BRAND TALKABILITY: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE CONCEPT OF BRAND

TALKABILITY AND ITS ANTECEDENTS

by

UYGAR KILIÇ

A thesis submitted to the University of Birmingham for the degree of MSC BY

RESEARCH

Department of Marketing
Birmingham Business School
College of Social Sciences
University of Birmingham
2014

UNIVERSITY OF BIRMINGHAM

University of Birmingham Research Archive

e-theses repository

Abstract

The main goal of this research is to introduce a new construct that investigates the tendency of consumers to talk about particular brands beyond consumption concerns. Given the proliferation of social media, the importance of brand-related conversations has shifted into a different dimension allowing consumers to express and/or share their views about brands to other users. Consumers are therefore found to exhibit a tendency to talk about brands in situations not necessarily involving purchases or consumption of specific brands.

The extant academic literature identifies brand-related conversation as word-of-mouth. However, it does not adequately discuss why people show a tendency to talk about brands beyond consumption concerns. To address this gap, this research attempts to conceptualise and empirically measure consumers' tendency to talk about specific brands beyond consumption concerns, referred to in this research as brand talkability. In doing so, this research also sheds light into the antecedents of brand talkability. A quantitative research design involving a scale development process is used to develop a tool to measure this new construct. Additionally, analysis explores the antecedents of brand talkability through a series of regressions, showing interesting findings with theoretical and practical implications.

Dedication

To my mother, father, supervisors and friends who supported me.

Acknowledgements

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1

1.1. Introduction

A brand is defined as a name, term, sign, symbol or design that helps to identify and differentiate particular products from their competitors (Kotler, 1997). According to Arndt (1967), in marketing literature, a brand-related conversation is accepted as a word-of-mouth communication. Scholars suggest that consumers talk about a brand for particular reasons (Lau and Ng, 2001). These reasons mainly concentrate on consumption, satisfaction and post purchase experience (Engel et al., 1993; de Matos and Rossi, 2008). However, from the consumer's perspective, generating brand-related conversation is not limited to financial abilities or consumption concerns; consumers can talk about brands regardless of consumption and it is hence interesting to investigate why. This tendency not only creates financial benefits, but it is also important in understanding what consumers think about brands, how they perceive them, and what reasons motivate them to talk about specific brands. According to Sashi (2012), engaging with consumers, and shaping brand conversations generates sustainable, meaningful and deeper interaction. Thus, consumers can subsequently suggest the brand to others leading to increased consumption of the brand (Sashi, 2012; Vivek et al., 2012).

Furthermore, social media and specifically social networking sites have contributed significantly to audiences engaging in brand-related conversations with 'friends'. New social media tools offer a new platform for brand-related conversations. Social media tools such as Facebook, Twitter and blogging enable consumers to share their thoughts, feelings and experiences of brands, through the internet environment and

with many other consumers without any physical borders or boundaries (Kozinets, 2010; Zyl, 2008). Consumers have more opportunities to talk about brands, which contributes to social media marketing objectives (Kozinets, 2010; Zyl, 2008; Lee and Youn, 2009) pertaining to the performance of brands in engaging with consumers in brand-related conversation. The increasing opportunities provided by social media platforms for consumers to express their thoughts, opinions and beliefs about brands, emphasise the need to understand why consumers engage in conversations about brands, or casually 'talk' about brands, beyond consumption.

A key concept which explains communication and sharing of brand information between consumers in the context of consumption is that of Word of Mouth Communication (WoM) (Arndt, 1967). However, there is limited research focusing on the antecedents of WoM communication (Dichter, 1966; Engel et al., 1993; Sundaram et al., 1998; de Matos and Rossi, 2008). Moreover, its antecedents identified in the extant literature, such as product involvement, concern for others, risk reduction, anxiety and vengeance, concentrate mainly on consumption concerns, satisfaction with the product, and reducing consumption risks (Dichter, 1966; Engel et al., 1993; Sundaram et al., 1998; de Matos and Rossi, 2008).

Additionally, previous literature suggests that brand-related talk or conversation is only generated when there is a potential consumption concern, and when consumers seek more information about a specific brand. In particular, it is suggested that consumers only talk about brands that are targeted at them and when there is a potential for consumption (Arndt, 1967, Buttle, 1998; Lau and Ng, 2001; Sundaram, 1998; Henning-Thurau et al., 2004). Furthermore, brands that are targeted at high-

income consumers only engage in brand-related conversation with high-income consumers; consequently, consumers who cannot afford to purchase a particular brand do not talk about that brand (Arndt, 1967, Buttle, 1998; Lau and Ng, 2001; Sundaram, 1998; Henning-Thurau et al., 2004). For example, high-end brands like Bugatti, Giorgio Armani, Ferrari or Louis Vuitton are targeted at consumers with very high-income levels and expect to engage only with those specific consumers. However, other consumers, with a lower income, may talk about luxury brands, yet they have no consumption experience, as the brands are beyond their budgets. This highlights that there is inadequate research to identify why and how consumers start to talk about particular brands beyond consumption. Further, Lau and Ng (2001), Sundaram (1998) and Henning-Thurau et al. (2004) argue that a brand is not only designed to differentiate a product in a consumption context, it also plays a role in engaging with consumers to create brand-related conversation. This equally highlights consumers' potential engagement with brands beyond consumption and implies a possible tendency or predisposition that consumers may exhibit to engage in brand conversations, which is worthy of research attention.

Given the lack of research about understanding why consumers 'talk' about brands beyond consumption, and the importance to marketing practitioners, the present research introduces a new concept to the marketing literature to fill this gap. The new concept, termed 'Brand Talkability', is proposed to understand the tendency of consumers to talk about brands, regardless or beyond consumption and experience. Using WoM as a conceptual platform, but clearly differentiating from it, this research investigates the nature of this concept through both understanding its antecedents and developing a measure for it.

As a concept, brand talkability allows or provides a new approach in understanding consumer communication about brands (beyond WoM), since it entails inherent reasons or 'motives' that may trigger brand-related conversation. As opposed to WoM communication (*please also see section 2.1*) brand talkability is conceptualised as a psychological tendency or predisposition and it conceptually differs from WoM which is conceptualised and measured in the literature as a behavioural construct (ref; refs;), and it is therefore an unsuitable construct to capture a 'tendency'. To this end, brand talkability is proposed to capture a different conceptual space compared to that of WoM, where currently a gap is presented. Existing literature lacks the adequate knowledge to explain why consumers talk about brands beyond consumption.

Moreover, in an attempt to understand this concept, given the lack of literature, this study identifies six factors of the relationship to the brand talkability. Such factors categorised into two groups: brand characteristics and consumer characteristics, involving brand equity, brand engagement and brand experience, product involvement, opinion leadership and brand consciousness, highlight the differential role of brand versus consumer–oriented variables. Brakus et al. (2009) discuss the influential role of brand and its characteristics on consumers while generating a tendency. In line with this, such characteristics can be examined in the context of explaining a tendency to engage in brand conversation.

Finally, in positioning this research, it does not introduce a new communication channel or an alternative to WoM communication. The concern of the present research is to fill a key gap in the literature that currently, is not adequately addressed,

and which 'precedes' WoM communication, focusing exclusively on the consumer's tendency to talk about brands and the factors that trigger such a tendency.

1.2. Research Aim and Objectives

The general aim of the present research is to conceptualise and develop a measure of brand talkability. In doing so, this research also identifies the antecedents of brand talkability. In particular, the objectives for the present research are outlined as follows:

1) To conceptualise and define brand talkability.

2) To construct an empirical measure of brand talkability.

3) To identify the impact of brand and consumer related characteristics on brand talkability. Specifically, to identify the impact of brand equity, brand engagement and brand experience on brand talkability. Additionally, to identify the impact of involvement, opinion leadership and brand consciousness on brand talkability.

1.3. Thesis Plan

The following section (Chapter 2) discusses the existing literature and identifies gaps in the academic literature where a new concept can identify the generation of tendency to talk about a brand beyond consumption concerns.

The next chapter (Chapter 3) discusses the antecedents of the concept of brand talkability, and identifies the two categories and six different antecedents.

Chapter 4 concentrates on methodology and research design. The research philosophy and methodology for the data collection is discussed. Moreover, each of the hypotheses aims to identify the relationship between the antecedents and how brand talkability is generated.

The next chapter (Chapter 5) discusses the scale of the development stages and how it was conducted. The collected data was analysed and a measurement scale developed and validated. The six hypotheses were tested and their relationship with brand talkability is identified.

Chapter 6 discusses the results of the research. The results from qualitative and quantitative data are comprehensively discussed. Furthermore, the literature is compared with the results from the collected data and the differences are identified. Lastly, the differences between informational and transformational brands are discussed.

The last chapter (Chapter 7) discusses the implications of the theory, and the influence of consumers and brands on brand talkability. In addition, the implications for managers and practitioners of brand talkability are discussed. Lastly, the limitations of the current research and opportunities for further research are identified.

Chapter 2

2.1.Word-of-Mouth and Electronic Word-of-Mouth Communication

Word-of-mouth communication is defined as: "*an oral, person-to-person communication between a receiver and a communicator whom the receiver perceives as non-commercial, regarding a brand, product, or service*" (Arndt, 1967, p.66). Arndt (1967), one of the earliest scholars to define WoM communication is well accepted in the marketing literature (Lau and Ng, 2001; Henning-Thurau et al., 2004; Harrison-Walker, 2001; Liang et al, 2013; Blazevic et al., 2013, Batinic et al., 2013). Additionally, WoM refers to the behaviour of transferring brand-related information to other people. Henning-Thurau et al. (2004, p.51) define WoM as "*all informal communications directed at other consumers about the ownership, usage, or characteristics of particular goods and services or their sellers*". Henning-Thurau et al. (2004) emphasise usage, ownership of a brand and its influence on WoM communication. This argument demonstrates that consumers do generate word-of-mouth communication for the brand they own or consume.

Moreover, consumers perceive WoM as non-commercial and trustworthy communication (Buttle, 1998; Arndt, 1967). On this basis, Brown et al. (2007, p.4) define WoM communication as "*a consumer-dominated channel of marketing communication where the sender is independent of the market*". It is nearly impossible to expect that WoM communication is independent of marketer-controlled factors, and Goyette et al. (2010) support this argument. Goyette et al. (2010) emphasise that WoM communication is open to manipulation by marketing efforts such as advertising, media relations and public relations.

Further, the definitions of WoM communication highlight 'a speaker' and 'a receiver' (Arndt, 1967; Sundaram, 1998; Dellarocas, 2003; Keller, 2007; Lau and Ng, 2001; Kawakami et-al, 2013; Alexandov et al. 2013), who transfer and exchange brand-related information through oral communication (Brown et al., 2007). Mazarol et al. (2007) mention that WoM communication is a behavioural outcome and according to the literature, the consumption concerns of consumers reflect the main reason for WoM communication (Arndt, 1967; Henning-Thurau et al., 2004; Sundaram, 1998; Dellarocas, 2003; Keller, 2007; Lau and Ng, 2001; Kawakami et-al, 2013; Alexandov et al. 2013; Yap et al. 2013).

Further, Lee and Youn (2009) and Bickart and Schindler (2001) argue that the online environment provides many opportunities to generate and share WoM. It enables consumers to reach different platforms; Lee and Youn (2009) and Bickart and Schindler (2001) emphasise that product review websites (e.g. consumerreview.com), retailer's websites (e.g. amazon.com), personal blogs, message boards and social networking sites (e.g. Facebook, Twitter) are some of the most commonly used online platforms to generate WoM and share information with consumers. Goldsmith and Horowitz (2006), Chatterjet (2001) and Henning-Thurau et al. (2004) also mention that the online environment does not have any physical boundaries that limits consumers accessing information, or sharing their views and thoughts with other consumers. However, traditional WoM is limited to the consumer's physical location and social environment. In line with previous literature, WoM communication, which occurs in an online environment, is referred to as electronic word-of-mouth (e-WoM) (Buttle, 1998; Henning-Thurau et al., 2004; Lee and Youn, 2009; Blazevic et al. 2013; See-to et.al, 2014). Buttle (1998, p.243) discusses the transposition of WoM

communication to the internet environment, and argues about e-WoM that "*neither in this electronic age need WOM be face to face, direct, oral or ephemeral. There is some evidence that virtual WOM through electronic bulletin boards functions analogously to face-to-face WOM*". Buttle (1998) refers to the emergence of e-WoM over a decade ago; therefore, the author's discussion is limited to bulletin boards. However, Internet communication technologies such as social media, social networking sites and blogs can be platforms for generating e-WoM. Henning-Thurau et al., (2004, p.39) define e-WOM as "*any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet*". Furthermore, Henning-Thurau et al. (2004) emphasise that e-WoM is less personal and does not occur face-to-face like traditional WoM communication, and that e-WoM is more accessible by other consumers and thus is more powerful.

Moreover, Lee and Youn (2009) argue that e-WoM has a unique characteristic; e-WoM occurs between people who have little or no relationship with one another and therefore can be anonymous. To this end, Goldsmith and Horowitz (2006) mention that anonymity allows consumers to reveal their opinions more comfortably without revealing their identity. This unique characteristic of e-WoM encourages consumers to engage with e-WoM more, thus increasing the volume of e-WoM communication (Chatterjer, 2001). Other characteristics of e-WoM include: a) communication based on verbal conversations, (traditional WoM is based on oral conversation between consumers who are physically at the same location); b) consumers who are not involved in e-WoM conversations have the opportunity to access the content later. Therefore, unlike traditional WoM, consumers can access conversations by e-WoM at

any time (Goldsmith and Horowitz, 2006). Additionally, according to Henning-Thurau et al. (2004), Lee and Youn (2009) and Sen and Lerman (2007) e-WoM communication enables other consumers to contribute to one's own conversation, leading to an increased volume of communication about specific products or brands. Thus, e-WoM communication enables consumers to access information more easily, share their thoughts comfortably, and reach a wide range of consumers (Goldsmith and Horowitz, 2006; Chatterjer, 2001; Henning-Thurau et al., 2004).

Further, Cheung and Lee (2012) identify the differences between WoM and e-WoM in three different dimensions:

1) e-WoM communication unprecedented scalability and speed of diffusion (Cheung and Lee, 2012), compared to WoM. Specifically, e-WoM communication spreads faster than the traditional WoM due to the Internet. In addition, WoM is limited in terms of the physical presence of people, however e-WoM can extend to a wider number of people. Also, the authors mention that e-wom involves "*multi-way exchanges of information in asynchronous mode*" (Cheung and Lee, 2012: 219).

2) e-WoM offers more precise content and is more accessible from different locations. In addition, e-WoM can be accessed at any present time. Unlike traditional WoM, e-WoM can be traced back on the Internet.

3) e-WoM can be measured more easily and is more observable than WoM. Also people can judge the credibility of the communicator more precisely. Cheung and Lee (2012) mention that e-WoM is based on the contemporary changes and improvements of Internet technologies. However, their discussion still identifies the behavioural aspect of talking about brands, or brand-related conversation. The Cheung and Lee

(2012) research does not discuss or identify the psychological triggers of brand-related conversation and why consumers show a tendency to talk about brands through the characteristics of the e-WoM. Cheung and Lee (2012) strongly emphasise the gap in the literature to identify the psychological aspects of the brand-related conversations and argue that '*research on why consumers engage in e-WoM in online consumer-opinion platforms remains relatively limited*' (Cheung and Lee, 2012, p219).

2.2. WoM and the Concept of Brand Talkability

Generally, in marketing literature, talking about a brand (e.g. Apple) and its products or services is understood as WoM (Arndt, 1967). In other words, when consumers express their own thoughts, feelings and opinions about a particular brand, and share this with other consumers, WoM communication is generated (Arndt, 1967; Lau and Ng, 2001; Henning-Thurau et al., 2004; Harrison-Walker, 2001). According to the literature, WoM communication occurs due to consumption concerns about a particular brand or brands (Henning-Thurau et al., 2004). Thus, when a consumer plans to consume a brand, WoM communication emerges and knowledge regarding that particular brand is shared between consumers (Henning-Thurau et al., 2004, Sundaram, 1998; Lau and Ng, 2001). On this basis, and based on works by Arndt (1967), Henning-Thurau et al. (2004), Sundaram (1998) and Lau and Ng, (2001), it can be assumed that consumers never talk about a brand they do not plan to consume. However, this is not the case, as is evident by the many blogs and Facebook Pages about luxury brands for example (e.g. BornRich.com, Luxury-Insider.com, JustLuxe.com) where consumer talk about this brands which do not necessarily own,

To this end, the existing literature on WoM communication generates a limited understanding of why people talk about particular brands beyond consumption concerns or experience, highlighting a key gap in the literature. Specifically, extant literature does not address, or discusses adequately, the 'disposition' or 'tendency' of consumers to engage in brand conversation, and the factors that trigger such a tendency. Mazarol et al. (2007) argue that WoM communication is an outcome of consumer behaviour. This suggests that WoM is a 'behavioural' variable, which is preceded by a 'tendency' to talk about brands. Additionally, previous research, which identifies the antecedents of WoM (e.g. Dichter 1966; Engel et al. 1993; Sundaram et al. 1998; de Matos and Rossi (2008), further emphasises the nature of this concept as a behavioural or marketing outcome which manistest within a specific consumption contexts, and not a consumer disposition. In particular, satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the brand are generally accepted as the main antecedents of WoM communication (Arndt, 1967; Dichter, 1966; Bitner, 1990; Anderson, 1998; Oliver, 1980). In contrast, brand talkability, is conceptualised as a psychological tendency of consumers to talk about brands. This notion fills a different and currently vacant, conceptual space [than that of WoM and e-WoM] and aims to shed light into why consumers talk about brands beyond consumption, in contrast to WoM which is bounded by a consumption situation. Hence, brand talkbility is a 'phenomenon' which occurs before consumption or beyond the context of consumption, whereas, WoM is a behavioural outcome of specific consumption (Ardnt, 1967; Cheung and Thadani, 2012; de Matos and Rossi, 2008) The following table illustrates the different conceptual attributes which clearly separate brand talkability from WoM communication.

Table 1 Brand Talkability vs Word-of-Mouth

Brand Talkability	Word-of-Mouth
Psychological construct denoting a tendency or predisposition and said to precede WoM (although this is beyond the scope of the study to examine the two)	Behavioural construct; outcome of a specific consumption situation.
No consumption involved/beyond consumption. Therefore brand related conversation is triggered beyond consumption	Consumption bounded; brand –related conversation is contextualised within a specific consumption situation.

2.3. Antecedents of Word-of-mouth Communication

According to Arndt (1967), Dichter (1966), Bitner (1990), Anderson (1998) and Oliver (1980) satisfaction or dissatisfaction leads consumers to generate word-of-mouth communication. This conversation is based on their experience with the brand during consumption, compare to their expectation of the brand prior to consumption (Arndt, 1967; Dichter, 1966). However, using satisfaction or dissatisfaction as antecedents does not provide a comprehensive discussion of why consumers generate word-of-mouth communication. Some scholars (Arndt, 1967; Dichter, 1966; Bitner, 1990; Anderson, 1998; Oliver, 1980) do not limit the antecedents of word-of-mouth to satisfaction, but they mainly concentrate on consumption concerns. The following scholars identifies the mainly accepted antecedents for word-of-mouth, which are mainly biased consumption.

Dichter (1966)'s initial research on the antecedents of WoM communication provided the foundation for subsequent research. Dichter (1966) approaches WoM from the perspective of psychology, and identified four antecedents for positive WoM: product-involvement, self-involvement, other-involvement and message-involvement. Despite this plausible framework for the antecedents of word-of-mouth

communication, there is a weakness in the framework of word-of-mouth antecedents designed by Dichter (1966) (de Matos and Rossi, 2008).

The antecedents of word-of-mouth, introduced to the literature by Dichter (1966), have a limited approach, as the antecedents concentrate solely on the concept of involvement. However, this approach to the antecedents of word-of-mouth is not capable of identifying the conversation generated through other aspects, and limits the approach only to the concept of involvement. Although, Dichter (1966) makes an important contribution to the literature, it was necessary to introduce new antecedents to identify different factors that generate word-of-mouth communication.

However, the antecedents that are based on the involvement concept do not emphasise the concerns of consumption and concentrate more on the psychological perspective. Moreover, the types of involvements described as antecedents focus mainly on consumer psychology. Each involvement type identifies a unique type of consumer psychology that generates word-of-mouth communication. Furthermore, the identification of a unique condition leads to plausible outcomes from the research, which are not limited to a particular point of view. Despite this broad approach, Dichter (1966) does not conduct a comprehensive discussion for the antecedents, and this prevents a comprehensive understanding of the functions of the antecedents. Henning et al. (2004, p.40) emphasise the limitation of Dichter's work: *"Dichter's work is no detailed information about the development of his typology is provided"*.

The antecedents of word-of-mouth communication identified by Dichter (1966) and Engel et al. (1993) focus only on perspective of consumption. This approach limits

the identification of stimuli that are not related to consumption, and does not provide adequate discussion for other reasons that cause word-of-mouth communication. Moreover, these antecedents restrict the definition of word-of-mouth. Limiting the scope of word-of-mouth communication to consumption does not offer a comprehensive discussion to identify why consumers talk about brands in an online environment with social media tools. Moreover, the influential role of the brand on consumers, for word-of-mouth communication, is not adequately discussed.

The framework of Sundaram et al. (1998), categorising the antecedents of word-of-mouth communication, is commonly accepted in the literature (de Matos and Rossi, 2008). Sundaram et al. (1998) group the antecedents for word-of-mouth into positive and negative, though mention that negative word-of-mouth is not adequately investigated in the literature. Therefore, Sundaram et al. (1998) introduce new antecedents for negative word-of-mouth (altruism, anxiety reduction, vengeance and advice seeking), which are equal in number to positive word-of-mouth antecedents (altruism, product-involvement, self-enhancement and helping the company).

As with previous studies, most of these antecedents are associated with consumption and the consumption experience of brands. Sundaram et al. (1998) introduce a fundamental change in the antecedents of word-of-mouth by adding new antecedents to the category of negative word-of-mouth. Prior to Sundaram et al. (1998), discussion of negative word-of-mouth was not adequately conducted. For example, Engel et al. (1993) discuss negative word-of-mouth with only one antecedent. Despite subsequent improvements in the literature, a bias towards consumption concerns still exists in the new antecedents of negative word-of-mouth communication.

Unlike previous scholars, Sundaram et al. (1998) address a new antecedent unrelated to consumption: helping the company. Helping the company is defined as the consumer's willingness to talk about the brand, regardless of their consumption concerns (Sundaram et al., 1998). This antecedent introduces a new perspective into the generation of word-of-mouth communication. According to Sundaram et al. (1998), it can be suggested that word-of-mouth communication is not only generated for consumption concerns as consumers do talk about brands that help the company. However, this antecedent only identifies one aspect of word-of-mouth communication, regardless of consumption, and does not provide adequate arguments why consumers generate word-of-mouth communication without consumption concerns.

With regard to the work of Sundaram et al. (1998), it may be assumed that they introduced a new antecedent (helping the company) to observe different aspects of word-of-mouth communication. This new antecedent highlights the aspects of word-of-mouth communication without any consumption concerns, but does not provide a broader perspective. It limits the discussion by focusing on 'helping the company'. Therefore, Sundaram et al. (1998) do not adequately discuss the issues even with this new antecedent.

de Matos and Rossi (2008) revise the antecedents of word-of-mouth communication introduced by Dichter (1966), Engel et al. (1993) and Sundaram et al. (1998). Additionally, they put forward new antecedents to identify new motives that generate word-of-mouth communication. The new antecedents introduced by de Matos and

Rossi (2008) are: satisfaction, loyalty, quality, commitment, trust and perceived value (see Table 1). Unlike previous scholars (Dichter, 1966; Engel et al., 1993; Sundaram et al., 1998), de Matos et al. (2008) do not categorise the antecedents into positive and negative word-of-mouth communication; they discuss generation of word-of-mouth communication without any categorisation.

Categorising word-of-mouth communication into positive and negative prevents the capture of conversation that does not fall into a positive nor negative approach. Therefore, de Matos and Rossi's (2008) antecedents are capable of identifying word-of-mouth more accurately than previous studies that categorise word-of-mouth into positive or negative. Where word-of-mouth communication is neither positive nor negative, the earlier antecedents are not capable of investigating word-of-mouth communication.

As with previous studies, the antecedents introduced by de Matos and Rossi (2008) are mainly related to the concerns of consumption. However, the antecedents of loyalty and commitment do not approach word-of-mouth communication from the perspective of consumption. Commitment exists when consumers talk about brands with which they have a valued relationship (de Matos and Rossi, 2008). de Matos and Rossi (2008) mention that this antecedent is based on the experience of consumption or a bond with the brand. In contrast to previous scholars, de Matos and Rossi (2008) discuss the tendency to talk about a particular brand through the commitment antecedent, only in a limited scope. However, there is no comprehensive discussion conducted to analyse the tendency, and identify a new approach in the literature.

Moreover, one antecedent has a unique approach to word-of-mouth: the quality antecedent. This antecedent argues on the generation of word-of-mouth to only service brands, and leads to limiting the study to very specific types of brands. However, the other antecedents do investigate service and other brands, whereas the quality antecedent only focuses on service. This factor prevents this model being used for different types of brands and is considered a limitation. The quality antecedent indicates a bias in the model for particular types of brands, and it may not be able to offer a comprehensive understanding to other types of brands.

de Matos and Rossi's (2008) research is the most recent study into the antecedents of word-of-mouth communication. However, an adequate discussion has not been carried out to identify the influential role of the brands on consumers who have no consumption concerns, and their role in the word-of-mouth communication of these consumers; consumption remains the major focus of the research. As the research was conducted recently, it may be assumed that these scholars might have observed the influence of brands on consumers, and the brand-related conversation unrelated to concerns of consumption. However these issues were not adequately discussed.

Moreover, Ng et al. (2011) investigate the generation of positive word-of-mouth communication in service experience. Ng et al. (2011) define six different factors under two categories: benefits and quality. Each factor of the benefits is tested with quality factors and three quality factors are tested with positive word-of-mouth communication. This research identifies a very unique generation of word-of-mouth communication. Despite the comprehensive study, the results cannot be generalised for different types of products or services and for negative word-of-mouth.

Table 2 Antecedents of Word-of-Mouth Communication

Authors	Antecedents	Definitions
Dichter (1966)	Product-involvement	Experience with the brand generates a tension, which is not satisfied during consumption. In order to reduce this tension, consumers are channelled to talk.
	Self-involvement	The brand serves as a means for satisfying certain emotional needs of consumers.
	Other-involvement	The pleasure provided through sharing by word-of-mouth with other people.
	Message-involvement	Word-of-mouth generated by advertisements or any other public relations activities.
Engel et al. (1993)	Involvement	Level of interest that leads to generate word-of-mouth.
	Self-enhancement	Generating word-of-mouth to receive attention and give impression.
	Concern for others	Helping other people with their consumption decisions through sharing word-of-mouth.
	Message intrigue	Talking about a particular advertisement or campaign.
	Dissonance reduction	Reducing doubts of a consumer after consumption.
Sundaram et al. (1998)	Altruism (Positive and Negative)	Generating word-of-mouth for others with no expectation.
	Product involvement (P)	Consumption of particular brands for their perceived importance and provided excitement. Word-of-mouth transfers the feelings to others.
	Self-enhancement (P)	Generating word-of-mouth to project themselves as intelligent consumers and share their positive consumption experience.
	Helping company (P)	Desire to help company through generating word-of-mouth without any financial expectations.
	Anxiety reduction (N)	Expressing the feelings caused by the consumption of that particular brand through word-of-mouth.
	Vengeance (N)	Generating word-of-mouth to retaliate adverse consumption experience with the brand.
	Advice seeking (N)	Obtaining advice to solve existing problems with the brand.
de Matos et al. (2008)	Satisfaction	Consumers generate word-of-mouth based on their experience and evaluation of the brand over the time, which is compared with the expectation created prior to consumption.
	Loyalty	Maintaining a relationship with a particular brand and allocating higher share and engaging with word-of-mouth and repeated purchase.
	Quality	Consumer's discrepancy between expectation and experiences with the brand generate word-of-mouth. Focuses on service context more than brand.
	Commitment	The strength of relationship between brand and the individuals, which leads to generating word-of-mouth.
	Trust	Trust provides lower anxiety, certainty and vulnerability. Consumers who trust a brand tend to generate favourable word-of-mouth and express their trust to others.
	Perceived value	Consumers generate word-of-mouth by overall assessment of utility, based on what is received and what is given from the brand.

2.3.1. Antecedents of e-WoM Communication

Recently, Cheung and Lee (2012) have introduced six antecedents e-WoM communication. The researchers argue that academic literature does not adequately discuss the generation of e-WoM. The authors have tested a model with six hypotheses (Cheung and Lee, 2012) where the main objective is to identify the motivations to share knowledge about a brand and include egoistic, collective, altruistic, principalistic knowledge self-efficacy (Cheung and Lee, 2012). According to the authors, their model assumes that consumers have knowledge about a brand or product prior to motivation to generate e-WoM (Cheung and Lee, 2012). However, investigation of the motivations to generate e-WoM based on existing knowledge, generates a limitation in identifying the consumers who generate tendency to talk about a brand without possessing expert knowledge. As such, it can be suggested that this model does not capture the motives to talk about a brand without a high level of knowledge, for example casual talk about brands. Furthermore the influence of the brand and the experience with the brand and other brand characteristics which maybe important and relevant factors in triggering e-WoM, are not covered in their model. In contrast, Cheung and Lee (2012) mention that the 'sense of belonging' is an essential construct of e-WoM, and therefore the authors' study develops antecedents around the 'sense of belonging'.

Further, the authors did not test the model in the context of social media platforms and data collection was done only on OpenRice.com, an online community platform. This highlights a limitation in the study of Cheung and Lee (2012) since e-WoM is explored as a behaviour from a very limited digital platform. It can be argued that the research of Cheung and Lee (2012) contributes to knowledge and academic literature,

however the antecedents of e-WoM investigated by the authors are bounded within a particular internet discussion forum.

2.3.2. Brand Talkability as an Antecedent of WoM

The above research on the antecedents of WoM highlights the need for, and the value of, a concept that captures the consumer's 'tendency' or 'disposition' to talk about specific brands, irrespective of consumption. This need is now greater, in view of the increasing volume of e-WoM through which consumers are found to engage. To this end, in this research, brand talkability is defined as *the tendency consumers exhibit in talking about a brand or brands without any consumption concerns.* Further, a number of variables (both consumer and brand based) may explain this tendency of consumers to talk about brands beyond their consumption concerns, suggesting that different products/brands exert a different level of impact on consumers' tendency to talk about brands. Similarly, consumer-based characteristics, such as the level of product involvement or importance consumers attach to a specific product category, are likely to impact brand talkability. Other factors such opinion leadership are also likely to impact brand talkability. An in-depth discussion of the key antecedents of brand talkability identified in this research is offered in Chapter 3, and the table 3 and figure 1 highlight the brand and consumer characteristics that this research explores as antecedents of brand talkability.

Chapter 3

3.Antecedents of Brand Talkability

This chapter discusses the brand-related and consumer-related antecedents of brand talkability.

3.1.Brand-Related Antecedents

3.1.1 Brand Engagement

Previous literature defines brand engagement as "*an individual difference representing consumers' propensity to include important brands as a part of how they view themselves*" (Sprott et al., 2009, p.92). The concept explores the relationship between consumers and brands, and how brands influence the tendency of consumers to include a brand as a part of their personality (Sprott et al., 2009; Escalas, 2004; Escalas and Bettman, 2003; 2005).

During the past decade scholars have conducted research to identify different forms of consumer and brand relationships (Aaker et al., 2004; Aggarwal, 2004; Escalas, 2004; Chaplin and John, 2005; Fournier, 1998). Sprott et al. (2009) introduce a new approach, that of brand engagement, to identify relationships between brands and consumers. In particular, the concept of brand engagement investigates the tendency of consumers to include particular brands as part of their selves, and the role of brands in this process (Sprott et al., 2009). The definition of brand engagement is constructed on self-schema and attachment theory (Markus, 1977; Ball and Tasaki, 1992) to examine the relationship of consumers with brands (van Doorn et al., 2010). Goldsmith et al. (2011, p.279) define brand engagement based on Sprott et al. (2009)

as: "*the general tendency of consumers to use brands to shape their identities and to express them to other*". This definition emphasises the intangible connection between the brand and consumer (Sprott et al. 2009). In addition, according to Goldsmith et al. (2011) brands have adequate influential power on consumers to change their behaviours and personal identities. The argument suggests that consumers can change their personality and behaviours as a result of specific brands that are preferred and consumed.

Further, the concept of brand engagement differs from that of 'customer engagement' referred to by van Doorn et al. (2010) and Verhoef et al. (2010). Van Doorn et al. (2010, p.341) define customer engagement as: "*the behavioural manifestation from a customer toward a brand or a firm which goes beyond purchase behaviour*". Similarly, Verhoef et al. (2010, p.249) define customer engagement as "*consisting of multiple behaviours such as WOM and blogging*". In a similar line, Bijmolt et al. (2010) argue about customer engagement: "*This behavioural manifestation may affect the brand or firm and its constituents in ways other than purchase such as a word-of-mouth*". Customer engagement is therefore a behavioural construct, which highlights how consumers engage with particular brands in a 'behavioural manner' and which included: a) generating WoM communication; b) engaging or participating in online communities; and/or c) offering suggestions to brands for further improvements (Bijmolt et al. 2010). Van Doorn et al. (2010) focus on the consequences of psychological processes involving consumer-brand connections from a behavioural perspective. However, in the case of this research the connection between a brand and consumer is looked at from a psychological point of view (i.e. tendency), and not a behavioural one (e.g. van Doorn et al. (2010).

According to Sprott et al. (2009, p.97) *"brand engagement leads to increased attention to brand-related information associated with others"*. This emphasises that brand engagement suggests there can be strong connections between brands and consumers; when a consumer is engaged with a brand they will recall and express interest in the brand during different situations. On this basis, and in line with research supporting connections between brands and consumers (Sprott et al., 2009), it can be argued that such as a connection between the brand and consumers is likely to trigger a tendency of consumers to talk about a particular brand. On this basis:

H_1: Brand engagement will positively impact brand talkability

3.1.2   Brand Experience

Schmitt (1999) suggests that brand experience results from a direct observation and participation in an event. Similarly, and based on Schmitt (1999), Brakus et al. 2009, p.53) define brand experience as the *"subjective, internal consumer responses (sensations, feelings, and cognitions) as well as behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications and environment"*.

Schmitt's (1999) conceptualisation purposes five different 'types' of experience; sense, feel, think, act and relate. The author argues that 'sense' includes aesthetics and sensory qualities; 'feel' includes moods and emotions; 'think' includes convergent/analytical and divergent/imaginative thinking; 'act' includes motor actions and behavioural experiences; and 'relate experience' refers to social experiences.

Schmitt (1999) identifies the structure of brand experience and differentiates it from other constructs via the categorisation of these experiences.

Much of the research conducted on brand experience focuses mainly on utilitarian product attributes and category experiences (Brakus et al., 2009). Consumers are exposed to utilitarian product attributes during the search for, shopping and consumption of brands. According to Brakus et al. (2009) consumers are also exposed to brand-related stimuli such as brand-identifying colours (Bellizi and Hite, 1992; Gorn et al., 1997; Meyers-Levy and Peracchio, 1995), shapes (Veryzer and Hutchinson, 1998), typefaces, background design elements (Mandel and Johnson, 2002), slogans, mascots, and brand characters (Keller, 1987). The concept of brand experience identifies the response of consumers to brand-related stimuli regardless of consumption concerns or type of connection with the brand. Brakus et al. (2009, p.53) suggest that, *"these brand-related stimuli constitute the major source of subjective, internal consumer responses, which is referred to as "brand experience"*. Additionally, Brakus et al. (2009, p.53) argue that, *"experience can happen when consumers do not show interest in or have a personal connection with the brand"*. This statement emphasises that experience with a brand does not require any type of connection, relationship or interest with a specific brand. Any consumer can have an experience with a brand, even though she or he does not have any interest in the brand. For instance, a consumer with no interest in cars may notice a Rolls Royce on the street, based on the distinctive design of the vehicle. According to Schmitt (1999), an experience with the brand occurs in this condition; the consumer notices the car and forms an experience with the brand. Another example is that of the Apple iPhone. Even though it has achieved a huge success in terms of sales, many people are still not

actively interested in mobile phone technology, however it is very hard to avoid an experience with an iPhone as a result of its wide market diffusion (e.g. in retail stores, advertisements, friends). Thus, consumers experience an iPhone through other consumers, or via advertising on TV or on other platforms. In both of these cases, consumers may not be interested in those particular brands; however, they cannot avoid the experience through different situations or events. These two examples emphasise how consumers experience the brand regardless of consumption, interest or connection.

According to Brakus et al. (2009) brand experiences can vary on the level of strength and intensity, they can be strong or weak, more intense or less intense. In terms of valence, brand experience can be positive or negative and can influence the consumer in particular ways. Zarantonello and Schmitt (2010) suggest that valence of brand experience can also affect consumer satisfaction. Moreover, brand experiences may occur for a short-term period or a long-term period, and long-term brand experiences affect consumer satisfaction and loyalty (Brakus et al., 2009; Oliver, 1997; Reicheld, 1996).

In the context of this research, brand experience highlights the role of brand-related stimuli on the generation of a tendency to talk about a brand without any consumption concerns. As already mentioned, Brakus et al. (2009) emphasise that brand experience investigates the impact of brand-related stimuli on consumers regardless of consumption, interest or connection with the brand. Moreover, Brakus et al. (2009), Zarantonello and Schmitt (2010), and Chang and Chieng (2006) argue that brand experience occurs by brand design, identity, packaging, communications and

environment. Thus, the influential role of experience with a brand can be investigated purely beyond consumption, interest or connection with a specific brand. On this basis, it is hypothesised that:

H₂: Brand experience, will positively impact brand talkability

3.1.3 Brand Equity

Definitions of brand equity are categorised into two classes. First, the firm-based perspective (Shcoker and Weitz, 1988; Simon and Sullivan, 1993; Farquhar et al. 1991; Haigh, 1999), and second the consumer-based perspective (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; Yoo and Donthu, 2001; Pappu et al. 2001; Christodoulides et al. 2006). According to Keller (1993) and Christodoulides et al. (2006) the marketing literature mainly concentrates on the consumer-based brand equity rather than firm-based brand equity. Furthermore, Christodoulides et al. (2006, p.800) argue that brand equity provides competitive advantages to brands, "*the main benefit is intangible and consumers perceive high risk*". Intangibility is mainly associated with online services; however, many brands also provide intangible benefits through the consumption of their products (Christodoulides et al., 2006).

First, in terms of the firm-based perspective, brand equity is viewed from a 'tangible' perspective, and relies on physical and intangible assets (Mizik and Jacobson, 2008; Hunt and Morgan, 1995). Measuring brand equity based on financial performance does not allow the identification of all aspects of brand equity; identifying brand equity through tangible values can only provide a partial explanation (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010). Financial brand equity reflects vital financial information about a brand; however, consumers may not have adequate knowledge to interpret this information (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010; Farquhar et al., 1991;

Simon and Sullivan, 1993). Therefore, financial brand equity is not capable of identifying how consumers evaluate a brand and assess brand equity.

Second, consumer-based brand equity focuses on consumers' perceptions and reactions to the brand (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010; Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; Erdem and Swait, 1998). Aaker (1991, 1996) and Keller (1993) conceptualise brand equity based on cognitive psychology focusing on memory. Consumer-based brand equity identifies the influential role of the brand on brand equity constructed in the minds of consumers. The concept is defined as "*the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand*" (Keller, 1993, p.2). Moreover, consumer-based equity tends to occur when a consumer is familiar with the brand and develops strong and unique brand associations in their memory (Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1991). Hence, lack of familiarity with a specific brand does not allow the creation of brand equity (Keller, 1993; Aaker, 1991).

Furthermore, brand equity refers to incremental value and utility added to a product through its brand name (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993). This argument emphasises the intangible value of a brand that can be perceived by consumers. According to Keller (1993), consumer-based brand equity explains the formation of intangible values associated with the brands. This enables consumers to construct an evaluation system that enables positioning of the brand based on their consumer-based equity. Moreover, Yoo et al. (2000) argue that brand equity influences the probability of brand choice, readiness to higher price, effective marketing communications and strength of competitive advantage. Yo et al. (2000) mention that when the equity of a

brand increases, consumers are more influenced by it, they have a higher tendency to form a bond with it, and their interest in it increases.

Other notable contributions to brand equity literature include that of Aaker (1991). The author defines brand equity more comprehensively and their definition of brand equity is most commonly cited in academic literature. Aaker (1991, p.15) defines brand equity as "*a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers*." Aaker (1996) conceptualises brand equity as a multi-dimensional concept consisting of five 'assets/liabilities' including, brand awareness, brand loyalty, perceived quality, brand associations and other proprietary brand assets (patents, trademarks and channel relationships). In the context of this study, these assets or liabilities are used to conceptualise and measure brand equity. Focusing however, mostly on the four consumer-based dimensions include brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2010) argue that these four dimensions of brand equity explain the perceptions and reactions of consumers towards brands; however, the last factor, other proprietary brand assets, is not directly related with consumer-based brand equity.

Hence, the present research uses Aaker's (1991) consumer-based equity to conceptualise and measure brand equity as an antecedent of brand talkability. Customer-based brand equity allows investigation into how brand talkability is triggered, highlighting the key element of familiarity, in that consumers are likely to form a tendency to talk, or converse about, a brand that they are familiar with.

According to Keller (1993) and Aaker (1991) consumers develop equity with brands that are familiar to them. Moreover, when consumers are familiar with brands and have strong and unique associations, this strengthens the equity of that brand. In addition, a familiar consumer brand is likely to influence decisions and behaviour (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993; Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010). In a similar line, Yoo and Dontu (2001), Yoo et al. (2000) and Cobb-Walgreen et al. (1995) emphasise the influential role of brand equity on consumers' decision-making processes. Additionally, it is argued that positive brand associations are also likely to dispose consumers to talk about a specific brand. In a similar line, consumers are expected to talk about a brand if they perceive it is of high quality, or they like the brand (e.g. attitude element of brand loyalty). On this basis it is hypothesised:

H₃: Brand equity will positively impact brand talkability

3.2. Consumer-Related Antecedents of Brand Talkability

Consumer-related antecedents capture the role of the consumer in the formation of the tendency to talk about a specific brand. The main concern is why consumers prefer to talk about particular brands, instead of other brands, and how the tendency to talk about specific brands is generated. These antecedents are discussed in the following sections.

3.2.1. Consumer Involvement

Michaelidou and Dibb (2006, p.443) argue that, "*the relationship between an individual, an issue or object refers to involvement that originates from social psychology*" (Sherif and Sherif, 1967). Additionally, involvement is defined as "*as the degree of psychological connection between an individual and the stimulus*" (Michaelidou and Dibb, 2006). Further, Celsi and Olson (1988, p.211), suggest the "*level of involvement with an object, situation, or action is determined by the degree to which she/he perceives that concept to be personally relevant*". Long-term attachment or involvement with a brand is based on personal relevancy; consumers have a higher tendency to generate a bond with brands that have similarities with their personalities. This leads consumers to give more attention to particular brands compared to their competitors. Furthermore, the involvement antecedent investigates the long-term attachment and tendency to talk about a brand.

Zaichkowsky (1985, p.342) defines involvement as "*a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interest*". Furthermore, Havitz and Dimanche (1999) define involvement as the "*unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest towards a brand*". In addition, Goldsmith (1996) and Richins and Bloch (1986) emphasise the relationship of interest and involvement. These two scholars emphasise that the interest notion is a part of the involvement construct. All these scholars emphasise the importance of the interest notion and its connection with the involvement construct. On this reasoning, the involvement antecedent enables the impact of interest in the brand, personal relevancy, and the generation of the tendency to talk to be observed.

Kapferer and Laurent (1985) emphasise the role of consumption and communication on the concept of involvement: *"involvement is a casual motivating variable with a number of consequences on the consumer's purchase and communication behaviour"* (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985, p.42). Kapferer and Laurent (1985) discuss the link between communication and involvement. Involvement is not only related to consumption behaviour, but is also related with the communication behaviour of consumers. Scholars discussing the relationship between involvement and communication suggest that involvement does influence consumers' communication behaviour regarding the brand (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985). This emphasises the dominant influence of involvement on brand-related communication. It can be suggested that involvement explains why consumers tend to prefer particular brands; for example, why consumers talk about Mercedes-Benz more than its competitors.

This statement emphasises the connection between involvement and research into brand talkability. It can be assumed that the involvement construct enables an assessment of why consumers prefer a particular brand and why they generate a tendency to talk.

Furthermore, involvement is categorised into enduring involvement (involvement as an individual attribute) and situational involvement (involvement related to a specific behaviour) (Lyons, 2005; Bergada and Faure, 1995). Enduring involvement is defined as involvement *"independent of purchase situations and is motivated by degree to which the product relates to the self and / or hedonic pleasure received from the product"* (Richins and Bloch, 1986, p.280). Lau and Ng (2001, p.167) summarise enduring involvement as *"an on-going concern with a product that transcends*

situational influences" (Houston and Rothschild, 1978; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Rothschild, 1979). Celsi et al. (1992) emphasise the relationship between enduring involvement and the tendency of consumers to share their knowledge and experience with others. Based on the discussion of Richins and Bloch (1986), it is assumed that the involvement antecedent investigates the influence of hedonic pleasure received from the brand on the tendency to talk.

In a similar line, Richins and Bloch (1986, p.280) argue that "*enduring involvement is independent of purchase situations and is motivated by the degree to which the products relates to the self and or the hedonic pleasure received from the product*" (Bloch and Richins, 1983; Kapferer and Laurent, 1985). Jang and Lee (2000, p.231) also argue that involvement "*emphasises long-term attachment or enduring properties rather than a situational feeling or state*". Based on these definitions, it can be suggested that enduring involvement highlights consumers' enduring relationship with a product category, leading to familiarity, knowledge about brands within that category, and subsequently to a tendency to talk about specific brands within that product category, regardless of consumption concern. Dwyer (2007) supports this argument; enduring involvement is found to be an important aspect that identifies why consumers talk about particular brands continuously. On this basis, and following this reasoning, it can be assumed that enduring involvement leads consumers to generate a tendency to talk about particular brands

Furthermore, Zaichkowsky (1985), Celsin and Olson (1988), Jang and Lee (2000) and Michaelidou and Dibb (2006) emphasise that a long-term connection between consumer and brand is achieved by personal relevancy. Moreover, scholars emphasise

that personal relevancy is an important part of the consumer and brand connection. This aspect of the involvement concept enables us to identify how consumers generate a tendency to talk, and why particular brands to generate a continuous tendency to talk. On this basis, it is hypothesised that:

H$_4$: Consumer involvement will positively impact brand talkability

3.2.2. Opinion Leadership

Opinion leadership is credited for most of the interpersonal communication among consumers, and has considerable influence on the decision making process of consumers (Ritchins and Root-Shaffer, 1988). Opinion leadership are those "*individuals who were likely to influence other persons in their immediate environment*" (Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955, p.3). Rogers and Cartano (1962, p.435) define an opinion leadership as a person "*who exerts an unequal amount of influence on the decision of others*". According to Bertandis and Goldsmith (2006) opinion leadership is associated with influence on the decision making process of consumers for a potential consumption. Moreover, Flynn et al. (1996), Goldsmith and De Witt (2003) and Rogers and Cartano (1962) argue that opinion leadership have influence on information sharing among consumers**.**

Moreover, Rogers and Cartano (1962) argue that opinion leadership has an unequal and informal influence on the decision making process of consumers through sharing thoughts and views. Eliashberg and Shugan (1997) argue that opinion leadership' views, opinions and experiences are respected by a group or community, and opinion leadership are considered as a trustworthy information resource. Further, consumers respect the view of opinion leadership and allow them to influence their opinions

(Lyons, 2005). Flynn et al. (1996), Lyons (2005) and Reynolds and Darden (1971) also add that the trustworthiness and credibility of opinion leadership can influence the outcome of a marketing strategy and alter the decision of consumers. This argument is also supported by Sweeney et al. (2008). Roger and Cartano (1962) also emphasise that opinion leadership are the people who have an unequal level of information and influential power on people. Moreover, consumers consider opinion leadership as trustworthy information resources (Lyons, 2005).

The discussions of scholars highlight the important influence opinion leadership have on the generation of a tendency to talk about a brand. This is a result of the respect consumers have towards opinion leadership and the unequal influential power of opinion leadership (Lyons, 2005; Bertandias and Goldsmith, 2006). This argument is supported by Sun et al. (2006, p.1106), who state it *"is the process by which people influence the attitudes or behaviours of other"*. As a result of greater credibility and trustworthiness, compared to formal marketers, consumers form a tendency to a particular brand through the influence of opinion leadership.

Opinion leadership explain how consumers are influenced by this antecedent and its impact on generating a tendency to talk about a particular brand. According to the literature, opinion leadership influences consumers to focus on a particular brand while ignoring other brands. As a result, consumers may generate a tendency for particular brands through the opinion leadership antecedent (Lyons, 2005).

The Flow Model of Opinion Leadership

Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) conceptualise a two-step flow model to explain the role of opinion leadership on the media and consumers. According to this model, opinion leadership are the intermediary between the mass media and the majority of consumers. Information flows from the media to opinion leadership and their followers. Although this model was created nearly half a century ago, when Internet technologies were non-existent, it is still able to explain the flow of information by opinion leadership to consumers through social media instruments. Furthermore, Watts and Dodds (2007) support that opinion leadership use channels of the media to transfer information to people. They also emphasise that opinion leadership are not a physical leadership of a formal organisation. Watts and Dodds (2007) indicate that Katz and Lazarfeld's (1955) flow model can apply to contemporary communication instruments such as online social media sites.

Bertandias and Goldsmith (2005), Ritchins and Root-Shaffer (1988) and Sun (2006) discuss the role of opinion leadership and word-of-mouth communication. It is suggested that consumers develop a biased view through the unequal influence of opinion leadership (Bertandis and Goldsmith, 2005; Ritchins and Shaffer, 1988), while Sun et al. (2006, p.1106) state, this "*is the process by which people influence the attitudes or behaviours of others*". Furthermore, Sweeney et al. (2008) argue on the role of opinion leadership, and suggest that interpersonal communication is closely related to opinion leadership. Scholars suggest that the influence of opinion leadership have a higher credibility and trustworthiness than that of formal marketers. Thus, it can be assumed that the credibility and the trustworthiness of opinion leadership influence the view of consumers for particular brands.

Sweeney et al. (2008) agree with the influential role of opinion leadership on consumption. They argue that it influences the consumer more easily and effectively than marketing offerings linked to consumption. It is believed that opinion leadership have a significant impact on consumption and WoM communication. This relationship emphasises that consumers talk about particular brands through the influence of opinion leadership. Thus, the relationship between opinion leadership and brand talkability is able to investigate and identify the impact of opinion leadership on the generation of a tendency to talk.

Lastly, this antecedent observes how consumers are biased through an unequal level of influence of opinion leadership, and how this impacts on the formation of a tendency to talk about particular brands (Flynn et al., 1996; Reynolds and Darden, 1971; Bertandis and Goldsmith, 2005, Ritchins and Shaffer, 1988). On this basis, it is hypothesised that:

H_5: Opinion leadership will positively impact brand talkability

3.2.3. Brand Consciousness

Nelson and Devanathan (2006, p.214) define brand consciousness as *"the degree to which a consumer notices or uses brands as information important to purchase decisions"*. According to Liao and Wang (2009) brand consciousness is a psychological construct, which refers to a mental orientation to prefer brands that are well known and highly advertised. In addition, people may choose brands without even knowing the brand properly. Further, Keum et al. (2004) define brand

consciousness as placing importance on brands and learning about them (Nelson and Devanthan, 2006).

Brand consciousness is also referred to in the literature as brand sensitivity (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985). Lachance et al. (2003, p.48) argue that, *"brand sensitivity means that brands play an important role in the psychological process that precedes the buying act"*.

The following discussion stresses that brand consciousness explains the formation of the bond between consumers and brands through psychological influence. Moreover, Nelson and Devanthan (2006) argue that brand consciousness explains how consumers develop attention, involvement or interest in particular brands. Nelson and Devanthan (2006) emphasise that brand consciousness is related to a tendency to be attuned or conscious of a brand, and this leads to recalling the brand name in other contexts. According to discussion, brand consciousness performs an important role during the formation of tendency.

There are several different approaches to studying brand consciousness. For example, Kapferer and Laurent (1985) study brand consciousness as a concept to manage brands. Shim et al. (1995) and Lachance et al. (2003) study the concept as a way to understand consumers' socialisation process. d'Astous and Gargouri (2001) and Gentry et al. (2001) use brand consciousness as a method to capture how consumers feel or process information related to imitation brands.

According to the literature, consumers prefer particular brands as a result of advertisements, socialisation and brand placement, which in turn influence the psychological process of consumption (Nelson and McLeod, 2005; Meyer and Anderson, 2000). Consumers not only consider the brands for their functional utility, but also consider psychological utility received from the brand (Nelson and McLeod, 2005; Meyer and Anderson, 2000; Nelson and Devanathan, 2006). Moreover, Gentry et al. (2001) mention that brand consciousness is not the same for each individual and it should be understood that it may vary from individual to individual. This construct argues that psychological processes have significant impact on consumption and alter the perception of consumers towards brands. This antecedent examines the influential role of brands that are recalled unconsciously.

Liao and Wang (2009, p.991) mention that, *"consumers with high levels of brand consciousness believe that brands are symbols of status and prestige, and thus prefer purchasing expensive and well-known brand name product"*. This argument suggests brand consciousness explains how consumers change their consumption pattern, and a stronger bond emerges with brands that define a different meaning, such as status or prestige. According to Liao and Wang (2009) and Nelson and Devanthan (2006), it can be suggested that brand consciousness enables consumers to remember a particular brand more, pay more attention to it, show more interest in a brand, and this alters decisions towards others brands. When consumers have high levels of brand consciousness an existing tendency to talk is formed towards those brands. On this basis, and in the context of this research, brand consciousness seems to explain consumers' bond with a brand, and why particular brands are engaged in brand-related talk more than the other brands.

Brand consciousness, in the present research, enables the investigation of the relationship and influence of advertisements, products placements, socialisation and recalling brands unconsciously, in process of generating a tendency to talk about brands. On this basis, it is hypothesised that:

H6: Brand consciousness will positively impact brand talkability

The following model (Figure 1) and table (Table 3) provide a visual illustration of the impact of brand and consumer related antecedents of brand talkability. Table 3 summarizes the key antecedents, highlighting their definitions and role in brand talkability.

Table 3 Antecedents of Brand Talkability

| Antecedents	Definition	Role in Brand Talkability
Brand Characteristics		
Brand Equity	"a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers" (Aaker, 1991, p.15).	Through four dimensions, it enables the classification of brands based on their equity and interprets how consumers perceive the brand.
Brand Engagement	"An individual difference representing consumers' propensity to include important brands as a part of how they view themselves" (Sprott et al., 2009, p.92).	Identifies influential power of the brands.
Brand Experience	"Subjective, internal consumer responses (sensations, feelings, and cognitions) and behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity packaging, communications and environments" (Brakus et al., 2009, p.53).	Identifies how consumers form tendency to talk without any connection to the brand through behavioural response evoked by brand-related stimuli.
Consumer Characteristics		
Involvement	"A person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interest" (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p.342).	Identifies the relationship with the brand formed through interest, personal relevance and psychological connection and its role on the formation of tendency.
Opinion Leadership	"The individuals who were likely to influence other persons in their immediate environment" (Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955, p.3).	Identifies the influence of opinion leadership on tendency to talk and its impact on the tendency.
Brand Consciousness	"Brands play an important role in the psychological process that precedes the buying act" (Nelson and McLeod, 2005, p.518).	Identifies how the psychological process influences the formation of tendency to talk about a particular brand.
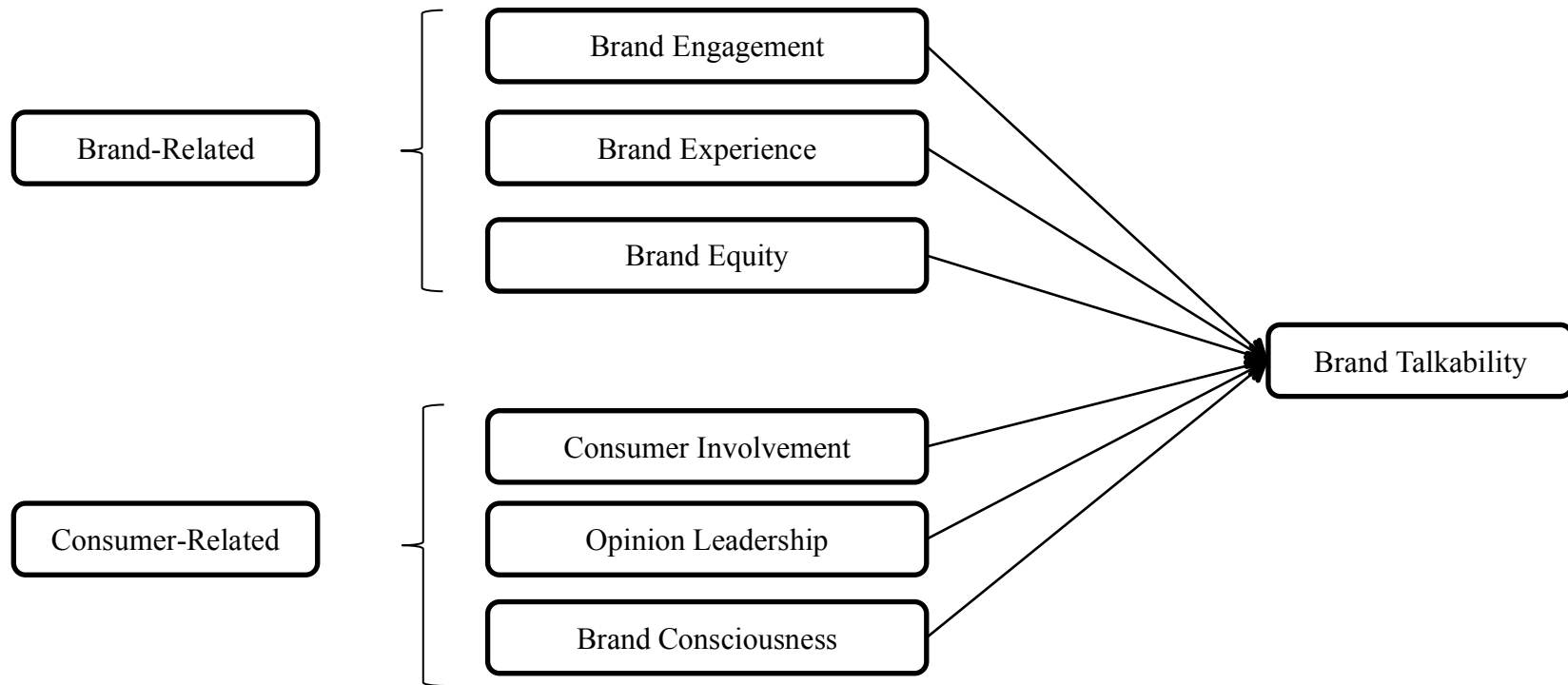
Figure 1: Brand Talkability Concept and Antecedents

Chapter 4: Methodology and Research Design

4. Research Philosophy

4.1. Positivism

The present research aims to conceptualise and create a measure for a new construct, that of brand talkability, and at the same time investigates its antecedents. To this end, a positivist approach to research has been adopted.

Bryman and Bell (2008, p.13) defines positivism as "*an epistemological position that advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond*". Bryman and Bell (2008) argues that there are a number of different approaches to positivism. For some authors, it is a descriptive category (it describes a philosophical position, which can be discerned in research). For others, it is pejorative term used to describe crude and superficial data collection (Bryman and Bell, 2008). Saunders et al. (2012) emphasise that positivism uses existing knowledge and theories to construct hypotheses. Further, positivism enables researchers to construct law-like generalisations similar to physical and natural sciences (Remenyi et al., 1998; Saunders et al., 2012). According to Saunders et al. (2009, p.103) *"only phenomena that can be observed will lead to the production of credible data"*. According to Lewis-Beck et al. (2004) and Bryman and Bell (2008) positivism enables the construct of brand talkability through generalisation which, positivism argues that, scientific theories are general laws like statements and these laws summarise observations by specifying the relationship between phenomena (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004). With regard to brand talkability research, positivism enables it to identify and test the relationship between brand talkability and the antecedents that

can be generalised, and produce credible data. Moreover, Lewis-Beck et al. (2004) argue that positivism as a research philosophy emphasises that knowledge has to be based on experience by an observer that can be perceived via their senses.

In the context of the present research, a set of hypotheses are constructed based on knowledge derived from an in-depth literature review, which highlighted key concepts, relevant to the concept of brand talkability. A deductive approach is adopted to test these hypotheses and is discussed below.

4.2. Deductive Approach

A deductive approach refers to a way to derive particular statements from general statements (Bryman and Bell, 2011). This approach is preferred to test theory; a hypothesis is deduced from theory and is tested through relevant data, and subsequently the hypothesis is rejected or accepted according to the data (Lewis-Beck, 2004). Bryman and Bell (2011, p.714) defines deductive approach as "*an approach to the relationship theory and research in which the latter is conducted with reference to hypotheses and ideas inferred from the former*". Similarly, a deductive approach is defined by Saunders et al. (2009, p.590) as "*research approach involving the testing of a theoretical proposition by the employment of a research strategy specifically designed for the purpose of its testing*". Moreover, Saunders et al. (2009, p.61) mention that a "*deductive approach develops a theoretical or conceptual framework, which you subsequently test using data*".

The deductive approach is a part of hypothetico-deductive methods that are associated with Karl Popper's (1959) falsificationism. Popper (1959) supports the deductive

approach over the inductive approach, and argues that observation does not provide a reliable foundation for scientific theories. Popper (1959) suggests that data collection is selective and involves the observer's interpretation. Moreover, the author argues that the aim of the science is to falsify the proposed theories. Theories that pass the testing process cannot be accepted as absolutely true, there is a possibility that further testing may alter the results (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004).

4.3. Hypothetico-Deductive Method

The hypothetico-deductive method is defined as a method that, "*involves obtaining or developing a theory, from which a hypothesis is logically deduced, to provide a possible answer to a 'why' research question is associated with a particular research problem*" (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004, p.486). The hypothesis is tested through comparison of appropriate data from the context in which a problem is investigated (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004). This method is introduced as an opposition to induction and generalisation by observation as a scientific method. As an opposite to induction this method is associated with positivism. According to Lewis-Beck et al. (2004) and Popper (1972), scientific inquiry that is conducted by a hypothesis can be falsified by a test using observable data. The researcher generates a set of hypotheses according to observations and predictions, in order to identify a new concept. This enables the researcher to generate testable, realistic hypotheses, which can be falsified (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004; Blaikie, 1993; Popper, 1972).

In the context of this research, a hypothetico-deductive method was utilised, (Godfrey-Smith, 2003, p.236), where hypotheses were formulated following an

extensive review of the literature on word of mouth communication and related constructs. Hypotheses are then tested and deduced following primary data collection.

4.4.Methodology

4.4.1. Sampling

The present research uses non-probability samples both focus groups interviews and online surveys discussed in detail in the following sections. According to Saunders et al. (2009, p.213) a non-probability sample is defined as a sampling method where "*the probability of each case being selected from the total population is not known and it is impossible to answer research questions or to address objectives that require you to make statistical inference about the characteristics of the population*". Malhota and Birks (2007) mention that snowballing enables the targeting of the desired characteristics of the targeted population. Moreover, the sample size is carried out person-to-person and leads to similar demographic characteristics (Malhota and Birks, 2007).

This study focuses on the population who talk about brands in an online social media environment. However, the population is nearly impossible to estimate; participants have opportunities to share the survey with others, and this makes it harder to generate a population number. According to Malhota and Birks (2007), snowballing enables the sampling of a population that is rare in the wider population. Furthermore, Saunders et al. (2009) mention that snowballing is a non-probability, sampling results with similar characteristics in the sample size. In addition, snowballing, as mentioned above, involves attracting potential respondents though referrals (O'Leary, 2010). This method is also emphasised by Bryman and Bell (2011), who mentions that this

method leads to discovering more participants who have experience and knowledge with the research topic.

Furthermore, to meet the research objectives data collection has to be conducted with small groups who are information-rich. This leads to exploring the research questions and providing theoretical insights, which strengthens the use of non-probability sampling, and is supported by Saunders et al. (2009) and Malhota and Birks (2007).

Moreover, Saunders et al. (2009) mention that snowball sampling enables samples with similar characteristics that match the expectations of the research to be obtained. The present research is concerned with why people talk about brands, and it is expected to have a sample population who are interested in brands and have a tendency to talk about brands. Lastly, as the research is focused on online social media sites, the expected age profile is mainly 18 to 25, and over 25 years old. In terms of sample sizes, the expected sample size for the focus group interviews should be no less than 20 participants. Furthermore, the online surveys should have at least 500 responses in total.

The online surveys are categorised into two groups. The first survey includes only scale items for brand talkability and the second survey includes scale items and the antecedents of brand talkability. Each surveys is planned to receive 250 responses. The focus group interviews were planned to be conducted at the University of Birmingham, and the participants were students, due to the time restriction of the research.

The online surveys were designed for a wider audience. Therefore, the sampling of the online surveys is not limited. Unlike focus groups, the online surveys are not constricted by a limited environment. Anyone who could access the online surveys was expected to participate. Thus, this sample leads to providing a broader perspective whilst testing the relationship between the antecedents and the brand talkability.

Sample Design

The samples for the focus group interviews were facilitated from students of the University of Birmingham. In literature, student samples are often criticised as they lack external validity (Bello et al. 2009; Wintre et al. 2001). For this research students were the ideal sample for the research for several reasons.

Student samples provide different types of demographic in the same environment such as level of income, age, and educational background. Online social media is used by different social groups. However, accessing different social groups is limited by the timeframe of the research. Therefore, a student sample is considered as a representation of online social media users. On the other hand, a student sample constitutes a higher education level than most other users. Moreover, this provides more accurate and realistic outcomes for the research. Due to a higher education level, students are also better able to understand the terminology used during the interviews compared to other social groups (Ueltschy et al., 2004).

No restrictions were made on gender, background, age, year of education or any other factor. In the University of Birmingham, students who do not speak English as their first language have to fulfil minimum English language entry requirements for their

application. Thus, during the data collection process, all participants understood the questions and responded with appropriate answers.

4.4.2. Qualitative Research

Mason (1996) and Lewis-Beck et al. (2004, p.893) argue that qualitative research is concerned with how human beings understand experience, interpret and produce the social world. Additionally, Saunders et al. (2009) argue that qualitative research collects and generates non-numerical and verbal data. Qualitative research has been adopted in this study in the form of focus groups, and as a part of the scale development process, undertaken to create a scale of brand talkability (Churchill, 1979).

4.4.3.1.Focus Groups

The scale development process was in line with the guidelines of Churchill (1979), that involved as a first stage the collection of qualitative data that is achieved by focus groups interviews, and a subsequent collection of quantitative data achieved via online surveys. Focus groups are defined by Bryman and Bell (2011, p.714) as "*a form of group interview in which: there are several participants; there is an emphasis in the questioning on a particular fairly tightly defined topic; and the emphasis is upon interaction within the group and the joint construction of meaning*". The main advantage of focus group research is the opportunity to interview individuals who are known to understand the research subject and provide meaningful responses (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Bryman and Bell (2011) also emphasise that focus groups allow the researcher to develop an understanding of why people feel a certain way about the research subject.

Within the context of the present research, six focus groups were conducted to enable the identification of the concept of brand talkability, its nature and the antecedents. Additionally, participants of the focus groups enable us to understand how they form a tendency to talk about a brand, and what concerns influence them.

Focus groups interviews enable participants to interact with each other, and revise or modify their views according to the discussion (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Moreover, enrichment of the focus groups discussion increase the quality of the data collected, leading to more accurate outcomes (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Another important advantage of focus groups are that issues that were not mentioned before may emerge from the discussion.

Bryman and Bell (2011) emphasise that a focus group challenges each participant with each other, and researchers have the opportunity to end up with more realistic accounts of what participants think, as they are forced to think and revise their views. Moreover, Bryman and Bell (2011, p.370) mention that, *"focus group research makes sense of a phenomenon and construct meanings around it"*. For the present research, interviews with focus groups enables the research to identify meanings that are associated with the participants, and use these meanings while constructing the measurement scale.

Recruitment of Focus Group Participants

The recruitment of the participants for the focus groups interviews was conducted at the campus of University of Birmingham. Prior to the interview, students studying at various departments were approached and asked if they wished to take part in a focus discussion. The date and the time were mutually agreed with the participants and full disclosure regarding the subject of the study was offered in line with the university's ethical guidelines for research conduct. Thus, participants were fully aware about the topic and purpose of the research prior to their participation.

Six focus groups were conducted with 26 participants, which took approximately 45 to 60 minutes each. A focus group protocol was used, and the discussions were recorded via Apple iPhone's built-in voice recorder application. Participants signed a consent form and were told about their right of withdraw from the study at any time, and about how the data would be stored and used. At the beginning of each focus group, the researcher explained to the participants the purpose of the research, how the data would be used, and the structure of the discussion. Participants were then asked to provide demographic information. The next step involved questions about brand talkability. As brand talkability is a new concept, the discussion revolved around the meaning and a definition of this concept (Churchill, 1979). Discussion also aimed to explore how participants engage with brands and talk about them, and in what contexts (if any). Participants were not restricted with any pre-defined answers, the researcher encouraged participants to discuss and express the opinion freely.

4.4.4. Quantitative Research

Quantitative research focuses on collecting numerical data through surveys, and testing through statistical methods (Saunders et al., 2009). The present research uses quantitative methods; specifically, online survey to collect data, analyse and test the formulated hypotheses (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004).

4.4.4.1.Online Survey

Bryman and Bell (2011, p.54) define survey research as research that, "*comprises a cross-sectional design in relation to which data are collected, predominantly by questionnaire or by structured interview, on more than one case and a single point in time, in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables, which are then examined to detect patterns of association*". Saunders et al. (2009) argue that a survey is associated with a deductive approach and it is a popular way to collect large amounts of data from a sizeable population in an efficient way. Furthermore, online web surveys "*operate by inviting prospective respondents to visit a websites at which the questionnaire can be found and completed online*" (Bryman and Bell, 2011, p.662). Bryman and Bell (2011) outline the advantages and disadvantages of online web surveys as follows:

1) Low Cost: Online surveys eliminate the cost of printing, posting, paper, envelopes, and the time taken to achieve the task; the only cost for an online survey is the web-based survey application.

2) Faster response: Online surveys tend to receive a higher response rate.

3) Attractive formats: Web-based surveys provide the opportunity to apply attractive design, automatic skip according to response and immediate download of responses.

4) Unrestricted compass: There are no constraints in terms of geographical locations; online surveys can reach potential respondents located anywhere, and more quickly than a mailed survey.

5) Fewer unanswered questions: It is known that online surveys receive fewer unanswered questions than postal surveys. During the design process of online surveys researchers may indicate compulsory answers thus reducing unanswered questions.

6) Better response to open questions: It is believed that open questions are more likely to be answered in online surveys.

7) Environment: Online surveys reduce the amount of paper used for printing and posting; therefore, an online survey is more environmentally friendly. In addition, Saunders et al. (2012) mention that data input for online surveys is automatically done by the software. This saves an important amount of time for the researcher.

Further, Bryman and Bell (2011) also outline disadvantages of the online web surveys:

1) Access to the Internet is still limited to only certain number of people and some parts of the world still have no internet connection.

2) Email invitations to take part can be identified as spam or nuisance emails.

3) There is a loss of personal touch, lack of human interaction between the participants and the researcher.

4) Concerns regarding data protection and the risk of hacking and fraud.

In the context of this research, two online surveys were conducted to meet the objectives of the research: specifically, 1) to develop and validate a scale of brand talkability and 2) to investigate the impact of a set of antecedents on brand talkability. In spite of the above disadvantages, the online method of administering the surveys was due to the quick data collection time. However, the disadvantages outlined by Bryman and Bell (2011) were taken into consideration in designing the surveys. For example, for both surveys, email invitations to potential participants were sent by the University so the emails were not filtered as spam. An active hypertext link was included in the email which invited different participants to visit the webpage to complete a survey. Also, the surveys were facilitated by Bristol Online Surveys which provide globally accepted and reliable 128-bit encryption for the collected data. Therefore no personal data was stored during the survey and each participant remained anonymous.

Additionally, in order to meet the expected number of responses and reach a wider audience, the surveys were advertised separately on multiple online and social media platforms. Social media is heavily used by many people and the chance of attracting more responses to questionnaires is dramatically increased through the 'share' facility provided by these platforms, therefore enabling maximum exposure and increased response rates. Furthermore, the risk of the questionnaire being regarded as spam is minimized due to the 'share' process, also conducted by the researcher's personal accounts on Facebook and Twitter. Thus, the participants can see the researcher's profile and may contact the researcher for further information if they wish. An individual Facebook page was created to increase the number respondents from the researcher's friend list. On Twitter, online questionnaires were shared frequently with

specific keywords to attract attention and encourage users to complete the questionnaire. While sharing the questionnaire on social media platforms increases the number of responses, the researcher does not have control over the demographics of the respondents.

Moreover, the surveys were also posted separately on online forum groups, starting with thestudentroom.co.uk (the largest student forum in UK education), PistonHeads.com (one of the largest European automotive based forums) and Finalgear.com (an American based automotive and automotive media forum). Links to the online surveys were also placed on the Facebook pages of various universities, and users were asked to complete the questionnaires. The surveys remained open for two months until adequate responses were collected. As a completion incentive, participants were offered the chance to enter into a competition to win one £50 Amazon voucher.

The surveys were facilitated by Bristol Online Surveys which provides globally accepted and reliable 128-bit encryption for the collected data. Therefore no personal data was stored during the survey and each participant remained anonymous. An active hypertext link was used to also advertise the surveys in order to meet the expected number of responses, on multiple online platforms including Facebook and online forums.

Both surveys included closed-end responses structure. Closed-ended responses consist of various forms such as Yes/No, Likert-type scales, semantic differentials and multiple-answers questions (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004; Tourangeau et al., 2000)

Moreover, closed-end responses enable researchers to employ statistical analyses more effectively and accurately. When participants are asked to respond to closed-end responses their chances to respond with irrelevant answers are eliminated (Krosnick, 1999). Furthermore, the participants interpret and understand the questions better by checking closed-end answers.

Brand Talkability Online Survey 1

The first online survey was designed for scale development purposes and tool 5-8 minutes to complete. The anticipated number of responses was 250 as already mentioned above (section 4.4.1). Survey 1 (See. App 7 page 147) included items measuring brand talkability derived from the focus groups phase of the research and as part of the scale development process (Churchill, 1979) discussed in chapter 5. In addition to the items capturing brand talkability, the questionnaire included demographic questions. Participants who responded to this survey did not respond the second survey, as the surveys were advertised separately using different web links and were posted in different social media space. This strategy was adopted for reliability and validity purposes. A 5-Likert type response scale from 1-5 was preferred.

The online questionnaire began by informing the participants how the data would be used, data protection, aim and definition of the research, and their right to withdraw from the research. When participants clicked 'next' the conditions were accepted by those participants agreeing to take part in the research. The following section asked questions about brand talkability; these questions were subjected to be the measurement items of the brand talkability and, generated from the focus groups interviews.

Brand Talkability Online Survey 2

Similar to the first survey, the second survey (See. App 7 page 147) aimed to collect 250 responses. The second survey included the same items (as survey 1) of brand talkability, but also items measuring the hypothesised brand and consumer antecedents of brand talkability. These included the antecedents of involvement, brand consciousness, opinion leadership, brand equity, brand engagement and brand experience. Similar to survey 1, Likert–type response scales ranging from 1 to 5 were used. Given the nature of the hypothesised antecedents as product/brand specific (e.g. involvement/brand equity, etc.), survey 2 was administered within specific product/brand contexts. The discussion of the measures included in the questionnaires is presented below.

4.5. Questionnaire Measures

The literature review discussed in section (2.3) identifies a set of constructs hypothesised as antecedents of brand talkability. In particular these include brand and consumer antecedents which are conceptualised in the extent literature as product or brand specific (e.g. product involvement). The measures of these constructs were included in the online survey 2 only.

Brand Equity

Existing literature offers various brand equity measurements and each individual measure is focused on a particular perspective. According to Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2010), the measurement scale of Yoo and Donthu (2001) is reliable. It has the least number of weaknesses and most strengths compared to other measures. Yoo and Donthu's (2001) scale for consumer-based brand equity can be applied to

different product categories without additional adjustments. This scale consists of six items: brand loyalty, perceived quality, and brand awareness/associations. The reported Cronbach's α coefficient is 0.70, and the scale comprises 14 items measured on a 5-likert-type scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree) in a specific product/brand context (Yoo and Donthu, 2001).

Involvement

In marketing literature there are several commonly used involvement measures. According to Michaelidou and Dibb (2008), Zaichkowsky's (1985) measure of enduring involvement is one of the earliest and most popular in the literature. Zaichkowsky's (1985) includes 20 semantic differential items with a reported Cronbach α coefficient value of 0.88 (Bearden et al., 2011). Even though Zaichkowsky's involvement measure was introduced more than two decades ago, it is commonly accepted by many scholars and cited in recent research papers (Bearden et al., 2011; Prendergast et al., 2010; Bezencon and Blili, 2008). As involvement measures the level of importance of a particular product class to an individual, the measure is expected to be applied within specific product context. The semantic differential items were measured using a 5-point scale.

Brand Engagement

To measure brand engagement items were derived from Sportt et al.'s (2009). The scale includes 8 items measured on a 5-point scale within a specific brand context. However, Goldsmith et al. (2011, p.280) mention that the brand engagement scale of Sprott et al. (2009) is *"reported an absence of gender differences for brand engagement and no relationship with age or social desirability response bias"*.

Despite this disadvantage, there is no other measurement for brand engagement published in the extant literature and this emphasised by Goldsmith et al. (2011); also, its reported Cronbach value of 0.94 indicates that the scale is highly reliable.

Brand Experience

To measure brand experience, a scale is adopted from Brakus et al. (2009). The scale includes 12 items capturing experience with specific brands, and the reported Cronbach's α value ranges from 0.76 to 0.83 across the dimensions. The scale is 5-point likert-type scale where the lowest level is defined as 'strongly disagree and highest level is defined as 'strongly agree' and through four different brands. This scale measures brand experience through four dimensions: sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioural (Brakus et al., 2009).

Opinion Leadership

Flynn et al.'s (1996) scale is commonly used by scholars to measure opinion leadership and is categorised into a two-factor structure: opinion leadership and opinion seeking. However, the present research is concerned with only opinion leadership, therefore, 11 items with a reported Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.86 were included in the online survey 2. Items are measured on a scale of 1 to 5 (strongly disagree-strongly agree) within a specific product context.

Brand Consciousness

The present research uses Nelson and McLeod's (2005) scale to measure brand consciousness. This scale is specifically designed for clothing brands; therefore, the items were adapted to the context of the present research. Nelson and McLeod (2005)

emphasise that some of the items in the scale are similar to Kapferer and Laurent's (1988) Brand Sensitivity Scale. The brand consciousness scale measures the perception of quality, cost and coolness. This scale consist of 7 items and a 5-likert scale, with lowest level being strongly disagree, and the highest level, strongly agree within a specific product context (Nelson and McLeod, 2005). Additionally, the scale achieved a reported Cronbach's α coefficient of 0.89.

Table 4 Table of Antecedents' Measures

Antecedent	Item	Scale Levels	Cronbach's α Coefficient	Author
Brand Equity	14	5 (Strongly Disagree – Strongly Agree)	0.70	Yoo and Donthu (2001)
Involvement	20	7 (Low Involvement – High Involvement)	0.88	Zaichkowsky (1985)
Brand Engagement	8	7 (Strongly Disagree – Strongly Agree	0.94	Sprott et al. (2009)
Brand Experience	12	7 (Not At All Descriptive – Extremely Descriptive)	0.76 – 0.83	Brakus et al. (2009)
Opinion Leadership	11	7 (Higher Number Stronger Agreement)	0.86	Flynn et al. (1996)
Brand Consciousness	7	5 (Strongly Disagree – Strongly Agree	0.86	Nelson and McLeod (2005)

4.5.4. Product Context

Given that one of the objectives of this research is to examine antecedents of brand talkability, a product context needs to be considered since brand and consumer antecedents identified in the context of this research are conceptualised by extant literature as product or brand specific. To this end, aforementioned measures included in online survey 2 should be gauged by specific product categories and brands in line with literature.

The choice of the product categories, in the context of this research, is based on the Rossiter-Percy product categorisation (Rossiter et al., 2000). The authors' categorise products according to whether they are transformational or informational, however the scheme low versus high equity was also used. These categories are defined as transformational brands that, *"promise to enhance the brand user by effecting a transformation in the brand user's sensory, mental, or social state"* (Rossiter et al., 1991, p.16). Additionally, Rossiter et al. (1991, p.16) define informational brands as *"motivations that can be satisfied by providing information about the brand or the product"*. Moreover, a Rossiter-Percey grid is preferred to place the brands clearly based on their equity and category (Rossiter et al., 1987). A Rossiter-Percey grid is a 2x2 table that enables products/brands to be categorised into transformational and informational, classified on their equity. On this basis, four brands were selected within two different product classes. Within the informational product category, passenger vehicles were selected, whereas within the transformational product category, perfumes were selected. The decision to select passenger cars was also based on the fact that on social media, cars are one of the popular topics. Blogs such as Jalopnik.com, WorldCarFans.com, MotorAuthority.com, SlashDrive.tv, PistonHeads.com are the major and growing social media platforms related with car topics.

Additionally, cars and perfumes are products which attract both men and women and therefore they represent an appropriate product context for this research. However, the selection of the product categories was also revisited in the focus group data collection phase of this research and the decision to use these two product classes was further reinforced (See section 5.1.2).

In terms of brands, Mercedes-Benz and Kia were preferred. Mercedes-Benz represents a high equity car. This is emphasised by the positioning of the brand, the targeted consumer group and pricing strategy. Kia represents a low equity car, which is identified through the price of product range, and the positioning of brand and marketing campaigns targeted to particular consumer groups. This information was gathered through both Mercedes-Benz and Kia's annual reports and press release information (Daimler AG, 2010; Kia Motors, 2010).

Mercedes-Benz offers a wide range of products from small family cars (A-Class) to large luxury saloon (S-Class). The entire product range is priced higher than any of its competitors and consumers have to sacrifice a significant amount of money to purchase a Mercedes-Benz passenger vehicle. Mercedes-Benz represents a symbol of wealth, safety and high technology. In contrast, Kia offers a wide range of products, which are relatively cheaper than its competitors and target a wider range of consumers. Consumers do not have to sacrifice significant amounts of money to own a Kia. The Kia brand is not associated with wealth; the brand offers reasonable technology that is adequate to compete within its market.

Furthermore, within the transformational/emotional product category, perfumes were selected: Chanel and Zara. Chanel represents a high equity brand while Zara is viewed as a low equity brand. Chanel's brand position, targeted audience and pricing lead to higher equity. While Zara brand's position, pricing strategy and targeted audience lead to lower equity. The information to interpret the brands was based on their annual reports and press release information (Inditex, 2010; Chanel, 2010). The

Chanel brand has been associated with the No.5 perfume for decades. However, Chanel does not limit its perfume range one product, it offers a wide range of products for both males and females. All of its products are significantly more expensive than its competitors, and it is regarded as a more respected, classic brand than its competitors. Zara offers perfume products with reasonable prices. Unlike Chanel, it does not have a long history in this business. Zara offers a wide range of products for both genders. However, none of the Zara perfumes are well-known like Chanel No.5. Zara offers reasonable quality with relatively lower prices.

Table 5 Brands Classification (Adapted from Rossiter and Percy, 1987)

	Informational Brands	Transformational Brands
Low Equity	Kia	Zara
High Equity	Mercedes-Benz	Chanel

4.6. Validity

Churchill (1999, p.452) defines validity as "*the extent to which differences in scores on it reflect true differences among individuals on the characteristic we seek to measure, rather than constant or random errors*". According to Lewis-Beck et al. (2004), there are three types of validity: criterion-related validity, content validity and construct validity. Each of these types has a unique way of validating the measure within its own limitations.

Lewis-Beck et al. (2004, p.1171) define this type of validity as "*a measure is said to be relatively valid if it accurately predicts the results on some other, external measure, or criterion*". Criterion-related type validity is divided into two: present and predictive. Present validity is correlated with current measure and predictive validity

is involved with predicting a future outcome or criterion (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004; Churchill, 1999).

Content validity focuses "*on the extent to which a particular empirical measurement reflects a specific domain of content*" (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004, p.1171). In addition, Churchill (1999, p.454) defines content validity as focusing on "*the adequacy with which the domain of the characteristic is captured by the measure*". The last type of validity is construct validity and focuses on "*the extent to which a measure performs according to theoretical expectations*" (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004, p.1172). Churchill (1999, p.455) argues that construct validity "*is most directly concerned with the question of what the instrument is, in fact, measuring*".

According to Lewis-Beck et al. (2004), assessing construct validity in research involves with three steps. First, the theoretical relationship between constructs must be specified. Second, the empirical relationship between the measures of the constructs must be examined. Third, the empirical relationship evidence must be interpreted in terms of how it clarifies the construct validity of the particular measure (Lewis-Beck, 2004, p.1172). Moreover, scholars mention that discriminant validity is a sub category of construct validity. Hair et al. (2009, p.771) define the discriminant validity as the extent "*to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs*". Furthermore, Michel and Rieunier (2012) conduct discriminant validity for the measurement scale development process and this is supported by Hair et al. (2009). In the context of this research, it is planned to conduct discriminant validity for the validity stage of the measurement scale.

4.7. Reliability

According to Lewis-Beck et al. (2004, p.952) reliability *"informs researchers about the relative amount of random inconsistency or unsystematic fluctuation of individual responses on a measure"*. Another definition of reliability, by Churchill (1999, p.408), refers to reliability as assessing "*the issue of the similarity of results provided by independent but comparable measures of the same object, trait, or construct*". Therefore, reliability is an important indicator for a measure's quality as it determines the inconsistencies in measurement (Churchill, 1999). Although reliability is not sufficient for the validity of a measure, the reliability of a measure is necessary to support the construct validity of the measure (Churchill, 1999).

In order to estimate the reliability of a scale, the effects of random errors on a measure, standard errors of measurement, and estimation of reliability can be conducted (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004). The reliability tests were conducted via SPSS statistics software.

4.8. Scale Development

The development of a new scale for brand talkability is constructed based on Churchill's (1979) procedure for measurement scales, and follows the structure from Michel and Rieunier (2012) for the analyses (exploratory factor analyses, confirmatory factor analyses, reliability and validity). Churchill's (1979) scale development is widely accepted in literature (Hair et al., 2009; Netemeyer et al., 2003) and it is constructed in four main stages: 1) the domain of the construct is specified; 2) the generation of sample items; 3) purification of the measure; and 4) assessing reliability and validity with new data. These stages are explained below and include the discussion pertaining to the data collection and analysis.

4.8.1. Domain Specification

The present research focuses on a new concept that does not exist in the present literature. In order to construct this new concept, a reliable scale is necessary to measure different levels of brand talkability. However, there are no existing scales to capture brand talkability; therefore, the present study will construct a new scale.

Existing antecedents of word of mouth do not explain the behaviour of consumers' tendency to talk about a particular brand. Commonly accepted antecedents are mainly concentrated on involvement, concern for others, risk reduction, loyalty and satisfaction. However, all these antecedents have one common approach; word of mouth is related to consumption. On the other hand, consumers do talk about brands they cannot afford to buy, and they prefer to talk about these brands instead of affordable brands.

Brand characteristics include brand equity, brand engagement and brand experience. Consumer characteristics include involvement, opinion leadership and brand consciousness. Involvement is defined as *"a casual motivating variable with a number of consequences on the consumer's purchase and communication behaviour"* (Kapferer and Laurent, 1985, p.42). Opinion leadership are defined as *"the individuals who were likely to influence other persons in their immediate environment"* (Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955, p.3). Nelson and Devanathan (2006, p.214) define brand consciousness as *"the degree to which a consumer notices or uses brands as information important to purchase decisions"*. Consumer-based equity is defined as *"the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand"* (Keller, 1993, p.2). Brand experience is defined as *"subjective, internal consumer responses (sensations, feelings, and cognitions) as*

well as behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications and environment" (Brakus et al., 2009, p.53). Brand engagement is defined as *"an individual difference representing consumers' propensity to include important brands as a part of how they view themselves"* (Sprott et al., 2009, p.92).

4.8.2. Generation of Sample of Items

Item generation is the second stage of scale development (Churchill, 1979). The items capturing brand talkability were generated by an extensive review of the literature. While brand talkability refers to consumers' tendency to talk about brand beyond consumption, for purposes of content validity items were also generated which captured consumers' tendencies to talk about brands they experience, own and consume. This also emerged during the focus group interviews, (See section 5.1.3) and also reinforces the decision to not exclude consumers tendencies to talk about brands they own, consume and experience from measure, and which ensure content and subsequently construct validity of the scale. The initial pool of items was based as already mentioned above on an extensive literature review of related literature, on word of mouth and other theoretically relevant concepts, which provide the platform for a starting point. This process resulted in 26 items for the measurement scale of brand talkability. Table 6 (page 76) shows the items of brand talkability.

4.8.3. Item Purification

This the third stage to construct a scale by Churchill (1979). In this stage the items will be eliminated according to factor analyses conducted in the previous stage. Churchill (1979, p.68) emphasises that *"each item can be expected to have a certain amount of distinctiveness or specificity even though it relates to the concept"*.

The internal consistency of the items is determined through Cronbach's alpha coefficient. This measure explains the consistency of the items related to the concept. It also calculates the quality of the instruments (Churchill, 1979). Thus, a low coefficient alpha indicates that items are not able to perform well enough to capture the construct. On the other hand, a large alpha indicates those items are well correlated with the construct (Churchill, 1979).

In line with previous research focusing on scale development (e.g. Michel and Rieunier 2012), the purification process within the context of this research involved: a) focus group interviews, b) exploratory factor analyses, followed by c) confirmatory factor analyses. First, focus group interviews provided qualitative data for the purification process. In this stage, the items generated via the literature review process were reduced to 16 (See section 5.1.3). Subsequently to this stage, the two surveys were conducted which provided the quantitative data used in the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. In this phase, the scale was further reduced to 11 based on statistical criteria (See sections 5.2.2) (e.g. for example cross-loading between items) in line with Hair et al., (2009).

Table 6 Proposed Items for Brand Talkability (N=26) Derived from the Literature

Item Numbers	Scale Items
1	I consider myself loyal to x brand for when it is talking.
2	I prefer x brand as the first brand while talking.
3	The experience with brands creates a propensity towards them.
4	Using x brand makes me talk about it and share my thoughts.
5	Owning x brand makes me talk about it and share my thoughts.
6	I like to talk about the brands I wish to own.
7	I talk about a brand if I am going to buy it.
8	I never talk about a brand, if I am not going to buy it.
9	I have a propensity to talk about the brands I am aware of.
10	The characteristics of brands create a propensity to talk.
11	News, blogs, articles create a propensity to talk about that particular brand more.
12	I always talk about the same brands.
13	My bond with brands leads me to talk about them continuously.
14	Brands that are part of my life, I prefer to talk about them more.
15	Personal connection with the brands is a good reason to talk.
16	Talking about particular brands indicates who I am, my knowledge, my awareness and my status.
17	Visual appearance of brands creates a propensity to talk.
18	Brands induce my feelings, leading me to talk about them.
19	I don't like to talk about brands.
20	I don't like to talk about brands all the time.
21	Emotional bonds with the brands leads me to talk about them.
22	I engage serious thinking when I talk about the brands and try to talk about particular ones.
23.	Curiosity about a brand leads me to talk about it. (Such as: Apple's new product launch strategy).
24	I talk about the brands mentioned in the mass media.
25	People in the media influence my propensity to talk about particular brands.
26	People in the media change my perception towards brands and I talk about them more.

Chapter 5: Analysis and Findings

5.1. Focus Groups

5.1.1. Participants Profile

As already discussed in the methodology chapter, six focus group interviews were conducted with 26 participants. The majority of the respondents (92%) were postgraduate students. Further, the majority of respondents (69%) were between 22 to 25 years of age, while 23% were over 25 years of age. Table 7 shows the demographic information of the focus groups' participants. (For all participants profiles, see App. 3)

Table 7 Demographics of Focus Groups Interviews (N=26)

Focus Group	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Female	13	50%
Male	13	50%
Age Group		
18 - 21	2	8%
22 - 25	18	69%
Over 25	6	23%
Level of Education		
Below Undergraduate	0	0%
Undergraduate	2	8%
Postgraduate	24	92%
Employment Status		
Full Time	0	0%
Part Time	0	0%
Student	26	100%
Unemployed	0	0%

5.1.2. Analysis

The following section discusses the analysis of the focus groups interviews. The initial pool of 26 items created during the literature review process (table 6, page 76) were used as a guide in conducting the focus group interviews. Analysis facilitated the purification of these items prior to the quantitative phase of the research. Vague and overlapping items were excluded while new items were introduced.

Data from the focus group interviews were analysed in two different stages: a) transcription of the recorded interviews, and b) coding the interviews and generating/purifying the items for brand talkability. Saunders et al. (2012) define the coding stages as recording the data using numerical codes. Thus, coding minimizes errors during the data entry stage. For the focus groups interviews, categorical data coding was preferred and Microsoft Word software was used. Saunders et al. (2012) mention that a coding scheme should be designed before the coding stage begins. The following task was to transcribe all interviews into a text document and present all the conversations. After this task, the transcripts were coded into factors, and items created for brand talkability. Moreover, the coding task revealed new items for brand talkability that were not generated during the research stage. The coding stage involved two stages (Strauss and Corbin, 1998): 1) open coding and axial coding, and 2) selective coding. In this research, these steps were conducted by the manual coding suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998). The initial stage of coding is called open and axial coding: reorganising the data, developing and organising core codes, and recognising the relationship between the data labels with each other (Saunders et al., 2012). Assigning labels to data that were relevant with each other, and exploring the issues, created the core codes for the interview. Moreover, the same codes were

applied to different parts of the transcripts, and codes were refined as the process continued. During the coding process, numeric index, data factor and alpha index values were generated to identify the common issues with different data and organise the coding.

5.1.3. Results

A number of themes emerged during the focus groups which enhanced the understanding of the reasons as to why consumers tend to talk about brands. Initially, participants were also asked if they talk about brands that they do not own or consume. All participants indicated that they talk about such brands. For example, participant A2 said, *"Yes, I talk about brands. Especially when I see a new pair shoes in a magazine, I immediately talk about them"*. Participant A2 clearly explained the stimulus to talk about a brand without any consumption concern. It seems that financial ability is not taken into account when discussing brands, which shows that brand talkability involves a tendency to talk about brands beyond consumption. Subsequently the motivations for talking about brands were explored and a number of themes emerged as follows.

Interesting and relevant brands

The majority of the participants indicated that they tend to talk about brands that they find interesting. For example, participant D1 states: *"Yes, a lot, because of their quality or anything interesting make me talk"*. Similarly, participant C1 indicates that "*if these things are interesting I would talk*", and participant C5 showed their enthusiasm in talking about interesting brands: "*interesting, count me in!*". Based on the responses from the participants from the focus groups interviews, the interesting

notion became very clear that, it is related with the brand talkability concept. While the participants were explaining how they generate a tendency to talk, they preferred to describe the generation of the tendency through the interesting notion. According to discussions, it can be assumed that if a brand offers something really interesting, it leads consumers to generate a tendency to talk. Additionally, some participants mentioned that they tend to talk about brands or products that they have a connection to or are relevant to them, including for example fashion and technology products. The participants in the B group session emphasised their interest to talk about fashion. Participants B1 and B2 mentioned that "we cannot afford to buy those brands, but love to talk about them". In addition, other members of the B session mentioned that most of the fashion brands are too expensive to buy but we can talk about them. B4 emphasised that "the nature of the fashion is expensive, people can't buy it but they talk about it". And participant B1 said "maybe the fashion business is new and they want us to talk about them". Furthermore, participants in the F session discussed technology and its impact on talking about technology brands. Participant F4 mentioned that "I like to talk about Sony products". And this participant repeated this couple of times during the sessions. Participant F5 emphasised that "I am crazy about phones and I like to talk about new technology most of the time". Participant F1 said "I am a Google and Facebook addict and I talk about them, their new technologies mostly". Furthermore, participant F5 mentioned about a new smart phone that was announced recently, during the session. The B and F sessions' participants highly emphasised the relationship of talking about a brand and fashion. According to their expressions, people can generate a tendency to talk about brand.

Brand conversations with others

The majority of participants suggested that their conversations with family or friends lead to brand-related talk. Participant A2 indicated "y*es I talk about brands with friends and family*". A4 mentioned "I like to talk about a brand new handbag or shoes with my parents; I know they won't buy but I still talk about them". In addition, participant A3 mentioned that "it is hard to avoid not talking about the brands with friends and family". Participant C1 contributed with "my sister talks about Louis Vuitton all the time, she wants it as a present but it would never happen!" A different approach was identified by participant C3, "I talk about the iPhone with friends and parents. Apple introduces a brand new one each year". Importance of advertisement was emphasised by participant F4: "I talk about the new and interesting advertisements, and also new gadgets and technology with friends". Other sessions also responded with similar statements, it was assumed that participants generate a tendency to talk about brands with friends and families. The focus group interviews emphasised the influential role of the brand in the social conversation between people. The tendency generated to talk about brands are beyond consumption, it can be assumed that brands are more important stimulus for generating a tendency rather than a consumption decision.

Furthermore, as expected, participants indicated that they tend to talk about brands on social media with others. When participants were asked to respond for the social media usage for the brand, sessions C, D and E said no with only one exception. Participants C1 and C2 mentioned that posting content related with brands on social media is not a good attitude. They don't see a point to talking about brands on social media when other people can see it. The majority of sessions A and B reiterated the

same argument and do not talk about brands on social media. However, only participant F4 mentioned the action of posting content related with brands on social media. The rest of the participants only mentioned the action of following brands.

Brands they own or wish to purchase

While brand talkability is conceptualised to refer to the tendency to talk about brands without consumption concern, existing literature shows the link between brand-related communication and purchase behaviour (Engel et al., 1993; de Matos and Rossi, 2008). Furthermore, Henning-Thurau et al. (2004) identifies a relationship between ownership, usage or willingness to own a brand and its impact on WoM. To this end and for the purpose of content validity, brand talk relevant to consumption and ownership was explored. Participants indicated that they talk about brands that they intend to buy or they currently own. For example, participants F1 and F3 mentioned that they talk about brands they own or wish to own, if there is a conversation. These findings complement previous research (Henning-Thurau et al. 2004) and suggest that consumers equally tend to talk about brands that they own or wish to buy in the future.

The second statement showed that participant A2 does generate tendency to talk through the social environment and when a photo of a brand is seen as well: '*I talk about brands when someone asks my opinion.*'

Based on the responses from the focus group interviews, some of the participants mentioned the statement of 'if someone asks my opinion', thus asking opinion acts as a stimulus to generate a tendency to talk. Participant A7 mentioned that "if my friends

ask my opinion, I would talk but not all the time", also participant F5 argues with a similar statement "if someone asks my opinion I talk about it". Even though, many of the participants did not mention the asking of opinions as a stimulus, it does however highlight an important stimulus to generate a tendency.

People tend to talk of good and bad experiences with brands

Experience with a brand may generate a tendency to talk, according to Brakus et al. (2009). Participants accepted the fact that experience with a brand may generate a tendency to talk. The emphasised point was the type of the experience. Participant C1 mentioned that good or bad experiences lead to talking about the brand. This argument was supported by other participants as well. Furthermore, participant B4 emphasised that bad experience is the key point. Any bad experience with a brand will lead people to talk about the brand. Participants of session B were totally in agreement with this statement.

Additional Themes

Finally, the focus group discussions provided an idea of the types of brand and products that individuals are interested, involved or engage with and whether they talk about those products as a result of their interest or engagement with the product/brands. As expected, fashion and cars were very popular subjects and interestingly, participants indicated that they find themselves talking mostly about luxury brands. This can be explained by the fact that luxury or high equity brands are transformational products, linked to an individual's identity and self-image for those who may not currently own such brands but aspire to do so in the future. Participant B1 mentioned that "I have some connection with fashion brands and some luxury

brands". Additionally, participant B2 emphasised that " I have a connection with Apple, I think it is a luxury brand now". From the A session, participant A3 stated, "I think I have a connection with luxury brands, I want to buy them but not yet". These discussions emphasised the connection between personality and brand. The participants did not mention any affordable brands during the conversation and they preferred luxury brands to identify a connection with a brand.

Brand and Media

I tend to talk about brands that attract a lot of media attention

Opinions, leadership and talkability relation was asked to participants. All participants during the focus group interviews rejected the influence of a person on mass-media and talking about a brand. Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) mention a relationship between the opinions leadership and talking about a brand. However, this relationship cannot be observed during the focus group interviews and all participants stated no. Participant D2 mentioned; *"they are paid for this. If a person is a model, I will remember the model, not the brand"*. Participant A1 emphasised the relationship through financial perspective; *"People on TV usually get paid, so it is not real"*.

A brand's design or packaging

Participants were asked about the brand experience through design, package, and communication dimensions that are defined by Brakus et al. (2009). Packaging was highly emphasised by the participants. Participant B6 mentioned that opening a package of a product is a trend on YouTube. And the Apple brand was highlighted for the packaging experience.

Analysis of the qualitative data facilitated the purification (Churchill 1979) of the initial pool of items (26 items) prior to the quantitative phase of the research. Vague and overlapping items were excluded while new items were introduced. As another measure of quality and in line with previous research, following this stage, two expert academics reviewed the items to ensure parsimony before they are included in the online surveys. The following table shows the purified 16 items, resulting from the focus group interviews, and used in the subsequent scale development and validation stages.

Table 8 Purified Items of Brand Talkability Following Focus Groups (N=16)

Item Numbers	Scale Items
1	When there is something interesting about a brand, I tend to talk about it.
2	I talk about brands during conversations with friends/family.
3	I talk about brands when someone asks my opinion.
4	I will talk about a brand if I intend to buy it.
5	I don't talk about brands that I don't like.
6	I talk about particular brands that I wish to own.
7	I talk about brands I already own.
8	I talk about favourite brands.
9	I tend to talk about a brand I had a good experience with.
10	A very bad experience with a brand makes people talk about it.
11	I tend to talk about well-known 'respectful' brands more than others.
12	I tend to talk about brands that attract a lot of media attention.
13	The brand's design and/or packaging makes me talk about a specific brand.
14	I will talk about a brand that is relevant to me.
15	I will talk about a brand that is expensive.
16	I talk about specific brands with others on social media (Facebook, Twitter).

5.2. Survey Data Analysis

5.2.1 Online Survey 1

The follow section discusses the analysis of online survey 1 and presents findings from the exploratory factor analysis conducted as part of the scale development process (Churchill 1979).

Participant's profile

Data was collected from 250 respondents. The majority of respondents were postgraduate students (63%), aged between 18 to 25 years of age (82%). The gender ratio was 56% male and 44% female. Table 9 shows the demographic details of respondents. As the research was focused on online social media, this young age profile was expected to respond.

Table 9 Demographics of Scale Development Online Questionnaire (1) (N=250)

Online Questionnaire	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Female	139	56%
Male	111	44%
Age Group		
18 - 21	121	48%
22 - 25	85	34%
Over 25	44	18%
Level of Education		
Below Undergraduate	0	0%
Undergraduate	93	37%
Postgraduate	157	63%
Employment Status		
Full Time	6	2%
Part Time	9	4%
Student	234	94%
Unemployed	1	0%

Reliability Analysis

Prior to conducting exploratory factor analysis, the reliability of the scale was assessed via Cronbach's α coefficient. According to Hair et al. (2009) Cronbach's α value should exceed 0.70 to indicate reliability Moreover, Field (2010) mentions that a valid reliability estimate proves that the items making up the scale are interpreted consistently across different conditions. The 16-item scale that resulted from the focus groups' phase, and included in the online survey, were subjected to a reliability test via SPSS 20.0 statistical software, and the results are shown in table 10.

Table 10 Reliability Test Results of Scale Development Questionnaire (1)

Reliability	0.766
Mean	39.96
Variance	53.886
Standard Deviation	7.341
Number of Items	16

According to Hair et al. (2009) and Saunders et al. (2012), lower standard deviation shows that data has a tendency to be closer to the mean value. Thus, the scale reliability value shows that participants responded similarly to the same questions. Given that Cronbach's α achieved a value of 0.766, the scale is deemed reliable to use on further stages.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was subsequently used, and enabled the identification of the dimensionality of brand talkability (Hair et al., 2009; Field, 2010). Hair et al. (2009) defines factor analysis as "*the underlying structure among the variables in the analyses*". Exploratory factor analysis will allow the researcher to identify the dimensions of the brand talkability by the eigenvalue estimate of 1 (Field,

2010). Thus, only dimensions with eigenvalue of 1 are considered significant, and other dimensions with less than 1 are deemed insignificant (Hair et al., 2009).

The following step was to select the appropriate rotation method for the data set. In this step the main issue was to determine a rotation method for creating a new scale. A direct oblimin rotation method was preferred according to these discussions. Field (2010, p.644) mentions that direct oblimin method is "*the degree to which factors are allowed to correlate is determined by the value of a constant called delta. The default value in SPSS is 0 and this ensures that high correlation between factors is not allowed*". Hair et al. (2009), state that constructs in the real world are uncorrelated, therefore, a direct oblimin rotation is best suited to obtain theoretically meaningful factors or constructs. Field (2010) also supported this argument. Furthermore, this study is involved with the real world condition of identifying the tendency to talk about a brand. Thus, the direct oblimin method was the best practice for the exploratory factor analysis. In order to minimise cross-loadings, suppression of small coefficient values was selected at 0.35 (Field, 2010).

Moreover, in order to reduce the number of items to applying to the research a rotation factor matrix was preferred. According Hair et al. (2009) a rotation factor matrix provides simpler and theoretically more meaningful outcomes. During the process of reduction the value for the factor loadings was set as 0.35. Any factor less than a value of 0.35 did not appear in the results (Hair et al., 2009). However, factor reduction analyses were faced with the cross-loading. This is where a variable has more than one significant loading. According to Hair et al. (2009), higher factor loadings should be evaluated for cross-loading. The following tables show the rotated component matrix results for both first and second questionnaires.

Table 13 shows the results from the KMO and Barlett's Test of Sphericity. Field (2010: 788) mention the KMO; "*represents the ratio of squared correlation between variables to the squared partial correlation between variables*". Furthermore, Field (2010) mentions that the KMO value varies between 0 and 1. "*A value of 0 indicates that the sum of partial correlations is large relative to the sum of correlations, indicating diffusion in the pattern of correlations*" (Field, 2010: 788). In addition, "*a value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and so factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factors*" (Field, 2010: 788). The values of KMO are categorised in this pattern by Field (2010) and (Hutcheson and Sofroniou, 1999); values between 0.5 to 0.7 are mediocre, values between 0.7 to 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 to 0.9 are great and values above 0.9 are superb. The results of the KMO test in this study show a value of 0.782, and according to Field (2010), this value is considered as good.

The second part was the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. Field (2010: 612) defines the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, as a test which "*examines whether this matrix is proportional to an identity matrix*" and "*tests whether the diagonal elements of the variance-covariance matrix are equal, and that the off-diagonal elements are approximately zero*". According to this statement, with the significance level of 0.000, the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix. Based on this result, a factor analysis is suitable for this model (Field, 2010)

Table 11 EFA (with Direct Oblimin Rotation)

Item of Brand Talkability	Factors				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. When there is something interesting about a brand, I tend to talk about it	0.763				
2. I talk about brands during conversations with friends/family	0.662				
3. I talk about brands when someone asks my opinion	0.851				
4. I will talk about a brand if I intend to buy it	0.664				
5. I don't talk about brands that I don't like		0.667	0.361		
6. I talk about particular brands that I wish to own	0.419				-0.396
7. I talk about brands I already own					-0.763
8. I talk about favourite brands					-0.825
9. I tend to talk about a brand I had a good experience with				0.759	
10. A very bad experience with a brand makes people talk about it				0.679	
11. I tend to talk about well-known 'respectful' brands more than others		0.71			
12. I tend to talk about brands that attract a lot of media attention		0.637	-0.426		
13. The brand's design and/or packaging makes me talk about a specific brand			-0.527		
14. I will talk about a brand that is relevant to me				0.609	
15. I will talk about a brand that is expensive			-0.712		
16. I talk about specific brands with others on social media (Facebook, Twitter)			-0.75		

Table 12 Eigenvalue of Dimensions

Dimensions	Eigenvalue	Variance
1	4.164	26.026
2	1.641	10.257
3	1.475	9.217
4	1.242	7.762
5	1.079	6.745

Table 13 KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	0.782
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	
Approximate Chi-Square	963.774
Degrees of Freedom	120
Significance Level	0.000

Results from the EFA show that items cross-load on three different items. These items are "5. *I don't talk about brands that I don't like*", "6. *I talk about particular brands that I wish to own*" and "l2. *I tend to talk about brands that attract a lot of media attention*". However, given that the objective of this research is to develop a measurement scale for a new construct, cross-loading was considered in the following stage (confirmatory factor analysis-purification stage). Therefore, no remedy was taken for the cross-loading at this stage. The labels assigned for the dimensions are shown in table 14 below.

Table 14 Dimensions and Items of Brand Talkability After Factor Analysis

Dimensions	Items
1: Interest	a. When there is something interesting about a brand, I tend to talk about it
	b. I talk about brands during conversations with friends/family
	c. I talk about brands when someone asks my opinion
	d. I will talk about a brand if I intend to buy it
	f. I talk about particular brands that I wish to own
2: Respectfulness	e. I don't talk about brands that I don't like
	k. I tend to talk about well-known 'respectful' brands more than others
	l. I tend to talk about brands that attract a lot of media attention
3: Brand Appearance	m. The brand's design and/or packaging makes me talk about a specific brand
	o. I will talk about a brand that is expensive
	p. I talk about specific brands with others on social media (Facebook, Twitter)
4: Experience	i. I tend to talk about a brand I had a good experience with
	j. A very bad experience with a brand makes people talk about it
	n. I will talk about a brand that is relevant to me
5: Ownership	g. I talk about brands I already own
	h. I talk about favourite brands

5.2.2. Online Survey 2

Following the results of the exploratory factor analysis the next stage of analysis involved the 'purification' stage of the scale. This stage focuses on the process of scale validation starting with data collected from the second survey (Survey 2, see page 64). The following sections discuss the demographics of the participants of online survey 2 and present the analysis conducted including reliability analysis and confirmatory factor analysis conducted via AMOS statistical software.

Participants' Profile

Data was collected from 250 respondents. Similar to survey 1, the majority of respondents (60%) were postgraduate students. In terms of gender, the distribution was equally distributed to both genders. The age group of the second survey was weighted to the over 25 age group by 49%, the 18 to 25 age group by 51%. The second survey had fewer people aged between 22 and 25 compared to the first survey. Moreover, there was a significant weight towards those older than 25, which was the weakest age group in the first survey. Table 15 shows the demographics details of the respondents.

The employment level of the population was mainly made up of students who accounted for 63%, similar to previous demographics. It was followed by full-time employment at 22%, part-time employment at 12%, and unemployed at 3%.

Table 15 Demographics of Scale Validation Questionnaire (2) (N=250)

Validation Questionnaire	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Female	124	50%
Male	126	50%
Age Group		
18 - 21	57	23%
22 - 25	71	28%
Over 25	122	49%
Level of Education		
Below Undergraduate	25	10%
Undergraduate	76	30%
Postgraduate	149	60%
Employment Status		
Full Time	54	22%
Part Time	31	12%
Student	158	63%
Unemployed	7	3%

Reliability Analysis

This first task involved assessing the reliability of the scale, before proceeding to the following stage (Field, 2010; Hair et al., 2009). Reliability analysis was conducted for the brand talkability scale, as well as its antecedents. As the brand talkability scale in survey 2 was product context-specific, reliability analysis was conducted for measures across the two product classes (cars and perfumes).

Table 16 Reliability Test Results of Scale Validation Questionnaire (2)

Cronbach's Alpha	0.823
Mean	36.792
Variance	63.121
Standard Deviation	7.9449
Number of Items	16

Cronbach's α achieved a value of 0.823 exceeding the 0.70 level mentioned by Hair et al. (2009). Thus, items of brand talkability were reliable and consistent to use for further analysis. Similar to scale development, standard deviation is a relatively small number when compared with the mean (Field, 2010; Hair et al., 2009). Therefore, this showed that distribution of the score was close to mean (Field, 2010).

Table 17 Reliability Results for Antecedents of Brand Talkability

Antecedents	Products Types	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	Number of Items
Involvement	Cars	0.937	47.04	228.742	15.124	19
	Perfumes	0.953	54.23	281.319	16.773	19
Brand Engagement	Cars	0.943	24.32	65.608	8.100	8
	Perfumes	0.958	25.35	78.992	8.888	8
Brand Consciousness	Cars	0.894	13.76	29.757	5.455	6
	Perfumes	0.893	15.45	33.221	5.764	6
Opinion Leadership	Cars	0.710	52.22	73.568	8.577	19
	Perfumes	0.773	58.37	97.921	9.896	19
Brand Experience	Cars	0.904	71.54	238.780	15.42	22
	Perfumes	0.939	72.69	353.750	18.808	22
Brand Equity	Cars	0.907	80.85	298.769	17.285	28
	Perfumes	0.934	82.78	439.401	20.962	28

Cronbach's α values of each antecedent of brand talkability exceeded the required 0.70 for both car and perfume products types. Moreover, values of standard deviation were smaller than the means of the antecedents. As a result, distribution of the data was close to the mean value.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

This stage of the analyses employed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) via AMOS 21 statistical software for the item factor reduction stage, based on the stages of Churchill (1979) and in line with other research (e.g. Michel and Rieunier 2012). The results from the CFA summarise the reduced items of the scale of brand talkability, and validate the structure of factors identified in the EFA stage (Hair et al., 2009).

Michel and Rieunier (2012, p.704) mentioned that, *"CFA provides a strong test of internal and external validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988)"*. Furthermore, Netemeyer et al. (2003, p.143) also discuss the role of CFA in *"helping to finalise and confirm a theoretical factor structure and test for the invariance of the factors structure or multiple datasets, establishing norms, and applying generalizability theory"*. Moreover, Netemeyer et al. (2003, p.148) mention that, *"CFA can also be used to detect individual items that may threaten the dimensionality of the scales; these items may be trimmed"*, which is also supported by Hair et al. (2009). According to Hair et al. (2009) a new measurement scale may consist of items that do not have any influence on the measurement scale and have a tendency to reduce the accuracy of the scale. Thus, they are considered as threats. Therefore, the threatening items should be removed from the measurement scale via the CFA. Thus, the CFA enabled the further reduction of items of the brand talkability scale that threatened its dimensionality. Also, another important role of CFA is to assess the internal consistency of the items (Netemeyer et al. 2003), and to adjust the balance in item reduction and the high level of correlation among the items. High correlation among items generates a tendency to fail, achieving discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2009; Netemeyer et al. 2003). Therefore, during the process of item reduction the correlation table was assessed in order to avoid any issues with discriminant validity. However, high correlation was an issue due to the multi-dimensional character of the scale. Therefore, the CFA process was very critical to avoid unnecessary item reduction and preventing the correlation increasing to a level that creates a potential problem for the discriminant validity.

Exploratory factor analysis generated five different dimensions that capture brand talkability using direct oblimin rotation. Developing a well-fitting measurement

model, the 16 items of brand talkability from survey 2 were subjected to a CFA procedure (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988) (Figure 2). According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988) confirmatory factor analysis conducts internal and external validity.
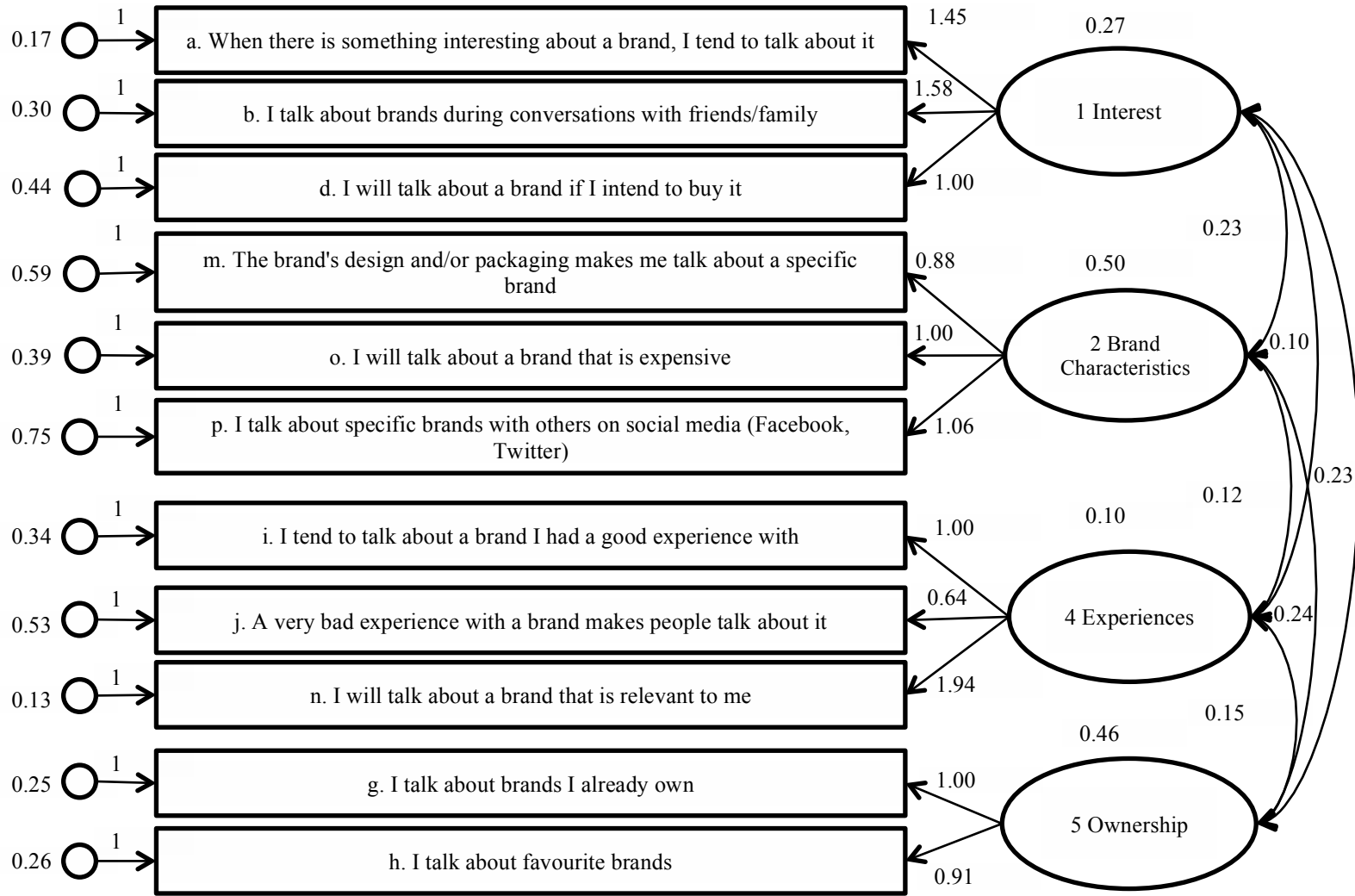
Figure 2 Brand Talkability Model

Initial figures with CFA, including the 16 items, indicated a poor model fit. Therefore, the multivariate Lagrange multiplier test was conducted in AMOS to identify factor cross-loadings (Michel and Rieunier, 2012). AMOS results this test under Modification Indices section. The results showed that some of the items had significant factor cross-loadings (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). Moreover, these items did not load high on their intended factor, and thus they were removed from the scale (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). Moreover, during these tasks chi-square values were reduced.

Following the removal of the five items, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted during the factor reduction stage and reduced the items of brand talkability from 16 to 11. Moreover, CFA analysis not only reduced the number of items, but also reduced the dimensions of brand talkability from five to four. The second dimension of brand talkability was reduced during the analysis as a result of items that were cross-loading on multiple dimensions, and threated the validity of the scale. The reduced items from the brand talkability also experienced cross-loading during the EFA analysis; Hair et al. (2009) suggest removal of these cross-loading items should be considered.

Table 18 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Estimates	Values
AGFI	0.923
GFI	0.964
RMSEA	0.049
CFI	0.958
Chi-Square	49.928
Degrees of Freedom	31
p-value	0.019

Results from the confirmatory factor analyses were: a goodness-of-fit index (GFI) value is expected to be between 0 and 1. The higher values represent better fit (Hair et al., 2009). Thus, a GFI of 0.964 was considered as a good fit. An adjusted GFI value

is a ratio of the degree of freedom in the model to total degrees of freedom, a GFI value higher value indicated a better fit (Hair et al., 2009). According to the Hair et al. (2009), an AGFI of 0.923 was considered a good fit. The root mean square error of approximation *"represents how well a model fits a population"* (Hair et al., 2009, p.641) and values lower than 0.080 are accepted as good.

However, an absolute cut off for RMSEA (the root mean square error of approximation) value is inadvisable (Hair et al., 2009). However, Netemeyer et al. (2003) suggest that a RMSEA value of less than 0.08 indicates an advocated indication of acceptable fit. A RMSEA value of 0.0469 was accepted as good according to Netemeyer et al. (2003). Lastly, a Comparative Fit Index (CFI) value is between 0 and 1, and values above 0.90 are accepted as 'model fits well' (Hair et al., 2009). Thus, for the first questionnaire, a CFI value of 0.958 showed that 'model fits well'.

The p-value for the scale validation was 0.019 and exceeded the p-value of 0.05. Thus, the scale validation achieved statistical significance.

Final Scale

The following tables show the new dimensions and items of the brand talkability concept, and the reliability of the new set of items. Four dimensions and 11 items were achieved after the CFA analyses. These items achieved 0.801 value of Cronbach's α value, and exceed the reliability level of 0.70 proposed by Hair et al. (2009). According to the reliability results, the concept of a scale of measure for brand talkability is constructed on 11 items and 4 dimensions.

Table 19 Reliability of New Set of Brand Talkability Items

Cronbach's Alpha	0.801
Mean	24.580
Variance	35.377
Standard Deviation	5.948
Number of Items	11

Table 20 New Pools of Items and Dimensions After CFA

Dimensions	Items
1: Interest	a. When there is something interesting about a brand, I tend to talk about it
	b. I talk about brands during conversations with friends/family
	d. I will talk about a brand if I intend to buy it
3: Brand Characteristics	m. The brand's design and/or packaging makes me talk about a specific brand
	o. I will talk about a brand that is expensive
	p. I talk about specific brands with others on social media (Facebook, Twitter)
4: Experiences	i. I tend to talk about a brand I had a good experience with
	j. A very bad experience with a brand makes people talk about it
	n. I will talk about a brand that is relevant to me
5: Ownership	g. I talk about brands I already own
	h. I talk about favourite brands

Validity Assessment: Discriminant Validity (AVE)

After the confirmatory factor analysis was conducted, the following task was to analyse the validity through the discriminant factor analysis. Discriminant factor analysis enables the researcher to identify whether a construct is truly distinct from other constructs in terms of correlation with other constructs (Hair et al., 2009). This analysis enables researchers to validate the measurement scale for the concept of brand talkability. Unlike other tests, SPSS statistical software did not have a function to calculate the discriminant validity, therefore the calculation was done manually.

The first stage of the analysis was to address the AVE equation for the discriminant validity. The equation used in this section was created by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and emphasised by Hair et al. (2009). This test was conducted on both first and

second questionnaire outcomes. An AVE equation is Average Variance Extracted: *"a summary measure of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct. It is the average percentage of variation explained among the items of a construct"* (Hair et al., 2009, p.661).

$$\text{AVE} = \textbf{Squared Standardised Factor Loading} / \textbf{n} \text{ (number of items)}$$

Squared standardised factor loading values resulted in SPSS AMOS output under the Squared Multiple Correlations table. Furthermore, these values were used in the task of calculating AVE for each item of brand talkability. The following tables address the squared multiple correlations and AVE results.

Table 21 Standardised Regression Weights

Items	Dimensions	Estimates
a. When there is something interesting about a brand, I tend to talk about it	1: Interest	0.832
b. I talk about brands during conversations with friends/family		0.785
d. I will talk about a brand if I intend to buy it		0.600
m. The brand's design and/or packaging makes me talk about a specific brand	3: Brand Characteristics	0.530
o. I will talk about a brand that is expensive		0.703
p. I talk about specific brands with others on social media (Facebook, Twitter)		0.702
i. I tend to talk about a brand I had a good experience with	4: Experiences	0.457
j. A very bad experience with a brand makes people talk about it		0.268
n. I will talk about a brand that is relevant to me		0.887
g. I talk about brands I already own	5: Ownership	0.820
h. I talk about favourite brands		0.760

Table 22 AVE Results

Dimensions	AVE
1: Interesting Brands	0.755
3: Characteristics	0.645
4: Experience	0.537
5: Ownership	0.790

The next task was to compare the results from the AVE equation for each of the measurement scale items, with squared inter-construct correlations associated with the items (Hair et al., 2009). The squared inter-construct correlations resulted from the confirmatory factor analysis. Moreover, the values were labelled as correlations in SPSS AMOS statistical software. In order to estimate the squared inter-construct correlation value, each of the correlation estimates was multiplied by its square (Hair et al., 2009).

Table 23 Correlations of Dimensions (AMOS Correlations)

Dimensions	Correlations
1 – 3	0.586
1 – 4	0.578
1 – 5	0.731
3 – 4	0.423
3 – 5	0.476
4 – 5	0.562

The last task in this section was to compare each SIC estimate with each AVE estimate of each of the measurement scale items. Thus, for each measurement scale item, the results of this task were expected to receive higher AVE estimates than the SIC estimates. In order to achieve discriminant validity, each dimensions' AVE value should exceed the SIC estimates. This proves that the measurement scale is unique and captures some phenomena that other measures do not (Hair et al., 2009).

Table 24 Discriminant Validity Test

Dimensions	1	3	4	5
1: Interesting Brands	**0.739**	0.343	0.334	0.534
3: Characteristics	0.343	**0.645**	0.179	0.227
4: Experience	0.334	0.179	**0.537**	0.316
5: Ownership	0.534	0.227	0.316	**0.790**

The results from discriminant validity test show that each AVE value of the dimensions exceed the SIC estimates. The AVE value of dimension one is 0.739, and exceeded the SIC estimates. The second dimension achieved a value of 0.645 AVE and exceeded the SIC estimates. The AVE value of the third dimension received 0.537 and exceeded SIC estimates. The fourth dimension achieved a value of 0.790 AVE exceeding the SIC estimates. Thus, the brand talkability scale is valid, which proves that the scale captures the tendency of consumers to talk about a brand.

The following table shows the 4 dimensions and the 11 items of brand talkability with reliability, factor loading and AVE values. The second dimension was removed during the CFA analysis.

Table 25 Reliability, Factor Loadings, AVE Values, Dimensions and Items of Brand Talkability

Dimensions and Items (4 Dimensions and 11 Items)	Cronbach's α Value	Factor Loadings	AVE Values
Overall	**0.801**		
1: Interesting Brands a. When there is something interesting about a brand, I tend to talk about it b. I talk about brands during conversations with friends/family d. I will talk about a brand if I intend to buy it	0.761	0.763 0.662 0.664	0.755
3: Characteristics m. The brand's design and/or packaging makes me talk about a specific brand o. I will talk about a brand that is expensive p. I talk about specific brands with others on social media (Facebook, Twitter)	0.654	-0.527 -0.712 -0.750	0.645
4: Experiences i. I tend to talk about a brand I had a good experience with j. A very bad experience with a brand makes people talk about it n. I will talk about a brand that is relevant to me	0.548	0.759 0.679 0.609	0.537
5: Ownership g. I talk about brands I already own h. I talk about favourite brands	0.757	-0.763 -0.825	0.790

5.2.3. Multiple Regression and Hypotheses Testing

The second of this research is to examine antecedents of brand talkability. To this end further analysis involved multiple regression with constructs hypothesised to relate to brand talkability (See chapter 2). According to Hair et al. (2009), a regression test was conducted to analyse the relationship between a single dependent and several independent variables. Moreover, regression analysis produces the weight of the each independent variable on the dependent variable at maximum prediction level (Hair et al., 2009). For the present research, the dependent variable is brand talkability and the independent variables are the antecedents (Involvement, Brand Engagement, Brand Consciousness, Opinion Leadership, Brand Experience, and Brand Equity).

Multiple regression analysis was conducted by SPSS 20.0 statistical software. This research concentrated on two different product types: cars and perfumes, as already explained previously, given the nature of the hypothesized antecedents which required a level of product specificity. Therefore, two different regression models were created for cars (model 1) and perfumes (model 2). The regression test was conducted in the following steps: 1) Renaming variables; 2) Creating new variables with overall scores; 3) Regression tests for cars and perfumes; and 4) Hypothesis testing for car and perfume products.

Regression Analysis: Car and Perfume Models

Analysis shows significant results (table 27). The R square value explains the percentage of dependent variable explained by the independent variables, and this value was between 0 and 1 (Hair et al., 2009). For the car products, the brand talkability dependent variable is explained by an R square value of 21.6% with the measured independent variables. For the perfume products, the brand talkability dependent variable was explained by the R square value of 30.9% with the measured independent variables (table 29).

Additionally the Adjusted R Square is indicated at 0.197 for the car model (table 27) while for perfume model is reported at 0.292. Hair et al. (2010: 153) mentioned that Adjusted R Square is a modified measure of coefficient of determination. This measure takes account of the number of independent variables, sample size in the regression equation. Adjusted R Square may fall if new independent variables are added to regression model and they have little explanatory power or the degrees of freedom become too small. Hair et al. (2010) also emphasise that "*this statistic is*

quite useful for comparison between equations with different numbers of independent variables, different sample sizes or both". The results suggest that the independent variables for the car model explain 19% of the variance in brand talkability, while for the perfume model, 29% of variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables.

This stage in the data analysis was to test the overall fit of the regression model by the ANOVA table. According to Field (2010, p.781), the ANOVA test produces F-ratio to test the overall fit of a linear model. Moreover, F-ratio is associated with the significance level. Results from the regression for the car product type showed an F value of 11.175, with a significance level of 0.000 and a df value of 6. For the perfumes product type, regression resulted in an F value of 18.125, with a significance value of 0.000 and a df value of 6. According to Hair et al. (2009) and Field (2010), both of the F values, with a significance level of 0.000, predicts the brand talkability concept with these independent variables, significantly well.

The analyses was conducted with a Durbin-Watson test. A Durbin-Watson test *"tests for serial correlations between errors in regression models. Specially it tests whether adjacent residuals are correlated, which is useful in assessing the assumption of independent errors"* (Field, 2010, p.785). The Durbin-Watson test values for the car product type achieved 1.911 while the perfume product type achieved 2.021. Field (2010, p.785) also mentioned how to interpret the Durbin-Watson values: *"The test statistics vary between 0 and 4 with a value of 2 meaning that the residuals are uncorrelated"*. According to Field (2010), Saunders et al. (2012) and Anderson (2003), any value of Durbin-Watson close to 2 is considered as uncorrelated. According to this statement, both car and perfume regression models achieved

uncorrelated adjacent residuals. The significance level in a Durbin-Watson test does not exist for sample sizes of more than 200 (Durbin and Watson, 1951).

The last stage of the regression test was to test the significance level of the independent variables on both models, and to test the relationship to the hypothesis. The brand talkability concept was based on six different hypotheses for both product types. Each hypothesis tests the relationship between the brand talkability and antecedent.

Table 26 Descriptive Statistics for Car Model

Antecedents	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Brand Experience Cars	250	1.77	5.00	3.2518	0.70239
Involvement Car	250	1.00	4.95	2.4756	0.79601
Brand Engagement Car	250	1.00	5.00	3.0400	1.01248
Opinion Car	250	1.53	4.37	2.7377	0.43593
Brand Consciousness Car	250	1.00	5.00	2.2933	0.90917
Brand Equity Car	250	1.29	4.71	2.8876	0.61732
Valid N (listwise)	250				

Table 27 Multiple Regression Results of Brand Talkability Car Model

Antecedents	Significance	Beta	Overall F-Ratio	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Durbin-Watson
Involvement	0.007	-0.140				
Brand Consciousness	0.000	0.222				
Brand Engagement	0.009	0.114				
Brand Equity	0.791	0.019				
Brand Experience	0.843	0.012				
Opinion Leadership	0.626	0.040				
			11.175	0.216	0.197	1.911

Table 28 Descriptive Statistics for Perfume Model

Antecedents	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Involvement Perfume	250	1.05	5.00	2.8543	0.88277
Brand Engagement Perfume	250	1.00	5.00	3.1690	1.11097
Brand Consciousness Perfume	250	1.00	5.00	2.5753	0.96062
Opinion Perfume	250	1.95	4.58	3.0722	0.52082
Brand Experience Perfume	250	1.55	5.00	3.3040	0.85492
Brand Equity Perfume	250	1.11	4.71	2.9564	0.74864
Valid N (listwise)	250				

Table 29 Multiple Regression Results of Brand Talkability Perfume Model

Antecedents	Significance	Beta	Overall F-Ratio	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Durbin-Watson
Involvement	0.827	0.011				
Brand Consciousness	0.000	0.212				
Brand Engagement	0.12	0.063				
Brand Equity	0.023	0.152				
Brand Experience	0.068	-0.101				
Opinion Leadership	0.663	0.067				
			18.125	0.309	0.292	2.021

5.3. Hypotheses Testing Car and Perfume Models

Cars

Given the above findings, indicate support for 3 out the 6 hypothesis. In particular, support is found for H_1(cars), H_4 (cars), H_6 (cars), suggesting that brand engagement, consumer involvement and brand consciousness positively impact brand talkability ($p<.05$). In contrast, support is not found for H_2 (cars), H_3 (cars), H_5(cars), indicating that brand experience, brand equity and opinion leadership do not impact brand talkability.

Perfumes

Given the above findings, indicate support for 2 out the 6 hypothesis. In particular, support is found for H_3(perfumes) and H_6 (perfumes), suggesting that brand equity and and brand consciousness positively impact brand talkability ($p<.05$). In contrast,

support is not found for H_1 (perfume), H_2 (perfumes), H_4 (perfumes) and H_5(perfumes), indicating that brand engagement, brand experience, consumer involvement and opinion leadership do not impact brand talkability.

5.3.1. Cars and Perfume Models

5.3.1.1.Brand Engagement

Cars

Brand engagement received a p-value of 0.009 for the car products. With a 0.05 significance level, brand engagement had a significant influence on brand talkability for the car products. The hypothesis was accepted.

H_1: Brand engagement will positively impact brand talkability for car products.

Perfumes

Brand engagement for the perfumes received a p-value of 0.12. With a significance level of 0.05 brand engagement did not have a significant influence on brand talkability for the perfume products; this hypothesis was rejected.

H_{1a}: Brand engagement will positively impact brand talkability for perfume brands.

5.3.1.2.Brand Experience

Car

Brand experience resulted with a p-value of 0.843. With a significance level of 0.05, brand experience did not have any significant influence on brand talkability for the car products. Thus, the hypothesis was rejected.

H_2: Brand experience, will positively impact brand talkability for car products.

Perfume

Brand experience received a relatively lower p-value of 0.068. However, with a 0.05 significance level the hypothesis for the perfumes was also rejected; however, it can be accepted at a p-level of less than 0.10. The regression test showed that brand experience does not have any significant impact on brand talkability at $p<.05$

H_{2a}: *Brand experience, will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products.*

5.3.1.3.Brand Equity

Car

For the car products, brand equity received a 0.791 p-value with the 0.05 significance level. Brand equity had no significant influence on brand talkability for car products. The hypothesis was rejected.

H_3: *Brand equity will positively impact brand talkability for car products.*

Perfume

Brand equity received a p-value of 0.023 with a 0.05 significance level. This proved that brand equity had a significant influence on brand talkability. Thus, the hypothesis was accepted.

H_{3a}: *Brand equity will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products.*

5.3.1.4.Consumer Involvement

Car

Consumer involvement and brand talkability for the relationship with the car products was accepted by a p-value of 0.007 with a 0.05 significance level. Thus, there is a significant effect of involvement on brand talkability for car products. The hypothesis was accepted.

H_4: Consumer involvement will positively impact brand talkability for car products.

Perfume

The regression model test showed that the relationship between the perfumes and consumer involvement and brand talkability was rejected by a p-value of 0.827 with a 0.05 significance level. Thus, the hypothesis was rejected.

H_{4a} Consumer involvement will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products.

5.3.1.5.Opinion Leadership

Car

Opinion leadership achieved a p-value of 0.626. With a significance level of 0.05. Opinion leadership did not have a significant influence on brand talkability. The hypothesis was rejected.

H_5 Opinion leadership will positively impact brand talkability for car products. do you mean

Perfume

Opinion leadership received a relatively lower 0.663 p-value. With a significance level of 0.05, there were no significant influence of opinion leadership on brand talkability. Tthe hypothesis for opinion leadership was rejected.

H_{5a}: Opinion leadership will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products

5.3.1.6.Brand Consciousness

Car

Brand consciousness received a 0.000 p-value for car products. With a significance level of 0.05, brand consciousness has a significant influence on the brand talkability. The brand consciousness hypothesis was accepted.

H_6 Brand consciousness will positively impact brand talkability for car products.

Perfume

The results from the regression test showed that there was a significant effect of brand consciousness on the concept of brand talkability with a 0.000 p-value. The hypothesis is accepted.

H_{6a}: Brand consciousness will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products.

Summary of the Findings

The results from the regression model of brand talkability for both car and perfume products show that consumers generate a tendency to talk about both products when there was brand consciousness. This one-measured independent variable showed a significant influence on brand talkability for both product types.

112

Moreover, the significant influence of opinion leadership was rejected for the both products types. Participants in the interviewed focus groups expressed similar feedback on opinion leadership. For the perfume products, the brand equity independent variable had a more significant influence than the car products. The brand equity independent variable for the perfume products showed a significant influence on the brand talkability dependent variable, however it did not showed a significant influence on car products.

Results from the regression model for the car products show only three hypotheses were accepted, and for the perfume products, only two hypotheses were accepted. The other proposed measured independent variables were rejected.

The brand talkability concept is new to literature and no previous study has been conducted to identify the variables. Therefore, the measured independent variables were taken from the literature review with significant relations with the proposed definition of the brand talkability concept.

Table 30 Results of Hypotheses Testing of Brand Talkability Concept

	Hypotheses	Significance Levels	Results
Cars	H_1: Brand engagement will positively impact brand talkability for car products	0.009	*Accepted*
	H_2 Brand experience, will positively impact brand talkability for car products	0.843	Rejected
	H_3 Brand equity will positively impact brand talkability for car products	0.791	Rejected
	H_4: Consumer involvement will positively impact brand talkability for car products	0.007	*Accepted*
	H_5: Opinion leadership will positively impact brand talkability for car products	0.626	Rejected
	H_6: Brand consciousness will positively impact brand talkability for car products	0.000	*Accepted*
Perfumes	H_{1a} Brand engagement will positively impact brand talkability for perfume brand	0.120	Rejected
	H_{2a}: Brand experience, will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products	0.068	Rejected
	H_{3a}: Brand equity will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products	0.023	*Accepted*
	H_{4a}: Consumer involvement will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products	0.827	Rejected
	H_{5a}: Opinion leadership will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products	0.663	Rejected
	H_{6a}: Brand consciousness will positively impact brand talkability for perfume products	0.000	*Accepted*

Chapter 6: Discussion

6. Discussion

The aim of this small-scale study was to introduce a new construct for investigating the tendency of consumers to talk about particular brands without any consumption concerns. The findings revealed that consumers are able to express their views about brands on social media sites via the Internet, suggesting that consumers talk about brands without any consumption concerns. Some brands are involved in these conversations, whilst others are ignored by consumers. A conceptual framework that identifies how a tendency to talk about a brand without any consumption concerns was generated. Even though the brand talkability concept is a general construct, due to the characteristics of the antecedents, the results in this study were determined by the product category. However, the categorisation of consumer and brand-related antecedents can generate a general approach to conceptualising brand talkability.

6.1. Consumer Related

With regard to brand consciousness, Nelson and Devanathan (2006) define this as the degree to which consumers notice or use the brand as information for a purchase decision. This definition highly emphasises the brand consciousness and consumption relation. Liao and Wing (2009) identify brand consciousness as a psychological construct and that consumers prefer brands that are well known and highly advertised. Moreover, Liao and Wang (2009) discuss that when it come to brand consciousness, consumers may choose or recall brands without even knowing the brand. Furthermore, Nelson and Devanthan (2006) identify the relevancy of brand consciousness and tendency; consumers may generate a tendency towards a brand

unconsciously. Based on the discussions, brand consciousness may lead to generating a tendency to talk about brands. Even though some of the literature identifies a relation to consumption, other discussions highly support the relationship.

According to the literature, advertisements, socialisation, brand placement and well-known brands not only form a condition for consumption (Nelson and McLeod, 2005; Meyer and Anderson, 2000; Nelson and Devanthan, 2006; Zablah et al., 2010). Moreover, Zablah et al. (2010) and Liao and Wang (2009) argue that brands that are remembered or recalled subconsciously, have superiority over their competitors for the consumption stage. The results from the present research support these discussions and identify the role of brand consciousness for generating a tendency to talk about a brand.

The participants emphasised that they use words such as 'Googling' or 'Hoovering'. Moreover, they mentioned that the word 'Googling' has replaced the word 'search' on the Internet. Thus, we talk about Google without even intending to talk about it. Based on these examples, they also accepted that these brands generate a tendency to talk. They stated that we never say 'Yahooing' but we say 'Googling'. Google generates a tendency to talk but not Yahoo. Furthermore, participants mentioned that the words 'Hoovering' or 'Googling' are accepted as an action. Moreover, they argue that you may use a different brand for cleaning the house but you will call it 'Hoovering'.

Based on the results, brand consciousness influences the brand talkability for both car and perfume products. Thus, people who have high brand consciousness with cars and perfumes tend to talk about brands in both the transformational and informational

product categories. Moreover, these results contribute a new perspective to the existing literature for brand consciousness. Scholars such as Nelson and McLeod, (2005), Meyer and Anderson, (2000), Nelson and Devanathan, (2006) discuss the impact of brand consciousness for the consequences of consumption.

According to literature, the brand consciousness construct does not have a direct relation to generating a tendency for talking. However, this research found strong evidence for the academic literature. The quantitative results showed that consumers generate tendency to talk about both transformational and informational products. Thus, brand consciousness generate tendency to talk about brands beyond consumption concern.

According to the literature, an opinion leadership has the power to influence consumers to talk about particular brands (Bertandias and Goldsmith, 2005; Ritchins and Root-Shaffer, 1988 and Sun 2006). Furthermore, the arguments of Bertandias and Goldsmith (2005), Ritchins and Root-Shaffer (1988) and Sun (2006), assert that opinion leadership have the power to influence consumers to talk about particular brands and generate a biased view. In addition, Flynn et al. (1996), Goldsmith and De Witt (2003) and Rogers and Cartano (1962) emphasise the role of opinion leadership in information sharing among the consumers. The literature review identified a possible connection among the brand talkability and the opinion leadership. It was assumed that opinion leaderhip may generate a tendency to talk about brands.

Nearly all participants stated that no one in the media would talk about a brand for free; therefore, the issue of trustworthiness emerges. They stated 'it is nice to see

117

those people in the media but we are not going to take their advice.' Participants also mentioned that if they received this type of information from their friends, they would trust them more. However, they strongly emphasised that they themselves 'make the final decision'. According to the focus groups, consumers do not generate a tendency to talk about a brand through opinion leadership. The results do not support the discussions of Bertandias and Goldsmith (2005), Ritchins and Root-Shaffer (1988) and Sun (2006).

However, the results from the two hypothesis testing did not identify any significant relation between the opinion leadership and the brand talkability. Participants did not identify the opinion leadership as an antecedent to develop a tendency to talk. The literature review suggests that opinion leadership influence the attitudes and the behaviours of others (Sun et al., 2006). This argument highlighted a possible connection between the opinion leadership and the brand talkability. However, this research presents that consumers do not generate a tendency to talk about a brand from opinion leadership.

The literature review emphasises the role of consumer involvement in identifying the relationship between brand and person. Involvement identifies a person's relevance to an object or brand based on inherent needs, values and interest (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Celsin and Olson (1988) argue that involvement identifies the degree of personally relevancy with a brand. The involvement antecedent enables us to identify whether the consumers identify a connection between the brand and themselves. Further, Havitz and Dimanche (1999) argue that involvement explains the unobservable state of interest towards a brand.

An interesting result emerged during the focus groups interviews. One of the participants mentioned that: 'when I am involved with Apple products, this generates a tendency to talk about Apple. However as I know more about Apple products I don't tend to talk more. The reason for this, greater knowledge about Apple products, means more details about technical content, and people do not wish to hear about the minor details of Apple products. Therefore, I may talk less when I know more details about Apple. I am involved with Apple and want to know more but this does not lead to a higher tendency to talk about Apple.' This participant emphasised a negative relationship between involvement and tendency to talk about a brand, when the involvement is increased. This situation was considered as a unique condition; an increased involvement with a brand reduces the tendency to talk. Thus, it can be assumed that increased knowledge about a brand may have negative effects on generating a tendency to talk. Existing literature does not discuss this situation and it emerged during the session.

Participants mentioned that brands that are relevant to their personality always have a higher priority than their competitors. Additionally, participants argued that 'we like brands that are closer to our personality, because they reflect us'. One of the participants explained with this example: 'some of the perfume brands are likely to be associated with older women so I don't find a personal relevancy with that brand. Moreover, I do not prefer that brand, thus I won't be perceived at that age group. Consequently, I do not generate a tendency to talk about that perfume brand'. The link between personal relevancy and the tendency to talk about a brand is highly emphasised by the participants. Regarding the literature review, the discussions of

Zaichkowsky (1985), Goldsmith (1996), Richins and Bloch (1986), Celsi and Olson (1988) and Michaelidou and Dibb (2006) on the relationship between personal relevancy and involvement, is supported by the focus groups. Its impact on generating a tendency to talk is also emphasised by the participants.

Regarding this antecedent, quantitative results showed that consumers involvement generated tendency to talk about informational products represented cars. However, consumer involvement does not generate any tendency to talk about transformational products represented by perfumes. Thus, consumer involvement generates a tendency to talk about brands beyond consumption concern is observed from the results. According to the argument of Kapferer and Laurent (1985), involvement is a casual motivation that results in communication behaviour. Based on the results, this argument can be accepted for the brand talkability for the informational brands.

Consumers involvement antecedent identified two different results for informational and transformational products. The difference between the results can be explained by the characteristic differences between the informational and transformational products. Rossiter et al. (1991) mention that the informational products provide information about the brand to consumers and the transformational products enhances the consumers' sensory, mental and social state. These statements explain the two different results from the quantitative data.

6.2. Brand Related

The next antecedent is brand equity. Aaker (1991, 1996) and Keller (1993) conceptualise the brand equity based on the cognitive psychology focusing on

memory. Furthermore, brand equity identifies the influential role of brand on brand equity constructed in the minds of consumers. Keller (1993) and Aaker (1991) extend the statement by asserting that brand equity tends to emerge when a consumer is familiar with the brand and it develops strong and unique associations in their memory. Aaker (1991) extends the brand equity into five different dimensions. However, Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2010) argue about the five dimensions and suggest reducing this to four; thus, the present study used four dimensions for the quantitative data collection. The results from the four dimensions were analysed under brand equity antecedent.

Participants in the focus group interviews emphasised that brands with higher equity create a tendency to talk about them. Some of the examples were: 'Facebook makes us talk but we never talk about MySpace. Or, when we say smart phones we talk about Apple, not Nokia anymore'. Additionally, participants mentioned that as the brand equity increases, the brand becomes stronger in their mind. On the other hand, they also mentioned not all brands have this equity. There are many brands on the market, but we cannot easily understand which has higher equity, such as Mercedes-Benz. Participants mainly agreed that brand equity was an important antecedent to generate a tendency to talk about a brand. The dimensions of brand equity provided a more comprehensive approach to brand equity and its influential role in research into brand talkability.

Based on the quantitative results, the brand equity antecedent had significant influence on the brand talkability concept for transformational products. The discussion of Aaker (1996) and Keller (1993) is supported, brand equity influences

consumers to talk about brands. However, for the informational products, brand equity did not have any significant influence on brand talkability concept.

These results similar to consumer involvement antecedents, brand equity antecedent generated two different results for informational and transformational products. It can be suggested that the characteristics differences of the transformational and informational products that are mentioned by Rossiter et al. (1991) influenced the results of the quantitative results. Therefore, brand equity only generated tendency to talk about brands for transformational products and did not generate any tendency to talk for informational products.

Furthermore, it can be assumed that, for informational products, the brand and the product may tend to have different equities. And consumers can be focused on a particular product of that brand instead. Such as, the Mercedes S-Class vehicle and Mercedes brand. For the transformational products, the brand equity positively influences the brand talkability concept.

The brand engagement antecedent identified a tendency for consumers to include brands as a part of themselves (Sprott et al. 2009) and van Doorn et al. (2010) argue that brand engagement is a manifestation from customers that goes beyond the consumption concern. Consequently, the brand engagement antecedent identifies whether the connection between the brand and the consumers leads to generating a tendency to talk. Verhoef et al. (2010) mentions that brand engagement results with behaviours such as WoM and blogging. This scholar also strengthens the importance of brand engagement for brand talkability research by emphasising on WoM and

blogging. Even though this study does not focus on WoM, this argument is an important proxy to identifying the generation of a tendency to talk. Furthermore, Sprott et al. (2009) discusses that brand engagement explains a general tendency of consumers to use brands to shape their identities. Thus, the brand engagement construct strongly emphasises exploration of the generation of a tendency.

Based on the focus groups, brand engagement does generate a tendency to talk, especially with a favourite brand; however, participants strongly disagree that brands cannot influence their personality. This leads to a contradiction with the argument of Sprott et al. (2009) and Goldsmith et al (2011), that consumers use brands to form their identities and express themselves. On the other hand, the focus groups' interviews were conducted with other participants, and mentioning a statement that accepts the influential role of a brand on their personality may generate a negative perception of their personality. The research environment may not provide a safe environment for participants to express their own opinions.

Based on the results from the hypotheses testing, brand engagement had significant influence on brand talkability for the informational products. However, brand engagement did not have any significant influence on brand talkability for the transformational products. Two different results are observed based on the product type. It can be assumed that, the characteristics difference of transformational and informational products that are identified by Rossiter et al. (1991) influenced the quantitative data.

According to literature review, it is suggested that brand engagement generates a tendency to talk and improves the discussion of Sprott et al. (2009), Goldsmith et al. (2011), van Doorn et al. (2010) and Verhoef et al. (2010).

With regards to the brand experience antecedent, Brakus et al. (2009) and Schmitt (1999) define the brand experience as the response of consumers evoked by the brand-related stimuli. Furthermore, design, identity, packaging and communication of a brand are the brand-related stimuli. For the current study, communication stimuli of a brand is considered to have an influence on the generation of a tendency to talk. Based on the discussion of Brakus et al. (2009), Schmitt (1999), Chang and Chieng (2006), the brand experience may generate a tendency.

Interviewees mentioned that any experience with a brand in terms of design, packaging or communication campaigns generated a tendency to talk. However, participants also mentioned that these experiences only generated a tendency, but this is not going to last for long time. Another participant also mentioned that, 'a very good or a very bad experience with a brand always makes me talk. In particular, with the advertisement or marketing campaign, some brands have very creative advertisements and I talk about them'. However, this type of experience does not last forever. A long-term tendency to talk about a brand cannot be done just by an advertisement. According to results from the participants, the discussion of Brakus et al. (2009) is supported; brand experience does occur with different types of stimuli. However, these stimuli do not provide a sustainable momentum to talk about the brand for the long-term.

On the other hand, nearly all participants mention that a very bad experience with a brand always generates a tendency to talk about that brand for long time. They emphasise that a poorly designed product, bad packaging, and annoying advertisements are always remembered as a bad experience, and generate a tendency to talk about that brand in a negative aspect.

The responses from the participants supported the relationship with brand experience and the tendency to talk about a brand. Further, Brakus et al. (2009), Zarantonello and Schmitt (2010) and Chang and Chieng (2006) support the arguments of the participants and mention that brand experience generates a tendency to talk about brands. However, the participants strongly emphasised that brand experience does not lead them to generate a tendency to talk about a brand in long term. The results from the focus groups indicated a long-term tendency to talk about a brand is most likely to occur when a very bad, or a very good, experience occurs with a brand.

The results from the hypothesis testing show that, brand experience did have any significant influence on brand talkability for informational products and transformational products. Thus, the discussion of Brakus et al. (2009), Schmitt (1999), Chang and Chieng (2006) that identified a generation of tendency cannot be identified on brand talkability research for both products type. Thus, brand experience does not generate a tendency to talk about a brand beyond consumption concern.

In addition, the current study aimed to identify a long-term tendency to talk about a brand unlike a short-term tendency. During the focus groups, participants emphasised

that they may not talk about a brand long-term based on the brand-related stimulus. Thus, the results from the quantitative data also supported the qualitative results.

6.3. Informational and Transformational Brands in Brand Talkability

The present study investigated the research through informational and transformational brands. The results from the multiple-regression test showed that informational and transformational brands have different characteristics for the concept of brand talkability.

The car products represent the informational brands. According to Rossiter et al. (1991) informational brands provide information regarding a product or brand to consumers. In this context, brands that are informational generate a tendency to talk through consumer involvement, engaging with the brand and brand consciousness. However, opinion leadership, brand experience and brand equity do not generate a tendency to talk about informational brands. Based on results from the focus groups, the brand experience antecedent can only generate a tendency to talk when a very good or a very bad experience occurs with the brand. Otherwise, consumers do not generate a tendency to talk about informational brands through their experiences.

The perfume products represent the transformational brands. Rossiter et al. (1991) identify transformational products as influencing the consumer's mental, social state and senses. Regarding the results, transformational brands generate tendency through the brand consciousness and brand equity antecedents. It is suggested that transformational products can generate tendency through these antecedents. However, the brand experience, opinion leadership, consumer involvement and brand

engagement antecedents do not generate any tendency to talk about transformational products.

Overall, the results from the multiple-regression tests show that informational and transformational product types have fundamental differences in the context of generating a tendency to talk. The brand consciousness antecedent is the only common antecedent to generate a tendency to talk for both product types. However, the differences between two product types emphasise that different strategies should be used for informational and transformational brands to generate a tendency to talk.

Chapter 7

7.1. Conclusion, Limitations and Further Research

This chapter underlines the contribution of brand talkability to the academic literature and discusses the research aims and objectives. It includes, implications for practitioners, implications for theory and implications for methodology to create new scale.

According to a comprehensive literature review on the concept of brand talkability and word-of-mouth communication, a gap in the academic literature exists that does not clearly identify how consumers generate a tendency to talk about brands without any consumption concerns. In the literature, talking about brands is discussed under word-of-mouth communication (Arndt, 1967; Lau and Ng, 2001; Henning-Thurau et al., 2004; Harrison-Walker, 2001). Moreover, the academic literature does not investigate how consumers generate brand-related talk through a tendency. Furthermore, the scholars approach this only from the perspective of consumption concerns to identify why people talk about brands.

Brand talkability research argues that consumers generate a tendency to talk about particular brands beyond consumption concerns, and as a consequence of achieved research objectives, this is accepted as the definition of brand talkability.

This research identifies the preceding stage of talking about a brand, and the antecedents that generate that tendency. It is accepted that word-of-mouth communication defines brand-related talk, however it does not adequately investigate

how consumers generate a tendency to talk about a brand. Consequently, brand talkability is a different concept than the word-of-mouth communication.

7.2. Implications for Methodological to Create a Scale

The present research introduces a new construct to literature that was not previously discussed. Following the literature review to identify the gap for brand talkability, a validated measurement scale was designed. To achieve a validated and well-grounded measurement scale, the stages of Churchill's (1979) and Michel and Reunier's (2012) scale development processes are followed. The development of a measurement scale involved interviews with six focus groups (26 participants) and two online questionnaires (500 participants). The focus groups generated the items of the measurement scale. The two online questionnaires were used for scale validation and development. The results from Churchill's (1979) scale development process succeeded, and a validated brand talkability scale was created. Thus, the results suggested that a brand talkability measurement scale contains 11-items with four dimensions: interest, brand characteristics, experiences and ownership.

The purpose of a brand talkability measurement scale is to identify different levels of brand talkability, assess its strengths and improve the weaknesses of a brand's talkability. Furthermore, this measurement scale enables the development of strategies that can generate a tendency for consumers to talk about a brand. Additionally, it can develop or revise an existing strategy that is not capable of generating a tendency and can also identify an existing brand-related conversation unrelated to any consumption concern. This measurement scale provides validated and reliable quantitative results of different brand talkability levels.

7.2.1. Implications of the Theory

The implications of theory are discussed through the research objectives. These objectives were created to develop a new construct that contributes to the academic literature. Moreover, this section discusses the differences between brand talkability and word-of-mouth communication, and furthermore, the fundamental role of different product types on the brand talkability construct.

7.2.2. Identify the Influence of Consumers and Brands

Research into brand talkability approaches the issue of the tendency to talk from two perspectives: brand and consumers. These two categories enables the influential role of brands to be identified and how consumers prefer a particular brand. Additionally, categorising antecedents enables the construct to be extended and new antecedents added in further studies.

Identifying the antecedents for brand talkability involved an extensive literature review of the antecedents of the word-of-mouth construct. Dichter (1966), Engel et al. (1993) Sundaram et al. (1998) and de Matos et al. (2008) contribute to the literature with different types of word-of-mouth antecedents. The extensive literature review shows that antecedents of word-of-mouth constructs are biased on consumption concerns. Moreover, other factors that lead to talking about a brand are not adequately discussed with these antecedents. Furthermore, these scholars do not categorise antecedents into the categories of brand and consumers. Consequently, these models cannot be extended to identify different factors that generate a brand-related conversation.

Results from the literature review generated two category antecedents and created a model that is capable of capturing new factors in future studies.

The brand-related antecedents investigate the influential role of brands on consumers. For this category, antecedents are selected that discuss how brands influence consumers during the generation of a tendency. However, the academic literature does not discuss the tendency adequately; therefore, the relationship between the antecedents and word-of-mouth is extensively interpreted and a relationship with brand talkability and their antecedents is identified.

The consumer-related antecedents investigate brand talkability from the consumer's perspective. Based on the literature review these antecedents identify how consumers generate a tendency, and why they prefer a particular brand instead of the alternatives. This category enables the consumer's perspective to be understood from the concept of brand talkability.

The antecedents of brand talkability are tested through two different types of products: cars and perfumes; cars represent informational brands and perfumes represent transformational brands. This enabled the reaction of participants to different products to be identified, the impact of antecedents on different products to be identified, and this provided an opportunity for further research.

7.2.3. Implications for Practitioners and Managers

Brand talkability research identifies a new argument: the tendency to talk about a brand without any consumption concerns. It investigated how consumers generate a tendency to talk about brands, even though they are not planning to consume them. However, this construct resembled word-of-mouth communication.

Both constructs discuss the brand-related talk generated by consumers. Despite the similarity, word-of-mouth communication does not offer a comprehensive perspective to investigate the preceding stage of talking about a brand, and the antecedents that generate a tendency.

The present research investigates this gap in the literature and the following results are achieved: (1) definition of brand talkability; (2) validated measurement scale for brand talkability; and (3) antecedents of brand talkability for two different product types.

Consequently, brand talkability and word-of-mouth communication is differentiated based on these results. The word-of-mouth construct is not capable of identifying a tendency to talk about a brand and identifying the different levels, even though word-of-mouth communication has four different antecedent groups (Dichter, 1966; Engel et al., 1993; Sundaram et al., 1998 and de Matos et al., 2008). However, none are designed to explore the tendency to talk. Those antecedents are designed to explore the reason for word-of-mouth communication, which occurs based on a consumption concern and is not related with any type of tendency.

With the brand talkability construct, researchers are not limited to word-of-mouth communication and its antecedents to identify why consumers talk about a particular brand, and how they generate a tendency. Instead of analysing through the word-of-mouth communication researchers can use the measurement scale of brand talkability and identify different levels of tendency. Consequently, a strategy can be analysed, and the possibility to generate a tendency can be estimated with the help of the brand talkability measurement scale.

Unlike word-of-mouth communication, the brand talkability construct identifies non-consumption related tendencies. This enables researchers to investigate the reason why consumers talk about particular brands, even though they are not concerned with consuming. However, the word-of-mouth communication construct is not capable of identifying this issue. Therefore, attempting to identify why consumers talk about brands without consumption concerns, through the word-of-mouth construct, does not provide any reliable outcomes.

As result of social media engagement, the importance of engaging with brand-related conversation has, in recent years, become very important. The brand talkability concept enables managers to identify the factors that lead individuals to talk about their brands. This will help to create digital campaigns that have a higher tendency to be shared on social media platforms. Furthermore, the content that is created on social media will be shared organically by the users without any promotion. Thus, the budget for social media advertisement and pay-per-click based campaigns can be reduced. the effectiveness of the marketing and advertisement budgets are improved.

In addition, generating a tendency to talk about a brand will turn each individual into a brand ambassador. This audience will talk about the brand on different social media platforms and provide trustworthy content. Instead of using celebrities to promote the brand or the product, brand ambassadors will take this role.

A brand can use the brand talkability measurement scale to identify the strong and weak dimensions of their influence on consumers' tendency to talk. This enables the brand to improve the marketing strategy to increase the tendency and make people talk about the brand. Furthermore, measurement of different levels of brand talkability demonstrates the performance of the existing strategy. Thus, the marketing strategy can be improved to reach the desired level of the brand talkability. Consequently, improving the talkability enables the brand to engage with wider audience and generate tendency to talk.

7.2.4. Limitations and Further Studies

This section addresses the limitations of the brand talkability research. Brand talkability research systematically introduces a new concept to the literature that investigates why consumers talk about brands without any consumption concerns. As a consequence of introducing a new concept, the present research experienced some limitations. The two main limitations of the research were time and a lack of prior research.

The present study is research for a master's degree, thus the allowed time frame is shorter than research for a PhD. Therefore, the restricted time frame led to two limitations: sample size and demographic bias. The sample size of the brand

talkability research was 526 individuals, including two online questionnaires and six focus groups interviews. This sample size provided reliable and validated data for the present research, enabled a measurement scale to be created and the hypotheses to be tested. However, the results from the tested hypotheses showed that a larger sample might enable the relationship between the antecedents and brand talkability to be identified in a more comprehensive approach.

Demographic bias occurred based on the educational background of the participants. Due to the limited time frame, the focus groups' interviews were conducted with undergraduate and postgraduate students of the University of Birmingham. This enabled a certain degree of educated responses to the questions. However, their educational level provides a different perspective on the questions compared to a more general population, educated to a lower level. Unfortunately, the present study was not able to capture the responses of people who had no university education. In addition, one of the focus groups (Session D, see App.3) interviews were conducted with only male attendance. This condition was occurred due to examination period of the university.

The consumer involvement antecedent for car products resulted with a negative beta value that demonstrated a negative relation with the brand talkability concept. Therefore, further research should be conducted for consumer involvement antecedent to identify the negative relation.

The final limitation was the lack of previous research conducted on a similar, or the same, concept. The marketing literature does not discuss why consumers talk about a

brand beyond the consumption. Thus, there was a clear lack of research that discussed the antecedents of this unique situation. In the case of earlier existing research, which is similar to the concept of brand talkability, the present research may develop and extend the conceptual structure.

Overall, research into brand talkability experienced limitations due to time restrictions and a lack of prior research. As a result of these limitations, further research can extend the conceptual framework of brand talkability, identify the relationships among the antecedents and the concept, and extend the numbers of antecedents to cover a wider range of perspectives.

For further studies, the issue of the limitations of this research should be considered. Moreover, different types of products, a wider sample size, revised or extended antecedents, and the relationship between brand talkability and the word-of-mouth construct can be investigated.

Ethics

The present research received full ethical approval from the University of Birmingham. During the data collection and data analyses, processes were conducted based on the guidelines and ethical regulations that followed the rules of the University of Birmingham for interviews with focus groups and online surveys. Data protection and confidentiality of the data were fulfilled by the regulations of the University of Birmingham. Identities of the participants during the data collection process were kept anonymous.

Appendices

Appendices 1 Focus Groups Interviews Questions

Objective	What to say / ask
Introduction (2 Min)	Nature of research and how will be used • Exploring tendency of consumers to talk about a particular brand irrespective of consumption. • Exploring Brand Talkability • MSc Research - Birmingham Business School, department of marketing. • Used in a MSc dissertation. • Recording for recollection purposes/quotes. • Anything said will be confidential and anonymous/your personal data will not be passed on to anyone else. • Think of this as an informal chat - there are not right or wrong answers. • I'm interested in your honest views and opinions about the topics above.
Warm Up (5 - 8 Min)	Now, before we start, tell me a little bit about yourselves, eg.: • Your name • Age (or age range) • What you are studying / in which school • If you have a job • Favourite social activity
Talkability (30 Min)	As you know this research is about brand talkability/tendency to talk about brands • Do you talk about the brands of products with friends /family etc. (without consumption concern?) • What kind of brands do you find yourself talking about? • Do you talk about the brands when you decide on purchase? When? • Do you talk only about particular brands that you own or wish to own? • Do you have any connection with those brands? • If you own that brand, will you talk about it continuously? • Do you use social media in talking about the brand? E.g. SNS, Blogs, etc. • Do you think that an experience with the brand (positive/negative) leads you to talk about it? • Does the equity of the brand have a major influence on you? • Do important people on media encourage you talking about the brands?
Exploring More on Talkability (30 Min)	Ok, so we have discussed. Now I would like us to talk about the reasons for talking about brands • Does brand equity of a brand influence you to talk about the brand? • When you have an experience with a brand and this lead you to talk about that brand more? Experience with the brand such as; design, package, communication, package and its results. • When you are engaged with a brand, do you tend to talk more about it? Engagement with the brand is; consumers' propensity to include particular brand as a part of their life. • When you are talking about a brand, do you tend to prefer particular brands unconsciously? • When a brand captures your interest, satisfy your needs and you develop an enduring involvement, do you tend to talk about that brand more? • Do opinion leadership on media have influence on you when you are talking about a brand? Do you they change your tendency?

Any Other Relevant Aspects No Discussed (2 - 5 Min)	The discussion is coming to an end now, so: • Is there anything we haven't talked about that you think we should discuss?
Finalise Group (2 Min)	Thank and close • Ask to fill in demographics from. • Give incentive (have them sign form for receiving incentive). • Indicate whether would like to receive preliminary report draft in order to provide feedback.

Appendices 2 Focus Groups Interviews Coding

Numeric	Data Category	Alpha Index
1	**STUDY**	**STD**
1.1	International Marketing	Std.IntMar
1.2	Marketing Communications	Std.MarCom
1.3	Marketing Strategies	Std.MarStr
2	**JOB**	**JOB**
2.1	Jobless	Job.Jobless
4	**TALKING WITH OTHERS**	**TWO**
4.1	Yes	Two.Yes
4.2	No	Two.No
4.3	Interesting	Two.Inter
4.4	Consumption	Two.Cons
4.5	New	Two.New
4.6	For Opinion	Two.FO
4.7	During a general conversation	Two.GT
4.8	Limited to Consumption	Two.Limit
4.9	If I can't afford, I don't talk	Two.Afford
4.10	Exception	Two.Except
4.11	Popular brands	Two.Pop
4.12	Product quality	Two.Qual
5	**BRANDS CLOSER TO TALK**	**CB**
5.1	Particular Brands	CB.PB
5.1.1	Technology	CB.PB.Tech
5.1.2	Fashion	CB.PB.Fashion
5.1.3	Alcohol	CB.PB.Alco
5.1.4	Big Brands	CB.PB.Big
5.1.5	Soft Drinks	CB.PB.SoftD
5.1.6	Cars	CB.PB.Cars
5.1.7	Foods	CB.PB.Food
6	**CONSUMPTION**	**CONS**
6.1	Yes	Cons.Yes
6.2	No	Cons.No
6.3	Comparison	Cons.Comp
6.4	Depends on situation	Cons.Dep
6.5	Only particular brand	Cons.Part
6.6	To learn about the brand or product	Cons.Learn
7	**WISH TO OWN**	**WISH**
7.1	Particular	Wish.Part
7.1.1	Cars	Wish.Part.Cars
7.1.2	Technology	Wish.Part.Tech
7.2	Emphasise	Wish.Emp
7.3	Not Much	Wish.Not
7.4	No	Wish.No
8	**CONNECTION**	**CON**
8.1	Technology	Con.Tech
8.2	Fashion	Con.Fash

8.3	Cars	Con.Cars
8.4	Alcohol	Con.Alc
9	**CONTINUOUS TALKING**	**TALK**
9.1	Yes	Talk.Yes
9.2	No	Talk.No
9.3	Brands	Talk.Br
9.3.1	Technology	Talk.Br.Tech
9.3.2	Particular	Talk.Br.Part
9.4	Compare	Talk.Compare
10	**SOCIAL NETWORK SERVICES**	**SNS**
10.1	Yes	SNS.Yes
10.2	No	SNS.No
10.3	Following Brands on SNS	SNS.Follow
10.4	Exposed to materials by others' posts	SNS.Exp
10.5	Not a good platform for this	SNS.Plat
11	**EXPERIENCE**	**EXP**
11.1	Yes	Exp.Yes
11.2	No	Exp.No
11.3	Positive	Exp.Pos
11.4	Negative	Exp.Neg
11.5	Talking instead of posting on SNS	Exp.Talk
11.6	Share on SNS	Exp.SNS
12	**BRAND EQUITY**	**EQUITY**
12.1	Yes	Equity.Yes
12.2	No	Equity.No
12.3	Impossible to Avoid	Equity.Avoid
12.4	Unconsciously	Equity.Uncon
12.5	Brands are part of life	Equity.Part
12.6	Advertisements and marketing	Equity.Ads
13	**MEDIA / OLS**	**OLS**
13.1	Encourage	Ols.Encourge
13.2	Doesn't encourage	Ols.Deng
13.3	Doing my own research	Ols.OwnR
13.4	Advertisements	Ols.Ads
13.5	I trust friends	Ols.Friend
13.6	Don't remember OLS	Ols.Drem
13.7	OLS places brand into our subconscious	Ols.SubC
14	**EXPERIENCE WITH THE BRAND**	**EXPW**
14.1	Talk	ExpW.Talk
14.2	Don't Talk	ExpW.Dtalk

14.3	If experience is really good	ExpW.Rgood
15	**UNCONSCIOUSNESS**	**UnC**
15.1	Yes	UnC.Yes
15.2	No	UnC.No
15.3	Brand Type	UnC.BType
15.3.1	Fashion	UnC.BType.Fash
15.3.2	Technology	UnC.BType.Tech
15.4	There are too many brands to remember	UnC.TMany
15.5	Well-Known brands	UnC.WBrands
15.6	Particular Brands	UnC.PBrand
16	**INVOLVEMENT**	**INV**
16.1	Involve	Inv.Inv
16.2	Doesn't involve	Inv.DInv
16.3	Satisfaction	Inv.Sat
16.4	Event makes me talk	Inv.Evn
16.5	Interesting / Creative	Inv.Int

Appendices 3 Focus Groups Profiles of Participants

Session	Participant	Age	Gender
A	1	24	Male
	2	26	Male
	3	20	Female
	4	20	Male
B	1	23	Female
	2	23	Female
	3	23	Female
	4	23	Female
	5	25	Male
	6	22	Male
C	1	23	Female
	2	23	Female
	3	24	Female
	4	23	Female
D	1	26	Male
	2	26	Male
	3	31	Male
	4	26	Male
E	1	22	Male
	2	23	Female
	3	26	Female
F	1	26	Female
	2	25	Male
	3	22	Male
	4	25	Male
	5	23	Male

Appendices 4 Descriptive Statistics for Brand Talkability Items

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. When there is something interesting about a brand, I tend to talk about it	250	1	5	2.21	0.973
2. I talk about brands during conversations with friends/family	250	1	5	2.43	1.009
3. I talk about brands when someone asks my opinion	250	1	5	2.06	0.910
4. I will talk about a brand if I intend to buy it	250	1	5	2.17	0.984
5. I don't talk about brands that I don't like	250	1	5	3.48	1.084
6. I talk about particular brands that I wish to own	250	1	5	2.46	1.010
7. I talk about brands I already own	250	1	5	2.28	0.954
8. I talk about favourite brands	250	1	5	2.08	0.952
9. I tend to talk about a brand I had a good experience with	250	1	5	1.82	0.787
10. A very bad experience with a brand makes people talk about it	250	1	5	1.76	0.782
11. I tend to talk about well-known 'respectful' brands more than others	250	1	5	2.91	1.079
12 I tend to talk about brands that attract a lot of media attention	250	1	5	2.90	0.977
13. The brand's design and/or packaging makes me talk about a specific brand	250	1	5	2.79	1.004
14. I will talk about a brand that is relevant to me	250	1	5	2.15	0.854
15. I will talk about a brand that is expensive	250	1	5	3.09	1.051
16. I talk about specific brands with others on social media (Facebook, Twitter)	250	1	5	3.36	1.104
Valid N (listwise)	250				

Appendices 5 Correlations for Car Model

		Brand Talkability	Brand Engagement	Brand Experience	Brand Equity	Involvement	Opinion Leadership	Brand Consciousness
Pearson Correlation	Brand Talkability	1.000	0.354	0.206	0.248	0.156	0.220	0.422
	Brand Engagement	0.354	1.000	0.411	0.518	0.584	0.406	0.618
	Brand Experience	0.206	0.411	1.000	0.647	0.289	0.272	0.377
	Brand Equity	0.248	0.518	0.647	1.000	0.408	0.310	0.483
	Involvement	0.156	0.584	0.289	0.408	1.000	0.485	0.560
	Opinion Leadership	0.220	0.406	0.272	0.310	0.485	1.000	0.507
	Brand Consciousness	0.422	0.618	0.377	0.483	0.560	0.507	1.000
Sig0. (1-tailed)	Brand Talkability	.	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.007	0.000	0.000
	Brand Engagement	0.000	.	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Brand Experience	0.001	0.000	.	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Brand Equity	0.000	0.000	0.000	.	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Involvement	0.007	0.000	0.000	0.000	.	0.000	0.000
	Opinion Leadership	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	.	0.000
	Brand Consciousness	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	00.000	.
N	Brand Talkability	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Brand Engagement	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Brand Experience	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Brand Equity	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Involvement	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Opinion Leadership	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Brand Consciousness	250	250	250	250	250	250	250

Appendices 6 Correlations for Perfume Model

		Brand Talkability	Brand Engagement	Brand Experience	Brand Equity	Involvement	Opinion Leadership	Brand Consciousness
Pearson Correlation	Brand Talkability	1.000	0.408	0.274	0.408	0.379	0.302	0.528
	Brand Engagement	0.408	1.000	0.551	0.561	0.723	0.431	0.595
	Brand Experience	0.274	0.551	1.000	0.766	0.567	0.460	0.475
	Brand Equity	0.408	0.561	0.766	1.000	0.542	0.493	0.595
	Involvement	0.379	0.723	0.567	0.542	1.000	0.463	0.613
	Opinion Leadership	0.302	0.431	0.460	0.493	0.463	1.000	0.477
	Brand Consciousness	0.528	0.595	0.475	0.595	0.613	0.477	1.000
Sig0. (1-tailed)	Brand Talkability	.	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Brand Engagement	0.000	.	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Brand Experience	0.000	0.000	.	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Brand Equity	0.000	0.000	0.000	.	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Involvement	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	.	0.000	0.000
	Opinion Leadership	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	.	0.000
	Brand Consciousness	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	.
N	Brand Talkability	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Brand Engagement	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Brand Experience	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Brand Equity	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Involvement	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Opinion Leadership	250	250	250	250	250	250	250
	Brand Consciousness	250	250	250	250	250	250	250

Appendices 7 Online Questionnaires and Items

First and second questionnaires had the same brand talkability items and demographics questions.

Talkability

Brand talkability is the tendency of consumers to talk about a particular brand.

1. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following

	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. When there is something interesting about a brand, I tend to talk about it	○	○	○	○	○
b. I talk about brands during conversations with friends/family	○	○	○	○	○
c. I talk about brands when someone asks my opinion	○	○	○	○	○
d. I will talk about a brand if I intend to buy it	○	○	○	○	○
e. I don't talk about brands that I don't like	○	○	○	○	○
f. I talk about particular brands that I wish to own	○	○	○	○	○
g. I talk about brands I already own	○	○	○	○	○
h. I talk about favourite brands	○	○	○	○	○
i. I tend to talk about a brand I had a good experience with	○	○	○	○	○
j. A very bad experience with a brand makes people talk about it	○	○	○	○	○
k. I tend to talk about well-known 'respectfull' brands more than others	○	○	○	○	○
l. I tend to talk about brands that attract a lot of media attention	○	○	○	○	○
m. The brand's design and/or packaging makes me talk about a specific brand	○	○	○	○	○
n. I will talk about a brand that is relevant to me	○	○	○	○	○
o. I will talk about a brand that is expensive	○	○	○	○	○
p. I talk about specific brands with others on social media (Facebook, Twitter)	○	○	○	○	○

The following sections were from the second questionnaire was including the previous section.

Involvement

2. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following

	Perfumes					Cars				
	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. X is important to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. I am concerned with X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. I found X releveant to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. X means a lot to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. X is useless to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
f. X is valuable to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
g. I consider X as trivial	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
h. X is beneficial to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
i. X matters to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
j. I am interested in X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
k. I consider X significant	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
l. X is vital to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
m. X is boring	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
n. X is unexciting	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
o. X is appealing to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
p. X is essential to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
q. I consider X as desirable	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
r. I want X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
s. I need X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Brand Engagement

Brand Engagement is; an individual difference representing consumers' propensity to include important brands as a part of how they view them-selves.

3. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following (x denotes perfumes/cars)

	Perfumes					Cars				
	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. I have a special bond with the brand of X I buy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. I consider my favourite brand of X to be a part of myself	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. I often feel a personal connection between the brand of X and me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. Part of me is defined by the brand of X in my life	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. I feel as if I have a close personal connection with the brand of X I most prefer	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
f. I can identify with brand of X in my life	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
g. There are links between the brand of X that I prefer and how I view myself	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
h. My favourite brand of X is an important indication of who I am	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Brand Consciousness

4. Please indicate the extend to which you agree with the following (x represent the product)

	Perfumes					Cars				
	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. I pay attention to the brand names of the X I buy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. The brand name tells me something about the quality of X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. The brand name tell me something about how "cool" X is	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. Sometimes I am willing to pay more money for X because its brand name	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. The brand name of X that cost a lot of money are of good quality	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
f. I pay attention to the brand names of most of the X I buy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

150

Opinion Leadership

Opinion Leaders

5. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following

	Perfumes					Cars				
	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. Other people rarely ask me about X before they choose one for themselves	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. My opinion on X seems not to count with other people	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. My opinion influences what types of X other people buy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. Other people think I am a poor source of information on X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. When they choose X, other people do not turn to me for advice	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
f. Other people come to me for advice about choosing X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
g. People that I know pick X based on what I have told them	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
h. People rarely repeat things I have told them about X brand to other people	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
i. What I say about X rarely changes other people's minds	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
j. I often persuade other people to buy X that I like	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
k. I often influence people's opinions about X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

6. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following

	Perfumes					Cars				
	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	Agree 2	Neutral 3	Disagree 4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. When I consider buying X, I ask other people for advice	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. I don't need to talk to others before I buy X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. Other people influence my choice of X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. I would not choose X without consulting someone else	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. I rarely ask other people what X to buy	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
f. I like to get others' opinions before I buy X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
g. I feel more comfortable buying a X when I have gotten other people's opinions on it	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
h. When choosing a X, other people's opinions are not important to me	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Brand Experience

7. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following

	Zara					Chanel					Kia					Mercedes-Benz				
	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. This brand makes a strong impression on me	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
b. I find this brand interesting in a sensual way	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
c. This brand does not appeal to me	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
d. This brand induces feelings and sentiments	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
e. I do not have strong emotions for this brand	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
f. I engage in physical actions and behaviours when I use this brand	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
g. This brand results in physical experiences	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
h. This brand is not action oriented	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
i. I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter this brand	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
j. This brand does not make me think	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎
k. This brand stimulates my curiosity and problem solving	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎	◎

Brand Equity

Brand Loyalty

8. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following

	Zara					Chanel					Kia					Mercedes-Benz				
	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. I consider myself to be loyal to X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. X would be my first choice	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. I will not buy other brands if X is available at store	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Perceived Quality

9. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following

	Zara					Chanel					Kia					Mercedes-Benz				
	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. The likely quality of X is extremely high	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. The likelihood that X would be functional is very high	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Brand Awareness/Associations

10. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following

	Zara					Chanel					Kia					Mercedes-Benz				
	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. I can recognise X among other competing brands	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. I am aware of X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. Some of characteristics of X come to my mind quickly	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
e. I have difficulty in imaging X in my mind	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

155

11. Please indicate the extend to which you agree and disagree with the following

	Zara					Chanel					Kia					Mercedes-Benz				
	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5	Strongly Agree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Disagree 5
a. It makes sense to buy X instead of any other brand, even they are the same	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
b. Even if another brand has the same features as X, I would prefer to buy X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
c. If there is another brand as good as X, I prefer X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
d. If another brand is not different from X in any way, it seems smarter to purchase X	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

156

Demographics

12. Your birthday

[_____] (DD-MM-YYYY)

13. Gender

○ Male
○ Female

14. Your education level.

○ University (Below)
○ Undergraduate
○ Master
○ PhD
○ None

15. Employment

○ Unemployed
○ Student
○ Part-Time
○ Full-Time

16. Please select a country to describe your nationality

[Select an answer ▼]

If you selected Other, please specify:

[_____]

List of References

Aaker, D. A. (1991) **Managing brand equity.** San Francisco: Free Press.

Aaker, D. A. (1996) **Building strong brands.** New York: Free Press.

Aaker, J. L. (1997) Dimension of brand personality. **Journal of Marketing Research,** 34 (August): 347–356.

Aaker, J. L., Fournier, S. and Brasel, A. S. (2004) When good brands do bad. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 31 (June): 1–16.

Aaker, J. L., Marinez, V. B. and Garolera, J. (2001) Consumption symbols as carrier of culture: a study of Japanese and Spanish brand personality constructs. **Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,** 81 (3): 492-508.

Abrantes, J. L., Seabra, C., Lages, C. R., Jayawardhena, C. (2012) Drivers of in-group and out-of-group electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM). **European Journal of Marketing,** 47 (7): 1067-1088.

Aggarwal, P. (2004) The effects of brand relationship norms on consumer attitudes and behaviour. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 31 (June): 87-101.

Alexandrov, A., Lilly, B. and Babakus, E. (2013) The effects of social- and self-motives on the intentions to share positive and negative word of mouth. **Journal of the Academy Marketing Science,** 41: 531-546.

Anderson, E. (1998) Customer satisfaction and Word of Mouth. **Journal of Service Research,** 1 (1): 5-17.

Anderson, J. and Gerbing, D. (1988) Structural equation modelling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. **Psychological Bulletin,** 103 (3): 411-423.

Anderson, T. W. (2003) **An introduction to multivariate statistical analysis.** New York: John Wiley.

Arndt, J. (1967) Role of product-related conversations in the diffusion of a new product. **Journal of Marketing Research,** 4 (3): 291-295.

Bagozzi, R. P. and Yi, Y. (1988) On the evaluation of structural equation models. **Academy of Marketing Science,** 16 (1): 74-94.

Ball, D. A. and Tasaki, L. (1992) The role and measurement of attachment in consumer behaviour. **Journal of Consumer Psychology,** 1 (2): 155–72.

Batinic, B., Appel, M. (2013) Mass communication, social influence and consumer behaviour: two field experiments. **Journal of Applied Social Psychology,** 43: 1353-1368.

Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G. and Haws, K. L. (2011) **Handbook of marketing scales.** 3rd ed. London: Sage.

Belk, W. R. (1988) Possessions and the extended self. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 15: 139-168.

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

Bello, D., Kwok L. and Lee R. et al. (2009) From the editors: student samples in international business research. **Journal of International Business Studies,** 40: 361-364.

Bergadaa, M. and Faure, C. (1995) Enduring involvement with shopping. **Journal of Social Psychology,** 135 (1): 17–26.

Bertandias, L. and Goldsmith, R. E. (2006) Some psychological motivations for fashion opinion leadership and fashion opinion seeking. **Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management,** 10 (1): 25-40.

Bezencon, V. and Blili, S. (2008) Ethical products and consumer involvement: What's new? **European Journal of Marketing,** 44 (4/5): 1305-1321.

Bickart, B. and Schindler, R. M. (2001), Internet forums as influential sources of consumer information. **Journal of Interactive Marketing,** 15 (3): 31-40.

Bijmolt, T. H. A., Leefland, P. S. H. and Block, F. et al. (2010) Analytics for customer engagement. **Journal of Service Research,** 13 (3): 341-356.

Bitner, M. J. (1990) Evaluating service encounters: the effects of physical surroundings and employee responses. **Journal of Marketing,** 54 (April): 69-82.

Blaikie, N. (1993) **Approaches to social enquiry.** Cambridge: Polity.

Blazevic. V., Hammedi, W., Garnefeld, I., Rust, R. T., Keiningham, T., Andreassen, T. W., Donthu, N. and Carl, W. (2013) Beyond traditional word-of-mouth An expanded model of customer-driven influence. **Journal of Service Management,** 24 (3): 294-313.

Bloch, P. H. and Richins, M. L. (1983) A theoretical model for the study of product importance perceptions. **Journal of Marketing (**47): 69-81.

Blodgett, J. G., Granbois, D. H. and Walters, R. G. (1993) The effects of perceived justice on complainants' negative Word of Mouth behaviour and repatronage intentions. **Journal of Retailing,** 69 (4): 399-428.

Brady, M. K., Voorhess, C. M. and Cronin, J. J. et al. (2006) The good guys don't always win: The effects of valence on service perceptions and consequences. **Journal of Service Marketing,** 20 (2): 83-91.

Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H. and Zarantonello, L. (2009) Brand Experience: What is it? How is it measured? Does it affect loyalty? **Journal of Marketing,** 73: 52-68.

Brown J. J. and Reingen, P. H. (1987) Social ties and Word of Mouth referral behaviour. **The Journal of Consumer Research,** 14 (3): 350-362.

Brown, J., Broderick, A. J. and Lee, N. (2007) Word of Mouth communication within online communities: Conceptualizing the online social network. **Journal Of Interactive Marketing,** 21 (3): 2-20.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2003) **Social research methods.** 3rd ed. Oxford: OUP.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2008) **Social research methods.** 3rd ed. Oxford: OUP.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2011) **Business research methods.** 3rd ed. Oxford: OUP.

Buttle, F. A. (1998) Word of Mouth: Understanding and managing referral marketing. **Journal of Strategic Marketing,** 6: 241–254.

Carson, D., Gilmore, A. Perry, C. and Grondhaug, K. (2001) **Qualitative marketing research**. London: Sage.

Celsi, R. L. and Olson, J.C. (1988) The role of involvement in attention and comprehension processes. **The Journal of Consumer Research,** 15 (2): 210-224.

Chanel (2011) **Press Releases** [online]. Available from: http://chanel-news.chanel.com/en/home.html [Accessed 1 December 2011].

Chang, P. and Chieng, M. (2006) Building consumer-brand relationship: A cross cultural experiential view. **Psychology & Marketing,** 23 (11) 927-959.

Chaplin, L. N. and John, D. R. (2005) The development of self–brand connections in children and adolescents. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 32 (June): 119–29.

Chatterjee, P. (2001) Online review: Do consumers use them? **Advances in Consumer Research,** 28 (1) 129–133.

Cheung, C. M. K. and Lee, M. K. O. (2012) What drivers consumers to spread electronic word of mouth in online consumer-opinion platforms. **Decision Support Systems,** 53:218-225.

Cheung, C. M. K. and Thadani, D. R. (2012) The impact of electronic word-of-mouth communication: A literature analysis and integrative model. **Decision Support Systems,** 54:461-470.

Childers, T. L. (1986) Assessment of the psychometric properties of an opinion leadership scale. **Journal of Marketing Research,** 23: 184-188.

Christodoulides, G. and de Chernatony, L. (2010) Consumer-Based brand equity conceptualisation and measurement. **International Journal of Market Research,** 52 (1): 43-66.

Christodoulides, G., de Chernatony, L. and Furrer, O. et al. (2006) Conceptualising and measuring the equity of online brands. **Journal of Marketing Management,** 22: 799-825.

Churchill, G. A. (1999) **Marketing research.** 7th Ed. Orlando: The Dryden Press.

Churchill, G. A., Jr. (1979) A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. **Journal of Marketing Research,** 16 (February): 64–73.

Cobb-Walgreen, C. J., Ruble, C. A. and Donthu, N. (1995) Brand equity, brand preference, and purchase intent. **Journal of Advertising,** XXIV (3): 25-40.

Comrey, A. L. and Lee, H. B. (1992) **A First course in factor analysis.** 2nd ed. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Corbetta, P. (2003) **Social research, theory, methods and techniques.** London: Sage.

Costa, P. T. and McCrae, R. R. (1992) **Revised NEO personality inventory and NEO five factor inventory professional manual.** Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Creswell, J, W. (2003) **Research Design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.** London: Sage.

Cronbach, L. J. (1971) **Test validation, In R. L. Thorndike (Ed.) Educational Measurement 2nd Ed.** Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education.

d'Astous, A. and Gargouri, E. (2001) Consumer evaluations of brand imitations. **European Journal of Marketing,** 35: 153–167.

Daimler AG (2010) **Annual Report 2010** [online]. Available from: http://www.daimler.com/Projects/c2c/channel/documents/1985489_Daimler_Annual_Report_2010.pdf [Accessed 1 December 2011].

Daimler AG (2011) **Daimler AG Press Office** [online]. Available from: http://media.daimler.com [Accessed 1 December 2011].

de Matos, C. A. and Rossi, C. A. V. (2008) Word-of-Mouth communications in marketing: A meta-analytic review of the antecedents and moderators. **Academy of Marketing Science**, 36: 578-596.

Dellarocas, C. (2003) The digitization Word of Mouth: promise and challenges of online feedback mechanisms. **Management Science,** 49 (10): 1407-1424.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (1998) **The landscape of qualitative research.** London: Sage.

Dichter, E. (1966) How Word-of-Mouth advertising works. **Harvard Business Review,** 44 (6): 147-160.

Digman, J. M. (1990) Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. **Annual Review of Psychology,** 41: 417-440.

Dittmar, H. (1992) **The social psychology of material possessions.** Hemel Hempstead: Harvester.

Durbin, J. and Watson, G. S. (1951) Testing for serial correlation in least squares regression. **II Biometrika**, 30: 159–178.

Dwyer, P. (2007) **Measuring the value of electronic Word-of-Mouth and its impact in consumer brand equity.** New York: Free Press.

Eliashberg, J. and Shugan, S. M. (1997) Film critics: influencers or predictors? **Journal of Marketing,** 61 (April): 68-78.

Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D. and Miniard, P. W. (1993) **Consumer behaviour**. New York: Dreyden.

Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D. and Miniard, P. W. (1995) **Consumer behaviour**. New York: Dreyden.

Engel, J. F., Kegerreis, R. J. and Blackwell, R. D. (1969) Word of Mouth communication by the innovator. **Journal of Marketing,** 33: 15-19.

Erdem, T. and Swait, J. (1998) Brand equity as a signalling phenomenon. **Journal of Consumer Psychology,** 7 (2): 131–157.

Escalas, J. E. (2004) Narrative processing: Building consumer connections to brands. **Journal of Consumer Psychology,** 14 (1/2): 168-180.

Escalas, J. E. and Bettman, J. R. (2003) You are what they eat: The influence of reference groups on consumers' connections to brands. **Journal of Consumer Psychology,** 13 (3): 339–348.

Escalas, J. E. and Bettman, J. R. (2005) Self-Construal, reference groups and brand meaning. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 32 (December): 378–389.

Farquhar, P. H., Han, J. Y. and Ijiri Y. (1991) Recognizing and measuring brand assets. **Marketing Science Institute,** June: 91-119.

Ferguson, R. J., Paulin, M. and Bergeron, J. (2010) Customer sociability and the total service experience. **Journal of Service Management,** 21 (1): 25-44.

Field, A. (2009) **Discovering statistics using SPSS**. 3rd Ed. London: Sage.

Fishbein, M. and Ajzen, I. (1975) **Belief, attitude, intention, and behaviour: An introduction to theory and research.** Reading: Addison-Wesley.

Flynn, L. R., Goldsmith, R. E. and Eastman, J. K. (1996) Opinion leaders and opinion seekers: two new measurement scales. **Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,** 24 (2): 137-47.

Fornell, C. and David F. L. (1981) Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. **Journal of Marketing Research,** 18 (February): 39–50.

Fournier, S. (1998) Consumers and their brands: developing relationship theory in consumer research. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 24: 343-373.

Gentry, J. W., Putrevu, S. and Schultz, C. et al. (2001) How now Ralph Lauren? The separation of brand and product in a counterfeit culture. **Advances in Consumer Research,** 28: 258–265.

Gilly, M. C., Graham, J. L. and Wolfinbarger, F. M. et al. (1998) A dyadic study of interpersonal information search. **Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,** 26 (2): 83-100.

Godfrey-Smith, P. (2003) **Theory and reality.** London: The University of Chicago.

Goldsmith, R. E. (1996) Consumer involvement: Concepts and research. **Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,** 24 (3): 281–284.

Goldsmith, R. E. and Clark, R. A. (2008) An analysis of factors affecting fashion opinion leadership and fashion opinion seeking. **Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management,** 12 (3): 308-322.

Goldsmith, R. E. and de Witt, T. S. (2003) The predictive validity of an opinion leadership scale. **Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice,** 11 (1): 28-35.

Goldsmith, R. E. and Desbordes, R. (1991) A validity study of a measure of opinion leadership. **Journal of Business Research,** 23 (2): 362-371.

Goldsmith, R. E. and Horowitz, D. (2006) Measuring motivations for online opinion seeking. **Journal of Interactive Advertising,** 6 (2): 1-16.

Goldsmith, R. E., Flynn L. R. and Clark, R. A. (2011) Materialism and brand engagement as shopping motivations. **Journal Retailing and Consumer Services,** 18: 278-284.

Gorn, G. J., Chattopadhyay, A. and Yi, T. et al. (1997) Effects of color as an executional cue in advertising: They are in the shade. **Management Science,** 43 (10): 1387–1400.

Goyette, I., Ricard, L. and Bergeron, J. et al. (2010) e-WOM Scale: Word of Mouth measurement scale for e-services context. **Journal of Administrative Sciences,** 27: 5-23.

Grassl, W. (1999) The reality of brands: Towards an ontology of marketing. **American Journal of Economics and Sociology,** 58 (2): 313–359.

Gray, D. E. (2004) **Doing research in the real world.** 1st ed. London: Sage.

Ha, H. and Perks, H. (2005) Effects of consumer perceptions of brand experience on the web: Brand familiarity, satisfaction and brand trust. **Journal of Consumer Behaviour,** 4 (6): 438-452.

Haigh, D. (1999) **Understanding the financial value of brands.** Brussels: European Association of Advertising Agencies.

Hair, J. F., Jr., William C. B. and Barry J. et al. (2009) **Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective.** 7th ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Harrison-Walker, L. J. (2001) The measurement of Word of Mouth communication and an investigation of service quality and customer commitment as potential antecedents, **Journal of Service Research,** 4 (1): 60-75.

Havitz, M. E., and Dimanche, F. (1999) Leisure involvement revisited: Drive properties and paradoxes. **Journal of Leisure Research,** 31: 122-149.

Henning-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P. and Walsh G. et al. (2004) Electronic Word of Mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: what motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the internet. **Journal of Interactive Marketing,** 18 (1): 38-52.

Herr, P. M., Kardes, F. R. and Kim, J. (1991) Effects of Word of Mouth and product attribute information on persuasion: An accessibility-diagnosticity perspective, **Journal of Consumer Research,** 17: 454-462.

Higie, R. A. and Feick, L. F. (1989) Enduring involvement: Conceptual and measurement issues. **Advances in Consumer Research,** 16: 690-696.

Hoch, S. J. (2002) Product experience is seductive. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 29 (December): 448–454.

Holbrook, M. B. and Hirschman, E. C. (1982) The experiential aspects of consumption: Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 9 (September): 132–140.

Houston, M. B. and Walker, B. A. (1996) Self-relevance and purchase goals: Mapping consumer decision. **Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,** 24: 232-245.

Hui, M. K. and Bateson, J. E. G. (1991) Perceived control and the effects of crowding and consumer choice on the service experience. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 18 (September): 174–184.

Hunt, S.D. and Morgan, R. M. (1995) The comparative advantage theory of competition, **Journal of Marketing,** 59 (2): 1–15.

Hutcheson, G. and Sofroniou, N. (1999) **The multivariate social scientist.** London: Sage.

Inditex (2011) **Annual Report 2010** [online]. Available from: http://www.inditex.com/en/downloads/Annual_Report_INDITEX_10.pdf [Accessed 1 December 2011].

Jang, H., Lee, B. and Park, M. et al. (2000) Measuring underlying meanings of gambling from the perspective of enduring involvement. **Journal of Travel Research,** 38: 230-238.

John, O. P. and Srivastava, S. (1999) **The big five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives, handbook of personality: Theory and research.** 2nd ed. New York: Guilford.

Johnson, T. K., Francis, S. K. and Burns, L. D. (2007) Appearance management behaviour and the five factor model of personality. **Clothing and Textiles Research Journal,** 25 (3): 230-243.

Joy, A. and Sherry Jr. J. F. (2003) Speaking of art as embodied imagination: A multisensory approach to understanding aesthetic experience. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 20 (September): 259–282.

Kang, J. and Park-Poaps, H. (2010) Hedonic and utilitarian shopping motivations of fashion leadership. **Journal of Fashion Marketing & Management,** 14 (2): 312-328.

Kapferer, J. N. (1992) **Strategic brand management: New approaches to creating and evaluating brand equity.** New York: Free Press.

Kapferer, J. N. and Laurent, G (1985) Measuring consumer involvement profiles. **Journal of Marketing Research,** 22: 41-53.

Kapferer, J. N. and Laurent, G. (1985) "Brand sensitivity: A new concept for brand management" In **Proceedings of the Annual Conference of the European Marketing Academy University of Bielefeld, Germany.**

Kapferer, J. N. and Laurent, G. (1986) Consumer involvement profiles: A new practical approach to consumer involvement. **Journal of Advertising Research,** 25 (6): 48-56.

Kapferer, J. N. and Laurent, G. (1988) **Consumer brand sensitivity: a key to measuring and managing brand equity, defining, measuring and managing brand equity.** Cambridge: Marketing Science Institute.

Katz, E. and Lazarsfeld, P. F. (1955) **Personal influence: The part played by people in the flow of mass communications.** Glencoe: The Free Press.

Kawakami, T., Kishiya, K. and Parry M. E. (2013) Personal word of mouth, virtual word of mouth and innovation use. **Journal Product Innovation Management,** 30 (1): 17-30.

Keller, E. (2007) Unleashing the power of Word of Mouth: creating brand advocacy to drive growth. **Journal of Advertising Research,** 47 (4): 448-452.

Keller, K. L. (1987) Memory factors in advertising: The effects of advertising retrieval cues on brand evaluations. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 14 (December): 316–333.

Keller, K. L. (1993) Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. **Journal of Marketing,** 57 (Jan): 1-22.

Kerin, R. A., Jain, A. and Howard, D. J. (1992) Store shopping experience and consumer price–quality–value perceptions. **Journal of Retailing,** 68 (4): 376–397.

Keum H., Devanathan, N. and Deshpande, S. et al. (2004) The citizen-consumer: media effects at the intersection of consumer and civic culture. **Political Communication,** 21 (3): 369–391.

Kia Motors (2010) **Annual Report 2010** [online]. Available from: http://www.kmcir.com/include/download.asp?file_path=/uploads/KiaMotors_2010_eng.pdf&file_name=KiaMotors_2010_eng.pdf [Accessed 1 December 2011].

Kia Motors (2011) **Kia Press Office** [online]. Available from: http://www.kiapressoffice.com/ [Accessed 1 December 2011].

King, C. W. and Summers, J. O. (1970) Overlap of opinion leadership across consumer product categories. **Journal of Marketing Research,** 7 (1): 43-50.

Kotler, P. (1997) **Marketing management.** 9th Ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Kozinets, R. V., de Valck, K. and Wojnicki, A. C. et al. (2010) Networked narratives: Understanding Word-of-Mouth marketing in online communities. **Journal of Marketing,** 74: 71-89.

Krosnick, J. A. (1999) Survey methodology. **Annual Review of Psychology,** 50: 537-567.

Krugman, H. E. (1965) The impact of television advertising: Learning without involvement. **Public Opinion Quarterly,** 29 (3): 349-356.

Lachance, M. J., Beaudoin, P. and Robitaille, J. (2003) Adolescents' brand sensitivity in apparel: Influence of three socialization agents. **International Journal of Consumer Studies,** 27: 47-57.

Lampert, S. and Rosenberg L. J. (1975) Word of Mouth activity as information search a reappraisal. **Journal of Academy Marketing Science,** 3 (4): 337-354.

Lau, G. T. and Ng, S. (2001) Individual and situational factors influencing negative Word-of-Mouth behaviour. **Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences,** 18 (3): 163-178.

Lazarsfeld, P. F., Berelson, B. and Gaudet, H. (1948) **The people's choice**. New York: Columbia University Press.

Lee, M. and Youn, S. (2009), Electronic word of mouth (eWOM). International **Journal of Advertising,** 28 (3): 473-499.

Lewis-Beck, M. S., Bryman, A. and Liao, T. F. (2004) **Social science research method** Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Liang, S. W., Ekinci, Y., Occhiocupo, N. and Whyatt, G. (2014) Antecedents of travellers' electronic word-of-mouth communication. **Journal of Marketing Management,** 29 (5-6): 584-606.

Liao, J. and Wang, L. (2009) Face as a mediator of the relationship between material value and brand consciousness. **Psychology & Marketing,** 26 (11): 987-1001.

Lyons, B. and Handerson, K. (2005) Opinion leadership in a computer mediated environment. **Journal of Consumer Behaviour,** 4 (5): 319-329.

Malhorta, N. and Birks, D. (2007) **Marketing research: An applied orientation.** 3rd Ed., England: Prentice Hall.

Mandel, N. and Johnson, E. J. (2002) When web pages influence choice: effects of visual primes on experts and novices. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 29 (September): 235–245.

Markus, H. (1977) Self-schemata and processing information about the self. **Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,** 35 (2): 63–78.

Marsh, C. (1992) **The survey method: The contribution of surveys to sociological explanation.** London: Allen & Unwin.

Mason, J. (1996) **Qualitative researching**. London: Sage.

Mazzarol, T., Sweeney, J. C. and Soutar, G. N. (2007) Conceptualizing Word-of-Mouth activity, triggers and conditions: an exploratory study. **European Journal of Marketing,** 41 (11/12): 1475-1494.

McCrae, R. R. and Costa P. T. (1990) **Personality in adulthood.** New York: Guilford.

McCrae, R. R. and Costa, P. T. (1994) The stability of personality: Observation and evaluations. **Current Directions in Psychological Science,** 3: 173–175.

McCrae, R. R. and John O. P. (1992) An introduction to the five factor model and its applications. **Journal of Personality,** 60: 175-216.

Meyer, D. J. C. and Anderson, H. C. (2000) Preadolescents and apparel purchasing: conformity to parents and peers in the consumer socialization process. **Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality,** 15: 243–257.

Meyers-Levy, J. and Peracchio, L. A. (1995) How the use of color in advertising affects attitudes: The influence of processing motivation and cognitive demands. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 22 (September): 121–138.

Michaelidou, N. and Dibb, S. (2006) Product involvement: An application in clothing. **Journal of Consumer Behaviour,** 5: 442-453.

Michaelidou, N. and Dibb, S. (2008) Consumer involvement: a new perspective. **The Marketing Review,** 8 (1): 83-99.

Michel, G. and Rieunier, S. (2012) Nonprofit brand image and typicality influences on charitable giving. **Journal of Business Research,** 65: 701–707.

Mizik, N. and Jacobson, R. (2008) The financial value impact of perceptual brand attributes. **Journal of Marketing Research,** 45 (1): 15-32.

Mooradian, T. A. and Olver, J. M. (1997) Can't get no, satisfaction: The impact of personality and emotion on post purchase processes. **Psychology and Marketing,** 14 (4): 379-393.

Mooradian, T. A. and Swan, K. S. (2006) Personality and culture: The case of national extraversion and Word of Mouth. **Journal of Business Research,** 59: 778-785.

Morrison, S. and Crane. F. G. (2007) Building the service brand by creating and managing an emotional brand experience. **Journal of Brand Management,** 14: 410-421.

Murphy, S. T. and Zajonc, R. B. (1993) Affect, cognition and awareness: Affective priming with optimal and suboptimal stimulus exposure. **Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,** 64 (5): 723–39.

Nelson, M. R. and Devanathan, N. (2006) Brand placements Bollywood style. **Journal of Consumer Behaviour,** 5: 211-221.

Nelson, M. R. and McLeod, L. E. (2005) Adolescent brand consciousness and product placements: awareness, liking and perceived effects on self and others. **International Journal of Consumer Studies,** 29: 515-528.

Netemeyer, R. G., Bearden, W. O. and Sharma, S. (2003) **Scaling procedures: Issues and applications.** USA: Sage.

O'Leary, Z. (2010) **The essential guide to doing your research project.** New York: Sage.

Oliver, R. L. (1980) A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. **Journal of Marketing Research,** 17 (November): 460–469.

Oliver, R. L. (1997) **Satisfaction: A Behavioral Perspective on the Consumer.** New York: McGraw–Hill.

Pappu, R., Quester, P. G. and Cooksey, R.W. (2005) Consumer-based brand equity: improving the measurement – empirical evidence. **Journal of Product and Brand Management,** 14 (3): 143–154.

Park, C. W., Jaworski, B. J. and MacInnis, D. J. (1986) Strategic brand concept image management. **Journal of Marketing,** 50 (10): 135-145.

Percy, L, and Rossiter, J. R. (1992) A model of brand awareness and brand attitude advertising strategies. **Psychology & Marketing,** 9 (4): 263-274

Pervin, L. A. (1996) **The science of personality.** New York: John Wiley.

Popper, K. R. (1959) **The logic of scientific discovery.** London: Hutchinson.

Popper, K. R. (1963) **Conjectures and refutation.** London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Popper, K. R. (1972) **Objective knowledge: An evolutionary approach.** Oxford: Clarendon.

Prendergast, G. P., Chan, C. N. W. and Tsang, A. S. L. (2010) The interactive influence of country of origin of brand and product involvement on purchase intention. **The Journal of Consumer Marketing,** 27 (2): 180-188.

Reicheld, F. (1996) **The loyalty effect: The hidden force behind growth, profits, and lasting value.** Boston: Harvard Business School

Remenyi, D., Brian, W. and Arthur, M. et al.(1998) **Doing research in business and management: An introduction to process and method.** London: Sage.

Reynolds, F. D. and Williams R. D. (1971) Mutually adaptive effects of interpersonal communication. **Journal of Market Research,** 8: 449-454.

Richins, M. L. (1983) Negative Word of Mouth by dissatisfied consumers: A pilot study. **The Journal of Marketing,** 47 (1): 68-78.

Richins, M. L. (1994) Valuing things: The public and private meanings of possessions. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 21 (December): 504–521.

Richins, M. L. (2004) The material values scale: Measurement properties and development of a short form. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 31 (June) 209–219.

Richins, M. L. and Bloch, P. H. (1986) After the new wears off: The temporal context of product involvement. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 13: 280–285.

Richins, M. L. and Dawson, S. (1992) Materialism as a consumer value: Measure development and validation. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 19 (4): 303–316.

Ritchie, J. and Lewis, J. (2003) **Qualitative research practice**. London: Sage.

Ritchins, M.L. and Root-Shaffer, T. (1988) The role of enduring involvement and opinion leadership in consumer Word-of-Mouth: An implicit model made explicit, **Advances in Consumer Research,** 15 (1): 35-43.

Robson, C. (2002) **Real world research: A resource for social scientist and practitioner-researchers.** 2nd ed. Oxford: Blackwell.

Roccas, S., Sagiv, L. and Schwartz, H. et al. (2002) The big five personality factors and personal values. **Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin,** 28: 789-801.

Rogers, E. M. and Cartano, D. G. (1962) Methods of measuring opinion leadership, **Public Opinion Quarterly,** 26 (Fall): 435-444.

Rossiter, J. R. and Percy, L. (1987) **Advertising and promotion management.** New York: McGraw-Hill.

Rossiter, J. R., Donovan, R. J. and Jones, S. C. (2000) **Applying the rossiter-percy model to social marketing communications.** ANZMAC 2000 Visionary Marketing for the 21st Century: Facing Challenge.

Rossiter, J. R., Percy L. and Donovan, R. J. (1991) A better advertising planning grid. **Journal of Advertising Research,** October/November: 11-21.

Rowley, J. (2009) Online branding strategies of UK fashion retailers. **Internet Research,** 19 (3): 348-369.

Ryder, I. (2007) Customer experience. **Journal of Brand Management,** 15 (2): 85-88.

Sashi, C. M. (2012) Customer engagement, buyer-seller relationships, and social media. **Management Decision.** 50 (2): 253-272.

Saunders, M., Philip, L. and Adrian, T. (2009) **Research methods for business students.** London: Pearson.

Saunders, M., Philip, L. and Adrian, T. (2012) **Research methods for business students.** London: Pearson.

Schembri, S. (2009) Reframing brand experience: The experiential meaning of Harley-Davidson. **Journal of Business Research,** 62: 1299-1310.

Schmitt, B. H. (1999) **Experiential marketing: How to Get Customers to Sense, Feel, Think, Act, Relate to Your Company and Brands.** New York: The Free Press.

See-To, E. W. K. and Ho, K. K. W. (2013) Value co-creation and purchase intention in social network sites: The role of electronic word-of-mouth and trust – A theoretical analysis. **Computers in Human Behaviour,** 31: 182-189.

Selfhout, M., Burk, W. and Branje, S. et al. (2010) Emerging late adolescent friendship networks and big five personality traits: A social network approach. **Journal of Personality,** 78 (2): 509-538.

Sen, S. and Lerman, D. (2007) Why are you telling me this? An examination into negative consumer review on the web. **Journal of Interactive Marketing,** 21 (4): 76-94.

Sherif, C. W. and Sherif, M. (1967) **Attitude, Ego-involvement, and Change, Westport.** CT: Greenwood.

Sheskin, D. (1994) Big five personality traits. **Connecticut Review,** 55-62.

Shim, S., Snyder, L. and Gehrt, K. C. (1995) Parents' perception regarding children's use of clothing evaluative criteria: An exploratory study from the consumer socialization process perspective. **Advances in Consumer Research,** 22: 628–632.

Shocker A. D. and Weitz B. (1988) **A perspective on brand equity principles and issues.** In: Leuthesser L, editor. Report Number 88-104. Cambridge, MA: Marketing Science Institute: 2-4.

Simon, C. J. and Sullivan M. W. (1993) The measurement and determinants of brand equity: A financial approach. **Marketing Science,** 12 (Winter): 28-52.

Sprott, D., Czellar, S. and Spangenberg, E. (2009) The importance of a general measure of brand engagement on market behaviour: Development and validation scale. **American Marketing Association,** XLVI: 92-104.

Strauss, A. and J. Corbin (1990) **Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques.** Newbury Park: Sage.

Strauss, A. and J. Corbin (1998) **Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques.** Newbury Park: Sage.

Sun, T., Youn, S. and Wu, G. et al. (2006) Online Word of Mouth (or mouse): An exploration of its antecedents and consequences. **Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication,** 11: 1104-1127.

Sundaram, D. S., Mississippi, K. M. and Webster, C. (1998) Word-of-Mouth communications: A motivational analysis. **Advances in Consumer Research,** 25: 527-531.

Sweeney, J. C., Soutar, G. N. and Mazzarol, T. (2008) Factors influencing Word of Mouth effectiveness: Receiver perspective. **European Journal of Marketing,** 42 (3/4): 344-364.

Tan, T. W. T. and Ming, M. C. H. (2003) Leveraging on symbolic values and meanings in branding. **Brand Management,** 10 (3): 208-218.

Thomson, M., MacInnis, D. J. and Park, C. W. (2005) The ties that bind: measuring the strength of consumers emotional attachments to brands. **Journal of Consumer Psychology,** 15 (1): 77–91.

Tourangeau, R., Rips, L. J. and Rasinki, K. (2000) **The psychology of survey response.** Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Treacy, M. and Wiersema, F. (1993) Customer intimacy and other value disciplines. **Harvard Business Review,** 71 (1): 84-93.

Ueltschy, L. C., Laroche, M. and Zhang, M. et al. (2009) Is there really an Asian connection? Professional service quality perceptions and customer satisfaction. **Journal of Business Research,** 62 (10): 972-979.

van Doorn, J., Lemon, K. N. and Mittal, V. et al. (2010) Customer engagement behaviour: Theoretical Foundations and Research Directions. **Journal of Service Research,** 13 (3): 252-266.

Venkatraman, M. P. (1988) Opinion leadership, enduring involvement and characteristics of opinion leadership: A moderating or mediating relationship? **Advances in Consumer Research,** 17: 60-67.

Verhoef, P. C., Reinartz, W. J. and Krafft, M. (2010) Customer engagement as a new perspective in customer management. **Journal of Service Research,** 13 (3): 247-252.

Veryzer, R. W. and Hutchinson, J. W. (1998) The influence of unity and prototypically on aesthetic responses to new product designs. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 24 (March): 374–94.

Vivek, S. D., Beatty, S. E. and Morgan, R. M. (2012) Customer engagement: Exploring customer relationships beyond purchase. **Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice,** 20 (2): 127-145.

Walsh, G., Winnger, K. P. and Swanson, S. R. (2004) What makes mavens tick? exploring the motives of market mavens' initiation of information diffusion. **Journal of Consumer Marketing,** 21 (2): 109-122.

Washburn, J. H. and Plank, R. E. (2002) Measuring brand equity: An evaluation of a consumer-based brand equity scale. **Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice,** 10 (1): 46-62.

Watts, D. J. and Dodds, P.S. (2007) Influentials, networks, and public opinion formation. **Journal of Consumer Research,** 34: 441-458.

Wintre, M. G., North, C. and Sugar, L. A. (2001) Psychologists' response to criticisms about research based on undergraduate participants: A developmental perspective. **Canadian Psychology,** 42 (3): 216-225.

Yap, K. B., Soetarto, B., Sweeney, J. C. (2012) The relationship between electronic word-of-mouth motivations and message characteristics: The sender's perspective. **Australasian Marketing Journal,** 21:66-74.

Yoo, B. and Donthu, N. (2001) Developing and validating a multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scale. **Journal of Business Research,** 52: 1-14.

Yoo, B., Donthu, N. and Lee, S. (2000) An examination of selected marketing mix elements and brand equity. **Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,** 28 (2): 195–211.

Zablah, A. R., Brown, B. P. and Donthu, N. (2010) The relative importance of brands in modified rebuy purchase situations. **International Journal of Research in Marketing,** 27: 248-260.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985) Measuring the involvement construct. **The Journal of Consumer Research,** 12: 341-352.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1987) The emotional aspect of product involvement. **Advances in Consumer Research,** 14: 32-35.

Zara (2011) **Zara Press Office** [online]. Available from:
http://press.zara.com/home.action?request_locale=en_GB [Accessed 1 December 2011].

Zarantonello, L. and Schmitt, B. H. (2010) Using the brand experience scale to profile consumers and predict consumer behaviour. **Journal of Brand Management,** 17: 532-540.

Zeithaml, V. A. (1988) Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. **Journal of Marketing,** 52 (July): 2-22.

Zhao, H. and Seibert, S. E. (2006) The big five personality dimensions and entrepreneurial status: A meta-analytical review. **Journal of Applied Psychology,** 91 (2): 259-271.

Zyl, A. S. (2008) The impact of social networking 2.0 on organisations. **The Electronic Library**, 27 (9): 906-918.