The Role of Consumer Determinants in the Relationship between Brand Equity and Behavioral Intentions

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บทบาทของปัจจัยด้านผู้บริโภคในความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างคุณค่าตราสินค้าและความตั้งใจเกิดพฤติกรรม

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาชนาภิเษกศาสตรมหาบัณฑิตสาขาวิชาการจัดการการสื่อสารเชิงกลยุทธ์ ไม่สังกัดภาควิชา/เทียบเท่า คณะนิเทศศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ปีการศึกษา 2561 ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
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งานวิจัยครั้งนี้ มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างคุณค่าตราสินค้ากับความตั้งใจเกิดพฤติกรรม (ได้แก่ การกลับซื้อซ้ำ และการแนะนำต่อนอก) รวมถึงปัจจัยที่เป็นตัวควบคุมให้เกิดการซื้อสินค้าของผู้บริโภค (คือ ความไว้วางใจ ความพึงพอใจ และการรับรู้การบอกต่อนอกของอีกฝ่ายหนึ่ง) ในความสัมพันธ์ดังกล่าว คณิตผลิตภัณฑ์ที่เน้นประโยชน์ใช้สอยและผลิตภัณฑ์ที่เน้นความเพลิดเพลินทางอารมณ์ โดยใช้วิธีการวิจัยเชิงปริมาณในลักษณะและการวิจัยเชิงสำรวจแบบเก็บข้อมูลครั้งเดียว กับกลุ่มตัวอย่างจำนวน 423 คน อายุระหว่าง 18-25 ปี ที่อยู่อาศัยหรือทำงานอยู่ในเขตเมืองของกรุงเทพมหานคร

ผลการศึกษาพบว่า คุณค่าตราสินค้าทั้งคู่มีความสัมพันธ์เชิงบวกกับความตั้งใจเกิดพฤติกรรม ในผลิตภัณฑ์ทั้งสอง ประกอบด้วย ความไว้วางใจ ความพึงพอใจ และการรับรู้การบอกต่อนอกของอีกฝ่ายหนึ่ง ในผลิตภัณฑ์ที่เน้นความเพลิดเพลินทางอารมณ์ อย่างไรก็ตาม ความไว้วางใจ ความพึงพอใจ และการรับรู้การบอกต่อนอกของอีกฝ่ายหนึ่งของผลิตภัณฑ์ที่เน้นประโยชน์ใช้สอยลดลง

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The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions (i.e., repurchase, recommend) as well as the moderating role of consumer determinants (i.e., trust, satisfaction, perceived electronic word-of-mouth) in this relationship within hedonic and utilitarian high-involvement product settings. The study employs a quantitative approach in which the cross-sectional survey was made to collect the data in Bangkok, Thailand. A total of 423 target samples aged from 18 to 25, studying and/or working in inner areas, were collected.

The findings illustrate that brand equity is positively related to behavioral intentions in both contexts. Additionally, trust, customer satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth are found to moderate the strength of the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions towards hedonic products. Nevertheless, the findings reveal that neither trust, customer satisfaction, nor perceived electronic word-of-mouth can change or moderate the strength of the effect of brand equity on behavioral intentions in the case of utilitarian goods.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Significance of the Study

For decades, research on branding has had a long tradition. One of the focal topics of branding research is brand equity and its relationship with behavioral consequences and other exogenous factors. Indeed, brand equity research is a mature field that has been being spun out into business practice and academic knowledge building since the brand managers and marketers can achieve competitive benefits and commercial advantages through strong brands (Aaker, 1998; Keller, 1993, 2000). Brand equity is a cornerstone in understanding how it affects attitude and consumer behavior (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003). Therefore, studies on the relationship between brand equity and behavioral responses of customers are well regarded and increasingly attractive towards scholars and practitioners (Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, & Donthu, 1995; Y. Kim, E. Kim, & Kumar, 2003; Leone et al., 2006; Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2005).

Nevertheless, although the marketing literature is brimming with a wide variety of studies heavily focused on the effect of brand equity and its consequences as consumer responses, there is a paucity of research evaluating co-effect of other factors which can appear as third variables, modifying the form or strength of the relation between brand equity and its outcomes. As a matter of fact, relations between variables are often more intricate than simple bivariate relations between a predictor and a criterion (Fairchild & Mackinnon, 2008). Accordingly, the relationship between brand equity and its consequences are expected not to be simple and possibly intervened by other elements which can be either controlled or uncontrolled.
depending on its sense of nature. Hence, in this study, it is necessary to examine two or three factors which potentially change the strength of such a relationship.

Among factors which can emerge as moderators of the relationship between brand equity and consumer behavior is trust which is regarded as one of the most significant elements predicting the consumer behavior, especially behavioral intentions (Chiu, Chang, Cheng, & Fang, 2009; Kang & Cho, 2010). Moreover, Morgan and Hunt (1994) articulated that relationship marketing success is mainly ascribed to trust that a consumer has along with their commitment. This argument is commonly applicable in the context of distribution channels and industrial buyer-seller relationships (Ganesan, 1994; Kumar, Scheer, & Steenkamp, 1995). Therefore, the moderating role of trust was anticipated to be investigated in the conceptual model developed within the context of brand-customer relationship in our study.

Another factor which is also considered to have a remarkable impact on consumer behavior is customer satisfaction. Satisfaction is one of the factors contributing to the positive outcomes of consumer behavior (Chi & Gursoy, 2009; Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Oliver, 2000). Rambocas, Kirpalani, and Simms (2018) has tested a mediated model of brand equity and behavioral intentions to repurchase, switch, pay the premium price, recommend and positive word-of-mouth in the banking industry with customer satisfaction emerging as a mediator. Their study was significant to the fit role of customer satisfaction in the model; however, it has ignored the moderating role of satisfaction in spite of investing moderating effects of demographical elements yet excluding satisfaction. Thus, the present study has aimed to address the academic deficit of that previous study by finding out whether the
strength of the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions depends on the levels of satisfaction.

Additionally, the Internet has been ubiquitously creeping into every aspect of our life for a couple of decades. As a result, this leads to the presence of electronic word-of-mouth (hereafter eWOM) on online consumer forums. Electronic word-of-mouth is one of the leading contributors to behavioral outcomes (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004; Khammash & Griffiths, 2011). According to Park, Wang, Yao, and Kang (2007), online reviews are seen as a major source of eWOM communication, which has become a salient conduit of marketing. That is why marketing researchers perceive this eWOM as a recommendation about the product or company and purchase information about the shop in a virtual environment (Chatterjee, 2001). Our study has followed the theoretical lens of Matute, Polo-Redondo, and Utrillas’s framework (2016) which investigated the effect of perceived eWOM’s characteristics on online behavioral intentions, but applied our research model within the traditional context. Along with that, perceived eWOM was examined as a moderator in the relationship between brand equity and consumers’ behavioral intentions in multi-product setting.

Behavioral intention is one of the most important drivers of a specific behavior since it gauges the possibility that a consumer performs actual behaviors (Ajzen, 2005). Commonly, prior research evaluates two measures of behavioral intention including repurchase intention and word-of-mouth communication (Park, Sung, Son, Na, & Kim, 2019; Rambocas, Kirpalani, & Simms, 2018). Similarly, this study used intent to repurchase and willingness to recommend as measures of behavioral intentions. It is believed that understanding the tendency to repurchase and
recommend of a consumer would enable the practitioners to evaluate the effectiveness of their marketing and branding strategies.

Turning to the context for our present study, we conducted our research in Bangkok, Thailand and aimed at the segment of young consumers studying and/or working, aged from 18 to 25. Thailand presently has been a hub of multi-cultures which is renowned for the rapid growth of shopping trend in the Asian area and consumer spending on the rise. As per an economic report of NESDB Thailand (n.d., as cited in Trading Economics, n.d.), consumer spending on average in Thailand was 945,328.98 THB Million throughout the period from 1993 to 2018, in which the figure peaked at 1,375,836 THB Million in the 4th quarter of 2018, and continued to increase in 2019 (see Figure 1.1). Further, recently, a great deal of prior research about brand equity has also been conducted in Thailand and it casts light on Thai consumer behavior and demonstrates its valuable implication for Thai marketplaces. Specifically, Anantachart (2002) pointed out that brand equity measure lends itself well to the competing brands in Thai context and added that consumers will accept and have a higher intention to purchase those brands’ products if they have higher equity for them. Another study done by Nurittamont and Ussahawanitchakit (2008) also shows the importance of brand equity in fostering Thai market. Its results revealed that the greater the value of an organization’s brands will generate the greater its competitive differentiation advantages. Given the supremacy of the brand equity and its effect on consumer behavior within such a specific context as Thailand, it is necessary to carry out this study to strengthen the past evidence and illuminate the uncharted area.
Additionally, Bangkok is a city that is full of diverse business ranging from small boutiques, dynamic restaurants and supermarkets to large-scale shopping mall centers and department stores along with a variety of products. In addition, according to Media Campus (2016) which conducted a study of spending of 20.2 million university students in the USA, college students typify a potential consumer force that cannot be ignored. This group has been found to spend 60 million dollars a year in which 40 percent of discretionary purposes are spent. While in Thailand, there are approximately 7.4 million people aged 18-25 as young consumers (Department of Provincial Administration, 2018) in which the majority of them are possibly college or university students. This implies that this group of the market will become one of the most potential segments associated with purchasing power in the long run (Wolburg & Pokrywcynski, 2001).

As previously mentioned, we planned to test our conceptual model in the multi-product setting which means that more than one product would be chosen as
product stimuli for the study. Such selection stems from the fact that the prior studies whose topics also devise and investigate the model of brand equity and its behavioral factors only focused on a single product or brand such as banking or sporting event (Park et al., 2019; Rambocas et al., 2018). As a result, there is an urge for follow-up research which gives a close-up lens into different product categories. In this research, high involvement products with different attributes (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic) were selected. High involvement products are defined as more complex, naturally expensive, and requiring high amounts of time and effort from consumers (Murphy & Enis, 1986; Solomon, 2017). As such, owing to the temporal characteristic and the complexity of high involvement product attached to a consumer’s purchase decision making, this type of product is associated with the important consumer behavior determinants such as trust, satisfaction, and online reviews as eWOM (Choi, 2019; Wirtz, 2003).

Consumer choices are driven by hedonic and utilitarian motivations. Prior studies have suggested that different motivations map onto distinct components of attitudes and evaluation on products; thereby, allowing consumers to differentiate products from each other on the basis of hedonic or utilitarian attributes (Mano & Oliver, 1993). Hedonic products provide experiential consumption, connected to emotions, such as fun, pleasure, or excitement (i.e., clothes, sports shoes, sports cars, jewelry, etc.). Meanwhile, utilitarian goods provide instrumental and functional features (i.e., computers, smartphones, electronic gadgets, etc.), according to Hirschman and Holbrook (1982). In this connection, emotional and functional values generally describe a variety of product categories. In a similar spirit, we examined our framework that involves the main relationship between brand equity and behavioral
intentions under the effects of trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth between two categories of goods. One of which represents the hedonic dimension and the other represents the utilitarian dimension. In order to choose products that can be superior on each dimension, we conducted a pretest on a certain number of consumers who had the same characteristics to define what products were the most selected by them. As a result, we decided to choose smartphones as utilitarian products and sports shoes as hedonic products.

It is an inescapable fact that smartphones have been permeating every walk of our life owing completely to its technological advancement and convenience. Indeed, the exponential growth and diffusion of mobile phones throughout the world have tremendously altered marketing in general, and mobile marketing in particular. According to a study of Canalys (n.d., as cited in One Development, 2017), a market research firm, smartphone penetration has witnessed a gradual increase in Thailand from 2016 to 2018, starting from 67% to 79.6% of penetration with 23.3 million handsets (see Figure 1.2). The research also pointed out that Samsung and Apple have been two leading brands contributing to the majority of the market share. We selected Apple as a brand stimulus for our study. The reason for such selection is that the majority of Thai young consumers preferred Apple to Samsung according to the research done by W&S (2015), an online market research company in Thailand (see Figure 1.3).
Figure 1. 2 Thailand’s Smartphone Penetration (%) (2016-2018)


Figure 1. 3 Brand Preference Comparison by Age (%)

With respect to the footwear industry, it is said that Thailand is the country which has a high potential as a center for high-end shoes (Fernquest, 2011). According to a report of Euromonitor International (2016), due to the athleisure trend, Thai consumers are inclined to engage in more sports activities, thereby being fond of purchasing sports footwear or sneakers in response to their healthy lifestyles. This phenomenon paves the way for the rapid development of footwear production. The report also statistically demonstrated the value of the market share of the brands which have been contributing largely to the whole market in Thailand. Specifically, Nike stood at the second position after Bata Shoe of Thailand. However, Bata Shoe brand is not our first option for the present study since its type of products is broad and diverse whereas Nike products are focused on only sport shoe category which is sufficiently specific for the study. Another reason for choosing Nike is that it is the most favored and talked brand among generation Z and Millennials according to a youth research firm named Ypulse (as cited in Hershman, 2018) (See Figure 1.4). Thus, as for the Thai market, young consumers are also hoped to gravitate to this brand.
In summary, in response to the trend of increasing consumer patronage through brand management, there is a growing demand for the development of the model of brand equity and its outcomes with the presence of indispensable consumer-related factors to assess a brand’s power and value compared to other rivals in the cutthroat competition. The present study aimed to address the lacunae in the literature regarding branding and consumer behavior determinants in the context of Thailand whereby there is little empirical evidence of how those determinants can change or modify the relation between customer-based brand equity and its consequences. Thus, it is essential to conduct the study to have a nuanced understanding of how consumer behavior determinants can affect the direction of association between brand equity and consumers’ behavioral intentions within Thailand, which would benefit the academics and branding managers to implement the definitely viable marketing strategies to meet the needs and wants of customers.
Objectives of the Study

1. To investigate the relationship between customer-based brand equity and behavioral intentions

2. To explore the moderating role of trust, customer satisfaction and electronic word-of-mouth in the relationship between customer-based brand equity and behavioral intentions

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions of consumers?

2. How much can trust, customer satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth affect the strength of the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions of consumers?

Scope of the Study

The study with the topic investigating the role of consumer behavior determinants in the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions has a main focus on exploring the effects of determinants including trust, customer satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth on consumers’ behavior-related tendency that is intent to repurchase and willingness to recommend, and also examines how different these impacts can have, compared to the one engendered by brand equity, on such consequences of behavior. Accordingly, our study has designated variables, namely brand equity as the independent variable, behavioral intentions as the dependent variable, and trust, customer satisfaction, electronic word-
of-mouth as the third variables or moderators which can affect the strength of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable.

Data collection was conducted throughout the inner area of Bangkok city, Thailand and aimed to collect 400 samples of young consumers studying and/or working aged from 18 to 25. As the nature of the topic and the purpose of the study, a quantitative study was adopted, in which a face-to-face survey was devised to obtain the data for further analysis. As for the timing of the research, the collection of the data was between April and May in 2019.

**Operational Definitions of the Variables**

*Brand equity* is defined as a collection of assets and liabilities associated with a brand’s name and symbol which can add to or subtract from the value given by the product or service to a firm and/or to its customers (Aaker, 1996). This customer-based brand equity is a multidimensional concept which is composed of four major dimensions including brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. In this research, these four dimensions were employed to measure the construct of brand equity of Nike with sports shoes representing hedonic products and Apple with smartphones representing utilitarian products, all of which are high involvement products, by using the validated scale developed by Yoo and Donthu (2001).

*Consumer determinants* are seen as diverse factors which can have considerable influences on consumer behavior. In this study, the determinants of consumer behavior comprise:
Trust is described as the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the behavior of another party on the basis of expectation on the actions that the other will perform to the trustor, regardless of the ability to monitor or control that other party (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). The perceived factors of this trustworthiness entailing ability, integrity, and benevolence were assessed to operationalize the construct of the trust that the customers would have towards the Nike and Apple brands in this study. To measure it, the seven-item version of the scale developed by Gefen, Karahanna, and Straub (2003) was employed.

Customer satisfaction is construed as the consumer’s responses to the judgment of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations and the actual performance of the product as perceived subsequent to its consumptions (Oliver, 2010). In this research, in order to measure the overall construct of customer satisfaction, we borrowed the developed scale of Taylor, Celuch, and Goodwin (2004) with some adaptions to see how satisfied a consumer felt with the brand once they had used its product.

Electronic word-of-mouth has been defined as any positive or negative remarks generated by all forms of customers (i.e., actual, potential or former customers) about a product or a firm, which is widely accessible to numerous people and institutions through the Internet (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004). In the present study, perceived electronic word-of-mouth as online information review that is evaluated by consumers was operationalized with two measurable factors which are the perceived quality and credibility (C. Luo, X. Luo, Schatzberg, & Sia, 2013; Matute, Polo-Redondo, & Utrillas, 2016; Park & Lee, 2008). The overall
perceived electronic word-of-mouth was measured by using the five-point Likert scale adapted from Matute et al. (2016) along with Cheung, Lee, and Rabjohn (2008).

Behavioral intentions represent a person's intentions to perform or not to perform an action, which is seen as a significant predictor of the actual behavior according to the theory of reasoned action developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975).

In this study, behavioral intentions are comprised of:

- **Repurchase intention** refers to an individual’s judgment about repeating their purchase from a designated service from the same company, considering his or her current situation and possible circumstances (Hellier, Geursen, Carr, & Rickard, 2003). This intention was measured by using the items developed by Chiu et al. (2009).

- **Willingness to recommend** is denoted as an engagement in positive word-of-mouth with respect to a product or service which has traditionally been a reflection of brand, service or customer loyalty to the organization (Baumann, Burton, Elliott, & Kehr, 2007; Ewing, 2000). This engagement can be manifested in the form of introducing or recommending the consumers. In this research, this behavioral intention was measured by synthesizing the scale from Río, Vázquez, and Iglesias (2001) along with Mukherjee and Nath (2007) with some adaptations.

**Expected Benefits from the Study**

1. From an academic perspective, the results of this study would well add to the body of knowledge about branding research with respect to brand equity’s impact on consumers with the presence of different determinants which can also have significant effects on consumer behavior.
2. From a professional perspective, the findings of this study would provide a more rigorous understanding of behavioral factors driving consumption patterns of consumers and enlighten brand managers and strategists about the efforts in brand building investments and branding management in a lucrative market.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews a theoretical framework of the topic by representing the definitions of brand equity and its components, the role of consumer trust, satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth in general and particular contexts, as well as an explicit description of the specific dimensions of consumer behavior that are relevant to this study.

Brand Equity

A dearth of consensus in defining brand equity has been still existent in branding studies. There has been a variety of its definitions made by many researchers and scholars over decades (see Table 2.1). In accordance with the relevant literature, brand equity has been investigated mainly from two different perspectives. The first perspective of brand equity is the financial asset value which is positioned as the incremental cash flows that accumulate for branded products rather than unbranded ones (Farquhar, Han, & Ijiri, 1991; Simon & Sullivan, 1990). In other words, it discusses the financial value brand equity generated to the business and is often referred to as firm-based brand equity. The second one is customer-based in which consumer response to brand values is assessed (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; Shocker, Srivastava, & Rueckert, 1994). In this study, we would only discuss consumer perspective of brand equity because we believe it can act as an instrument for marketers to discover consumers’ perceptions towards the brands and the impetus for financial gains to the business. It predisposes the firm to be able to capitalize financially on the differentiated consumer response to the marketing of the brand.
Therefore, this section covers popular definitions of customer-based brand equity (CBBE) and delineates the extent of how its various dimensions fit in the context of this study.

Definitions

Started by Farquhar (1989), brand equity is generally defined as the added value to the customers, the trade, and the firm that a brand can give to its products. CBBE is conceptualized from the perspective of the individual consumers and appears when consumers can perceive the familiarity with the brand and form strong, favorable, and unique brand associations in their memory (Kamakura & Russell, 1993). Keller (1993) defined customer-based brand equity as the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand. The essence of brand equity can be shown clearly in the extent to which the brand can evoke distinguished, positive, and strong brand associations (Keller, 1993; McDowell, 2004). According to Keller (1993), the dimensions of brand equity include brand awareness and brand image.

Table 2.1 Definitions of Brand Equity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shocker and Weitz</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Financial-based</td>
<td>“the net present value of the incremental cash flows attributable to a brand name”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leuthesser</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>Customer-based and Financial-based</td>
<td>“set of associations and behavior’s on the part of the brand’s consumers, channel members, and parent corporation”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Definition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farquhar</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Customer-based and</td>
<td>“the added value to the firm, the trade, or the consumer with which a given brand endows a product”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Financial-based</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aaker</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Customer-based</td>
<td>&quot;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 the firm and/or to that firm's customers&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brodsky</td>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>“the sales and profit impact enjoyed as a result of prior years’ marketing efforts versus a comparable new brand”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simon and Sullivan</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>“the difference in incremental cash flows between a branded product and an unbranded competitor”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamakura and Russell</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Customer-based</td>
<td>“Customer-based brand equity occurs when the consumer is familiar with the brand and holds some favorable, strong, and unique brand associations in the memory.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keller</td>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Customer-based</td>
<td>“the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Shocker et al. (1994) amalgamated the financial and consumer perspectives of brand equity in their definition. They posited that brand equity is exhaustive of two components, namely brand strength and brand value. Brand strength is described as a set of association and behavioral responses from consumers, channel members, and parent firm towards the brand communication; whereas, brand value is the financial outcomes that a firm can obtain as a consequence of brand strength. This definition

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
justifies the view of Keller (1993) on the brand equity which should be measured in both indirect and direct approaches.

According to Cobb-Walgren, Ruble, and Donthu (1995), using CBBE approach to measure brand equity is of paramount importance. It has become a subject of interests for scholars and professionals in the marketing field since the value of the brand that is perceived by consumers is utterly meaningful to investors, manufacturers, or retailers. Simply put, there is no value to investors, manufacturers, and retailers unless there is a value to customers. Aaker (1996) defined brand equity as a set of assets (and liabilities) related to a name and symbol of a brand that adds or subtracts to the value created by a product or service to the consumers and/or the firm. He contended that there are four primary asset categories: brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty which were adopted in this study (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Model of Brand Equity

Based on the aforementioned definitions, we should take into account several important points in defining brand equity. First and foremost, brand equity is associated with consumer perceptions and shows less or no adherence to any objective indicators. Second, brand equity is related to a global value added to the brand which emanates from a brand name, not only a physical perspective of the brand. Indeed, Srivastava and Shocker (1991) claimed that brand equity represents the incremental value of a product because of the brand name. Finally, brand equity brings about good results in financial performance. The next section explains each component of brand equity in details.

Brand Awareness

One of the components that are a lynchpin to forming brand equity is brand awareness which represents the ability to recognize and recall the brand name. Aaker (1991, p. 61) described it as “the ability for a buyer to recognize or recall that a brand is a member of a certain product category;” whereas, according to Keller (1993), brand awareness refers to the presence of the brand in consumer’s mind. Accordingly, brand awareness consists of two dimensions including brand recognition and brand recall (Keller, 1993; Rossiter & Percy, 1987).

Keller (1993) claimed that brand recognition relates to the ability of the consumers to confirm their prior experience(s) associated with the brand when given the brand as a cue. Simply put, brand recognition happens when the consumers can accurately discriminate the brand that they have seen or heard before. Brand recall refers to the consumers' ability to retrieve the brand when given the product category or some other types of the probe associated with the brand as a cue (Keller, 1993). In
other words, brand recall requires consumers to be able to accurately generate the brand from their memory. Therefore, for a consumer to establish their close-knit associations with a product, one should get exposed to that product through first-hand experience or various marketing communication channels.

Abundant studies have demonstrated the crucial role of brand awareness as a first step in the process of building brand equity (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; MacDonald & Sharp, 2000; Ross, Russel, & Bang, 2008; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Brand awareness is believed to increase the probability of brand selection when the associative brand predominantly appears in consumers’ mind under low involvement conditions (Keller, 1993). It is also considered to affect decisions about the brand in the consideration set, even in the absence of an associative brand in consumers' mind (Moisescu, 2009). Yoo and Donthu (2001) probed the importance of brand awareness in establishing CBBE by examining its effect on different levels of brand equity. They discovered that the level of brand equity is positively associated with the extent to which brand awareness is evident in the product.

In addition, many studies have exhibited the effect of brand awareness on consumer choice. One of them was done by Hoyer and Brown (1990). They found that brand awareness is a dominant factor in consumer choice whereby subjects with no brand awareness are likely to select a high-quality brand on the final choice significantly more often than those with brand awareness. Meanwhile, Agarwal and Rao (1996), who measured brand awareness by looking at unaided recall and familiarity, found that the familiarity measure persists with other brand equity measures, but the recall measure is not associated with them. Lin and Chang (2003)
discovered that brand awareness has a strong effect on purchase decision and habitual behavior towards national and leading brands of low involvement.

Brand Associations

Another dimension belonging to brand equity is brand association. It is defined as “anything linked in memory to a brand” (Aaker, 1991, p. 109), such as brand name (Zinkhan & Prenshaw, 1994), relative price (Aaker, 1996), product attributes (Yoo, Donthu, & Lee, 2000). Brand associations are stratified into three dimensions: attributes, benefits, and attitudes which are put under a construct called brand image (Keller, 1993, 1998). Attributes represent characteristics of a brand that consumers think of. Benefits are the personal value attached to brand attributes that the brand can bring to consumers, such as what consumers think the brand benefits them. Brand attitudes are consumers' overall evaluations or perceptions towards a brand.

Brand associations bifurcate into two groups including product associations and organizational associations (Chen, 2001). Production associations comprise functional attribute associations and non-functional associations. Functional attribute associations relate to features of products that a consumer think of, such as product attribute, perceived quality, functional benefits, etc. Meanwhile, non-functional ones include symbolic association, emotional association, price/value, user/usage situation. Organizational associations are categorized into corporate ability associations and corporate social responsibility associations (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Chen, 2001). Corporate ability association relates to the company’s expertise in producing and delivering its outputs; whereas, corporate social responsibility associations represent
the company's status and activities regarding its role of societal obligations which has no adherence to manufacturing goods and services.

Strong and positive associations can strengthen a brand and give rise to its equity. Indeed, brand associations are a source of brand equity and can be a driving force behind strategies of brand development (Keller, 2003b). For instance, the reinforcement strategy of the brand can amplify that brand’s attributes, thereby engendering brand awareness and brand loyalty. The higher the brand association in the product that consumers have, the more it gets imprinted in their minds and the more those consumers become loyal towards the brand. Moreover, unique brand associations can be vital sources of brand equity to propel customer behavior (Leone et al., 2006). Hence, the interaction between the brand association and brand equity can become a useful tool in helping brand marketers to strengthen the brand relationship between the brand and consumers.

Brand associations are the most accepted aspect of brand equity (Aaker, 1992) since it is also one of the crucial components in the formation of brand equity. Oftentimes, it is concurrently studied with other brand equity dimensions, such as brand awareness, brand loyalty, perceived quality to investigate different consequences of brand equity (Aaker, 1991; Buil, Martinez, & Chernatony, 2013; Lee & Leh, 2011; Yoo & Donthu, 2001).

Referring to brand associations as a brand name, Kim, Sharma, and Setzekorn (2002) illustrated that online business as eBay can dominate the market since it evokes many associations in consumers’ minds. These positive unique associations allow companies to differentiate their offerings compared to other counterparts.

Following Aaker’s (1996) model but conceiving brand associations as the association
value and trust owing to the relevance to online business, Rios and Riquelme (2008, 2010) discovered that value associations are positively related to brand equity, and trust associations have a direct effect on brand equity as well as indirect one through loyalty.

Perceived Quality

According to Zeithaml (1988), perceived quality is described as a consumer’s perception of the quality or supremacy that a product or service can have, pertaining to its intentional purpose, relative to alternative. On the other hand, Aaker (1991, 1996) defined it as the perception of consumers towards functional superiority. In contrast, Keller (1993) did not see perceived quality as a component of brand equity since it does not directly affect brand knowledge. He stated that overall perceived quality may be created if inferred associations for the attributes and benefits exist. Further, Yoo, Donthu, and Lee (2000) found that perceived quality is positively associated with brand equity while examining the relationship among the dimensions of brand equity. Unlike the results found by Yoo et al. (2000), the findings of the study done by Sanyal and Datta (2011) showed that perceived quality significantly but indirectly influences brand equity through mediating variables (i.e., intrinsic and extrinsic cues) for generic drug products.

There is an enormous amount of research on determinants of perceived quality. Started by Jacoby, Olson, and Haddock (1971), their study showed that price, brand image, and product composition characteristics act as antecedents of perceived quality. Price information is found to emerge as an indicant of product quality but this only happens within the context where the only single cue is used. Brand image has a
stronger effect on perceived quality, especially for brands showing strong positive images. Additionally, there is no existence of the effect of price or brand name on quality perception unless product composition characteristics are allowed to vary among product samples.

Prior studies have provided empirical evidence on the impacts of perceived quality on other dimensions of brand equity and consumer behavior. Indeed, brand associations and perceived quality which are dimensions of brand equity are examined for their potential to affect brand loyalty (Aaker, 1996). Perceived quality has been shown to be associated with brand loyalty which emerges as its consequence (Yu, Wu, Chiao, & Tai, 2005). The findings revealed that perceived quality significantly but indirectly affect consumer loyalty in the case of Lexus’ Taiwanese customers. According to Tong and Hawley (2009), a perception of quality holds a mediating role in managerial efforts in marketing mix to leverage brand loyalty.

In addition, studying perceived quality has shed light on its substantial impacts on many perspectives of consumer behavior. Specifically, the link between perceived quality and purchase decision is well-established in literature, whereby perceived quality is found to affect consumer decision of buying products (Aaker 1991; Yee & San, 2011). Different levels of perceived quality can have various effects on consumers’ purchase intention. Tsiotsou (2006) pointed out that consumers perceiving a product as high quality are more likely to purchase the product than consumers perceiving a product being of low quality. Her study also confirmed previous findings on the important role of perceived product quality on involvement, overall satisfaction, which elucidates that perceived product quality is one of the most important constructs in marketing.
Previously, brand equity and its components have been reviewed in different perspectives. It has demonstrated the important role of brand equity in studies of the business relationship in online and offline settings. Scholars refer to brand equity as a relational market-based asset because of its essential role in-outside the firms to fortify the relationship between consumers and brands (Hooley, Greeley, Cadogan, & Fahy, 2005; Srivastava, Shervani, & Fahey, 1998).

Brand Loyalty

Another component in forming brand equity is brand loyalty. Aaker (1991) claimed that brand loyalty reflects the likelihood that a customer will switch to another brand, especially when it comes to a change in price, product attributes and features, and/or the brand’s communication or distribution programs. The American Marketing Association (n.d., as cited in Nordqvist, 2018) defined brand loyalty as the situation whereby a consumer repeats their purchase of the same manufacturer-originated product or service over time rather than buying the same brand within a product class from multiple suppliers. In contrast, Keller (1993) did not position brand loyalty as a distinguishable component of brand knowledge. He contended that brand knowledge only consists of brand associations and brand awareness. Relatively similar to the definition made by the American Marketing Association, Gommans, Krish, and Scheffold (2001) defined it as the loyalty when a consumer repeats their buying behavior towards a specific brand.

Brand loyalty mainly comprises two dimensions: attitudinal and behavioral loyalty. Pioneered by Guest (1944), loyalty was proposed to be measured from a perspective of attitude. He adopted preference questions to ask participants about
what the brand they like the most among many brand names. According to Dick and Basu (1994), attitudinal loyalty can be formed by three antecedents: cognitive, affective, and conative, along with motivational, perceptual, and behavioral consequences. Reichheld (2003) claimed that loyalty can be measured by a single variable – "willingness to recommend" as an attitudinal loyalty consequence. Recently, Heere and Dickson (2008) proposed that attitudinal loyalty can be investigated by measuring the differences in the levels of commitment that a person has toward a product or service under varied conditions of satisfaction.

However, some authors have suggested that attitudinal loyalty may not be an adequate predictor of actual purchase behavior (Kraus, 1995), and can become an impediment caused by the factors constraining purchase behaviors (Backman & Crompton, 1991). Therefore, behavioral loyalty is suggested to become an additional factor to measure brand loyalty more effectively. Behavioral loyalty is described as a consumer’s intent and action of repurchasing the same product or service over time (Dick & Basu, 1994). O’Malley (1998) opined that behavioral loyalty can shed light on how well the brand is doing vis-à-vis competitors. Hence, marketers gravitate more to learning about brand loyalty from the behavioral perspective as it directly dictates higher sales revenue.

According to Aaker (1991), brand loyalty provides sales advantages, such as minimizing marketing costs, gaining new customers and enhancing profits. It also results in search motivation, positive word-of-mouth, and resistance to counter-persuasion (Dick & Basu 1994). Davis (2002) envisaged that when consumers can hold their brand loyalty, they are willing to pay a price premium for that brand. This
can facilitate the brand in boosting marginal cash flow and profitability (Davis, 2002; Yeh, Wang, & Yieh, 2016).

So far, brand equity and its components have been thoroughly discussed along with the illustration of manifold recent research. Apart from the importance of brand equity and brand-related issues, consumer behavior is one of the components that are worth investigating since it can enlighten scholars and practitioners about strategies of marketing products and service successfully. Consumer behavior and its basic concepts are described in the following sections.

**Consumer Behavior**

Consumer behavior or buyer behavior is referred to a process rather than an action at a specific moment when a consumer just hands over money and in turn receives some product or service. As being an ongoing process, consumer behavior covers a lot of ground within a sequential procedure, starting from pre-purchase to post-purchase. It all begins with consumer perception, then forming the attitude, along with different types of consumer involvement, all of which can have impacts on eventual outcomes. These matters are discussed in the following parts.

**Definitions**

Consumer behavior is defined as the behavior that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2015). Likewise, Solomon (2017) articulated that consumer behavior is indicative of a process whereby individuals or groups perform such actions as selecting, purchasing, using or disposing of products, services, ideas, or experiences to fulfill their needs or desires.
Therefore, it can be clearly seen that the study of consumer behavior is the heuristic study of behavioral patterns of individuals or groups in making decisions based on spatial and/or temporal perspectives on spending their available monetary, time and effort resources on consumption.

Consumer Perception

Schiffman and Wisenblit (2015) construed perception as a process by which individuals select, organize, and interpret stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world. In other words, it is described as how an individual sees the world around him or her, meaning that it is termed as a process of interpreting the environmental factors through five basic senses, namely smelling, touching, seeing, hearing, and tasting, within a customer’s frame of reference (Solomon, 2017).

Perception is a complex process which is widely used in the theory of consumer behavior. Understanding consumers’ perception path or perceptual process will illuminate their possible reactions and elucidate the baffling problems from the psychological perspective. The procedure is exhaustive of three main stages: sensation/exposure, attention, and interpretation (Askergaard, Bamossy, Hogg, & Solomon, 2006; Solomon, 2017) (see Figure 2.2).
This three-stage process is functioned to translate stimuli into meaning by beginning with receiving information (exposure), selecting information (attention), and culminating in interpreting information (interpretation). The first stage is exposure. This stage comes into play when a stimulus emerges within the breadth of an individual's sensory receptor but in a short time. Consumers are receptive of some stimuli not all of them; thereby, tending to ignore the unattended ones. Because of the short period at this stage, it is difficult for a message to be noticed. The second phase is attention. This stage occurs when a processing activity towards the attended stimuli is needed. In other words, attention is the degree to which a consumer concentrates on the stimuli within their range of exposure. The third phase is called interpretation. Interpretation is the process of assigning a meaning to a sensory stimulus. In fact, as different people can perceive identical things differently, the meanings assigned to stimuli also vary.
Consumer Attitude

Attitude is a propensity, generated by learning and experience, to respond in a consistent way toward a product (Moutinho, 1987). Craighead and Nemeroff (2004) construed attitude as a consistent temperament or disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, organization, or an event. Attitude reflects a psychological path of evaluating a specific object with a favor or disfavor. Simply put, attitude can be positive or negative. Attitude tends to endure over time than an occasional event. To exemplify this characteristic of consumer attitude, Solomon (2017) explicitly demonstrated that hearing a loud noise over time can instigate a negative attitude towards that sound. In fact, attitude can be classified into two types: attitudes toward objects, and attitudes toward behaviors.

Ajzen (2005) contended that categorizing attitude-relevant responses into subgroups can enable us to distinguish between responses targeted at other and the self, between behaviors in public and in private, as well as between actions and reactions. Therefore, he demonstrated three basic categories of responses used to infer attitudes: cognition, affect, and conation, within verbal and nonverbal response modes (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Responses Used to Infer Attitudes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response mode</th>
<th>Cognition</th>
<th>Affect</th>
<th>Conation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Verbal</strong></td>
<td>Expressions of beliefs about an attitude object</td>
<td>Expressions of feelings toward the attitude object</td>
<td>Expressions of behavioral intentions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nonverbal</strong></td>
<td>Perceptual reactions to an attitude object</td>
<td>Physiological reactions to an attitude object</td>
<td>Overt behaviors with respect to an attitude object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cognitive response reflects perceptions or thoughts of the attitude object. Cognitive responses of the verbal kind are expressions of beliefs about the attitude object. Meanwhile, ones of the non-verbal kind are the indirect information provided about attitudes, which represent perceptual reactions to the attitude object. Affect responses which attitude is inferred is related to evaluations of and feelings toward the attitude object. Verbal affective responses can be manifestation, admiration or disgust, appreciation or disdain. Differently, a nonverbal mode of affective responses can be facial expressions or various physiological and other bodily reactions. Responses of a conative nature reflect behavioral inclinations, intentions, commitments, and actions regarding the attitude object. With the verbal mode of expressions, the responses can entail the actions such as what we say, do, plan to do or would do under pertinent contexts. For nonverbal nature, conative responses include favorable or unfavorable attitudes towards the attitude object. For example, people with a positive attitude may encourage others to perform similar actions toward their attitude object.

In accordance with Solomon (2017), the ABC model of attitudes is used to underscore the relationship between the knowing, feeling, and doing, which comprises three major components, namely affect, behavior, and cognition. Affect reflects the feeling, emotion or opinion that a person has towards an object like a product or service. Behavior manifests the responses of an individual which emanates from affect and cognition. Behavior also implies their intention. Cognition is a belief or knowledge about an object.

To differentiate between the involvement levels of individual towards the attitude object, the hierarchy of effect is developed, accentuating the complementary
relationship between those three components. This hierarchy includes the standard-learning, the low-involvement, and the experiential (see Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3 Three Hierarchies of Effects

**HIGH INVOLVEMENT**

- Cognition
- Affect
- Behavior

**ATTITUDE**

Based on cognitive information processing

**LOW INVOLVEMENT**

- Cognition
- Behavior
- Affect

**ATTITUDE**

Based on behavioral learning processes

**EXPERIENTIAL**

- Affect
- Behavior
- Cognition

**ATTITUDE**

Based on hedonic consumption


**The standard-learning hierarchy (the high-involvement hierarchy).** Refers to the extent to which a person will carry out extensive research and form beliefs or knowledge about the attitude object. Subsequently, their feelings or affect towards that object are established, leading to the formation of that individual's behavior. This approach is common in a high-involvement situation at the stage of consumers' purchase decisions. Simply put, this process is called as Learn-Feel-Do (Solomon, 2017).

**The low-involvement hierarchy.** Explains the situation whereby a consumer makes his or her purchase decision on a basis of what they know not on what they feel. The feeling only appears after the purchase. The attitude of this hierarchy is established based on the behavioral learning process as opposed to cognitive
information processing of the high involvement hierarchy. This process is easily explained as Learn-Do-Feel.

The experiential hierarchy. Refers to a situation whereby a consumer’s purchase decision is completely attributed to their feeling towards products or services. Cognition appears after the purchase and fortifies the initial effect. Attitude is formed based on hedonic consumption which is defined as the facets of consumer behavior pertaining to the multisensory, fantasy, and emotive of one’s experience with products (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). This process is simply designated as Feel-Do-Learn.

The link between attitude and behavior is well established in many theories in the past research. One of the most widely-used theories is called theory of reasoned action.

Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)

Developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), this theory underpins the behavioral intention which is described as the crux of behavior. Behavioral intention is indicative of the intention to do or not to do, which is basically determined by attitude (one’s evaluation of the behavior) and subjective norm (one’s evaluation of what significant others think one should do). Attitude is ascribed to behavioral beliefs about the likelihood of various consequences. Thus, an individual who has a strong belief that positive outcomes will result from his or her particular behavior is likely to form favorable attitudes towards the behavior. It will be the same explanation in the case of negative behavior. Subjective norms are determined by normative beliefs about what important that others think one should do and evaluate how much that one is driven to
comply with those important others. In other words, an individual has intentions to do or not to do something when knowing that his or her important others approve or disapprove of the particular behavior (see Figure 2.4).

Figure 2. 4 Model of Theory of Reasoned Action


By and large, understanding of consumer attitude is of importance in marketing. Products or services perceived as having desirable features tend to be liked, leading to their being purchased by consumers. This explains why a person in a positive frame of mind ruminating on buying a product that he or she favors will possibly repurchase the items.

Consumer Involvement

The conceptualization of involvement has been a subject of interest which is studied and developed over a long period of time, leading to a variety of its definitions. According to Zaichkowsky (1985), involvement is defined as a perceived relevance of the object that an individual has on the basis of his or her inherent needs, values, and interests. A more recent interpretation has suggested that it is the degree to
which a consumer perceives the importance and meaningfulness attached to the object in their life (O'Cass, 2000). Schiffman and Wisenblit (2015, p. 165) articulated that involvement reflects “the degree of personal relevance that the product or purchase holds for the consumer.” As such, consumer involvement has often been examined by many prior researchers to obtain a nuanced understanding of consumer behavior pertaining to objects (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Mittal & Lee, 1989; Ohanian, 1990); yet, of particular note is that involvement is not seen as an attribute of the product (Richins & Bloch, 1986). There are different factors which can become determinants of involvement. These factors can be something about the person, the object, or the situation (see Figure 2.5).

**Types of Involvement**

Involvement in consumer behavior is posited to have three types including enduring, situational, and response (Houston & Rothschild, 1978) (see Table 2.3). Meanwhile, Charters and Pettigrew (2006) postulated that involvement emphasizing consumer perspective has two main types: product involvement and purchase decision involvement. Product involvement, labeled as enduring involvement, represents the consumer's level of interest in a particular product. It tends to be more enduring and shows both experiential and symbolic significance (Higie & Feick, 1989). Purchase decision involvement, mentioned as a discrete situational involvement (Richins & Bloch, 1986), refers to the extent to which a consumer is involved with a short-term situation, usually a purchase decision (Mittal, 1989a). In other words, upon the completion of the purchase, the situational involvement abates.
Table 2.3 Types of Involvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enduring Involvement</th>
<th>Situational Involvement</th>
<th>Response Involvement</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It refers to a situation whereby a consumer’s involvement in a product or service is high, and he or she is interested in spending time collecting and processing information over a period of time.</td>
<td>It refers to a level of involvement when a consumer spontaneously thinks about a particular object (i.e., product or service) for a short-term; it is, thus, temporary in nature and specific to a situation. The level of involvement can vary from low to high depending on the situational factors.</td>
<td>It refers to the behavioral and cognitive consequences as a result of a combination of enduring and situational involvement, involving information acquisition and decision processes. The level of this type reflects the degree of activeness that individuals have in information processing and attempt to arrive at the optimal choice.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

The Learn-Feel-Do Hierarchy Model

Proposed by Vaughn (1980), the Learn-Feel-Do hierarchy model is developed to accentuate the link between consumer decision making and consumer involvement with three components including information (learn), attitude (feel), and behavior (do). It has another name called the FCB Grid. Vaughn and his colleagues pointed out that there is a volatile ongoing process in consumers’ mind when coming to decision making. Some purchases are made out of cognition and thinking while others are determined by feelings and emotions. The grid classifies consumer decision making into two dimensions: high/low involvement and thinking/feeling (see Figure 2.6).
Figure 2. The FCB Grid


**High Involvement - High Thinking:** This quadrant typically indicates a higher level of rationality. Products of this area are high involvement ones, such as cars, laptops, real estate, and innovative products. This process happens when a great deal of thinking is needed upon consumer decision making. Accordingly, a higher need for information is acquired. The strategy model is learn-feel-do.

**High Involvement - High Feeling:** This quadrant signifies a situation whereby high involvement and high feeling are needed for consumers to make a purchase decision. This process happens as the feelings dominate the thinking and information. It is argued that the purchases are related to an individual's self-esteem, meaning that a person gravitates to their feelings, emotional and psychological.
motives upon their purchase decision. Typical products falling into this area involve sports cars, motorcycles, fashion apparel, jewelry, and perfumes. The quality exhibited in this quadrant is "feel-learn-do" pattern.

**Low Involvement – Low Thinking:** This area signifies a situation where consumers have minimal thought about the product and tend to form their routinized behavior. The products of this quadrant usually are the ones with a low level of involvement such as groceries, stationery, vessel cleaners, and soap. As time passes by, the ordinary product will be falling into a cycle where it will be repurchased without consumers' consideration. The hierarchy model is a "do-learn-feel" pattern.

**Low Involvement – Low Feeling:** This quadrant is representative of a situation whereby purchases are made with a low level of consumer involvement and feelings. The products of this area are typically purchased for personal satisfaction and described as "life's little pleasures" (Vaughn, 1986), such as beer, candy or cigarettes. A consumer process for this area is “do-feel-learn” hierarchy effect.

The above explanation of the FCB matrix has well justified the visibility of adopting product involvement in our topic. The current topic would be focusing on the different product categories which are viewed as high-involvement products. We believe that the type of consumers for these kinds of product are mainly two groups including feelers and thinkers who are inclined to factors of feelings or rationales when arriving at their purchase decision.

**High Involvement Product**

High involvement products are defined as more complex, naturally expensive, and requiring high amounts of time and effort from consumers (Murphy & Enis,
1986; Solomon, 2017). In other words, a high involvement product is a product whereby an extensive thought process is included and consumers usually consider various factors such as financial risk (i.e., expensive house or car), technological risk (i.e., mobile phone, laptop), and physical risk (i.e., medication) before making a purchase decision.

Numerous researchers have theorized that product value is seen as a multifaceted concept which presents manifold classifications throughout different settings. Hedonic and utilitarian values are commonly studied to shed light on consumer behavior in terms of the consumption process (Jones, Reynolds, & Arnold, 2006; Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003). Utilitarian goods are products towards which consumers have rational attitudes. Consumers usually pay attention to primarily instrumental and functional features of the product (i.e., microwaves, minivans, personal computers, etc.). Meanwhile, hedonic goods are products which create emotional attitudes. They provide more experiential consumption, fun, pleasure, and excitement (i.e., designer clothes, sports cars, luxury watches, etc.), according to Hirschman and Holbrook (1982). It is conceivable that high involvement product can be classified into two segments: utilitarian (thinking) and hedonic (feeling) attributes.

The levels of the involvement of the consumers are arguably various and complicated. The formation of a certain level of involvement is created by the consumers' undergoing of a psychological process to become a patron (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998). High involvement features the complexity going on in consumers' mind and is worth further investigation. The product value is postulated to translate consumer behaviors, including behavioral intentions (Carver & Scheier, 1990).
Likewise, according to Bridges and Florsheim (2008), those utilitarian and hedonic values can also dictate consumer behavior in the context of online shopping.

According to Babin et al. (1994), consumption behaviors demonstrate utilitarian and hedonic aspects. To be more specific, on the one hand, consumers are interested in the instrumental and functional dimensions when they go shopping, and they are likely to see the consumption activity as a task. On the other hand, as for other consumers, having fun and joy are focal dimensions when shopping. They are inclined to see the consumption activity as a full of emotions which can bring about the symbolic aspect. Hence, in this study, in efforts to ensure sufficient variation across the components to be analyzed, we adopted both typologies of high involvement products including hedonic and utilitarian attributes.

Behavioral Intentions

Once mentioned in the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), behavioral intentions represent a person's intention to perform or not to perform an action, which is seen as a significant predictor of the actual behavior. These intentions are also determined by customer attitudes and subjective norms which are catalysts for the process of predicting the ultimate actual behavior.

Eagly and Chaiken (1993, as cited in Goode & Harris, 2007) described behavioral intentions as a conscious plan that an individual formulates to perform a particular behavior with intentions established from both a personal evaluative and a normative construct. In the study of Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996), behavioral intentions are claimed to be possibly perceived from attitudinal perspectives: favorable or unfavorable intentions. Favorable behavioral intentions are consumers' intended actions of inclination to expressing positive evaluation, bonding
with the company, augmenting the volume of business, and showing a willingness to pay price premiums. In contrast, consumers having unfavorable behavioral intentions are more predisposed to switching brands, reducing their volume of business, spreading negative word of mouth, and showing an unwillingness to pay premium prices. Sulaiman and Haron (2013) also described behavioral intentions as a customer’s willingness to provide positive word-of-mouth, revisit in future, stay longer, and spend more than anticipated.

Past studies have suggested that there are many dimensions of customer behavioral intentions which can act as consequences of constructs, such as perceived service quality, satisfaction and loyalty, trust, or perceived value (Chiu et al., 2009; Gefen, 2002; Kassim & Abdullah, 2010; Kim & Song, 2010; Lin & Sun, 2009). For online behavioral intentions, the constructs, such as repurchase intentions (Abdul-Muhmin, 2011; Hsu, Chang, & Chuang, 2015); online shopping/purchase intention (Jones & Kim, 2010; Kim & Song, 2010); word-of-mouth (Kassim & Abdullah, 2010); willing to pay more (Srinivasan et al., 2002) are widely studied.

In this study, we placed our focus on two of the most popular dimensions of behavioral intentions, namely intention to repurchase and willingness to recommend in the traditional context. In the next section, we review each concept with a more elaborative description.

**Repurchase Intention**

Repurchase intention is defined as an individual’s judgment about repeating their purchase from a designated service from the same company, considering his or her current situation and possible circumstances (Hellier, Geursen, Carr, & Rickard,
Repeat customers are important for a retail business to push the profit (Gupta & Kim, 2007). In this regard, the strategy of enticing consumers’ repurchase intention should be given more attention by any seller in the retailing context (Qureshi et al., 2009). The issue should be more concerned when coming to online shopping since the spatial and temporal issues may become deterrents to customers’ engagement and intentions toward online transactions due to the lack of trust in e-vendors’ ability, integrity, and benevolence (Gefen, 2002, Gefen et al., 2003; Pavlou, Liang, & Xue, 2007). In order to probe the aforementioned issues, online repeat purchase intention has been widely studied in various contexts such as online stores, online auction, and online shopping as a whole to ascertain its key determinants (Chiu et al., 2012; Gupta & Kim, 2007; Khalifa & Liu, 2007).

Past literature has found that repurchase intention is significantly affected by many variables. One of the related studies is the one done by Khalifa and Liu (2007) investigating the effect of perceived usefulness, online shopping satisfaction on repurchase intention. Supporting the previous literature, their findings showed that those variables are the determinants of consumers’ online repurchase intention with the moderating effect of shopping habit and experience which can affect the changes of this effect of the antecedents and online repurchase intentions. Other studies also revealed that perceived values, such as price, risk, website quality, and trust can act as antecedents of consumers’ repurchase intention in an online context (Chiu et al., 2012; Kim & Gupta, 2009; Qureshi et al., 2009).
Willingness to Recommend/Positive Word-of-Mouth

Willingness to recommend or engage in “positive word-of-mouth” regarding a product or service has been traditionally viewed as an expression of brand, service or customer loyalty to the organization (Baumann, Burton, Elliott, & Kehr, 2007; Ewing, 2000). Willingness to recommend is also seen as a consumer response derived from satisfaction (Bansal, 2004). When a consumer is satisfied with a product or service delivered by a brand, he or she might recommend it to peers or friends. The consumer's willingness to recommend the brand to others was measured based on the contributions of Selnes (1993), Andreassen (1994), in which the participants were asked to whether and what extent they would recommend the purchase of the brand.

File, Judd, and Prince (1992) defined word-of-mouth (WOM) as a behavior of recommending the firm and the service to other consumers and communications with the firm. Meanwhile, Buttle (1998) designated it as a consumer's evaluation in an oral form about a supplier's performance. It denotes recommendations and personal words to friends, associates, and customer groups (Harrison-Walker, 2001). Anderson (1998) stated that favorable WOM entails the lively, pleasant or novel experiences, recommendations to others, and even noticeable display. Also, word-of-mouth is shown to be positively associated with customer satisfaction (File, Cermak, & Prince, 1994) and commitment (Harrison-Walker, 2001). The reason why “willingness to recommend” to others is important is that it can be the best indicator of the possibility that a customer will make a further purchase in the future. In this study, “word of mouth” and “recommendations” can be used interchangeably (Olaru, Purchase, & Peterson, 2008).
Rambocas, Kirpalani, and Simms (2018) postulated that the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions can be elucidated by the TRA. This theory posits that attitudes and subjective norms are cornerstones in precipitating the intention to behave prior to actual behavior. Specifically, once a consumer holds a favorable attitude towards a brand, they will have their purchase intention and acquisition of the brand. The outcome will be contrasted with hostile attitudes. Erdem and Swait (1998) suggested that brand equity is a signal of value to consumers. Brand equity reflects consumer responses affected by brand knowledge, which are associated with attitude (Fairecloth, Capella, & Alford, 2001; Keller, 1993).

**Determinants of Consumer Behavior in the Marketplace**

Consumer determinants are seen as factors which can influentially drive consumer behavior. In the past, there is a plethora of research placing a central focus on studying the relationship between consumer determinants and consumer purchasing behavior. Consumer determinants can be grouped into four main categories: cultural, social, personal, and psychological factors (Kotler & Armstrong, 2017), in which psychological elements can be one of the important matters that are the most dissected by researchers since it reflects the ongoing process in consumers’ mind through perception, beliefs, attitudes and so on. In this study, we looked at three common consumer factors including trust, customer satisfaction and electronic word-of-mouth.
Consumer Trust

The concept of trust has been probed in various contexts over the years and there is still a lack of clear differentiation among its definitions and determinants. Recently, numerous definitions of trust have been provided and its different conceptualizations have been made by various scholars and researchers (see Table 2.4). Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) categorized theoretical perspectives of trust into 3 major disciplines including personality, sociology and economics, and social psychology. Personality theory refers to trust as a trait resulting in a generalized expectation about the trustworthiness of others. Hofstede (1980) stated that a variety of developmental experiences, personality traits, and cultural backgrounds will lead to a disparity in a propensity to trust which is seen as an element affecting the likelihood that the party will trust. In sociology and economics discipline, trust is conceptualized as a phenomenon within and between organizations or institutions and as the trust that individuals place in those organizations (Mayer et al., 1995). Social psychologists examined trust as an interpersonal one which can apply to many different types of relationship, differ in varied settings and be measured with various dimensions (e.g., Deutsch, 1958; Rotter, 1980). Interpersonal trust in this field is related to the trusting party's expectation and willingness in an exchange, the risk adhering to acting on such expectations, and contextual factors that can push or hinder the development and maintenance of that trust.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Trust Conceptualization</th>
<th>Trust Object</th>
<th>Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deutsch (1958)</td>
<td>An expectation of an occurrence of an event which leads to behavior which one perceives to have greater negative motivational consequences if the expectation is not confirmed than positive motivational if it is confirmed.</td>
<td>The occurrence of an event in the social environment</td>
<td>Expectation and the ratio of anticipated positive to negative motivational consequences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rotter (1980)</td>
<td>A belief about the others in the absence of clear-cut reasons to disbelieve.</td>
<td>Interpersonal trust in social life</td>
<td>Conceptual: high and low trusting beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morgan and Hunt (1994)</td>
<td>A willingness to depend on a party in whom one has confidence.</td>
<td>Business relationship</td>
<td>Empirical: overall trust and integrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayer et al. (1995)</td>
<td>A willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the trustor’s perceptions of the trustee’s ability, benevolence, and integrity.</td>
<td>Interpersonal trust in organizational settings</td>
<td>Conceptual: factors of perceived trustworthiness: ability benevolence, and integrity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McKnight et al. (1998)</td>
<td>Trusting beliefs including benevolence, competence, honesty, and predictability that lead to a trusting intention which represents a willingness to depend on others.</td>
<td>Interpersonal trust in organizational settings</td>
<td>Conceptual: trusting beliefs and trusting intentions</td>
</tr>
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Table 2.4. Continued

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Trust Conceptualization</th>
<th>Trust Object</th>
<th>Measures</th>
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<tr>
<td>Jarvenpaa and Tractinsky (1999)</td>
<td>Willingness to rely upon when there is a vulnerability</td>
<td>e-commerce</td>
<td>Empirical: overall trust regarding integrity and caring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mayer and Davis (1999)</td>
<td>Willingness to be vulnerable</td>
<td>Interpersonal trust in organizational settings</td>
<td>Empirical: overall trust that is defined as ability, benevolence, and integrity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gefen (2002b)</td>
<td>Willingness to depend based on belief in ability, benevolence, and integrity</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Empirical: a single scale measuring ability, integrity, and benevolence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moorman et al. (1992)</td>
<td>A willingness to depend and also a belief in the other party leading to a behavioral intention.</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Empirical: overall trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sabel (1993)</td>
<td>The mutual confidence that no party to an exchange will exploit the other’s vulnerability</td>
<td>Cooperation</td>
<td>Conceptual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ganesan (1994)</td>
<td>A willingness to rely on a partner in whom one has confidence based on belief in that party's credibility and benevolence</td>
<td>Buyer-seller relationships</td>
<td>Empirical: Credibility (ability and reliability/honesty) and benevolence</td>
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</table>

Trust is considered as an abstract construct and interchangeably used with confidence, credibility or reliability. In the context of negotiation, trust is defined as “the belief that the other party is ready to undertake coordinative actions” (Pruit, 1981, p.16). Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpande (1992) characterized trust as being willing to rely on a partner in whom one has confidence. This definition is applied in
the context of interaction between knowledge users (i.e., marketing and non-marketing managers) and providers (i.e., marketing researchers). The knowledge presents special concerns in informal market research. Meanwhile, Sabel (1993) claimed that in the process of building a new form of cooperation, trust is defined as the mutual confidence that no party in an exchange will take advantage of the other's vulnerability, which is seen as a prerequisite for competitive success.

In the e-commerce context, a myriad of studies has investigated both conceptual and empirical perspectives on trust. One of them is the study done by Mayer et al. (1995). They conceptualized trust as a willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the trustor’s perceptions of the trustee’s ability, benevolence, and integrity. Another study is done by McKnight, Cummings, and Chervany (1998) who highlighted the multiple, interrelated dimensions of e-commerce trust. They viewed trust as an initial formation of two constructs: (1) trusting intention: a willingness to depend on others in a given context; (2) trusting beliefs: a belief in others’ benevolence, competence, honesty, and predictability in a specific situation. Gefen et al. (2003) provided evidence that online trust can be formed through a belief that the vendor gains nothing if distrusting consumers, and through confidence that safety mechanisms and typical interface are encouraged in a Website as well as its ease of use. Pavlou and Gefen (2004) conducted an empirical study to examine trust in online auctions context. They identified trust as a buyers’ perception of pertinent conditions being in place to solidify transaction success with online sellers. For website users, trust is seen as an approach to diminish uncertainty and complexity. Schlosser, White, and Lloyd (2006) developed a conceptual framework for understanding how different signals influence ability, benevolence, and integrity.
beliefs as online trust in e-commerce while examining the extent to how to convert website visitors into buyers.

As different as those definitions of trust above are, the notion that they demonstrate in common is that trust is related to a belief, confidence or expectation from the exchange parties mentioned as trustor(s) and trustee(s), which derives from reliability or credibility. Therefore, Ganesan (1994) proposed his trust as a reflection of two key components: credibility and benevolence. Credibility represents the retailer’s belief that the vendor has the required expertise to perform the job effectively and reliably. Benevolence is delineated as the retailer’s belief that the vendor has intentions and motives beneficial to the retailer when given the conditions which for a commitment was not made. Differently, Mayer et al. (1995) proposed the concept of trust which is constructed by three dimensions: (1) ability: the extent to which the trustee is believed to have influential knowledge, capability, and skills, (2) benevolence: the extent to which the trustee is believed to do good to the trustor, aside from the self-centered profit motives, (3) integrity: the extent to which the trustee hews to principles that the trustor finds acceptable (see Figure 2.7).

Figure 2. 7 Model of Trust Dimensions

Holding a similar view with Mayer et al. (1995), Gefen (2002) also applied the concept as an online consumer trust with a multi-dimensional scale pertaining to integrity, benevolence, and ability. He contended that manifold aspects of integrity still play an important role in the case of e-commerce. Whether consumers follow online vendors or traditional ones, they still keep skeptical about the conformity of the vendors to e-commerce regulations. For the beliefs in benevolence, consumers also cast aspersions on the vendor's intentions and motives and are not likely to rely on information provided by the vendor; or nor are they expected to pay in advance unless they can see the online vendor's acceptable intentions dealing with credit cards or purchase information. For consumers' beliefs in the vendor's ability to provide good products/services and to know well its marketplace, consumers may not be so subject to information provided by the online vendor or pay in advance unless they see clearly the vendor's knowledge and competencies. It is feasible that the construct of trust developed by Mayer et al. (1995) and then by Gefen (2002) can be applied across the board in both traditional and online contexts. Henceforth, in this study, we decided to use the construct measuring trust developed by Gefen (2002) to see the overall effect of trust on consumer behavior.

In the field of marketing, research on trust has been conducted within the context of distribution channels (e.g., manufacturer-retailer), transactional and buyer-seller relationships even including interacting with an e-vendor (Reichheld & Schefter, 2000). Kotler and Keller (2012) as well as Palmer (2008) articulated that trust is probably developed over time even after they purchase the products or use the service; consequently, leading to a cumulative level of belief that there will be no opportunistic behavior from the service or product providers. Trust is also believed to
be indispensable for the repurchase intention, particularly when coming to the presence of customer experience (Verhoef et al., 2009). Pennington, Wilcox, and Grover (2003) argued that, once there is a high level of trust, consumer attitudes and behaviors are positively affected. Furthermore, customers’ trust perceptions may influence their attitudes and form behavioral intentions (Liu, Marchewka, Lu, & Yu, 2004). Whitten and Leidner (2006) found out that a customer is more likely to switch the vendor if their trust, which is one of relationship quality factors, stays lower. Saleem, Zahra, and Yaseen (2017) empirically found that trust is directly associated with consumers' repurchase intention by examining the case of the airline industry. They implied that the findings of the relationship between trust and intent to repurchase will reinforce the importance of trust in increasing the repurchase intention. Therefore, we propose that in the presence of trust, the business will be less predisposed to relying on only brand equity to drive the consumer behaviors.

Customer Satisfaction

In the large extant literature of customer satisfaction, its definitions are different and vary according to manifold contexts. According to Howard and Sheth (1969), customer satisfaction is generally described as appropriate compensation that they can obtain upon the post-purchase; whereas, Bloemer and Kasper (1995) referred to satisfaction as the extent to when the consumer makes a comparison between the state of expectation and performance of the product or service. Nevertheless, they articulated that the consumers, in some circumstance, may find it difficult to compare these two factors just by evaluating the performance, then comparing it to their own expectation. In that case, the satisfaction is called as latent satisfaction.
Differently, Spreng, MacKenzie, and Olshavsky (1996) simply defined overall satisfaction as an affective state that reflects the emotional reaction to a product or service experience. At the post-purchase stage, the satisfaction of a consumer leans towards to the extent to whether the products can live up to his or her expectations. If they do, the post-purchase satisfaction will be formed. On the contrary, given that the products fall short of expectation, the customer will not possibly have any sense of satisfaction towards them.

The concept of customer satisfaction has been defined and measured by many researchers with plenty of methodologies. To begin with, the National Customer Satisfaction Index was widely applied, which was originally inaugurated by Sweden country. Such a method which was posited to measure more than 30 industries and 100 corporations was mentioned in one of the successful articles written by Fornell (1992). This method, then, was used by a number of countries such as the U.S. and Norway with the set of data named “American Customer Satisfaction Index” and “Norwegian Customer Satisfaction Barometers” respectively (Andreassen & Lindestad, 1998; Fornell et al., 1996). One of the specific steps of this method was to measure the overall evaluation of total purchase and consumption experience which are both actual and expected.

Another method to assess customer satisfaction was SERVQUAL method which is one of the most common approaches to evaluate the level of the satisfaction towards a particular service (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). Applying the paradigm which dissects the framework of the anticipation and disconfirmation, this method was used to focus on 5 dimensions: Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, Empathy, and Tangible. Nevertheless, there exists an ardent debate about this
approach since numerous scholars point to the lack of specification of this measure that cannot be attuned to any service (Babakus & Boller, 1992; Carman, 1990). Therefore, another proposition for measuring customer satisfaction was made by Jamali (2007), which involves not only the service quality but other determinants of satisfaction such as attributions, equity, emotion, etc. Oliver (1997, as cited in Taylor et al., 2004) has suggested that satisfaction is unique from the other closely related concepts such as quality, loyalty, and attitude. Although there is an argument that satisfaction can be conceptualized as an attitude (Clark, 2001) but Taylor et al. (2004) posited that the weight of the evidence to date postulate that satisfaction, loyalty, and attitude are distinctive measurable constructs.

There is a plethora of research showing the significant influence of customer satisfaction on consumer behavior (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994; Bolton & Lemon, 1999; Clow & Beisel, 1995; Fornell et al., 1996; Hallowell, 1996). To be specific, this factor can act as a driver of positive consumer behavior. One study has demonstrated the empirical evidence which signifies the direct relationship between the overall satisfaction and behavioral intentions in services marketing across multiple industries (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000).

Furthermore, it is an inescapable fact that the relationship between consumer satisfaction and consumer behaviors is well-established in a variety of studies (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Fornell, 1992; Kumar, 2002; Mittal & Kamakura, 2001; Patterson, Johnson, & Spreng, 1997), which demonstrates explicitly that an overall satisfaction is strongly associated with behavioral intentions. Those studies showed that a direct positive relationship between consumer satisfaction and repurchase intention has been found in an array of contexts, such as product purchase and service context. Hosany
and Witham (2010) empirically demonstrated that overall satisfaction of consumers shows a direct significant effect on intention to recommend, which proves that consumers are apt to recommend to others once they are satisfied.

Additionally, Bigné, Sanchez, and Sanchez (2001) found that satisfaction levels are inextricably connected to consumer's behavioral intention, especially the possibility of the recommendation. Indeed, customers who have higher satisfaction are substantial in delivering more positive word-of-mouth (Petrick, 2004). Likewise, applying the multi-attribute model of customer satisfaction, Finn, Wang, and Frank (2009) also found the direct relationship between customer satisfaction and intent to recommend under the cross-validation of their proposed mediated models.

Electronic Word-of-Mouth (eWOM)

Early defined by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955), word-of-mouth (WOM) is seen as the process of exchanging marketing information among customers, which plays an integral part in determining consumer behavior and attitudes. In a study which investigated the impact of the different types of WOM on consumer behavior, Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan (2008) have segmented WOM into three types including one-to-one WOM, one-to-many WOM, and many-to-many WOM. They emphasized that many-to-many WOM shows more adherence to the purposes of marketing since it will enable the scholars and researchers to gain the nuanced understanding of the manifold motivations of WOM generated in various scenarios; thereby, being able to get a hold of the strategies to entice consumers, such as residents to be more involved. That is why they described WOM as a source of communication of consumers about the product or service, which is perceived as impervious to commercial influence.
Today, with the inception of the technology-dominating world, especially the widespread of the Internet, communication of people is increasingly fostered and getting more advanced. The Internet has provided consumers the opportunity to maximize their choices for searching and disseminating the information at the pre and post-purchasing online. Accordingly, the electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) has been ubiquitously creeping into every walk of our life. Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004) have defined eWOM as any positive or negative statements about a product or firm given by potential, actual or former customers, which are available to a large number of people and institutions via the internet. Some scholars have perceived eWOM as an extension of conventional WOM in a virtual environment (Yeap, Ignatius, & Ramayah, 2014).

According to Khammash and Griffiths (2011), eWOM can be seen as active and passive participation of customers. Specifically, active participation refers to when a user shares their opinions with others and actively generates their reviews on the websites or related platforms. On the contrary, a passive one refers to when an individual seeks the information through constantly reading other's generated online reviews or recommendations without posting any of their own. In this study, we have only focused on the latter typology which is passive eWOM. In other words, this concept can also be defined as perceived eWOM as which consumers often seek references made from other consumers before or after arriving at their purchase decision (Cheung, Luo, Sia, & Chen, 2009).

The construct of eWOM can vary on the basis of different scenarios. One of the most common measurements which are used to measure the effect of eWOM itself is to evaluate the credibility, quality, and quantity. Each of these constructs can be
measured altogether or separately, depending on the various contexts. In this study, eWOM credibility and quality would be mainly focused since they are one of the most important factors driving the adoption of eWOM and then using them for making purchase decisions (Cheung et al., 2009; Tseng & Fogg, 1999).

Tseng and Fogg (1999) refer to eWOM credibility as the extent to which an individual perceives the online recommendation as believable, true, or factual. The study has shown an assessment in such a way that the credibility is evaluated on the online recommendation or review, not the trusting beliefs about tangible subjects, such as a person or a firm.

Previous research has suggested that different levels of perceptions towards the eWOM can predict the consumers’ attitudes and behaviors (Liang, Choi, & Joppe, 2018; Matute, Polo-Redondo, & Utrillas, 2016; Zhu & Zhang, 2010). A study done by Park et al. (2011) proved that the credibility of online recommendation can be one of the predictors of customer’s intention to revisit the online store. Similarly, Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski (2006) have identified eWOM as a determinant of users’ predisposition to revisit an online vendor’s website to repurchase products. Therefore, it is conceivable that if a consumer perceives the comments posted on the vendor’s website credible, they will consider them helpful and pertinent in their purchase decision and consequently are more inclined to repurchase or reuse the similar products or services in the future.

Information quality is seen as a cornerstone in constituting the persuasiveness of the message, possibly predicting the behavioral intentions of a consumer who seeks online information (Jeong & Lambert, 2001; Teng et al., 2014). Although information quality has been the focal point in research of consumer behavior for many years,
there has been no unanimity on its conceptualization. The construct to measure the information quality developed by Jeong and Lambert (2001) entails four dimensions: perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived accessibility, and attitude; whereas, Sussman and Siegal (2003) used the one-dimensional element as argument quality to assess the overall of information quality. Cheung, Lee, and Rabjohn (2009) emphasized four attributes: timeliness, comprehensiveness, relevance, and accuracy, which constitute the information quality. In this study, as the context involves consumer’s reviews or recommendations as online information about the product or the brand, not the platform whereby such reviews are posted, we placed our concentration on two dimensions of information quality which are pertinent to the context of the topic, including accuracy and relevance.

On the whole, the literature has demonstrated the significant progress in modeling components of brand equity, conceptualizing constructs of consumer trust, customer satisfaction, and eWOM as the important determinants of consumer behavior as well as reviewing major aspects of consumer behavior itself. This study would add to the marketing literature by investigating the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions along with examining the moderating effect of consumer trust, satisfaction, and eWOM as online reviews on this relationship. In the next section, we develop the conceptual framework on the basis of the literature search and suggest the hypotheses of the topic.

**Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development**

Given the literature review and past studies pertaining to the relationship between brand equity and customer behavioral intentions, as well as the link between
consumer determinants and behaviors of buyers, this section presents the development of conceptual framework whereby our hypotheses can eventually be constructed.

### Brand Equity and Behavioral Intentions

As previously articulated, the link between brand equity and behavioral intentions can be theoretically grounded by the Theory of Reasoned Action. Empirically, the extant literature is replete with studies in which brand equity, as well as its components, is found to be associated with behavioral intentions.

The high level of brand awareness drives customers to take into account a brand during a purchasing session (Hyun & Kim, 2011). Through brand awareness, the fact that consumers’ expectation in a brand name highly increases consumers’ willingness to pay more and stay with the brand (Rodrigues & Martins, 2016). Also, brand awareness has a strong impact on purchase decision and habitual behavior (Lin & Chang, 2003) and also affects consumers’ decision making and repurchasing of the product (MacDonald & Sharp, 2000).

Brand association is anything related to the preference of a brand (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993). O’Cass and Grace (2003) confirmed that the stronger the brand association is, the stronger the attitude and purchase intention are. Nevertheless, the link between the overall brand association and repurchase intention and/or willingness to recommend is given little attention. It is often studied through proxies as brand preference, brand name, price, attributes, self-congruity, functional benefits which are presumably constructs of brand associations. Ebrahim, Ghoneim, Iran, and Fan (2016) articulated that the impact of those attribute and non-attribute associations is at the same level of importance in shaping consumer preferences. They implied that the role
of preferences can be extended from motivating consumer intentions to the repurchase.

As noted in the literature review, loyalty has been found to be significantly associated with word-of-mouth and willingness to pay more (Srinivasan et al., 2002). This is in line with the interpretation of Dick and Basu (1994) whose study suggested that a loyal customer of an organization will create positive WOM regarding company and product, and competitive strategies of opponents cannot impact their loyalty. Examining intentional loyalty (i.e., WOM, repurchase intention), Schultz (2005) claimed that loyal buyers tend to speak about their favorite brand and recommend those ones to their relatives and friends.

Evans and Lindsay (1999, as cited in Kim et al., 2002) argued that high-quality products or services can motivate satisfied customers who reward the company with repeat business and positive word-of-mouth spreading (In another study, the relationship between perceived quality and repurchase intention is well-established. Specifically, the more that customers perceive the service quality of the retailer, the more their perceived control is enhanced, directly leading to repeat purchase in the future (Shi et al., 2018).

All taken into consideration, we expect that brand equity will have a strong relationship with the consumers' behavioral intentions including the intention to repurchase and recommend. Accordingly, our hypothesis is posited as follows:

\[ H1: \text{Brand equity is positively related to behavioral intentions.} \]
The Moderating Role of Trust, Satisfaction, and eWOM

**Trust.** In fact, the relationship between trust and repurchase intentions are highlighted and empirically found significant in many studies (Chiu et al., 2009; Kang & Cho, 2010; Shin, Chung, Oh, & Lee, 2013). Once consumers hold trust for the sellers, they will exhibit their behavioral intentions, which can minimize the search efforts and motivate repurchases (Gefen et al, 2003). As mentioned in the literature review, a customer who trusts a retailer shall give positive recommendations to others (Mukherjee & Nath, 2007). If perceived trust is high, positive word-of-mouth communication is more possible. With this reasoning, we anticipate that consumer trust in retailer has a direct effect on repurchase intention and willingness to recommend to others; thereby, it can moderate the effect that brand equity can have on these behavioral intentions. Thus, our hypothesis is postulated as follows:

\[ H2: \text{Trust can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions.} \]

**Satisfaction.** Many studies have suggested that satisfaction is one of the most salient factors in predicting the behavioral intentions of consumers. One of those studies posited that satisfaction is positively related to future intention, having both a direct and indirect impact on repurchase intention through attitude factor (Oliver, 1980). Another study showed that customer satisfaction among other determinants such as trust and net benefits is positively associated with the customer’s repurchase intention towards online shopping (Fang, Chiu, & Wang, 2011). Also, as stated in the literature review, satisfaction can be a predictor of intention to recommend the service via positive word-of-mouth (Petrick, 2004). With this reasoning, we expect that
satisfaction is empirically found to have a relationship with the repurchase intention and willingness to recommend, and when added to the main relationship, satisfaction will moderate the strength of this relationship. Hence, the hypothesis is suggested as follows:

\textit{H3: Satisfaction can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions.}

**Electronic Word-of-mouth (eWOM).** As stated in the literature review section, a great deal of research on eWOM and its effects on consumer behavioral intentions was conducted and showed fruitful findings and significant results. It is clearly seen that diverse dimensions of the eWOM concept are differently used and applied in abundant settings, demonstrating the various levels of impacts on the outcome of consumption of consumers. Specifically, the credibility of eWOM as online information is found to be able to dictate the tendency to revisit to the store (Park et al., 2011). The quality of eWOM also is part and parcel of predicting behavioral intentions, particularly the repurchase intention (Matute et al., 2016). It is implied that customers will be predisposed to revisiting the online store to make future purchases should they perceive other customers’ comments as qualified in the content of information.

Moreover, it is feasible to anticipate that consumers who engage in a more extended search for product information online will lean towards the intention to recommend the online store to others (Hahn & Kim, 2009). Therefore, in this study with the traditional context, we expect that eWOM perceived by the customers will be associated with the tendency to repurchase the product and recommend the brand to
others; thereby having a moderating role in the whole relationship between brand equity and specific behavioral intentions. Accordingly, we postulate a hypothesis as follows:

\[ H4: \text{Electronic word-of-mouth can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions.} \]

Figure 2. 8 Conceptual Framework
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

A quantitative study was utilized for this study design since the purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between brand equity and consumer’s behavioral intentions as well as the moderating role of trust, customer satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth in this relationship. By gathering quantitative offline survey, data analysis provided insights into the relationship between the aforementioned variables and the degree of its change under the effect of those three factors towards the brands. This chapter pertains to the specific procedures and techniques to identity, select, process, and analyzes information, by covering several parts including target population and sample, sampling method, product and brand selection, questionnaire design, measures of the variables, reliability and validity tests, and data analysis.

Target Population and Sample

The chosen samples were composed of the population of individuals aged 18-25 who were studying and working in Bangkok Metropolitan area, Thailand. The group of age ranging from 18 to 25 is seen as a tremendously valuable demographic for countless brands in numerous industries across the world since this age group knows exactly what they need and, more importantly, is willing to invest in their favorite brands when coming to purchasing decisions (Tayla, 2018). Furthermore, a college market including university students, which accounts for a considerable portion of total consumers in markets is, in the long run, seen as one of the most promising consumer sector owing completely to the scale of the market (Wolburg &
Pokrywcynski, 2001). Majority of them are early-adopters and trendsetters, which is believed to become a key factor in forming their patronage and dictating their parent’s purchase behaviors. Liu and Liard (2008) opined that compulsive buying tendencies are usually developed by the early adolescent age. Therefore, it is feasible to have chosen this target group who show conspicuous consumption on shopping to be our analyzed sample.

In accordance with the data published by the Department of Provincial Administration (2018), the number of young adults aged from 18 to 25 residing in Bangkok was reportedly 604,525 in total. Therefore, in order to determine the size of sample out of the target population so that it could be statistically acceptable and valid for the study, we employed a simplified formula suggested by Yamane (1973) with 95% confidence level. The formula was presented as follows:

\[
n = \frac{N}{1 + N \cdot e^2}
\]

- \(n\): the sample size
- \(N\): the population size
- \(e\): the acceptable sampling error

The computed result was shown below:

\[
399.7 = \frac{604,525}{1 + (604,525 \cdot 0.0025)}
\]
As clearly seen, the result of the size of the selected sample would be approximately 400. Therefore, we decided to collect at least 400 participants in the sample to conduct the study.

**Sampling Method**

This study focused on the target group of individuals aged 18-25 who were pursuing their studies and working in Bangkok, Thailand, mainly including undergraduates and postgraduates. To amplify the generalizability of the study population, the number of sample should entail at least 400 individuals. Hence, in efforts to obtain the target sample which can be a representative of a population of interest for the purpose of the study, a multi-stage sampling method were adopted.

First, given the fact that Bangkok is geographically divided into three major areas including inner, central and outer zones with 50 districts in total (Sukkho, 2017), purposive sampling was employed to select a region where our target samples could gather based on specific characteristics and the objective of the study. Inner area is possibly the most suitable among three zones of Bangkok for our data collection in congruence with the purpose of the topic since this region is said to be a key magnet that attracts numerous residents and travellers. Indeed, it can provide the most prime locations surrounded by high-end facilities and amenities, particularly the leading shopping malls and schools (“Exploring Inner Core of Bangkok,” 2016).

Additionally, this area shows characteristics analogous to city centers and shopping districts which are claimed to increasingly become the branded places, attracting the retailing and consumption standpoints as well (Bromley & Thomas, 2002; Hernandez & Jones, 2005; Julier, 2000). Consequently, this potentially engenders a significant
quantity of diverse consumers residing and/or traveling into the area. Thus, at the first stage of the sampling process, the inner zone of Bangkok was targeted at for selecting samples.

Second, since Bangkok’s inner area consists of 21 districts sharing homology in characteristics, we adopted the simple random sampling method in which we randomly chose 10 out of 21 inner districts to become research sites for collecting data. Doing that, we could hamper the difficulties caused by time and cost constraints. Ten inner districts randomly chosen for our data collection involved Pathumwan, Huai Khwang, Dindaeng, Phaya Thai, Ratchathewi, Sathorn, Wattanna, Bangkok Yai, Bangkok Noi, and Chatuchak.

Lastly, once we had finally identified 10 inner districts in random, we purposely went to potential places such as universities, schools or shopping malls within those areas to initiate the survey with the respondents whose characteristics matched the criteria of our study topic.

Product and Brand Selection

We designed a pretest which was administered to 22 students aged 18-25 who had similar characteristics to decide which product types that we should select for our topic. Those students were required to indicate five product types which would appear on the top of their mind once they read the definitions of high involvement product and its hedonic and utilitarian attributes suggested by prior researchers (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Murphy & Enis, 1986; Solomon, 2017) (see Appendix A). For examples, the high involvement products with hedonic value can be sports cars, luxury shoes, designer clothes, etc., whereas high involvement products with
utilitarian value can be laptops, computers, phones, etc. Based on the results given by students, we finally chose cellular phones as utilitarian, high involvement product and sports shoes as hedonic, high involvement products for our study since they showed the highest frequency in choices in the pretest.

As for brand selection, we decided to choose global brands as our stimuli targets for the topic so that we could ensure that its familiarity can be far-reaching. Indeed, brand globalness proves to have a positive impact on brand familiarity as global brands are more familiar to customers who can get ahold of an array of information on such brands, helping them to make evaluations regarding purchase decision making (Hussein & Hassan, 2018). In fact, although Samsung and Apple have been the leading hand-held device companies in Thailand market (One Development, 2017), Apple was found to be preferred by the segment of young consumers aged from 16-24 over Samsung (W&S, 2015). Moreover, looking at the global brands of sports shoes in Thailand, Nike was contributing the most to the market share of the nation compared to other global brands, such as Adidas or Puma (Euromonitor International, 2017). As per a study by Engagement Labs (n.d., as cited in Driver, 2018), Nike has been cementing its position among generation Z as it has been the most talked and favored brand for these young consumers. Likewise, according to youth research firm, Ypulse (n.d., as cited in Hershman, 2018), Nike is the top apparel brand among generation Z and Millennials. With the reasoning, Apple for mobile phone product and Nike for sports shoe product were selected for the topic with the target sample of young consumers, aged 18-25. Each brand was composed of more than 200 samples.
Questionnaire Design

This research adopted questionnaires which were distributed to the target sample in person. Close-ended questions, including scaling, dichotomous questions (i.e., yes or no), and multiple-choices questions were incorporated into the survey. The questionnaire was designed for different brands and it entailed 45 questions which were separated into seven sections.

Section 1: Three screening questions were included to acquire completed and adequate answers for further analysis. Close-ended questions were used in this section. First, participants were required to indicate their age so that whoever under 18 or above 25 could be excluded from the survey. Second, a yes-no question was used to identify the usage of the brand and product category, “Do you currently use the product of […] brand?” to ensure that participants are current users of them. Lastly, the participants were inquired about the period of their usage of the brand and product, and any who used them less than 6 months were asked to stop doing the survey.

Section 2: A series of questions regarding brand equity were included. Specifically, brand awareness encompassed two questions. Brand associations covered three questions. Perceived quality entailed two questions, and brand loyalty comprised three questions.

Section 3: A series of questions regarding trust were incorporated, including seven questions.

Section 4: Eight questions were used to measure the construct of customer satisfaction.
Section 5: For perceived electronic word-of-mouth, nine questions were presented to measure the construct including three questions of credibility, three questions of relevance, and three questions of accuracy.

Section 6: Four questions regarding behavioral intentions, including repurchase intention and willingness to recommend, were used.

Section 7: Demographic questions were composed of gender, income, education level, university types and career.

Measures for the Variables

Our topic covered five key variables, namely brand equity, trust, customer satisfaction, perceived electronic word-of-mouth, and behavioral intentions. All measures were assessed using five-point, Likert scale type ranging from strongly disagree = 1 to strongly agree = 5 to indicate the degree to which the participants agree toward each item. All items were listed in the Appendix B. The measures used for the variables were described in details as follows:

Brand equity. To measure this variable, 10 items adapted from Yoo and Donthu (2001) were employed. Out of 10 items were two for brand awareness, three for brand associations, two for perceived quality, and three for brand loyalty. In the study of developing a multidimensional construct of brand equity, Yoo and Donthu (2001) empirically tested many models then suggested the most acceptable model with satisfactory reliability coefficient values. To be specific, the value of internal consistency of brand awareness/brand association ranged from .88 to .92, the one of perceived quality was from .84 to .92, and of brand loyalty was from .87 to .88.
Trust. This variable was measured by using a seven-item version of the scale of trust developed by Gefen et al. (2003), which applied to our topic within the traditional context. This is the overall scale of trust based on three sub-dimensions which were ability, integrity, and benevolence. The reliability showed an acceptable value at .83 when all items of this construct were included in the model in the previous study.

Customer satisfaction. In order to measure this construct, we adopted a series of items which were tested having a satisfactory reliability score (.95) by Taylor et al. (2004). In this study, satisfaction was measured by using eight items with which the respondents indicated their answers as to how satisfied they were towards the product of the brand that they were using.

Electronic word-of-mouth. Following the previous approach (Matute et al., 2016), perceived electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) was treated as a construct which was exhaustive of two dimensions: eWOM credibility and quality. As for credibility, three items whose reliability coefficient showed a fascinating value at .94 in the past were used with some adaptations in the present study. As for eWOM’s quality as a formative construct, two sub-dimensions including relevance and accuracy were employed by borrowing the scales developed by Cheung et al. (2008). Relevance and accuracy both presented a very good score of reliability at .92 and .93, respectively, in the past study.

Behavioral intentions. Behavioral intentions were comprised of two measurable factors as followings:
*Repurchase intention.* This measure was assessed by using the items developed by Chiu et al. (2009). This scale consisted of two items which are “You intend to repurchase the product from brand [...] in the future” and “It is likely that you will continue to purchase the product from brand [...] in the future.” In the previous study, repurchase intention had been assessed with a strong reliability score at .96 with three items in total. However, in this study, two items of them were chosen and later re-evaluated with a test of Cronbach Alpha (Cronbach, 1947).

*Willingness to recommend.* The scale adapted from Río, Vázquez, and Iglesias (2001), and Mukherjee and Nath (2007), was used to measure this dimension. This scale was inclusive of two items including “You will recommend brand [...] to your friends who have similar interests” and “You would like to introduce brand [...] to your friends and the acquaintance who seeks your advice.” The composite reliability score of this scale from the past studies was at an acceptable level. However, these two adapted items’ reliability values were also re-tested in the later section.

**Reliability and Validity**

The accuracy and consistency of the survey or questionnaire are vital because they prove significant aspects of research methodology, which are seen as reliability and validity. Hence, in the efforts to minimize issues pertaining to reliability and validity, we employed several approaches. First, to test internal consistency within the selected items of variables, we used one of the common statistical methods, Cronbach’s Alpha (Cronbach, 1947, 1951), to examine the reliability. Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) suggested that the construct is considered reliable when the Cronbach’s alpha score is above the recommended cut-off of .70. Second, the
wording of the items was meticulously revised in order to avoid consistency motif bias (Johns, 1994; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The questions were reviewed and modified over times until they met the standard requirements of questionnaire design guidelines. All questions were designed to require the participants' actual perceptions as self-report information rather than social trends. The questions showed explicitly the cues to induce intentional answers so as to avoid item demand characteristics bias. Last but not least, the demographic variables were left at the end of the questionnaire in order not to make participants feel embarrassed or uncomfortable once beginning to do the survey.

In terms of content validity, this study involved a rigorous literature review. A questionnaire was developed based on the literature review. Moreover, we also implemented the back-translation technique which has been supported in cross-national studies for checking the reliability of the questionnaire (Brislin, 1980; Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). The questionnaire was composed in English, and then was translated into the Thai language and re-translated back into English by two local graduate students who majored in English, and it was carefully reviewed by the professor who has been adept at research methodology.

**Pretest**

After the questionnaire had been completely edited, we executed a pretesting survey on university students who were studying at Chulalongkorn University located in one of the inner districts of Bangkok. The target that was eligible for doing the survey had a majority of qualification characteristics. The pretesting survey were given to 30 students to check psychometric properties of the scales (Straub, 1989) and
measure the understanding toward the questions in order to adjust the survey before collecting the data.

**Data Analysis**

After all of the data had been collected from late April to early May 2019, they were coded and analyzed in the computer with the statistical software SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 22 in order to do the statistical calculation. Data analysis of this study included descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics indicated the results in percentages, means, and standard deviations of the analyzed sample. With respect to inferential statistics, this research employed two major statistical tests which were Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation to measure the association between the continuous variables and Hierarchical Multiple Regression to test the moderating effect of trust, satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth in the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions. In other words, to test the moderation, we looked at the interaction effects of each pair between brand equity and trust, satisfaction, electronic word-of-mouth and examine whether such effects are significant in predicting behavioral intentions. The significance level was set at .05.

Moreover, to examine whether there are differences between two brands regarding all measured variables, *t*-test was employed in this study. This effort made was to provide a clearer understanding of whether there is a variety or a consistency in the nature of the behaviors of our sample.
CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The present study with topic about the moderating role of consumer behavior determinants has a primary focus on exploring the effects of trust, customer satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth on the relationship between brand equity and consumers’ behavior-related tendency, including the intent to repurchase and willingness to recommend. It has also examined how different the strength of the connection between brand equity and behavioral intentions can be at different levels of each consumer determinant. Accordingly, our study has designated variables, namely brand equity as the independent variable, behavioral intentions as the dependent variable, and trust, customer satisfaction, perceived electronic word-of-mouth as the third variables or potential moderators that can affect the strength of the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. As the nature of the topic and the purpose to test hypotheses, a quantitative study was adopted, in which a face-to-face survey was devised to obtain the data for further analysis. Data collection was conducted throughout the inner area of Bangkok city, Thailand during the period from late April to early May in 2019. A total of 423 individuals who were studying and working in Bangkok, aged from 18 to 25, participated in the brand survey, in which 212 were Apple iPhone users and 211 were Nike shoe consumers.

The results reported from data analysis were presented into three parts as follows:

Part 1: Demographic profile

Part 2: Descriptive statistics for the key variables measured
Part 3: Correlation analysis and hypothesis testing

Part 1: Demographic Profile

Regarding demographic information, our sample contained a comparative percentage of gender presented in both brands, including 47.6 (Apple) and 47.9 (Nike) percent of males and 52.4 (Apple) and 52.1 (Nike) percent of females as shown in Table 4.1. In terms of age, for Apple brand, there were 35.8 percent of participants aged from 18 to 20, 45.8 percent of 21-23, and 18.4 percent of 24-25. Comparably, for Nike brand, the 18 to 20 years old took up 38.9 percent, the 21 to 23 years old accounted for 44.5 percent, and the 24 to 25 years old made up 16.6 percent, as illustrated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.1 Gender of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th></th>
<th>Nike</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$f$</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>$f$</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>212</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 Age of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th></th>
<th>Nike</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$f$</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>$f$</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-20 years old</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>38.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-23 years old</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-25 years old</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>212</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
With respect to the distribution of income level per month, it is unequal within the sample between two brands. Indicatively, for Apple brand users, 41.5 percent of them earned THB 5,001-15,000 while 24.5 percent of them reported that they earned THB 15,001 – 50,000, followed by 16.5 percent earning less than THB 5,000. There were an equal percentage of people who earned THB 25,001 to 35,000 and 35,001 to 45,000 with 6.1 percent. Whereas, only a small proportion of them earned above THB 45,000 with 5.2 percent (see Table 4.3). On the other hand, Nike brand sample showed 39.3 percent of people who earned THB 5,001 to 15,000, 24.6 percent earning THB 15,001 to 25,000, 14.2 percent earning THB 25,001 to 35,000, followed by 13.3 percent having income less than THB 5,000. Only 5.2 percent of Nike shoe users reported that they earned more than THB 45,000 per month while a low proportion of them got monthly income ranging from THB 35,001 o 45,000 with 3.3 percent.

### Table 4.3 Income per Month of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th></th>
<th>Nike</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than THB 5,000</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THB 5,001-15,000</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THB 15,001-25,000</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THB 25,001-35,000</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THB 35,001-45,000</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than THB 45,000</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>212</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>211</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The education level of participants also varied across the sample within two different brands (see Table 4.4). For those who were doing a bachelor’s degree, Apple brand presented 74.1 percent (157) while Nike brand showed only 54.0 percent (114). There were 37.4 percent of Nike users who completed their bachelor’s degree (79);
whereas, those who finished this degree using Apple brand made up 9.9 percent (21).

Those who were doing a master’s degree accounted for 11.8 percent as for Apple
brand and 5.7 percent as for Nike brand. Only a small percentage of respondents who
were Apple and Nike users reported having graduated with a master’s degree with 4.2
(9) and 2.8 percent (6), respectively.

Table 4.4 Education of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th></th>
<th>Nike</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Studying for bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>74.1</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>54.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduated with bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying for master’s degree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduated with master’s degree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
participants of Nike brand survey was 61 people who were office worker (28.9 percent), 20 were business owners (9.5 percent), and only four of them were employees working for state organizations (1.9 percent).

Table 4.5 University and Career of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University/Career</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th></th>
<th>Nike</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>85.8</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>59.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public University</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private University</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office workers</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>28.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State employees</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business owners</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part 2: Descriptive Statistics for the Key Variables Measured

For a clear visualization of our data, descriptive statistics of all measured variables including brand equity, trust, satisfaction, electronic word-of-mouth, and behavioral intentions were analyzed and their reliability values were estimated to show a consistency of a measure. The scores of all continuous variables in this study ranged from one to five corresponding to “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.”

Brand Equity. As shown in Table 4.6, brand equity comprising four dimensions (i.e., brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty) were measured for mean and standard deviation. As can be seen, brand equity was exhaustive of ten items, particularly, two items for brand awareness, three items for brand associations, two items for perceived quality, and three items for brand
loyalty. It is clearly seen that a total mean score of brand equity variable for Apple brand was 4.35 out of 5.0 ($SD=0.54$) while the one of Nike brand was 4.03 ($SD=0.64$).

According to the result of $t$-test for mean equality, the mean of Apple brand equity was significantly different from the Nike brand. Hence, it can be said the total mean score of brand equity of Apple brand was higher than the Nike brand, showing that consumers appear to have higher brand equity towards Apple than the Nike brand. To be more specific, brand awareness received a mean of 4.49 ($SD=0.58$) in the case of Apple brand, which was relatively higher than the one of Nike with $M=4.36$, $SD=0.76$.

In addition, both brands showed a large mean score of brand association, in which Apple brand scored 4.56 ($SD=0.48$) and Nike brand scored 4.30 ($SD=0.81$), indicating that I-phone users possibly have higher association of the brand in their minds compared to Nike consumers. In terms of quality, both brands were perceived as high with comparable mean scores at 4.36 with $SD=0.66$ (Apple) and 4.33 with $SD=0.64$ (Nike). Regarding brand loyalty, Nike brand showed a moderate mean value of 3.35 ($SD=1.00$) whereas, Apple brand showed a higher value with a mean of 4.04 ($SD = 0.92$), meaning that the Apple phone users might be more loyal to their brand than Nike users. It is also noticeable that among the items of brand equity, the item rated for the quick recollection of the brand’s symbol and logo received the highest mean of 4.78 ($SD=0.47$) as for Apple brand and of 4.53 as for Nike brand ($SD=0.88$).
Table 4. Mean and Standard Deviations of Brand Equity Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brand Equity</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th>Nike</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand Awareness</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Ability to recognize the</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brand among other</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>competing brands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ability to be aware of the</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand Associations</strong></td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Easy to imagine the brand</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in one’s mind</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. A quick recollection of</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the brand’s symbol or</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>logo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Quickly thinking of some</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>characteristics of the brand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived Quality</strong></td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. High quality</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Good function</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand Loyalty</strong></td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Being loyal to the brand</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The brand’s being one’s</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first choice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Not buying other brands</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if it is for the availability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the brand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong>*</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Reliability Coefficient for Apple and Nike = .87 and .87, respectively.

*t*(409) = 5.49, *p* < .05
Meanwhile, the item rated for the loyalty to buying only one brand if that brand is available received the lowest mean in both brands with $M=3.79$, $SD=1.16$ (Apple) and $M=2.91$, $SD=1.23$ (Nike). The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of brand equity variable showed a satisfactory value of .87 for both brands in terms of the reliability of the variable used.

Trust. Table 4.7 shows mean and standard deviation of trust variable with seven items measured in total. It can be seen that the total mean scores of overall trust of Apple and Nike were comparable with 3.82 ($SD=0.56$) and 3.96 ($SD=0.69$), respectively. However, regarding the equality of mean, there were differences in means between Apple and Nike. Therefore, it can be interpreted that the people who use Nike products trust their brand more than iPhone users.

Furthermore, regarding items’ mean values, there were some items whose lowest and highest mean score were apparently presented. Specifically, the item “the brand is not opportunistic” received the lowest mean score with a value of 3.27 ($SD=0.88$) for Apple brand. Differently, Nike users rated the item regarding knowing what they can get from the brand with the lowest mean of 3.68 ($SD=1.07$).

It is observable that this variable showed a good score of Cronbach’s alpha with a value of .82 and .89 for Apple and Nike brand, respectively, indicating a consistency among items under trust variable.
Table 4. Mean and Standard Deviations of Trust Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trust</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th>Nike</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The brand is honest.</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The brand cares about customers.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The brand is not opportunistic.</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The brand provides good service/quality.</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Knowing what one can get from the brand.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The brand is trustworthy.</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The brand knows its market well.</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Reliability Coefficient for Apple and Nike = .82 and .89, respectively. 
*\(t(401)=2.24, p<.05\)

Satisfaction. Indicated in Table 4.8 are mean and standard deviation of satisfaction variable which included eight items. The mean score of overall satisfaction of Apple brand was 4.12 with \(SD=0.63\) and of Nike was 4.01 with \(SD=0.73\). Since the \(t\)-test for mean equality was not significant, showing that there was no difference between the means of satisfaction of two brands. Hence, based on the scores, we can say that both users of the two brands are likely to be satisfied with their own brands at an equally high level.

Additionally, looking at items’ measured for the satisfaction variable, we also found some noticeable mean values. For instance, item rated for product quality that can exceed participants’ expectations received the lowest score of mean among eight items in Apple brand sample \((M=3.89, SD=0.76)\), meanwhile, this item scored a lower mean with a value of 3.88 \((SD=0.83)\) in Nike brand sample.
Table 4. Mean and Standard Deviations of Satisfaction Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th>Nike</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Product quality exceeding expectations</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Being a satisfied customer</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Provision of all needed features</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. A wise choice of buying the product</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Post-purchase product satisfaction</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. A right thing to buy the product</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Good experience in using the product</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Being delighted with the brand</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*<em>Total</em></td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Reliability Coefficient for Apple and Nike = .92 and .94, respectively.

\[ *t(421)=1.70, p>0.05 \]

In terms of the highest mean score among items, Apple brand users assessed the item which showed that they were delighted with the brand with a high value of 4.28 (SD=0.77). Meanwhile, Nike users rated the item which presented that they were satisfied with the brand with the highest mean value of 4.14 (SD=0.81) compared to the rest. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of this variable of Apple was .92 and of Nike was .94.

*Electronic word-of-mouth.* The mean and standard deviation of perceived electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) for Apple and Nike brand are also shown in Table 4.9. This variable was broken down into three dimensions including credibility (three items), relevance (three items), and accuracy (three items). The total mean score of
eWOM of Apple brand was 3.92 (SD=0.62) and of Nike brand was 3.62 (SD=0.80). Due to the significant difference in means between two brands, it can be seen that perceived electronic word-of-mouth about Apple brand scored higher than about Nike brand. This suggests that people apparently perceive electronic word-of-mouth about the Apple brand more positive than the Nike brand in terms of credibility, relevance, and accuracy.

Table 4.9 Mean and Standard Deviations of Perceived Electronic Word-of-mouth (eWOM) Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>eWOM</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th>Nike</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Consumers’ online recommendation is credible.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Consumers’ online recommendation is believable.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Consumers’ online recommendation is trustworthy.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Consumers’ online reviews are relevant to one’s buying decisions.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Consumers’ online reviews are useful.</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Consumers’ online reviews are helpful in buying decision.</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Consumers’ online reviews are accurate.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Consumers’ online reviews are correct.</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Consumers’ online reviews are reliable.</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Reliability Coefficient for Apple and Nike = .91 and .95, respectively.

\*t(395)=4.27, p<.05
It is observable that as one of the three dimensions of eWOM, relevance in both brands received the highest mean scores with a value of 4.03, $SD=0.70$ (Apple) and of 3.81, $SD=0.75$ (Nike). More specifically, once items’ mean scores of this dimension were looked upon, it can be seen that I-phone users rated the item “consumers’ online reviews are helpful in buying decision” with the highest mean of 4.08 ($SD=0.84$). Whereas, the item rated by Nike users with the highest mean score was “consumers’ online reviews are useful” at a value of 3.82 ($SD=0.94$).

It is also apparent that people did not assess online reviews’ accuracy as high as expected. As shown in the table, the item “consumers’ online reviews are accurate” was rated with the lowest mean score ($M=3.72$, $SD=0.80$) towards Apple brand. Meanwhile, Nike shoe users also did not think consumers’ online reviews were correct through rating this with the lowest mean score of 3.46 ($SD=0.99$). The reliability coefficients of this variable showed a satisfactory value of .91 and .95 in the case of Apple and Nike, respectively.

**Behavioral Intentions.** As shown in Table 4.10 that describes the mean and standard deviations of behavioral intentions variable including intention to repurchase (two items) and willingness to recommend (two items), Apple brand’s mean score was 4.06 ($SD=0.86$) and Nike brand’s score was 4.05 ($SD=0.85$). Both brands’ behavioral intentions showed a comparable mean score with no significance of the mean differences, indicating that consumers of both brands have an equally high level of the intention to repurchase and recommend the brands to others.

In addition, among four items measured for this variable, it is evident that users of both brands rated the item saying that they would continue to buy the product
from the brand the most highly with a mean value of 4.19, \(SD=0.92\) (Apple) and of 4.09, \(SD=0.94\) (Nike). However, also observed in the table, the item stating that the willingness to introduce the brand to friends and the acquaintance seeking advice received the lowest mean score in Apple brand (\(M=3.96, SD=0.96\)).

The reliability score of this variable was .92 and .91, showing a satisfactory value in light of the presence of the inter-correlation among the items of this construct.

Table 4. 10 Mean and Standard Deviations of Behavioral Intentions Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavioral Intentions</th>
<th>Apple</th>
<th></th>
<th>Nike</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(M)</td>
<td>(SD)</td>
<td>(M)</td>
<td>(SD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Repurchase</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Intention to repurchase the product from the brand</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Continuing to buy the product from the brand</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Recommend</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Willingness to recommend the brand to friends having similar interests</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Willingness to introduce the brand to friends and acquaintance seeking the buying advice</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Reliability Coefficient for Apple and Nike = .92 and .91, respectively. 
*\(t(421)=0.04, p>.05\)
Part 3: Correlation Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

This part covered the preliminary analysis for correlations followed by the use of statistics for hypothesis testing. The reason why correlation was examined as a preparatory analysis is an essential condition of linear relationship that should be met before we use a model to make prediction. If there is no linear association between them, the regression analysis may be not correct in estimations, leading to the invalidity of hypothesis testing. For examining hypotheses after the correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis was employed with several statistical steps.

Correlation Analysis

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated in order to examine the relationships among the measured variables. As can be seen in Table 4.11, overall, brand equity was positively and strongly correlated with behavioral intentions ($r=.62$, $p<.05$). These results indicated that the higher brand equity an individual has for the brands, the more behavioral intentions that one displays. It also was found that all three consumer determinants including trust ($r=.60$, $p<.05$), customer satisfaction ($r=.73$, $p<.05$), perceived electronic word-of-mouth ($r=.57$, $p<.05$), were positively correlated with behavioral intentions. These additional findings about the correlations between consumer determinants and consumer behavioral intentions revealed that (1) the more trust a consumer has towards the brands, the more intention to repurchase and recommend he or she has; (2) the more satisfaction an individual gains, the more behavioral intentions that one establishes and (3) the more positive electronic word-of-mouth from other consumers an individual perceives, the more they intend to repurchase and recommend.
Table 4. Pearson Correlation Matrix among the Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Behavioral Intentions</th>
<th>Trust</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Electronic Word-of-mouth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brand Equity</td>
<td>.62*</td>
<td>.56*</td>
<td>.69*</td>
<td>.57*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral Intentions</td>
<td></td>
<td>.60*</td>
<td>.73*</td>
<td>.57*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.72*</td>
<td>.57*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.62*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * p < .05

Nevertheless, we also found the correlations between brand equity and consumer determinants, which raise a concern about the multicollinearity among independent variables that can influence the estimates of the main effect in regression analysis. Therefore, the test for Variance Inflation Factor was employed to detect the phenomenon (James, Witten, Hastie, & Tibshirani, 2017). The results would be revealed in the next section which indicated that there is no problematic issue pertaining to multicollinearity among those independent variables; thus, the estimates remained reliable.

Once the measured variables’ linear correlations were found, a linear regression was used to model the relationship among them. In this study, using brand equity as a predictor or explanatory variable to explain the behavioral intentions as the response or dependent variable requires a bivariate regression analysis. Moreover, investigating the moderating role of trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth demands a hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Therefore, in the next section, those suggestive inferential tests were used to test hypotheses.
Hypothesis Testing

In order to answer the research questions and reach the objectives of the study, we have tested four hypotheses in different product type contexts. First, we examined hypothesis 1 which proposes that brand equity is positively related to customer behavioral intentions. Testing this hypothesis required regression analysis in which the effect of brand equity on customer intentions would be looked at. Second, hypotheses 2, 3, and 4, which postulate that trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth respectively can moderate the relationship between brand equity and customer behavioral intentions, were examined. As for testing the moderating role, we employed a moderation analysis by using hierarchical multiple regression, in which each variable and interaction term were added in different steps.

\textit{Hypothesis 1: Brand equity is positively related to customer behavioral intentions.}

In order to examine the main relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions within two brands, we conducted linear regression analysis. The results of the analysis on the relationship between these variables in different product-type categories were demonstrated in Tables 4.12 and 4.13. According to the results, the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions was found to be positively significant in both brands with positive standardized coefficients $\beta=.62$, $t=11.55$, $p<.05$ (Apple) and $\beta=.67$, $t=13.06$, $p<.05$ (Nike) while other demographic variables including age, gender, income, university were also controlled in the model. It is said that some demographic variables can have effects on consumer behavior (Laoviwat, Suppapanya, & Yousapronpaiboon, 2014; Solomon, 2017); thereby potentially causing confounding effects in the casual relationship between the
explanatory variable (i.e., brand equity) and outcome variable (i.e., behavioral intentions) (Frank, 2000). As such, the demographic factors should be controlled in the model so that we can know if they are the confounders or disturbers to the main effect. The results show that those controlled demographic variables were not found to have any effect on behavioral intentions. Hence, the bias of the estimates about the main effect of brand equity on behavioral intentions can reduce, generating results that are more reliable. With the statistical significance of the brand equity’s impact on behavioral intentions in the simple regression analysis, hypothesis 1 was fully supported, indicating that brand equity is positively related to behavioral intentions in both hedonic and utilitarian brands, in which brand equity has an impact on customer behavioral intentions.

Table 4. 12 Regression Analysis on the Effect of Brand Equity on Behavioral Intentions for Apple brand (N=212)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>-.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Equity</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. 13 Regression Analysis on the Effect of Brand Equity on Behavioral Intentions for Nike brand (N=211)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Equity</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>13.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Testing hypotheses 2, 3 and 4 to examine whether trust, satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions requires a hierarchical multiple regression analysis with three steps (Sharma, Durand, & Gur-Arie, 1981). The mean-centered variables were entered in a series of three steps: brand equity in step one, moderators in step two, and the cross products (interaction term) of brand equity and the moderators in step three. We standardized all continuous variables to enhance the interpretability of data (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2008). In step three, if the interaction term entered in the model reaches statistical significance, it will indicate that potential moderators (i.e., trust, satisfaction, eWOM) can moderate the effect of brand equity on behavioral intentions. The whole process was implemented on two separate brands including Apple with smartphone product having utilitarian value, and Nike with sports shoe product having hedonic value. Moreover, we carried out the multicollinearity diagnostic test by evaluating the variance inflation factor (VIF) to detect the
multicollinearity problem. The results showed that there was no potential multicollinearity phenomenon among the independent variables in the regression models since all the values were smaller than five, which is in congruence with the well-known VIF’s rules of thumb suggested by O’Brien (2007).

_Hypothesis 2: Trust can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions._

In the case of Apple brand, as shown in Table 4.14, the first step of the analysis indicated that brand equity was significantly a predictor of behavioral intentions ($\beta = .63$, $t = 11.74$, $p < .05$). In this step, the model could interpret 39.3 percent of the variance in behavioral intentions ($R^2_{adj} = .393$) and explained the significant amount of variance in brand equity ($F = 137.87$, $p < .05$). In step two, with the presence of trust, the regression model was still significant ($F = 82.54$, $p < .05$) and could interpret the variance up to 43.6 percent for behavioral intention ($R^2_{adj} = .436$). Also, the results in this step showed that behavioral intentions could be significantly explained by trust ($\beta = .25$, $t = 4.10$, $p < .05$) while its relationship with brand equity remained significant and positive ($\beta = .48$, $t = 7.84$, $p < .05$). However, in step three, coming to the interaction term between brand equity as a predictor and trust as a potential moderator, the results did not reach statistical significance since the $p$-value was greater than .05. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported, indicating that trust cannot moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions in the case of the Apple brand as a utilitarian brand.
Table 4. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for the Interaction Effect of Brand Equity and Trust on Behavioral Intentions for Apple Brand (N=212)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>VIF</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>VIF</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Brand Equity</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>11.74</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>7.84</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>6.96</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Trust x Brand Equity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.80</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td></td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.436</td>
<td></td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>F-value</td>
<td>137.87*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82.54*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>55.15*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Brand equity and trust were centered at their means. *p<.05

Following a similar process but in the case of Nike brand, the first step of the analysis indicated that there was a significant positive relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions (see Table 4.15). Brand equity explained 45.2 percent of the variance in behavioral intentions ($R^{2}_{adj}=.452$). The results of the second step of the analysis demonstrated that brand equity and trust explained an additional 10 percent of the variance in behavioral intentions ($R^{2}_{adj}=.553$) and this model including trust was significant in regression analysis ($F=131.13$, $p<.05$). They also revealed that brand equity ($\beta=.38$, $t=6.28$, $p<.05$) and trust ($\beta=.43$, $t=6.97$, $p<.05$) could predict customer’s behavioral intentions. In the last step of the analysis, the interaction term of brand equity and trust explained a significant amount of variance in behavioral intentions ($F=107.96$, $p<.05$) and the model could interpret variance up to 60.4 percent towards behavioral intentions ($R^{2}_{adj}=.604$). The interaction term was shown to be significant ($\beta=-.25$, $t=-5.27$, $p<.05$), suggesting that trust was a moderator in the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions although the
moderation effect was weak (see Figure 4.1). Probing the moderation analysis, we noted that the effect of the interaction term on the behavioral intentions showed a negative coefficient, suggesting that at the higher level of trust, the strength of the main relationship appears to become weaker albeit inconsiderably. Therefore, hypothesis 2, in the case of the hedonic product of Nike brand, was supported, indicating that trust can moderate the relationship between brand equity and customer behavioral intentions.

Table 4. 15 Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for the Interaction Effect of Brand Equity and Trust on Behavioral Intentions for Nike Brand (N=211)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th>Step 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Equity</td>
<td>.67*</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>.43*</td>
<td>6.97</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust x Brand Equity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.452</td>
<td></td>
<td>.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$-value</td>
<td>173.93*</td>
<td></td>
<td>131.13*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Brand equity and trust were centered at their means. $^*p<.05$

Figure 4. 1 Interaction effects of levels of trust and brand equity on behavioral intentions
All taken together, based on the different results in distinctive cases, it can be said that hypothesis 2 was partially supported.

_Hypothesis 3: Customer satisfaction can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions._

For testing hypothesis 3, customer satisfaction was examined as a moderator in the same hierarchical regression procedure. Similar to the first step of testing hypothesis 2, the results of step one in this analysis always showed a strong effect of brand equity on behavioral intentions whose results were explicitly illustrated in the previous part. In step two, as shown in Table 4.16, both brand equity ($\beta=.28, p<.05$) and satisfaction ($\beta=.48, p<.05$) predicted behavioral intentions and the model was significant, portraying 51.2 percent of variance for behavioral intentions explained by satisfaction and brand equity ($R^2_{adj}=.512, F=111.58$). In step three, the interaction term was shown to be capable of explaining a significant amount of variance to the model ($F=74.15, p<.05$) but demonstrating no statistical significance in terms of its effect on the dependent variable ($\beta=-.02, p>.05$). Therefore, there was no moderating effect of satisfaction on behavioral intentions, showing that satisfaction cannot moderate the effect of brand equity on customer behavioral intentions in the case of Apple brand as a utilitarian brand. As a result, hypothesis 3 was not supported in this case.
Table 4. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for the Interaction Effect of Brand Equity and Satisfaction on Behavioral Intentions for Apple Brand (N=212)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th>Step 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Variable</strong></td>
<td><strong>β</strong></td>
<td><strong>t</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Equity</td>
<td>.63*</td>
<td>11.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.48*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction x Brand Equity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td>.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-value</td>
<td>137.87*</td>
<td>111.58*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Brand equity and satisfaction were centered at their means.  
*p < .05

We tested this hypothesis on Nike brand and the results in Table 4.17 showed that the model in step two in which satisfaction was entered could interpret 63.4 percent of variance for customer behavioral intentions ($R^2_{adj}=.634$, $F=182.48$, $p<.05$). Thus, the predictability of this model was greater compared to the simple regression model in which only brand equity was examined in step one. It can be seen from the results that both brand equity ($β=.25$, $t=4.24$, $p<.05$) and satisfaction ($β=.60$, $t=10.23$, $p<.05$) were the predictors of behavioral intentions. In step three, as the interaction was added, the model accounted for a more significant amount of variance than just brand equity and satisfaction by themselves in step two ($R^2_{adj}=.653$, $F=132.60$, $p<.05$). The results revealed that this interaction was significant, showing that there was potentially a significant moderation between brand equity and satisfaction on customer behavioral intentions ($β=−.18$, $t=−3.54$, $p<.05$).

Therefore, hypothesis 3 was supported in the case of Nike brand having hedonic value, showing that satisfaction was a moderator of the effect of brand equity on behavioral intentions although this moderating effect was weak (see Figure 4.2).
Given the fact that satisfaction can moderate the relationship between brand equity and customer behavioral intentions, examining the essence of this moderation effect revealed a negative interaction effect on the main relationship, from which can be inferred that when satisfaction increases, the brand equity’s effect on behavioral intentions may decrease yet slightly.

Table 4. 17 Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for the Interaction Effect of Brand Equity and Satisfaction on Behavioral Intentions for Nike Brand (N=211)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Step 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Equity</td>
<td>.67*</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td></td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>.60*</td>
<td>10.23</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.50*</td>
<td>7.98</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction x Brand Equity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.18*</td>
<td>-3.54</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.452</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.634</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.653</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$-value</td>
<td>173.93*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>182.49*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>132.60*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Brand equity and satisfaction were centered at their means.

* $p<.05$

Figure 4. 2 Interaction effects of levels of satisfaction and brand equity on behavioral intentions.
In summary, tested through thorough analyses, hypothesis 3 was partially supported. Particularly, the moderating role of satisfaction was not found in the case of the Apple brand as a utilitarian brand. Conversely, this role was significantly found in the case of Nike as a hedonic brand, showing that satisfaction can moderate the main effect of brand equity on behavioral intentions.

**Hypothesis 4: Electronic word-of-mouth can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions.**

We repeated the procedure to test hypothesis 4 between two distinguished brands having different product characteristics to see whether perceived electronic word-of-mouth is a moderator that can buffer the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions.

For Apple brand, as indicated in Table 4.18, the results from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed that brand equity ($\beta=.49, p<.05$) and perceived electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta=.23, p<.05$) were the significant predictors of behavioral intentions in step two. The model in this step could interpret 42.9 percent of the variance in behavioral intentions ($R^2_{adj}=.429, F=80.19, p<.05$), showing more predictive capability as opposed to the model in which brand equity was only included by itself in step one. Turning to step three, when the interaction between brand equity and electronic word-of-mouth was added, the model still explained a significant amount of variance ($F=53.31, p<.05, R^2_{adj}=.427$). However, the interaction term did not reach statistical significance, suggesting electronic word-of-mouth cannot moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions. Therefore, hypothesis 4 was not supported in this case.
Table 4.18 Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for the Interaction Effect of Brand Equity and Electronic Word-of-mouth (eWOM) on Behavioral Intentions for Apple Brand (N = 212)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Step 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Equity</td>
<td>.63*</td>
<td>11.74</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.49*</td>
<td>7.66</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.47*</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eWOM</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eWOM x Brand Equity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>-.42</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.393</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.429</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.427</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$-value</td>
<td>137.87*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>80.19*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>53.31*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Brand equity and eWOM were centered at their means.
* $p<.05$

As shown in Table 4.19 describing the results from the multiple regression analysis on Nike brand, brand equity ($\beta=.46$, $t=8.64$, $p<.05$) and electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta=.39$, $t=7.44$, $p<.05$) had influences on behavioral intentions in step two. Also in this step, the model explained an additional proportion of variance in behavioral intentions variable with adjusted $R^2$ of .565 and a significant $F$-value of 137.47 ($p<.05$) compared to the simple regression model in the first step. In the last step whereby interaction was examined, the results showed that there was a significant interaction effect of brand equity and electronic word-of-mouth on customer behavioral intentions, suggesting that electronic word-of-mouth is a moderator changing the strength of brand equity’s effect on behavioral intentions. Hence, hypothesis 4 was supported in the case of the Nike brand having hedonic value. Nonetheless, the moderation effect was weak as shown in Figure 4.3. Of particular note is that this effect was negative, which suggests that at a higher level of electronic word-of-mouth’s positivity perceived, the influence of brand equity on customer intentions may decrease more but not to a large extent.
Table 4. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Summary for the Interaction Effect of Brand Equity and Electronic Word-of-mouth (eWOM) on Behavioral Intentions for Nike Brand (N = 211)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Step 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>VIF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Equity</td>
<td>.67*</td>
<td>13.18</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.46*</td>
<td>8.64</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.39*</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eWOM</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.39*</td>
<td>7.44</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.33*</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eWOM x Brand Equity</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>-.22*</td>
<td>-.42</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.452</td>
<td>.565</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$-value</td>
<td>173.93*</td>
<td>137.33*</td>
<td>105.47*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Brand equity and perceived eWOM were centered at their means. *p<.05

Figure 4. 3 Interaction effects of levels of eWOM and brand equity on behavioral intentions

The following table illustrates the summary of the hypotheses testing results after multi-faceted statistical analyses in both hedonic and utilitarian product contexts. Specifically, brand equity was found to be positively related to behavioral intentions in both settings; thereby, hypothesis 1 was fully supported.

Furthermore, once testing three consumer determinants comprising trust, customer satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth, we also found that
they were the moderators of the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions towards the hedonic product, meaning that they could moderate this relationship. Conversely, they were not found to have the moderating role in the main relationship in the case of the utilitarian product, showing that the strength of the relationship could not be moderated or changed by trust, satisfaction or electronic word-of-mouth. Therefore, we concluded that hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 were partially supported.

Table 4. 20 Hypothesis Testing Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proposed Hypotheses</th>
<th>Apple Brand (Utilitarian)</th>
<th>Nike Brand (Hedonic)</th>
<th>Summarized Hypotheses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Brand equity is positively related to customer behavioral intentions.</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>Fully supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Trust can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions.</td>
<td>Unsupported</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Satisfaction can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions.</td>
<td>Unsupported</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Electronic word-of-mouth can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions.</td>
<td>Unsupported</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Given the fact that the importance of brand equity in determining consumer behavioral intentions has been ardently discussed in the extant literature, this study was conducted to investigate the main relationship between these variables in order to fortify the past evidence. Moreover, there has been a paucity of research on the connection between brand equity and consumer behavior in the product-type setting in Thailand, this study was seen as work of significance, in which it can contribute to the branding knowledge in Thai market and illuminate the unexplored areas.

More importantly, considering the key roles of trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth in predicting customer intentions which have been studied in a plethora of research over years, this study aimed to investigate the moderating effects of these consumer determinants by incorporating them in the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions. In fact, a relationship between two variables can be intervened explicitly or implicitly by other factors or variables. Therefore, considering all issues, we implemented this study as an essence of the matters.

After the literature search, applied research methodology as well as necessary analyses, the key findings emerged and additional discoveries were made, along with valuable interpretations. Accordingly, this chapter covers main sections comprising the summary of the results, discussion of the findings, limitations, and directions for the future as well as crucial implications.
Summary

The study placed a focus on individuals aged from 18 to 25, belonging to Generation Y. A total of 440 questionnaires were collected and only 423 were useable after the exclusion of the incomplete or inadequate answers. Within the collected sample were there different distributions of demographic characteristics pertaining to gender, age, monthly income, education level, school types, and career percentagewise. The background of the respondents was summarized as follows.

There was an equal percentage of men and women in Apple and Nike brands. However, when coming to age, there was quite an unbalanced distribution, in which most of them were from 21 to 23 years old, followed by the group of people aged 18 to 20 years, and only a small proportion of them aged 24 to 25.

Regarding income level per month, different brands showed various distributions across the sample. To be specific, most of the participants reported that they earned from THB 5,001 to 15,000 per month (41.5 percent for Apple and 39.3 percent of Nike), followed by the proportion of people earning from THB 15,001 to 25,000. Noticeably, a very low fraction of participants earned more than THB 45,000 in Apple brand sample and from THB 35,001 to 45,000 in Nike brand sample.

Turning to education level, the unbalanced distribution was also found across different groups. Majority of them were students studying for a bachelor's degree (74.1 percent for Apple and 54.0 percent for Nike). At the second place regarding the percentages of education level was the group of people who graduated with a bachelor's degree as for Nike brand and the group who were still pursuing master’s
degree as for Apple. Nevertheless, the sample contained a very small pro rata number of participants who completed their master’s degree in both Apple and Nike brand.

Moreover, Apple and Nike brand had the majority of the users who were students. As for Apple users, there were a larger number of them studying at private universities compared to public universities. In contrast, Nike brand showed a bigger number of students studying at public universities. In terms of career types as for people who were working within both brand samples, the majority of them were office workers, followed by the percentage of business owners. State employees were also found in the sample but with a very small proportion.

Using t-test for comparing means of the measured variables between two brand groups representing two product types including Apple (the utilitarian product, i.e., smartphones) and Nike (the hedonic product, i.e., sports shoes), the descriptive statistics showed some differences in means of them. Specifically, brand equity gained a mean value of 4.35 (SD= 0.54) for Apple brand and of 4.03 (SD=0.64) for Nike brand, indicating that consumers had higher brand equity towards Apple brand representing utilitarian value products than Nike brand representing hedonic value products. When coming to trust, the results indicated that Nike brand (M=3.96, SD=0.69) received a higher mean value than Apple (M=3.82, SD=0.56) did, supporting that individuals had higher trust in Nike brand than the Apple brand. Moreover, the results revealed that I-phone users perceived other consumers' electronic word-of-mouth about Apple brand more positive (M=3.92, SD=0.62) than Nike users did in regards to Nike brand (M=3.62, SD=0.80). Nevertheless, with respect to customer satisfaction, the results revealed that there was no significant
difference in means between two brands; thereby, indicating that both users of two brands had a comparable level of satisfaction about Apple and Nike with a mean value of 4.12 ($SD=0.63$) and of 4.01 ($SD=0.73$), respectively. Similarly, the findings from the results revealed that these two brands’ consumers showed the same high level of their behavioral intentions ($M=4.06, SD=0.86$ for Apple; $M=4.05, SD=0.85$ for Nike), meaning that they all have high intentions to repurchase and recommend their favorite brands to others.

Coming to the key findings in this study, the results showed that the main relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions was significantly found in the regression analysis, indicating that brand equity was the predictor of customer behavioral intentions as for both hedonic and utilitarian products. Thus, hypothesis 1 was fully accepted, supporting that brand equity is positively related to behavioral intentions.

However, upon investigating the moderating role of trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth, the results showed mixed findings in different product categories. To be specific, as for Apple brand with the utilitarian products, the interaction of brand trust, satisfaction, or perceived electronic word-of-mouth with brand equity showed no statistical significance, indicating that these three consumer determinants were not the moderators of the relationship between brand equity and customer intentions. Nevertheless, as for Nike brand representing hedonic value products, the interaction term between the consumer determinants and brand equity was significantly found, showing that trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth were the moderators of the main relationship. All taken together, it
can be said that hypotheses 2, 3 and 4 were partially supported; thereby, suggesting that trust, satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth can moderate the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions.

Furthermore, the research also revealed additional findings pertaining to correlations among measured variables. Brand equity and behavioral intentions showed a positive correlation, suggesting that, the higher brand equity, the higher behavioral intentions. In addition, there existed positive correlations between trust, satisfaction, electronic word-of-mouth, and other variables, indicating that the more trust, satisfaction, or the more perceived positivity of electronic word-of-mouth an individual had, the more intentions he or she established. Moreover, the correlations between the explanatory variables and potential moderators were found, which might cause a multicollinearity problem in regression analysis. However, the values generated from the test for multicollinearity detection were at satisfactory quota that was smaller than five, expressing that multicollinearity was not problematic to the estimation is the analysis.

**Discussion**

Based on the results from the previous chapter, this part covers the interpretation of the findings and the relation to other studies through the discussion section. Accordingly, this section discusses three major parts including the main relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions in hedonic and utilitarian product contexts, the moderating role of consumer determinants (i.e., trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth), as well as additional findings of the differences in means of the measured variables and correlated relationships.
The Main Relationship between Brand Equity and Behavioral Intentions

The results of the mean and standard deviation of brand equity construct provide some evidence to support Aaker’s (1993) conceptual interpretation of the brand equity construct. As observed in the results section, brand equity construct including brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality, and brand loyalty has shown comparably high mean values in both cases of hedonic and utilitarian product settings, meaning that all dimensions suggested by Aaker (1993) for measuring brand equity were highly inter-correlated. This justifies that these dimensions were valid and supposed to be under the same construct.

This study is a modest contribution to the ongoing discussions about the effect of brand equity on customer behavioral intentions. From the literature review and mandatory statistical analyses, our key findings emerge that brand equity has a significant and positive effect on consumers’ behavioral intentions including the intention to repurchase and recommend the brand to others within two distinguished brands representing different product values. This result ties well with previous studies wherein brand equity proves to be one of the key predictors of consumer behavior including behavioral intentions (Lovett et al., 2013; Rambocas et al., 2018) and is justifiable and relevant to the theory of reasoned actions developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). For instance, as a part of brand characteristics, brand equity was found to have a strong effect on the ability to generate on word-of-mouth (Lovett et al., 2013) and to have influences on intentions to repurchase, pay a price premium, switch and provide positive word-of-mouth (Rambocas et al., 2018). Fishbein and Ajzen (1980) also pointed out that behavior is dictated by the behavioral intentions to emit the behavior. Therefore, as can be seen, the findings of this study imply that
customers are more predisposed to having positive behaviors, such as intents to repurchase and recommend the brand to the others when brand equity is high.

Despite the fact that there has been a little research on the connection between brand equity and customer intentions in such a specific setting as hedonic or utilitarian products, it might be intuitive to say that having higher brand equity can lead to higher tendency to repurchase and recommend even if products are hedonic or utilitarian. This appears to lead to another sensible interpretation that is also concurrent with some findings from the past, suggesting that once customers are apt to form higher brand awareness, brand loyalty, or brand association or once they perceive the product as having higher quality, the likelihood of their repurchase and recommendation intention can become stronger. These findings indeed support some prior studies. Specifically, MacDonald and Sharp (2000), replicating their studies but with different product categories, have found that brand awareness is a dominant driver of repeat purchase behavior, suggesting that customers having higher brand awareness make decisions faster than their counterparts. Explicating non-product brand associations, O’Cass and Lim (2008) postulated that the feelings attached to the brand as well as brand personality has a stronger relationship with customer intention (i.e., purchase) than brand preference. For loyalty to the brand, Dick and Basu (1994) viewed it as the strength of the relationship between a customer’s relative attitude and repeat patronage, and Dixon et al. (2005) found that committed customers who consistently purchased the products were predisposed to having more patronage intentions. Examining the effect of the quality, Yuan and Jang (2008) proposed that quality could improve awareness, increasing the behavioral intentions.
The Moderating Role of Trust, Satisfaction, and Perceived Electronic Word-of-mouth in the Main Relationship between Brand Equity and Behavioral Intentions

The analysis of moderating effects of consumer determinants including trust, satisfaction and perceived electronic word-of-mouth on the main relationship brand equity and customer behavioral intentions showed assorted results for different brands. Specifically, based on the results, the findings reveal that as for Apple brand representing the utilitarian products, neither trust, satisfaction nor perceived electronic word-of-mouth can buffer the impact of brand equity on customers’ intents to repurchase or recommend the brand to other consumers. It means that the strength of the relationship between these variables remains intact with the effect of trust, satisfaction, or electronic word-of-mouth, highlighting that there exists a unique effect of brand equity on behavioral intentions, which cannot easily be intervened by other factors as for utilitarian products. There has been no formal investigation of the moderating role of these consumer determinants in the relationship between brand equity and customer intentions in the past in utilitarian product setting so no comparison with the prior studies is made. However, the likely explanation for this may lie in the powerful role of brand equity in pushing consumer behavior to which other factors’ effects cannot compare. Moreover, when coming to the purchase decision on utilitarian products, consumers would aim at the functional goals, meaning that the factors, such as functions and quality are put in priority than others. As a result, rational thinking is dominating over emotions. Hence, it might be intuitive that emotional elements related to trust, satisfaction, or perceived electronic word-of-
mouth, such as a feeling of confidence or security towards a brand are overlooked by consumers themselves in this study.

The findings suggest that the intents to repurchase and recommend of a consumer may be strongly dependent on brand equity even with or without the presence of trust, satisfaction or perceived electronic word-of-mouth. In other words, even if customers have a high or low trust and satisfaction or perceive electronic word-of-mouth as either negative or positive, they remain high intention to repurchase the product of the brand and recommend it to others as long as they regard the brand as having high equity.

In contrast, the moderating effects of trust, customer satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth are observed to exist in the relationship between brand equity and customer behavioral intentions for hedonic products (i.e., Nike shoe brand). This study reveals that the main relationship is conditional at different values of trust, customer satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth. In other words, the effect of brand equity on behavioral intentions changes as the presence of trust, satisfaction, or electronic word-of-mouth. Indicatively, with higher trust, satisfaction or more positive perceived electronic word-of-mouth, the effect of brand equity on customer intentions would be smaller and vice versa.

For a close-up view of the emerging roles of the moderation found in the case of hedonic products but not of utilitarian products, the findings and their interpretations were further explained as follows:
Consumer Trust

To begin with, from the results in Chapter 4, the findings reveal that the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions can be weakened by trust, implying that the more a customer trusts in the brand, the less dependent on the brand equity they are to have the intention to repurchase and recommend it to others. In other words, customers who have less or no trust in the brand are more likely to repurchase the product of the brand and recommend it to under the circumstance of having higher brand equity towards the brand. Discovering the moderating trust in a specific relationship corroborates the fact that several scholars have considered trust as a contextual and conditional variable that acts as a moderating factor rather than one having a direct effect. For example, in the study of Chahal and Rani (2017), they used trust as a moderator in the relationship between social media engagement and brand equity, then found that this role significantly affected in that relationship for both strong and weak brands. Likewise, Chen, Yan, Fan, and Gordon (2016) also examined trust as a joint moderator but in the relationship between perceived benefits and intention to purchase, and discovered that trust propensity joint with gender aggregately affected the impact of perceived benefits on purchase intentions.

Furthermore, the opposing results of the moderating role of trust in both hedonic and utilitarian product settings imply that for hedonic products, when consumers trust the brand, they would be less dependent on brand equity to form their intentions to repurchase and recommend, since, at this time, trust factor apparently becomes more important than brand equity does. Conversely, for utilitarian products, regardless of the presence of trust, brand equity is still a dominating determinant that drives consumers to have the tendency to repeat the purchase and introduce the
product to others. These findings signify a fact that trust element is more salient in the case of hedonic products compared to utilitarian products, which agrees with Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) that hedonic product is more associated with brand trust via the mechanism as the transmitting effect of brand affect.

**Customer Satisfaction**

This study reveals that the strength of the main relationship can be buffered by satisfaction, in which at a high level of satisfaction, the effect of brand equity on customer intention declines and contrariwise, this effect increases at a low satisfaction. These results suggest that customers who have higher satisfaction for the brand are less likely to depend mainly on the brand equity to have the decision of repurchasing or recommending since satisfaction might be understood intuitively to have a certain effect on this dependence. The findings, indeed, addressed the deficit of the previous study of Rambocas et al. (2018) which only examined the mediating role of customer satisfaction in the main relationship between brand equity and customer intentions. As can be seen, satisfaction can perform not only the mediating role that the prior study only focused on but also the moderating role that was empirically found in this study.

The conflicting findings of the moderating effect of customer satisfaction in the main relationship in both product type contexts reveal that customer satisfaction for the utilitarian products is not able to change the strength of the relationship between brand equity and customer intentions whereas the satisfaction for the hedonic products can. Specifically, it is shown that, the higher satisfaction, the weaker effect of brand equity on behavioral intentions in the case of hedonic products, which does
not happen in the case of utilitarian products. This, once again, implies that when consumers are more highly satisfied with the brands with hedonic products, brand equity becomes a factor that is less likely to drive their intentions perhaps because of the predominance of satisfaction's role. It can be deduced that satisfaction towards hedonic brands has greater influence in determining customer behavioral intentions than towards utilitarian product. The intuition behind that may lie in the different influences of product types on satisfaction, in which hedonic value may have a stronger impact on satisfaction than may the utilitarian value. This is concurrent with the study of Babin et al. (2005) suggesting that hedonic value has a greater effect on satisfaction than utilitarian value.

However, these deductions are not consistent with the recent study which postulates that though the hedonic aspects of consumer value are important drivers of customer satisfaction, the more functional, utilitarian aspects become more dominant in customer satisfaction and positive behavioral intentions (Ryu, Han, & Jang, 2010). Ryu and his fellows tested their hypotheses with both hedonic and utilitarian values in the context of fast-casual restaurants industry on which they remarked that dining experiences could indeed produce both utilitarian and hedonic value. The role and relative importance of instrumental characteristics versus hedonic aspects will possibly differ within various contexts, which leads to conflicts in the findings of different studies.

*Electronic Word-of-mouth*

Performing the same role as trust and satisfaction, perceived electronic word-of-mouth is found to moderate the main relationship between brand equity and
consumer behavioral intentions for hedonic products, but not for utilitarian products. To our knowledge, no prior research has examined the moderating role of perceived electronic word-of-mouth in the relationship between brand equity and consumer intentions and made a comparison in different product types (i.e., utilitarian, hedonic). Accordingly, in our research, we have specifically examined whether electronic word-of-mouth as other consumers’ reviews and recommendations can change the main relationship in hedonic and utilitarian product settings.

Based on the results in the previous chapter, we have found that the effect of brand equity on customer behavioral intentions as for the hedonic products decreases when electronic word-of-mouth is perceived as more positive. This suggests that consumers are not inclined to depend too much on brand equity to intentionally repeat the purchase and recommend if they perceive online opinions from other users positive. We have speculated that this might be due to the differences in the effect of perceived online reviews in multi-product settings, which is in line with the findings of a prior study of Chakraborty and Bhat (2017). They postulate that credible online reviews’ effect on hedonic brand image is higher than on functional brand image. While consumers still require brand’s functional or technical specific reviews, they gravitate more to online reviews which show adherence to customers’ experiences with the brands according to Felbermayr and Nanopoulos (2016).

In summary, for hedonic products, whether the customers more or less depend on the brand equity to establish their behavioral intentions will rely on the different levels of consumer determinants, including trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth. The results shown can partially explain the association between hedonic and emotional attitudes representing psychological factors. For hedonic
products, emotional and experiential emphasis are evoked, which may show more adherence to attitudes pertaining to trust in brands, satisfaction about the brand, and perception towards others’ brand-related reviews and opinions. On the other hand, utilitarian value involves informational emphasis and is associated with effective and economic facets of products or services, in which the feeling cannot intervene. Hence, it is likely that consumers choosing products with hedonic motivation are more attached to emotions, making their outcome behaviors be more linked to the feelings of trust, satisfaction, and perceptions of others’ word-of-mouth than those who are in favor of utilitarian goods. This may explain why these psychological factors’ impacts are found in the hedonic product setting in this study, but not in the case of utilitarian products.

Indeed, this issue had never been formally investigated or been given a little attention in previous research. Thus, to the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate empirically the moderating role of trust, customer satisfaction, perceived electronic word-of-mouth in the relationship between brand equity and customers’ intentions to repurchase and recommend

Additional Findings

In addition to the key findings of this study, we also discovered some noticeable additional findings which could bolster the significance of the topic. Accordingly, our additional findings were illustrated into two main parts along with some interpretations.
Differences in Means of the Measured Variables between Hedonic and Utilitarian Products

Additional findings of the mean differences between two brands in light of brand equity, trust, and electronic word-of-mouth emerge in this study. The result suggests consumers would have higher brand equity for the brand with utilitarian products than with hedonic products. These findings are in line with the previous research showing that utilitarian consumer behavior exerts a greater influence on determining brand equity than the hedonistic one (Çal & Adams, 2014). Moreover, the difference in trust level is also found between two product categories. It is implied that consumers feel more trustful to hedonic value products than to utilitarian ones, which shows parallelism to the previous findings in a study of Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001). As a part of their research findings, it was shown that different product-type characteristics impact brand trust differently through brand affect. For instance, hedonic product value was positively associated with brand affect, leading to an influence on brand trust. In contrast, the utilitarian value product was negatively related to brand affect.

In addition, we also find that there is a difference in the opinions of consumers on electronic word-of-mouth as online reviews and recommendations. Specifically, consumers perceive online reviews and recommendations from other consumers about their used utilitarian products more positive than about hedonic products. As there has been a little research on the bond between the perceived electronic word-of-mouth and product categories, no comparison with other studies has been made. Nonetheless, we provide some possible explanations for this difference. This discrepancy may be derived from the brand per se not from its product type, especially the consequences
of mass customization creating product variety offered by brands. Regarding smartphones as technological and functional products, it can be impractical to deploy mass customization of electronic gadgets in response to customers’ orders to offer more product ranges due to production and material cost. Apparently, Apple as a technology brand seems to encounter the difficulties in advancing their products into mass customization, which can be seen through that fact that Apple has offered a relatively narrow range of cellphone models. So far, there have been only six smartphone models with different colors available on Apple stores (i.e., Iphone 7/Plus, Iphone 8/Plus, Iphone Xs, and Iphone Xr) (“Iphone”, n.d.). As a result, Apple brand appears to provide a limited product variety. On the other hand, Nike brand with sports shoes as a hedonic product offers a greater quantity of product models through mass customization strategy (Fatur, Novak, & Dolinsek, 2007). Actually, a prior study done by Merle, Chandon, and Roux (2008) has shown the association between hedonic value and mass-customization experience. This line of research shows that the hedonic value can constitute the mass-customization experiences of customers. It is suggested that the brand can create “in-store workshop experience”, analogous to the way Nike iD speaks of a “Nike iD” experience.

All things considered, from an ex ante perspective, hedonic brands might attain more different customer segments than utilitarian brands if they can provide more mass customization experiences with a greater diversity of products. Paradoxically, brands usually desire to devise customer-segmented mass customization strategies to meet the needs of different individuals by providing greater product variety, but it could lead to more heterogeneous needs and demands as by-products of nimiety of customer segments. According to Dibb and Simkin (1991),
different consumers having different needs and demands will have diverse perceptions and preferences for products, engendering various attitudes towards the product. As a result, the increased variation in opinions may remarkably arise among individuals, hindering the brands from getting some degree of consensus on brand-related issues among them. This may explain why hedonic brands providing a wider variety of products with mass customization for more different customer segments receive a lower degree of agreement among them regarding the evaluation of online reviews, compared to utilitarian brands with a small variety of products only provided for a certain number of customer classifications.

In contrast, satisfaction was found to not to be different in utilitarian and hedonic product settings. Satisfaction can be seen as bi-directionally emotion-related including positive and negative emotions (White & Yu, 2005). Thus, the reason for the insignificant difference of satisfaction in hedonic and utilitarian value contexts may be due to the inconsistency of the role of emotions in different situations. In the past, Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) suggested the experiential approach that recognizes that consumers are feelers as well as thinkers, highlighting the role of positive and negative emotional responses in experiential consumption (Arnould & Price, 1993). However, the role of emotion can also be found in utilitarian setting through the work of Ladhari, Souiden, and Dufour (2016) who used emotional satisfaction as an affective construct which can have an impact on product perception. Similarly, few studies show that emotions play a considerable role in influencing consumer perceptions in utilitarian settings such as healthcare sectors (Ladhari & Rigaux-Bricmont, 2013) and bank service (R. Ladhari, Nizar, & I. Ladhari, 2011). Therefore, it is apparent that the role of satisfaction as an emotional construct can be
of equal importance in hedonic and utilitarian contexts, potentially justifying the insignificant difference in means of satisfaction in this study.

Similarly, this study also finds no difference of behavioral intentions in both hedonic and utilitarian products. It implies that consumers of both types of products have an equal level of intention to repurchase and recommend. These findings are partially inconsistent with what the study of Chiu, Wang, Fang, and Huang (2014) has found. Their study discovered that utilitarian value is a stronger predictor of customer behavioral intention (i.e., repurchase intention) although utilitarian and hedonic values both have direct impacts on repeat purchase intentions. Indeed, there are some plausible explanations for these incongruent findings. First, it may be because of the shared characteristics of high involvement products on which this study focused. Due to the similarity in high involvement elements that both utilitarian and hedonic products (i.e., smartphones and sports shoes) possess such as the requirement of consumers’ time and search efforts, high price, perceived risks (Murphy & Enis, 1986; Solomon, 2017), there will be possibly no differences in behavioral intentions of consumers pursuing hedonic and utilitarian consumption. Second reason may be the context that this study looked at. The prior study examined the effects of hedonic and utilitarian values on repeat purchase intentions in an online shopping context wherein the product focused was online website (Yahoo! Kimo as a mobile portal) whereas this study tested the differences of these values in the traditional setting with such tangible products as smartphones and sport shoes. Therefore, that might lead to the conflicting findings.
Correlations among the Measured Variables

Based on the results of the significant correlations among the variables, this research is broadly in line with the previous studies which underpin the associations between trust, satisfaction, perceived electronic word-of-mouth, and behavioral intentions. Once a customer feels more satisfied with the brands or products, he or she is more likely to repurchase the product and recommend it to others. The findings of the associations between satisfaction and behavioral intentions are concurrent with the findings of Hosany and Witham (2010) that discovered that tourists’ satisfaction levels are closely associated with behavioral intention, in particular, the possibility of recommendation.

Additionally, the findings of the association between trust and behavioral intentions in this study support the contention that when consumers trust in the brands or the sellers, they shall give positive recommendation and repeat the purchase. Re-examining the influence trust of online repurchase intention, Chiu et al. (2012) have found that trust consistently affected the behavioral intentions, highlighting that adding trust variable in a theoretical model to predict behavioral intentions was warranted. When comparing our results of the association between perceived electronic word-of-mouth and behavioral intentions to the older studies, it must be pointed out that when customers regard electronic word-of-mouth as more highly qualified and more positive, they are more prone to repurchase the product, then recommending them to other users. These findings support the study of Matute et al. (2006) who discovered that electronic word-of-mouth quality had an effect on repurchase intention, suggesting that consumers will be more likely to revisit an
online store to make future purchases if they perceive that the information provided by other users are qualified.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Regarding limitations, in a maiden attempt to understand the concept of brand equity and its influence on customer behavioral intentions as well as the role of intervening variables, we witnessed certain limitations. First, due to the use of the cross-sectional research methodology, the data obtained somehow only reflected the causal relationship and correlations among variables within a specific time period not for a longer-term observation. Therefore, in the future, it may be beneficial to examine the similar topic with longitudinal research by which the researcher can spend more time observing the participants as well as having an in-depth interview to have novel insights into consumer behavior and its connection with brand equity and other consumer determinants. In addition, this research only focused on high involvement products. Thus, the results may not be applicable to the low involvement product setting. Accordingly, follow-up research to investigate a similar framework in that context is recommended. Finally, this study only inspected the moderating role of trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth. Thus, it is suggested that further research needs to examine other roles, such as mediating, that may be found to have effects on the strength of the relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions by using diverse statistical methods.

Furthermore, electronic word-of-mouth in this study was measured as a passive participation activity, in which consumers would engage in searching and reading other online consumers' electronic word-of-mouth such as online reviews and
recommendations instead of actively generating them. Therefore, it is recommended to have future research wherein electronic word-of-mouth is examined as an active participation, so that we anticipate if the results will be different from the original study.

**Theoretical Implications**

The study contributes to the body of knowledge in several ways. First, the construction of the theoretical framework pertaining to the effect of brand equity on customer behavioral outcomes was firmly established. The model has challenged the accepted notion that brand equity is one of the important drivers of behavioral intentions. The dimensions of brand equity developed by Aaker (1996) provide enlightenment to practitioners for brand investment and brand building and corroboration to scholars for brand equity construct operationalization.

Second, the model including the presence of consumer determinants (i.e., trust, satisfaction, perceived electronic word-of-mouth) in the main relationship between brand equity and behavioral intentions in this study offer strengthened evidence of reliability and validity for a method for understanding how consumers relate themselves to a brand in light of perceptions, emotions, and behaviors. Third, the results of this study provide empirical evidence of the importance of considering multi-product settings to discover diverse but interesting findings and enrich the sources of literature. The different findings presented in cases of hedonic and utilitarian high involvement products in this study have now lent their support to the previous findings showing that the effects of various product characteristics differ in varied contexts.
Finally, yet importantly, explicating a formal moderation approach in testing hypotheses in a causal relationship lays a foundation for our understanding of how differently brand equity influences customer behavioral intentions under the effect of other consumer determinants, involving customer trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth.

Managerial Implications

From a practical standpoint, the empirical findings present some implications for the brand managers and marketers alike in a high involvement product context. First, it provides a nuanced understanding of customer behavioral intentions and useful insight into the potential success of brand building efforts. Second, brand marketers can successfully execute future branding plans and make great use of customer acquisition and retention strategies by placing a concentration on building robust and powerful brands. Lastly, by having a solid grasp of the relationship between brand equity and customer intentions, marketers will be able to predict the effects of brand equity on the main performance indicators such as customer behavioral intentions, enlightening themselves as to customer choice behavior, which is valuable information in strategy development.

The findings of the moderating role of proposed consumer determinants from both contexts highlight the importance of the ability to control and adjust consumer factors in branding and customer-brand relationship strategies in a flexible way. To illustrate, for utilitarian high involvement products, knowing that the bond between brand equity and customer intentions cannot be easily influenced by other consumer factors, brand managers can place a fuller focus on building brand's image and
fortifying brand value with efficient development strategy to generate greater outcomes. Doing this also can generate time efficiency in developing plans of sales-boosting, so that marketing and branding teams can avoid such desultory actions as needlessly focusing on other factors which may not yield fruitful and profitable outputs as expected.

For hedonic products, it is desirable for brand managers to consider the role of trust, satisfaction or online consumer reviews. It was found that, trust, satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth can change the dependence of customer behavioral intentions on brand equity. Particularly, the connection between brand equity and customer behavioral intentions becomes weaker at a higher level of trust, satisfaction, and perceived electronic word-of-mouth, and vice versa. As such, brand managers and marketers can take into account which way is worthy to boost customers’ repurchase and recommend intentions. For example, in a case wherein brand equity is already high, strongly driving customer behavioral intentions to repurchase and recommend, brand managers do not have to put a focus on trust, satisfaction, or online reviews and recommendations as the presence of these factors are observed to weaken the connection of brand equity and customer behavioral intentions. Instead, they can single-mindedly continue to buttress brand-building plans on maintaining the strength of brand equity.

Conversely, in a case where branding teams find that their brand equity is not strong enough to push customers’ repurchasing and recommending, they can cultivate trust or satisfaction by integrating authenticity into all communications and making brand voice relatable to customers in regards to their interests and needs. For online
consumer reviews or recommendations, digital branding managers can work out several tactics for dealing with negative comments. For instance, they can put forward efficient plans to drive consumers to spread positive opinions more on online platforms than negative ones whilst also making an effort to show their customers that they are listening to the audience and improving their brands in response to negative feedback so that negativity can be transformed into positivity.

As globalization grows and cutthroat competitions heighten in emerging markets, such as Thailand, it is necessary for multicultural firms to have a clear understanding of the Thai consumers’ perceptions of their brands. Such factors as brand equity, customer behavioral intentions, trust, satisfaction, and online consumer reviews should be considered at local levels. Acquiring insight into Thai consumers’ psychological characteristics may pose a tough challenge for managers and directors but its outcome can become desirable if pertinent efforts are made.
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APPENDIX A

SURVEY FOR PRODUCT TYPE SELECTION

Please read the following paragraphs below and answer the questions:

**High involvement products** are defined as more complex, naturally expensive, and requiring high amounts of time and effort from consumers. In other words, a high involvement product is a product whereby an extensive thought process is included and consumers usually consider various factors such as financial risk, technological, and physical risk before making a purchase decision. High involvement product can be classified into two segments: utilitarian (thinking) and hedonic (feeling) attributes.

**Utilitarian goods** are products towards which consumers have rational attitudes. Consumers usually pay attention to primarily instrumental and functional features of the product.

**Hedonic goods** are products which create emotional attitudes. They provide more experiential consumption, fun, pleasure, and excitement.

According to the aforementioned definitions, please specify 5 product categories which can be classified as **high involvement products with utilitarian attributes**, in your opinion:

1. .................................................................
2. .................................................................
3. .................................................................
4. .................................................................
5. .................................................................

In addition, based on the aforementioned definitions, please specify 5 product categories which can be classified as **high involvement products with hedonic attributes**, in your opinion:

1. .................................................................
2. .................................................................
3. .................................................................
4. .................................................................
5. .................................................................

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION
APPENDIX B

Brand Survey

Research on Consumer Behavior on Nike Brand

This research survey is conducted for a Thesis submitted in a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Strategic Communication Management, Faculty of Communication Arts, Chulalongkorn University.

The purpose of this survey is to explore participants’ opinions on Nike brand and the determinants of their behavior.

The questionnaire administered to respondents is voluntary. Upon participating in the survey, the respondents are requested to answer all of the following questions. It will take approximately 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Any information obtained regarding this study that can be identified with the respondents will remain strictly confidential. The data collected will be analyzed and used for educational purpose only.

Section 1: Screening Questions

Please read each question carefully and check (✓) one answer of your choice.

1. Your age:
   - 1. Below 18 (End of the survey)
   - 2. 18-20
   - 3. 21-23
   - 4. 24-25
   - 5. Above 25 (End of the survey)

2. Do you currently use Nike shoes?
   - 1. Yes
   - 2. No (End of the survey)

3. How long have you been using Nike shoes?
   - 1. Less than 6 months (End of the survey)
   - 2. 6 months or more
**Instruction:** From section 2 to section 6, please read each statement carefully and indicate the extent to which you AGREE with each statement by checking (✓) the appropriate number on the following scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section 2:**

Please rate your opinion on Nike brand with the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You can recognize Nike among other competing brands.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You are aware of Nike brand.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. You have don’t have any difficulty in imagining Nike in your mind.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You can quickly recall the symbol or logo of Nike.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Some characteristics of Nike’s brand image can come to your mind quickly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Nike sports shoes have a high quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Nike sports shoes often show their good function.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. You consider yourself to be loyal to Nike.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Nike would be your first choice.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. You will not buy other brands if Nike shoes are available.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section 3:
Based on your experience with Nike in the past, please rate your opinion on the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree ↔ Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You feel Nike is honest.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You feel Nike cares about customers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. You feel Nike is not opportunistic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You feel Nike provides good service/quality.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. You know exactly what you will get from Nike.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. You feel Nike is trustworthy.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. You feel Nike knows its market.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section 4:
Please rate your degree of agreement on the following statements of the satisfaction you have towards Nike brand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree ↔ Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The quality of Nike shoes exceeds my expectations.</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You are a satisfied customer of Nike.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Nike product provides you with all the features that I need.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Your choice to buy Nike shoes is a wise one.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. You are satisfied with your decision to buy Nike shoes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. You are sure that it was the right thing to buy Nike shoes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Using Nike shoes has been a good experience.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section 5:
Please rate your opinion on the following statements of online reviews and recommendation about Nike.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. You have been delighted with Nike shoes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. You think consumer’s online recommendation on Nike is credible.
2. You think consumer’s online recommendation on Nike is believable.
3. You think consumer's information review on Nike is trustworthy.
4. The consumers’ reviews about Nike are relevant to your buying decisions.
5. The consumers’ reviews about Nike are useful.
6. The consumers’ reviews about Nike help you in your buying decisions.
7. The consumers’ reviews about Nike are accurate.
8. The consumers’ reviews about Nike are correct.
9. The consumers’ reviews about Nike are reliable.

Section 6:
Please rate your agreement on the following statements of your intention to repurchase Nike shoes brand and recommend it to others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You intend to repurchase shoes from Nike in the future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. It is likely that you will continue to purchase shoes from Nike in the future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items</td>
<td>Strongly Agree ↔ Strongly Disagree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. You will recommend Nike to your friends who have similar interests.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You would like to introduce Nike to your friends and the acquaintance who seeks your advice.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Section 7:**

Please check (✔) the answers that represent you from these following questions:

1. Your gender:
   - ✔ 1. Male
   - ☐ 2. Female

2. Average allowance or income per month is:
   - ✔ 1. ฿5,000 or lower
   - ✔ 2. ฿5,001-15,000
   - ☐ 3. ฿15,001-25,000
   - ☐ 4. ฿25,001-35,000
   - ☐ 5. ฿35,001-45,000
   - ☐ 6. ฿45,001 or higher

3. Current level of education:
   - ✔ 1. Studying at undergraduate level
   - ☐ 2. Graduated with a Bachelor’s degree
   - ☐ 3. Studying at Master’s level
   - ☐ 4. Graduated with a Master’s degree

4. If you are studying, you are studying at:
   - ✔ 1. Government University
   - ☐ 2. Private University

5. If you have graduated, your current career is _________
   - ✔ 1. Office worker
   - ☐ 2. Government/State enterprise employees
   - ☐ 3. Self-employed/Business owner
   - ☐ 4. Others, please specify ………………

Thank you for your cooperation!
Brand Survey
Research on Consumer Behavior on Apple Brand

This research survey is conducted for a Thesis submitted in a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Strategic Communication Management, Faculty of Communication Arts, Chulalongkorn University.

The purpose of this survey is to explore participants’ opinions on Apple brand and the determinants of their behavior.

The questionnaire administered to respondents is voluntary. Upon participating in the survey, the respondents are requested to answer all of the following questions. It will take approximately 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Any information obtained regarding this study that can be identified with the respondents will remain strictly confidential. The data collected will be analyzed and used for educational purpose only.

Section 1: Screening Questions
Please read each question carefully and check (✓) one answer of your choice.

1. Your age:
   - □ 1. Below 18 (End of the survey)
   - □ 2. 18-20
   - □ 3. 21-23
   - □ 4. 24-25
   - □ 5. Above 25 (End of the survey)

2. Do you currently use Apple phone (aka Iphone)?
   - □ 1. Yes
   - □ 2. No (End of the survey)

3. How long have you been using the Iphone?
   - □ 1. Less than 6 months (End of the survey)
   - □ 2. 6 months or more
**Instruction:** From section 2 to section 6, please read each statement carefully and indicate the extent to which you AGREE with each statement by checking ( ✓ ) the appropriate number on the following scale:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Section 2:

Please rate your opinion on Apple brand with the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Slightly Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Slightly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You can recognize Apple among other competing brands.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. You are aware of Apple brand.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. You don’t have any difficulty in imagining Apple brand in your mind.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You can quickly recall the symbol or logo of Apple.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Some characteristics of Apple brand’s image can come to your mind quickly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Apple cellphones have a high quality.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Apple cellphones often show their good function.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8. You consider yourself to be loyal to Apple.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Apple brand would be your first choice.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. You will not buy other brands if Apple cellphones are available.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
**Section 3:**

Based on your experience with Apple in the past, please rate your opinion on the following statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You feel that Apple is honest.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2. You feel that Apple cares about customers.</td>
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<td>4. You feel that Apple provides good service/quality.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. You know exactly what you will get from Apple brand.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. You feel that Apple is trustworthy.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. You feel that Apple knows its market well.</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

**Section 4:**

Please rate your degree of agreement on the following statements of the satisfaction you have towards Apple brand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The quality of Apple cellphones exceeds your expectations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You are a satisfied customer of Apple.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Apple product provides you with all the features needed.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Your choice to buy the Iphone is a wise one.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. You are satisfied with your decision to buy the Apple cellphone.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. You are sure that it was the right thing to buy Apple cellphone.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Using Iphone has been a good experience.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Section 5:

Please rate your opinion on the following statements of online reviews and recommendation about Apple.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. I have been delighted with Iphone.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You think consumer’s online recommendation on Apple is credible.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You think consumer’s online recommendation on Apple is believable.</td>
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<td>3. You think consumer’s online recommendation on Apple is trustworthy.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The consumers’ online reviews about Apple are relevant to your buying decisions.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The consumers’ online reviews about Apple are useful.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>7. The consumers’ online reviews about Apple are accurate.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8. The consumers’ online reviews about Apple are correct.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The consumers’ online reviews about Apple are reliable.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section 6:
Please rate your agreement on the following statements of your intention to repurchase Apple phone brand and recommend it to others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. You intend to repurchase cellphone from Apple in the future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. It is likely that you will continue to purchase cellphone from Apple in the future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. You will recommend Apple to your friends who have similar interests.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You would like to introduce Apple to your friends and the acquaintance who seeks your advice.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section 7:
Please check (✓) the answers that represent you from these following questions:

1. Your gender:
   - 1. Male
   - 2. Female

2. Average allowance or income per month is:
   - 1. ฿5,000 or lower
   - 2. ฿5,001-15,000
   - 3. ฿15,001-25,000
   - 4. ฿25,001-35,000
   - 5. ฿35,001-45,000
   - 6. ฿45,001 or higher

3. Current level of education:
   - 1. Studying at undergraduate level
   - 2. Graduated with a Bachelor’s degree
   - 3. Studying at Master’s level
   - 4. Graduated with a Master’s degree

4. If you are studying, you are studying at
   - 1. Government University
   - 2. Private University

5. If you have graduated, your current career is
   - 1. Office worker
   - 2. Government/State enterprise employees
   - 3. Self-employed/Business owner
   - 4. Others, please specify ………………..

Thank you for your cooperation!
แบบสอบถาม
เรื่อง พฤติกรรมผู้บริโภคต่อรองเท้ายี่ห้อไนกี้

งานวิจัยนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาระดับปริญญาโท หลักสูตรการจัดการการสื่อสารเชิงกลยุทธ์ คณะนิเทศศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย โดยมีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อสำรวจความคิดเห็นของกลุ่มตัวอย่างเกี่ยวกับสินค้าที่ต้องการ

การเข้าร่วมการสำรวจงานวิจัยนี้เป็นไปด้วยความสมัครใจของผู้ร่วมตอบแบบสอบถาม โดยผู้ร่วมตอบคำถามต้องตอบข้อคำถามในแบบสำรวจนี้ทุกข้อ ซึ่งใช้เวลาประมาณไม่เกิน 10 นาที ข้อมูลที่ได้รับจากการมีผู้ร่วมตอบแบบสอบถามทั้งหมดจะถูกเก็บรักษาไว้เป็นความลับ ซึ่งข้อมูลที่รวบรวมได้จะถูกวิเคราะห์ในภาพรวมและจะนำไปใช้เพื่อการศึกษาเชิงวิชาการเท่านั้น

ส่วนที่ 1
คำถามเพื่อคัดเลือกผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

1. ท่านอายุเท่าใด
   - □ 1. ต่ำกว่า 18 ปี (ยุติการตอบแบบสอบถาม)
   - □ 2. 18-20 ปี
   - □ 3. 21-23 ปี
   - □ 4. 24-25 ปี
   - □ 5. มากกว่า 25 ปี (ยุติการตอบแบบสอบถาม)

2. ปัจจุบัน ท่านใช้รองเท้ายี่ห้อไนกี้ใช่หรือไม่
   - □ 1. ใช่
   - □ 2. ไม่ใช่ (ยุติการตอบแบบสอบถาม)

3. ท่านใช้รองเท้ายี่ห้อไนกี้เป็นระยะเวลานานเพียงใดแล้ว
   - □ 1. น้อยกว่า 6 เดือน (ยุติการตอบแบบสอบถาม)
   - □ 2. 6 เดือนหรือมากกว่า
ส่วนที่ 2
ค่าชี้แจง: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความคิดเห็นของท่านที่มีต่ออีกที

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เห็นด้วย</th>
<th>ไม่เห็นด้วย</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ท่านสามารถแยกยี่ห้อในที่ออกจากรองเท้าอีกต่อไปได้อย่างง่าย</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4 3 2 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ท่านรู้จักยี่ห้อไนกี้เป็นอย่างดี</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ท่านไม่มีความยากลำบากในการจดจำยี่ห้อไนกี้</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ท่านสามารถระลึกสัญลักษณ์หรือโลโก้ของยี่ห้อไนกี้ได้อย่างรวดเร็ว</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ท่านสามารถนึกถึงคุณลักษณะเด่นของยี่ห้อไนกี้ได้อย่างรวดเร็ว</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. รองเท้าไนกี้มีคุณภาพสูง</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. รองเท้าไนกี้มีฟังก์ชันการใช้งานที่ดี</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ท่านคิดว่าตัวเองมีความภักดีต่อยี่ห้อไนกี้</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. ท่านคิดว่า줘ก็เป็นตัวเลือกแรกของท่านเมื่อจะซื้อรองเท้า</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. ท่านจะซื้อรองเท้าผู้เลือกลูกค้าอีกครั้งในที่</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


## ส่วนที่ 3

ค่าขึ้นจอ: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านเกี่ยวกับประสบการณ์ในสินค้าที่ท่านได้รับ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เห็นด้วย</th>
<th>ไม่เห็นด้วย</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. ท่านรู้สึกว่ายี่ห้อไนกี้นั้นซื่อสัตย์จริงใจ
2. ท่านรู้สึกว่ายี่ห้อไนกี้ก้าวอย่างลุกค่า
3. ท่านรู้สึกว่ายี่ห้อไนกี้ไม่เอาเปรียบลูกค้า
4. ท่านรู้สึกว่ายี่ห้อไนกี้มีการบริการและคุณภาพที่ดี
5. ท่านรู้สึกว่ายี่ห้อไนกี้มีการบริการและคุณภาพที่ดี
6. ท่านรู้สึกว่ายี่ห้อไนกี้เชื่อถือได้
7. ท่านรู้สึกว่ายี่ห้อไนกี้ใกล้กลุ่มลูกค้าเป้าหมายของท่านเป็นอย่างดี

## ส่วนที่ 4

ค่าขึ้นจอ: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความพึงพอใจของท่านเกี่ยวกับความพึงพอใจในสินค้าที่ท่านได้รับ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เห็นด้วย</th>
<th>ไม่เห็นด้วย</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. รองเท้ายี่ห้อไนกี้มีคุณภาพเกินความคาดหมายของท่าน
2. ท่านเป็นลูกค้าที่พึงพอใจยี่ห้อไนกี้
3. สินค้าที่ท่านได้รับมีคุณสมบัติที่แท้จริงตามที่ท่านต้องการ
### ส่วนที่ 5

ค่าสัมประสิทธิ์หรือหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความคิดเห็นของท่านเกี่ยวกับความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆและคำแนะนำทางออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับยี่ห้อไนกี้ที่ท่านเคยได้รับมา

ในที่นี้ ดูออนไลน์ หน้าเว็บ โซเชียลมีเดีย เช่น ยูทูบ เฟซบุ๊ก อินสตาแกรม ทวิตเตอร์ ออนไลน์ฟอรั่ม เช่น พันทิปหรือเว็บไซต์ต่างๆ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เพื่อนด้วย อย่างยิ่ง</th>
<th>ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. การเลือกซื้อรองเท้าที่ไนกี้เป็นทางเลือกที่ฉลาด</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ท่านพึงพอใจที่ตัดสินใจซื้อรองเท้าที่ไนกี้ในที่</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ท่านมั่นใจว่าการตัดสินใจซื้อรองเท้าที่ไนกี้เป็นสิ่งที่ถูกต้อง</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. การใช้รองเท้าที่ไนกี้ในที่นั้นเป็นประสบการณ์ที่ดี</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ท่านมีความสุขใจกับรองเท้าที่ไนกี้ในที่</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้สอดคล้องกับการตัดสินใจของท่าน

5. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้นั้นมีประโยชน์กับท่าน

6. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้ที่มีจำนวนช่วงทำดังในสินค้าในช้อป

7. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้เกี่ยวกับสินค้าในช้อป

8. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้มีคุณค่าและเที่ยงตรง

9. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้นั้นไว้วางใจได้

ส่วนที่ 6
ค่าชี้แจง: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความคิดเห็นของท่านที่มีต่อด้านหน้าในชือ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เหมาะสม</th>
<th>ไม่เหมาะสม</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้สอดคล้องกับการตัดสินใจของท่าน</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้นั้นมีประโยชน์กับท่าน</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้ที่มีจำนวนช่วงทำดังในสินค้าในช้อป</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้เกี่ยวกับสินค้าในช้อป</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้มีคุณค่าและเที่ยงตรง</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับสินค้ายี่ห้อไนกี้นั้นไว้วางใจได้</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เหมาะสม</th>
<th>ไม่เหมาะสม</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ผ่านด้วยใจที่จะซื้อรองเท้าผ้าห่อในที่ถูกต้องในอนาคต</td>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. มีความแน่นอนไปได้ที่ในอนาคตผ่านจะซื้อรองเท้าผ้าห่อในที่ถูกต้อง</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. ท่านจะแนะนำเพื่อนที่มีความชอบเหมือนกันเพื่อซื้อรองเท้าที่ถูกใจกันไหม?

4. ท่านจะแนะนำยี่ห้อในที่เกิดกับเพื่อนและคนรู้จักที่คุณแนะนำ จากท่าน

5.

ส่วนที่ 7
ค่ายข้อ: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับตัวท่าน

1. เพศ
   - 1. ชาย
   - 2. หญิง

2. รายได้โดยเฉลี่ยต่อเดือนของท่าน
   - 1. 5,000 บาทหรือน้อยกว่า
   - 2. 5,001 - 15,000 บาท
   - 3. 15,001 - 25,000 บาท
   - 4. 25,001 - 35,000 บาท
   - 5. 35,001 - 45,000 บาท
   - 6. 45,001 บาทหรือมากกว่า

3. ระดับการศึกษาของท่าน
   - 1. กำลังศึกษาอยู่ในระดับปริญญาตรี
   - 2. สำเร็จศึกษาระดับปริญญาตรีแล้ว
   - 3. กำลังศึกษาอยู่ในระดับปริญญาโท
   - 4. สำเร็จศึกษาระดับปริญญาโทแล้ว

4. หากท่านกำลังศึกษาอยู่ ท่านศึกษาอยู่ใน
   - 1. มหาวิทยาลัย/สถาบันของรัฐ
   - 2. มหาวิทยาลัย/สถาบันของเอกชน

5. หากท่านสำเร็จการศึกษาแล้ว อาชีพปัจจุบันของท่าน
   - 1. ทำงานบริษัทเอกชน
   - 2. ค้าขาย/ธุรกิจส่วนตัว
   - 3. ข้าราชการ/รัฐวิสาหกิจ
   - 4. อื่นๆ (ระบุ)..................................

ขอขอบพระคุณเป็นอย่างสูงในความร่วมมือค่ะ
แบบสอบถาม
เรื่อง: พฤติกรรมผู้บริโภคต่อโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ล

งานวิจัยนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาระดับปริญญาโท หลักสูตรการจัดการการสื่อสารเชิงกลยุทธ์ คณะนิเทศศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย โดยมีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อสำรวจความคิดเห็นของกลุ่มตัวอย่างเกี่ยวกับสินค้าที่ห้องสอบเป็น

การเข้าร่วมการสำรวจงานวิจัยนี้เป็นไปด้วยความสมัครใจของผู้ร่วมตอบแบบสอบถาม โดยผู้ร่วมตอบค่าถามต้องตอบค่าถามในแบบสำรวจนี้ทุกข้อ ซึ่งใช้เวลาประมาณไม่เกิน 10 นาที ข้อมูลที่ได้รับจากผู้ร่วมตอบแบบสอบถามทั้งหมดจะถูกเก็บรักษาไว้เป็นความลับ ซึ่งข้อมูลที่รวบรวมได้จะถูกวิเคราะห์ในภาพรวมและจะนำไปใช้เพื่อการศึกษาเชิงวิชาการเท่านั้น

ส่วนที่ 1
คำถามเพื่อคัดเลือกผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม
1. ท่านอายุเท่าใด
   - 1. ต่ำกว่า 18 ปี (ยุติการตอบแบบสอบถาม)
   - 2. 18-20 ปี
   - 3. 21-23 ปี
   - 4. 24-25 ปี
   - 5. มากกว่า 25 ปี (ยุติการตอบแบบสอบถาม)

2. ปัจจุบัน ท่านใช้โทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ล (ไอโฟน) ใช่หรือไม่
   - 1. ใช่
   - 2. ไม่ใช่ (ยุติการตอบแบบสอบถาม)

3. ท่านใช้โทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลเป็นระยะเวลาประมาณเท่าใดแล้ว
   - 1. น้อยกว่า 6 เดือน (ยุติการตอบแบบสอบถาม)
   - 2. 6 เดือนหรือมากกว่า
ส่วนที่ 2

คำชี้แจง: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความคิดเห็นของท่านที่มีต่อข้อเท็จจริง

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เท่ห์ด้วย</th>
<th>ไม่เท่ห์ด้วย</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ท่านสามารถแยกยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลออกจากโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้ออื่นๆ ได้โดยง่าย</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ท่านรู้จักยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลเป็นอย่างดี</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ท่านไม่มีความยากลำบากในการนึกถึงยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ล</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ท่านสามารถระลึกถึงสัญลักษณ์หรือโลโก้ของยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลได้อย่างรวดเร็ว</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ท่านสามารถนึกถึงคุณลักษณะเด่นของยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลได้อย่างรวดเร็ว</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. โทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลมีคุณภาพสูง</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. โทรศัพท์มือถือแอปเปิ้ลเล่มมีฟังก์ชันการทำงานที่ดี</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ท่านคิดว่าตัวเองมีความภักดีต่อยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ล</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. ยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลเป็นตัวเลือกแรกของท่านเมื่อจะซื้อโทรศัพท์มือถือ</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. ท่านจะไม่ซื้อโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้ออื่นเมื่อมียี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ล</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


ส่วนที่ 3
ค่าชั้นจ่า: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านเกี่ยวกับประสบการณ์ในสินค้าที่หยอดเปลือกที่ผ่านมา

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เหนื่อนด้วยอย่างยิ่ง</th>
<th>ไม่เหนื่อนด้วยอย่างยิ่ง</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. ท่านรู้สึกว่าคุณภาพของผลิตภัณฑ์มีคุณค่ามากกว่าที่คาดหวัง</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ท่านรู้สึกว่าคุณภาพของผลิตภัณฑ์มากกว่าที่คาดหวัง</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. ท่านรู้สึกว่าคุณภาพของผลิตภัณฑ์มากกว่าที่คาดหวัง</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ท่านรู้สึกว่าคุณภาพของผลิตภัณฑ์มากกว่าที่คาดหวัง</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ส่วนที่ 4
ค่าชั้นจ่า: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความคิดเห็นของท่านเกี่ยวกับความพึงพอใจในสินค้าที่หยอดเปลือกที่ผ่านมา

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เหนื่อนด้วยอย่างยิ่ง</th>
<th>ไม่เหนื่อนด้วยอย่างยิ่ง</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. โทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลมีคุณภาพเกินความคาดหมายของท่าน</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ท่านเป็นลูกค้าที่พึงพอใจในยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ล</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. สินค้าที่หยอดเปลือกมีคุณสมบัติที่เหมาะสมที่สุดต่อการ</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. สินค้าที่หยอดเปลือกมีคุณสมบัติที่เหมาะสมที่สุดต่อการ</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. การเลือกซื้อโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิลเป็นทางเลือกที่ฉลาด

5. ท่านพึงพอใจที่ตัดสินใจซื้อโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิล

6. ท่านมั่นใจว่าการตัดสินใจซื้อโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิลเป็นสิ่งที่ถูกต้องเหมาะสม

7. การใช้โทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิลเป็นสิ่งที่มีประสิทธิภาพ

8. ท่านมีความสุขใจกับโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิล

ส่วนที่ 5
ค่าชี้แจง: โปรดท่านควรหมำะ (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความคิดเห็นของท่านเกี่ยวกับความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ และคำแนะนำทางออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับยี่ห้อแอปเปิลที่ท่านเคยได้รับมา

ในที่นี้ สื่อออนไลน์ หมายถึง โซเชียลมีเดีย (เช่น ยูทูบ เฟซบุ๊ก อินสตาแกรม ทวิตเตอร์) ออนไลน์ ฟอรั่ม (เช่น พันทิป) หรือเว็บไซต์ต่างๆ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>เหน้นด้วย</th>
<th>ไม่เหน้นด้วย</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 4 3 2 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| 1. ท่านคิดว่าคำแนะนำต่างๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์ถือว่าสัมพันธ์กับสินค้าที่ท่านชอบเป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญมาก | 5 4 3 2 1 |   |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>ชอบด้วย</th>
<th>ไม่ชอบด้วย</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ยังอยู่</td>
<td>ยังอยู่</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลนี้ที่ห้อง</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลนี้มีประโยชน์กับท่าน</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลนี้มีส่วนช่วยให้ท่านสามารถตัดสินใจซื้อ</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลนี้แปลงความมั่นใจ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลนี้มีส่วนช่วยให้ท่านสามารถตัดสินใจซื้อ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9. ความเห็นของผู้บริโภคคนอื่นๆ บนสื่อออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลนี้ไว้วางใจได้</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ส่วนที่ 6
คำชี้แจง: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงไปในช่องที่ตรงกับระดับความคิดเห็นของคุณที่มีต่อยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ล

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ข้อความ</th>
<th>ชอบด้วย</th>
<th>ไม่ชอบด้วย</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ยังอยู่</td>
<td>ยังอยู่</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. ท่านตั้งใจที่จะซื้อโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลในอนาคต</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. มีความเป็นไปได้ที่จะซื้อโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิ้ลในอนาคต</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ข้อความ</td>
<td>เพิ่มเติมด้วย</td>
<td>ไม่เพิ่มเติมด้วย</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>อย่างยิ่ง</td>
<td>อย่างยิ่ง</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. ท่านจะแนะนำเพื่อนที่มีความชอบเหมือนกันให้ซื้อโทรศัพท์มือถือยี่ห้อแอปเปิล

4. ท่านจะแนะนำเพื่อนและคนรู้จักที่ชอบด้านน่าจากท่าน

ส่วนที่ 7

ค่าเสียหาย: โปรดลากเครื่องหมาย (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับตัวท่าน

1. เพศ
   - 1. ชาย
   - 2. หญิง

2. รายได้โดยเฉลี่ยต่อเดือนของท่าน
   - 1. 5,000 บาทหรือน้อยกว่า
   - 2. 5,001 - 15,000 บาท
   - 3. 15,001 - 25,000 บาท
   - 4. 25,001 - 35,000 บาท
   - 5. 35,001 - 45,000 บาท
   - 6. 45,001 บาทหรือมากกว่า

3. ระดับการศึกษาของท่าน
   - 1. กำลังศึกษาอยู่ในระดับปริญญาตรี
   - 2. สำเร็จศึกษาระดับปริญญาตรีแล้ว
   - 3. กำลังศึกษาอยู่ในระดับปริญญาโท
   - 4. สำเร็จศึกษาระดับปริญญาโทแล้ว

4. อาชีพปัจจุบันของท่าน
   - 1. ที่ทำงานบริษัทเอกชน
   - 2. ที่ทำงานบริษัทเอกชน/สถาบัน/รัฐวิสาหกิจ
   - 3. อาชีพปัจจุบันของท่าน
   - 4. อื่นๆ (ระบุ) ..................................

ขอขอบคุณเป็นอย่างสูงในความร่วมมือค่ะ
VITA

NAME  Hanh Tran Thi My

DATE OF BIRTH  10 February 1990

PLACE OF BIRTH  Vietnam

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Faculty of English Language, University of Education, Vietnam

HOME ADDRESS  402 Ribbon House, Pracha Songkhro 29, Dindaeng, Bangkok, Thailand

AWARD RECEIVED  ASEAN Graduate Scholarship