donating funds to communities that offer services and help to and prevent the HIV/AIDS through educational programs and services.” (M.A.C.2)

Social Experience

As mentioned above, participants confirmed the concept that intellectual experience is one of the brand experience dimensions. They determined social experience to be another important dimension of brand experience, especially in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand. When the researcher presented the definition of social experience from the literature and questioned them to think of any social experience regarding their favourite cosmetic brand, the following responses emerged:

“When I think of any social activities or social experiences regarding my favourite cosmetic brand, I only think of my mum, as we use the same brand.” (Shiseido1)

“I started using cosmetics earlier than my friends, so I was kind of a ‘make-up guru’ back then. Having studied with the Bobbi Brown team of make-up artists has given me a lot of techniques and experiences that I had not realised.”
(Bobbi Brown1)

“My first thought was the Korean entertainment business. I am in love with Hyun Bin – he is the ambassador for Laneige Homme, for men. Very social, especially when girlfriends hang out together to try, discuss and share their thoughts and experiences of cosmetic products.” (Laneige)

“Giorgio Armani definitely tries to market sex appeal in their image, both online and in print ads. So when I associate a relation with this brand, the first thing that would come to mind is partner, lover, or otherwise sex appeal in a social setting.” (Giorgio Armani)

“Urban Decay has launched a powder product called ‘lick-able Powder’. This product line reminds me of a sweet and sensual relation between couples. This lick-able Powder definitely helps you gain a naughty and playful relationship with your beloved boyfriend.” (Urban Decay)

Taken collectively in relation to luxury cosmetic brands, these perceptions are consistent with the literature of brand experience. This study gives support to the *a priori* dimensions generated as discussed in Chapter 4.

8.3.2 Consequences of the Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience

The following section illustrates the consequences of the luxury cosmetic brand experience as revealed in the qualitative findings:

Brand Personality

When discussing the brand personality regarding the luxury cosmetic brand experience, participants placed emphasis on brand personality as follows:

“I would like to buy the brand that is perceived as professional and well groomed. Also, the brand has to be in line with who I am or how I wish to project myself.” (Lanvin)

“Inspirational, Bobbi Brown’s girls are inspirational. The brand image brings out the user’s characteristics.” (Bobbi Brown1)

“The colour and the image of my favourite cosmetic brand give me a sense of being professional, natural and elegant.” (Laneige)

“I like to be good-looking and fashionable. Bobbie Brown is my solution.” (Bobbi Brown2)

“It is a bit weird talking about my own characteristics but I have to say that I do not like being old-fashioned. I want to be trendy and because of this I use Laura Mercier’s products; it is a brand for teenagers and young adults, not too old and not too clumsy.” (Laura Mercier)

“I would say it is a trendy, good-looking and seductive image, and it’s me.” (Giorgio Armani)

“... for example, Etude wants to convey the image, colour and smell of a sweet girl, while Bobbi Brown would convey the image of a real and natural girl. As for my favourite cosmetic brand, Urban Decay, would put me in the image of bold, creative and individualistic.” (Urban Decay)

The analysis of the qualitative findings revealed that luxury cosmetic brand consumers tend to have positive attitudes toward the relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand personality. This supports Brakus et al.’s (2009) and Dolich’s (1969) studies.

Consumer Satisfaction

Another key aspect raised during the interviews is the importance of consumer satisfaction. According to the luxury cosmetic brand experience, consumer satisfaction could be engendered from product satisfaction, staff satisfaction and sensory satisfaction. For example, some of the respondents noted that:

“Based on my experience to date, I almost always receive product satisfaction. The few times that I have not were probably because I was not using the right product for my age/skin type.” (Shiseido1)

“I always receive satisfaction in term of the results from using my favourite cosmetic brand, and I am very happy with the staff because of their kindness, helpfulness and prompt response to any of my concerns. They often contact me when new products are launched and post me a premium product as a tester. Sometime they call me for a special treatment, for example a facial massage or free make over.” (Shiseido2)

“Most of the time the products achieve what I intended them to. I love the smell and the texture, I feel like there is no make-up on my face.” (M.A.C)

“I am always satisfied with the products including the results, smell, packaging etc. But sometimes the customer service is not so satisfactory.” (Benefit)

“I always receive satisfaction with the quality of the product but the brand itself does not satisfy me.” (Philosophy)

“Chanel always make good products, particularly in term of quality and wide range of colours. I have never been disappointed when using Chanel.” (Chanel3)

The analysis of the qualitative findings revealed that luxury cosmetic brand consumers who recounted unfavourable experiences toward consumer satisfaction reported that customer

service could result in negative brand experience. This supports studies by Rebekah et al. (2005) and Bolton (1998). The following quotes reflect this view:

“Talking about consumer satisfaction, I had a really bad customer service experience from Laura Mercier. Once I went to buy a new powder and I dressed normally like I do when I am at home, quite inappropriate for the place. The Laura Mercier seller ignored me and left me waiting for over 10 minutes and there was no customer! I felt that he looked down on me and that really made me frustrated.” (Laura Mercier)

“One big factor for consumer satisfaction is good customer service, I am loyal to the Philosophy brand but they have moved this brand out of Thailand without notification to customers. This makes me so disappointed with the brand.” (Philosophy)

As a result, the qualitative findings confirm the positive role that consumer satisfaction has on brand experience in luxury cosmetic brands.

Consumer Loyalty

Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle (2006); and Brakus et al. (2009) claim that brand experience delivers a valuable benefit that results in consumer loyalty. Similarly, some of the participants established the importance of brand experience and consumer loyalty as follows:

“If the brand experience is poor users are able to easily switch brands as there are so many cosmetic brands in the market these days. In order to maintain customers, brand experience should be taken as a part of marketing strategy.”
(Shiseido1)

“Brand experience is one of the significant factors resulting in consumer loyalty; positive brand experience results in loyalty while negative brand experience does not. I love the brand because it feels positive and fresh.”
(M.A.C)

“I pretty much agree, positive brand experience results in consumer loyalty.”

(Benefit)

“If the brand experience begins to diminish, regardless of any previous loyalties towards the company, I think that I would begin to lose faith in the company’s ability to deliver the experience and promise they made to me in their advertising and messaging.” (Giorgio Armani)

One luxury cosmetic brand consumer who recounted unfavourable attitudes toward the relationship between brand experience and consumer loyalty stated that:

“Brand experience and consumer loyalty, well... I would say in terms of brand image, colour, feeling or word-of-mouth towards the brand only encourages me to buy or try a cosmetic product as the first purchase. However, it may or may not affect my loyalty, depending on the product quality. I will not buy a product that does not suit my skin even if everybody recommends it.” (Laneige)

Brand Trust

As shown in the qualitative study, luxury cosmetic brand experiences have different perceptions towards brand trust. The following comments demonstrate the luxury cosmetic brand consumers’ assessment of this source of brand trust:

“It gives me confidence that the product is properly produced and its use won’t harm my health (as opposed to the unethical production methods in China, for example the formula milk powder incident).” (Lanvin)

“I would say I trust this brand because my family and friends use it and none of them complain about their products.” (Shiseido2)

“The brand are very understanding with refunds, they don’t question a return. They are always reliable in launching new products.” (Benefit)

“To me, a brand is often shaped by its ambassador – and the ambassador’s efforts in ensuring a good public relations image, and very importantly its feedbacks from its users. Thus far, Laneige happens to have an ambassador I love (coincidentally), and word-of mouth feedback has been excellent. It has given me stronger trust towards the brand.” (Laneige)

“As long as the brand is reliable in quality and consistent in delivering on the brand they have created, I will most likely continue using the brand. However, if quality is compromised in their product or they start using materials that do not react to my chemistry, then I will begin to lost faith in their brand.” (Giorgio Armani).

“I trust that the brand’s product is well designed, well produced and well manufactured. It won’t harm my skin and it will help me to be more confident.” (Nars)

“The products that they produce have consistently delivered quality results in looks and feel, leading me to continuously trust in the brand.” (Urban Decay)

From the qualitative findings, brand trust is found to be positive related to luxury cosmetic brand experience. The majority of participants concurred that brand trust generates from sensory experience (brand image) and importantly social experience (family, friend and celebrity) (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005; Luk and Yip, 2008). Moreover, consistent and reliable product quality was very significant to the interviewees. Additionally, brand policy (refund) is a significant factor in increasing brand trust.

8.3.3 Antecedents of Consumer Loyalty in the Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience

The following section demonstrates the antecedents of consumer loyalty in the luxury cosmetic brand experience as determined in the qualitative findings:

Brand Personality

There is consensus in terms of the variables used to measure consumer loyalty in the luxury cosmetic brands. The findings reveal that in the luxury cosmetic brand sector, brand personality results in consumer loyalty. When asked to provide the relationship between brand personality and consumer loyalty of luxury cosmetic brands, the participants' responses were follows:

"I always buy Shesido because it looks sophisticated and reliable". (Shesido1)

"In the beginning, I first moved to Bobbi Brown because its image and its character suit my personality, it's inspirational. I am happy with it and I have kept buying it since then." (Bobbi Brown1)

"My favourite cosmetic brand is Chanel, it sends a message of professionalism and sophistication. It gives me confidence; I would not go out without Chanel on my face. So why would I stop buying it!" (Chanel)

"As I told you earlier, Laura Mercier brings an image of maturity and peace at the same time. I want to look mature and peaceful so I always buy Laura Mercier. For example, the other cosmetic brand (Nars) gives me a feeling of elegance and slight arrogance, I never want to buy it even it is a good product." (Laura Mercier)

"I always put on makeup when I go to work everyday, in addition my favourite cosmetic brand has a brand positioning which is suitable among working women, so they target the working women group. This is the reason why I always buy my favourite cosmetic brand, which is based on my personality and characteristics." (Laura Mercier3)

The above comments are in line with the marketing literature, which considers brand personality is related to consumer loyalty (Lastovicka and Joachimsthaler, 1998; Maeder et al. 2000; Kim et al. 2001).

Consumer Satisfaction

Akin to the works of Bolton (1998), Margin et al. (2003), Chandrashekar et al. (2007), and Yung and Peterson (2004), the findings reveal a positive relationship between consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty. In a luxury cosmetic brand setting, consumer satisfaction is considered to be an antecedent of consumer loyalty. Participants stated:

“Brand personality would be one of my considerations but would not really affect if I decide to be a loyal to a certain brand. Indeed, product satisfaction usually impacts me more in term of consumer loyalty.” (Laneige)

“No, I do not think brand personality leads me to consumer loyalty. I would use ‘brand’ to reflect my image and character but it does not mean I will always buy the brand. Rather, I buy the product because of its quality.”
(Philosophy)

“I am very satisfied with M.A.C and I will continue buying it.” (M.A.C)

“In my opinions, consumer loyalty for cosmetic brands will be created when the products have been tested and the consumer has found the satisfaction to be better than from other brands.” (Benefit)

“In my point of view, satisfaction from brand experience is one of the most important aspects, but I would say customer service experience should be a

strong consideration aspect. I believe that a strong relationship between the customer and the brand results in consumer loyalty. (Laura Mercier)

“My satisfaction would depend on the quality of the product. If a certain brand does not smudge or create any allergy, then I would probably buy the same brand again. Thus, the quality of the product would create customer loyalty in the brand after the first try.” (Urban Decay)

“Loyalty will be built easily if the brand can consistently offer consumers a line of quality products which will then create satisfaction.” (Chanel4)

Brand Trust

Furthermore, the qualitative findings support the work of O’Shaughnessy (1992); Lau and Lee (1999); Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2000); Papista and Dimitriadis (2012) in relation to the link between brand trust and consumer loyalty. When the researcher presented the definition of brand trust and consumer loyalty from the literature and questioned the participants to think of any relationship between brand trust and consumer loyalty. Some participants confirmed the idea from the literature:

“I believe that my favourite cosmetic brand would be honest to me and I will continue buying it” (Bobbi Brown1)

“I believe that there will be brand trust up to a certain extent. Not every customer’s expectations will be met, but they will be put into consideration. I have built a great trust in them and their brand name.” (Chanel)

“I would hope so, they always show client care with letters and magazines and always suggest that any feedback is appreciated. I like the way they show they are responsible to customers and so I stick to them.” (Bobbi Brown2)

“It is not an absolute factor where trust can create loyalty but it is one of the consideration factors for me.” (Benefit)

The qualitative results regarding the luxury cosmetic brand experience are aligned to Brakus’s et al. (2009); Lau and Lee’s (1999); Chandrashekar’s et al. (2007) suggestion to use a set of variables, that is, brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction in measuring consumer loyalty.

In summary, the qualitative study provides a better understanding of the research questions. The research conceptual framework had been developed from literature reviews, and the qualitative study generally confirms the hypotheses that were tested from quantitative study.

8.4 CONCLUSIONS

The chapter discussed the qualitative phase and qualitative analysis followed by an explanation of the data collection and analysis. The qualitative results as related to each theme identified in the conceptual framework were presented and some of the themes were expanded upon and integrated into the literature on brand experience marketing. Generally, support was given to the quantitative results of Chapter 7. The next chapter will present a discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have:

1. Presented the foundations of this thesis by introducing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives and a brief explanation of the research methodology. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were outlined followed by a summary of the research limitations and a brief review of the contents of each chapter.
2. Provided the concept of luxury brands, outlined definitions, perspectives and characteristics of luxury brands. Reviewed the marketing concepts of luxury brand consumers together with luxury brand consumption. In addition, explored the dimension of luxury brands applied in experiential marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing. Presented the context used for this study: the luxury cosmetics industry in Thailand.
3. Reviewed inconsistencies relating to the definition of experience in various disciplines. Presented fields of experience including product experience, service experience, shopping experience and consumption experience. Importantly, this chapter showed the congruence between transactional marketing and experiential marketing.
4. Reviewed the phenomenon of branding and other brand constructs related to this study. Described the meaning of brand, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction, consumer loyalty and eventually, the main construct of this research, brand experience. Thus contextualised, the rationale behind the study's intended focus on brand experience, the source of its dependent variables, is presented.
5. Explored the relevant theoretical frameworks related to the variables used in this research and outlined the conceptual model, explaining the constructs relating to luxury cosmetic brands among women in Thailand. Provided the proposed research conceptual framework and identified the research hypotheses for testing. Explored the four main consequences of luxury cosmetic brand experience namely brand personality, consumer satisfaction, brand trust and consumer loyalty.

6. Proposed the research approach and methodology applied in this study. Explained the research methodology and sample selection, measurement used and the statistical techniques. Described that the dominant research approach is a quantitative method by means of a quantitative survey. Described the supporting qualitative approach to refine the result from quantitative study employed in this research in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand in Thailand.
7. Presented the quantitative results obtained from the data analysis of 483 self-administered surveys collected over a period of eight weeks in 2011. Presented the demographic characteristics and response rates – followed by screening the data to prepare for further quantitative analyses, exploratory factor analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis. Linear/ multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses and their significance.
8. Provided an overview of the procedures followed in qualitative analysis. The qualitative study aims to gain in-depth information, better understanding of luxury cosmetic brand context and endorse the results from quantitative study. Presented the qualitative results obtained from the data analysis of 22 semi-structured interviews.

The purpose of this thesis was to investigate the relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty, a direct or an indirect relationship via brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction in the Thailand context. The results of this study were presented in the previous chapters (Chapter 7 and Chapter 8).

This chapter provides a discussion of the results in more detail. Also, an evaluation of the research hypotheses and their significance are summarised. Both existing literature and interviews were used to support the discussion. The chapter will start with the research aims and objectives, an overview of the research followed by the research population and sample issues. Next is a discussion regarding the research's independent and dependent variables. Then, turning to a general discussion and the last section is the conclusion.

9.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This research project's aims are to identify the dimensions of luxury cosmetic brand experience and explore what the emotional/rational consequences are of luxury cosmetic brand experience and how luxury cosmetic brand experience contributes to build consumer behaviour (loyalty) in the Thailand context. It is an interesting research due to, in this century offering a good product and excellent service are no longer the most important strategies in order to sustain brand loyalty and create a competitive advantage (Berry et al., 2002). It is frequently maintained that brand experience has an effect on consumer behaviour in terms of consumer loyalty (Brakus et al., 2009). Therefore, brand experience has received attention from both academicians and practitioners (Schmitt, 1997; 1999a; 1999b; Brakus et al., 2009; Gentile et al., 2007; Chang and Chieng, 2006). In addition to this, some brand companies considerably apply brand experience in their brands but most of the companies do not. However, the theoretical concept of brand experience, the brand experience dimensions and brand experience phenomenon being considered as a new topic with little research at the moment. Thus, more research investigating brand experience particularly needs to be conducted.

This present research had been accomplished using a mixed method approach, the methods used being a quantitative method and a qualitative method. The quantitative method (quantitative survey) is the predominant method for this study (Patterson and Johnson, 1995; Ha and Perks, 2005; Brakus et al., 2009; Chang and Chieng, 2006; Freeman et al., 2008), followed by the qualitative method used to endorse the results from quantitative study and gain better understanding. Additionally, the questionnaire items were adapted on the basis of previous scales to measure the variables for analysing the hypotheses particular to this study (Brakus et al., 2009; Change and Chieng, 2006; Aaker, 1997; Delgado-Ballester et al., 2003). Before collecting the data, face validity was assessed by experts in this field, thus some items were dropped and some misunderstood words were changed. The next step is test of the factor reduction statistical techniques, which are exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in SPSS 18.02 for Windows. Cronbach's alpha reliability test was employed to check scale reliability, thus ensuring that the scale was reliable theoretically and operationally.

The quantitative method was analysed using linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis. The results showed that luxury cosmetic brand experience has a relationship with consumer loyalty both directly and indirectly via brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction.

The study applied a qualitative approach to the next phase of the present research. The findings of the semi-structured interview were used to endorse the results from the quantitative study, cover all overlooked issues as well as confirm a robust theoretical model that explains the relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and other important variables. The qualitative findings demonstrated that five dimensions of brand experience (sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience) are applicable to the luxury cosmetic brand business in Thailand. In addition to this, the results from the qualitative study showed that there is a direct relationship between the luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty. Moreover, significant factors to achieve consumer loyalty are brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction. A discussion of these findings and research hypotheses can be found in the discussion of the research hypotheses section.

9.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLE ISSUES

This study was conducted in the luxury cosmetic brand sector in Thailand. In terms of quantitative data collection, a convenience sampling technique was employed (Hair et al., 2006) on luxury cosmetic brand consumers who visited luxury cosmetic brand counters in three specific department stores, namely Siam Paragon, Central World and The Emporium, which are located in downtown Bangkok. Of the 520 questionnaires distributed by self-administration among the luxury cosmetic brand consumers, 483 (93 per cent) were identified as valid questionnaires; the respondent rate was considered excellent due to it being a self-administered data collection technique and also, the participants were willing to participate in the research.

Dealing appropriately with missing data is an essential issue. Stevens (2002) identifies the techniques dealing with the missing data problem in social science research, such as removing incomplete questionnaires or using the mean or the scores on variance. The present

research showed 37 questionnaires out of 520 questionnaires were incomplete, which calculated to 7 per cent. The 37 incomplete questionnaires were removed from the analysis.

For the qualitative study, purposive sampling techniques were employed (Teddie and Yu, 2007; Bryman and Bell, 2007) on luxury cosmetic brand consumers who purchased and used luxury cosmetic brand products. Twenty-two luxury cosmetic brand consumers were selected for the semi-structured interviews.

9.4 FOCAL CONSTRUCT: BRAND EXPERIENCE IN LUXURY COSMETIC BRANDS

Notwithstanding the importance of the brand experience in the marketing management, consumer behaviour and brand management literatures (Schmitt, 1999a:1999b; Brakus et al. 2009; Gentile et al. 2007; Fornerino et al. 2006; Chang and Chieng, 2006), there is little research investigating the significance of brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand context. A small number of studies have been undertaken in different contexts such as banking (Atwal and Williams, 2008), online services (Ha and Perks, 2005) and coffee shops (Chang and Chieng, 2006). Nonetheless, inadequate empirical research has been carried out on brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand from a consumer perspective. Therefore, this research attempted to achieve a meaningful level of understanding of the brand experience dimension in luxury cosmetic brands.

In accordance with the marketing management literature (Schmitt, 1999a; Chang and Chieng, 2006) as well as management literature (Gentile et al. 2007), the results of the personal interviews confirm the findings of the quantitative study, validating five dimensions of brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand context. The first focuses on the sensory experience pertaining to the sense of smell, texture, colour, sight, brand image as well as the product packaging. For example, luxury cosmetic brand consumers stated:

“The smell of the cosmetic is very important. A bad smell can put me off from buying it. Also the looks and innovative designs can pull me towards buying the product.” (Chanel)

“The product smell, texture, colour of cosmetic as well as packaging leaves a very lasting impression upon me.” (Laneige)

“... one of the strongest impressions of a cosmetic brand for me is its image and packaging. Pretty and creative packaging would play an important role in that brand becoming my favourite choice of brand. ... the reason for me to purchase a cosmetic brand would be the design of the packaging.” (Urban decay)

Another dimension of brand experience in luxury cosmetic brands relates to the perception of emotions, moods and feelings. Generally, claimed as the ‘affective experience’. For example, one luxury cosmetic customer stated that:

“In terms of the variety of products, Bobbi Brown continually launches new colours (lipstick, eye shadow) or limited edition products so their customers can enjoy trying different shades. I do enjoy trying different make-up styles each day.” (Bobbi Brown2)

“I strongly believe that cosmetic products are selling beauty both in term of looks and emotions. These two elements are highly subjective and extremely emotion oriented; and, therefore the impact will vary from person to person. As a consequence it is very important that in cosmetic sales, the company not only sells the quality of their products, but also the mood, image, and feeling they want to associate with their products ... sexy, playful, sporty, professional, casual, etc.” (Giorgio Armani)

In addition, the follow-up interviews captured another importance dimension of brand experience in luxury cosmetic brands – intellectual experience that stimulates customer curiosity and engages their thinking – which was confirmed by the quantitative study. Product ingredients and new cosmetic technology receive great attention from customers. Two luxury cosmetic brand customers explained:

“I read magazines pretty often and I try to find products that suit me. I search for new cosmetics technology and new product ingredients. I guess it’s very important that we know what we are applying.” (Bobbi Brown1)

“As I told you earlier, this brand has clear product details on the packaging that leads me more towards buying it compared to other brands. And, an expensive product makes me curious about the quality and why it is more expensive than the other brands in the same category.” (Philosophy)

Another aspect of brand experience in luxury cosmetic brands relates to the behavioural experience, Xu and Chan (2010) claim that behavioural experience reflects the customer’s personality, activity, lifestyle and brand. According to luxury cosmetic brand consumers:

“Even though Benefit didn’t join the campaign [donating some part of the profit for charity], at least the environmentally-friendly packaging reminds me of the activities I should do.” (Benefit)

“It reminds me of nightlife activities, such as parties, and fun events. For me, I would need to apply eye shadow (NAKED) before going out to a night party. I love how the brand named their product, ‘NAKED’ because it reminds me that I cannot go out partying with my face naked, so I had better apply some ‘NAKED’ before going out on a party!” (Urban Decay)

“Yes, absolutely I remember the ‘Viva Glam’ collection of M.A.C. cosmetic is the collection to create the M.A.C. Aids Fund. Which was developed to support people who are living with HIV/AIDS worldwide, as well as donating funds to communities that offer services and help to and prevent the HIV/AIDS through educational programs and services.” (M.A.C.2)

Another aspect of brand experience in the present study was the social experience. The conceptualisations of experiential marketing by Schmitt (1999a:1999b) emphasises the social experience is perceived via brand community, group, family, partner and friend, using celebrities to capture more attraction from consumers. The social experience dimension in

luxury cosmetic brand is also emphasised in the findings of the quantitative and qualitative study, as shown below:

“When I think of any social activities or social experiences regarding my favourite cosmetic brand, I only think of my mum, as we use the same brand.”
(Shiseido1)

“My first thought was the Korean entertainment business. I am in love with Hyun Bin – he is the ambassador for Laneige Homme, for men. Very social, especially when girlfriends hang out together to try, discuss and share their thoughts and experiences of cosmetic products.” (Laneige)

“Giorgio Armani definitely tries to market sex appeal in their image, both online and in print ads. So when I associate a relation with this brand, the first thing that would come to mind is partner, lover, or otherwise sex appeal in a social setting.” (Giorgio Armani)

9.5 DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

This section aims to discuss the research findings as well as summarise the hypotheses proposed in Chapter 5. Table 9.1 demonstrates that all seven hypotheses were tested and supported by the data analysis.

Table 9.1: Results of Research Hypotheses

Code	Hypothesis Content	Results
H1a	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects on brand personality positively.	Supported
H1b	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects brand trust positively.	Supported
H1c	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer satisfaction positively.	Supported
H2	Brand personality affects consumer loyalty positively.	Supported

H3	Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer loyalty positively.	Supported
H4	Consumer satisfaction affects consumer loyalty positively.	Supported
H5	Brand trust affects consumer loyalty positively.	Supported

9.5.1 Consequences of the Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience

The following section explains the consequences of brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand context combining both quantitative and qualitative studies.

Brand Personality

Despite the importance of the theory of brand experience, and the relationship between brand experience and brand personality, they are not well defined in the marketing or brand management literature (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999a; Aaker, 1997). Some definitions of brand experience and brand personality have been demonstrated earlier in Chapter 4. Thus, this study attempts to contribute meaningful knowledge by testing the relationship between brand experience and brand personality as applied to luxury cosmetic brands in the Thailand context.

In the literature, Schmitt (1997) claims that brand experience is a concept of consumer perception when they experience brands, regardless of other marketing aspects such as price, place and promotion. Brand experience refers to the internal consumer responses that are classified as sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual, evoked by brand-related stimuli (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Padgett and Allen, 1997; Brakus et al., 2009). In addition to this, Schmitt (1999a) and Gentile et al. (2007) claims that brand experience comprises sensory experience, affective experience, cognitive experience, physical experience and social experience. However, the dimensions of brand experience are implied by consumer personality (Brakus et al., 2009).

Aaker (1997) asserts that a brand is an object used to identify human traits. Furthermore, Aaker (1997) observes that there are five characteristics related to brands, which are sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness. Therefore, there is a link

between brand experience and brand personality. For example, a sophisticated consumer may desire to hold the Tiffany & Co. bag due to him/her receiving a sensory experience via the colour of Tiffany & Co.'s bag; it is generally agreed that the colour of Tiffany & Co.'s bag presents an image of superiority and the upper class (Schmitt, 1999b). What's more, Dolich (1969) reveals that consumer brands are selected based on self-image or social image. Sirgy (1982), Dolich (1969) and Belk (1988) claim that brand image (sensory experience) has an influence on brand personality, a consumer perception. Therefore, it could be said that a person's characteristics provide insight regarding brand experience dimensions. The research by Brakus et al. (2009) suggests that brand experience has a relationship with brand personality. Thus, this study is concerned with examining the relationship between brand experience and brand personality applied in the luxury cosmetic brand sector in Thailand.

The researcher applied luxury cosmetic brand experience as a predictor variable to examine brand personality (dependent variable) in Thailand, particularly Bangkok. Applying an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows, all the measurement items of sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience were loaded into one item, which is the luxury cosmetic brand experience. In addition to this, all items that measure brand personality (sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness) were extracted into one. Then, confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows were used to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis. There are two items (cheerful and friendly) measuring sincerity that were removed from the confirmatory factor analysis due to low factor loading (less than 0.5). All the factors mentioned above were checked with a reliability test, by Cronbach's alpha; the results demonstrated that all the measurement items showed reliability values at the satisfaction level.

The results tend to agree with the findings of a similar study regarding the relationship between brand experience and brand personality by Brakus et al. (2009). The findings showed that the luxury cosmetic brand experience predictor has a statistically significant and positive relationship with brand personality in the Thailand context. It confirms and supports the hypothesis that luxury cosmetic brand experience affects brand personality positively, with a path coefficient value of 0.48. It was also indicated that luxury cosmetic brand experience has a positive relationship with brand personality. This seems reasonable in the

luxury cosmetic brand sector, where consumers receive their experience of brands on the basis of their (consumer) personality. In previous research, brand experience has been assessed to test consumer behaviour based on brand personality (Brakus et al., 2009) and found positive results. In the present research, the results supported H1a (luxury cosmetic brand experience affects brand personality positively). Participants in follow-up interviews also confirmed the statistical results, stating that brand personality is a consequence of brand experience in luxury cosmetic brand context. The majority of customers purchase products based on brands that are able to represent their personality and portray their image (Mulyanegara et al. 2007; Austin et al. 2003; Malhotra, 1981:1988; Sirge, 1982). When asked about the relationship between brand experience and brand personality in the luxury cosmetic brands, some respondents commented as follows:

“I would like to buy the brand that is perceived as professional and well groomed. Also, the brand has to be in line with who I am or how I wish to project myself.” (Lanvin)

“Inspirational, Bobbi Brown’s girls are inspirational. The brand image brings out the user’s characteristics.” (Bobbi Brown1)

“My look has to be ‘working woman’ and sometime it has to be tough. I pick M.A.C. because it gives me that perception and appearance”. (M.A.C.2)

“... for example, Etude wants to convey the image, colour and smell of a sweet girl, while Bobbi Brown would convey the image of a real and natural girl. As for my favourite cosmetic brand, Urban Decay, would put me in the image of bold, creative and individualistic.” (Urban Decay)

Even though, the results from both quantitative and qualitative studies showed a positive effect between brand experience and brand personality in luxury cosmetic brands, brand experience should be carefully considered with regard to how to create a sufficient brand experience for their customer(s). One of the participants claimed that:

“For example, the other cosmetic brand (Nars) gives me a feeling of elegance and slight arrogance, I never want to buy it even it is a good product.” (Laura Mercier)

In summary, providing a brand experience comprising sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience can assist companies to create a sufficient marketing strategy related to consumer personality. The qualitative results supported the quantitative outcomes in that the statistic results demonstrate that the luxury cosmetic brand experience affects brand personality positively with a path coefficient value of 0.48. Additionally, the qualitative results state that consumers have different perceptions regarding particular brands and they tend to purchase a luxury cosmetic brand based on how they want to project themselves. For example, Lanvin has a personality of being professional and well groomed, Bobbie Brown is inspirational and natural, M.A.C. is strong and rugged.

The above results indicate that all the dimensions of the luxury cosmetic brand experience variable applied in the present research had positive and significant relationships with brand personality. This means, in the luxury cosmetic brand sector in Thailand (Bangkok), Thai luxury cosmetic brand consumers are likely to purchase luxury cosmetic brands based on their personality and the perception of their experience towards their preferred luxury cosmetic brands. This conceptualisation suggests that Thai luxury cosmetic brand consumers have a strong belief that experience of a brand can represent who they are, their self-image and their personality.

Brand Trust

Brand experience has been conceptualised to develop brand trust (Ha and Perks, 2005; Lau and Lee, 1999; Delgado-Ballester, 2001; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005). Following the theoretical foundation presented in Chapter 5, it is suggested that previous experience is a key element contributing trust or distrust (Lau and Lee, 1999; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005). Similarly, Yoon (2002) and Jonker and Treur (1999) observe that previous experience is likely to increase or decrease the level of trust. Brand experience affects brand trust via sensory experience, it plays as a brand image role. It is

maintained that a brand with honest, reliable, credible, consistent and responsible images will increase the consumer's perception towards brand trust (Delgado-Ballester, 2001). What's more, brand experience influences brand trust via social experience. Thus, social experience such as the experience via friends, family or peers is likely to play a major role in brand trust (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005). Therefore, the research by Delgado-Ballester (2001) and Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2005) asserts that experience has a relationship with brand trust. Thus, this study is concerned with examining the relationship between brand experience and brand trust applied in the luxury cosmetic brand sector in Thailand.

Applying an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows, all the measurement items were loaded into one item – brand trust. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha reliability test was conducted on all the measurement items, thus all the items demonstrated a reliability value at the satisfaction level. Linear regression analysis was employed to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand trust.

In the theoretical framework of this research, the luxury cosmetic brand experience was conceptualised as an independent predictor variable, while brand trust was a dependent variable. As a result, the findings confirmed and supported the hypothesis that the luxury cosmetic brand experience has a significant positive relationship with brand trust (H1b) with a path coefficient of $\beta = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$. This statistical finding demonstrates that luxury cosmetic brand experience has a positive influence on brand trust. Additionally, the qualitative results fully support a positive relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand trust.

In general, sensory experience as a brand image can act as facilitator and generate into brand trust. A favourable brand image (honest, reliable, responsible, consistency) can be used as a marketing tool in building brand trust (Delgado-Ballester, 2001; Andaleeb, 1992; Doney and Cannon, 1997). This is also the case in the luxury cosmetic brand sector, as one luxury cosmetic brand customer commented:

“The brand are very understanding with refunds, they don’t question a return. They are always reliable in launching new products.” (Benefit)

More specifically, social experience (family, friend, celebrity and word-of-mouth) is a significant factor contributing brand trust (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005). Chadha and Husband (2006) observe that humans are fascinated with glamour and celebrities. This supports the positive relationship between brand experience and brand trust in luxury cosmetic brands.

“I would say I trust this brand because my family and friends use it and none of them complain about their products.” (Shiseido2)

“To me, a brand is often shaped by its ambassador – and the ambassador’s efforts in ensuring a good public relations image, and very importantly its feedbacks from its users. Thus far, Laneige happens to have an ambassador I love (coincidentally), and word-of mouth feedback has been excellent. It has given me stronger trust towards the brand.” (Laneige)

In summary, brand experience is a key driver of brand trust, especially in sensory experience and social experience. The above results show that brand experience applied in the luxury cosmetic sector had positive and significant relationships with brand trust. This means with luxury cosmetic brand experience in Thailand (Bangkok), when consumers are committed to a luxury cosmetic brand, they are more likely to consider their experience of a particular luxury cosmetic brand before developing brand trust. The results also suggest that luxury cosmetic brand consumers have a strong belief in their brand experience, which means positive brand experience results in high levels of brand trust. Thus, it helps luxury cosmetic industries to increase the level of trust in order to maintain their market position in this highly competitive market.

Consumer Satisfaction

As discussed in Chapter 5, Engel et al. (1990) contends that satisfaction is about consumer perception towards a brand and it is a predictor variable of consumer behaviour. Brakus et al. (2009), Bennett et al. (2005), Sirohi et al. (1998), Mano and Oliver (1993) and Ha and Perks (2005) assert that satisfaction has been applied to experiential marketing in terms of brand experience and customer experience. In addition to this experience, it has been noted as one of the most essential factors that influences satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993). Therefore, brand experience has a relationship with satisfaction (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Ha and Perks, 2005; Brakus et al., 2009). According to Berry et al. (2002), positive brand experience contributes to consumer satisfaction towards brands. In contrast, consumers are likely to switch to another brand when their preferred brand provides a dissatisfying experience. Therefore, this research is concerned with investigating the relationship between brand experience and consumer satisfaction applied in the luxury cosmetic brand sector in Thailand.

Applying an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows, all the measurement items were extracted into one item – consumer satisfaction. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis. From the confirmatory factor analysis, only one measurement item was removed owing to low factor loading (less than 0.5). Cronbach's alpha reliability test tested all the measurement items, thus all the items demonstrated a reliability value at the satisfaction level. Linear regression analysis was employed to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand satisfaction.

In the theoretical framework of the present research, luxury cosmetic brand experience was conceptualised as an independent predictor variable, while consumer satisfaction was a dependent variable. The results tend to agree with the findings of previous research regarding similar studies (Brakus et al. 2009). The findings showed that the luxury cosmetic brand experience predictor has a statistically significant and positive relationship with consumer satisfaction in the Thailand context. It also confirms and supports the hypothesis that luxury cosmetic brand experience has a significant positive relationship with consumer satisfaction (H1c) with a path coefficient of $\beta = 0.16$, $p < 0.01$. This statistical finding demonstrates

luxury cosmetic brand experience has a positive influence on consumer satisfaction. Furthermore, the qualitative research captured brand experience (sensory experience) is the most important component contributing to consumer satisfaction in luxury cosmetic brands. This was confirmed by the follow-up interviews:

“Most of the time the products achieve what I intended them to. I love the smell and the texture, I feel like there is no make-up on my face.” (M.A.C)

In addition, the follow-up interviews captured another essential factor resulting in consumer satisfaction in luxury cosmetic brands. Product quality is likely to influence consumer satisfaction (Ghosh and McLafferty, 1987 cited in Kerin et al. 1992), luxury cosmetic brand consumers explained:

“Based on my experience to date, I almost always receive product satisfaction. The few times that I have not were probably because I was not using the right product for my age/skin type.” (Shiseido1)

“Chanel always make good products, particularly in term of quality and wide range of colours. I have never been disappointed when using Chanel.” (Chanel3)

The qualitative research, however, uncovered another outlook on the conceptualisation of luxury cosmetic brand experience, as a service experience from a consumer perspective. This is in accordance with Anderson et al. (1994), Garbarino and Johnson (1999), Mittal et al. (1999), Bennett et al. (2005), Bolton (1998) and Patterson and Johnson (1995) who found that consumer satisfaction has a relationship with company experience, product experience and service experience; therefore, these experiences referred to brand experience. Examples of comments include:

“One big factor for consumer satisfaction is good customer service, I am loyal to the Philosophy brand but they have moved this brand out of Thailand without notification to customers. This makes me so disappointed with the brand.” (Philosophy)

“I am always satisfied with the products including the results, smell, packaging etc. But sometimes the customer service is not so satisfactory.” (Benefit)

The present study exhibited that there was a positive effect of luxury cosmetic brand experience on consumer satisfaction. Additionally, the qualitative research uncovered that the consumer perceives product experience and customer service experience as a part of luxury cosmetic brand experience. Therefore, product experience and customer service experience were found to be a key predictor of consumer satisfaction in luxury cosmetic brands

Today, most of the developed and developing countries face a serious economic problem. It may be suggested that on the basis of marketing strategy, luxury cosmetic brand experience can increase the level of consumer satisfaction towards brands. Additionally, product experience and customer service experience are key considerations to achieve high consumer satisfaction in luxury cosmetic brand sectors. In the literature, the predictor brand experience has been applied and found positively significant to the dependent variable (consumer satisfaction) (Brakus et al., 2009). This recommends that luxury cosmetic brand consumers who receive a positive brand experience are more likely to increase their level of consumer satisfaction, which may lead to repurchase behaviour (Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle, 2006; Coulson, 1966; Patterson et al., 1997; Richins and Blach, 1991; Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Schmitt, 1999b).

In summary, product experience and customer service experience were perceived as luxury cosmetic brand experience dimensions. Great customer service experience and product quality result in positive consumer satisfaction. Furthermore, brand experience applied in the luxury cosmetic brand sector has positive and significant relationships with consumer satisfaction. This means with luxury cosmetic brand experience in Thailand (Bangkok), when consumers are committed to a luxury cosmetic brand, they are more likely to perceive a brand experience including affective experience, intellectual experience, behavioural experience, social experience and especially sensory experience. These above brand experiences result in a positive influence on consumer satisfaction.

Consumer Loyalty

In the marketing literature, loyalty has been frequently accepted as the most important marketing strategy in order to obtain a sustainable competitive advantage (Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004; Dick and Basu, 1994). There are several researchers that have attempted to examine the relationship between experience and loyalty (Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle, 2006; Coulson, 1966; Tucker, 1964) but there are fewer researchers that have focused on either brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009) or customer experience (Ismail, 2010; Howard and Sheth, 1969; Oliver, 1999; Barsky and Nash, 2002) towards loyalty. Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle (2006) explain that brand experience affects consumer loyalty only when they receive a positive brand experience. In the late 2000s, Brakus et al. (2009) noted that brand experience has a positive relationship with consumer loyalty directly and a positive relationship via brand personality and consumer satisfaction indirectly. However, in this present research and in accordance with the literature on brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999a; 1999b; 2009; Ghodeswar, 2008; Gentile et al., 2007), the research implies that a well-coordinated experience of brands is likely to be a key contribution to building consumer loyalty. This study applied brand experience in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand industry as a predictor variable for investigating consumer loyalty towards brands.

Applying an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows, all the measurement items were extracted into one item – consumer loyalty. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha reliability test was conducted on all the measurement items, thus all the items demonstrated a reliability value at the satisfaction level. Linear regression analysis was employed to investigate the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty.

In the theoretical framework of the present research, luxury cosmetic brand experience was conceptualised as a predictor variable, while brand satisfaction was a dependent variable. The results tend to agree with the findings of previous research regarding similar studies. The findings showed that the path between the luxury cosmetic brand experience predictor variable and consumer loyalty was found to be a statistically significant and positive

relationship in the Thailand context. It also confirms and supports the hypothesis that luxury cosmetic brand experience has a significant positive relationship with consumer loyalty (H3) with a path coefficient of $\beta = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$. This statistical finding demonstrates that the luxury cosmetic brand experience has a positive influence on consumer loyalty. Moreover, the qualitative findings also indicate that brand experience has a positive relationship to consumer loyalty in relation of affective experience. Below are some comments on this issue:

“Brand experience is one of the significant factors resulting in consumer loyalty; positive brand experience results in loyalty while negative brand experience does not. I love the brand because it feels positive and fresh.”

(M.A.C)

“I pretty much agree, positive brand experience results in consumer loyalty.”

(Benefit)

This study's results suggest that attention must be given to luxury cosmetic brand experience including sensory experience, affective experience, intellectual experience, behavioural experience and social experience due to the positive luxury cosmetic brand experience dimensions leading to increasing consumer loyalty. As mentioned in Chapter 4, loyalty is one of the most significant factors in order to obtain a sustainable competitive advantage, especially in this century where every country is troubled with an economic crisis (Gounaris and Stathakopoulos, 2004; Dick and Basu, 1994; Aaker, 1992; Reichheld, 1996). It is apparent that loyalty reduces the cost of marketing programmes such as advertising costs and promotion costs (Aaker, 1992; Reichheld, 1996; Uncles and Laurent, 1997); it also increases a higher rate of return on investment by increases in market shares (Buzzel and Gale, 1987).

In conclusion, the findings from the hypotheses testing and qualitative study recommend that brand experience has a positive relationship with consumer loyalty in the industry of luxury cosmetic brands in Thailand (Bangkok). This means that Thai luxury cosmetic brand consumers consider brand experience as one of their criteria before deciding whether to have brand loyalty. Thus, luxury cosmetic brand companies in Thailand should put emphasis on how to increase the positive brand experience of their target consumers in order to build loyal customers and maintain their existing customers.

9.5.2 Antecedents of Consumer Loyalty in Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience

As discussed in Chapter 5, there are empirical researchers that have pointed out that brand personality (Lastovicka and Joachimsthaler, 1988; Maeder et al., 2000; Upshaw, 1995), brand trust (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001) and consumer satisfaction (Yung and Peterson, 2004; Bodet, 2008) are antecedents of consumer loyalty. The present study attempts to confirm the hypotheses proposed in Chapter 5 that brand personality has an effect on consumer loyalty positively (H2), consumer satisfaction has an effect on consumer loyalty positively (H4), and brand trust has an effect on consumer loyalty positively (H5). The results demonstrated that all three hypotheses had been confirmed and supported. However, the details of each result are discussed below.

Brand Personality

As discussed in Chapter 5, the literature revealed that the brand personality perception and self-personality perception derive consumers' brand loyalty (Lastovicka and Joachimsthaler, 1988; Maeder et al., 2000). It could be said that the concept of brand personality and self-congruity are essential factors that lead to consumer loyalty. Hence, this research attempts to investigate the relationship between brand personality and consumer loyalty applied in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand industry in Thailand (Bangkok).

Applying an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows, all the measurement items were loaded into one. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha reliability test was conducted on all the measurement items, thus all the items demonstrated a reliability value at the satisfaction level. Multiple regression analysis was employed to investigate the relationship between brand personality and consumer loyalty.

In the theoretical framework of the present research, brand personality was conceptualised as a predictor variable, whereas consumer loyalty was a dependent variable. The results of this study confirmed the hypothesis that brand personality affects consumer loyalty positively (H2). Brand personality was found to be statistically significant and had a positive relationship with consumer loyalty in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand sector

(Thailand) with a path coefficient of $\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.01$. That means that this statistical finding illustrated that brand personality has a positive influence on consumer loyalty. What's more, the qualitative findings revealed the importance of brand personality in enhancing consumer loyalty in luxury cosmetic brand industry. In this context, some luxury cosmetic brand customers explained:

“I always buy Shesido because it looks sophisticated and reliable”. (Shesido1)

“In the beginning, I first moved to Bobbi Brown because its image and its character suit my personality, it's inspirational. I am happy with it and I have kept buying it since then.” (Bobbi Brown1)

“I always put on makeup when I go to work everyday, in addition my favourite cosmetic brand has a brand positioning which is suitable among working women, so they target the working women group. This is the reason why I always buy my favourite cosmetic brand, which is based on my personality and characteristics.” (Laura Mercier3)

The qualitative results show that luxury cosmetic consumers continually purchased the same luxury cosmetic brand when they felt that the brand reflected their characters. Furthermore, the results tend to agree with the previous research by Upshaw (1995) that brand personality derives from loyal consumers. Also, it supports similar research by Brakus et al. (2009), that there is a positive relationship between brand personality and consumer loyalty. On the other hand, the results seem to be different from the research of Kim et al. (2001), as they claim that brand personality has no direct relationship with consumer loyalty, whereas there is an indirect relationship between brand personality and consumer loyalty by word-of-mouth.

Consumer Satisfaction

It is generally agreed that consumer satisfaction plays a crucial role in every business sector; Bolton (1998), Jones and Suh (2000), Chandrashekar et al. (2007), Yang and Peterson (2004), DeWulf et al. (2001), Robert et al. (2003) and Bodet (2008) assert that consumer satisfaction has a relationship with consumer loyalty. Thus, this research aims to investigate

the relationship between consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty applied in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand industry in Thailand (Bangkok).

Applying an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows, all the measurement items were loaded into one item. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis. One item measuring consumer satisfaction was dropped due to a low factor loading result (less than 0.5). Cronbach's alpha reliability test was conducted on all the measurement items, thus all the measurement items illustrated a satisfactory reliability value (Cronbach's alpha > 0.5). The remaining items demonstrated a reliability value at the satisfaction level. Multiple regression analysis was employed to examine the relationship between consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty.

This study applied consumer satisfaction as a predictive variable for examining consumer loyalty in the luxury cosmetic brand sector (Thailand, Bangkok). The findings showed that the path between the consumer satisfaction predictor variable and consumer loyalty in the luxury cosmetic brand sector (Thailand, Bangkok) was found to be positive and significant (beta = 0.30, $p < 0.01$). From the respondent's point of view, positive consumer satisfaction means they are more likely to be a loyal customer of their luxury cosmetic brand. Thus, H4, consumer satisfaction affects consumer loyalty positively in the luxury cosmetic brand industry (Thailand), was accepted. Also, the qualitative findings endorsed the results from the quantitative study. For example, some luxury cosmetic brand customers stated:

"I don't change my make-up style so I would continue using the same product if I am already satisfied with it." (Bobbi Brown1)

"In my point of view, satisfaction from brand experience is one of the most important aspects, but I would say customer service experience should be a strong consideration aspect. I believe that a strong relationship between the customer and the brand results in consumer loyalty." (Laura Mercier)

“My satisfaction would depend on the quality of the product. If a certain brand does not smudge or create any allergy, then I would probably buy the same brand again. Thus, the quality of the product would create customer loyalty in the brand after the first try.” (Urban Decay)

The findings support the results in the literature, which indicate that when a brand meets customer satisfaction, it will lead to brand loyalty (Magin et al., 2003). From this research product satisfaction (product quality) and customer service satisfaction result in consumer loyalty. The previous research suggests that consumer satisfaction contributes a positive effect on consumer loyalty (Yang and Peterson, 2004). Additionally, recent research by Brakus et al. (2009) indicates that the level of consumer loyalty and brand commitment increases when consumer satisfaction has been met.

Brand Trust

O’Shaughnessy (1992), Papista and Dimitriadis (2012) contend that brand trust is an important dimension in the concept of consumer loyalty, as well as trust being fundamental to consumer loyalty. The previous research in the marketing and brand management literature reveals that brand trust has a positive relationship with consumer loyalty and it has resulted in marketing advantages such as reduced marketing costs, increased market share and so on (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Lau and Lee, 1999). Also, it is frequently maintained that the long-term relationship between the consumer and a brand is based on the level of trust in the brand (Lau and Lee, 1999; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2012). Thus, consumers will purchase or engage in a particular brand when they perceive trust in the brand.

Previous research has suggested that trust has a significant effect on brand loyalty or brand commitment because trust is an important factor in the exchange relationship (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Thus, this research aims to examine the relationship between brand trust and consumer loyalty applied in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand industry in Thailand (Bangkok).

Applying an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows, all the measurement items were extracted into one item. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha reliability test was conducted on all the measurement items. The results showed that all the measurement items demonstrated a reliability value at the satisfactory level. Multiple regression analysis was employed to examine the relationship between consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty.

This study applied brand trust as a predictive variable for examining consumer loyalty in the luxury cosmetic brand sector (Thailand, Bangkok). Hypothesis 5 aimed to determine the relationship between brand trust and consumer loyalty towards a specific luxury cosmetic brand in the industry (Thailand). The findings showed that the path between the brand trust predictor variable and consumer loyalty in the luxury cosmetic brand sector (Thailand, Bangkok) was found to be positive and significant ($\beta = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$). From the respondent's point of view, they tend to be a loyal customer of their luxury cosmetic brand when they receive a positive attitude/perception/feeling of trust in a brand. Thus, H5, brand trust affects consumer loyalty positively in the luxury cosmetic brand industry (Thailand), was accepted. In addition to this, the positive relationship between brand trust and consumer loyalty has received great support from the qualitative study. Several participants from the follow-up interviews established the relationship between these two variables that:

"I would hope so, they always show client care with letters and magazines and always suggest that any feedback is appreciated. I like the way they show they are responsible to customers and so I stick with them." (Bobbi Brown2)

"I believe that my favourite cosmetic brand would be honest to me and I will continue buying it" (Bobbi Brown1)

The findings of this research tend to agree with the findings of similar studies by Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), O'Shaughnessy (1992), Papista and Dimitriadis (2012) and Lau and Lee (1999) about the positive relationship between brand trust and consumer loyalty. Therefore, the findings from both quantitative and qualitative studies recommend that brand trust has a positive relationship effect on brand loyalty in the luxury cosmetic brand business

in Thailand (Bangkok). That means, Thai luxury cosmetic brand consumers consider brand trust as one of their criteria before deciding to have consumer loyalty. Thus, luxury cosmetic brand companies in Thailand should focus on how to deliver the perception of trust in a brand to their target consumers in order to gain benefits from loyal consumers. Based on the qualitative results, brand image and social responsibility to welfare are key determinants of consumer loyalty in the luxury cosmetic brand sector from Thai consumer perspectives.

The statistical analysis results among brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust towards consumer loyalty demonstrated that between these three predictor variables (brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust), brand trust played a significant role in consumer loyalty with the path coefficient at $\beta = 0.41$. The second most important is consumer satisfaction, which shows the path coefficient at $\beta = 0.30$ between consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty. The least important is brand personality with the path coefficient at $\beta = 0.14$. Thus, it could be suggested that to increase the number of luxury cosmetic consumers in Thailand, the luxury cosmetic brand companies should focus on brand trust, how to deliver the image of trustworthiness to their consumers and how to maintain their brand image in terms of trust.

9.6 CONCLUSIONS

The current research supports the idea that luxury cosmetic brand experience is a key driver of consumer loyalty both directly and indirectly via brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust.

All the hypotheses were supported, but statistically brand trust illustrated the most influential variable between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty. Previous studies have found that brand experience is an antecedent to some aspects in the brand management and marketing literature such as brand association (Chang and Chieng, 2006), brand attitude (Chang and Chieng, 2006) and brand familiarity (Ha and Perks, 2005). Similar research by Brakus et al. (2009) explains that brand experience has a positive direct relationship with consumer loyalty and a positive indirect relationship with consumer loyalty through brand personality and consumer satisfaction. In addition to this, several researchers claim that brand trust is an outcome of experiencing (Ha and Perks, 2005; Lau and Lee, 1999; Delgado-

Ballester, 2001; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005; Yoon, 2002; Jonker and Treur, 1999) and the antecedent of loyalty (O’Shaughnessy, 1992; Lau and Lee, 1999; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Papista and Dimitriadis, 2012). However, there is no research investigating the relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty through brand trust. To my knowledge, this study is the first to assess empirically the relationship between brand experience and brand loyalty through brand trust. The findings demonstrate and confirm by follow-up interviews that the relationship is statistically significant. In the luxury cosmetic brand industry, trust is a major concern of marketing strategies due to cosmetics being products that are sensitive to hygiene related aspects. Marketing managers should invest money and effort in improving brand trust perceptions with the holistic component of brand experience; therefore, customers become loyal to the brand.

In conclusion, this chapter has provided an overview of this research, as well as the results of the scale and population and the research findings. Follow-up interviews were used as a tool to assist in the discussion of the findings. All the hypotheses developed in the conceptual framework were supported. The main focus of this study, luxury cosmetic brand experience showed a positive and significant relationship with consumer loyalty and three mediators of the study, namely brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust. In addition to this, the three mediators (brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust) were found to have a positive and significant relationship with consumer loyalty. The results of the data analysis claimed that luxury cosmetic brand experience has a direct positive relationship with consumer loyalty and an indirect positive relationship via brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust. In addition to this, the statistical results also showed that brand trust demonstrated the strongest relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty among these three factors (brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction), followed by brand personality and consumer satisfaction, respectively.

This finding supports the literature and confirms the research objective that luxury cosmetic brand experience comprises five dimensions, which are sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience. The next chapter (Chapter 10) will shed light on the implications in theory and practice of these results as well as the limitations of this study.

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSIONS

10.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have:

1. Presented the foundations of this thesis by introducing the background of this research, the research problem, as well as the research aims and objectives and a brief explanation of the research methodology. Moreover, the contributions of this study in relation to academic contributions, managerial contributions and methodological contributions were outlined followed by a summary of the research limitations and a brief review of the contents of each chapter.
2. Provided the concept of luxury brands, outlined definitions, perspectives and characteristics of luxury brands. Reviewed the marketing concepts of luxury brand consumers together with luxury brand consumption. In addition, explored the dimension of luxury brands applied in experiential marketing and strategies for experiential luxury marketing. Presented the context used for this study: the luxury cosmetics industry in Thailand.
3. Reviewed inconsistencies relating to the definition of experience in various disciplines. Presented fields of experience including product experience, service experience, shopping experience and consumption experience. Importantly, this chapter showed the congruence between transactional marketing and experiential marketing.
4. Reviewed the phenomenon of branding and other brand constructs related to this study. Described the meaning of brand, brand personality, brand trust, consumer satisfaction, consumer loyalty and eventually, the main construct of this research, brand experience. Thus contextualised, the rationale behind the study's intended focus on brand experience, the source of its dependent variables, is presented.
5. Explored the relevant theoretical frameworks related to the variables used in this research and outlined the conceptual model, explaining the constructs relating to luxury cosmetic brands among women in Thailand. Provided the proposed research conceptual framework and identified the research hypotheses for testing. Explored the four main consequences of luxury cosmetic brand experience namely brand personality, consumer satisfaction, brand trust and consumer loyalty.

6. Proposed the research approach and methodology applied in this study. Explained the research methodology and sample selection, measurement used and the statistical techniques. Described that the dominant research approach is a quantitative method by means of a quantitative survey. Described the supporting qualitative approach to refine the result from quantitative study employed in this research in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand in Thailand.
7. Presented the quantitative results obtained from the data analysis of 483 self-administered surveys collected over a period of eight weeks in 2011. Presented the demographic characteristics and response rates – followed by screening the data to prepare for further quantitative analyses, exploratory factor analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis. Linear/ multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses and their significance.
8. Provided an overview of the procedures followed in qualitative analysis. The qualitative study aims to gain in-depth information, better understanding of luxury cosmetic brand context and endorse the results from quantitative study. Presented the qualitative results obtained from the data analysis of 22 semi-structured interviews.
9. Provided a discussion of the research results in both the quantitative study and the qualitative study, as well as summarised the research hypotheses.

This section's purpose is to provide the conclusions of the research problems, namely what are the dimensions of luxury cosmetic brand experience? What are the emotional/rational consequences of luxury cosmetic brand experience? How does luxury cosmetic brand experience contribute to building consumer behaviour (loyalty) in the Thailand context? The implications of these research findings are also discussed in this chapter.

In summary, in the context of this research there are five critical dimensions of luxury cosmetic brand experience, namely sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience. The study provided a conceptual model that contributes to furthering the knowledge on luxury cosmetic brand experience and has proved to be a useful theoretical model for predicting consumer behaviour based on luxury brands, particularly in the context of the luxury cosmetic brand. The present study suggests that brand personality, consumer satisfaction, brand trust and consumer loyalty are

consequences of luxury cosmetic brand experience: luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer loyalty directly; there are also indirect effects via brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust. Also of note is that the higher the degree of brand trust, the greater the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty. Thus, the present study has answered the initial research questions by indentifying: the dimensions of luxury cosmetic brand experience; the emotional/rational consequences of luxury cosmetic brand experience; and how luxury cosmetic brand experience contributes to building consumer behaviour (loyalty) in the Thailand context.

The theoretical and marketing contributions, as well as managerial implications of these results follow. Rounding out, the limitations of the present study and recommendations are obtained; followed by suggestions for future research. Then, the final section is a conclusion of this chapter.

10.2 RESEARCH CONTRIBUTIONS

This section discusses the research contributions, starting with the theoretical contributions before moving on to the methodological contributions and managerial contributions.

10.2.1 Theoretical Contributions

This research tackles the various questions in the present literature such as ‘What is really meant by brand experience?’ and ‘What constitutes brand experience?’ when brand experience is applied in the luxury cosmetic brand business. The research gaps are summarised as follows.

The research on brand experience was not widespread in the marketing literature or even the brand management literature. In addition, the concept of brand experience in the marketing and brand management literature remained unclear and require further research (Brakus et al., 2009; Schmitt, 1999b; 2009; Gentile et al., 2007). There was a lack of empirical research based on brand experience, its dimensions and its consequences. Several researchers have claimed that there is a relationship between brand experience and brand trust, as well as brand

trust being an antecedent of consumer loyalty (O’Shaughnessy, 1992; Lau and Lee, 1999; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001); however, these relationships are untested and have not yet been validated. As outlined in the methodology chapter, this study was carried out with an initial ‘quantitative’ phase followed by a ‘qualitative’ phase.

The quantitative approach applied an exploratory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows was used to confirm the results from the exploratory factor analysis. Cronbach’s alpha reliability test was conducted to check the reliability of all the measurement items using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows. Linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relationship between the variables. The qualitative approach employed purposive sampling techniques for semi-structured interviews. The next paragraph will shed light on the theoretical contributions.

This research contributes to the marketing literature, brand management literature and other related fields in several ways. The first evident contribution of this research is the examination of the brand experience construct within a new luxury cosmetic brand setting. This research contributes to the theory of brand experience by providing a validated theoretical framework which explains the relationships between the construct of brand experience in luxury cosmetic brand industries, its dimensions and consequences. Some research regarding brand experience exists regarding contexts such as coffee shops (Chang and Chieng, 2006), banking (Atwal and Williams, 2008) and online services (Ha and Perks, 2005), however research has not yet been developed across more varied contexts.

The results of the present research demonstrate that the essence of the constructs of brand experience remains unchanged in term of the concept of brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand setting (Gentile et al., 2007; Fornerino et al., 2006; Schmitt, 1999b). Therefore, the second contribution of this research is that it is well defined and confirms that the dimensions identified contribute to luxury cosmetic brand experience. The dimensions of a brand experience applied to a luxury cosmetic brand sector are also associated with the sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience. In the luxury cosmetic brand experience, sensory experience is perceived from the packaging, smell and texture of a cosmetic product. The affective experience results

from feelings, emotions and moods in a particular product, e.g. feelings and emotions could be stimulated from the product name or product smell. Moreover, the results also point out that new technology (innovation) and product ingredients stimulate intellectual experience in the luxury cosmetic brand context. Lifestyle and activity (behavioural experience) remind customers of particular brands. Family, friends, celebrities and partner have influence in the process of making a decision when potential customers intend to buy cosmetic products. However, the behavioural experience receives the least attention among the other dimensions (sensory, affective, intellectual and social experience), and the result demonstrates that the sensory experience is the most important dimension that influences customers' cosmetic purchasing decisions. In this context, the qualitative study uncovered particular issues capturing some of the specificities of luxury cosmetic brands. For example, the product packaging and smell of cosmetics receive great attention as a sensory experience in luxury cosmetic brand experience. In addition, the issue of cosmetic ingredients engages the intellectual experience. As one consumer stated: "I want to know the ingredients of every product I intend to use as I have very sensitive skin ..." it is therefore a means to augment customer knowledge and stimulate their thinking. It can be concluded that the present research extends the theory of brand experience in luxury cosmetic brand setting.

There is a scarcity of research on the theoretical concept of brand experience. Thus, the third contribution of this research is that it contributes knowledge to both the marketing and the brand management literature, particularly in the luxury cosmetic brand industries. The study provides a (much needed) validated conceptual framework, which identifies constructs that have a relationship with the luxury cosmetic brand sector in the Thailand context. This research focuses on the brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand sector from the consumer's position in order to gain a better understanding of the role played by the luxury cosmetic brand experience in building consumer loyalty.

The present research has investigated the concept of luxury cosmetic brand experience and the relationships among other constructs. The results illustrated that from the consumer perspective, positive luxury cosmetic brand experience results in consumer loyalty directly. Also, positive luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer loyalty indirectly via brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust. The results of this study will assist luxury

cosmetic brand managers to identify how to deliver positive brand experiences to their target customers in order to gain greater consumer loyalty.

10.2.2 Methodological Contributions

In terms of methodology, the major contribution of this study stems from the use of quantitative methods, even though the research measurement items were taken from valid measurement scales, they were refined and tested for validity and reliability. As a result, the test of convergent and discriminant validity showed at a satisfactory level and some measurement items that showed a reliability value of less than 0.5 were deleted in order to produce high-quality and reliable research. The majority of the measurement items adapted for this research were shown to be satisfactory in the reliability test (Cronbach's alpha). Thus, this present research makes a contribution to the literature by providing modified scales for use in future research.

Furthermore, the present research used a mixed methods approach. Semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to both gain a better understanding regarding the concept of brand experience to the luxury cosmetic brand context (which had not been investigated in the previous researches), and to endorse the result from the quantitative results. Thus, the interviews were conducted after the self-administered questionnaires had been analysed through linear/ multiple regression analysis. So far as the researcher aware, this particular combination (linear/multiple regression analysis and personal interviews) has not been used in this area of research; therefore, the methodology process in this study provides a new benchmark for future research.

10.2.3 Marketing Contributions

The present study makes significant marketing contributions in the Asian countries, particularly Thailand. This research was conducted in Thailand, as a representative of Asian countries due to the similarity of life-style, culture values, society and family structures, ways of thinking and social customs (Huang and Tai, 2003). The research of skin-care products and cosmetic products provides a cross-cultural comparison of customer value perceptions for

such products in East Asia and demonstrates that East Asian females hold similar customer value perceptions of such products (Huang and Tai, 2003). Moreover past researchers have advocated that people in collectivistic cultures may hold identical beliefs or attitudes toward luxuries (Dubois, et al, 2005; Tidwell and Dubois, 1996). Thailand is recognised as a collectivistic culture country similar to other Asian countries; therefore it is possible that similar marketing strategies can be applied in any Asian countries due to their similar lifestyles, ways of thinking etc., and the present research framework can be effectively applied into luxury brand products and especially luxury cosmetic brands in other Asian countries. Thailand, the setting of this study is representative of other Asian countries.

The Thai government, were recently keen to promote Thailand as a fashion hub and a shopping paradise for luxury goods (Gale, 2010). Consequently, the Bangkok fashion city project was launched to compete with Singapore and Australia with a budget of over 40 million US dollars (Chadha and Husband, 2006). In addition to this, Thailand's Department of Export Promotion placed great emphasis on cosmetic products; selecting the cosmetic products category as one of 12 target products that it promoted (Leelahongjudha, 2007).

Thailand's luxury cosmetic brand consumption and imports had steadily increased to 16 million euros in 2009, due to the ever increasing number of rich and middle-class people and improvements in media and communication (Tovikkai and Jirawattananukol, 2010; Heinze, 2011). Surprisingly, during the economic slowdown in Thailand (2006–2009), the cosmetic market showed an annual growth rate of between 15 and 20 per cent (Thanisorn, 2012).

Thailand's market for cosmetics buyers consists of over 18 million women between the ages of 15 and 50, resulting in a very high volume of cosmetics purchases (Thanisorn, 2012). Recently, cosmetic products have been purchased by not only adults but also teenagers. The number of young Thai females using make-up and skin care cosmetic products is increasing dramatically (Phupoksakul, 2005), resulting in the introduction of several medium-range cosmetic brands from Japan, South Korea and Taiwan to the Thai market.

This research has studied brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand industry from the customer's perspective and its relationship with consumer loyalty. Although the results of the present research are market and product specific, it provides some marketing contributions

for general luxury product consumption research for other Asian countries, and particularly the luxury cosmetic brand sector. The research theoretical framework can be applied to luxury cosmetic brands or any luxury brand products in other Asian countries. Generally, the findings of this research highlight the variables that should be considered in order to build consumer loyalty:

- Brand experience
- Brand personality
- Consumer satisfaction
- Brand trust

Measuring these variables helps to provide an explanation of luxury consumption behaviour, particularly focusing on luxury cosmetic brand sectors.

The results of this research have practical implications for marketers working in the luxury brand industry, especially in the luxury cosmetic brand sector in Asian countries. The results suggest that a focus on sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience can create brand experience which results in consumer loyalty. Moreover, brand experience can create consumer loyalty through brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction.

Knowledge of all relevant aspects of consumers' attitudes of consumer loyalty in the area of luxury brand products is required to allow measurement of these attitudes internationally – which is important to managerial practice. The theoretical framework demonstrated in the present study provides a better understanding of the aspects and drivers of consumer loyalty evaluation in the luxury cosmetic brand industry. This research examines what makes consumers loyal to luxury brand products, the methods (brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction) driving the loyalty of luxury cosmetic brands were highlighted in the discussion chapter.

Based on this, luxury brand marketers will be able to apply this research framework to other luxury commodities and other Asian countries in order to achieve great consumer loyalty. Marketers may need to revise their marketing strategy and product positioning. In relation to

the investigated dimensions of luxury cosmetic brand experience and the consequences discussed in this research that supports the theoretical framework, marketers will have greater confidence in applying the same model in an international context especially in the Asian countries, allowing them to create appropriate marketing strategies and maximise profits. As a recent annual review by Moët Hennessy–Louis Vuitton (LVMH), the world's leading luxury products group, averred that Asian countries generate the highest profits on luxury products compared to other regions (Figure 1.1), with the potential for more profit every year (Appendix 6) (LVMH, 2012). The researcher is confident that the market share of luxury products in the Asian market will continue to increase; other Asian countries can apply this research framework into the marketing strategy and obtain similar reliable results.

Particularly in this high competitive market, consumer loyalty is considered a highly significant factor with regards to brand position. In the luxury cosmetic brand industry, companies can profit from consumer loyalty by isolating the influential luxury cosmetic brand experience and its effect through brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction. The understanding of how luxury brand relates to brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction is significant. This insight may offer luxury brand marketing managers, especially luxury cosmetic brand marketing managers, the ability to generate more sales by the increasing number of loyal consumers via brand personality, brand trust and consumer satisfaction.

10.2.4 Managerial Implications

This present research offers a number of practical managerial implications for luxury cosmetic brand marketing managers and other luxury brand industries' marketing managers. The results of the present study are transferable to luxury brands in all product categories, and also provide general information to guide companies in developing their marketing strategy based on the concept of brand experience in other Asian countries. This contribution will assist different types of luxury brands to understand the important role of brand experience and its dimensions, together with supporting its implementation.

There is high competitiveness among brands, especially in this economic crisis. Knowledge of brand experience and the importance of building an outstanding brand experience are of utmost significance. Moreover, it is essential to understand clearly the dimensions that contribute to brand experience and the consequences of brand experience. The results of the present research demonstrated that luxury cosmetic brand experience has a positive and significant influence on consumer loyalty. There is no doubt that this contribution will guide brand managers and marketing managers to gain a better understanding of the crucial role of luxury cosmetic brand experience, its dimensions and its consequences.

Some of these luxury cosmetic brand experience dimensions (sensory experience, affective experience, intellectual experience and behavioural experience) are within the company's control, whereas social experience is not within the company's control because social experience may emanate from celebrities, peers, friends and family influence. This suggests that luxury cosmetic brand companies must try to engage and commit a positive social experience by providing a great brand community and ensuring that their brand community deals with all customer concerns. Brand community can be built efficiently by using the benefit of the Internet; Barbalova (2011) demonstrates that more than 40 per cent of the world's population will be on the Internet by 2020 and half of all Internet users will be in Asia. Social networks such as Twitter or Facebook can be used as effective tools to create an effective brand community. From recent statistics, there are 500 million Facebook users, 700 billion minutes of log-in time per month, 130 average friends per user, 50 per cent of Facebook users are female, and Twitter receives 55 million registered tweets per day (Barbalova, 2011). For example, the Chanel cosmetic brand manages the relationship with their customers on Facebook by updating their products, make-up trends, make-up tutorials and allowing their customers to share attitudes and experiences in different languages all over the world. Chanel receives great interest from their customers with 6.5 million 'likes' on Facebook and 34,887 Facebook users talking about Chanel (Appendix 9).

Among all the luxury cosmetic brand experience dimensions (sensory, affective, intellectual, behavioural and social), the sensory experience is the most important one; a positive luxury cosmetic brand experience in term of the sensory experience comes from smell and texture of the luxury cosmetic products together with well-designed packaging. It could be said that luxury cosmetic brand consumers are likely to purchase a cosmetic based on its packaging,

smell and texture. Another important dimension of the luxury cosmetic brand experience is the intellectual experience, which stimulates consumer curiosity. Luxury cosmetic brand consumers received a positive intellectual experience when they identified innovation (better technology) and new product ingredients. Therefore, luxury cosmetic brand marketers are able to encourage consumers to purchase their cosmetic products by informing them of product innovation (improvement) and product ingredients.

The results from this research explain the important role of each luxury cosmetic brand experience dimension and how to develop these dimensions based on the consumer perspective. However, managers need to be aware of the effect of this factor on the development of a social experience marketing strategy. To summarize, there are five dimensions (sensory experience, affective experience, intellectual experience, behavioural experience and social experience) that contribute to a luxury cosmetic brand experience; these dimensions are important and benefit luxury cosmetic brand companies by informing their knowledge as to what should be considered in order to provide a great luxury cosmetic brand experience to their target customers.

Several practitioners acknowledge the importance of brand experience, but there is little knowledge regarding both the dimensions of brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand context, and the consequences of brand experience. As said previously, the results of this study reveal that luxury cosmetic brand experience has a positive effect on consumer loyalty directly. In addition to this, luxury cosmetic brand experience has an indirect effect on consumer loyalty via brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust; therefore, brand trust has a major effect between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty. This confirms that brand trust is one of the most crucial factors to delivering luxury cosmetic brand experience to achieve greater consumer loyalty. Luxury cosmetic brand managers and marketing managers can also use this knowledge to create their marketing strategy when achieving consumer loyalty by providing brand experience through brand trust.

In practice, marketing managers can examine the company marketing strategy in order to determine ways in which their communication strategies can be enhanced in terms of achieving brand trust. Marketing managers can promote a sense of trust in their customers by

creating a trustworthy brand image, showing social responsibility, and improving brand trust communication strategies.

Another managerial implication is that there is a positive relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty through brand personality. This means brand and marketing managers should develop a strong relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and brand personality in order to increase the number of loyal consumers. The results generally claim that the five dimensions of luxury cosmetic brand experience are able to create perceptions of brand personality (sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness). It is generally agreed that brand image brings out user characteristic, for example, Chanel represents sophistication and being upper class, M.A.C. reflects toughness and ruggedness, Bobbi Brown represents being both natural and professional. It could be said that people are likely to purchase products based on their personality and self-image as well as social-image (Malhotra, 1981:1988; Sirgy, 1982; Aaker, 1997). In relation to these findings, marketing managers should promote their product characteristics to increase customers by providing a sense of product characteristics such as a perception of being trendy, inspirational professional. Brand image and brand experience are significant in providing the strategies outlined above.

Several existing literatures assert that consumer satisfaction is an important factor that influences consumer loyalty (Bolton, 1998; Jones and Suh, 2000; Chandrashekar et al., 2007; Yang and Peterson, 2004; Bodet, 2008). However, this study has proved that consumer satisfaction is less important in relation to luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty. This implies that consumer satisfaction does not always contribute to consumer loyalty – even though customers are satisfied with the luxury cosmetic brand experience, they are not always loyal customers of the brand. This study has demonstrated that marketing managers should not focus solely on consumer satisfaction in order to increase consumer loyalty. Consumer satisfaction is not the most significant factor to increase consumer loyalty and profit, additionally, the higher the product quality and customer service, the higher the level of consumer satisfaction.

10.3 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

It is acknowledged that all research projects have limitations; this study is no exception. The following section provides an explanation of this study's limitations.

10.3.1 Limitations of the Study

The research attempted to gain a better understanding of the concept of brand experience, its dimensions and its consequences. Even though this study has been carefully researched, it has some limitations.

The first limitation of this research is that this research focuses on the luxury cosmetic brand context, limiting the results to only the luxury cosmetic brand industry, and examining consumer behaviours only in luxury cosmetic brand experience may limit generalisability. Not only that, but the results from this particular study of luxury cosmetic brands might be significantly different compared to other non-luxury cosmetic brands – this particular context may have influenced the survey results. What's more, the results were limited to only the Thailand context and Asian countries, and might not be applicable to luxury cosmetic brand consumers in Western countries. Thus, the research suggests that this study needs to be replicated and extend to other different contexts.

Second, the measurement scale: the present research predominantly focuses on a quantitative study, and conducted the quantitative survey by means of many valid and reliable measurement scales adapted from the previous literature. As such, all the measurement scales were appropriate and effective with regards to the collection of specific information. However, some measurement items were deleted during the item purification stage because some items did not meet the minimum requirement level of the factor loading analysis.

The third limitation is that, as mentioned above, this research used a self-administered survey, a cultural sensitivity issue which limited the ability to include important questions such as income and social class. It is generally agreed that these questions would assist in obtaining a better understanding of the women that purchase luxury cosmetic brands. Information

relating to income and social class would have provided insights into the purchasing decision related to luxury cosmetic brands; this would have established noteworthy implications for the study.

The last limitation of this study is the contextual effect in the responses due to this study being undertaken in department stores using a self-administered technique. It is possible that the respondents might not have been as critical as they might have been when answering the questions due to the environment of the department stores. Therefore, it is possible that the participants were affected or distracted by their environment when they completed the questionnaire.

10.3.2 Directions for Future Research

The study results attempt to contribute to the literature on brand management, consumer behaviour and marketing. By providing a critical account of luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer behaviour, the present study investigated the direct relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty and the indirect relationship via brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust. The next section gives some suggestions for future research to extend this current research to further the knowledge.

This study was the first study on the topic of luxury cosmetic brand experience in Thailand, which attempts to examine empirically brand experience using the quantitative method technique as the main approach by use of survey questionnaires, along with testing and validating a theoretical framework using SPSS version 18.02 for Windows: linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis. The present research has only investigated brand experience within the luxury cosmetic brand industry in Thailand (Bangkok), where it is recognised that the results will differ to results from other non-luxury contexts. For future study, the research suggests that it would be contributing to further knowledge and of interest to generate a model in different contexts rather than luxury cosmetic brands.

This research focused upon considering the investigation of luxury cosmetic purchases. There are several other categories of cosmetics such as cosmetic in Boots, Superdrug and so

on. However, the present research was subject to both timeframe and resource limitations. Therefore, future research should conduct investigations regarding non-luxury items and environments when investigating women's cosmetic purchases.

Since 2002, hundreds of social network sites have launched, such as Facebook, LinkedIn and MySpace (Liu, 2007). People can easily share ideas and experiences through these social networks (online communities). Online communities are an extremely important factor that affects consumer attitudes and beliefs as well as purchasing decisions (Barbalova, 2011). The number of Internet users has steadily increased, it is estimated that more than 40 per cent of the world's population will be Internet users by 2020 (Barbalova, 2011). Additionally, 88 per cent of wealthy consumers use the Internet to search for luxury products and services and 38 per cent purchase luxury products online (Pedraza, 2007). Thus, developing luxury experiential marketing in social network marketing could be of interest for future research.

Moreover, this research was conducted in Thailand, with participants of only one nationality. Thus, the results cannot be generalised. However, future research should be conducted in different countries and cultures in order to confirm and validate this theoretical model, and to determine whether it gives the same result and furthers knowledge.

This research has provided a theoretical framework and results regarding luxury cosmetic brand experience from the consumer perspective. However, future research should also examine luxury cosmetic brand experience from the corporate perspective.

10.4 CONCLUSIONS

The research problem focuses on the role of brand experience in building consumer loyalty within the luxury cosmetic brand industry. This study represents the first empirical study of luxury cosmetic brand experience in Thailand (Bangkok). The research adopted mixed method approach (quantitative and qualitative approaches were used) to obtain and analyse the information. The quantitative method allowed the development of a theoretical framework using a survey questionnaire technique, which was conducted with 483 Thai luxury cosmetic brand consumers. The study used SPSS 18.02 for Windows: linear regression analysis and multiple regression analysis techniques to analyse the data. The

qualitative approach was used to endorse the results from the quantitative study, to gain in-depth information, and to reveal overlooked issues, through a personal interview technique conducted with 22 Thai luxury cosmetic brand consumers.

The findings showed that luxury cosmetic brand experience is represented by five dimensions – sensory experience, affective experience, behavioural experience, intellectual experience and social experience. What's more, the relationship between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty was found to be statistically significant. This study also explained that consumer loyalty receives not only a direct effect via luxury cosmetic brand experience, but also an indirect effect via brand personality, consumer satisfaction and brand trust. In addition to this, the regression analysis illustrated that all pathways were significant, especially brand trust acting as the strongest mediator between luxury cosmetic brand experience and consumer loyalty. Since this is the first study to identify the construct of luxury cosmetic brand experience, there was no theoretical justification from prior research.

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APPENDIX 1

Questionnaire

Dear participants,

My name is Supawan Uecharoenkit and I am a PhD student at Brunel University, West London, United Kingdom. I am conducting a research project to better understand luxury cosmetic brand experience in the Thailand context. In doing so, the study intends to examine the experiential needs as well as factors related of the customer visiting Thailand shopping malls, particularly downtown Bangkok (The Emporium, Siam Paragon and Central World).

This is an anonymous survey whereby all responses will remain confidential and analysed at an aggregate, not individual level. The data collected will be used for academic purposes only and has been approved by the Brunel Business School Ethics Committee. The results of this study will help luxury cosmetic brand managers to better understand your experiences and provide your needs.

Your participation is voluntary, and if you do not want to participate, please discards the questionnaire. However, I really appreciate your help in filling in this questionnaire. It will take only 10 minutes to complete.

Important:

- There is no right or wrong answer.

Yours sincerely,

Supawan Uecharoenkit

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Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed to find out some basic information on how luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer loyalty in Thailand. As you are Thai consumers of luxury cosmetic brand I am interested in finding out you purchasing behaviour.

Here are some definitions of terms used in this questionnaire:

Luxury Cosmetic Brand refers to product uses to apply to the body especially the face to improve its appearance. It could refer to skin care products, make up products and fragrances; therefore, it is a premium price product.

Brand Experience refers to subjective, internal consumer responses that can be categorised into sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual intentions evoked by brand-related stimuli.

Brand Personality means the set of human characteristics associated with a brand.

Brand Trust is a feeling of security held by the consumer in his/her interaction with the brand, that it is based on the perceptions that the brand is reliable and responsible for the interests and welfare of the consumer.

Loyalty refers to consumer behaviour such as repurchase, commitment and allegiance.

Satisfaction is the outcome of the subjective evaluation that the chosen alternative (the brand) meets or exceeds the expectations.

Important:

- Are you a luxury cosmetic brand consumer?

YES

NO (Please discard the questionnaire)

Section 1: Luxury Cosmetic Brand

INSTRUCTION: Please select your favourite cosmetic brand from the following. Please choose **ONE (1)** only from the option below.

- Chanel
- Bobbi Brown
- Biotherm
- Clinique
- Kose
- Estee Lauder
- Lancome
- M.A.C
- Clarins
- Etude
- Dior
- Yves Saint Laurent
- Shiseido
- SK II
- Anna Sui
- Jill Stuart
- Others (Please specify

Section 2: Luxury Cosmetic Brand Experience

INSTRUCTION: The section asks questions which use rating scales. Please select the number that best describes your opinion from this following scale:

Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

The following statements describe your attitude towards **your selected favourite cosmetic brand**. Please select the response that best reflects your attitude.

2.1 My favourite cosmetic brand makes a strong impression on my senses (eg: sound, smell, image)	1	2	3	4	5
2.2 I find my favourite cosmetic brand interesting in a sensory way. (eg: sound, image, smell)	1	2	3	4	5
2.3 My favourite cosmetic brand is focused on experience sensory appeal.	1	2	3	4	5
2.4 My favourite cosmetic brand induces feeling.	1	2	3	4	5
2.5 My favourite cosmetic brand is an emotional brand (eg: Gucci envy me, Clinique happy).	1	2	3	4	5
2.6 My favourite cosmetic brand tries to put me in a certain mood.	1	2	3	4	5
2.7 My favourite cosmetic brand tries to remind me of activities I can do (eg: charity, event).	1	2	3	4	5
2.8 My favourite cosmetic brand tries to make me think about lifestyle.	1	2	3	4	5
2.9 My favourite cosmetic brand engages my thinking when I encounter this brand (eg: make-up trend).	1	2	3	4	5
2.10 My favourite cosmetic brand stimulates my curiosity (eg: product ingredient).	1	2	3	4	5
2.11 My favourite cosmetic brand intrigues me (eg: high technology, innovation).	1	2	3	4	5

2.12 My favourite cosmetic brand tries to make me think about human relationship (eg: brand recommends from friend).	1	2	3	4	5
2.13 I can relate to other people through my favourite cosmetic brand (eg: brand community)	1	2	3	4	5

Section3: Brand Personality

The following items describe your perception of your selected favourite cosmetic brand toward human characteristics. Please select the responses that best describe your perception.

Not at all descriptive	-----				Extremely descriptive
1	2	3	4	5	

(Think of your favourite cosmetic brand)

3.1	Honest	1	2	3	4	5
3.2	Wholesome	1	2	3	4	5
3.3	Original	1	2	3	4	5
3.4	Cheerful	1	2	3	4	5
3.5	Friendly	1	2	3	4	5

(Think of your favourite cosmetic brand)

3.6	Trendy	1	2	3	4	5
3.7	Spirited	1	2	3	4	5
3.8	Cool	1	2	3	4	5
3.9	Young	1	2	3	4	5
3.10	Unique	1	2	3	4	5
3.11	Independent	1	2	3	4	5

(Think of your favourite cosmetic brand)

3.12	Reliable	1	2	3	4	5
3.13	Secure	1	2	3	4	5
3.14	Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
3.15	Successful	1	2	3	4	5

(Think of your favourite cosmetic brand)

3.16	Upper class	1	2	3	4	5
3.17	Glamorous	1	2	3	4	5
3.18	Good looking	1	2	3	4	5
3.19	Charming	1	2	3	4	5
3.20	Feminine	1	2	3	4	5

(Think of your favourite cosmetic brand)

3.21	Western	1	2	3	4	5
3.22	Tough	1	2	3	4	5

Section4: Brand Trust

The following statements relate to your evaluation about trust in **your selected favourite cosmetic brand.** Please select the responses that best describe your evaluation.

Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Reliability items

4.1	My favourite cosmetic brand is a brand name that meets my expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
4.2	I feel confidence in my favourite cosmetic brand.	1	2	3	4	5
4.3	My favourite cosmetic brand is a brand name that never disappoints me.	1	2	3	4	5
4.4	My favourite cosmetic brand guarantees satisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5

Intentions items

4.5	My favourite cosmetic brand would be honest and sincere in addressing my concerns.	1	2	3	4	5
4.6	I could rely on my favourite cosmetic brand.	1	2	3	4	5
4.7	My favourite cosmetic brand would make any effort to satisfy me.	1	2	3	4	5

Section5: Loyalty

The following statements describe how loyal you are **towards your selected favourite cosmetic brand.** Please select the responses that best describe your brand loyalty.

Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

5.1	I will buy my favourite cosmetic brand again.	1	2	3	4	5
5.2	I will not buy another brand if my favourite cosmetic brand is not available at the store.	1	2	3	4	5
5.3	I would highly recommend my favourite cosmetic brand to others.	1	2	3	4	5
5.4	My favourite cosmetic brand will be my first choice in the future.	1	2	3	4	5

Section6: Satisfaction

The following statements describe your satisfaction toward your **selected favourite cosmetic brand**. Please select the responses that best describe your satisfaction

	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
6.1	Buying my favourite cosmetic brand has been a good decision.				1 2 3 4 5
6.2	I am satisfied with my favourite cosmetic brand and its result.				1 2 3 4 5
6.3	If I could do it again, I would buy a brand different from my favourite cosmetic brand .				1 2 3 4 5
6.4	I am not happy with the result of my favourite cosmetic brand .				1 2 3 4 5

Section7: Information about yourself

INSTRUCTION: Please place a mark in the category that best describes you – or fill in the blank. Your responses are for research purposes only. They will be kept confidential and reported as aggregate data only.

7.1 Your age

.....

7.2 Your marital status

Single Married Divorced Other

7.3 Your level of education is

Up to high school Bachelor's degree
 Master's degree or higher N/A

7.4 What is your current occupation?

Student Self employed Employee Unemployed

Thank you for taking the time in filling in the questionnaire. Your information is very valuable and greatly appreciated.

APPENDIX 2



Brunel Business School

Research Ethics

Participant Information Sheet

1. Title of Research: Experiential Marketing – A Consumption of Fantasies, Feelings and Fun. An Investigation of the Relationship between Brand Experience and Loyalty within the Context of the Luxury Cosmetics Sector in Thailand.

2. Researcher: Supawan Ueacharoenkit on PhD Management studies research, Marketing, Brunel Business School, Brunel University

3. Contact Email: cbbgssu1@brunel.ac.uk

4. Purpose of the research: The research aims are to identify the dimensions of luxury cosmetic brand experience and explores what are the emotional/ rational consequences of brand experience in the luxury cosmetic brand sector and how luxury cosmetic brand experience contributes to build consumer behaviour (loyalty) in the Thailand context.

5. What is involved: Participates will be asked to fill the questionnaire.

6. Voluntary nature of participation and confidentiality: This is an anonymous survey whereby all responses will remain confidential and analysed at an aggregate. The data collected will be used for academic purpose only and has been approved by the Brunel Business School ethics committee. Your participation is strictly voluntary.

APPENDIX 3

Survey Questionnaire Coding and labelling

Section	Variable Code	Variable Name	Question Numbers
1	LCB	Luxury cosmetic brand	1
2	SEN	Sensory experience	2.1-2.3
	AFF	Affective experience	2.4-2.6
	BEHAVE	Behavioural experience	2.7-2.8
	INTELL	Intellectual experience	2.9-2.11
	SOC	Social experience	2.12-2.13
3	SIN	Sincerity	3.1-3.5
	EXCITE	Excitement	3.6-3.11
	COM	Competence	3.12-3.15
	SOP	Sophistication	3.16-3.20
	RUGG	Ruggedness	3.21-3.22
4	RELY	Reliability	4.1-4.4
	INTENT	Intentions	4.5-4.7
5	LOY	Consumer loyalty	5.1-5.4
6	SAT	Consumer satisfaction	6.1-6.4
7	AGE	Age	7.1
	STATUS	Marital status	7.2
	EDUCATION	Level of education	7.3
	OCCUPATION	Occupation	7.4

APPENDIX 4

Discriminant validity

Component Matrix^(a)

	Component				
	LCBE	BP	BT	LOY	SAT
SEN1	.773	.128	-.036	-.133	.380
SEN2	.823	.139	.012	-.162	.383
SEN3	.674	.221	.043	-.093	.374
AFF1	.751	.370	.292	-.102	-.011
AFF2	.691	.489	.147	-.129	.100
AFF3	.579	.229	.173	-.126	-.015
BEHAVE1	.898	.325	.125	.154	.023
BEHAVE2	.842	.358	.180	.256	-.064
INTELL1	.849	.251	.121	.075	-.202
INTELL2	.531	.234	.044	.354	-.230
INTELL3	.688	.268	.131	.330	-.282
SOC1	.853	.263	.125	.265	-.053
SOC2	.888	.303	.118	.111	-.175
SIN1	.016	.632	-.339	.390	.118
SIN2	-.085	.846	-.131	.121	.164
SIN3	.049	.599	-.318	-.005	-.110
EXCITE1	.017	.623	-.347	-.044	-.154
EXCITE2	.109	.596	-.350	.239	.085
EXCITE3	-.061	.741	-.235	.140	-.035
EXCITE4	.172	.876	-.188	-.020	-.168
EXCITE5	-.031	.569	-.281	-.096	-.104
EXCITE6	.124	.598	-.108	.061	.193
COM1	-.233	.752	-.214	.111	.030
COM2	-.294	.833	-.244	.124	.003
COM3	.079	.714	-.299	.142	.149
COM4	-.199	.755	-.265	.059	.087
SOP1	.064	.824	-.272	-.202	-.188
SOP2	.078	.798	-.151	-.114	-.263
SOP3	.214	.705	-.149	-.398	-.034
SOP4	.167	.839	-.112	-.397	-.073
SOP5	.196	.707	-.044	-.364	-.163
RUGG1	-.179	.850	-.129	-.001	-.104
RUGG2	-.015	.788	-.256	-.044	-.079
RELY1	.140	-.106	.784	-.136	-.025
RELY2	.222	-.251	.896	-.026	.033
RELY3	.222	-.146	.741	-.002	.021
RELY4	.199	-.040	.865	.025	.035
INTENT1	.190	-.048	.701	.131	.043
INTENT2	.239	-.255	.939	-.004	.032
INTENT3	.304	-.265	.798	-.075	-.007
LOY1	-.072	-.382	.255	.698	-.104
LOY2	.076	.084	.235	.501	-.001
LOY3	.028	-.214	.290	.779	-.083
LOY4	.054	-.190	.322	.913	.008

SAT1	-0.015	-0.302	.295	.018	.808
SAT2	.042	-.316	.296	.004	.813
SAT4	-.108	-.136	.156	-.031	.699

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. a 5 components extracted.

LCBE= Luxury cosmetic brand experience; BP= Brand personality; BT= Brand trust; LOY= Consumer loyalty; SAT= Consumer satisfaction

APPENDIX 5

Convergent validity

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SEN1	42.59	44.483	.594	.474	.818
SEN2	42.70	44.760	.508	.481	.817
SEN3	42.76	44.432	.612	.365	.817
AFF1	42.89	42.407	.540	.382	.807
AFF2	42.93	42.684	.562	.346	.813
AFF3	43.21	41.528	.541	.423	.807
BEHAVE1	43.49	42.018	.563	.378	.813
BEHAVE2	43.23	41.408	.528	.404	.808
INTELL1	42.71	43.103	.669	.266	.812
INTELL2	42.64	43.023	.652	.388	.814
INTELL3	42.66	43.358	.547	.386	.814
SOC1	42.69	44.007	.598	.219	.818
SOC2	43.17	41.379	.523	.332	.808

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SIN1	75.35	101.236	.524	.440	.907
SIN2	75.20	102.727	.585	.466	.908
SIN3	75.31	103.546	.516	.296	.909
EXCITE1	74.79	101.780	.584	.388	.905
EXCITE2	75.34	102.146	.510	.369	.907
EXCITE3	74.96	98.914	.683	.574	.903
EXCITE4	75.15	101.063	.564	.436	.906
EXCITE5	74.79	101.239	.598	.463	.905
EXCITE6	75.52	103.595	.597	.227	.910
COM1	74.80	100.912	.665	.643	.903
COM2	74.84	100.862	.629	.603	.904
COM3	75.35	100.837	.559	.394	.906
COM4	74.98	99.782	.631	.527	.904
SOP1	75.12	99.662	.613	.498	.904
SOP2	74.99	101.338	.614	.559	.905
SOP3	75.11	100.559	.588	.540	.905
SOP4	75.07	100.931	.573	.589	.905
SOP5	74.92	103.357	.549	.371	.908
RUGG1	74.74	102.551	.599	.385	.907
RUGG2	75.24	100.946	.512	.381	.907

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
RELY1	23.90	13.792	.560	.394	.878
RELY2	23.88	12.988	.709	.537	.860
RELY3	24.13	12.564	.709	.555	.859
RELY4	24.01	12.629	.660	.514	.866
INTENT1	24.12	13.001	.627	.440	.870
INTENT2	23.97	12.646	.734	.598	.856
INTENT3	23.90	13.074	.688	.535	.863

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
LOY1	11.65	4.424	.537	.358	.625
LOY2	12.35	3.930	.543	.123	.775
LOY3	11.83	4.309	.552	.362	.614
LOY4	11.81	3.884	.622	.440	.563

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SAT1	7.8178	2.602	.566	.454	.508
SAT2	7.7516	2.727	.599	.465	.492
SAT4	8.1077	2.208	.588	.152	.797

APPENDIX 6

Luxury products revenue change by region

LVMH Group	9 months 2011	Q4 2011	2011
USA	+18%	+17%	+18%
Japan	-3%	+2%	-1%
Asia	+27%	+25%	+27%
Europe	+8%	+3%	+7%

Source: www.LVMH.com

APPENDIX 7

Glossary

Brand experience: It is subjective, internal consumer responses that can be categorised into sensory, affective, behavioural and intellectual intentions evoked by brand-related stimuli (Brakus et al., 2009).

Brand personality: It is a set of human characteristics associated with a brand (Aaker, 1997).

Brand trust: It is a feeling of confidence held by the consumers towards the brand due to the belief and expectation that the brand will deliver a positive result for the customers (Lau and Lee, 1999).

Consumer satisfaction: It is an attitude under belief and evaluation, a customer's fulfilment response, especially in the evaluation stage – emotions have been used in order to evaluate services or products (Anderson and Sullivan, 1993; Birgelen et al., 2002).

Consumer loyalty: It refers to consumer behaviour such as repurchase, commitment and allegiance (Ehrenberg, 1988; Hawkes, 1994; Thiele and Mackay, 2001)

APPENDIX 8

Interview instruments: relationships of hypotheses to the literature review and the key research questions

RQ1: What are the dimensions comprising luxury cosmetic brand experience?		
	Qualitative Questions	
No hypothesis RQ1 aims to explore the concept of luxury cosmetic brand experience and its dimensions.	Q1: What is your favourite luxury cosmetic brand? Q2: Do you have an impression on your favourite luxury cosmetic brand in term of sound smell image etc.? Please explain. Q3: Do you think that your favourite luxury cosmetic brand tries to put you in a certain mood? Please explain Q4: Do you think that your favourite luxury cosmetic brand tries to remind you of activity you can do? Please explain. Q5: Do you think that your favourite luxury cosmetic brand stimulates your curiosity? Please explain. Q6: Do you think of any relation when you think of your favourite luxury cosmetic brand? Please explain.	
RQ2: What are the consequences that constitute the construct of luxury cosmetic brand experience?		
Hypotheses	Supporting Literature	Qualitative Questions
H1a: Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects on brand personality positively.	Sirgy (1982); Belk (1988); Dolich (1969); Brakus et al (2009); Aaker (1997)	Q7: Based on your favourite luxury cosmetic brand experience, how would you describe the role of your characteristic toward your favourite luxury cosmetic brand?
H1b: Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects trust positively.	Lau and Lee (1999); Jonker and Treur (1999); Ha and Perks (2005); Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2001,2005)	Q8: Based on your experience, could you explain, how brand trust relates to your favourite luxury cosmetic brand?
H1c: Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer satisfaction positively.	Brakus et al (2009); Bennett et al (2005); Ha and Perks (2005); Berry et al (2002); Mittal et al (1999)	Q9: Do you always receive satisfaction in term of your favourite luxury cosmetic brand experience and how? If not, please state why not?
H3: Luxury cosmetic brand experience affects consumer loyalty positively.	Ponsonby-McCabe and Boyle (2006); Brakus et al (2009); Schmitt(2009); Ghodeswar (2008); Gentile et al (2007).	Q10: Do you think that in the luxury cosmetic brand context, loyalty is a consequence of luxury cosmetic brand experience? If no, please state why not.
RQ3: Does luxury cosmetic brand experience have either a direct or indirect relationship with consumer loyalty?		
H2: Brand personality affects consumer loyalty positively.	Lastovicka and Joachimsthaler (1998); Maeder et al (2000); Upshaw (1995); Kim et al (2001)	Q11: Do you always buy your favourite cosmetic brand based on your characteristic? Please explain
H4: Consumer satisfaction affects consumer loyalty positively.	Bolton (1998); Magin et al (2003); Chandrashekar et al (2007); Jones and Suh (2000); Yang and Peterson (2004); Bodet (2008); Brakus et al (2009)	Q12: Based on your luxury cosmetic brand experience, how would you describe the satisfaction that influences the consumer loyalty?
H5: Brand trust affects consumer loyalty positively.	O'Shaughnessy (1992); Lau and Lee (1999); Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001); Reichheld (1996); Morgan and Hunt (1994); Papista and Dimitriadis (2012)	Q13: Do you believe that your favourite luxury cosmetic brand would be honest and sincere in addressing your concerns? Please explain

APPENDIX 9

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6.5m



CHANEL
27 April

Meet 5 real robots from Here Comes the Beauty Pack that are entirely composed of CHANEL Makeup products, at MAKEUP POP-UP STORE, Garosugil from April 27th to May 3rd. More on <http://makeup.chanel.com/popupstore>



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CHANEL
25 April

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