Overall Value Assessment of Luxury Accessories Brands: Antecedents and Consequences from the perspectives of Gulf Arab tourists

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

By

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Abstract

Marketing research indicates a robust industry for luxury brands with ever-increasing consumer demand. However, studies indicate no correlation between the booming luxury industry and the value of luxury as perceived by the consumers. Against the backdrop of growth in this industry and its contributions towards the economy of a nation, it is imperative to understand why consumers buy luxury accessories brands from an academic and managerial perspective. It is equally important to understand the reasons as to why consumers hold certain brands dear and how their perception of luxury affects their buying decisions. Previous market research done in this regard highlighted the need for luxury brand managers to adopt a focused approach when selling luxury goods. Consumers should be able to perceive certain value in the luxury accessories brand that justifies its high cost, especially during periods of economic recession.

To obtain a quantifiable and sustainable competitive advantage, it is prudent for the luxury industry to investigate and analyse the consumer value of their products. Therefore, it is crucial to study the types of value required and their impact on consumer behaviour. To bridge this gap, the present study proposes generating an in-depth explanation of how consumers' luxury value dimensions determine their overall luxury brand value in an accessories context. Subsequently, these influence their repurchase intention through direct and indirect routes, by establishing and testing an integrated model of the determinants and consequences of luxury accessories value from the perspective of Gulf Arab tourist.

To meet the requirements of this research, a mixed methodology was deployed. This combined all quantitative and qualitative data, in a sequential manner, to deduce the results. An explorative qualitative phase was used at the preliminary level of research. This required various focus groups to set out the scope of the model and devise topics for the questionnaire. This was followed by a quantitative research phase that compiled and evaluated all data generated from the self-administered questionnaires. Hypothesis testing was estimated using Structural Equation Modelling (Smart Partial Least Square (PLS) v.3) on 397 Gulf Arab tourists who have an experience in luxury accessories. The results confirm that Gulf Arab tourists consider emotional, social, self-identity, relational and financial value when

developing their overall value of luxury accessories. Effectively, this shapes their repurchase intention only indirectly through brand trust and preferences.

The uniqueness of this research is elicited from being the first to use the theory of consumption values to construct a model that uncovers overall value for luxury accessories brands and tests its influence on repurchase intentions. This model develops the narrow view of consumption-value theory in terms of the value components that affect only consumption choice decisions. The research model cultivates this view by integrating a set of value components as a basis on which to explain consumer preferences and purchase decisions for luxury accessory brands. Thus, the theory of consumption values may go beyond choice decisions to include behavioural outcomes. In addition, this study reiterates the experimental view of consumption, as proposed by Holbrook and his colleagues. The study states that cognitive and affective components work in collaboration to determine the overall value of luxury accessories brands. The research provides supplementary data to the assumptions of the traditional rationality models. Combined with such models, this research intends to enhance the prediction of the value of consumer luxury accessories.

Methodologically, the existing empirical research relies on small student samples, used conventionally in similar studies. Consequently, a significant number of respondents lacked the necessary purchase experience, essential for this research. However, the present research contributes by using actual consumers of luxury accessories brands; thereby, enhancing the validity of the empirical findings. Another significant contribution of this research is the use of a mixed-methods approach to understanding consumer behaviour. This allowed the researcher to obtain a better understanding of the Consumer Value theory within the context of luxury accessories, branding and endorsements. The qualitative and quantitative aspects of such consumer values have never been explored before. Therefore, this research anticipates providing a benchmark for all future research under the same topic.

Pragmatically, regarding emotional, social, self-identity, relational and financial dimensions, marketers will be able to base their selling strategies based on this model. Furthermore, it facilitates the improvement of purchase value for their luxury accessories and help them target consumers in different market segments. Consumers may differ with respect to their perceived values for luxury commodities, but prefer a prticular luxury brand to satisfy their emotional

and cognitive needs. This model is also useful from a market position, while enhancing the overall Marketing efficiency for luxury accessories. Alternatively, luxury accessories brand managers will be required to build strong brand value and a continual relationship with their consumers to prevent them from searching for and investing in alternate brands and substitutes; thereby encouraging cross-shopping.

Keywords: Gulf Arab Tourists, Luxury Accessories Brands, Consumer behaviour, value perceptions, Theory of consumption-value, Smart PLS.

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Dedication

To my daughters, Lujain and Louna, and my parents; thank you so much for being everything to me. I can never imagine life without all of you. The love and support you have offered has helped me face each challenge throughout the duration of my studies.

I love you with all my heart.

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Declaration

I hereby declare that:

- I assume full responsibility for this research and its findings and conclusions
- This study has been written, in its existing form, by me
- All the sources and verbatim extracts contained in this research has been distinguished and due credit has been given to the other researchers for their works.

Roula Alasaad

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Introduction

This Chapter presents the PhD thesis entitled: "Overall Value Assessment of Luxury Accessories Brands: Antecedents and Consequences from the Perspectives of Gulf Arab Tourists". Section 1.2 provides the background to the theoretical issues. Section 1.3 presents the research gap. Section 1.4 outlines the research questions. Section 1.5 introduces the research aims and objectives. Sections 1.6 and 1.7, respectively, present the research methodology used in the country in which the research was conducted. Finally, Section 1.8 outlines the thesis structure.

1.2. Research Background

The study focuses on the sale of luxury goods, which is a concept with a long Marketing history. Verben (1899) was the first to study the consumption of luxury goods; documenting his findings in his first publication, "The Theory of Leisure Class". This addressed the concept of many issues of consumption; specifically, conspicuous consumption. Verblen's study revolved around the emphasis afforded to obtaining luxury and expensive products and services as a symbol of one's social status and the assumption of wealth. Nearly half a century later, Leibenstein (1950) was the first to codify what became known as the "Veblen Effect". This helped identify the unique relationship between quantity demand and the cost of luxury goods in the marketplace.

According to Giacalone (2006), Leibenstein (1950) broke the traditional demand theory in economics by stating that the preference for goods rises with price increases. Leibenstein also added the "snob" and "bandwagon" effects. Giacalone stated that the preference for luxury items decreases once the number of buyers increase; whereasLeibenstein found that the demand for goods often increases because buyers normally follow those in their reference group who have made a purchase of said product or service (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010). Veblen, bandwagon and snob effects were supported again by Vigneron and Johnson (1999). However, the previous findings offer a new perspective of consumption that relates to subjective benefits.

Later, Vigneron and Johnson (1999) referred to the subjective intangible benefits of consumption apart from its functional importance to the consumer. These views further validate the findings of Belk (1988), who also discussed the theory of extended self-concept and further emphasised the importance of possessing luxury goods. This is because they are regarded frequently as the consumer's identity. In their pioneering study, Dubois and Duquesne (1993) revealed a strong positive link between the consumption of luxury goods and cultural changes. Besides, income is a necessary drive, but not sufficient to buy luxury goods. It is clear from the previous view that luxury goods were not managed strongly by economic factors.

Furthermore, Dubois and Paternault (1995) pointed towards the scarcity of a brand as an essential factor in the existence of luxury brands, which often lose their character and appeal if overly diffused. Although Catry (2003) argued the possibility of replacing actual scarcity with a perceived rarity that could be maintained via information-based rarity, the use of rare ingredients and sustainability through strategies involved innovation.

In response, an alternative theory was suggested by Vickers and Renand (2003), who regarded luxury goods as symbols of both personal and social identity. This view remains consistent in the studies conducted by Jevons (2007) and Buchanan, and Oliver et al (2008). All of whom purposed the differentiation of luxury from non-luxury items in terms of a mix in the components in three distinct dimensions; experientialism, functionalism and symbolic interactionism (Tynan, McKechine and Chhuon, 2010).

More recently, Vigneron and Johnson (2004) offered a new perspective that explains consumption of luxury goods by classification of the motivations to personal and interpersonal factors. According to a view developed in economic psychology, luxury brands are also conceptualised as a means of partaking in exclusivity (Sung *et al.*, 2015). A quick in-depth review of the current Marketing literature reveals several attempts to define the concepts of luxury goods and the various dimensions. This means only that the understanding of the both these concepts is relatively low (Berthon *et al.* 2009). There is a lack of agreement on what constitutes a luxury brand (Miller & Mills, 2012; Sung *et al.*, 2015; Kim *et al.*, 2016); Sung *et al.* (2015) confirm that no empirical research study has applied the approach to examining luxury brands. Thus, the aim of this study is to fill in the visible gaps in the literature, contribute to our understanding of exactly how consumers view and value luxury accessories, and assess the dimensions used to determine a brand's value. Subsequently, influencing directly or indirectly their repurchase intention by developing and testing an amalgamated model of the antecedents and consequences of luxury brand value in accessories context from the perspective of Gulf Arab tourists.

Creating successful luxury goods remains paramount for marketers who wish to compete in the present marketplace; thereby leading to behavioural intention and enhanced profits. The importance of behavioural intention in the setting of brand consumption is supported by numerous scholars (e.g. Dubois and Paternault, 1995; Yoo and Lee, 2009). Therefore, the current research concentrates on repeat purchase intention, which has far-reaching implications and a frequently positive impact on the actions of an individual (Pierre *et al.*, 2005; Ajzen and Driver, 1992; Schosser *et al.*, 2006).

1.3. Research Gap

It is plain to see that the significance of using luxury brands is increasing while the luxury marketplace continues to contribute towards a significant amount of economic action in the industrialised world (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). This market, which encompasses fashion and accessories, cosmetics and fragrance, hospitality and concierge, wines and spirits, jewellery and watches, automobile, transport and selective contribution, was assessed by McKinsey and Co. to be worth around $90 billion in 1998, gradually growing to become a $180 billion global industry in 2009 (Vickers and Renand, 2003; Chadha and Husband, 2006; Okonkwo, 2009). This market will experience relatively strong growth of between 4% - 6%, driving the industry to a value between €250 - €265 billion during the period to 2017 (Consultancy, 2015). In the UK, the expenditure of luxury goods by consumers increased by nearly 50% between 1994 and 2004, compared with non-luxuries comprising only 7% (Keane and McMillian, 2004).

However, accessories remain the key product category for the luxury goods market and has been the biggest personal luxury goods category since 2011 (Bain & Co, 2015). Among specific categories of personal luxury goods, accessories remain the leader, capturing 30% of the market and growing by 3% in 2015. This was faster than the next two largest categories, apparel and hard luxury (Bain & Co, 2015). In Europe, much of the growth in demand are mainly tourist-based (Consultancy, 2015) and communicate globally with little adaptation of their creative strategy (Cervellon & Coudriet, 2013). However, justifications for this remarkable growth in demand can be complicated, yet scholars and marketers attribute this phenomenon to many factors:

- Globalisation and larger markets (Chandon *et al.*, 2016).
- The economic recovery of Western nations alongside the liberal economic growth in South-East Asian countries (Truong *et al.* 2008).
- The introduction of flexible payment methods, such as credit cards, which have contributed significantly to the diffusion of luxury goods while giving rise to consumer schizophrenia (Sonimers 1991, Kardon 1992).

While any explanation for this spectacular increase in demand might be complex, both practitioners and researchers agree on most of the major factors responsible for accelerating the phenomena; in other words, the economic recovery of most parts of the Western world along with the liberal economic growth in South-East Asian countries (Vigneron and Johnson, 1999, 2004).

The rising number of so-called “new luxury goods” are made available by picking up productivity and improving quality management (Silverstein and Fiske, 2003) along with flexible modes of payment, which contributed primarily to the diffusion of luxury goods and, consequently, the rise of consumer schizophrenia (Sonimers, 1991; Kardon, 1992).

Accordingly, luxury goods management has contributed to a significant part of Marketing, which is of particular interest to practitioners (Vickers and Renend, 2003). As a result of increased internationalisation and competition in the marketplace, numerous managers attempt to discriminate their goods by raising the added-value level to compensate for the high price. This can be achieved by adding the label ‘‘Luxury’’ to their goods or selecting them particularly to fit within the niche market (Vickers and Renend, 2003). However, such success from this strategy might lead to future failure, insofar as a widely retailed product is no longer a luxury good. Managers, therefore, need to understand the symbolic, affective, or emotional value of luxury options that warrants their high prices (Chandon *et al.* 2016).

Although dynamic growth is observed in the global luxury market, and luxury goods are made up of some of the most lucrative and fast-growing brand segments (Berthon *et al.*, 2009), it is becoming even more critical for researchers and marketers of luxury goods to understand fully the value dimensions of luxury brands from consumer perspectives and ‘‘how their perceptions of the values impact their buying behaviour” (Sibels *et al.* 2009). Also, because of the globalisation of luxury brands, it is vital for Marketing Management to understand customer perceptions of, and experiences with, their brands (Kim *et al.*, 2016).

Despite a considerable volume of research in the area of luxury Marketing (e.g., Kapferer and Bastien, 2012; Wiedmann and Hennigs, 2013; Hennigs *et al.*, 2013; Kapferer, 2014; Joy *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2016), practitioners and academics still have limited knowledge of the determinants of luxury consumption and luxury Brand Management (e.g, Berthon et al, 2009; Hung et al, 2011; Hennigs *et al.*, 2013). To date, the interplay of consumer perception of luxury brands and the assessment of causal effects on related brand outcomes remain broadly unexplored (Hennigs *et al.*, 2013).

In comprehensive terms, researchers agree that there is no rich explanation for the value dimensions that constitute luxury accessories brands because the various value perceptions related to luxury accessories brands are poorly understood and under-investigated (Moon and Sprott, 2016; Hennigs *et al.*, 2015; Loureiro and de Araújo; 2014; Miller and Mills, 2012; Shukla, 2012; Tynan *et al.*, 2010; Berthon *et al.*, 2009; Wiedmann *et al.*, 2009; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004; Vickers and Renand, 2003); moreover, most of the studies in this emerging area are conceptual (Shukla and Purani, 2012; Vigneron and Johnson, 1999; Berthon *et al.*

2009; Siebels *et al.* 2009). However, the powers-that-be are aware of the existence of multi-dimensionality consumer value. Then again, there is no proper literature to back up that claim when it comes to the various value dimensions (Gallarza, Saura and Holbrook, 2011). Blocker (2011) emphasises the need for more work to understand the most salient value drivers in each context. Hennigs *et al.*, (2015) confirms a strong need to investigate the key determinants for value creation in luxury consumption.

Hence, the sole purpose of this study is to address this gap in the literature by developing and testing empirically a model for luxury accessories brand value, its determinants and consequences, which could significantly increase the reliability and validity of the theoretical foundations (Tynan *et al.*, 2010; Shukla and Purani, 2011; Shukla and Purani, 2012). In addition, previous studies have found that several dimensions, including sub-dimensions concerning value perception, have already been identified. However, further studies may prove beneficial in considering other value dimensions, such as relational value and community value (Shukla and Purani, 2011). Therefore, this study will consider testing the relational value dimension and community value dimension as dimensions of luxury accessories value.

As the process of consumer consumption is not built solely on the functional and symbolic value associated with luxury brands, Sweeney and Soutar (2001) indicate that the rarity element should also be considered for prestigious goods. This also stems from the commodity theory, which states that "any commodity will be valued to the extent that it is unavailable" (Brock, 1968). In relation to the previous theoretical debate, the present study meets the strong recommendations by considering the rarity dimension covered by financial value, according to Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon (2010). It goes without saying that customer value plays a crucial role in any Marketing activities (Holbrook, 1994). This factor plays a big part in trying to understand the mindset and decisions made by the customers.

That being assumed, analysis of the relationship between customer value and another Marketing concept is based largely on unidimensional conception of customer value, with no consideration for its multidimensional and dynamic aspect (Graf and Maas, 2008). Despite the one-dimensional conceptualisation strategy being effective and straightforward, it cannot determine the multifaceted nature of customer value (Lin, Sher and Shih, 2005). Therefore, this study bridges the gap in the existing knowledge by investigating the customer value as a multidimensional aspect and studying its subsequent impact on repurchase intention.

Moreover, the consumption-value theory offers a restricted insight in terms of the value determinants that affect only consumption choice decisions (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). However, the research model develops this view by integrating a set of value components as a basis from which to predict many key behavioural outcomes; for example, brand preferences, brand trust and repurchase intention from the perspective of Gulf Arab tourists. Thus, the theory of consumption values may go beyond choice decisions to include behavioural outcomes. According to Gallarza, Saura and Holbrook (2011), there is more to the methodological and conceptual links between value and post-purchase behaviour than meets the eye. Specifically, this research will address the brand value of accessories in a consumer's life, for several reasons. First, accessories remain the key product category for the luxury goods market and have experienced the steepest growth over the last four years (Verdict, 2011), especially shoes and leather goods, which shaped about 70% of total revenues in 2011 (PWC's analysis on financial statements, 2012). Second, these trends look set to continue well into the future (Verdict Research, 2011).

1.4. Research Questions

Based on the previous argument, the following questions address the research problem:

1. What is the influence of various brand value aspects on the overall value of luxury accessories brands?
2. What are the behavioural outcomes of consuming overall luxury accessories value, and does the overall luxury accessories value motivate these behavioural outcomes directly?
3. Do the overall luxury accessories value motivate repurchase intention indirectly through brand preferences and brand trust?

1.5. Research Aim and Objectives

The aim of this study is to:

> *Provide an understanding of how consumers' luxury value dimensions determine their luxury accessories value, which then influences their repurchase intention through a direct and indirect route, by developing and testing an amalgamated model of the antecedents and consequences of luxury accessories value from the persepectives of Gulf Arab tourists.*

Consequently, this research strives to achieve the following objectives:

1. Identify the different luxury brand value determinants, prevalent among Gulf Arab tourists, based on different brand interactions.
2. Devise a conceptual model that generates an in-depth explanation of relations between the different luxury accessories value dimensions, as well as informing an overall value of the luxury accessories and their influence on repurchasing decisions through direct and indirect routes.
3. Evaluate empirically the model that represents the relationship between the overall luxury accessories values with brand trust, preference and repurchase intentions.
4. Draw a conclusion about the findings obtained and provide various implications from a managerial perspective to luxury accessories brand managers.

1.6. Research Methodology

To achieve the research aim, a two-stage study was conducted comprising quantitative and qualitative research, commencing with the qualitative research first, in order to: (1) attain greater understanding of the topic under study; (2) refine the findings of the initial research and hypotheses; (3) revise the study to include a more accurate questionnaire (Churchill, 1979).

Although using solely qualitative methods, a pluralistic research has gained traction in recent years; in particular, Marketing-based research, whereby the use of qualitative methods is used quite often in conjunction with quantitative methods to reach a conclusion (Deshpande, 1983; Zinkham and Hirschheim, 1992).

This means that a quantitative approach is preferred for the next stage of investigations. This will include a self-administered questionnaire, which will be used to measure every construct of the research, and developed in line with the literature and initial qualitative findings. This self-administered questionnaire will be distributed among Gulf Arab tourists with experience of luxury accessories brands.

All the descriptive statistics used in the sample will be performed using SPSS v. 20. To assess this model of measurement, along with the hypotheses of this thesis, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) will be adopted. This is a multivariate data analysis technique used widely in model testing and instrument validation in Marketing research and other discipline. Keeping that in mind, this study will use SEM to determine and validate the conceptual model along with testing the hypothesised relationships of different variables.

1.7. Research Context

Selecting the research setting is a crucial part of a research project (Baker, 1994: 109, Bernard, 2000: 66). It has been noted that the location of the research also acts as a limitation on the outcomes generated by the theoretical model; thereby creating a boundary for generalisation, and constituting the scope of the theory (Whetten, 1989). Establishing the proper research settings will equip the researcher to take more accurate notes on the social phenomena by properly examining these theories (Doktor et al, 1991; Eisenhardt, 1989).

1.7.1. The global luxury market

Despite a global economic crisis, the luxury sector grew at an annual rate of 7% during 1995–2013, earning total revenues of 217€ billion in 2013; predictions suggest it will grow at a 9% annual rate to 2020 (Bain & Co, 2014). Personal luxury goods ballooned to more than €250 billion in 2015, more than tripling over the past 20 years. This represents 13% growth over 2014 at current exchange rates, while real growth slowed to only 1%–2% (Bain & Co, 2015), increasing the market from 390 million luxury consumers in 2014 to 465 million by 2021 (Chandon *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, although lacking in spending power in comparison with the affluent customers, even middle-class customers engage increasingly in luxury consumption, as reflected in the substantive growth of luxury brands (Bain & Co, 2013). Most global middle-income buyers have experienced deterrence due to the economic uncertainties. Conversely, it has been found that shoppers in Western countries have returned to premium brands.

It seems that this phenomenon is in conjunction with the economic growth found in BRIC nations along with a desire for luxury brands in the Far East, which has also accelerated the global growth of luxury goods. As reported by an expert, the market for luxury brands experienced tremendous growth by 2010, and presently, its value is $320 bn. From the results, forecasts hint that this growth trend is set to proceed in the same manner. Nevertheless, Europe continues to be the largest market for luxury products (Verdict Research, 2010). Luxury brands of European origin account for approximately two-thirds of the total global luxury goods market (European Cultural and Creative Industries Alliance, 2014) and lead the world's fashion industry by creating trends (Kim *et al.*, 2016).

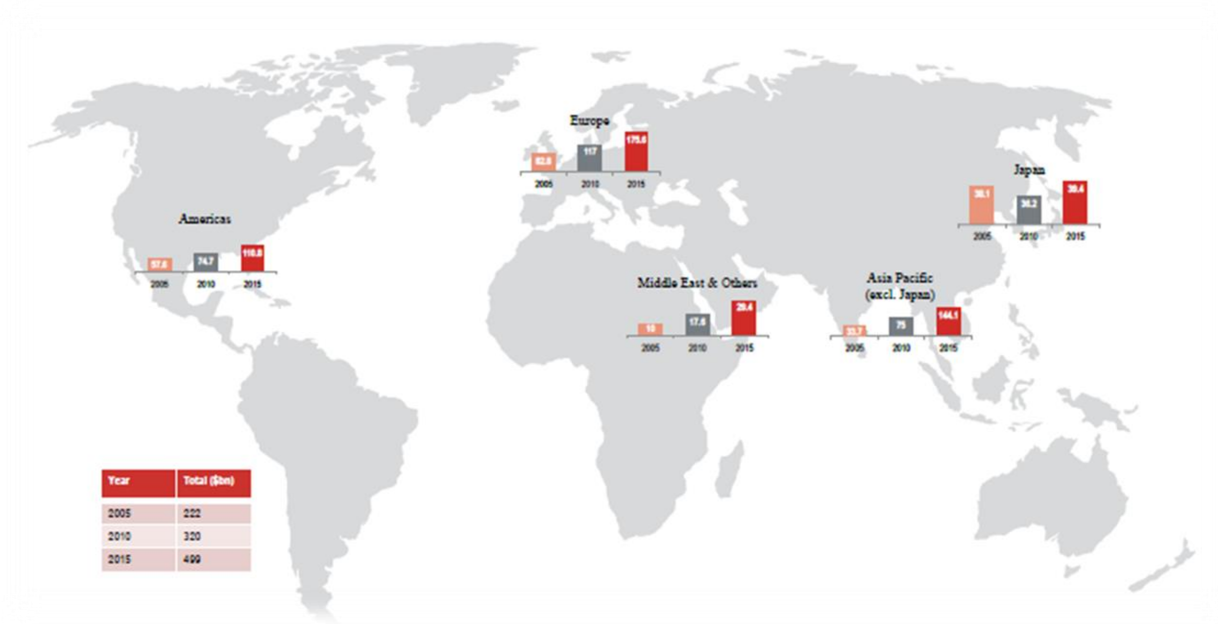

Figure 1.1 Spending on luxury brands globally by area 2005-2015 ($ bn)

Source: Verdict Research

Consequently, the Global Luxury Houses emerged quickly from the financial crisis in a better state than other businesses. Gucci, Burberry, Polo Ralph Lauren, Richemont and LVMH have demonstrated strong sales growth, with some of the corporations making sales in the last year. Developing store markets propelled growth, especially in the Asian-Pacific region, where retail trades, on average, perform better than other business globally. Regardless of the region, which is experiencing rapid growth, London and the West continue to be the core market for retail trade in luxury products (Verdict research, 2010).

1.7.2. Why London?

It is no secret that the appetite for luxury goods is increasing on a global scale, at the centre of which is London. Mayfair, St James and the surrounding areas have also witnessed a rapid increase in sales associated with the rapid expansion of luxury goods in the past few years. This helped cement the country's position as one of the leading destinations for luxury retailing (Verdict Research, 2011).

As the foremost retail destination for luxury products, London now ranks alongside cities such as Milan, New York, Shanghai, and Hong Kong. The diversity and appeal of the destination has led it to be the first port of call for international luxury brands which seek to expand their reach to Europe and beyond. In fact, according to Jones Lang LaSalle's 2011 Cross Border Retail report, London comes out first in Europe in terms of luxury retail, boasting of the largest number of international luxury brands (Verdict Research, 2011).

Furthermore, London is regarded as a global hub and the leading market for the evaluation of luxury trends and witness high international tourist traffic (Shukla, 2012, Shukla *et al.*, 2016). It is among the most dynamic in the region, experiencing a major increase in the spending on Western luxury brands over the last decade in particular (Shukla, 2012). Finally, among specific categories of personal luxury goods, accessories led the way, capturing 30% of the market and growing by 3% in 2015. That was faster than the next two largest categories, apparel and hard luxury. Within accessories, high-end shoes (4%) continued to grow faster than leather goods overall (2%). Jewellery was the star category within hard luxury, growing at 6% at constant exchange rates, while watches were strongly hit by the channel overstocking in Asia and contracted by 6% in constant exchange rates (Bain & Company, 2015).

1.7.3. Why Gulf Arab tourists to the UK?

The formulated hypotheses will be tested on a sample of Gulf Arab tourists visiting the UK. This sample provides an almost ideal empirical setting in which to study the constructs of interest, as outlined below.

First, Gulf Arab tourists are a proven dominant buying force and if targeted adequately, can yield significant returns (Business Insights, 2011). Indeed, visitors from this region are ranked the highest spenders in the UK (Al Arabiya News, 2014). The latest figures provided by West End company representing 600 premium retailers in London, revealed that Arab tourists spend 15 times more than the average UK shopper (Think Ethnic, 2012). The average spending of a Saudi tourist reached about £2,487, followed by that of the UAE at £2,395, then Kuwait at £1965 per head and Russia and Singapore at £1169 and £980 per head. There has been a 36-percent increase in sales due to the contribution of Arab tourism in London (Arab News, 2013). More specifically, Gulf country says its residents spend as much as six times as

Westerners (KITCHING, 2015).Visitors from the UAE spend an average of $262 a day in the UK, more than visitors from any other nation (Al Arabiya News, 2014).

Second, Gulf Arab tourists' context can also identify the significant subjects which are supposed to be unique or significant this context. Basically, studying the luxury phenomena in the Arabic context can add valuable and novel insight to the stock of global luxury accessories value knowledge. According to Tsui (2006), research into these context-specific phenomena helps enhance the global stock of the phenomena.

Third, to date, no empirical studies have been directed that focuses on customer value from the perspective of Gulf Arab tourists. However, several theoretical researches have been conducted in the Western setting (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010; Smith and Colgate, 2007), which can be applied in a different context. According to Tsui (2006), the straightforward application of Western theories in a relatively new context is a great way to approach future research. Moreover, by including the present body of knowledge, researchers now have a better chance of creating a more accurate theoretical foundation.

Fourth, Gulf Arab tourists usually differ both culturally and economically from other nationalities studied previously (Liu *et al.*, 2016; Bian and Forsythe, 2011; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Ko and Megehee (2012) found that consumers in different countries have varying perceptions of what constitutes a luxury product and use different criteria when making purchase decisions; thus, they are better positioned to provide a different picture of the relationship between overall luxury accessories value and the set of constructs under investigation.

Finally, in Eastern countries, the role of interpersonal interactions along with the overall social environment creates quite a unique blend of consumers and their experiences (Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel, 1989; Verhoef *et al.*, 2009), even though these are all considered to be Eastern societies (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1998). This means that a consumer's behaviour is shaped by the cultural norms rather than any internal motivation (Shukla and Purani, 2011). However, Eastern consumers undoubtedly find themselves increasingly in need to recognise their identity and enhance their outer image as perceived by others (Dubois and Duquesne, 1993; Dubois, Czellar and Laurent, 2005).

1.8. Research Structure

This Section offers a brief explanation of the structure of this thesis, comprising eight chapters, along with appendices and references.

The issues allied with the topic under study are introduced in Chapter One; i.e. luxury accessories value and its impact on post-purchase behaviour, particularly from Gulf Arab tourist's perspectives. Then, it will move towards clarifying the misunderstandings related to the research gap, and will set the goals for reaching the objectives; that is, providing answers to some of the more pressing questions. Next, the research methodology is identified and, finally, the research context is defined.

Various theories related to the topic under study are discussed in detail in Chapter Two, such as the theory of consumption-value, which is used to explain consumers' consumption behaviour. Furthermore, Chapter Two reviews the appropriate literature review associated with the fundamental determinates that are possible to define the luxury customer value, in order to develop the overall value of luxury accessories model. The dominant determinates acknowledged by the existing knowledge, along with luxury customer value model, include emotional value, relational value, self-identity value (self-oriented), social value (outer-oriented), community value, financial value.

Taking notes from the previous Chapter, Chapter Three will present the conceptual model of consumers' luxury value dimensions that determine their overall luxury accessories value. Subsequently, this influences their repurchase intention through a direct and indirect route. The conceptual model examines the existing hypotheses to be tested.

Chapter Four provides the research methodology employed to test empirically the theoretical model of luxury accessories value, constructed in the previous Chapter. This Chapter will seek to explain the research adopted and provide some credible explanations. Its design will outline the methodology and will act as a guide for researchers which can be used through all stages of data analysis in future. This research applies a sequential mix of methods, combining both quantitative and qualitative methods to reach a conclusion. The method used at each stage will be properly defined and justified by credible sources. The Chapter will then explain the questionnaire design along with some sampling techniques. Finally, this Chapter will provide a clear explanation of the data analysis methods.

Chapter Five begins by outlining the first stage of data collection, which is a qualitative study. It will first seek to offer an in-depth description of focus group protocol, its construction and the analytical methods of qualitative data employed in the process. The findings of the focus group validate the proposal model in addition to generating items for the measurements, which will be used to collect the main data. This Chapter also provides a deep insight into the quantitative study. This stage begins with screening the data and testing the multivariate assumptions completed using SPSS Statistic 20. At that point, the SEM using Smart PLS v.3 and the results of hypotheses testing are presented in the final two sections.

Chapter Six gives the final vision of the research model resulting from testing the hypotheses. A comparison will be made of the test results and prior studies in order to justify insignificant relationships. Accordingly, the current study provides optional answers to the research questions. The Chapter then presents the theoretical contributions, methodological conurbations, and managerial contributions. Moreover, this Chapter presents the novelty of study in addition to its limitations. Chapter Six concludes by providing recommendations and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

Recently, brand importance has increased in diverse areas. A brand is recognised as a tool for distinguishing the companies' products or services. Each brand has its own identity, a set of promises, values, and other qualities that separate them from the rest. These are the qualities that build trust between the brand and the consumer. To some extent, the sole purpose of a brand is to create value for both the customer and the owner. From a business perspective, it is "a distinguishable piece of intellectual property and an intangible asset that secures future earnings"; while from the consumer viewpoint, it is "the promise and delivery of an experience" (OKonKwo, 2007). Luxury brands are, perhaps, one of the purest examples of branding, which are an assortment of memories in the customer's mind; thereby making it easy to process information collected over a particular period. Accordingly, consumers are capable of obtaining the cognitive and non-cognitive worth of a brand, since it indicates high standard and low expected risk, as conveyed through positive reaction or consumer self-expression (Aaker, 1998; Kotler *et al.*, 2007). The decision to purchase a product depends greatly on its values. Consequently, it is essential for firms to manufacture brands in respect of the consumer. The companies should consistently continue observing these and carry out the process in the desired approach. As long as the consumers obtain value and trust from consumption of the product, they are more likely to continue buying that particular brand.

To recognise how luxury customer value works, one must be acquainted with luxury brand's description and, indeed, luxury itself (Choo *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, this Chapter begins with the conceptualisation and classification of luxury brands. Then, this Chapter reviews the main approaches to defining luxury brands. Section 2.3 illustrates the meaning of customer value, since the perception of value is comprehensive and multifarious, with various meanings among end-users (Zeithaml, 1998), practitioners and investigators (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996; Lai, 1995). The sub-sections discuss customer value and conceptualisation, and emphasise its significance in the literature review. The final subsection delivers two essential approaches to operationalisation customer value.

Customer value is considered a critical element of consumer behaviour as it helps explain different areas of purchase behaviour both before and after the acquisition. Therefore, Section 2.5 discusses post-purchase behaviour, brand preferences, brand trust and repurchase intention. Finally, a conclusion to the overall Chapter is provided.

2.2. Conceptualising Luxury Brands

The issue of luxury goods has received a significant level of interest among researchers and authors (Shukla, 2011); moreover, this is increasing in a variety of areas (Truong *et al*, 2008). However, the term "luxury brand" exhibits a scarcity of definition while reviewing the literature. Providing a definition of luxury goods or brands is problematic (e.g. Li *et al.*, 2013; Brun and Castelli, 2013; Sung *et al.*, 2015; Hennigs *et al.*, 2015; Shukla *et al.*, 2015). This can be attributed to the "dribble down" impact of luxury brands: those goods referred to as luxurious in one age group turn out to be a common staple in the subsequent age group. Furthermore, some goods, such as water, can be viewed as either a luxury or a necessity, depending on the consumer's circumstances (Kemp, 1998). More surprising still is the fact that these goods could be deemed either a necessity or a luxury, depending on the consumer's situation (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). The perception of luxury changes from one society to the next (Loureiro and de Araújo, 2014). This affects what is or is not perceived as a luxury brand. Along with these assumptions pertaining to the brand, it can also depend on the people or the context. Previously, the word "luxury" was derived from "Luxus", a Latin term for "extravagant living or over indulgence," and "opulence, luxuriousness" (Oxford Latin Dictionary, 1992).

However, any conceptualisation of luxury would benefit from beginning with Adam Smith's consumption classification: essential (to uphold life) vital (for typical and success of individuals and the society), privileged circumstances (commodities that are essential for success and privileged circumstances) and luxury (commodities which have a narrow supply), not easy to manufacture and/or very costly). According to Grossman and Shapiro (1988), conventionally, luxury commodities refer to what goods return to the proprietor reputation excluding any functionality value; for example, the mere use or presentation of specific branded merchandise. It can be noted that the previous definition and Adam Smith's definition link luxury goods to rarity and scarcity. However, Catry (2003) debates for the potential replacement of real rarity with a perceived one, which is referred to as significant to the continuation of luxury commodities. The concept of a probable scarcity is upheld through unique elements in the short-term, or sustainable via approaches of techno scarcity enhanced by modernisation, rare editions or scarcity based on the information.

An alternative approach to conceptualising luxury brands is suggested by Nueno and Quelch (1998, p. 61), who define them *economically* as "those whose ratio of functionality to price is low, while the proportion of insubstantial and situational value to price is high". This description works for economists who describe luxury goods as items where the rate and retail price are the highest in the market. For example, the price of the goods exceeds those that have similar features. The previous two definitions focus on income as a vital factor to buy luxury goods; however, according to Dubois and Duquesne's finding (1993), income clearly is a required but not satisfactory element to clarify purchase behaviour of luxury goods.

However, the economists' approach does not help clarify the confusion in defining the term "luxury" as it is based on the classification of brands into two types; luxuries or non-luxuries. Dubois and Laurent (1996) dispute that a brand could be considered as a luxury item in certain product types. For instance, the brand, Rolls-Royce is regarded as a luxury car brand, but it is not seen as a luxury brand when it comes to aeroplanes (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Alternatively, a more psychosomatic outline is suggested by Vickers and Renald (2003); whereby establishing the basic luxury's value against the value that is non-luxury is psychosomatic.

In addition to the *economic* and *psychological* approaches, many different attempts have been made to define luxury brands. Atwal and Williams (2009) describe it as experimental and wide-ranging with respect to the percentage of consumer contribution and association. Luxury is contrasted with ordinary; hence, the gap between the two is judged by the end-user (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010). According to Miller and Mills (2011), the inadequacy of congruity is a signal that the fundamental arrangement and associations of building a luxury brand stand indecisive. In addition, Keller (2009) disputes that luxury consists of more than 10 attributes. Miller and Mills (2012) stress the importance of innovation and leadership as significant determinants of a brand's luxury acceptance. Conversely, Berthon *et al.* (2009), disputes that luxury is an endless list of descriptions and comprises three aspects. Luxury has four elements according to Atwal and Williams (2009), but Fionda and Moore (2009) cite nine issues. Other researchers believe it has two aspects (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009); becoming involved in individual pleasure (personal pleasure), and exhibiting success (other people's luxury). Loureiro and de Araújo (2014) state that luxury corresponds best to the expression of desires and emotions. Ko and Megehee (2012) demonstrate that psychological constructs explain a large part of luxury consumption. Megehee and Spake (2012) explore the meaning of luxury brands through visual narrative art created from consumer blogs.

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Furthermore, Vigneron and Johnson (2004) establish a model of 'Brand Luxury Index' to conceptualise luxury. However, 'Brand Luxury Index' is tested empirically using Australian students, and refers to the impact of the self and external world on luxury brand consumption. The authors suggest that the luxury-seeking consumer's decision-making process may be attributed to personal perceptions (perceived hedonism and perceived extended self) in addition to interpersonal perceptions (perceived quality, perceived uniqueness, perceived conspicuousness). However, this model is again tested with Asian consumers by Christodoulides *et al.*, (2009). Their study suggests that the categories of quality, uniqueness and self are established by confirmatory factor analysis. In other words, assumed values of hedonism and conspicuousness exceeded any exploratory factor analysis (Hung *et al.*, 2011). Another view confirms that the superior qualities of a luxury brand must emphasise the individual value orientation and the needs of luxury shoppers at all consumer touch points (Kim and Kim, 2014; Dion and Arnould, 2011).

Conversely, Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009) state that the term "luxury" is subjective and multidimensional. They further argue that the concept of luxury brands should first follow an integrative understanding. Therefore, successful luxury brands compete today based on a close relationship with customers and their desire for "pleasure and indulgence of the senses through objects or experiences that are more ostentatious than necessary" (Okonkwo, 2010; Hennigs *et al.*, 2015).

Consequently, a comprehensive model is constructed, which is considered an extension of Vigneron and Johnson's model (2004), to improve the current understanding of the motives of the consumer when it comes to the consumption of luxury products. Contrary to traditional perceptions of luxury consumers as a homogeneous group of "happy few," multiple, contrasted segments now emerge among luxury clientele, who perceive the meaning of luxury very heterogeneously (Chandon *et al.*, 2016). Luxury brands have a hedonic value related to sensorial pleasure, aesthetic beauty and emotional transportation, an ability to transport the consumer from the mundane and into the magical world of the brand (Dion & Arnould, 2011).

Table 2.1 Luxury definitions

Authors	Definitions	Characteristics	Consequences
Adam Simth (1759)	Commodities that have inadequacy of supply and not simple to manufacture/or are very costly are referred to as luxuries	Limited supply and high price	
Grossman and Shapiro (1988)	Luxury commodities/status goods refers to commodities that are only exhibition of specific branded good fetch reputation on the owner excluding any benefit of functionality	Rarity	Prestige
McKinsey (1990)	Luxury brands refer to the one whose cost and standard ratios are the uppermost in the market	High price and high quality	
Dubois and Duquesne (1993)	Luxury engages a craving to make a positive impact on others with the capacity to cover specifically escalated prices as well as a flamboyant show of riches	High price	Impress others and wealth signal
Berry (1994)	Luxury is regarded as object elements of craving that give enjoyment, whereas necessities refer to utilitarian elements which mitigate an unlikeable state of distress		Pleasure
Kapferer (1998)	The term luxury describes splendour; it reflects art implemented on functional goods. Similar to light, luxury informative and directive. Luxury items offers extra gratification and allure every sense at once....Luxury refers to the attachment of the ruling clusters	Beauty	Extra pleasure

Nueno and Quelch (1998)	Luxury refers to the items whose functionality ratio to cost is low, while the situational and subtle value to cost is high	High price	
Phau and Prendergast (2000)	The consumer is evoked by luxury brands that contend on the capability of evoking his/her brand identity, brand attentiveness, alleged quality and selectiveness	Exclusivity, high quality, strong identity and high awareness	
Arghavan and Zaichkowsky (2000)	Luxury commodities facilitate consumers to gratify emotional and utilitarian necessities. Primarily, these emotional utilities can be seen as the key dynamic discerning luxury from non-luxury commodities or counterfeit		Satisfy psychological and utilitarian needs
Cornell (2002)	Luxury refers to a strong component of individual engagement, scarce supply Luxury is ‘‘a sturdy factor of human participation, extremely minimal supply as well as acknowledgement of worth by others” are major elements	Limited supply	
Gutsatz (2001)	Two stages of discernment are involved in luxury. One is material which involves understanding the commodity and together with the brand (commodity’s past, distinctiveness, exclusive acquaintance, aptitude). Two is psychosomatic which entails illustrations that are mitigated by the societal setting and the value of the brand	History, identity, unique know how, and talent	Psychological value
Dubois, Czellar and Laurent (2001)	The following are the six components of luxury: surplus, outstanding quality, expensive, paucity and exclusiveness, traditional heritage and individual account of the past and artistic and polysensuality	Excellent quality, high price, scarcity, aesthetics and polysensuality, ancestral heritage and personal history, and superfluousness	
Webster‘s Third New International Dictionary	Luxuries refer to an extravagance or expediency beyond the necessary minimum; it refers to non-essential products or services which chip in to luxurious livelihood	Non-essential	Luxurious living and indulgence
Allérès (2003)	Various components make up the luxury brand: the brands of inventor, the locations, the formation, acknowledgement representations, past record and the brand name	Brand creators, places, the creations, recognition symbols, history and the brand name.	
Prendergast and Wong (2003)	High standards and quality are related to luxury	Good quality and design	
Jackson (2004)	A luxury brand is attributed with selectiveness and premium prices. A	exclusivity, premium prices, image and	

	luxury fashion brand is attributed by exclusiveness, high prices, image and rank, that integrate to help them look attractive due to their function	status	
Wetlaufer (2004)	The importance of firm distinctiveness, traditions and spirit together with innovative quality is essential in luxury brand growth	Corporate identity, culture, spirit and creative excellence.	
Moore and Birtwistle (2004)	Emblematic goods are contained in luxury brands and model with reliability and the producer has stiff policies over the goods, approval, allocation and first-rate pricing	Iconic product and design with integrity, high price, controlled distribution and endorsement.	
Vigneron and Johnson (2004)	A type of status brand which is comprised of three stages is used to compare a luxury brand: up-market, first-class and luxury and the extent of luxury can be assessed by how it is eye-catching, exclusive, superior, unique, quality, and comprehensive self	Conspicuousness, uniqueness, quality, hedonism and extended self.	
Silverstein and Fiske (2005)	Luxury has changed to mean goods and services that have high standards of excellence, taste and desire than other products in the group but are not very costly in a way that they cannot be accessible	advanced quality levels, experience and ambition than normal brands	
Beverland (2005)	Characteristics of genuineness like the tradition and lineage, stylistic stability, quality dedications, affiliation with place, ways of producing and downplaying, mercantile concerns might be shifted to luxury brands	Tradition and ancestry, stylistic constancy, quality dedications, affiliation with place, ways of production and downplaying business concerns.	
Dumoulin (2007)	The reflection of contemporary luxury involves a commemoration of individual originality, self-expression, aptitude, flexibility and above all meaning		personal creativity, expressiveness, intelligence and fluidity
Okonkwo (2007)	Luxury brands have a worldwide reputation and are highly visible. In addition, these brands have a unique identity, they are creative, unique and they continuously produce the best quality and price with a well-controlled distribution. Moreover, these brands have an emotional appeal and they are also very inventive	Distinct identity, global reputation, superior quality, high price with a controlled distribution.	
Husic and Cicic (2009)	The optimistic and important impacts of luxury brands are the quality of brand and its own image	Brand image and quality	
Juggessur and Cohen (2009)	The term used to refer to luxury brands is high fashion which is used with prestige to	Permanent positive brand images deemed	

	refer to luxury bands which are considerably and insubstantially worth and which have the best positive brand images. This leading brand images are considered as being the leaders when it comes to quality, design, fashion and also status	as being at the forefront of design, quality, status and fashion.	
Keller (2009)	Luxury brands have the following characteristics: ✓ Luxury brands are related to high quality. ✓ In luxury brands, there is the production of intangible brands associations. ✓ In luxury brands, there includes other elements such as the packaging designs, logos and symbols. ✓ Luxury brands also maintain a premium image throughout. ✓ The associations involved in luxury brand are linked to endorsers and personalities. ✓ Luxury brands have a controlled distribution. ✓ There is also premium pricing when it comes to luxury brands. ✓ Management is carefully conducted. ✓ There is also legal trademarks protection. ✓ Luxury brands also have a broad definition.	First-class image, design of elusive brand associations, associated with quality, substantial components such as logos, icons and packaging strategy, secondary relationships with related personalities or supporters controlled allocation, first-class pricing, cautious management, wide description and official trademarks protection.	
Kapferer and Bastien (2009)	There are two main features in luxury brands. The first feature is luxury for one's self or in other words, indulging in one's delights and success demonstration. The second feature is that uniqueness is the most important aspect when it comes to luxury	Uniqueness	Pleasure and sign of success
Kim, Kim and Sohn (2009)	One of the highly valued prestige brands is the luxury brands which surround various psychological and physical values. These values include the unique value, the hedonic and social value, quality and conspicuous value	Perceived conspicuous value, unique value, social value, hedonic value and quality–value.	Prestige
Godey, Lagier and Pederzoli (2009)	Luxury brands have a very unique and subjective measurement and definition since they are equal with the level of selection	Subjective concept	

Berthon *et al.*, (2009)	Luxury refers to noticeable ownership which is artistically gratifying and offer classes to an individual and might please in unnoticeably or noticeably and has some extent of uniqueness or scarcity and a social inscrutability and summarises the function of a brand (functional) and what it represents to a person (practical) and the collective (emblematic)	Exclusivity and conspicuous.	Social mystique, aesthetically pleasing, status and enjoyment
Atwal and Williams (2009)	Luxury is past the conventional to be experimental, where experimental luxury Marketing is comprised of the aspects of edification, amusement, escapist, and aesthetic, that differs in the numbers of end-user involvement and association with the brand	Experiential dimensions: entertainment, education, escapist and esthetic.	
Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, (2010)	Luxury is different from ordinary, so the gap between the two depends with the consumer's judgement	Subjective concept related with consumer	
Phan and Heine (2011)	Luxury goods have various attributes contrasted to different goods of the rank, which comprises of their comparatively high cost, excellence scarcity and emblematic meaning	Elevated price, quality, aesthetics, rarity, extraordinarily, and symbolic meaning	
Megehee and Spake (2012)	Luxury is a configuration of a unique, aesthetic, functional, and expensive product-service experience	Unique, aesthetic, functional, and expensive	
Hudders (2012)	Luxuries are brands with a premium quality and/or an aesthetically appealing design, exclusive, which implies expensiveness and/or rarity"	High price, quality, rare and aesthetic design	
Shukla and Purani (2012)	Luxury brands are expensive and enable consumers to satisfy their material and socio-psychological needs much more than regularly consumed goods	Expensive	satisfy the material and socio-psychological needs
de Barnier, *et al.*, (2013)	The notion of pleasure and, more broadly, emotions offers an important factor linked to the consumption or possession of luxury brands	Pleasure and emotions	
Kapferer (2015)	Luxury brands are characterised by perceptions of exclusivity instead of actual exclusivity, which results fromartificial rarity tactics (e.g., limited editions, capsule collections)	Product and service excellence or objective rarity.	
Kapferer and Valette-Florence (2016)	Luxury brands have an eight-dimensional luxury desire scale, comprised of product superiority, selective distribution, not for everybody, very actual still unique, elitist,		

	glamour, fashionable and creative, and class and status		
Chandon et al, (2016)	Modern luxury is positioned to capture the dreams of each consumer, as a medium of self-expression		Dream value

Source: Developed by the author from the literature review

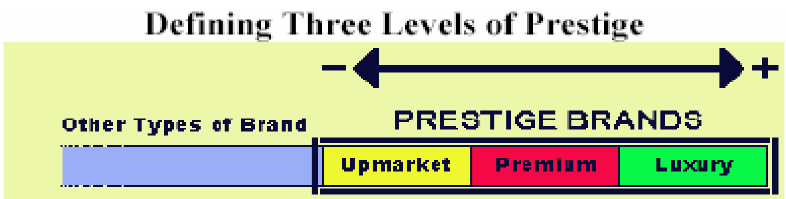
It is clear from the various definitions that luxury brand is a multidimensional and highly subjective concept (Chandon *et al.*, 2016; Sung *et al.*, 2015; Wiedmann *et al.*, 2009); situational contingent and reliant on the experience and individual needs of the consumer (Kapferer and Bastien, 2012). Luxury is influenced significantly by individual perceptions, depending on their concept of value (Hanna, 2004). Accordingly, a concise definition of the concept of luxury brands remains absent (Sung *et al.*, 2015; Hennigs *et al.*, 2015; Shukla *et al.*, 2015; Brun and Castelli, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2013).

However, Brun and Castelli (2013) suggest the possibility of identifying some common elements recognised by various authors. Combining these elements provides a set of critical success factors that characterise luxury products and drive competition in the luxury market. Market experts (e.g. Altagamma, 2008) agree that, due to the lack of an operational definition of luxury, the best option is to identify a set of product features that luxury companies view as desirable. Consequently, the major indicators of luxury accessories brands implemented in this research are of high standard, costly and non-essential commodities, which seem scarce, limited, high-status and genuine, and provide high standards of emotional and emblematic values.

2.2.1. Classification of luxury brands

Typically, the notion of luxury is difficult to define (Amatulli and Guido, 2010; Berthon *et al.*, 2009) since it symbolises social context (Nueno and Quelch, 1998) that follows a cultural estimate; thereby rendering it changeable and very subjective (Kapferer, 1997; Phau and Predergast, 2000). Nevertheless, numerous attempts have been made to classify luxury goods into a hierarchy; subsequently, this is responsible for creating various terms, such as those presented in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Classification of luxury brands

Authors	Classification
Nueno and Quelch (2004)	identified three categories of luxury brands: 1. *“Limited Awareness Brands”,* usually run as family business; these are usually boutique stores focused on narrow product lines, often hand-crafted, and targeted to exclusive niche markets through only one or two stores. 2. *“Well-Known”* luxury brands those are unaffordableto wide customers due to their excessive prices and inability to be sampled before purchase. For example, Rolls-Royce cars. 3. *“Well-Known”* luxury brands that are reasonable to a widermarket segment, such as in categories of accessory items (accessorised luxuries). While the two first are without doubt luxury brands, the third category, however, is the most problematic, in being distinguished from premium but still mass-market brands.
Vigneron and Johnson (2004)	the term ‘‘prestige brands’’ has been used and proposed three levels of prestige: 1. *Up-Market Brands* 2. *Premium Brands* 3. *Luxury Brands*  ***Figure 1. Three Levels of Prestige***
Silverstein and Fiske (2005)	Distinguished *superpremium*or *old-luxury* goods from *new luxury* products, which further categorised them into three major types: *1 -“Accessible Super-premium”:* is the luxury segment which, through priced close to the top of their respective product categories, are generally low labels items so that middle-income earners can still afford them. 2 -*“Old-Luxury Brand Extensions”:* these are lower-priced versions of goods, that are been designed to the super-rich consumers, and usually under an ‘‘old-luxury’’ brand name traditionally been affordable only by the rich. This is a category that is problematic in its distinction from pure luxuries. 3-*“Mass Prestige or ‘Masstige’”:* this segment is located at the lower end of the new luxury category, where the product are priced below the

	old-luxury extensions and the super-premium, but still command a premium over mass-market products. These products can be a spot between the premium and the mass.
Kapferer (2008)	Pyramid model for traditional European luxury brands: *Griffe* Located at the top of the pyramid Unique pieces Pure creation of one person. *Luxury Brands* Located at the middle of the pyramid Small series within workshop *Mass-Production Luxuries* Located at the ground of the pyramid Expensive and high quality products.
Okonkwo (2009)	Two classes of luxury fashion brands; luxury and prestige brands that feature the best craftsmanship along with high quality, and also manage to keep a good customer loyalty base that remains undeterred with passing trends, such as Hermes and Bvlgari. 1. *Premium brands:* The Marketing mix strategies of this group from luxury brands are more attuned to a mass market.This group is made up of those that are usually mentioned as mass-premium, mass-luxury, luxury or aspirational which seek scope. These brands have been categorised as follows*;* *1.1. High premium brands*, such as Tommy Hilfiger and Calvin Klein *1.2. Medium premium brands*, such as Furla and Lanvin and Lacoste. *1.3. Low premium brands*, such as. Zara, H&M.
de Barnier, Falcy, & Valette-Florence (2012)	luxury comprises three domains, depending on the brand Marketing: 1. Inaccessible, 2. Intermediate, 3. and accessible

Source: developed by the author from the literature review

Heritage and prestige have always been the hallmarks of many luxury brands. Because some luxury brands are hundreds of years old, the enduring quality of a particular product can be part of its appeal; this applies especially to the traditional view of luxury. However, a lot of consumers – particularly those who are young and fashion-conscious – prefer a product with a fresh and unusual look and an exclusive aura rather than actual rarity (Hanna, 2004; Brun and Castelli, 2013). Consistent with previous views, ***the current study*** adopts Silverstein and Fiske's classification (2005), In other words, this study adopts the accessible luxury (or new luxury) rather than old-luxury (or traditional luxury), which targets elite consumers and relies on product authenticity based on precious materials, heritage, craftsmanship, and natural rarity.

2.2.2. The major approaches to the definition of luxury products

There have been many signs of progress made to segregate the non-luxury or regular goods from luxury products. These descriptions are defined by the amount of abstraction placed into the characteristics versus consequences based, along with the level of information, on consumer and expert-based approaches (Heine and Phan, 2011).

Characteristics versus consequences-based approach

According to Heine and Phan (2011), some constitutive features can help classify luxury goods and the benefits of, and motivation for, purchasing luxury products. The advocates of a consequence-based approach include researchers such as Vickers and Renand (2003), who regard luxury goods as a symbol of social and personal identity. Through their research, they were able to create a 3-dimensional model to highlight the main difference between luxury and non-luxury goods, regarding the extent to which they satisfy experiential, functional and symbolism instrumental performance.

Practical needs are created by consumers who search for products that either solve an existing problem or prevent a new one (Agar, 2003); for instance, usability, quality, durability, and reliability (Sheth, Newman and Gross, 1991b). Experientialism refers to consumer needs in respect to the desire for goods that offer both sensory pleasure and hedonistic consumption, such as, exclusive or traditional designs, the tone of decoration and unique richness, and elegance of previous eras, as highlighted by Vickers and Renand (2003). Finally, symbolic interaction involves desires for products that are created to pair a consumer with a group or a self-image regarding personality and emotions (Bhat and Reddy, 1998).

On the one hand, Vickers and Renand's findings (2003) are comparable to those of Buchanan-Oliver *et al.,* (2008) and Jevons (2007). Both of these authors suggested that luxury goods can be distinguished from normal products with the extent to which there is a different combination of all three dimensions; symbolic interactionism, instrumental performance, experientialism, and functionalism.

Although this approach of the conceptualisation of luxury goods matches the current understanding of products as a group of benefits (Kotler et al, 2007), there are quite a few groups which allow the consumers to raise their prestige without using the status of a premium price tag. For instancea self-made t-shirt or an extraordinary musician. Thus, the consequences approach cannot be considered sufficient to differentiate between luxury and non-luxury brands (Vickers and Renand, 2003); this characteristic method is accepted widely in the literature (Kisabaka, 2001).

Expert-based versus consumer-oriented research approach

An expert-based approach is usually used to classify any constitutive traits of a luxury brand based on the reviews it receives and expert opinions. Supporters of this approach include Allérès (2006), Kapferer (1998, 2001), Castarède (2003), Valtin (2004), Meffert and Lasslop (2003), and Vernier and Ghewy (2006). For instance, according to Kapferer (1998), luxury brand contain four categories; whereby every category depends on clear groups of attributes identified by end-user divisions.

1. The first division recognises “Splendour of the item”, Quality of the goods”, “Delightfulness”, and “Exclusiveness” as the most important elements. Cartier Hermes and Roll-Royce are some of the brands which fall under this group.
2. The second division positions “Inventiveness” and “Commodity Sensuality” as the most core elements, having less significance placed on “Exclusiveness” and “Product Quality”. Gucci, T. Mugler and Boss fall under this category.
3. The third division focuses on the “Splendour” and “delightfulness” of the commodity, stressing the conventional appeal and the notion that this category shall always remain in fashion. Dunhill and Louis Vuitton fall within this category.
4. The fourth division considers uniqueness as one of the essential elements. The key appeal of this group is the little number of end-user who owns, or who are capable of purchasing the brands commodities and design a unique image achievable only by a little number of individuals. Chivas is an example of this category (replicating the end-user’s choice).

In contrast, the consumer-oriented approach aims to identify the constitutive traits of luxury products by conducting an empirical study on the consumers that purchase such products (Heine and Phan, 2011). Dubois, Laurent and Czellar (2001) adopt this approach and propose the most acceptable definition of the nature and characteristics of luxury. They identify six facets of luxury goods based on research into consumer perception, conducted in 20 countries.

Table 2.3 The six main facets of luxury

1. Superior quality	Exceptional craftsmanship, expertise and superior quality and ingredients
2. Very high price	Elite, Premium pricing and expensive
3. Scarcity and exclusivity	Customised, Limited number, and restricted distribution
4. Polysensuality and Aesthetics	Dream, beauty and piece of art
5. Personal history and Ancestral heritage	Tradition, pass on to generations, long history
6. Superfluousness	Non-functional, uselessness

2.3. Customer Value

2.3.1. Definitions of customer value

Using the value concept often times means that you have to go through a complex and multifaceted process that frequently will yield different definitions; not only among consumers (Zeithaml, 1988) and practitioners (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996), but also researchers (Lai, 1995). Therefore, it becomes extremely abstract and polysemous (Gallarza and Saura, 2006), regardless of its qualification as an amorphous concept (Zeithaml and Bitner, 1996). Jensen (1996) adds that these studies have not produced any definitive interpretation in regards to the facts, nor on any normative implications for implementing a Marketing strategy.

In making an effort to consolidate all of the different definitions, Woodruff (1997) formulate a theory that, ultimately, customer value is the customer’s preference for, or the evaluation of, certain product attributes, performances and consequences that arise from their use. These either facilitate or block the achievement of a consumer’s personal goals and purpose in various situations, which can be evaluated both pre and post-product use. This type of in-depth conceptualisation that unites different pre and post-use settings along with other cognitive tasks and assessments provides questionable measurements and raises some serious concerns; therefore, it is implausible (Parasuraman 1997).

Holbrook (1994) proposed a definition of customer value as a “relativistic, interactive preference and experience,” which was somewhat similar to Woodruff’s definition. While both definitions are problematic to understand, they are intended to ostensibly capture at least some of the main faces of customer value. Moreover, both comprise the selective perception by individual customers, relativity which is made up of both imagined and known substitutes, and contextual, which depends on the person, the situation and the product. The definition also comprises another characteristic called dynamism, which is the changes within the customer’s thought over a period (Ulaga and Chacour, 2001). Other definitions (e.g., Gale, 1994; Heard, 1993-1994; Zeithaml, 1988) suggest that customer value is identified by looking into what the customer receives in terms of quality, benefits, and utility by purchasing a product, in comparison with what they pay in return; that is, the cost, sacrifices. Subsequently, the consumer develops an emotional bond with the brand (Butz and Goodstein, 1996).

The previous approach offers a popular definition of customer value and has consequently influences a raft of studies that have been based on the give-versus-get concept (Monroe, 2003, Lovelock, 1996; Martin Ruiz *et al.*, 2008). Nevertheless, other authors (e.g., Smith and Colgate, 2007 and Parasuraman, 1997) propose a lack of clarity when it comes to the customer value being summative or a ratio-based evaluation, which are the benefits divided by the sacrifices, or whether it comprises compensatory or non-compensatory rules. But, there is a myriad of other competing definitions presented in the following Table.

Table 2.4. Definition of customer-perceived value

Authors	Definition of Customer-Perceived Value
Zeithaml (1988)	A perceived value is a consumer’s overall estimation of the importance of a product, which is based on what the consumer receives and what they pay.
Day (1990)	The surplus between the customer’s supposed benefits and the customer’s supposed costs is termed as the perceived customer value.
Monroe (1990)	The perceptions of a customer regarding value stand for the benefits of the quality they perceive a product offers, which is then related to the sacrifices they have made by paying the given price for said product.
Lichtenstein, Netemeyer and Burton (1990)	The pleasure gained from taking advantage of the monetary terms of a price deal is termed as perceived transaction value. This can also be defined as the perception of obtaining satisfaction psychologically.
Dodds, Monroe and Grewal (1991)	Perceived customer value is the proportion of the professed benefits in relation to perceived sacrifice.
Gale (1994)	The customer value is basically the perceived quality that has been adjusted for the cost of the product. In other words, it is the opinion of the customer of a product rather than that of your competition.
Holbrook (1994)	Customer value is considered a relativistic (personal, situational and comparative) preference which basically characterises a customer’s experience when interacting with an object. For instance, any goods, services, people, things or events.
Woodruff (1997)	Customer value is the preferences of the customer for an evaluation of a product, the reasons for its use and individual product attributes, which either facilitate or block the customer from reaching their goals in various situations.
Patterson and Spreng (1997)	Value is the compared outcome of cognition. Value is based on cognition and is the difference between benefits and sacrifices which gain from expected and perceived performance.
Sirdeshmukh, D., Singh, J. and Sabol, B (2002)	Customer value is the consumer’s perceptions of the benefits take away the costs of preserving a relationship in progress with a service render.

It is clear from the previous Table that the focal theme of the existing definitions in the Marketing literature is consideration of customer value as a trade-off concept between the relevant benefits and sacrifices related to a service provider, as assessed by the consumers.

These definitions demonstrate that the value for the customer relates to his/her consumption experience of buying and using a product/service; moreover, consumer perceptions cannot be clarified objectively by the firm.

Unfortunately, there is a remarkably slight agreement in the literature concerning conception and notation in this field of research. Furthermore, the term “customer value” is estimated using various approaches in the literature of Marketing (Woodruff, 1997). There is no concrete definition when it comes to customer value; however, there are two that dominate:

- *Customer value from a company perspective*: In this perspective, the consumer value is vital to the organisation. the main target here is to find out how smart individual clients, or in other words, customer lifetime, or the customer groups give rise to a firm’s perspective This particular research topic had become increasingly in the last few years (Krafft, Rudolf, and Rudolf-Sipötz, 2005; Rust, Lemon and Zeithaml, 2004). It is therefore carefully associated with relationship Marketing whose aim is to cultivate and create business relationships with special clients that are profitable (Graf and Maas, 2008).

- *Customer value from a customer perspective*: The most important thing here is the value generated by a product or service and its qualities, which are perceived by the customer in relation to specific goals, and the desire to purchase a product or service (Graf and Maas, 2008). This study concentrates on the customer perspective and refers to this as “customer value” (CV).

2.3.2. Importance of CV

The CV study is becoming increasingly important for both the scholars and marketers. For instance, the definition of Marketing has been revised in the American Marketing Association to create room for the CV notion. From this action have emerged meaningful discussions in the literature pertaining to the chief logic in the field and over the primary duty of CV (American Marketing Association, 2006; Graf and Maas, 2008).

1- The CV concept in Marketing discipline has meaningful epistemological implications. The importance of customer concept has emerged from the growth of two fundamental facets of consumer behaviour; the psychological facet (where CV is connected to the cognitive and emotional influences on product choice) and economic facet (where CV relates to perceived price through what is known as transaction value) (Gallarza, Saura and Holbrook, 2011). Therefore, it has been so since early research applied the value concept: the pioneering work of Thaler (1985) on the value function is based on both economic theory and cognitive psychology. Other research efforts confirm the significance of properly conceptualising value in economics, by stressing its subjective nature (Stuhr, 2003). The value concept is vital to Marketing theory and, subsequently, to explaining consumer behaviour. For example, Kotler (1972) defines Marketing as an exchange process in which each party has something that might be of value to the other. In the same vein, Hunt (1976) stresses the value of transactions. Finally, the American Association (2004) modified its definition of Marketing to include the role of the "value": *''Marketing is an organisational function and a set of process for creating, communicating and delivering the value to customers and for managing customer relationships in ways that benefit the organisation and its stakeholder.''*

2- CV is considered a critical element in consumer behaviour because it helps explain different areas of pre and post-purchase behaviour; for example, product choice (e.g. Zeithaml, 1988), purchase intention (e.g. Dodds and Monroe, 1985), customer loyalty, positive word-of-mouth, customer retention, higher market share and profits (Kainth and Verma, 2011). Moreover, most relationship Marketing is built on a recently understood notion of CV, again placing the value at the core of the current approach to serving customers (Ravald and Grönroos, 1996; Lin and Wang, 2006). In other words, the relationship Marketing perspective provides new insight on the value notion that stresses both the affective commitment to a company (Pura, 2005) and repeat purchase (Petrick, 2003). As the effective commitment to a service provider and repeat purchase is vital to the full understanding of loyalty behaviour (Dick and Basu, 1994). Consequently, the CV links frequently to customer loyalty (Cronin, Brady, and Hult, 2000; Oh, 2003; Grace and O'Cass, 2005) in both Marketing research (Parasuraman and Grewal, 2000) and Marketing Management (Bolton *et al.*, 2000).

3- The CV concept is related inevitably to primary Marketing constructs, such as service quality, perceived price, and customer satisfaction. A fruitful research led by Monroe (1979, 1990) has its origins in the price perceptions study. The first studies in this stream led to the dichotomy of transaction value versus acquisition value, which has been considered as a key point to all following value research (e.g., Agarwal and Teas, 2004; Al-Sabbahy *et al.*, 2004; Jayanti and Ghosh, 1996; Kwon and Schumann, 2001; Oh, 2003; Teas and Agarwal, 2000; Wood and Scheer, 1996). More recently, the debate shifted to issues concerning the difference between quality and satisfaction which led to an emphasis on the value conceptualisation (e.g., Bolton and Drew, 1991; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Ostrom and Iacobucci, 1995). In the second half of the decade, efforts were made to deepen understanding of the difference between value and satisfaction as the main aspects of consumer behaviour (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996; Parasuraman 1997; Woodruff, 1997; Weinstein and Johnson, 1999).

4- The concept of value is recognised as key fundamental to the comprehension of Marketing Management (Nilson, 1992; Gale, 1994; Day, 1999). The requirement of restructuring a firm’s theory based on CV that will arrange more comprehensively the existing conceptual research (Slater, 1997). From a managerial perspective, the value concept pertains to three critical strategic marketing foundations: product differentiation (Heskett *et al.*, 1997); market segmentation (Tellis and Gaeth, 1990) and brand positioning (Adrvidsson, 2006). In fact, Holbrook (1995) proposes (as cited from Gallarza, Saura and Holbrook, 2011) that when the firm can gain a competitive advantage by positioning its brand as close as possible to the ideal point of unsatisfied consumers, by considering the combination of features – attribute- and- benefits as an ideal point, can maximise the CV for a specific consumer target. Therefore, the differential advantages can be achieved consistently by maximising CV (Gale, 1994, Woodruff and Gardial, 1996; Woodruff, 1997; Day, 1999; Weinstein and Johnson, 1999; Arvidsson, 2006).

5- It is clear that CV concept is essential when studying Marketing from both a synchronic (viewed at a moment in time) and diachronic perspective (pertaining to changes over time). Synchronically, the concept of CV enhances the manifest roots of Marketing thought in terms of the exchange relationship itself and to the products nature offered in the market. Diachronically, the different paradigm changes in Marketing as a discipline have often incorporated the concept of CV. On the one hand, from a dynamic perspective, Levitt (1960) makes his key contribution ‘‘Marketing Myopia’’ based a subjectivist and debatably one-sided importance of CV (Holbrook, 1999). Recently, Zeithaml and Bitner (1996) emphasise that value was the customer priority of the 1990s. Over time, in the current model shift, Vargo and Lusch (2004) propose a conceptualisation of service dominant, which is encompassed and subsumed within the concept of CV (Grönroos, 2008). As a result of this double-feast synchronic/diachronic significance of CV concept, the Marketing members have sustained an enduring concern in facets on value concept for nearly 40 years; therefore, Marketing and consumer researchers pay sustained attention to the CV. However, Table 2.4 presents historical studies for researchers interested in the study of value. It is clear from the Table that there is a constant call relating to poor of solid theoretical model or well-founded empirical grounds. Inconsistently, problems in value research remain unsolved and sometimes seem endemic to the very concept of value.

2.3.3. Research approaches to the operationalisation of value

The literature review provides two essential research approaches to operationalisation CV:

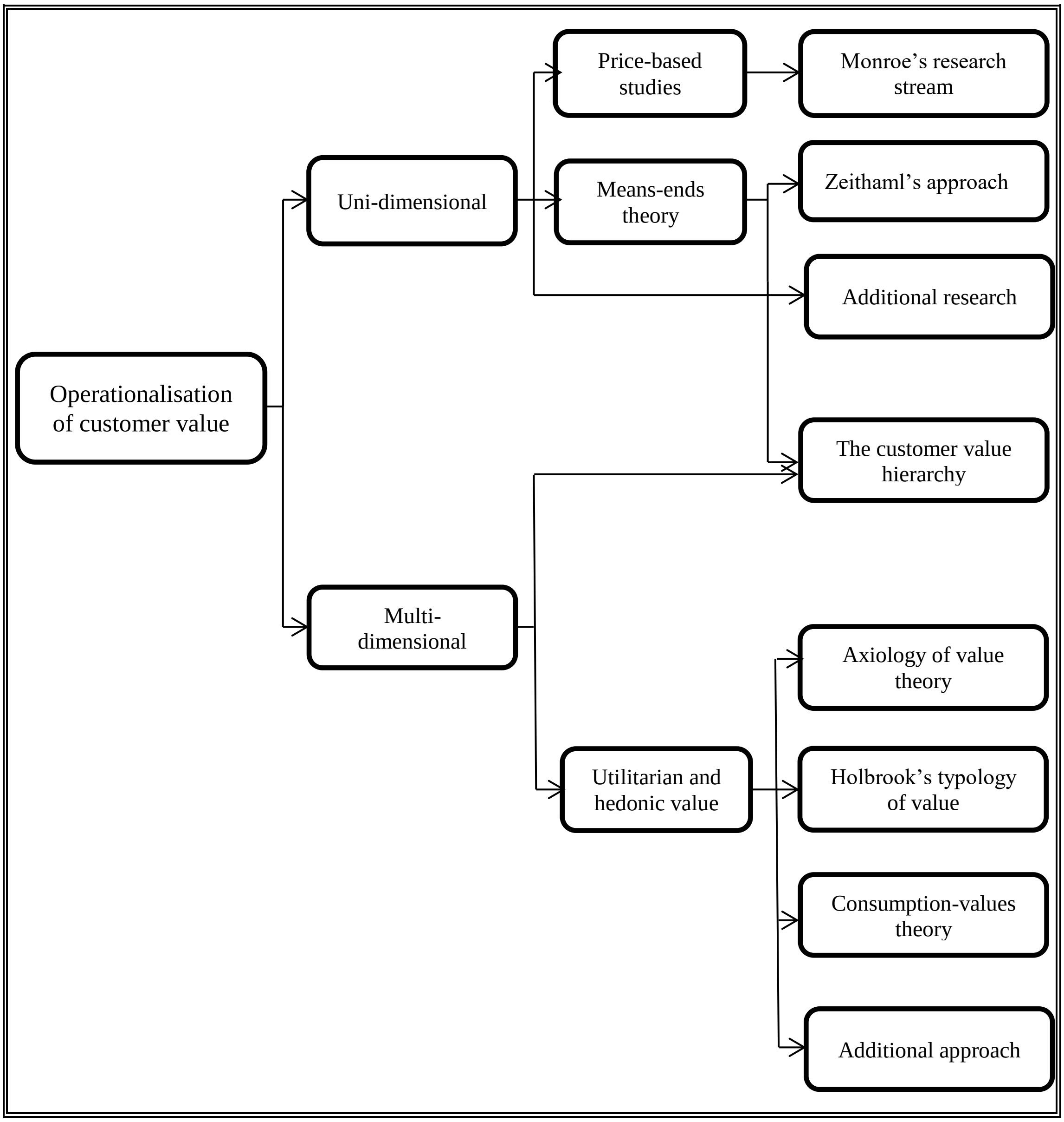


Figure 2.1 Reserach streams on percieved value

Source: Adapted from (Sánchez-fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007)

2.3.3.1. One-dimensional approaches to perceived value

This approach considers perceived value as a one-dimensional construct and stands for the earlier stages and the beginning of the perceived value concept. In this case, CV is created as a sole general concept. This concept can be measured by a set of items or even one item that help to measure the perception of the customer concerning its value (e.g., Dodds, 1991;Kerin, Jain, Howard, 1992; Chang and Wildt, 1994; Hartline and Jones, 1996; Brady and Robertson, 1999; Sweeney, Soutar and Johnson, 1999;Agarwal and Teas, 2002). This approach suggests that a single dimensional construct can be created by the results of various past experiences. However, this viewpoint does not imply that the value is a collective notion derived from various components.

From this perspective, the perceived value is constructed fundamentally from a practical point of view, whereas an economic and cognitive reasoning is brought in to evaluate benefits and sacrifices (Iniesta-Bonillo and Sánchez-fernández, 2007). However, while effective and straightforward, one-dimensional conceptualisation strategy cannot discern the complex nature of perceived value (Lin, Sher, and Shih, 2005). Soutar and Sweeney (2001) also quote that ‘a more comprehensive measure is important to help us understand how the end-users value services and products’. Table 2.5 illustrates the major researches conducted in this area.

Table 2.5: One-dimensional research streams of perceived value

Research stream	Illustrative contributions
Monroe’s proposition	Wood and Scheer (1996); Teas and Agarwal (2000); Oh (2003); Monroe and Krishnan (1985); Monroe and Chapman (1987); Monroe (1979, 1990); Monroe and Grewal (1991); Li *et al.* (1994); Grewal *et al.* (1998); Dodds and Monroe (1985); Agarwal and Teas (2001, 2002, 2004).
Means-ends theory (Zeithaml’s approach)	Zeithaml (1988); Sweeney, Soutar and Johnson (1999); Spreng *et al.* (1993); Lapierre, Filiatrault and Chebat (1999); Kerin, Jain, Howard (1992); Hartline and Jones (1996); Gould-Williams (1999); Chang and Wildt (1994); Brady and Robertson (1999); Bolton and Drew (1991); Baker *et al.* (2004) Bradley and Sparks (2012).
Additional approach	Ulaga and Chacour (2001); Thaler (1985); Sinha and DeSarbo (1998); McDougall and Levesque (2000); Laitamäki and Kordupleski (1997); Kwon and Schumann (2001); Grewal *et al.* (1998); Gallarza and Gil (2006); DeSarbo *et al.* (2001); Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000); Cronin *et al.* (1997); Chen and Dubinsky (2003); Caruana *et al.* (2000); Blackwell *et al.* (1999); Bei and Heslin (1997); Andreassen and Lindestad (1998).

Source: Adapted from (Sánchez-fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007)

Monroe’s research stream

This research stream is grounded in the pricing theory; the first study in this trend concentrates on categorising and investigating the quality-price association (Monroe and

Krishnan, 1985; Monroe and Chapman, 1987; Dodds and Monroe, 1998); thereby contributing to the primary operationalisation of CV as a “cognitive choice between excellence and sacrifice insight” (Dodds, Monroe and Grewal, 1991). According to Dodds (1991), the price of a commodity impacts negatively on its value. However, an optimistic influence on the perspective of a commodity quality and peripheral indicators, such as brand name, store name and cost, influence positively alleged quality and the value of the commodity (Agarwal and Teas, 2004; Dodds, Monroe and Grewal, 1991; Teas and Agarwal, 2000).

In regard to this perception, the value’s experiential conceptualisation handles these elements as precursors of value, instead of enlightening elements of CV, even though CV is expressed formally in relation to the quality-price correlation. The economic theory of the consumer and the utility concept was the foundation for the initial conceptualisation of perceived value. Additionally, researchers have explored more in regard to these streams by initiating various indicators of CV, like an efficient component (Li, Monroe and Chan, 1994); a reflection of probable risk (Agarwal and Tea, 2001; Wood and Scheer, 1996); and alleged well-built reflection (Grewal *et al.*, 1998) and cost equality perception (Oh, 2003).

Means-ends theory (Zeithaml’s approach):

This theory is grounded on the supposition that end-users obtain and utilise commodities or services to achieve enjoyable results. This perception is common in the literature of end-user behaviour; specifically, where individual value, mental icons or cognitive images fundamental to end-users goals and wants are used to define value (Rokeach, 1973; Gutman, 1982; de Chernatony *et al.*, 2000).

According to Herrmann, Huber and Braunstein (2001), the “means-end” theory, the link between various product attributes, the consequences produced via utilisation, and individual value, all play a big part in the user’s decision-making process (Gutman, 1991). In this way, the means are the products or the services offered, and the ends are any personal value perceived by the customer.

The “Means-end” theory explains how having the choice of product or service allows a consumer to attain his or her desire. Furthermore, Herrmann, Huber and Braunstein (2001) declare that a consumer is able to obtain their desire by the consumption of various products or services, either directly or indirectly at a later time. They also stress that all consumers choose products which are able to yield the desired results and minimise any undesired consequences (Olsen and Reynolds, 1983; Peter and Olson, 1990). They state the value offers the direction, and the consequences determine the consumer’s selection, while the attributes create the consequences. There have been many studies that have accepted the “means-end” theory as an explanation for the various aspects of a behaviour in consumers (e.g., Botschen *et al.*, 1999; Maniywa and Crawford, 2002; Baker *et al.*, 2004; Brunso *et al.*, 2004; Mitchell and Harris, 2005).

Zeithaml (1988) used the means-end theory to work on a model which was first suggested by Dodds and Monroe (1985), who brought forth CV based on the same quality-price relationship. Zeithaml (1988) pointed out four types of consumer definitions when it comes to value: (1) Low cost (more focused towards sacrifice); (2) Whatever the consumer looked for in a product (focused on the benefits of a product of service; (3) Quality in exchange for a price (the trade-off between sacrifice and benefit); and (4) The total amount of benefits obtained from the total amount of sacrifice made (focused on all relevant components).

Consequently, a means-end model was discovered by Zeithaml (1988), whereby an order of variables is realised according to their concept level. This theoretical model delivers a wide-ranging perception of the correlations between the perceptions of alleged cost, excellence, and value. In regard to this theoretical model, consumers evaluate goods according to individual characteristics (like their cost discernment, value, and excellence) instead of on their purpose characteristics (like actual cost actual excellence/quality). Furthermore, in the means-end model, value (e.g. quality) must be positioned at the peak of the hierarchy model because of its nature as a concept of high level. Nevertheless, there are two ways that make quality differ; (a) quality or excellence is less personal and special than value, and (b) lower-level perception than value. For that reason, the theoretical model by Zeithaml (1998) demonstrates that the alleged cost and alleged sacrifice are discernments of lower-level characteristics; the alleged excellence is a higher-level characteristic; and the alleged value is a higher-level component contingent from alleged sacrifice and excellence.

Furthermore, Zeithaml (1988) discriminates the product attributes into extrinsic cues and intrinsic cues, where the former are characteristics associated with the commodity without being a product's component. Contrary, fundamental indicators are hypothesised characteristics that are components of the objective commodity's composition. The product's nature has to be altered while changing such characteristics, and these attributes are consumed together with the commodity. The writer as well proposed an outstanding variation between purpose characteristics and discernments of them or personal attributes. Finally, Zeithaml (1988) proposes that relative or situational aspects might impact on the creation of value perceptions and that alleged value is fundamental to the impact of the end-user's structure of reference.

The conceptualisation of Monroe (1979, 1990) and Zeithaml (1988) is used in various studies as an exit point for their individual underlying value's models. For instance, Bolton and Drew (1991) provide a multistage model of service evaluations (value), whereby they teamed up the proposition by Zeithaml (1988) that value might be model-specific. Furthermore, the elements of quality were assessed in a different way when evaluating value as distinctive from quality, despite the influence of cost and service quality on the alleged service value within the model.

Consequently, the value model is irregular across persons and various perspectives as disputed by Brady and Robertson (1999) who approve the proposition of Bolton and Drew (1991) and Zeithaml (1988). The impact that price, commodity quality and shopping familiarity had on value discernments of a trade store (instead of products discernment); the wrapped up that the shopping familiarity had a remarkable impact on the value of the store than the effect of product quality and price.

Similarly, a vibrant model of value that considered the impacts of expectations, cravings, and discernments of the performance of alleged value is provided by Spreng *et al.* (1993). As well, the effect of objective cost and commodity awareness on purchasing aim via cost, alleged value and quality are examined by Chang and Wildt (1994); their opinions concur generally with those of previous research rches, regardless of the model excluding the function of perceived price as an intermediary variable in the model.

Likewise, the correlation between alleged sacrifice and alleged value is stronger than the correlation between alleged product excellence and alleged value (Lapierre, Filiatrault, and Chebat, 1999). According to Soutar and Johnson (1999), alleged risk is a considerable moderator of quality – value correlation. Finally, the model of Zeithaml (1988) was approved by Baker *et al.* (2002) by verifying in the retail setting that store benefaction aims are a function of products value, service quality and cost discernments shopping familiarity.

Additional approaches to a one-dimensional method

It is possible to identify additional research that does not fit neatly within previous approaches, but which are framed with a one-dimensional perspective. Some of these studies seek to investigate CV through certain variables; for example, Andreassen and Lindestad (1998) explain the perceived value through corporate image, whereas Cronin, Brady, and Hult (2000) use the quality and sacrifice to interpret the CV. In addition, Chen and Dubinsky (2003) use the perceived risk and the valence of experience. Recently, service quality, play, social value, aesthetics, and time and effort spent are used to analyse CV (Gallarza and Gil, 2006). To measure CV perceptions, some authors adopt a single indicator (Caruana, Money and Berthon, 2000; McDougall and Levesque, 2000); while others employ numerous components (Andreassen and Lindestad, 1998; Blackwell *et al.*, 1999; Cronin, Brady, and Hult, 2000; Chen and Dubinsky, 2003; Gallarza and Gil, 2006).

According to Cronin *et al.* (1997), it is possible to conceptualise the value as a multiplicative and stabilising function of sacrifice and benefit. In this particular multiplicative model, the proportion in which profit is the numerator while sacrifice is the denominator is termed as value. The multiplicative model has been used in the literature review (Zeithaml, 1988 and Dodds, Monroe and Grewal, 1991); however, this collective dependence on a geometric arrangement of perceived value is actually inconsistent with the results from other studies according to Cronin *et al.* (1997), and also Evans (1991), Lynch (1985) and Thaler (1985). However, the additive approach identifies gives more information on the compensatory trade-off that exists between ‘give’ and ‘get’. Furthermore, it considers the integrative nature of the components of ‘give’ and ‘get’, a process that appears to be more natural (Cronin *et al.*, 1997). The result is the difference, which demonstrates that the trade-off is created as an additive, rather than a multiplicative, function (DeSarbo, Jedidi and Sinha; 2001).

Consistently, Thaler (1985) merges the theory of microeconomic and cognitive theory to stress that the end-users mental accounting in situations of choice, which involve services and goods explained by multiple attributes, is solely based on the amount of transaction and acquisition utilities. The acquisition value reflects an assessment between perceived benefit and actual product price, whereas the transaction value reveals an evaluation between consumer's internal reference price and the actual price offered by the supplier. This standpoint is posited in pricing theory where the consume perceptions of price is used as a focal element of value. It is from Thaler's additive approach that other researchers have merged this concept of value into their own conceptual models (Grewal, Monroe and Krishnan 1998; Kwon and Schumann, 2001).

2.3.3.2. Multidimensional approaches to perceived value

Similar to a one-dimensional approach for the perceived value, other studies adopt the multidimensional method. (See Table 2.6)

Table 2.6. Multidimensional research streams of perceived value

Research stream	Illustrative contributions
Means-end theory (The CV hierarchy)	Woodruff and Gardial (1996); Woodruff (1997); van der Haar *et al.* (2001); Parasuraman (1997); Overby *et al.* (2005); Overby *et al.* (2004); Anitsal and Flint (2005).
Utilitarian and hedonic value	Lee and Overby (2004); Chiu *et al.* (2005); Babin *et al.* (1994); Babin and Kim (2001); Babin and Babin (2001); Babin and Attaway (2000).
Axiology or value theory	Mattsson (1991); Lemmink, de Ruyter and Wetzela. (1998); Huber, Herrmann, and Braunstein (2000); Hartman (1967, 1973); de Ruyter *et al.* (1997); Danaher and Mattsson (1994, 1998).
Consumption-value theory	Wang *et al.* (2004); Williams and Soutar (2000); Sweeney *et al.* (1996); Sweeney and Soutar (2001); Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991a, 1991b); Pura (2005).
Holbrook's typology of perceived value	Wagner (1999); Solomon (1999); Smith (1996, 1999); Richins (1994, 1999); Oliver (1996, 1999); Mathwick, Malhotra and Rigdon (2001); Leclerc and Schmitt (1999); Kim (2002); Holbrook and Corfman (1985); Holbrook (1994, 1996, 1999); Brown (1999); Bourdeau *et al.* (2002); Bevan and

	Murphy (2001).
Additional approach in multidimensional approach	Woodall (2003); Ulaga and Chacour (2001); Park, Jaworski, and Macinnis (1986); Heard (1993); Hennigs et al (2012); Hennigs et al, (2015).

Source: Adopted from (Sánchez-fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007)

Means-end theory (The CV hierarchy):

The whole purpose of the means-end theory is to get an idea of the choice of the consumer when it comes to buying a product or services for that matter that in turn, enables them to reach towards the desired result (Gutman, 1982). This makes it the perfect umbrella term for the set of processes which can be used for carrying out customer interviews to find out the reasons behind their decisions (Olson and Reynolds, 2001). This theory presents a hierarchical presentation on how different customers make assessments on different products and services (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996) (Figure 2.2).

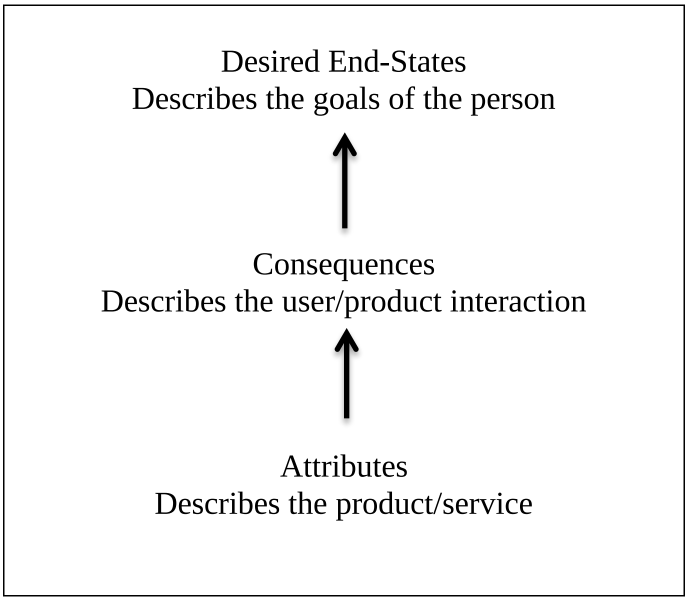


Figure 2.2 Value hierarchy

Source: Adapted from (Laukkanen, 2007)

This approach, whereby the products relate to the consumer, is also represented by three abstractions; attributes, consequences and desired end results. The attributes refer to the product or service, whereas the consequences refer to the benefits that the customer seeks, while the end result of a product's consumption is the ultimate end, which is offered by the product or service (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996). The concept of a hierarchy is one where the intensity of the abstractions increases while moving from a lower to a higher level.

Peter and Olson (2005) also emphasise that Marketing managers and practitioners need to understand the three levels of a consumer product or a service when it comes to developing effective Marketing strategies.

Utilitarian and hedonic value

Although utilitarian and hedonic dimensions are fundamental components of consumption process (Babin, Darden and Griffin, 1994), Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) note that early research ignored the hedonic component of consumption process from an experiential view; therefore, they established a value measurement that assessed consumer's evaluation of a consumption experience along the dimensions of:

- Utilitarian value: instrumental, functional, cognitive, rational and means to an end
- Hedonic value: representing the emotional principle of consumption experience; effective, non-instrumental and experiential.

Other studies operationalised consumption experience regarding utilitarian and hedonic dimensions. For example, a proposed model was tested by Babin and Attaway (2000), where a patron's repeated behaviour in regards to their purchases is the function of the effects experienced by the customer while shopping and its perceived personal shopping value. Consistent with the previous view, Babin and Kim (2001) conceptualise multidimensional value in the tourism literature. Babin and Babin (2001) have also introduced another attempt, who examined the influence of many Marketing components on CV. Chiu *et al.*, (2005) has taken the conceptualisations of value as a point of departure to explain the relationships among the hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of CV and customer loyalty. In addition, Overby and Lee (2006) examine the relationship between utilitarian and hedonic value dimensions, preference for Internet retailers, and intentions. Recently, Hanzaee and Rezaeyeh (2013) investigated the effect of hedonic and utilitarian values on customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions in the restaurant setting. However, the previous studies provide the foundation for further research into conceptualising the customer shopping value as a multidimensional construct.

Axiology or value theory:

Hartman (1967) proposes three components of CV; intrinsic, extrinsic and systemic value. Intrinsic value reflects the emotional appreciation of shopping experience, while extrinsic value represents the functional consumption of a specific product or service as a tool to a particular goal. Finally, the systemic value represents the logical facets of the integral relationships among the conceptual ideas in their systemic interaction such as the relationship between the returns and sacrifices. However, Mattsson (1991) adopts the previous axiological model and replaces three generic value realms:

- *Practical dimension* of the perceived value focuses on the functional side of the consumption.
- *Emotional dimension* of the perceived value reflects the affective status of consumers.
- *Logical dimension* of perceived value represents the rational of the purchase decision.

The previous adaptation hypothesises the emotional element as being greater than the functional element. Accordingly, this is hypothesised as a being greater than logical dimension. Researchers apply three-dimensional conceptualisation of the perceived value to many disciplines, such as philosophy, business administration, education, social psychology and psychology (Danaher and Mattsson, 1994).

The structure of perceived value as a three-dimensional construct is applied in the service setting by many studies. For example, Danaher and Mattsson (1994) implement the axiological model of perceived value and confirm that their three value realms are considered antecedents of customer satisfaction. Likewise, De Ruyter *et al.* (1997) conducted a cross-cultural study to investigate the various stages of the service and delivery process. This can be described in terms of the three axiological value dimensions, and how each stage relates to the consumer’s overall satisfaction.

On the basis of axiology, Lemmink, de Ruyter and Wetzela (1998) also examined, in a restaurant setting, how value evolves during the course of the service delivery process. As a final point, the “perceived risk” dimension is added by Huber, Herrmann and Braunstein (2000) to the three-dimensional conceptualisation of CV.

Holbrook's typology of perceived value

Holbrook (1994) defines perceived value as an interactive and relativistic preference experience, and proposes a typology of perceived value that share some of the major points with the research, as mentioned above.

Holbrook's typology of CV considers the origin of the motivation for an assessment of value, that is, extrinsic against intrinsic. He also contemplates the orientation of an assessment of value, that is, self-oriented against other-oriented together with the value assessment's nature, that is, active nature against inactive This value typology comprises eight types of value (Holbrook, 1999):

- The output or the input ratio or the convenience is termed as efficiency. This can simply be defined as the value perceived from an active change of means used in a quest for a self-oriented end
- The perceived value which is related with a distanced apprehension or a friendly admiration is termed as quality or excellence in the concept of value
- Politics: this is the perceived value of an individual's own experience on utilisation as a method to attain a positive response from another person
- The perceived value from the reactive deliberation of a person's status as outlined in other people's opinion is termed as esteem
- In the typology of value, the perceived value of an active self-oriented practice which is enjoyed for its own sake is termed as fun or play
- Beauty is the perceived value of a fundamentally reactive appreciation and which plays the role of its own end
- The perceived value from an ethical act which is aimed at favouring others is simply termed as virtue or morality

- Spirituality simply means ecstasy or faith which means the devotional experience in perceived value

While some researchers regard Holbrook’s (1994, 1999) typology as the most comprehensive and detailed explanation of describing perceived value (Sa’nchez-Ferna-ndez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007), a quick review reveals a significant dearth of critical reflection. Only Sa’nchez-Ferna’ndez *et al.* (2009) and Mathwick, Malhotra, Rigdon (2001) appear to adopt the same model to examine perceived value by conducting studies on online shopping and a vegetarian restaurant. Moreover, the typology has a clear conceptual basis; that is, it is more consumer outcome and meaning-focused, and does not capture the exact CV construct (Smith and Colgate, 2007).

Additional approach in the multidimensional approach

Along with the research streams, it is also possible to identify various other proposals as well which strictly belong to any of these approaches that have been framed with a multidimensional view. For instance, in the initial conceptualisation of CVs, Park Jaworski and Macinnis (1986) offer three basic consumer values that reflect precisely the proposed value dimensions; symbolic values, functional values, and experimental values. Nevertheless, this typology iremains unable to capture the cost/sacrifice aspect of CV, neither does it suggest any sub-dimensions of the higher-order constructs. The more recent models also focus on CV when it comes to specific contexts. Ulaga and Chacour (2001), for instance, identify eight groups of value that comprise a business relationship: product quality; direct product cost; time of delivery to the market; the process costs; supplier know-how; personal interaction; and service support. Ulaga and Chacour (2001) also identify three specific benefits which are reflective of a type; while Smith and Colgate (2007) claim the agenda is relatively simple regarding defining the value of the relationship between different types of CV, which they perceive in a business model.

Woodall (2003) proposes a list of five basic types of value for the client, which is the VC. The first one is the net VC which involves the sacrifices and the balance of profits. The second value is the derived VC, which refers to the results and the uses. The third type is the Marketing VC, which involves the attribute of the perceived product, while the sales value is the fourth type of value, which in simple terms is the decrease in the cost or sacrifice value. The last outlined type of value is the rational value, which involves the relative comparison of a fair assessment of the benefit-sacrifice.

This model is considered the best comprehensive of all the previous models. On the other hand, Woodall points out many distinct types of value which are related with his highest order which is the derived VC, the Marketing, and the sales VC components (Smith and Colgate, 2007). Conversely, there is a substantial diversity in the categories considering that similar benefits are outlined under various headings. Additionally, the sacrifices and the benefits realised do not completely scrutinise the realm of the higher-order value aspect. Furthermore, Woodall does not probe the sub-aspect of CV whereby descriptive instances might include specific sacrifices and benefits. The model is made intricate to utilise for creating a measure of prime aspects of CV by these limitations.

Finally, Heard (1993) suggests a different perspective by conceptualising CV regarding three elements; product characteristics, delivered orders and transaction experiences that are the primary output of three key business process (designing process, making process and Marketing process). If a company is to maximise CV, its products, orders and transition experience must be correct, timely, appropriate and commercial. The three value sources' design is prudent (commodity attributes, transaction familiarity, and delivered products), though other company's processes initiate the rest of sources.

In summary, understanding CV in various perspectives, and which formation approaches are more or less suitable in specific perspectives, is core to Marketing strategy and Marketing notion. In either Marketing or pricing research, it has not been easy to use, but due to contending descriptions and contending conceptualisations, customer value's structure and typologies; operationalising the CV component is not completely well-matched to any of these. According to Lapierre (2000); Menon Homburg and Beutin, (2005), the concern is supposed to be determined and measures created before experimental studies can appropriately tackle core CV research question and enhance early efforts at measurement. The current research attempts to address this issue by developing a beneficial typology of CV creation. Thus, the current study adopts the standpoint of the customer.

2.4. Conceptualising the Luxury CV

Vigneron and Johnson (2004) created a model of "brand luxury indicator" suggesting that the luxury-seeking consumer's process of making decision can be clarified in five major aspects. These create a semantic network and they are motivated by the work of Laurent and Dubois (1994), Mason (1992) and Dubois, Czellar and Laurent (2001) on luxury brands assessment. They further modified this categorisation by shifting to the bandwagon impact to an individual impact and the perfectionism impact to an interpersonal impact (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). The writer is aware of the argument covering the two, particularly when reflecting on global consumers' behaviour.

Some authors suggest a hierarchical formation of luxury value consisted of four concealed luxury values (functional, personal, social and financial) (Bourdieu, 1986). The financial value is evaluated in regard to price value only. Usability, quality, and exclusiveness values determine the functional value. Social and personal values distinguish and anticipate possessing specific self-identity, hedonic and materialistic, and conspicuous and prestige features, correspondingly.

Moreover, this model provides rich information pertaining to functional value by integrating exclusiveness and usability values. In contrast, the discussion does not provide a clear indication of how the exclusiveness value of luxury brands can provide the consumer with functional value. To reflect the luxury products' nature and dynamic creation of value by consumers, Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon (2010) expound the kinds of value established in the earlier theories and studies. The authors establish quality and craftsmanship according to the utilitarian value (Holbrook, 1999).

The correctness and suitability of commodity attributes, performances and results are stretched vertically to symbolise an outstanding intensity of utilitarian excellence and craftsmanship. The other type of value (hedonic value) is personal intangible benefits like hedonic impact, familiarity and artistic. This type of value anticipates being imperative in the utilisation of luxury style products. Earlier studies establish the experimental nature of expressive responses, including sensory enjoyment, aesthetic attractiveness, and pleasure, to luxury utilisation (Roux, 1996).

Concepts and theories relevant to the third category of symbolic/expressive value are grouped into self-directed and outward-directed (social) values. Well-recognised human social needs including differentiation of self from others (snob), conforming to others (bandwagon) and conspicuous showing off (Veblen) are all considered. Self-directed symbolic/expressive value includes self-identity and self-focused aspects of uniqueness and authenticity. Symbolic/expressive values, specifically outward-oriented symbolic/expressive values, have been considered as a focal concept in explaining the consumption of luxury goods.

Relational value is alleged benefits from an affiliation with a brand, the brand community and/or suppliers of service. The relational value is stressed by the authors for luxury utilisation, as consumers are likely to anticipate stylish individual service and exceptional action from the marketers of luxury. Finally, the cost/sacrifice value in the Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon (2010) model encompasses exclusivity and rarity.

Recently, Hennigs *et al.*, (2015) embrace the complexity of luxury value by developing amd testing empirically model of the overall value of luxury brands. This model conceptualises the overall value of luxury brands by including financial, functional, individual and social consumer perceptions. However, this conceptualisation does not take into consideration other types of value like relational value, especially; there are strong recommendations seize this dimension in the conceptualisation of the overall value of luxury brands (Tynan *et al.*, 2010).

2.5. Post-Purchase Behaviour

2.5.1. Brand preferences

The notion of preference is considered by a variety of experts, including sociologists (e.g. Tomer, 1996), psychologists (e.g. Albanese, 1987) and economists (e.g. Samuels, 1978), but no common definition is proposed. For example, March, (1978) who is an economist, confirms that first choices are exogenous, recognised and constant with sufficient correctness and divulged via choice behaviour. This view received criticism as a personal preference or the first choice is not constant (Albanese, 1987). According to Samuel (1978), it might either exogenous or endogenous. The concept of preference, according to Marketing perspective, refers to desirability or choice in the face of alternative options (Oliver and Swan, 1989). A preference is a behavioural tendency that exhibits itself not so much in what the individual thinks or says about the object, but how he acts towards it (Zajonc and Markus, 1982). Four categories of consumer preferences are distinguished by Tomer (1996), who states that the real preference is the extent to which the consumer welcomes and builds up the aptitude to utilise specific commodities. Those commodities that replicate the normative opinions of the higher-order personality are referred to as meta-preferences. Actual preferences represent personal best interests. Lastly, those preferences that gratify the lower or objective requirements are known as unrestrained preferences. Personal preferences are normally set up by a person’s actual preferences which in turn replicate these unrestrained preferences.

Pertaining to the Marketing literature, there are several explanations of brand preference. Table 2.7 summarises these and even estimating a meaning. In this Table, the present study describes brand preference as tendencies of behaviour which replicate end-user's mindset towards a brand. Holistic responses reflect this point; degrees of likeness presents an efficient response, while brand’s exclusive added-value and behavioural response is reflected in the proposed action towards a brand which refers to cognitive responses

Table 2.7 Brand preference (BP) definitions

Source	**Definition**
D’Souza and Rao, (1995)	The end-users tendency in regard to a brand which differs in relation to outstanding which are triggered during a specific time.
Wu, (2001)	The chosen brand is the preferred one among various brand of similar quality.
Hellier *et al.*, (2003)	The extent at which an end-user support a brand over another.
Anselmsson *et al.*, (2008)	It is the total exclusive possessions taken by the end-user and assessed by the brand strength encountered by the end-user.
Chang and Liu, (2009)	The biasness of the end-user towards a specific brand.
Hsee *et al.*, (2009)	To differentiate between two types of BPs where the liking preference mirrors the hedonic responses of the customer towards teh brand along with the revealed preferences which replicate the behavioural responses towards a particular brand.

The nature of consumer preference formation

Preference involves two different aspects; one, end-user have distinct preferences which are connected to the archaeology revealing concealed value; two, end-user create their preferences during valuation. According to Payne *et al.*, (1999), the relations between the decision task aspects and the information-processing structure shapes this architectural nature. The creation of preference has been the subject of the behavioural decision model (Payne *et al.*, 1992). Nevertheless, Simonson (2008) debates that pre-existing preferences that are not established by the undertaking or perspective are not covered. As stated by Simoson (208), the idea of creation indicates the opinion process and disregard the preference's determining factors. Consumers create preferences for the commodity characteristics and uphold them across various perspectives, while the consumer can gain knowledge of the context's structure. These approaches to the decision are explicit to every perspective and cannot be transferred (Hoeffler and Ariely, 1999; Amir and Levav, 2008).

The two preference creation contexts are grounded on extremes; distinct at one end or created at the other. Nevertheless, consumer's choice is unpredictable. Neither the creation offers an inclusive analysis of preference creation process. As a result, it has been stated by Duarte and Raposo (2010) that these two contexts are referred to as matching rather than substitutes. The end-user's preferences can be distinct or created as disputed by Yoon and Simonson (2008); though, its constancy and reliability differ regarding contextual aspects. It is believed that the end-user has comparatively steady preferences decided by the personal evaluation of the commodity attributes. Nonetheless, the author gains experience from the perspective-specific approaches without getting involved in personal value consideration (Amir and Levav, 2008).

In the research area, disparities are apparent in relation to economic suppositions; grounded on the normative supposition and end-user judiciousness, and the hypotheses of information-processing; enclosed judiciousness and identifying the consumer as a reasonable intellectual. The previous psychological hypotheses criticised the balanced supposition of economists; for instance, the hypothesis of buyer behaviour (Howard and Sheth, 1969). Instead, Dhar and Novemsky dispute that behavioural judgement theory throws a spotlights on the source of judiciousness, rather than preferences.

2.5.2. Brand trust

Trust has penetrated the Marketing sector, despite originating in the business field. Certainly, it is deemed as a narrative example of business, particularly in regard to the organisation of the brand (Andaleeb, 1992; Lau and Lee, 1999; Hiscock, 2001; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005; Delgado-Ballester *et al.*, 2003; Ha and Perks, 2005). Besides, end-users behaviour, researchers have studied across an extensive assortment of disciplines, containing psychology, sociology, management and Marketing. According to Lau and Lee (1999), the accessible literature concerning brand trust is defined on its fundamental hypothetical research point of references.

Consequently, O'Shaughnessy (1992) examines trust as an aptitude for acting without assessing the benefits and costs. Trust is defined by Lau and Lee (1999) as the enthusiasm to depend on an item without any precaution concerns even when a risk exists; this occurs from previous experience comprehension. Likewise, according to Weigert (1985), trust is the aptitude for self-assurance when faced with risk.

Therefore, trust for a brand arises from consumer confidence, due to the conviction and anticipation that positive results will be achieved (Lau and Lee, 1999). Brand trust originates from the anticipation that it is consistent, convincing, accountable and sincere to its consumers and not just from individual conviction. Lau and Lee (1999) argue that brand trust varies from trust in an individual since the brand is an icon; brand trust may be regarded as trust in the symbolic icons. Finally, Delgado-Ballester (2003) describes brand trust as the feeling of security that is held by consumers in regards to their interaction with the brand, based on the perception of the quality of the particular brand. In other words, the brand is responsible or reliable in relation to customer welfare.

Delgado-Ballester *et al.* (2003) conducted a study on brand trust regarding its contributing components. They realised that brand trust is influenced by two aspects namely brand intention and brand reliability. The brand's competence-based character relates to brand reliability and is generally referred to as an aptitude to maintain pledges and please consumer's demand. Brand intention refers to the positive brand's mindset of relative to consumer welfare; for instance, a firm which is enthusiastic to take liability in the case of product flaws by taking the product back from their consumers and substituting it with fresh ones. There is an extensive conviction that if a firm is capable of providing consumer's demand in respect to brand reliability, and brand intention, the outcome will be an optimistic end-user discernment of brand trust (Luk and Yip, 2008; Lau and Lee, 1999).

Trust's role is crucial to relationship Marketing given its impact on various organisational outcomes (Albert *et al.*, 2013), Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman (2005) also observe that the concept of brand trust is impacted by the association between the company and the consumer. As Hiscock (2001) contends, the sole purpose of Marketing is to create an intense bond between a brand and a consumer, with the main ingredient of this bond being trusted. Furthermore, brand trust also shares a relationship with brand personality with its reliability traits. For instance, those people who have a higher competence trait, such as being intelligent or reliable are trusted more as compared to those that are less reliable or intelligent (Mulyanegara *et al.*, 2007; Maehle and Shneor, 2010). So, in other words, brand trust is not only extremely important when it comes to determining brand attributes, but also when it comes to brand development as well (Bainbridge, 1997).

2.5.3. Repurchase intention

Intentions to re-buy, along with loyalty, readiness to recompensate a price premium, argumentative and word-of-mouth, signify the major behavioural intentions defined by Zeithaml and Bitner (1996). The repurchase intention and dependability perspectives of the categorisation are very comparable in nature. For instance, action dependability is operationalised as repeat habit by Oliver (1997). Repurchase intentions are used as a component of dependability in store and brand perspectives respectively (Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alema´n, (2001); Macintosh and Lockshin, 1997).

Hence, personal opinion concerning buying an item again from the same firm refers to repurchase intention, taking into consideration his/her present state and probable situations (Lacey and Morgan, 2007). Repurchase intention is a valuable force for improving a company's profit and sustainable growth. Being able to retain customers who have the intention of repurchasing is one of the most crucial tasks that should be considered by thriving brands (Jones and Sasser, 1996). In terms of retention, the primary factor is customer satisfaction. When all aspects of perceived product quality are fulfilled, customer satisfaction is achieved (Spreng, MacKenzie, and Olshavsky, 1996).

Consumer gratification will result in improved repurchase intention while displeasure will result to reduced repurchase intention (Day and Landon, 1977; Singh, 1988). The research by Oh (1999) wraps up that alleged quality, customer gratification, value, word-of-mouth approval and repurchases intention associate with one another positively. Customer gratification is an essential tool for maintaining consumers in subsequent days and with optimistic repurchasing intentions. Future purchase intention has an optimistic correlation with consumer's gratification as well (Dawes, Dowling and Patterson, 1997; Durvasula *et al.*, 2004). In other words, a large number of researchers concur that consumer gratification plays some part in establishing the repurchase intention (Westbrook, 1987; Richins, 1983; Oliver, 1980; Howard, 1974; Howard and Sheth, 1969).

Cost reduction and market-share development are the components of customer maintenance, as stated by Reichheld and Sasser (1990). The reason for this is the fact that retaining a consumer is less expensive than getting a new consumer (Marzahn, 1996). The benefits of retaining a consumer are summarised into five suppositions by (Villanueva and Hanssens, 2007) (i) Acquiring new consumers is costly than retaining the existing ones; (ii) the cost of attending to new consumers is higher than that of attending to lifelong consumers; (iii) lifelong consumers enhances the firm's reputation and draw fresh consumers via word-of-mouth Marketing; (iv) New consumers are extra insightful on prices and are not ready to pay higher prices in specific cases as compared to lifelong consumers, and (v) the firm is capable of increasing its shares via cross-selling and up-selling since permanent consumers are more probable to procure more from the firm the newer consumers.

2.6. Conclusion

The purpose of this Chapter is to offer an overview of luxury CV. Throughout this Chapter, clear conceptualisations are provided for luxury brands that identify as holistic. Luxury brands are perceived as being high in quality, expensive and not necessarily essential but appear to be uncommon in nature. In other words, products that are exclusive, authentic or even prestigious; thereby offering a high level of symbolic or hedonic value.

Luxury goods are classified into a hierarchy. The discussion of luxury brands provides many approaches to categorise regular (non-luxury) goods from luxury products. The level of abstraction can discriminate them into characteristics-based and the consequences-based approaches, and by the level of the information into the consumer-based and the expert-based approaches. The understanding of the nature of a luxury CV cannot be achieved without having a clear understanding of the definitions of a luxury brand or the word luxury itself (Choo *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, this Chapter begins by conceptualising and classifying luxury brands. Then, this Chapter discusses the main approaches to the definition of luxury brands.

Section 2.3 illustrates the meaning of CV because the value concept is considered complex and multifaceted at best, with a different meaning not only among the consumers (Zeithaml, 1988) and the practitioners (Woodruff and Gardial, 1996), but also among researchers (Lai, 1995). However, the focal theme of the existing definitions in the Marketing literature is to consider the CV as a trade-off concept between the relevant benefits and sacrifices related to a service provider as assessed by the consumers. These definitions demonstrate that the value for the customer is concerned with his/her consumption experience resulting from buying and using a product/service; moreover, consumer perceptions cannot be clarified objectively by the firm. After presenting the definition of CV, the importance of CV is discussed as a critical element in consumer behaviour as it allows the explanation of various areas of purchase behaviour that occurs during and after the actual purchase. This is where product choice emerges (e.g. Zeithaml, 1988), along with intention to re-buy (e.g. Dodds and Monroe, 1985), customer loyalty, positive word-of-mouth, customer retention, higher market share and profits (Kainth and Verma, 2011).

Section 2.3 concludes by investigating the different approaches to operationalisation of CV. There are two approaches to conceptualising CV: unidimensional and multidimensional. However, the majority of studies address CV using one-dimensional models depending on utilitarian products, for instance, healthcare or personal care products. The application of these various models on the hedonic products in scrutinised, since consumers usually allocate small portions to each product. The current study addresses consumer-brand value for luxury accessories that are considered as a having both hedonic and cognitive values. The brands have been highlighted as product companies and suffer from commoditisation, which in turn, makes it even harder to make a differentiation between various brands. Conceptualisation of luxury CV is presented in Section 2.4; in particular, the lack of a consistent view in the literature in relation to the operationalisation of luxury brands. Section 2.5 discusses the behavioural outcomes of CV; beginning with BP, and progressing through brand trust, before concluding with repurchase intention.

In summary, the main conclusions gathered from the literature review are:

- The pioneering conception of value is based on an economic theory that states that all consumers are rational beings who make decisions which maximise a product or service's utility, while also being designed by income and price (Sweeny *et al.*, 1996). This view has led the one-dimensional approach of the study of value, and a vast amount of studies focus on an economics-based, consumer utilitarianism which has also been used to define the value. Yet this is, in many ways, too basic a perspective as it fails to analyse the concept of value into its various different dimensions. As such, a wide and diverse series of dimensions are highlighted from a variety of viewpoints. Researchers devise many approaches to developing and measuring consumption-value perceptions (Parasuraman and Grewal, 2000; Kotler *et al.*, 1999). However, this study adds to the current knowledge by generating a model to investigate overall luxury value by using the theory of consumption-value as a tool to build the consumption decision.

- The consumption-value theory offers a limited insight in terms of the value dimensions, which affect only consumption choice decisions (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). Conversely, the research model develops this view by integrating a set of value components as a basis from which to predict many key behavioural outcomes, such as BPs, brand trust and repurchase intention. Thus, the theory of consumption values may go beyond choice decisions to include behavioural outcomes. In addition, the significance of the theory of consumption-value comes from the theory that consumers develop an overall value assessment for making informed, intrinsically and extrinsically motivated choices (Turel, Serenko and Bontis 2010).

- This study maintains the views of Holbrook and his colleagues. Furthermore, it also supports that both the affective and cognitive components of a purchase play a role in explaining the value which is perceived by the customer when it comes to luxurious brands. In terms of the perceived value of all the cognitive, variable and effective components identified here, the former relate to a more traditional view of perceived value, compared with "getting" (or perceived quality) and "giving" (or perceived price). Effective components comprise internal feelings, which are generated by the experience of the purchase and consumption, along with the consequence of using the product or service. This study also goes beyond the prevalent assumptions of traditional and rational models. Furthermore, it supplements traditional views, while expecting to increase its predictive powers in trying to understand the value of consumer luxury.

- The concept of luxury is difficult to define (Berthon *et al.*, 2009, Amatulli and Guido, 2010) simply because it represents a social context (Nueno and Quelch, 1998) which follows a cultural evaluation. In other words, the definition is changeable along with being extremely subjective (Phau and Prendergast, 2000; Kapferer, 1997). Consequently, there is no particular agreement on a specific definition of luxury brands. This is because the key identifiers of luxury brands in this research are high quality, expensiveness, and non-essential products, which appear to be rare or exclusive, and also offer a high level of emotional and symbolic value.

Chapter 3: Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

3.1. Introduction

Based on the findings of the literature review presented in Chapter 2, the theoretical model required for the research herein comprises four sections. The first Section presents the experiential view of perceived value. The second clarifies the creation of the conceptual model, which begins by outlining some factors that are precursors to overall luxury value. Moreover, it demonstrates the results of overall luxury value simultaneously. The key constructs are taken into consideration in this research: emotional value, self-identity value, social value, relational value, financial value, community value, overall luxury value, and BPs, brand trust and repurchase intention. The following Section outlines a number of hypotheses that will be further investigated and tested, and the final Section delivers the conclusions to the Chapter.

3.2. The Theory of Consumption-Value

This hypothesis (Sheth, Newman, and Gross, 1991b) focuses on the values of consumption, and explains: why a consumer would or would not purchase a specific product or service; why a consumer would choose one product or service over another; and why consumers choose a particular product or service. This theory can identify five consumption values that influence the consumer's behaviour. These are, functional, social, epistemic, conditional and emotional. It is possible that the decision of the consumer is influenced by any of the five consumption values mentioned earlier. The functional value is concerned with the product's ability to perform its purpose when it comes to the functional, physical and utilitarian aspects. The social values of a product indicate the image that matches the norms of either a consumer's friends or the links along with the social image which the consumer wishes to achieve by purchasing the product.

The emotional value of a product is often times associated with the various states of buying the product which can either be negative or positive. The epistemic value of a product basically depends on its ability to piqué the curiosity of the customer by offering them a novelty or to satisfy their desire for knowledge on the product of service being offered. And finally, the conditional value of a product or service refers to the utility that is acquired by using a product which is the result of a specific circumstance or a set of circumstances. According to Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991b), three fundamental proposals are self-evident in relation to this particular theory:

- The consumer's choice is the result of multiple consumption values.
- The consumption-value makes for varied contributions in any given situation.
- The consumption values are all independent.

Utilising studies of the consumption-value theory has concentrated basically on the absence of generalisability of its original operationalisation. To that effect, Sweeny *et al.* (1996) established multidimensional measure (emotional-functional and social) to evaluate customer perceptions of the value. However, the measure omitted the epistemic value and conditional value because both are transitory and unsuitable for the applied methodology in that study.

The proposed dimensions of the value were analysed and applied in the tourism setting by Williams and Soutar (2000). Exploratory and qualitative approaches were used, but the findings revealed that four of the value dimensions of the Sweeny *et al.* (1996)'s model - functional, social, emotional and epistemic - were confirmed in their study. However, none of the respondents indicated neatly towards the conditional value. An additional implication of consumption-value theory was revealed by Sweeney and Soutar (2001), who established the 'Perval' model that is considered scale to the measure of consumer's perceptions of durable goods at the brand level. Their results confirm four value dimensions (emotional, social, price/value for money and quality/performance); moreover, their exploratory approach did not yield items for the conditional and epistemic value.

Furthermore, Wang *et al.* (2004) adopted the model of consumption-value theory but replaced the price value with sacrifices dimensions (time, effort and energy). However, the findings support that all value dimensions (functional, emotional, social and sacrifices) have a significant direct relationship between customer satisfaction; whereas no direct relationship is found between value dimensions and customer loyalty.

Pura (2005) adopts the model suggested by Sweeny and Soutar (2001) and investigated the direct influence of value dimensions on attitudinal and behavioural loyalty in mobile telephony context. However, the results reveal six value dimensions; monetary, convenience, emotional, social, conditional and epistemic. Consequently, they depict the functional value through monetary value and convenience value.

The previous contributions in value field (Sweeny *et al.*, 1996; Williams and Soutar, 2000; Sweeny and Soutar, 2001; Wang *et al.*, 2004; Pura, 2005) adopt and apply the consumption-value theory to a particular context. Thus, these studies contribute to constructing the initial stages in the creation of a valid scale of CV.

Conversely, consumption-value theory has faced many criticisms. For example, Smith and Colgate (2007) state that the previous typology can identify the dimensions of CV, which are related to a higher-order construct. This is a view also suggested by Park Jaworski and Macinnis (1986); however, this does not capture the exact cost/sacrifice part of CV. Nonetheless, there are other experimental, functional and symbolic dimensions of a CV, which cannot be found by using this model.

Other than offering functional usefulness, luxury products provide prestige and admiration (Arghavan and Zaichkowsky, 2000). With this in mind, it seems as if, psychological benefits offered by luxury products outweigh those offered by functional products (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Hence, an in-depth understanding of the factors will explain the decisions consumers make while purchasing luxury brands. Moreover, there are numerous studies about consumer behaviour from the rationalist perspective. Simultaneoulsy, researchers are paying more attention to emotional aspects of consumer decisions (peter and Olson, 1999). The consumption of hedonic goods is motivated primarily by the desire to indulge in sensual pleasures, fantasies and fun. Hedonic products tend to have a symbolic meaning beyond their tangible attributes (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). Hedonic-oriented consumption demands the involvement of both emotional and mental endeavours. As such, a conventional utilitarian-focused strategy falls short with regard to the example used here: luxury accessory brands.

Based on the above debate, the importance of the theory of consumption relies upon stating that consumers increase value assessment by making extrinsically and intrinsically motivated selections (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). Therefore, this research adopts the theory of consumption values, and incorporates the findings of the meta-analysis of value perceptions research by Smith and Colgate (2007) and the luxury value dimensions as proposed by Wiedmann *et al.* (2007, 2009), to clarify the adoption of luxury accessory brands.

However, the consumption-value theory offers a narrow understanding in terms of the value elements that influence only consumption choices (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). Therefore, the research model develops this view by integrating a set of value components as a basis from which to predict many key behavioural outcomes, such as BP, brand trust and repeat purchase intention from the perspective of Gulf Arab tourists. Thus, the theory of consumption values may transcend choice decisions to include behavioural outcomes.

3.3. The Experiential View of Perceived Value

Overall, research on consumer behaviour has been conducted from the rationalist perspective; nevertheless, the focus is directed towards the emotional aspect (Peter and Oslon, 1999; Holbrook and Hirscham, 1982). Presently, the experimental perspective is preferable to the information-processing approach. Luxury brands require opting to use emotions, feelings and fantasies to describe the purchasing behaviour. The majority of products, including luxury items, are viewed as meaningful symbols that surpass tangible attributes, supposed value or quality (Havlena and Holbrook, 1986).

The Cognition-Affect-Behaviour-paradigm supports this experiment. Information-processing and cognitive level tally with each other and this is a rational aspect influencing expenditure choices. Therefore, cognitive responses involve mental structures and processes that influence the consumer's capacity to think, comprehend and respond to the impact of the brand. Cognitive processes result in new information and beliefs that the shopper has developed from his or her individual encounters and has kept a memory of the respective experiences (Foxall and Goldsmith, 1994).

Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) comment that the term “affect” means emotions, which include boredom, joy, hate, love, disgust, greed, awe, anger, anxiety, lust, elation, shame, and sympathy. Based on this, “Affective Responses” refer to favourable or unfavourable feelings experienced by consumers, which vary in their intensity (Peter and Olson; Derbix and Pham, 1998; Oliver, 1997).

Finally, the encounters of making purchases and using respective products occur at the behaviour level. The costs attached to use of products comes up in the enjoyment derived by the consumer from the product (Klinger, 1971). Additionally, the genesis of the learning process may be derived from the shopping experience.

Two things can be deduced through shifting the experiential perspective to the study of the supposed value construct. First, perceiving the supposed values as cognitive variable tends to be partial because it is relevant to involve the effective aspect. Secondly, keeping the concept of supposed value as a comparison between “obtaining” and “giving”, the affective variables are required. Emotional advantages can also impact on the choices between instrumental options that resemble other aspects on a functional basis (Havlena and Holbrook, 1989). Since the supposed value is a dynamic variable also encountered following product use, it is vital to incorporate the emotional or the subjective responses generated by the consumer (Bolton and Drew, 1991; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Havlena and Holbrook, 1986). The relevance of the hedonic element in the encounters of making purchases and using luxury goods is revealed by Tunan et al (2010). Moreover, Holbrook and Batra (1987) demonstrate the same in the reaction of consumers to publicity. This general vision of consumer behaviour forms the basis of the multidimensional strategy to the supposed value.

Unlike the multidimensional approach, which involves assessing affective and cognitive systems, the approach involving assessment of the sacrifices and benefits is undoubtedly more rational and cognitive.

3.4. Research Model

The dimensionality of perceived value in the context of luxury accessories brand

Some studies define "perceived value" as a single dimensional system, which involves a trade-off between the sacrifices and benefits involved. Yet, in many ways, this perspective is too simplified as it fails to analyse the concept of value within its various different dimensions. As such, a wide and diverse series of dimensions is contemplated from a variety of viewpoints. This study assesses the gap within the literature on the concept of value in the luxury market. After reviewing the literature available on luxury brands, it is important to pay more attention to understanding how customers experience and interact with them. In particular, the customer's individual weighing of the different value components is a useful basis for the development and implementation of successful management strategies throughout the entire supply chain (Hennigs *et al.*, 2015)

The useful and creative theoretical model by Smith and Colgate (2007) identifies four forms of value: hedonic/experiential value, instrumental/functional value, expressive/symbolic value and cost/sacrifice value. These are in addition to sources of the value, such as information, products, environment and ownership/position transfer. However, Tynan, McKechnie and Chhuon, (2010) confirm that this theoretical model is non-specific in nature as well as its application in luxury context requires future development. Likewise, the model developed by Smith and Colgate (2007) do not consider the relationship with the brand or the relational value (Fournier, 1998).

For the above reason, the present study adopts the theory of consumption-value, and incorporates the findings of the meta-analysis of value perceptions research by Smith and Colgate (2007) and the luxury value dimensions as proposed by Wiedmann *et al.* (2007, 2009). It will develop a comprehensive model that concentrates on the assessment of antecedents and outcomes of customer's overall value of luxury accessories, as illustrated in Figure 3.1.

The question of what really adds value to consumer's luxury accessories perception, understood as subjective expectations about and individual perceptions of a luxury accessories (e.g. Dubois and Duquesne, 1993), is defined in this study in accordance with the insights of theory of consumption-value and the core elements of luxury value: the financial value of luxury accessories brands (e.g. direct monetary aspects), the social value of luxury accessories brands (e.g. status and prestige), relational value of luxury accessories brands (relationship between consumer and brand), self-identity value of luxury accessories value, community value of luxury accessories, and the overall value of luxury accessories brands (e.g. consumer subjective orientation towards luxury). As Wiedmann *et al.* (2009) suggests, the dimensions of luxury value are strongly correlated and are important drivers of behavioural outcomes of luxury consumption. With a special focus on the interplay of the core elements of luxury value and related effects on luxury brand strength, Hennigs *et al.* (2013) found empirical evidence that the financial, functional and social dimension of luxury value as product-related components significantly influence the customer's overall evaluation of a luxury brand. This overall dimension of luxury value perception encompasses consumers' subjective understanding of the luxury concept addressing their emotional needs and experiential rewards, materialistic attitudes, hedonic motives, sensory pleasure and acts of self-gift giving (Wiedmann *et al.*, 2007). For the empirical investigation of the complexity of luxury value and related effects on luxury consumption, in the following hypotheses, this research suggests a more comprehensive view that the overall value of luxury accessories is positively affected by the emotional, financial, relational, social, community and self-identity considerations of the luxury accessories brands.

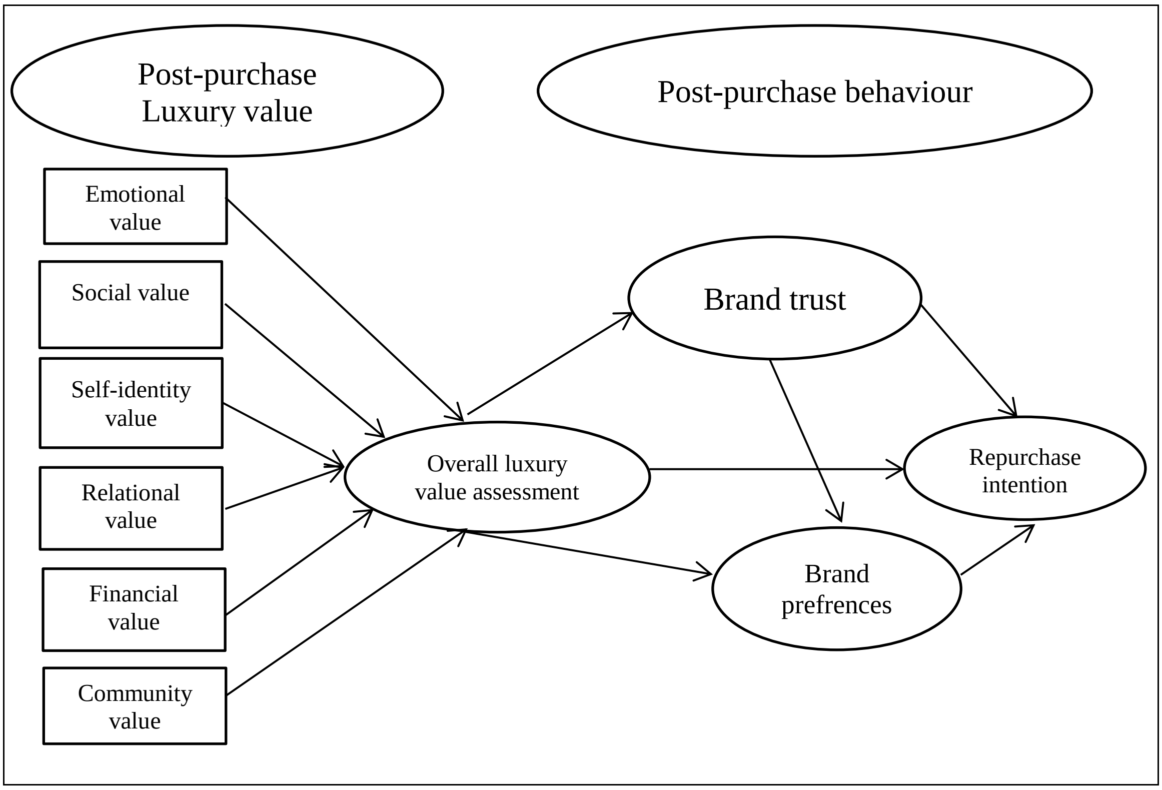


Figure 3.1 Conceptual model

In addition to the empirical investigation of the antecedents of the overall value of luxury accessories, the analysis of behavioural outcomes are of particular importance to determine if and to what extent positive value perceptions are translated into actual luxury consumption (Hennigs *et al.*, 2015). The impact of loyal consumers on revenue is significant. Therefore, building and maintaining long-term customer relationships is specifically important in Luxury Brand Management and luxury retail business (Meng and Elliott, 2008). Symbolic brand in markets with the high perceived risk need to provide trust, which is achieved through developing perceptions of consumer-brand intimacy and emotional investment (Richard and Larry, 2007). So referring to possible behavioural outcomes of overall value of luxury accessories, for the purposes of this study and in accordance with existing studies on behavioural outcomes (e.g. Zeithaml *et al.*, 1996), three basic components of actual consumer behaviour are of particular interest: consumer's repurchase intention; brand trust; and BPs.

This research examines the role of luxury value from a multidimensional view and investigates the role of luxury value on brand preferences, brand trust and repurchase intention in luxury product settings. As such, compared with previous studies in this research area, this study provides a more elaborate screening of the mechanisms through which luxury consumption separately influence level of individual' BPs, brand trust and consequently repurchase intention. While numerous studies have been conducted on CV and the relationship between customer outcomes, to the best of our knowledge, few have investigated the relational outcomes of luxury CV, especially in relation to product concept (Alan *et al.*, 2016).

3.5. Research Hypotheses

3.5.1. Emotional value

Luxury consumers are regarded as hedonic seekers of fulfilment and rewards acquired from the purchase and consumption of goods for their individual and emotional benefits; mostly because of their pleasing properties, rather than the instrumental benefits they offer (Sheth, Newman and Gross, 1991; Westbrook and Oliver, 199). Research on the concept of luxury enables identification of the consumers' emotional responses; for example, sensory satisfaction (Rossiter and Percy, 1997), aesthetic appeal and excitement (Roux and Floch, 1996; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004; Benarrosh-Dahan, 1991) and sensory pleasure (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982) related to luxury consumption. Hence, it is clear that those consumers who depend on their personal opinions about luxury brands, and those who do not rely on interpersonal influence, represent the hedonic class of consumers (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004).

Conversely, according to Havlena and Holbrook (1986), when both functional features and emotional benefits that good offers are equal, consumers rely mostly on the emotional benefits instead of functional features. In addition, emotional and functional values differ when addressing shopping efficiency and rationally evaluating information about the product's functionality and performance, to make good product choices (Fiore and Kim, 2007). Direct appreciation or direct use of the goods and services influence the perception of the product's emotional value. These interactions govern the consumer's preferences based on a value scale while measuring utilitarian and hedonic shopping values. The interactions prove that the traditional utility-based approach is inefficient and impalpable and that costs and emotional benefits play an important role in shopping as they influence hedonic tasks.

According to Hur, Kim and Park (2012), the emotional value of a product is the most important tool for predicting consumer behaviour while using and purchasing products and services. Even if the consumer does not feel the emotional benefits of the product, he or she experiences positive feelings arise unintentionally and they play a subliminal and important role in the decisions the consumer makes. de Barnier & Valette-Florence, (2013) confirm that the notion of pleasure and, more broadly, emotions also offers an important explanatory factor linked to the consumption or possession of luxury brands. Therefore, "hedonism" explains how the consumer perceives intrinsic attraction and subjective utility after purchasing and consuming luxury brands, which serves an act of fulfilment and self-reward for the consumer (Sheth, Newman and Gross, 1991b; Wiedmann *et al.*, 2009; Loureiro and de Araújo; 2014; Shukla *et al.*, 2015; Hennigs *et al.*, 2015; Schade *et al.* 2016). In summary:

H1: The emotional value will have a significant positive impact on overall luxury value.

3.5.2. Social value (outer-oriented)

In the early 1980s, several scholars studied the works of Bourne (1957), while focusing on the impact of reference groups on the use of luxury brands (Masson, 1981, 1992). The results of these studies established that a product`s visibility have a positive association with its susceptibility to the respective consumer segment. For instance, Bearden and Etzel (1982) conclude that luxury products used in public have a higher probability of being noticeable compared with goods consumed in private. Additionally, conspicuous use of goods remains a crucial aspect in directing choices for many products bought or consumed in public (Hong and Zinkhan, 1995; Bagwell and Bernheim, 1996; Corneo and Jeanne, 1997; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004).

To add to this research, according to Sheth, Newman and Gross (1991b), social values often drive the choices consumers make in the case of high-value products (like jewellery and clothing), and services that they share with others. For instance, when a consumer chooses a particular automobile, it may be because it evokes a social image instead of the function it performs. The same applies to products that are utilitarian because people may choose them based on their preference for social value, over its functionality.

Research and theory in several areas influence our understanding of social values. Among the most important research works conducted is the one by Warner and Lunt (1941), in existing social classes. It is known that based on their functional utility, products possess blatant or symbolic consumption-value (Veblen, 1899). The pioneer of the research on reference groups was Hyman (1942), and the members of the group influenced the research. Additionally, Gallarza and Saura (2006) investigated the dimensionality of consumer value in the context of travel and advocated social value as a reliable indicator for developing overall value.

The individual desire for luxury brands is often driven by the search for social status and representation (Hennigs et al, 2012**;** Hennigs et al, 2013; Loureiro and de Araújo; 2014; Hennigs *et al.*, 2015; Schade *et al.* 2016). Therefore, this implies that the societal ranking linked with a brand is a significant factor regarding the conspicuous use of products. This reasoning leads us to the following hypothesis:

H_2: The social value will have a significant positive impact on overall luxury value.

3.5.3. Self-identity value (self-oriented)

Comparing the external facets of an individual socially, self-identity values represent an individual's self-perception (Jamal and Coode, 2003; Sirgy and Johar, 1999; Mehta, 1999). According to the consumer behaviour theory, it is widely known that relationship between one's image of a product or service and consumer's self-image has been moderated by self-image congruity (Belk, 1988; Mick, 1986). Moreover, the purchasing behaviour in a self-image or product image congruity model is affected by a consumer's self-concept (Sirgy, 1982).

According to Puntoni's confirmations (2001), self-congruity within the sphere of luxury items has a significant impact on the purchase of luxury brands. Consumers tend to purchase luxury brands in order to add its symbolic meaning to their individual identity (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Additionally, consumers buy luxury brands to confirm and raise their individual identity (Dittmar, 1994). The congruity of self-concept in consumers and the brand of products and services is a strong indicator of determining the overall value perceptions, based on the proposal by Wiedman *et al.* (2009). It is evident that more-and-more consumers are buying luxury brands because it drives their symbolic benefits and the consumers' self-directed hedonic experience (Dittmar, 1994). Most people use luxury brands for their symbolic meanings, and it is well-established that luxury goods make people feel good about themselves (Schade *et al.* 2016; Shukla *et al.*, 2015; Loureiro and de Araújo; 2014; Shukla and Purani 2012; Wiedmann *et al.* 2009).To conclude, the congruity between the consumer's self-image and the image of the luxury products play an essential role in developing the overall value assessment. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H3: Self-identity value will have a significant positive impact on overall luxury value.

3.5.4. Relational value

Brand relationship (involves emotional, physical and financial relationships) draws the seller of a brand and the buyer towards one another (Schultz and Schultz, 2004) and creates relational value. This relationship is possible because brands have their own character and personality with which the consumer can identify (Blackston, 1992). A consumer can experience a relationship with a product, a specific item (Saren and Tzokas, 1998) or a service (Dall'Olmo Riley and de Chernatony, 2000), and their perceptions and emotions shape their evaluation (Aaker and Keller, 1990). It is now known that customers develop relationships with particular brands, products and companies (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009). Indeed, extremely loyal customers are just as likely to change retail outlet as non-loyal customers if they fail to locate their favourite items in frequently-visited stores (Verbeke *et al.*, 1998). Thus, firms are now well aware of the advantages posed by such interaction with customers and regularly create targeted customer relationship strategies to try and further refine a directly-linked customer base (Rowley and Haynes, 2005). Consequently, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H4: The relational value will have a significant positive impact on overall luxury value.

3.5.5. Financial value

The current study also considers financial value as a given component in contrast to the non-functional gain of making informed decisions. Financial value: within the context of price perception, the price may have both positive and negative effects. According to existing research, seven core psychological constructs encompass price perception: price-quality schema and prestige sensitivity both play a positive role in pricing, while coupon proneness, price consciousness, value consciousness, price mavens and sale proneness play a negative role in pricing (Lichtenstein *et al.*, 1993). This report relates to price-quality and prestige sensitivity schema, correlating it with social identity.

Price has a positive influence on luxury goods. Luxury brands are perceived as more expensive when they display product prices (Parguel *et al.*, 2016). According to Tellis and Gaeth (1990), price influences positively consumer perceptions in evaluating quality, with a higher rate signifying greater quality. Prestige sensitivity also has similar attributes and thus generates favourable connotations with the price cut, since customers associate both prominence and status with higher prices (Shukla, 2011; Wong and Ahuvia, 1998). According to Shukla (2011) and Wong and Ahuvia (1998), purchasing premium-priced products, with the intention of seeking prestige, is considered acceptable in various collectivist cultures and labelled commonly as “conspicuous consumption” within the consumer behaviour literature (Peter and Olsen, 2010). For luxury brands, a greater financial sacrifice plays a positive role on the associated values of a brand (Thomas, 2007). Hence, prestige pricing increases the financial value of luxury brands; the more expensive it is, the more desirable and valuable it becomes (Hennigs et al, 2012**;** Hennigs et al, 2013; Hennigs *et al.*, 2015). From this perspective, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H5: The financial value will have a significant positive impact on overall luxury value.

3.5.6. Community value

Based on the findings of O`Guinn (2001), the buyer-buyer-customer-brand triad is a brand community. Conversely, McAlexander, Schouten and Koenig (2002) cite this as a shift in perspective and an extension of the former model. This led to the understanding brand, as grouping users with the same interest together, and associating the meaning of brand with a depot of consumers (Aaker, 1997); thereby neglecting all other relationships, members of the community or cultural capital (Holt, 1998). According to the previous perspective, customers not only value their relationship with their branded possessions, but also with agents of Marketing (Doney and Cannon, 1997) and companies (Gruen, Summers and Acito, 2000) that own and manage the brand. This means providing community members with the status of the luxury branded products, giving marketers the consumer-brand dyad, and giving buyers the buyer-buyer-brand triad within a sophisticated relationships network. This research follows the view that the perspective brand customer is a customer-centric aspect that focuses on the significance and availability of the buyer’s experience for the product in relation to the community instead of the brand around which, the experience tends to rotate.

The value of such relationships and interactions may, subsequently, influence increased personal investment in a customer's consumption of the product and the brand. Indeed, this may occur at the level that the responsible for the brand promotes such associations; as such, there may be increased probabilities of the customer base appreciating the company and the sensing their relevance on the overall social aspect. Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon (2010) also suggest firmly taking community value as an essential dimension from which to formulate the evaluation of luxury brands. Consequently, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H6: community value will have a significant positive impact on overall luxury value.

3.5.7. Overall luxury value upon brand trust

This study identifies three behavioural outcomes of overall perceived value: brand trust, BP, and repurchase intention. Consumers’ overall evaluation of the brand using different perspectives of value determines the overall perceived value (Tsai, 2005). This perceived value is critical in determining the long-term benefits (McDougal and Levesque, 2000). Trust sustains the desirability of maintaining a long-term relationship with the trustee. Building trust requires the existence of confidence that consumer will find what he desired and has been promised of (Delgado *et al.*, 2003). Among the authors, Berry and Yadav,

(1996) and Ravald and Gronross (1996) argue that consumers' confidence increase when the perceived value; promised experiences and benefits increases relative to what is given. In addition, Grabner-Kraeuter (2002) explore the importance of consumer's trust. The research theorised that via online purchases trust in retailers increases, which adds value for consumers by reducing the complexity, thereby diminishing the uncertainty involved in the transaction. This is in agreement with the theory by Ratnasingham, 1998. However, the work by Sirdeshmukh *et al.* (2002) provides a proper insight with an empirical evaluation of value-trust. Sirdeshmukh *et al.* (2002) show findings that support the idea of a direct relationship between value and trust of a brand, although there is a need for more research to evaluate the cosmos of this relationship. As a key success factor in luxury Brand Management, the creation and preservation of superior value are strongly related to trust (Hennigs et al, 2015; Bakanauskas and Jakutis, 2010; Bick, 2009; Cailleux *et al.*, 2009).Therefore; it can be supposed that the luxury value of a brand act as an antecedent of brand trust in the luxury context (Alan *et al.*, 2016; Song *et al.*, 2012). In similar view, the following hypothesis is formulated.

H7. The overall luxury value will have a significant positive impact on brand trust.

3.5.8. Overall luxury value upon BPs

The impact of perceived value is not limited to repurchase intention but it is extended to the BPs. In the early findings by Jacoby and Kaplan (1972), and Kaplan *et al.* (1974), it is proposed that there is a direct positive impact on value on BP is consistent. Prior Marketing studies have suggested a direct positive relationship between perceived value and BP (Chiu *et al.,* 2010; Wang, 2013), and indicated that the main factor influencing BP is perceived value (Hellier *et al.,* 2003). These studies have established that overall consumer perceptions of product value are strongly associated with BPs. Therefore, the following is hypothesised:

H8. The overall luxury value will have a significant positive impact on BPs.

3.5.9. Overall luxury value upon repurchase intention

The intention of repurchasing a product represents the process of a person buying products from the same cooperation (Hellier *et al.*, 2003). According to Zeithaml *et al.*, (1996), the motive for the repurchase option is based primarily on the value attached to previous purchase experiences. Firms may incur fewer expenses when Marketing for the retention of established customers, compared with attracting fresh consumers.

The intention of a consumer to repurchase a produce is dependent on the value the consumer received in the previous purchase, (Bolton *et al.*, 2000; Kaynak, 2003; Wathne *et al.*, 2001), like competition, cost considerations and appropriate performance (Kumar, 2002). Moreover, future purchase intentions have a direct relationship with consumer satisfaction (Patterson *et al.*, 1997; Durvasula *et al.*, 2004). The consumer's intention for future purchase depends on the value obtained in the previous purchase, in relation to expectations about benefits that will come with the purchase in the future (Olaru *et al.*, 2008).

Recently, Marketing staff and corporate managers have employed long-neglected supposed value attached to the consumer`s intentions of making post purchases (Patterson and Spreng, 1997; Petrick, 2002; Lin, Sher, and Shih, 2005). With respect to the relationships between supposed value and the intention of making a repurchase, majority of scholars attribute the perceived value to impact the decision of making a repurchase and a motivating word (Petrick, 2002; Eggert and Ulaga, 2002; Wang *et al.*, 2004; Lin *et al.*, 2005). Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000) discovered in a cross-industrial study that both CV and customer satisfaction seem to be the direct indicators of behavioural intention. These calls are confirmed by many studies (Dodds, Monroe and Grewal, 1991; Tam, 2000; McDougall and Levesque, 2000; Petrick and Backman, 2002). However, Chen and Chen (2010) identify CV and customer satisfaction as a meditation on the relationship between customer experience and behavioural intentions. In a service context, Kuo, Wu and Deng (2009) highlight that perceived value has a positive influence on both customer satisfaction and repurchase intention in mobile value-added services. Similarly, Dubrovski (2001) and Molinari, Abratt and Dion, (2008) find that value correlates positively to repurchase. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H9. Overall luxury value will have a significant positive impact on repurchase intention

3.5.10.Brand trust upon BPs

The term for a consumer's readiness to depend on a product's availability because of its stated functionality is "brand trust" (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). A fundamental notion in defining trust is reliance; develops from the overall belief of a consumer that the trustworthy brand fulfils its assurance of value (Morgan and Hunt, 1994) and sincerely provides quality performance (Doney and Cannon, 1997). Consequently, it is suggested that both reliability and intentions define the key components and characteristics essential to brand trust. Reliability is based on consumer's confidence in brand competencies (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Doney and Cannon, 1997; Chiu *et al.*, 2012). The attribution of intentions reflects individual security. Intentionality is the aspect of beliefs that concern with consumer's assurance that the brand is responsible despite future changes (Delgado *et al.*, 2003); thereby diminishing consumer vulnerability (Bart *et al.*, 2005; Delgado *et al.*, 2003).

Trust has a vital role in the determination of future behavioural intentions and relationships (Delgado *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, it is argued that a link exists between trust, as an evaluative facet, and behavioural responses (Sirdeshmukhet al., 2002). It has been demonstrated that trust is important in developing positive attitudes (Garbarino and Johnson, 1994). At the brand level, trust contributes extensively to building a strong consumer-brand relationship (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Consumers are more inclined to favour and purchase trusted brands (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). The level at which the shopper favours chooses one brand and leaves another describes the shopper`s preference (Hellier *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, it is suggested that trust creates a favourable predisposition towards the brand and the following is hypothesised:

H10. Brand trust will have a significant positive impact on BPs.

3.5.11.Brand trust upon repurchase intention

Consumer value, being a principle factor, is the only variable among other variables that may influence the repurchase intentions of a customer. There have also been numerous studies involving trust (Sirdeshmukh, Singh and Sabol 2002; Chow and Holden, 2002). Brand trust is principally the commitment a consumer shows for a particular brand. Recently, practitioners pay huge attention to brand trust as the consumer intentions to repurchase are perceived as having a positive association with higher trust scores (Zboja and Voorhees, 2006). Studies explained that trust plays a fundamental role in repurchase behaviour and long-term customer pleasure (Ballester and Aleman, 2001). Ballester and Aleman, (2005) state that brand trust and reliability can be achieved by fulfilling long-term promises, paying enough attention to the customer expectations and valuing its customers. Furthermore, Ashely and Leonard (2009) affirm that shoppers build their trust on positive beliefs based on their brand choices with respect to their anticipations for the organisation`s behaviour and product performance.

According to Kennedy *et al.* (2001), a buyer with a higher level of trust in a manufacturer and salesperson is more inclined to repurchase the brand than someone with a lower trust level. In addition, Holden (1990) discovered that the repurchase decision is also an outcome of the trust a consumer has in the company and the product.

In terms of online purchasing, the theory proposed by Hennig-Thurau and Klee (1997) also states that a consumer’s trust is critical to repurchasing. Empirical results are boosted by the results presented by Bart *et al.* (2005), which reveal a strong relationship between behavioural intent and online trust between the consumer and seller. Certainly, previous studies confirm that repurchase intention can be driven intensely by trust (Weisberg, Te’eni and Arman, 2011; Alan *et al.*, 2016; Alan and Kabadayi, 2014; Fang *et al.*, 2011). Also, recent researches confirm empirically a strong association between brand trust and repurchase intention (Alan *et al.*, 2016; Song *et al.*, 2012).Therefore, the following two hypotheses are proposed:

H11. Brand trust will have a significant positive impact on repurchase intention

H11.a. The relationship between overall value of luxury accessories and repurchase intention is mediated by brand trust

3.5.12.BPs upon repurchase intention

The final predictor of repurchase intention for the current study is BP. According to Tsai (2005), the existence of an apparent motivational state of consumers for repurchasing behaviour defined the consumer's repurchasing intent. Consumer preferences for certain brands exhibit a behavioural tendency towards buying them (Zajonc and Markus, 1982). Consumer bias helps retrieve and recall information about the brand's properties (Kim *et al.*, 2011); thereby influencing their purchasing intentions (Cobb-Walgren *et al.*, 1995). Therefore, one can argue that consumer's inclination towards a brand can affect his/her likeliness and willingness to buy the brand again. Empirically, the repurchase intention reflects the consumer's intention of repeating the behavioural action of buying the brand (Hellier *et al.*, 2003; Tolba and Hassan, 2009; Ebrahim *et al.*, 2016). Theoretically, consumer preference is a direct antecedent of his/her intentions (Bagozzi, 1982). Hellier *et al.* (2003) demonstrate that BPs reflect a learned disposition for perceived alternatives is strongly related to repurchase intention. Also, some studies have suggested a direct positive relationship between perceived value and BP (Hellier *et al.*, 2003; Chiu *et al.*, 2010; Wang, 2013). This, therefore, leads to the following two hypotheses:

H12. BPs will have a significant positive impact on repurchase intention

H12.a. BPs brand preferences mediate the relationship between overall value of luxury accessories and repurchase intention

3.6. Conclusion

It is anticipated that the model suggested in this research fills the glaring gap in the literature review. According to the findings, this model relies on the theory of consumer behaviour and branding, which relates to the information available on Marketing. Specifically, the present research uses the theory of consumption-value to identify several value drivers of overall luxury value and to determine the impact of overall luxury value perception on repurchase intention through both a direct and indirect route from the perspective of Gulf Arab tourists. Furthermore, this research assesses the psychological aspects of consumer behaviour, affective elements, and cognitive aspects, which influence a consumer's overall perception of the value of a product, or service. Development of the model varies with experience, and governs the consumer's perception of the effective and cognitive measure of luxury values the consumer experiences. Besides the holistic view of perceived value, buyer reactions are initiated by brand stimuli at various degrees of engagement and are regarded as the origin of overall product or service value. The expenses stress the deduction of value and its holistic nature is differentiated based on three systems including affective, cognitive and behaviour. Assumptions are stemmed on the notion that there is a synchronised interaction between the way experiential Marketing moves and the characteristics of marking firms. We can draw other conclusions from the information highlighted below:

1. The model develops the view of the ***consumption-value theory,*** which offers a narrow understanding in terms of the value determinants which affect only consumption choices (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). However, the research model develops this view by integrating a set of value components as a basis from which to predict many key behavioural outcomes, such as BPs, brand trust and repurchase intention. Thus, the theory of consumption values may go beyond choice decisions to include behavioural outcomes.

2. Development of the experiential view relies on the model and integrated effective and cognitive components, which help predict the consumer's post-purchase behaviour. This means it supplements the traditional opinions and increases the capacity to predict and understand the consumer's luxury value. Moreover, the model can serve as an effective tool for segmentation of the market, with regards to financial, relational, community, emotional, self-identity (self-oriented), and social (other-oriented) dimensions. Therefore, it is likely that marketers will be able to base their strategies on the model proposed in this research to increase purchase value for various segments that offers luxury value to consumers. Marketers may differ in their orientation and preference for the value offered by certain brands to satisfy the consumer's emotional and cognitive needs. This is very useful from the perspective of market position and segmentation, and will enhance the Marketing efficiency for luxury product and services.

3. The research model is structured on the basis of consumer behaviour models, which have been built on a psychological foundation. Specifically, the current research boosts the experiential viewpoint of the purchase offered by Holbrook and his colleagues. According to this view, the overall perceived value of luxury brands is explained by cognitive and affective drivers. The cognitive drivers associated with traditional perspective on the CV, as a trade-off between benefits and sacrifices. The effective elements are related to the internal sentiments made by the experience of procurement and utilisation and by the repercussions in the customer's social surroundings. The study lies beyond the domain of the traditional models that are structured by rational perspective. Thus, it enhances the traditional viewpoint and purports to improve its predictive power in understanding consumer luxury value.

4. The theoretical model attempts to provide a deeper explanation of CV, an exploratory phase is required to validate the model, support the antecedents of overall consumer value antecedents defined in the model and determine consumers' experiential responses. Based on this, the next Chapter will discuss in detail the methodological approach adopted to provide answers to the research questions of the current study.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology and Methods

4.1. Introduction

This Chapter begins by clarifying the concept of research philosophy. It then presents the two main research approaches: deduction and induction. The final part of the Chapter provides an in-depth justification for the research approach adopted. The chart in Section 4.4 illustrates the research design, while the whole Chapter highlights the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research; further similarities are also provided. The first phase and the stage of research exploration, both of which are part of qualitative study, are discussed in Section 4.5. Section 4.6 provides a detailed illustration of the second phase, which is a quantitative study; discussing the procedures of sampling, design of survey, data analysis process and pilot testing. Ethical approval is outlined in Section 4.7, whereas a conclusion is provided in the final Section.

4.2. The Research Philosophy

The term ‘research philosophy’ relates to the development and nature of knowledge. The research philosophy includes fundamental assumptions about the way in which the researcher views the world. There are three major ways of thinking about research philosophy: epistemology, ontology and methodology. Each contains important differences that will influence the way in which the researcher contemplates the research process (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

- The epistemology focuses on what establishes acceptable knowledge in the area of the topic under investigation and specifies the nature of the association between the investigated phenomenon and the researcher (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

- Ontology is a branch of philosophy concerned with the nature of social phenomena as entities (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). There are two aspects of ontology that can be recognised by most investigators in the generation of reliable data. The initial facet is objectivism, which asserts that the social components exist in reality outside the other social elements linked to the availability. The second facet is subjectivity, which asserts that the social events are generated from the social opinions of social actors and the concurrent actions as regards their availability (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

- Finally, methodology describes the protocols for gathering the raw data and performing an analysis of the respective information (Creswell, 2009).

Epistemology, ontology and methodology are key concepts in the philosophy of social sciences. These can relate to each other as a model or even one unified view; referred to by some researchers as a paradigm (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). Guba and Lincoln (1994) clarify that each paradigm contains a basic group of beliefs presented through four philosophical assumptions: post-positivism, positivism, constructivism and critical theory.

1. For 400 years, positivism has been the leading philosophical assumption and is considered a received view (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The objective of research is studying a societal process that seeks regularities and underlying associations considering the social actors' freedom. On the basis of an existing theory that produces a valid proposition, this research adopts the principal of deductivism. Hence, further growth of the theory is possible through the collection of facts that help the researcher obtain the required knowledge (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

2. Post-positivism (also known as post-empiricism) builds depending on the main criticism of positivism. It debates the idea of a shared, single reality, and questions that human beings cannot perfectly understand reality; researchers can approach it with rigorous data collection and analysis. Post-positivist thinking is influential within qualitative research, as it covers philosophical positions and methodological as different as scientific and critical realism and grounded theory (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008).

3. Another method to positivism is proposed by the critical theory. Accordingly, in order to reveal the differences between people, required a distinct approach to reality is required. Limited by social action, this approach comprehends human

actions by explaining reason and results. In contrast to positivist philosophyy, this theory explains human behaviour (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Among the researchers and the studied subjects, an interactive association can be observed. In the development of the study, the qualitative technique is adopted, which investigates the studied subjects through dialectical conversation. The prejudiced meanings underlined in the process can be understood through this method (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

4. Constructivism is the fourth and the last theory. It is close to ontological relativism and shifts away from the ontological pragmatism. Along with the critical theory, the principal of subjectivism is also shared by this approach. Nevertheless, the results are connected interactively to the association among the researcher and the subject. The research techniques are dialectical and hermeneutical and differ from the critical theory related to the researcher’s values (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), the researcher must consider these philosophies as a multidimensional set of continuous elements, which is preferable to considering them as different positions. However, selecting the positivist approach over interpretivist or vice versa, or to select quantitative over qualitative methods or vice versa, are topics of debate.

4.3. Research Approaches

There are two main research approaches: deduction and induction. With deduction, a theory and hypotheses are developed and a research strategy designed to test the hypothesis. With induction, data are collected and a theory developed as a result of the data analysis. However, the suggested research approach is dependent on the research question or issue, which is checked by the nature of association existing between research and theory (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

4.3.1. Deduction: testing theory

The deductive protocol, or the hypothetic-deductive approach defined by Baker and Foy (2008), typifies the popular perspective of the association between theory and research. Robson (2002) lists five sequential stages through which deductive research will progress:

1. Deduce a hypothesis from the theory.
2. Express the hypothesis in operational terms, which propose a relationship between two specific variables or concepts.
3. Test this operational hypothesis.
4. Examine the specific outcome of the inquiry (it will either tend to confirm the theory or indicate the need for its modification).
5. Modify the theory based on the results, if necessary.

The deductive approach has many fundamental characteristics. The first characteristic is the search to explain causal relationships between constructs. The second characteristic is that of control, which facilitates the testing of hypotheses. The third characteristic is that research should apply a highly structured methodology to enable replication (Gill and Johnson 2002); essential to ensuring reliability. The fourth characteristic is concepts need to be operationalised in a way that enables facts to be measured quantitatively. The last characteristic is a generalisation. To be able to generalise statistically about regularities in human social behaviour, it is necessary to select samples of sufficient numerical size (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

4.3.2. Induction: building theory

An alternative approach to conducting research is the inductive approach. To induce something is to draw a conclusion from one or more specifics facts or pieces of evidence. The conclusion explains the facts, and the facts support the conclusion (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2011). In other words, the research process develops, starting from empirical materials, not from theoretical propositions (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). As such Saunders, Lewis and Thornill (2012) report existences of little concern over generalisation issues. The task of this approach is largely one of generating a theory (Bryman, 2008).

4.3.3. Justification of the research approach

The research philosophy method used is supposed to be appropriate to the research problem or the issue under investigation. According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), it is somewhat problematic to accommodate a research issue in a certain philosophical status. Nevertheless, determination of the research philosophy is critical in defining the protocol to be employed by the researcher in determining solutions to the research problems.

The current study aims to establish and explain the determinants of the overall value of luxury accessories. It will then examine the impact of the overall value (CV) of luxury accessories on motivating consumer’s purchasing intention directly or indirectly through BPs and brand trust. The research adopts the deductive approach to realise this objective. It begins with theory representing additional information regarding literature on branding, Marketing, and consumer behaviour and offers a description of CVs linked to the luxury brands. The model provides an understanding of how consumers’ luxury value dimensions determine their luxury accessories value, which then influences their repurchase intention through a direct and indirect route with respect to the theoretical model of consumer behaviour and branding. The deductive approach is not applied fully in this research because that it is vital to consider the interaction of social actors in defining the social aspects and relying on the available literature. This facilitates the opportunity to describe the social phenomena by adding significant factors to those that are available in the literature.

Subsequently, this approach will surmount the criticism focused on the deductive approach for failing to consider the duty of social actors and the observance of the formulated methodology. Practically, it is achievable and of significant since the inductive and deductive approaches will be combined at a certain point, and this will augment the examination of the research problem within respective contexts (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012; Bryman and Bell, 2012).

4.4. Research Design and Process

The research design is not just a study plan of the empirical part of the study; rather, it consists of multilayered decisions and issues. Research design covers all issues ranging from theoretical reading, the methodological choices, to the empirical data gathering, analysis and writing processes (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008). Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2008) add that there are various ways can be used to classify study designs including data collection methods, dimensions of time, engagement of the researcher, and the aim of the study. Based on the aim of the study, research designs can be classified into three categories; exploratory, descriptive and causal (Chisnall, 2001).

The exploratory research is primarily beneficial when the researchers lack a clear idea of the problems or issues under investigation. Through exploration, the researchers develop concepts, establish priorities, improve operational definitions and develop the final research design (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2011). Descriptive studies, in contrast to exploratory studies more formalised studies, are typically structured with clearly stated hypotheses or investigative questions. Finally, causal studies seek to discover the causal associations between respective variables or why certain outcomes are obtained (Saunders, Lewis and Thorhill, 2012).

The present study aims to examine the determinants of luxury accessories value and its effect on customer's intention of making a repurchase. Hence, for this reason, the study design will entail two phases. By proceeding to the study process, every phase will be able to offer results that will add to this study. The initial phase applied to explore the determinants of CV for luxury accessories brands through review of the literature and conducting focus groups to probe further on the clarity of dimensions. The following phase is applied to define the demographic profile of the participants in the main questionnaire. This is executed for hypothesis testing and describing the association between the research construct. The study design chart is presented in Figure 4.1

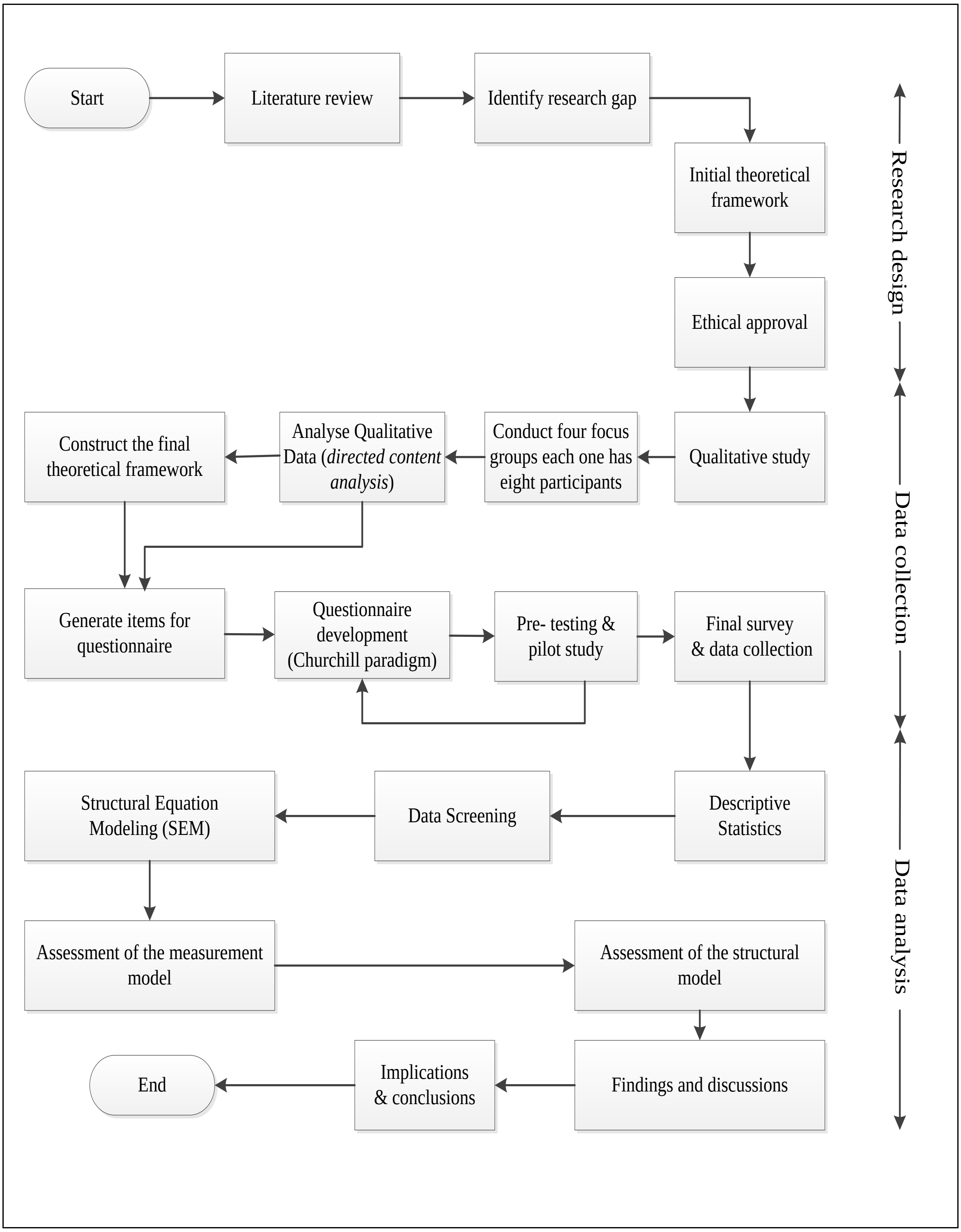


Figure 4.1 Research design

4.4.1. Quantitative and qualitative research

Qualitative research is described most frequently in contrast to quantitative research, which dominates the body of scientific work undertaken in social sciences, including business research (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). Bryman and Bell (2012) state that quantitative research is designed by emphasising on quantification in the collection and analysis of data and

- Entailing a deductive approach to the relationship between the theory and research, in which the accent is placed on the testing the theories
- Has incorporated the practices and norms of the natural scientific model and of positivism in particular
- Embodying a view of social reality as an external, objective reality.

Conversely, qualitative research is established by emphasising words, rather than quantifying the collection and analysis of data.

- Mainly emphasising an inductive approach to the relationship between the theory and research, in which the focus is on producing the theory
- Rejecting the practice and norms of the natural scientific model and of positivism in particular preference to emphasise how individuals interpret their social world
- Embodying a view of social reality as a constantly shifting emergent property of individual creation.

However, Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2011) argue that the line between positivism and interpretivism is not completely identical to the line between quantitative and qualitative research. In addition, the interconnections between the different features of quantitative and qualitative research are not as straightforward as above (Bryman and Bell, 2012). Table 4.1 presents the main different points between the two approaches;

Table 4.1 Comparison between quantitative and qualitative approach

Quantitative	Qualitative
Deductive	Inductive
Objective	Subjective
Independent and dependents vraiables	Holistic, interdependent system
Focus on generalisation	Not focus on generalisation
Focus on number	Focus on words
Statistical analysis	Content and Pattern analysis, case studies
Probabilistic sample, random	Key informants, purposeful
Conclusive	Impressionistic

Source: (Patton, 1990) and Chisnall (2001)

It can be argued from the Table 4.1 that qualitative research adopts a holistic view of the research questions. This research approach follows a naturalistic strategy in understanding the research inquiries in the respective context settings (Patton, 1990). It is also concerned with non-numeric data interpretation for determination of subjective meanings of the phenomena under study (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Through the use of the qualitative data, the investigator may have access to detailed data regarding the opinions and views of the participants, and this may give an open window towards understanding the participant`s attitudes, feelings, preferences, positions, and views (Patton, 2006). This type of study aids in understanding the association between the study variables lacking from the survey (Bryman, 2006). Furthermore, qualitative research may be employed for clarification of the concepts and attain a better framing of the words in the scale elements in the respective survey (Silverman, 2006; Churchill, 1995). Nevertheless, qualitative research faces criticism since it lacks generalizability due to its subjective nature and difficulties in replicating (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The quantitative research follows a realism approach and implements the concepts derived from theory to allow measuring it (Baker and Foy, 2008). Quantitative research also investigates the association between variables and hypothesis testing. As such, it stresses on the use of numeric data to draw conclusions that are generalisable (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Nonetheless, Silverman (2006) reports that quantitative research faces criticism because of its less involvement or not contact participants, illogical description of the variables further from the context settings. Therefore, the data from the quantitative research cannot be used in order to develop the hypothesis. In order to avoid this criticism, this research will apply both the qualitative and quantitative study respectively.

4.4.2. Mixed-methods research

Mixed-methods approach is the general term for when both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures are used in a research design (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Mixing research methods is known to occur more frequently in Business and Management Studies (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Researchers slowly recognise the merits of mixing these two research methods in one study (Creswell, 2009). Silverman (2006) reveals the tendency to generate a holistic perspective of the phenomenon under investigation from various angles. Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) suggested many reasons attributed to the use of mixed-methods. Combining qualitative and quantitative research can produce good-quality research with novel perspectives. In addition, qualitative research can provide more detailed information and develop opportunities for quantitative research, and vice versa. Finally, quantitative research can provide a general overview and grounded information on the relationship between various issues of topics that the researcher can after that investigate deeply with qualitative research.

Bryman (2006) expounds on these factors while reviewing the commonly-used reasons available in research articles and methodological writings. This review offers more elaborated reasons to describe the rationale for using the mixing methods approach.

The mixed-method research uses quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analysis procedures either at the same time (parallel) or one after the other (sequential) but does not combine them. In other words, although mixed-method research uses both quantitative and qualitative world views at the research methods stage, quantitative data are analysed quantitatively, and qualitative data are analysed qualitatively (Creswell, 2009; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

Easterby-smith *et al.*, (2008) suggest that while employing the sequential approach, the qualitative methods should be prioritised. This research blends qualitative and quantitative methods to attain an extensive comprehension of the research question on the researched context and come with a survey tool. Hence, data collection and analysis is undertaken both qualitatively and quantitatively.

4.5. First Stage: Qualitative Study

There is a richness of qualitative research data that can be used and combined in qualitative business research; the appropriateness of each type of data for a specific research should be assessed by their ability to generate answers to research questions through analysis (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). Many approaches are available for business research: in-depth-interviewing, document analysis, street ethnography, case studies, participant observation and expert interviewing (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2011).

An interview is a purposeful conversation between two or more people. Particularly, it is about purposeful questions and carefully listening to the answers to be able to explore these further. The data from interviews include direct quotations of interviewees about their feelings, opinions, experience and knowledge. The interview can produce reliable and valid data that are appropriate to research objectives and questions.

There are many typologies of interviews. However, there is overlap between these different typologies, although consideration of each typology adds to our overall understanding of the nature of research interviews. One typology used commonly is, thus, related to the level of formality and structure; whereby interviews may be categorised into one of the following activities:

• Structured interviews: the researcher uses questionnaires based on a predetermined standardised or identical list of questions. The researcher and the respondents interact limitedly to the preliminary explanations before answering the questions.

• Semi-structured interviews: the researchers also use a prepared set of questions, but this is not fixed. The researcher can modify, delete, add, and change the order of some questions according to the nature of the interview.

• Unstructured or in-depth interviews: these can be used to explore in-depth a general area in which the researcher is interested. This type of interview is informal and enables the participants to speak freely (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

Another typology differentiates between standardised interviews and non-standardised interviews. Robson (2002) refers to a different typology: respondent (participant) interviews and informant interviews. However, this study opts for focus group discussions (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

4.5.1. Overview of the focus groups

A group of individuals were selected and assembled by the researcher to discuss the topic under investigation from personal experience (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). Contrary to other group interviews, focus groups differ because they are moderated with a specified focus and facilitates interaction among respondents (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Churchill (1995) suggests that focus groups are informative methods with respect to generating data that can aid hypotheses testing, questionnaire development, background information on certain goods, and investigation of customer perceptions, in addition to experiences of the novel concepts.

Various benefits may be attributed to the use of focus groups. It is possible for the researcher to investigate the manner in which respondents generate and define their views. It is also possible to analyse conversations based on the respondent`s tension, emotions, interruptions and language used, which is equally vital as the analysis of the entire conversation. Furthermore, decisive comments can be generated in instances where respondents are given the authority to share their views freely in collaboration with the moderator (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

Conversely, there are several limitations associated with focus groups. Some may be avoided. Where one or two participants dominate the discussion, their contributions are reduced carefully and others are brought in by asking them direct questions. In addition, some participants cannot understand each other’s contributions so this is avoided by asking a participant to clarify the meaning of a particular contribution, where it has not been understood (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

4.5.2. The rationale of using focus groups

The most extensive use of focus groups has been taken in the business-oriented market and consumer behaviour. Recently, focus groups are used commonly in academic Marketing to study consumer behaviour including attitudes, perceptions, needs, preferences and choices (Bristol and Fern, 2009; Bryman and Bell, 2007; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). This approach is vital in investigating the way respondents shape their thoughts and discover vital factors and their antecedences using their own terms (Kitzinger, 1995).

Distinct advantages arise from using group interviews. Because of the presence of several participants, this type of situation allows a breadth of views to emerge and for the group to respond to these views. A dynamic group can generate a number of ideas and evaluate them, thus helping the researcher to explain or explore concepts (Saunders, Lewis and

Thornhill, 2009). In face-to-face interviews, the discussion is limited to the interviewee and interviewer. Stokes and Bergin (2006) highlight that focus groups are able to identify accurately principal issues, they are unable to provide the depth and detail in relation to specific issues obtained from individual interviews.

Focus groups can facilitate a meeting between a larger number of participants than would be possible through the use of one-to-one interviews. For this reason, this number may allow to the researcher adopting an interview based strategy that can more easily be related to a representative sample; specifically, where the study is being conducted in relation to a clearly defined population. This can help to create the credibility of this study where an attempt is made to overcome issues of bias associated with interviews (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009).

Hence, using of focus groups may allow the researcher to identify the essential factors associated with the topic under investigation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Group interviews can also be used to identify key themes that will be used to develop items that are included in a survey questionnaire. This particular use of group interviews may inform subsequent parts of your data collection, providing a clearer focus (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). According to Churchill (1979), focus groups can apply in order to generate items for development better measurement. Thus, conducting focus group can achieve the second purpose of the qualitative study. Focus group can be considered an essential step in developing the questionnaire that offers contextual survey design basis (Bloor *et al.*, 2001).

This research examines how the formulation of overall value for luxury accessories is structured by emotional, social, self-identity, community value, financial and relational responses. By revising the existing literature, CV development is anticipated by the theory of consumption values, which explains consumer decisions to purchase luxury accessories brand. Based on this theory, consumers generate informed buying decisions after taking into consideration various value drivers, such as emotional, social, self-identity, financial, community and relational. Consumers of luxury brands use the buying behaviour mode that comprises of multiple value dimensions in deciding the items they buy. The process may be unconscious as the art of the personal cognition but still plays a major role in the determination of consumer buying behaviour that impact on the luxury brand industry performance in terms of returns from sales. This study applied critical realism and post-positivism philosophy, which state that social actors play a fundamental role in developing their reality. Consequently, the main purposes of focus group discussions are outlined below:

1. To explain a phenomena with in-depth understanding (Carson et al, 2001; Jick, 1979), so that the elements of the study can be demystified, in particular since the various value dimensions associated with luxury accessories brands are poorly understood and under-investigated (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010; Berthon *et al.*, 2009; Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels, 2009; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004).
2. To select a product category and specific luxury brands.
3. To evaluate the suitability of the thematic focus of the research tools and questions for a specific research setting.
4. To review the contemporary study hypotheses in order improve them alongside the other research methodology elements.
5. To formulate the measurements and standards to be used in the designing of the questionnaire data collection tool (Churchill, 1979; Diamantopoulos and Souchon, 1999).
6. To increase the validity of the research findings (Deshpande, 1983) and to obtain a richer explanation of research outcomes (Creswell, 2003; Jick, 1979).

The robust nature of how consumers shaping their overall value towards luxury accessories will be delivered by the fulfilment of focus group purposes. Furthermore, it will improve the validity of the process model and support the development of measurement scales (Churchill, 1979).

4.5.3. Structuring the focus group

Conducting focus group requires taking into consideration essential aspects. These aspects cover focus group number, the length of each focus group discussion, the time, and the place in which the focus group discussions conducted. In addition to the number of participants in each session, the selection criteria of participants, and finally the role of the moderator was considered.

The structure of focus groups is arranged by directing four focus groups heterogeneously in terms of the characteristics of the participants. Conversely, the members of each group are homogeneous in respect of demographics profile. So, there is homogeneity across the focus groups whereas within each group the heterogeneity is applied. This can facilitate to find out the variances between the four focus groups and check the shared experiences between the participants who belong to same group discussion.

Concerning the selection criteria of participants, who have to be appropriate to the subject under investigation as suggested by Bryman and Bell, (2011). Here, there are two options; the participants formulate familiar groups or they can be unknown to each other. The selection criteria for this study are: (1) Gulf Arab tourists to the UK; (2) luxury brand accessories were purchased by every member of each group at least twice during the previous year. The snowballing technique is used to recruit focus group participants; specifically, the researcher employs her existing social networks to recruit participants. Because the researcher was somewhat unsure of the consumers who have the desire to participate in the discussion, this duty was allocated to more than one individual. The persons have the full option of whether or not to participate in the discussion. By attending this discussion, they had a different experience.

Because one of the fundamental purposes of this part of this research is to develop the survey instrument, according to Bloor *et al.* (2001), participants of the focus groups should reflect the respondents of the survey. In order to achieve this goal, the initial contact persons are restricted to Gulf Arab tourists and are selected from the target population. As such, the initial contacts are told that respondents they recruit should be Gulf Arab tourist to the UK. It is assumed that there is a good chance that the respondents recruited by a specific contact person might have similar characteristics to the recruiter because it is likely that the contact person would find that it is easier to recruit from the society that he/she belongs to, alternatively they simply choose friends and peers (Michell 1999). Therefore, particular attention is placed on achieving a sample which represents the research population. The balance of gender, age group, income, and social class are considered and taken into account. Here, as information about income and social class are difficult to obtain, occupation and education are used as surrogates, as suggested by Fern (2001).

4.5.4. Limitations of using focus groups

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), the primary limitation of the focus groups is that they cannot be generalised as they are not representative of the population, even if they involve more than 12 participants. As such, focus group discussions are devoid of reliability with respect to results. In the current research, the focus group discussions are a reflection of the sample frame. Additionally, the outcome of the four groups is followed by a survey. Consequently, the assessment of the reliability of the study is possible.

The second disadvantage of focus group discussions tends to be linked to the loss of control over the group members. Lack of harmony between the members generates a lack of enthusiasm for contributing towards the discussion and difficulties in audio-recording and data transcription (Bryman, 2008). Hence, the interview required transcription as soon as it is conducted. This allows the investigator to avoid missing data, or being deluged by significant information. Therefore, it is possible to prevent this limitation.

The third limitation is linked to the troubles of comprehending academic concepts. Group members tend to experience problems particularly with the meaning of certain academic concepts, for instance, rational and self-identity values. As such, participants appear to struggle initially in regards to expression of their encounters with various luxury brands. The facilitator anticipates these difficulties and comes up with a list of illustrations from other researchers like Broyles (2009), Sheth, Newman, and Gross (1991b) and Sweeney and Soutar (2001).

Examples of self-identity provided are of luxury brands of various classes of products, but respondents are conversant with the brands like Rolex, Mercedes, and LV. LV handbag, "*I feel I am luxury person*". Mercedes, *"I think the prestige for a car. It likes when you buy Mercedes, it is the symbol of my success*". Rolex, "*if you wear just Carty or Rolex this means you are wearing something well-known for the watches. It is something nice and good";* "*I feel this brand is sense with me".* The meaning of a relational value represents the other academic concepts that majority of participants experience difficulties in comprehending. The facilitator describes the academic definition and offers an illustration. For instance, Chanel is classic and traditional.

The other disadvantage associated with focus group discussion involves encouraging the participant to contribute to the discussion and explain their experiences and opinions is an essential reason beyond the homogenous; however, the moderator faces this problem by asking direct questions for those participants to express their perceptions and views about luxury brand accessories.

4.6. Second Stage: Quantitative Study

In this stage, the literature review and the qualitative study are used as a base to develop reliable and validate measures of all constructs embraced in the conceptual research model. These measures have been used to design the survey and then test the hypotheses.

The current study used the questionnaire as an approach to collect the data for the quantitative study. Many studies in Marketing investigate consumer behaviour, specifically CV, using the survey (e.g. Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello, 2009). Nevertheless, it is employed for an explanatory study to investigate causal relationships; whether a change in one independent variable produces a change in another dependent variable (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

The survey approach is applied in explanatory and descriptive studies. The data gathered using a survey strategy may be employed to suggest possible reasons for a certain association between variables and the generate models of the respective associations (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). The survey strategy is applied in Marketing research developed for studying consumer behaviour for instance Peng, Chen and Wen (2014).

To realise the objective of the second stage, a cross-sectional questionnaire is developed to collect the data since it is appropriate for analytical and descriptive studies (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). Nevertheless, it is not only the technique for data collection that belongs to the survey approach. Structured interviews and observations usually fall within this approach.

4.6.1. Survey design and questionnaire development

Chisnall (2001) suggested many essential requirements when designing the questionnaire to get a true response. The first requirement is the type of the information should be determined by the researcher. According to Churchill (1995), the suggested hypotheses conduct the questionnaire and recognise the variables that specify the research association, the form of queries and the respondents. The second requirement, the researcher would not apply any kind of pressure on the memories of respondents, in addition, the questions have to be structured and phrased by using familiar language and simple words specifically linked to the studied topic. The respondents will be more willing to answer when the questionnaire has a clearer design (Chisnall, 2001).

The current study adopts Churchill's (1979) paradigm to develop the questionnaire. The first stage is to review the literature to define and specify the domain of the constructs in the study. As illustrated in Figure 3.1, the 12 hypotheses in the proposal model test the relationships between ten constructs (emotional value, social value, self-identity value, community value, relational value, financial value, overall value assessment, brand trust, BPs and repurchase intention). These constructs must be converted to operational items.

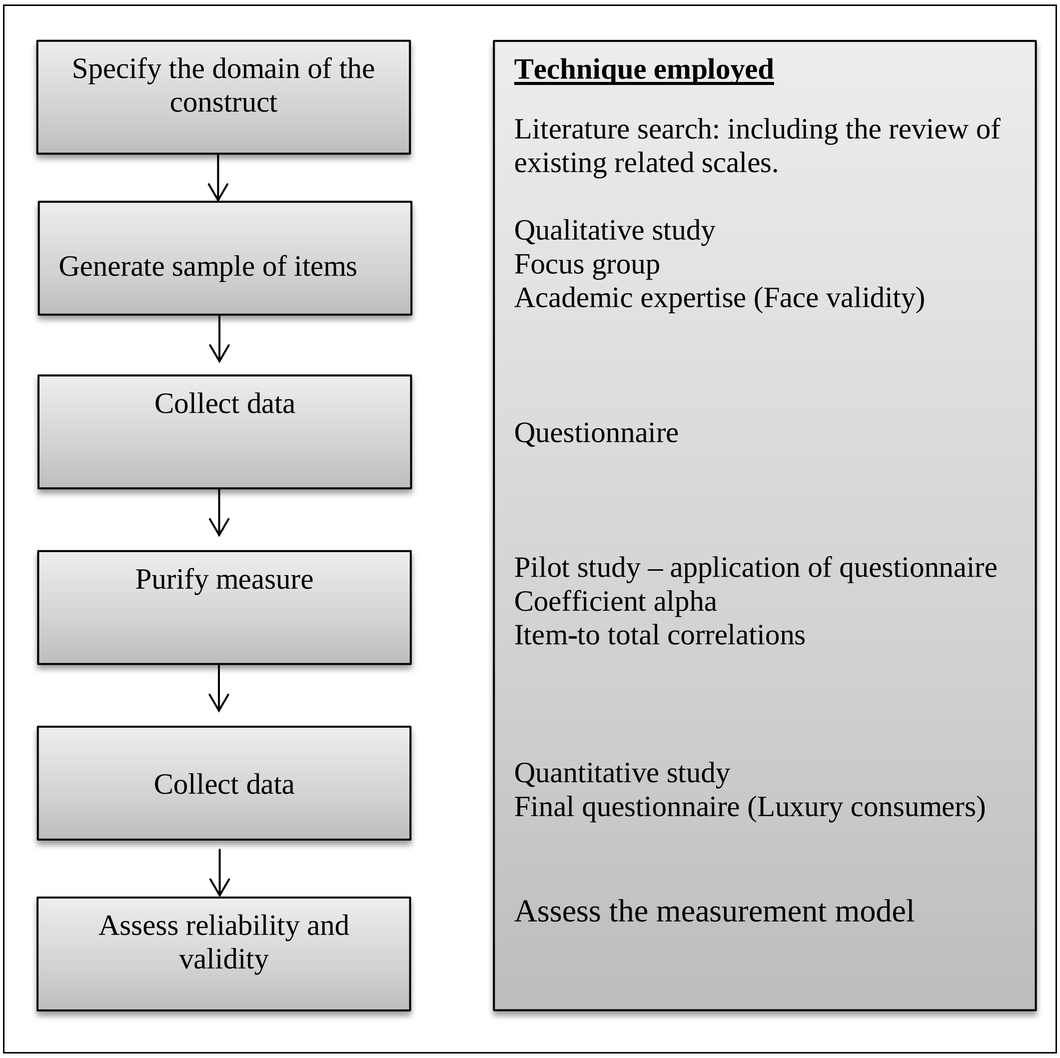


Figure 4.2 Procedures for developing better measures (Churchill 1979)

4.6.1.1. Specify the domain of the construct

According to the Churchill paradigm, the initial step of generating better measurement is the identification of the domain of the concepts via extracting what is incorporated or excluded in the definition (Churchill, 1979). The following step involves generation of items that capture the domain according to specifications. The initial two steps are related to the conceptualisation and operationalisation processes. The concept represents the name offered to the construct for specification of its major characteristics (Churchill, 1995). Finally, the operationalisation represents the method through which translation of the indicators to be measured empirically is achieved (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). Hence, the available literature is supposed to indicate the way variables have been defined and the number of indicators or elements present (Churchill, 1979).

Emotional value - the operational definition of emotional value is based on six items adapted from Sweeny and Soutar (2001); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels, (2009); and qualitative study. Table 4.2 illustrates the construct items, coding and its sources.

Table 4.2 The domain of emotional value

	Items	**Code**	**Source**
1	I enjoy using luxury accessories	EV1	Sweeny and Soutar (2001); Qualitative study
2	Buying luxury accessories make me feel good	EV2	Sweeny and Soutar (2001); Qualitative study
3	Buying luxury accessories gives me a lot of pleasure	EV3	Sweeny and Soutar (2001); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009); Shukla and Purani (2011); Qualitative study
4	Wearing luxury accessory makes me feel relaxed	EV4	Sweeny and Soutar (2001); Qualitative study
5	When I am in a bad mood, buying luxury accessories enhances my mood	EV5	Qualitative study
6	I derive self-satisfaction from buying luxury accessories	EV6	Qualitative study

Social value - the operational definition of social value is based on six items adapted from Hennigs *et al.*, (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009) and qualitative study as well. Table 4.3 illustrates the construct items, coding and its sources.

Table 4.3 The domain of social value

	Items	Code	Source
1	I like to know if luxury brand accessories and products make a good impression on others	SVO1	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009); Qualitative study
2	To me, my friends' perceptions of different luxury brands or products are important	SVO2	Hennigs *et al.* (2012)
3	I pay attention to the types of people who buy certain luxury brands or products	SVO3	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009)
4	It is important to know what others think of people who use certain luxury brands or products	SVO4	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009)
5	I am interested in determining what luxury brands I should buy to make a good impression on others	SVO5	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Qualitative study

6	It is important that others have a high opinion of how I dress and look	SVO6	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Qualitative study

Self-identity value - the operational definition of self-identity value is based on three items adapted from Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009); and qualitative study. Table 4.4 outlines the construct items, coding and sources.

Table 4.4 The domain of self-identity value

	Items	Code	Source
1	The luxury brand accessory I buy must match what and who I really am	SVS1	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009); Shukla and Purani (2011); Qualitative study
2	My choice of the luxury accessory depends on whether it reflects how I see myself but not how others see me	SVS2	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009); Shukla and Purani (2011)
3	The luxury brand accessory I buy must reflect my personality	SVS3	Qualitative study

Relational value - to measure the relational value, a number of the measurement items were employed in the study done by Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009), which focused on the relative effects of brand image and the responsibility of brand communities on brand relationships were adopted. The construct items, coding and resources are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 The domain of relational value

	Items	Code	Source
1	Over time, this luxury brand accessory has become more important to me	RV1	Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009); Choo *et al.* (2012)
2	Both this luxury brand accessory and I benefit from our link	RV2	Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009); Choo *et al.* (2012)
3	Over time, this luxury brand accessory means more to me than other brands	RV3	Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009); Choo *et al.* (2012); Qualitative study
4	I care about the developments relevant to this luxury brand accessory	RV4	Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009); Choo *et al.* (2012); Qualitative study
5	This luxury brand accessory and I complement each other	RV5	Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009); Choo *et al.* (2012)

6	This luxury brand accessory is a person to whom I am close	RV6	Veloutsou and Moutinho (2009); Choo *et al.* (2012)

Financial value - The operational definition of financial value is based on four items adapted from Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009); and qualitative study. Table 4.6 outlines the construct items, coding and sources.

Table 4.6 The domain of financial value

	Items	Code	Source
1	Luxury accessories are inevitably very expensive	FIV1	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009); and qualitative study
2	Luxury accessories cannot be sold in the supermarkets	FIV2	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009); and qualitative study
3	True luxury accessories cannot be mass-produced	FIV3	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009); and qualitative study
4	Few people own true luxury accessories	FIV4	Hennigs *et al.* (2012); Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2009)

Brand trust - According the detailed literature review performed by Delgado-Ballester *et al.* (2003), brand trust is a multidimensional construct. Determination of the brand trust dimensions is usually conducted in the qualitative phase, in the collection of data. Following this stage, the responses concerning the participants` encounters with the various brands of luxury accessories agree with Delgado-Ballester et al's (2003) report. The two dimensions of brand trust described in the focus groups include intentionality and reliability. Table 4.7 illustrates the quantification items of brand trust.

Table 4.7 The domain of brand trust

	Items	Code	Source
Brand trust (Reliability)			
1	This luxury accessory is a brand name that meets my expectations.	BT1	Delgado-Ballester (2004)
2	I feel confidence in this luxury accessory brand	BT2	Delgado-Ballester (2004); qualitative study
3	This luxury accessory brand is a brand name	BT3	Delgado-Ballester

	that never disappoints me.		(2004)
4	This luxury accessory brand guarantees satisfaction	BT4	Delgado-Ballester (2004); qualitative study
Brand trust (Intention)			
5	This luxury accessory brand would be honest and sincere in addressing my concerns.	BT5	Delgado-Ballester (2004)
6	I could rely on this luxury accessory.	BT6	Delgado-Ballester (2004)
7	This luxury accessory brand would make any effort to satisfy me	BT7	Delgado-Ballester (2004); qualitative study

BPs – According to Decker and Trusov (2010), measuring of BPs can be done using different methods that follow two major approaches. These approaches are survey data-based and behavioural data-based. Survey data-based approach is popularly used while behavioural data-based is limited regarding its implementation.

A ranking scale can be used to measure the buyer preferences. Ranking implies prompting the buyers to rank their preferences for the respective brands. This can be achieved through the allocation of points among the studied brands, for instance in the studies by Niedrich and Swain (2003) and (2008), or ranking them in an order starting from the highlight preferred to the least preferred, as in the study conducted by (Ross, 1971 and Hughes, 1976). Analysis of the ranking question is performed using the Mplus programme, a statistical programme that performs SEM employed in complicated applications entailing multiple units of analysis within the same model (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Analysis of quantitative data in this study uses Smart- PLS, a flexible programme that employs a graphical interface, rather than computer codes or syntax commands. Hence, this research depends on a survey data-based approach, while using the conventional means of pencil and paper questionnaires and ratings on the five-point Likert scale for measuring the BPs. The measurement items are borrowed from several studies, including Jamal and Al-Marri, (2010), Hellier *et al.*, (2003), Sirgy*et al.*, (1997), Overby and Lee, (2006) and Duarte and Raposo, (2010) in addition to the qualitative methods as indicated below in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 The domain of BPs

	Items	Code	Source
1	I like this luxury brand more than any other luxury brand.	BP1	Jamal and Al-Marri (2007), Overby and Lee (2006), Sirgy *et al.* (1997))
2	This brand is my preferred luxury brand accessory over any other luxury brand.	BP2	Jamal and Al-Marri (2007), Sirgy *et al.* (1997); qualitative study
3	When it comes to making a purchase, this luxury brand is my first preference.	BP3	Overby and Lee (2006)
4	This brand meets my requirements for luxury better than other brands.	BP4	Hellier *et al.* (2003)
5	I would use this luxury brand more than any other luxury brand.	BP5	Jamal and Al-Marri (2007), Sirgy *et al.* (1997); qualitative study

Repurchase Intention – is normally quantified via a single item, as demonstrated in the studies conducted by Huber *et al.*, (2010), Keaveney *et al.*, (2007), Tsai, (2005), Palmer *et al.*, (2000). Three items are borrowed from the study conducted by Hellier *et al.* (2003), and qualitative methods are presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 The domain of repurchase intention

	Items	Code	Source
1	In future, this luxury brand accessory will be my first choice	RPI1	Qualitative study
2	I would be inclined to buy the same brand of luxury accessory again	RPI2	Hellier *et al.* (2003); Qualitative study
3	I will probably buy the same luxury brand accessory again	RPI3	Hellier *et al.* (2003); Qualitative study

4.6.1.2. Type of questionnaire and scale

The questionnaire represents a general term usually used to imply all methods of collecting data. The type of communication employed may be used to determine the kind of questionnaire. Two types of questionnaires are known; the self-administered questionnaire that is filled by the respondents and the interviewer-administered questionnaire that is recorded by the interviewer (Saunder *et al.*, 2009). The self-administered questionnaire may be circulated to the respondents using electronic means like Internet or intranet, by post, or hand-delivered and collected (Churchill, 1995; Blumberg *et al.*, 2008).

According to Churchill (1995), questionnaires can also be administered through the telephone; known as telephone questionnaires. The last category, which is the structured interviews, refers to questionnaires where interviewers interact with respondent face-to-face to collect information (Saunders *et al.*, 2009; Churchill, 1995). By comparing different types of questionnaires, higher rates of responses are usually recovered from interviewer-administered questionnaires compared with those that are self-administered. Nevertheless, interviewer-administered questionnaires are expensive and conducted by trained interviewers (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). Additionally, telephone interviews are also expensive and have a period limitation Blumberg *et al.*, (2008). Both telephone and structured interviews are associated with interviewer bias (Churchill, 1995). Contrary to this, self-administered questionnaires are cheap and do not require engagement by the researcher (Blumberg *et al.*, 2008).

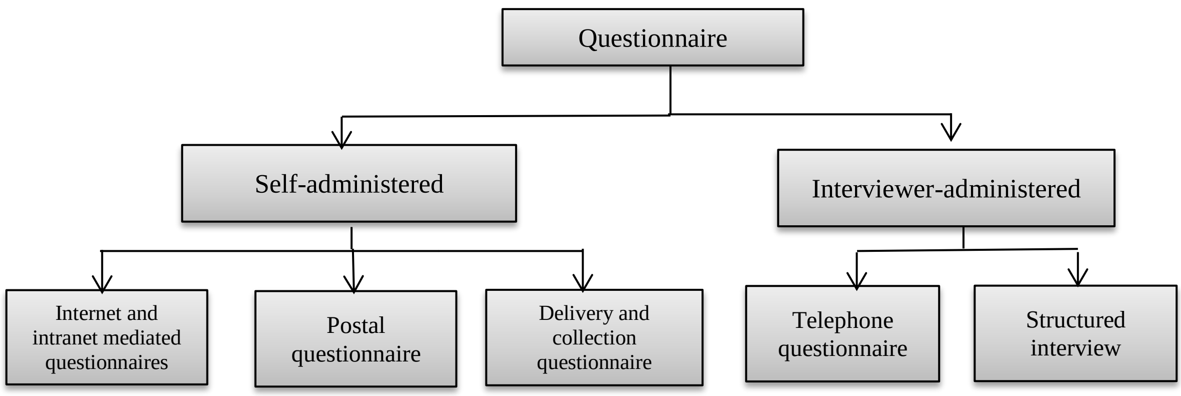


Figure 4.3 Questionnaire types

Source: Adapted from Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, (2012)

With respect to self-administered types of questionnaire, the post questionnaire requires a long period Churchill (1995) and the addresses of the participants are not known. Additionally, conveying questionnaires electronically tends to restrict respondents to be Internet users. Consequently, data collection in this study employed the Mall Intercept strategy in high streets. The study attained a representative sample via rotating the timing and location of the interviews, therefore avoiding the “staged” effect via inclusion of the Gulf Arab tourists in the survey from various locations including Harrods, Selfridges and

Westfield in London within a period of 10 weeks. These locations were selected due to the availability a large variety of luxury accessories brands, high traffic and an elevated degree of store surfing (Shukla, 2011). In the luxury shopping malls, the researcher identified particpants by targeting the Shisha cafe shops and Arab restaurants that are popular with Gulf Arab tourists. However, before distributing the questionnaires, the researcher asked potential participants whether they are from the Gulf Arab region in order to ensure their eligibility to participate. In addition, the researcher also noted the following aspects of potential participants: (1) the way they dress or their outfit (Headscarf and Abya for woman) and (kandourah for men), and whether they wear a lot of luxury items; (2) the visual accents in Arabic facial expressions. Finally, as the researcher is from the Arab world, this helped identify the Gulf Arab tourists.

Regarding the measurements rating scale, the present study adopts the Likert scale as it can be used with ease and is highly reliable (Chisnall, 2001). The number of Likert scale points is known to vary from four to seven (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). The four points may not offer the respondents with an opportunity for expression of the attitude, while the five points are associated with enhanced flexibility, and provide respondents with a chance of being uncertain with respect to a negative statement. Additionally, Malhotra and Birks (2003), posit that the seven points are associated with reduced clarity in appearance and are difficult to handle, compared with five points. For these reasons, this study uses the Likert five-point scale.

4.6.1.3. Translating questions into other languages

Translating questions and associated instructions into another language requires care if the translated or target questionnaire is to be decoded and answered by respondents in the way the researcher intended (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Since the present research is executed in London and used Gulf Arab participants, the questionnaire should be developed using the Arabic language. As such, translation of the questionnaires from Arabic to the English language is necessary. There are various strategies that can be applied for translations like parallel translation, mixed technique, direct translation and back-translation. Additionally, translating the questionnaire from the source language to target language is known as direct translation. On the other hand, translation of the questionnaire from the source to target language the re-translate back the translated form from target language to source language is known as back-translation. Next, a comparison between the original form and translated form should be completed, and the translated questionnaire is judged and corrected (Harknese*et al.*, 2003). The parallel translation is the third technique for assessing the translation, by sending the questionnaire to two different translators to translate it from its source form to target form. The two forms are reviewed and compared, then, the final version is created (Usunier, 1998). The final equivalent approach is the mixed technique, which requires the back-translation to be conducted by two or more translators, after which the comparison is done between the two varied versions of the translation to allow generation of single translation (Usunier, 1998).

Even though the direct translation is regarded as the easiest approach, a variance may exist between the two types of questionnaires. Hence, the back-translation approach may find any variance between the source form and target form; however, it can also provide wording of the questionnaire rather than meaning (Usunier, 1998). Furthermore, in back-translation, translator's skills can play an essential role in the success of the translation (Green and White, 1976), and need an expert to evaluate the similarity between the source form and target one (Harkness, 2003). Similarity, the parallel translation will generate the lexical equivalence rather than meaning. The mixed technique may provide better outcomes; however, it is expensive and requests more than two translators (Usunier, 1998).

Based on the factors outlined above, direct translation was adopted for the current study because it is not costly and easy to apply and less time-consuming process (Green and White, 1976). In addition, the questionnaire is tested during the pilot study to assess the reliability of the translated form (Punnet and Shnenkar, 2004). Therefore, two approaches, direct translation and testing, are applied to evaluate the questionnaire equivalency.

4.6.2. Pilot testing and assessing validity and reliability

Prior to using the main questionnaire to collect data it has to be pilot tested. The main aim of the pilot study is to refine the questionnaire so that participants will not face any difficulty in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Furthermore, it will enable the researcher to evaluate the reliability of the data that will be collected and assess the scales for face-validity and content-validity (Churchill, 1979).

The face-validity and content-validity are used as substitutable concepts without any difference. However, there are a few differences between the two concepts. Hardesty and Bearden (2004) define the content-validity as the extent to which a scale's indicators reflect an appropriate sample in the construct domain. Hardesty and Bearden (2004) confirm that the indicators that need to be content-valid also require face-validity, which investigates the degree to which respondents' judge that the indicators of a valuation measure are suitable to the research construct and evaluation aims. Other researchers have used the panel responsible for validity assessment as a base for the differentiation between the two concepts. For example, Mitchell (1996) stresses that content-validity is assessed by experts' panel; whereas the face-validity is allocated to non-expert panel for judgement. However, the content-validity can be assessed by using the pre-test questionnaire, which is considered the most widely-adopted approach. According to this approach, the experts employ a list of definitions for research constructs for following purposes; assessing the survey quality, approving the indicators, and estimating the ambiguity of other indicators subject to deletion (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). After which, unrepresentative or poor indicators, according to experts' opinions, are deleted, as suggested by Hardesty and Bearden (2004). Given that, the experts' panel, which has four judges, received the questionnaire and the definition list for the constructs of the current research. The experts judge the indicators independently. The participants are originally from the Gulf Arab region; therefore, one of the experts is a native Arabic speaker. Her assessment may be deemed significant, as the respondents are Arabic. Finally, according to experts' feedback, the notes were received and reviewed, and appropriate modifications made.

Regarding the indicators' structure and wording, the experts recommend the improvement and removing of some indicators or even change the scale of the construct. For example, the rephrasing of some questions of social value is recommended to provide clarification. For example, the item SVO3 was changed to *"I pay attention to the types of people who buy certain luxury brands or products"*, instead of *"I pay attention to what types of people buy certain luxury brands or products".* In addition to some questions of emotional value; for example, EV04 was changed to *"wearing luxury accessories makes me feel relaxed"* instead of *"buying luxury accessories makes me feel relaxed about using"*. Furthermore, the scale used to measure brand trust, adopted from Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), has many unclear questions according to the expert panel such as *"Luxury is honest brand",* *"Luxury brand accessory is safe", "I trust luxury brand accessories".* The scale was replaced by one adopted from Delgado-Ballester (2004). Moreover, a statement at the beginning of each scale has been added according to many suggestions to make the questions clearer. The following statement added at the beginning of each scale: '*put in your mind your favourite luxury accessories brand and answer the following questions'.*

In terms of the questionnaire's design and layout, many permutations were debated to clarify the content and encourage respondents to complete it. Firstly, the logos were placed alongside the luxury brand names at the beginning of the questionnaire. Secondly, applying lighter shading in the Table's column is recommended because it may appear dark when print. Thirdly, put each point of the Likert scale in separate boxes. Fourthly, state the full corresponding headings of the questions according to the literature review.

The content-validity followed with face-validity, which has been assessed by using a non-experts' panel; real Gulf Arab tourists who have an experience in luxury accessories brands. The actual consumers of luxury accessories brand have been asked to evaluate the quality of questionnaire in respect of design, wording, layout and structure of the indicators. Some modifications have been made according to respondents' comments. Finally, 15 to 20 minutes is the average time required to respond to the questions.

By employing a self-administrated questionnaire, the study was piloted in October 2013. Sixty respondents participate in the pilot study, which reflects the guideline suggested by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), who considered the acceptable value ranges from 10 to 100. However, the valid survey was 55 and the remainder is excluded as a result of the high level of missing data. In terms of the sample profile, the pilot study sampled 31 female and 24 male participants, with respective ratios of 56.36% and 43.64%. The respondents' ages vary from 18 to 40+ years old, with the majority (70.63%) falling within the 25 to 39 bracket. In terms of marital status, 63.56% of the respondents are married and the remainder are either single, widowed or divorced. Finally, 76% of participants hold a Bachelor's degree.

Concerning the current study, many criteria have been used to assess reliability; Cronbach's Alpha value, the inter-item correlation and item-to-total correlation. According to Field (2005), the Cronbach's Alpha value can vary depending on the number of indicators in the measurement so it may lead to misleading if it has been used as a single criterion. It is, therefore, necessary to apply additional criteria. Consequently, according to Hair *et al.*, (2010), it is more appropriate to report the inter-item correlation and item-to-total correlation for the indicators to judge the scale reliability. Field (2005) states that the item-to-total correlation represents the correlation among indicators with optimal mean inter-item correlation range between (0.2 – 0.4) (Pallant, 2010), whereas the inter-item correlation represents the item correlation to the total measure score with acceptance level equivalents 0.3. Moreover, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is considered as an indicator of internal consistency of the entire scale. Ideally, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient has to be more than 0.7. However, 0.5 or 0.6 can be accepted at the early stages of research (Churchill, 1979). Hence, if the item does not meet the rule of thumb 0.3, it is subject to drop off for the inter-item correlation and the item-to-total correlation (Field, 2005).

Based on the aforementioned factors, the findings indicate the social value is measured by seven items; one of them, SVO7, did not achieve the threshold defined, getting less than (0.3) item-to-total correlation. By removing this indicator, the Cronbach's Alpha value for SVO7 increases to 0.94. Moreover, repurchase intention, which is measured by three indicators, has a good reliability with Cronbach's Alpha value equivalent to 0.87. All six items measuring the financial value is reliable, with Cronbach's Alpha values equal 0.74. The item-to-total correlation with the score of the total measure is low for the item RV8, which measures the relational value. By removing this indicator, Cronbach's Alpha value rises to 0.91.

Furthermore, the findings illustrate that self-identity is measured by using three items only. All Cronbach's Alpha values achieve the rule of thumb, with the exemption of indicator SVS4 that gets item-to-total correlation below 0.3. Consequently, the indicator was removed, escalating the alpha value to 0.81. The brand trust is a multidimensional build embodying two measurements. The principal of assessing the unwavering quality measurement has a dependable scale embodying four aspects with great consistency. The deliberateness measurement is measured by three profoundly corresponding factors with a consistent quality. The estimation of alpha is 0.92.

4.6.3. Sampling design steps

According to Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2011), several decisions must be made after determining the data collection approach. These decisions aim to identify: (1) the relevant population; (2) the sampling frame; (3) the type of sample; (4) and the sample size.

4.6.3.1. The relevant population

Population is the total collection of elements about which the researchers want to make some inferences (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2011). The target population is normally required to be convenient, attain the study objectives and reflect the required sampling unit (Hair *et al.*, 2003; Aaker *et al.*, 1997). Three components require identification during the definition of the target population; a sampling unit, extent and time (Malhotra and Briks, 2003). For the present study, the population is represented by Gulf Arab tourists of both genders and aged 18 years and above, who are visiting the UK and have experience of luxury accessories brands. The research adopts a cross-sectional research design; whereby data collection occurs at a single time for defined cases.

4.6.3.2. The sampling frame

The sampling frame represents a full list of all the cases present in the population from where the sample will be obtained (Saunder *et al.*, 2009). For the present study, it is possible to obtain a list of the whole population. Besides, firms are considering the personal information of the buyers as private data and can be exposed. As such, in the light of the sampling frame's absence, determination of the sampling technique can be achieved.

4.6.3.3. The type of sample

Data collecting from the entire population is impossible. As such, getting a sample from the population represents the most appropriate way strategy of conducting the study. In the review of the literature, two main types of sampling approaches may be employed in data collection for this study. Representative or probability sampling and judgemental or non-probability sampling approaches. The probability sampling refers to the chance of every case being chosen from the entire population and is normally equal to every case. Conversely, non-probability sampling means that the probability of every case being chosen from a population is unknown (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). The popularly employed sampling approaches include cluster sampling, simple random sampling, systematic sampling and stratified sampling. In contrast, non-probability sampling offers a variety of alternative approaches based on subjective judgement, which is selected during the exploratory stages and during protesting of the questionnaires to be used in the survey (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). The most commonly employed non-probability sampling methods include judgement sampling, convenience sampling, snowball sampling and quota sampling.

In relation to the present study, non-probability sampling called convenience sampling has been chosen due the unavailability of sampling frame (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012; Malhotra *et al.*, 1996; Reynolds *et al.*, 2003). Convenience also refers to accidental or haphazard sampling, which entails selecting the available sampling elements to engage in offering the information required for the research; moreover, it defines the range of alternative responses (Fricker and Schonlau, 2002 and Hair *et al.*, 2003). Haphazard sampling is one of the common sampling approaches (Hair *et al.*, 2003) and is a popular choicein the field of Marketing (Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou, 2011; Gallarza and Saura, 2006; Petruzzellis, 2010; Jamal and Al-Marri, 2010; Andreasen, 1984; Kim *et al.*, 2011). The sample-selection process continues until an appropriate sample size is attained. Even though this technique is employed on a wide scale, it is significantly limited by the fact that is not representative of the overall population (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012 and Churchill, 1995).

4.6.3.4. The sample size

Making a decision on the size of the sample is influenced by various factors. These include the level of certainty that properties of the gathered data will be a representative of the population`s characteristics, the overall population size from which the sample will be obtained, the kinds of analyses and the error margin (Saunder *et al.*, 2009). Some of the statistical software requires a threshold for the size of the sample obtained. Regarding this study, SEM has been used in data analyses. According to Hair *et al.*, (2010), the sample size needed for SEM is dependent on five factors. First, multivariate analysis, one of the SEM assumptions, represents the normality of respective data. It reduces the problems linked to deviations from normality.

The ratio between the total number of respondents and the parameters must be 15 to 1. The commonly applied method of approximation is the maximum likelihood estimation. This method indicates a proposed sample size of 200 participants on the lower end. Thirdly, model complexity is usually determined by the number of concepts, indicators variables as well as multi-group analyses.

Nevertheless, larger samples are necessitated for complex models. Fourth, missing data confounded the testing of the models and reduced the size of the sample. Hence, it is vital to consider missing data prior to sample size determination. With respect to average error variance of indicators, sample sizes that are large are needed for smaller communalities below 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2010). For complex model, the lowest sample size of 200 is regarded as acceptable (Kline, 2005). The statistical software employed in performing the modelling of the structural equation is the PLS-SEM, especially, Smart PLS 3. It is critical to know that PLS-SEM is beneficial when employed with small sizes of samples, for instance, regarding the robustness of approximations and statistical power (Reinartz *et al.*, 2009). Additionally, PLS-SEM has a flawed reputation for providing special sampling abilities that lack in other multivariate analyses tools (hair *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, for the present study, a sample size of 200 is allowed and satisfies the requirement analysis tools but the investigator targets a sample size of 397 legitimate responses.

4.6.3.5. Sample-selection bias

Sampling provides an effective option for applying the questionnaire to the whole population, especially that collecting and analysing all available data owing to limitations of money, time and access. Furthermore, assumptions are not made that the census would give more useful results than data from a sample that represents the whole population (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Using a sampling method makes it even more possible to gather accurate data from the census, according to Henry (1990). In particular, a census provides a greater chance of non-sampling error. When one uses a sample, it becomes necessary to allow generalisation of the results. This implies that the researcher would seek a sample that represents the population that is pertinent to the research (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012).

To achieve this, assessing the bias and evaluating the quality of the sample is important. Blair and Zinklan (2006) say that three possible forms of sample bias. These are *coverage bias*, which occurs when one omits some segments of the population under study; *selection bias* occurs when some sectors of the population receive lower or higher chances of consideration than others; non-responsible bias arises when some people refuse or fail to respond. However, according to Blair and Zinklan, 2006, non-response bias serves only as one source of sample bias. There is no guarantee that a sample is good even if there is a higher response rate. It is common for the non-probability sample to produce higher repose rate than probability samples.

The author believes there are three potential approaches to reducing the effect of non-response bias; obtaining responses from non-respondents, anticipating the consequences of no reply, and reducing the figure of non-responses (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). However, the best and correct approach to determining the non-response bias varies with time trends, which means that if a respondent responds later, it is a “no response”. Moreover, Yu and Cooper (1983) suggest that if the research design is improved, it can reduce non-response and increase the rate of reply of several other criteria, which includes the characteristics of the desired population, contact method, and the length and the design of the questionnaire. Personal interview, which is one of the methods for contact used, will generate the highest responses as compared with emails and telephone surveys (Yu and Cooper, 1983). According to Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2012), both personal and telephone interviews can provide reasonable responses, ranging from 50-70%.

The current study adopts a self-administered survey approach, which enables the researcher to guide and motivate the respondents to complete the questionnaire (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). According to Sekaren (2003), the main advantage this survey offers is a high rate of responses and also that the required questionnaires are completed within a short period.

4.6.4. Analysing quantitative data

The data will be progressed in two stages; data screening and the modelling of structural equations (Smart PLS). Data screening will check for outliers and missing data, and testing the assumptions of multivariate analysis via the use of SPSS version 20. According to Saunders *et al.*, (2012), descriptive statistics are usually employed to offer general samples, describing variables using numerals by computing the mean and standard deviations. SEM, in the second stage, is executed along with the evaluation of measurement as well as the structural model. Table 4.13 offers a summary of the statistical techniques applied to analyse quantitative data for the major survey.

Table 4.10 Summary of used statistics technique in the main survey

Analysis	Purpose	Technique	Software	Cut-off point	Source
➢ Data screening					
Missing data	Checking the pattern, extent of missing data and apply suitable approaches of remedies	Little MCAR test	SPSS	Randomly Missing data <10%	Hair *et al.*, (2010)
Outliers	Univariate refers to extreme values on single variable	Standardised scores (z)	SPSS	$z < \pm 3.29$	Tabachnick and Fidell (2006)
	Multivariate represents to extreme values on more than two variables	Mahalanobis D^2	SPSS	$D^2/df < 2.5$	Hair *et al.*, (2010)
➢ Testing the assumption of multivariate analysis					
Normality	Univariate normality	Trimmed mean	SPSS	Minor different from the mean	Pallant (2010)
		K-S test		Significant value >0.05	Pallant (2010)
		Skewness and Kurtosis		Value $\leq \pm 2.58$	Hair *et al.*, (2010)
	Multivariate normality	Normal P-P Plot	SPSS	Reasonable straight line	Pallant (2010)
		Mardia's coefficient		Significant value ≤ 0.05	Mardia (1970)
Homoscedasticity	Dependent variable has equal levels of variance among predictors	Levene's test	SPSS	Insignificant value ≥ 0.05	Pallant (2010)
Multicollinearity	High correlation between independent variables	Tolerate	SPSS	Tolerance >1	Hair *et al.*, (2010)
		variance of inflation (VIF)		VIF <10	
➢ Structural Equation Modeling					
Measurement model	Measurement model goodness of fit (GOF)	No global goodness of fit creation			Hair *et al.*, (2014)
	Measurement model validity	Indictor reliability	PLS	Outer loadings ≥ 0.7	Hulland (1999)
		Internal consistency Reliability	PLS	Cronbach's Alpha ≥ 0.7	Bagozzi and Yi (1988)
		Convergent validity	PLS	average variance extracted (AVE) ≥ 0.5 CR ≥ 0.7 Factor loadings ≥ 0.7	Bagozzi and Yi (1988)

		Discriminant validity	PLS	AVE > (correlation between two constructs)^2	Fornell and Larcker (1981)
Structural model	Structural model validity (Hypotheses testing)	Significance of path coefficients (β).	PLS	t-value > 3.26 ($P < 0.001$) t-value > 2.58 ($P < 0.01$) t-value >1.96 ($P < 0.05$)	Hair *et al.*, (2014)
		Significance of determination (R^2)	PLS	R^2 (0.25, 0.50 0.75 for weak, moderate, substantial)	Hair *et al.*, (2014)
		The predictive relevance Q2	PLS	$Q^2 > 0$	Hair *et al.*, (2014)
		The effect sizes $f^2$and the q^2 effect sizes	PLS	f^2 (0.02, 0.15, 0.35 for weak, moderate, strong effects) q^2 (0.02, 0.15, 0.35 for weak, moderate, strong effects)	Hair *et al.*, (2014)
Additional analysis (mediation)	Mediating effects	Total effects Direct effects Indirect effects	PLS	t-value > 3.26 ($P < 0.001$) t-value > 2.58 ($P < 0.01$) t-value >1.96 ($P < 0.05$)	Hair *et al.*, (2014)

4.6.4.1. SEM

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a second-generation multivariate data analysis method that is frequently used in Marketing research because it can test theoretically-supported linear and additive causal models (Haenlein and Kaplan, 2004, Statsof, 2013). There are two sub-models within SEM; the measurement model, also known as an outer model, specifies the relationships between the latent variables and their observed indicators; whereas the structural model, also known as an inner model, specifies the relationships between the independent and dependent latent variables. There are two forms of SEM: the first is the widely-used covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM), which uses software packages such as AMOS, LISREL and M Pus. The second approach is the variance-based approach, PLS, which focuses on the analysis of the variance and can be carried out using PLS-Graph, Smart PLS and Wrap PLS (Herrmann, Huber and Kressmann, 2006; Scholderer and Balderjahn, 2006). However, faced with two approaches to path modelling, one must consider their advantages and disadvantages during the selection process (Kay-Wong, 2013).

Table 4. 11 The difference between variance-based SEM and covariance-based SEM

Criterion	Covariance-based SEM	Variance-based SEM (PLS)
Objective of overall analysis	Shows that the null hypothesis of the entire proposed model is plausible, while rejecting path-specific null hypotheses of no effect	Rejects a set of path-specific null hypotheses of no effect
Required theory base	Requires sound theory base. Supports confirmatory research	Does not necessarily require sound theory base. Supports both exploratory and confirmatory research
Assumed distribution	Multivariate normal, if estimation is through maximum likelihood. Deviations from multivariate normal are supported with other estimation techniques	Relatively robust to deviations from a multivariate distribution
Epistemic relationship between latent variables and measures	Typically only with reflective indicators	Formative and reflective indicators

Source: Developed from the literature review by the author

4.6.4.2. The rationale of using PLS

From Table 4.12, it is clear that PLS, being a variance-based SEM technique, provides a number of advantages. To some extent, this explains the increased use of PLS as an analysis method in international marketing research (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009). Variance-based SEM, i.e., PLS, was used to test the research model in the current study; in particular, the study employed Smart PLS 3.0.M3 (Hair *et al.*, 2014). This study used a variance-based PLS approach rather than covariance-based methods for many reasons,

First, PLS places less restriction on variable distribution and enables modelling of higher-order molar constructs (Turel, Serenko and Bontics, 2010). The second-order factor in the model was computed by using the repeated-indicators approach (i.e. the hierarchical component model), which is suitable for modelling higher-order factors in PLS. In addition to using higher-order constructs, this study employed formative constructs, according to Alpert *et al.*, (2001, p.177) ‘‘Formative indicators can only be analysed using PLS, and not by using the more common structural equation technique of LISREL’’. Nijssen and Douglas (2008, p.95) added that ‘‘PLS can deal effectively with formative scales’’.

Second, according to Hair *et al.*, (2014), PLS-SEM estimates coefficients (i.e. path model relationships) that maximise the R2 values of the (target) endogenous constructs. This feature achieves the predicted objective of PLS-SEM. PLS-SEM; therefore, it is the preferred approach when the research objective is theory development and explanation of variance (Prediction of the constructs). For this reason, PLS-SEM is regarded as a variance-based approach to SEM.

Third, researchers agree that there is no clear understanding of the value dimensions that constitute luxury accessories brands because the various value perceptions associated with luxury goods are poorly understood and under-investigated (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010; Berthon *et al.*, 2009; Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels, 2009; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004), and in this situation the variance-based approach of PLS is considered more appropriate than covariance-based methods such as LISREL (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982; Venaik, Midgley and Devinney, 2005). This is the case for the present study, whereby the measure of overall value assessment for luxury accessories brands is new and the relationships between value dimensions and overall value assessment for luxury accessories have not been previously tested. Acedo and Jones (2007) added that; ‘‘The PLS technique is justified where theory is insufficiently grounded and the variables or measures do not conform to a rigorously specified measurement model, or fit a certain distribution’’. Given its overall suitability to our modelling requirements, the researcher resorted to the PLS path modelling algorithm.

The application of a PLS model usually occurs in two steps: the estimation of the measurement model, which specifies the relations between the unobserved variables and their observed items, and an estimation of the structural model, which tests the paths in the research model (Chin, 1998a). In other words, the structural model moves from the stage of specifying the relationship between the latent constructs and measured variables in the measurement model to an advanced level; at which the nature and strength of the relationships between constructs are determined (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

4.7. Ethical Approval

According to Sekaran (2003) and regarding business research, ethics comprise a combination of norms and behavioural principles. Therefore, the behaviour of all of this study’s participants, including the researcher, moderator and the participants, is reflected in the ethical code of conduct. Churchill (1995) makes a clear differentiation between legal and ethical considerations. He states that ethics are more detailed and proactive when compared with legal concerns. In fact, some types of behaviours and actions that cannot be categorised as ethical, despite being legal. Actions such as social responsibility and safeguarding people from bad/harmful activities all fall within the scope of moral principles. Therefore, the principles of ethics for this research were considered carefully at every stage.

During the first stage of the study, the researcher organised the research paper to include estimations of time limitations, cost, information availability and the benefits of the research topic. Moreover, the researcher spent ample time in study preparation and literature review using authentic databases available, provided to the researcher by Brunel

University. As advised by Hair et al (2003), the researcher followed this step in order to conduct a quality research

During the next stage, data collection, the researcher considered the following ethical relationships with the study's participants, which are guided by Bryman and Bell (2011): (1) the researcher did not cause any harm to the participants of the study, such as physical damage or damage to their career; (2) the researcher had the responsibility to mention clearly the purpose of the study to the participants and gave them the opportunity to either accept or turn down their participation in this study; (3) the researcher respected the privacy of the individuals participating in this study; and (4) the researcher did not engage in deceitful acts, and alter or hide the objective of this study.

Before conducting the field study, the researcher obtained formal approval from the 'University of Research Ethics Committee'. The University has in place ethical codes that protect all individuals participating in the research; for example, the researcher cannot use participants below 18 years of age in his/her research study. So the researcher followed this rule of thumb when the participants have been targeted to participate in the study. For the purpose of collecting current data, data collection techniques are employed, such as focus groups and surveys. Therefore, the researcher abided by proper protocol, such as selecting a convenient place and time, in addition to acquiring permission to audio record the research session. Furthermore, the questionnaire's front page clearly declared the main purpose of this research and demonstrated the researcher's commitment to retaining the confidentiality of the data collected from the participants, using it solely for research purposes.

Moreover, the researcher informed all potential participants that providing personal details or participating in the research is not mandatory; and that personal details will be used only for the statistical representation of the whole sample, rather than at an individual level. Bryman and Bell (2011) state that the ethical code of conduct must be followed throughout the research process, including both stages of writing and dissemination, as this helps interpret and report research findings accurately. Finally, the researcher resolved all issues related to both plagiarism and referencing before the final study is submitted.

4.8. Conclusion

The research design for this study is outlined clearly in this Chapter. This study highlights the post-positivism approach, which claims that in shaping reality, the social actors are required to play distinct roles. This philosophy allows the investigator to move close to the truth. Even when it is purposive in overcoming the status quo, it explains reality with the help of social conditioning. In the natural background, the studied process is readdressed by the methodological approach in order to make the theoretical hypotheses valid. Thus, both qualitative and quantitative methods are used in this theory.

This study takes a mixed-method approach, comprising a sequential combination of qualitative and quantitative methods during the data collection phase. The qualitative study occurs in the first phase, becoming an exploration stage for validating the planned model and developing a questionnaire. Focus groups are also held, which represent an effectual technique for providing a clear picture and discovering the philosophies, experiences, preferences and responses of consumers. Moreover, during the development of the questionnaire, focus groups are found to be very useful in collecting data that can be used for development. Hence, four focus groups were held; all of which contained eight respondents and were an average of one and a half hours' duration. Inside the sampling frame of the main research, the participants are selected using snowball sampling methods.

The quantitative research constitutes the second phase, where in order to collect data a design of the cross-sectional survey is applied. In a pre-test research, evaluation of the content's legitimacy and dependability of the survey instrument are performed. As there are no sampling frames, a non-probability convenience sample method is taken into use. With the help of self-administrated questionnaires, data is gathered from respondents that can be found in shopping malls. A minimum of 397 people constitute the sample size, considered by applying the necessities of the statistical method for analysing the data.

There are two steps in the data analysis phase. Cleaning of data, checking multivariate methods assumptions, descriptive statistics and examination of a factor are the elements of the first step. For this step, a software called SPSS v.20 is required to analyse the data. Smart- PLS v.3 software is used in the second step, which is dealing with a hypotheses testing and is conducted by SEM. For the purpose of theoretical testing, the measurement model validity is evaluated and then conversion into a structural model occurs.

Consequently, to recognise data collection and examination techniques, calculating the time-frame and background of this research, along with an explanation of selection, this Chapter offers an organised guideline. This Chapter arrives at certain conclusions, as detailed below:

1. In most Marketing studies, the mixed-method technique is common in providing answers to the research questions. Just to find the overall value of luxury accessories, quantitative methods were used by most of the earlier research conducted on BPs. Moreover, it is believed that, in a qualitative method, the brand value is expressed by the consumers, which is particularly the result of their earlier experiences. Hence, assumed that this strategy will lead to a better comprehension of the overall value for luxury accessories development among consumers. Even the methodological restrictions of earlier studies will also be overcome by this method. Plus, a specific technique is formed by the inherited bias that is cancelled because of the combination of both techniques. The effectiveness of both methods is attained when one method neutralises the weakness associated with the other model. Consequently, it is believed that the validity of the results of a research will improve through the implementation of this strategy.

2. Regarding the operational definition, the method used for seizing participants, and the vernacular applied in the questionnaire, the research determines the background perception. The research is expected to become stronger by adding these considerations, as it modifies the generalisability, the validity is increased and the measures become more reliable.

3. The significance of the sample over the subject under examination and the sufficiency of the size of the sample for the purposes of investigation are determined by the research for overcoming the shortcomings of the convenience sample. For the representation of the sample to the population, the characteristics of the population are compared with the sample distribution.

Chapter 5: Analysis and Findings

5.1. Introduction

This Chapter provides an in-depth explanation of the first research stage (qualitative study), in terms of collecting and analysing the qualitative data. It aims to examine the perspective of Gulf Arab tourists in the formulation of the overall value of luxury accessories brand. During this stage, data was collected by adopting a focus groups approach. In Moreover, the importance of this stage is generated from its purpose by developing the final questionnaire, which will be used to collect the main data. This Chapter is divided into five sections. The first Section provides an overview of focus group protocol. The second Section discusses the three main findings of focus group discussions. Section three outlines the problems faced by the moderator, while Section four improves the qualitative results to keep progressing to the quantitative stage. The final Section draws a conclusion for the entire Chapter.

The Chapter provides in-depth insight into the quantitative data analysis collected from a self-administrated survey. This analysis has many stages, beginning with a pilot study, pursued by the sample technique and its bias. Then, data cleaning and checking the assumption of multivariate analysis are presented. The measurement model is assessed and, finally, the hypotheses are tested by evaluating the structural model.

5.2. First Stage: Qualitative Study

5.2.1. Conducting the focus groups

Four focus groups were conducted at the weekends over a one-month period. The researcher had the advantage of transcribing the discussions immediately following the session. Based on the outcome of each session, the researcher made some modifications by deleting or adding some questions. In addition, running the focus group discussion at the weekend can enhance the consumer's chance to participate in the discussion, as are more likely to have greater availability than during the week.

On average, each focus group discussion was of 90 minutes' duration and took place in a quiet location that was accessible and convenient for all participants (i.e., a University meeting room), and provided the opportunity for the interviews to be audio-recorded. Furthermore, the participants have the option of selecting the place of discussion. The contact case plays the role of facilitator, who communicates to participants the location and time of the session. The four focus groups are run and moderated by the researcher, who conducts the discussion using a realistic level of participation and control. However, discussion is encouraged, rather than led, by the researcher to keep it on topic.

For the first session, a professional facilitator, lecturer in Marketing, attended the discussion to observe how the sessions are introduced, how the discussion is initiated and closed, and what questions the researcher asked and in what order.

Prior to the discussion, the Principles of Ethical Research and the Consent Form are distributed to the participants. The participants are informed that the discussion will be audio-recorded in order to ensure minimal loss of rich data. They are also reminded of the voluntary nature of participation, as well as the confidentiality of the information gathered. Then, the participants are given time to read the Principles of Ethical Research, and are invited to complete and return the standard departmental consent form.

When the discussion starts, the researcher first introduces herself and the observer to the participants, before offering a brief introduction to this research and the objectives of the focus group discussion. Thereafter, each member of the group is asked to state their names and say a few sentences about themselves. They are also invited to write their name on a piece of card prepared by the researcher, which can be displayed in front of them for easy identification. Furthermore, subjects are informed that there are no right or wrong answers, and they should consider only their personal perceptions. The conversation is opened with common enquiries about luxury brands, (e. g., Have you ever bought any luxury brands before? If so, what were they? Where did you buy them? Were you happy with them? Why do you buy/do not buy luxury brands? What is a luxury brands?). Next, the discussion is directed more deeply towards the topic under investigation. Finally, the moderator thanks the participants.

For the instrument interview, the researcher asks several general questions about shopping (e.g., Have you ever bought any luxury brands before? If so, what were they? Where did you buy them? Were you happy with them?) The purpose of this is to engage the participants and ensure they know they can ask questions pertaining to the current research. Moreover, it is believed that the general discussion familiarises participants with the research project, relieves tension, and assists in generating initial research data.

The main concern is the suitability of the survey questions to aid the achievement of the study objectives properly. Bryman and Bell (2011) indicate that data collection bias should be reduced as much as possible by eliminating the researcher's opinion from influencing respondents' answers. Furthermore, constructing open questions, as opposed to closed or structured, is vital to ensuring accuracy in data collection and reporting. Therefore, the study uses open-ended questions that are appropriate to qualitative inquiry. Table 5.1 outlines the ability to advance from one theme to another in administrating the questionnaire.

Regarding the questions that address the objective of focus group discussions, two options are presented, as suggested by Bryman and Bell (2011).The first is to apply one or two common questions with minimal involvement from the moderator. The second option is to make the previous questions more structured, and to prepare a list with which to guide the participants. For this study, the second option is applied because the researcher can shift easily between topics. Table 5.1 presents the topic agenda for the focus groups.

Table 5.1 Topic agenda for focus group discussions

Topic		Questions
Introduction		Welcoming the participants ''personal and participants introduction'' Clarifying the purpose of discussion Designing recording consent form for participants Warming up questions ''general question about shopping''
Discussion	Level 1	What are the types of luxury product you have bought? What is your favourite luxury brand accessory? How you can define the luxury brand accessories?
	Level 2	Identify what are the underlying benefits associated with luxury brand accessories.
	Level 3	Identify the consequences from consuming luxury brand accessories.
Ending		Thanks for participants

5.2.2. Preparing the data for analysis (Transcribing)

Qualitative data refer to non-numerical data that have not been quantified. They result from the collection of non-standardised data that require classification and are analysed through the use of conceptualisation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). However, it must be prepared in order to analyse the qualitative data. The preparation stage includes transcribing qualitative data.

The research gave the participants the choice to select the language of discussion; English or Arabic. The participant`s native language is Arabic, but the groups discussions are directed in English according to the participant's choice. All four focus group discussions are tape-recorded in order to ensure the data collected is traceable and to create a consistency source of the qualitative information (Boyatzis 1998).

Some researchers suggest that it is not always necessary to transcribe interviews in full (Krueger 1994), in certain instances, analyses can be conducted while listening to tapes or checking notes or the moderator`s memory. In contrast, other researchers strongly oppose this perspective and argue that performing an analysis without transcription will result in the loss of the richness of collected data and this may facilitate selective and superficial analyses, which is unacceptable in scholarly works (Bloor *et al.,* 2001). Accordingly, in terms of this study, full transcription is performed for each focus group discussion.

The process of transcription for focus group discussion is more complex than one-to-one interviews; particularly, when the number of participants in each session is fairly large. The large size of focus groups can result in significant interruption. In addition, it is somewhat complicated to recognise the voice of eight participants in discussion with high probabilities of mixing voices of the participants (Bloor *et al.*, 2001). Transcribing each focus group discussion is extremely time-consuming and arduous. According to Bernard and Ryan (2010), transcribing 60 minutes of audio-recording will take between six and 10 hours for a trained touch-typist. Every focus group discussion is transcribed as soon as possible following completion of the session (Saunder *et al.*, 2009).

The process of transcription of focus group discussion starts with listening carefully and transcribes it. The researcher checked and revised the transcriptions twice against the original audio-records. Then, data is prepared by reviewing errors in the written text to be sure that the transcription is accurate (Bernard and Ryan, 2010). Finally, each interview is saved in a separate word-processed file, ready for analysis.

5.2.3. Adopted data analysis techniques

In the current study, where the research model does not provide satisfactory responses to the research questions, the flexibility can be mandatory to transfer between a deductive and an inductive approach. The inductive approach is suggested when there is insufficient existing information about the topic under study (Lauri and Kynga's 2005), while a deductive approach has an advantage in case of the main purpose of the research was to make a comparison between the groups at different times by the qualitative study, or to test an existing theory in a another context (Elo and Kynga¨s, 2007). The inductively-based analytical procedures contain; analytic induction, narrative analysis, discourse theory, grounded theory and template analysis (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Some scholars describe how the qualitative research data analysis can be likened to an exercise that includes subjective interpretation of the raw data as given by the respondents through use of clearly defined themes and codes that enables identification of trends in similarities and differences (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). This approach is employed to analysis the data for current study.

There are three techniques to qualitative content analysis as suggested by Hsieh and Shannon (2005); conventional content analysis, directed content analysis and summative content analysis. For this study, the directed content analysis is employed because it is compatible with the aim of qualitative stage in terms of pursuing the model validation.

Table 5.2 Major coding differences among three approaches to content analysis

Type of Content Analysis	Study Starts With	Timing of Defining Codes or Keywords	Source of Codes or Keywords
Conventional content analysis	Observation	Codes are defined during data analysis	Codes are derived from data
Directed content analysis	Theory	Codes are defined before and during data analysis	Codes are derived from theory or relevant research findings
Summative content analysis	Keywords	Keywords are identified before and during data analysis	Keywords are derived from interest of researchers or review of literature

Source: Adopted from Hsieh and Shannon (2005)

In general, content analysis can be divided into the following steps: (1) preparing the data, which needs to be transformed into written text; (2) delineating the unit of analysis, whereby the themes expressed in paragraphs, sentences, phrase or words are used in the current study; (3) creating a coding scheme and categories, which are generated from the proposed model and literature review, in addition to the possibility to make amendments by the rising of new categories from the raw data; (4) checking the coding scheme; which is completed by testing the stability between the allocated text and the scheme definition; (5) coding the text: if satisfactory stability between the allocated text and the scheme definition has been accomplished, then, the rules of coding should be completed to the whole text; (6) assessing the coding stability; (7) drawing conclusions from the coding data; and finally (8) reporting the findings (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009).

5.3. Findings of the Focus Group

The focus group discussion session comprises three stages: the first concentrates on the selection of product categories and brands; the second is directed towards validating the conceptual model and to ask contributors about the factors that shape their perception of overall luxury value; and the final stage focuses on the development of the measure. The following sections report all the results generated from analysis of the qualitative data.

Four focus groups were held and the applicants were engaged in the discussion to be applicable (matched) with the characteristics of the entire population as much as possible. Eight participants are included in each focus group session. Table 5.3 illustrates the demographic profile of the participants in the four focus groups.

Table 5.3 Profile of focus group participants

Focus group	Gender		Age		Educational level		Occupational status		No. of participants
	Male	Female	Range	Rate	Degree	Rate	Status	Rate	
First	3	5	18-24 25-39 >40	1 6 1	PhD Bachelor Studying in Un	3 4 1	Private Gov. Unemp.	1 4 3	8
Second	4	4	18-24 25-39 >40	0 7 1	Master Bachelor	1 7	Gov. Emp. HW	2 3 3	8
Third	3	4	18-24 25-39 >40	2 4 2	Bachelor Studying in Un Secondary	4 2 2	Gov. Private Unemp. HW	1 1 4 2	8
Fourth	4	4	18-24 25-39 >40	3 5 0	PhD Bachelor Studying in Un Secondary	1 3 3 1	HW Gov. Unemp.	1 3 4	8

*Gov – employed in governmental institutional, Emp. - employed, HW –housewife, Unemp. -unemployed

5.3.1. Selection of product categories and brands

The first aim of conducting focus group is to identify the product categories and brands. Through this stage of discussion, the applicants were asked to explain their past experiences with various luxury brands, identify the product categories and the most favourite luxury brands. The subsequent two sections present the main findings.

5.3.1.1. Product category

The analysis of the qualitative findings revealed that the participants buy different product categories of luxury such as clothes, shoes, handbag, belt, cosmetics, jewellery and personal care products. However, the most popular category is accessories which include handbags, sunglasses and belts. The following comments illustrate the types of products:

> *''I think the ladies are the fan of luxury brand so I buy luxury bags for my wife and sunglasses but mostly bags. For me, Polo from Lauran.''* (Focus group 1)

> ''*Bags, clothes and shoes, I'm fanatical about bags but that doesn't mean I don't do shopping for clothes I do, but bags I am really crazy.''* (Focus group 1)

> ''*I usually buy bags, shoes, evening dresses, mmm, jewellery not a lot, but mostly shoes and bags*.'' (Focus group 2)

> *''I do have clothes but not as much as bags and shoes.''* (Focus group 2)

> *''I buy sunglasses mostly.''* (Focus group 3)

> *''Watches, shoes, and clothes sometimes buy most frequently are accessories.''* (Focus group 4)

Accordingly, the qualitative findings confirm that luxury accessories are the most purchased type of luxury product. Therefore, luxury accessories have been selected as the research context.

5.3.1.2. Specific luxury brands

As demonstrated in the qualitative study, luxury accessories are the most consumed luxury product categories. In this Section, the participants are asked about their favourite luxury brands. Below are some of their responses:

> *''I love all of them seriously I love all of them but may be mostly I love Cucci.''* (Focus group 2)

> *''I like LV I really like everything, LV handbag, shoes, dresses everything I love it.''* (Focus group 1)

''If I want to buy shoes, I will go to LV'' (Focus group 3)

''I don't like LV so much because the same all the time. I prefer Gucci because all the time bring something new, new design, different colour. '' (Focus group 3)

Consequently, a list of luxury brands is listed in the questionnaire (see Appendix A).

5.3.2. Scale validation

Recognising the indictors and items used to develop the scales is considered the second purpose of conducting a focus group. These scales will be included in the final questionnaire. Through this stage from the discussion, the participants were directed to express their previous experiences about various brands of luxury accessories, to ascertain the ideas and opinions that consumers held about consumption-value of luxury accessories. Based on the literature and qualitative data, consumers build their overall luxury value in line with their six value types: emotional, self-identity, social, financial, community and relational value. The results are presented in the next five sections.

5.3.2.1. Emotional value

The literature review reveals that certain luxury goods are likely to provide subjective, intangible, experiential benefits in addition to their functional utility; however, this emotional response is perceived as the most significant determinant of luxury brand selection. Consistently, the participants support the importance of their subjective emotional benefits in developing their overall value assessment for certain luxury brands.

The applicants were requested to express their emotional responses with various luxury brands of accessories. These are characterised by distinctive means, for example, instigating sentiments towards certain extravagance marks that speak to the presence of an in number passionate connection or bond between the consumer and the extravagance brand. For example:

"My inner feelings direct me towards all luxury brands in general and LV in specific I feel I am really a crazy about luxury." (Focus group 1)

Participants in the focus groups discussion expressed their emotional responses to consuming the luxury brands in terms of happiness, enjoyment and pleasure, as reflected in the following responses:

> *‘‘Luxury brands make me feel happy, it makes me beautiful, more beautiful in my head.’’* (Focus group 3)

> *‘‘I feel good, nice and happy.’’* (Focus group 3)

> *‘‘I feel good, do you know when the sun feeling is good, this is the feeling. I am feeling good when I buy nice watch, for example, when I’m wearing, I feel good. I feel fine because it is expensive; you spend couples of days to think of it, and then when you get it, you are happy. You have high level of enjoyment, joy and happiness.’’* (Focus group 2)

> *‘‘I am enjoying when I am wearing it.’’* (Focus group 4)

Participants also explain that with luxury accessories comes increased self-confidence. For example,

> *‘‘I feel better, hhhhhhh good, nice, confident. I think so. I say better. I don’t really consciously think about it. It likes a treat. I feel happy and comfort with what I am having. Luxury items make me happy and confidence.’’* (Focus group 1)

The consumers can gain emotional responses from consuming the luxury brands. These responses are generated by placing the consumers in a different mood or mindset. For instance:

> *‘‘For me, I truly believe internal therapy when I am sad and I am feeling not too good, I wear something good at my class like nice branded shoes. It is by mood. To be honest, I am more confident. I think it is like a magic enhancement, which it is fun. I have an issue. I do shopping once a week if I don’t. I feel depressed.’’* (Focus group 2)

Others described their emotional responses to luxury accessories as a type of treat or personal reward. For example,

> *‘‘I usually treat myself too with luxury products if I feel I have done or I maybe deserve the treat so I usually work resident once a year or weekend, half term I think I treat myself with luxury bag once a year. I think I treat myself when I feel i worked hard. ’’* (Focus group 3)

> *‘‘It is just to treat myself. I don’t wearing for showing off. I am wearing for myself. It is something for me. I love luxury brands I think it is in my DNA.’’*(Focus group 2)

Experiencing luxury accessories can create different emotional responses in consumers. Participants acquire and consume luxury accessories as a personal treat. Some seek happiness, enjoyment and joy in such products, while others claim they generate a positive mood.

5.3.2.2. Social value

Social environment and interpersonal association emphatically impact and shape buyers' utilisation encounters (Bearden, Netemeyer and Teel, 1989; Verhoef *et al.*, 2009). This is on the grounds that extravagance products have allure that gives the consumer an apparent status and possession through sign-esteem (Moore and Birtwistle, 2005). In the suggested model, social value is one of the determinants theorised as producing substantial influence on overall value of luxury brands. Participants emphasise the role of social environment on their assessment of overall luxury value, as follows:

> *‘‘Honestly, I care to people on the way how to dress and look, sometimes when you wear shoes or dress and you look elegant and you spend a lot of money on it I would like to hear at least enhance or phrase like ‘Oh wow you look very nice today’ ‘you are brilliant’ ‘you are elegant’ even If you didn’t hear it, but at least you are waiting such a message. But I like the encouragement I like to hear good thing.’’* (Focus group 3)

> *‘‘When I wear something I wear it for me but it is good to make good impression on others.’’*(Focus group 4)

Some participants regard the social impression made on others as the main reason for buying luxury items. For example,

> *‘‘If I am going to buy something luxury I want to enjoy and of course I want to put impression on people as well from what I bought and what I am using. Sometimes depends on the person. Some people don’ t say whereas others say Oh I like your belt, I like your trousers. This is one of the reasons to wear luxury product.’’* (Focus group 2)

However, other participants agree to some extent the role of social value in developing their overall assessment of luxury value, their initial responses were as follows:

> *‘‘To some extent, I don’t care about other, I prefer to buy what make me happy and suite me in everything. Sometimes when you wear some brands it gives me the image. It is nice to have good feedback you feel happy and enthusiasm. But I am not waiting for any feedback.’’* (Focus group 1)

It was clear from the qualitative data that the role of consumption-value in shaping overall assessment of luxury brand is different in intensity between Gulf Arab tourists. Some participants buy luxury accessories to generate a respectable impression on other people. It is so essential to them that other people have a good judgement of how they look and dress. This observation is similar to the findings that products are consumed depending not only on their functional utilities but also on conspicuous values such as social benefits that can only be experienced by putting them to use such as the social benefits (Veblen, 1899). However, others seek a personal value from consuming luxury accessories more than social value.

5.3.2.3. Self-identity value

The self-identity quality alludes to the inner part of one's self insofar as the way the individual sees him or herself (Jamal and Goode, 2003; Mehta, 1999). The image of a product appeals to a consumer based on the mix of social affiliation and cognitive interpretation of its benefits and is the basis of hypothetical inquiries by sellers who wish to improve their volume of sale (Belk, 1988; Mick, 1986). A buyer's self-idea influences buying conduct in a mental self-portrait congruity modular (Sirgy, 1982). Puntoni (2001) suggested that luxury consumption is influenced positively with self-congruity. Consumers buy the luxury brands to incorporate symbolic benefit into their own identity (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004); consumers also purchase the visible items to enhance their identity (Dittmar, 1994). Participants' answers are in line with the findings of earlier research. For example:

> *''People are not my primary driver to buy the brand bags or brand sunglasses it is not the one that makes me buy brands because they appreciate me say it is nice I am going to buy it. I buy it because It is me what I like I will buy to myself.''* (Focus group 2)

> *''I feel it (luxury brand) is me, I feel elegant, it motivates me, at the end; it makes my day.''* (Focus group3)

Other participants use luxury brands to support and develop that identity. This supports the studies conducted by Douglas and Isherwood (1979); Hirschman (1988) and Dittmar's (1994). The following quote reflects this idea:

> *''Tart is well-known for shoes and offers a very variety of shoes, for old and young people. However, Church offers shoes usually for old people. Honestly, when I compare the quality and the style of the shoes. I will go to the Church because it suits my personality, it suits the way I am being, the way I am thinking."* (Focus group 3)

Clearing up the part of self-congruity hypothesis grew by Sirgy (1982); the image of the brand as displayed in the hard features and properties induces the desire to buy it through a social and cognitive association between the consumer and the brand item as an image. For example;

> *''It is very important to buy the luxury brands that match my personality. For example, I like the classic so I buy Chanel because it matches my personality. I feel that is me. For me, it is so hard to carry colourful bags.''* (Focus group 2)
>
> *''Luxury brands have to match me, my character. For example, I don't buy bags with a lot of accessories on it. No, it doesn't match me or bright colours. I prefer something that reflects my character like simple, classy. Even sometimes, I got once a bag from LV it was a present but I really couldn't wear it because for me I felt as an old lady because the design doesn't match my personality. Also, Burberry has a lot of colours and stuff so it doesn't match me. I like to be simple and without clear logo.''* (Focus group 1)

The association between a brand image and the social status of its consumers continue to be a value proposition for the luxury brands. Nevertheless, the correlation between the consumer and the luxury brand is invaluable in the determination of perceived value for the luxury brands. Besides, the social value derived from the luxury brands as a varied construct to the consumer as an individual and self-congruence emerges in the focus group sessions.

5.3.2.4. Relational value

Customer retention is the most challenge that most luxury brand dealers face today owing to the fierce business competition pitched by the market volatility and rapid industry developments. Consequently, customer relationship management is core to such businesses that must keep enough consumers base to drive sustainability (Cailleux *et al.*, 2009). A previous study (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010) suggests relational value to be an antecedent to the overall value of the luxury brand. However, this assumption has not been tested yet. This study is the first to assess empirically the relationship between relational value and overall value of the luxury brand as perceived by Gulf Arab tourists. The analysis of the qualitative findings reflect this relationship:

> *''I don't want to say just happy again and it is nice feeling; I feel it is me I don't know how.''* (Focus group 2)

> *''I buy luxury brand not because it is the only luxury but because I feel I am a luxury person. You want to reflect this. You want to make the people remember you are a luxury person. You need to crap the attention if you need to find a job or promotion.''* (Focus group 3)

Schultz and Schultz's study (2004) consider customer association with a brand as a relationship based on both psychological and cognitive connection enabling customers to be mass consumers of its products. The participants support this view with the following explanations:

> *''I feel I start fell in love with luxury brands, I will die if I will move away without buying anything. For the occasion, I will buy from high street I don't care because luxury brands just for me make me happy. It is a part for me. ''* (Focus group 3)

Other participants reflect the relational value with their favourite luxury brand as a care in every development and improvement relevant to this luxury accessory. For example,

> *''I try to keep myself updated in everything in Prada to see if a new trend does meet my interest or not''* (Focus group 3)

Connecting and interacting with the luxury accessories can create different relational responses in consumers. Participants have to acquire and consume luxury accessories for the emotional pond. Others care about any update in luxury accessories; whereas, for others, it has become more important than other luxury brands.

5.3.2.5. Financial value

Many attempts have been made to demonstrate that consumers use the price of goods as an indicator of its quality (Erickson and Johansson, 1995; Tellis and Gaetg, 1990). Status-conscious consumers also use the price as in an indicator of prestigious (Groth and McDaniel, 1993). Therefore, high price products, which reflect the high quality or status, make goods or services more desirable (Groth and McDaniel, 1993). This is evident in the participants' responses, as given below:

> *''It is luxury because not anyone can have it because it is very expensive.''* (Focus group 2)

> *''First, it is luxury because there is a big price difference I think.''* (Focus group 4)

> *''Luxury means sacrifice actually for me. I go without other things to have something really nice.''* (Focus group 1)

Wiedman *et al.*, (2009), suggest that high price of a product has a significant impact on luxury consumption behaviour. This view is confirmed by the following comments:

> *''Of course, luxury will be associated with the high price even emotionally if you see something cheaper price you might feel that it is not good brand.''* (Focus group 1)

> *"Sometimes I want something very, because it is very expensive I can't get it, but once I get it, I lose this passion. So after this, I feel like it doesn't worth it spending this much of money just to get this"* (Focus group 3)

One scholar, Lyn (1991), demonstrates that consumer interpretation of a brand's associated value and quality initiates liking that determines the decision to remain loyal to its products. This concurs with the fact that there are specific offerings found by consumers in a product based on their perceptions and expectations. Tian, Bearden and Hunter (2001) specify that the need for uniqueness in the manner products from a given brand meet their demands form the basis of enhanced social and personal attachment to the brand.

> *''I appreciate the luxury because it is too expensive and their design sometimes is very limited. then you buy one product you can see so many people wearing the same product so that will give the regular brands more advantages, exactly because you know I said earlier but it does give you that feeling of uniqueness and*

you are following brand and you are following style, you are following certain designer just you know it is emotional.'' (Focus group 3)

''What I like about the luxury is exclusivity. It is so exclusive so you have to go far to Bicester Village, Harrods or Selfridges. It has the name; it has reputation and story which can be associated with that name. It is hard to get because it is expensive. Also, it should have identity and personality and elegant design.'' (Focus group 1)

Other participants considered the exclusivity of the brand rather than the product:

''I didn't get the exclusive because sometimes the same bag you can find it with a different brand with the same colour and the same material only putting the logo on it make it different. I think the exclusive in the brand not in the product itself because the product is available but the different in the brand.'' (Focus group 1)

Thus, it can be concluded that the qualitative research captured the vital role of financial value in shaping the overall value assessment of luxury brands.

5.3.2.5. Community value

From a customer-experiential perspective, brand community comes as a network that revolves around the settings where customers are located. Critical relationships encompass the networks among the consumers and the brand products, the consumer and the producer or distributor, the consumers and the services or products that meet their needs, and the social linkages of the consumers (McAlexander, Schouten and Koenig, 2002). In terms of the vital relationship between the customers, it has been hypothesised that brand communities were used mainly to share brand-related information and activate community members to create conversations in different community channels. These conversations were created purposely in order to increase customers' encounters with the brand; thereby shaping their overall value of the luxury brand. However, the interviewees looked askance at their own possibilities of creating these conversations. As argued by many participants:

''*I don't like to talk with others about luxury brands and I don't change my perceptions about them if they don't wear luxury brands''* (focus group 1).

> ‘‘*I am not interested in that at all (talk about luxury brands), I think ladies are more interested in talking about that more than men, but I am not interested at all’’* (focus group 3).

Only one participant from the four focus groups expressed an interest in starting a conversation about luxury products with other owners*:*

> *“It depends, for example, if a friend is from my most buy the same thing and he is going ask me a few questions I will give him my experience if I liked this product or not and then I can give him my feedback and my opinion. I can do that. I do enjoy with that because for example, for a pair of shoes which is not suitable for this weather, for this country and friend from my most want to buy the same thing I will tell him because I love somebody to tell this thing before I buy it. This is the thing. It is good yes good’’* (focus group 3).

Consequently, customers do not generate value from their relationships and interactions with other customers when they are speaking about luxury products. In terms of the value created from customer-firm relationships, the participants confirmed that they can search for alternatives when the firm that owns and manages the brand is unable to meet their needs.

> ‘*My favourite luxury brand not all the time can meet my wants and needs, so I try to find another option, another brand honestly… I am not a loyal customer to specific luxury brand”*. (Focus group 2)

However, the participants in the four focus groups confirmed the fourth type of relationships; those formed between the customer and the brand. The participants showed different emotional responses from their experiences of luxury brands; creating strong links and bonds with them. As one participant states:

> “*I loved the taste of luxury with Cartier, mmmm, I like that feeling of luxury.”* (Focus group 4)

In conclusion, the focus group participants do not value relationships between the customer and the firm, the customer and the product, or among fellow customers. Consequently, the community value is removed from the conceptual model.

5.3.3. Model validation

As specified, the coding schemes subtracted from the proposed model and literature review are the basis the raw data is analysed. According to this model, Gulf Arab tourists shape their overall value of luxury accessories brand in line with their five types of value; emotional, self-identity, social, financial and relational value.

5.3.3.1. Overall value of luxury brands

Overall value is based on the combination of perceptions of various product attributes and related trade-offs. The consumers assess the overall utility of possessions according to their perceptions of what is given comparing with what is received (Zeithaml, 1988). According to the theory of consumption values, individuals develop their purchase decisions by the comparison of value components. Recall that the definition of perceived value is an overall assessment. The component level value perceptions are expected to offer the basis on which consumers shape an overall value assessment. Subsequently, this evaluation, instead of its components, will impact on the behavioural outcome variables. Accordingly, the operationalisation of perceived value as a second-order composite with first-order formative components is better than other value configurations.

Due to the conceptualisation of overall value fulfils the conceptual and statistical condition for a formative construct; therefore, it is considered a molar construct that has formative indicators (the value determinants) (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). The use of a second-order conceptualisation of value has sufficient justification and is supported by the business literature (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). Thus, the higher-order conceptualisation of perceived value has been adopted. The respondents confirmed value components when explained the benefits/attributes associated with luxury brand that contributes to overall assessment:

- Emotional value: *'I am enjoying when I am wearing it (luxury accessories brand).''* (Focus group 3); *''you have high level of enjoyment, joy and happiness.''* (Focus group 2)

- Self-identity value: *''It (luxury accessories brand) suites the way I am being the way I am thinking.''* (Focus group 1)

- Social value :*''I am going to buy something luxury I want to enjoy and, of course, I want to put impression on people as well from what I bought and what I am using.''* (Focus group 2)

- Relational value: *''Luxury brands just for me make me happy. It is part for me.''* (Focus group 1)

- Financial value: ''Luxury *because not anyone can have it because it is very expensive.''* (Focus group3)

Figure 5.1 gathers all of the defined dimensions presenting consumers' responses to assess their overall brand value (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010).

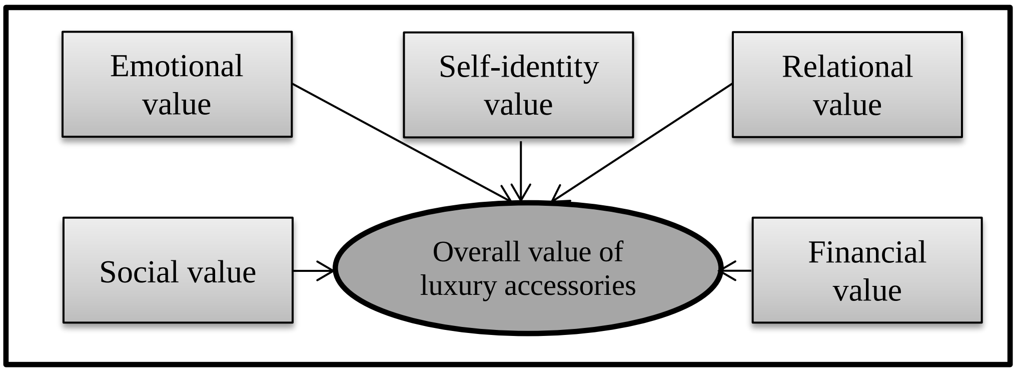


Figure 5.1 Overall value of luxury accessories

To conclude, the coding of the themes and analysis from the answers of the participants point to that consumers' values of various brands of luxury accessories can be designated employing only five dimensions; emotional, social, self-identity, relational and financial.

5.3.3.2. BPs

Brand inclinations are made from the separation between options bringing about a one-sided position towards a certain brand. Comprehensive reactions delineate this position; a powerful reaction is exhibited by the level of resemblance, while psychological reaction alludes to the one of a kind included estimation of the brand and behavioural reaction is outlined by the expected demonstration towards the brand. The participants confirm that their preference towards certain luxury brand is designated by the value derive from their experiencing with this brand that reflects their effective response;

> "*I love this brand*" (Focus group 1); and behavioural responses: "*I feel it is me, I feel elegant it motivates me, at the end, it makes my day*". (Focus group 3)

In addition, the participants confirmed that they have a preference towards their favourite luxury brand but they are not loyal towards this brand because they will try alternatives if there is no availability for that brand.

> "*It is preferences, not loyalty you know I prefer to have this brand but I can use another brand if I can't find my favourite one"* (Focus group 3). "*I am not loyal to any luxury brand."* (Focus group 2)

However, one participant revealed not only a preference for his favourite luxury brand but also loyalty according to the type of accessory;

> "*In my case, I am committed to luxury accessories according to the types of accessories, but I am not committed to all the types of the luxury accessories I am a loyal customer to what I want to buy. 100%, extremely loyal, I can pay the even higher price, double price. Depend on the product if the product suits me and if I liked the product."* (Focus group 2).

The focus group also indicates findings that the association of brand and value communicates a point of quality that lures the potential consumer into purchasing it. Perceived brand value attracts interests among the potential consumers and stimulates the urge to become a repeat customer. The decision-making is, therefore, driven by the subjective expectations of a customer for a brand.

> *''For me, the value of having a luxury brand is my first motivation to buy it; I do not mean with the value here the quality, because as my colleague said, I can get the quality in normal brands, but the feeling of happiness, feeling of luxury, feeling of elegant…. All of them make me pay higher price to get them…….. of course, these feelings make me have one brand over another''*

5.3.3.3. Brand trust

The participants gave a significant and holistic knowledge of varied elements of brand value propositions embedded in Marketing strategies. Lau and Lee (1999) indicate that brand trust among consumers is built through the ability of the customer to risk testing the consumption of a product that may or may not meet their satisfaction expectations. In the instances that the brand product has been tried before, the level of risk is reduced by the ability to measure the opportunity cost even at the subconscious level (Lau and Lee, 1999; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Aleman, 2005). In the presence of trust, the risk is almost eliminated as the level of consumer confidence that the brand product will fully satisfy their need is most elevated (Lau and Lee, 1999). In this respect, the participants gave the following responses:

> *''I feel confidence in this luxury brand accessory because it's well-known, good reputation, looks respectable and meets my expectations''* (Focus group 4)

> ''*I trust the name of my favourite luxury brand*'' (Focus group 1)

When the researcher introduced Delgado-Ballester *et al.* (2003)'s operationalisation of brand trust to the interviewees, most expressed the suitability of two dimensions that affect brand trust; namely, reliability and intention.

> *''Sure, we see that pretty clear. This is a fair sorting, I think.''* (Focus group1)

Brand reliability relates to the ability of its products or services to meet the consumer utilities areas as usually referred to as consumer satisfaction through value addition that met their needs. Inconsistent with the previous concept, some participants confirmed this idea as following:

> *''My favourite luxury brand meets my expectations because I like their style''* (Focus group 4)

> *''For example, LV is a brand name that never disappoints me because a new trend does meet my interest''* (Focus group 2)

The ability of a brand to meet the demands of the consumers can sometimes be referred to as brand intention and forms the potential of its products to solve consumer problems presented as needs. In the cases when the brand intention is lost, possible corrective measures need to be taken by the brand owner in order to return the expectations to the consumers. This is the essence of product recalls common in cases of suspected product malfunctions or inability to meet consumer demand because of eminent hitches. Therefore, there is a correlation between consumer perceptions about a brand and its intentions and reliability (Lau and Lee, 1999; Luk and Yip, 2008). In the presence of the twin attributes of a brand, consumer loyalty is ascertained.

> *''Luxury means the product should be associated with high customer service. Let's say if I had it damaged or something. This one happens to me ... sunglasses after year I have damaged and I have returned it and they give new one free of charge.''*(Focus group 2)

The comments above revealed a mediating role of brand trust in the overall luxury value-repurchase intention relationship. This mediation is only partial given that both the literature and qualitative results support a direct relationship between the overall value of luxury brands and repurchase intention.

5.3.3.4. Repurchase intention

Theory of derived value from products misled that brand value influenced merely the consumer buying behaviour. This has long been proving otherwise as it turns to work the other way round with the perceived value of a product driving the decisions to buy a given product and not the other. Among the luxury brands or products, the affinity a given product is enhanced by the expected performances rather than what the sellers claim as the actual quality that comes with an item or service (Yang and Peterson, 2004). Maybe, the aspects of correlation between the consumer buying behaviour and the value propositions furthered on a brand by the sellers can only be an affiliated factor that drives consumer loyalty to a brand along its continuum. Out of the numerous behavioural outcomes influenced by value, the perception is of behavioural intention to repurchase luxury accessories brands. Indeed, some of the respondents confirmed the intention to repurchase the luxury accessories brands as following:

> *''Yes, as I mentioned the more I get money the more I am going to buy luxury items.''* (Focus group 1)

> *''It is satisfied me to buy again and I think if I get the chance and I have the money I will repurchase.''* (Focus group 2)

The findings support the positive relationship between the overall value of luxury accessories brand and repurchase intention, as hypothesised in Chapter 3. Some respondents commented on this relationship as follows:

> *''Repurchase is definitely an outcome of consuming luxury brands.''* (Focus group 4)

5.4. The Difficulties of Using Focus Groups

During the focus group discussion, the moderator faced three main difficulties. The first was caused by the questions the researcher asked in relation to consumption values related to brands, rather than product types. To restrict this limitation and achieve the advantages of conducting focus groups, the moderator encouraged conversation employing straight questions about brands rather than about items by functional categories. This approach yielded more specific answers valuable in meeting the study purpose than inquiries about just products that may be from a variety of brands. Brand association is, therefore, a better measure of consumer loyalty than product association that may be triggered by the consumer need to barely meet the basic demands without more value attached to it. Furthermore, it was so essential to restate that the current research concentrates on the brands of accessories, not the product itself.

The second one is the participants struggle to understand the academic concepts. For example, the contributors involve in problems of fully understanding the two most important questions. The first one is related with relational value and the second is associated with self-identity. The moderator did the best to explain these concepts by exemplifying the definitions of these constructs, which facilitated somewhat, albeit not entirely. Moreover, prior focus group discussions illustrative samples for every question were arranged because the moderator had an expectation of such a problem (e.g. Broyles, 2009; Sheth, Newman, and Gross, 1991b; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). It was decided not to give illustrative samples to the same item classification so that participants would not rehash them; however, familiarity with the product type should be available to participants. Illustrative samples are given about the previous experience of consumers with brands; for example, Chanel, Versace, Dolce and Gabbana, Cucci and Yves Saint Laurent.

The third difficulty is that some participants, females, did not give their male counterparts sufficient opportunity to express their ideas by controlling and dominating the conversation. To overcome this problem, the moderator begins to encourage the male participants to interact more with the group.

5.5. The Revised Model Based on the Qualitative Findings

The objectives of using focus groups during the first phase of data collection are a selection of product category and brands, the development of better scales and the validation of the research model. Conducting the focus group discussions achieved the previous objectives. Luxury accessories were selected as a product category. A list of luxury accessories brands was prepared according to qualitative data as well.

The research model is constructed depending review the literature to identify the drivers and behavioural outcomes of overall perceived value. According to the theory of consumption-value, many sources are identified as drivers of overall value of luxury brand: emotional, social, self-identify, relational, community and financial value. Moreover, BPs, brand trust and repurchase intention are identified as consumers' behavioural outcomes of overall perceived value. Consequently, the theoretical model suggested in Chapter 3 is a compound of six determinants that represent the drivers of overall perceived value and three constructs that reflect the consumers' behavioural outcome of overall perceived value.

Post-positivism is the philosophical approach implemented in this research. This approach relies on the essential role of social actors to enhance and to interpret existing literature review, have the role of a critical realist (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Bryman and Bell, 2011; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012). Therefore, the qualitative study considers a significant exploratory step to identify from the study setting the drivers and behavioural outcomes of overall perceived value, in order to (1) select the product categories and brands (2) validate the conceptual model and (2) produce indicators to design the final survey employed in the second phase of data collection. The qualitative data is modified and used to validate the model by defining the drivers and consumers' behavioural outcomes of overall perceived value as follows:

Regarding drivers, the theory of consumption values captures consumer utilities along several dimensions: First, emotional value depicts the consumer-centred dimensions of brand value that vary from one customer to another especially if prior brand experiences exist. Some of the consumer-centred dimensions are perceived brand value and subjective quality that are only ascertained by using a product of a given brand (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991; Sheth, Newman and Gross, 1991b). By reviewing the literature, the emotional response is perceived as the most significant determinant of luxury brand selection (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Consistently, the participants support the importance of their subjective emotional benefits in developing their overall value assessment for certain luxury brands.

Second, the social value of products of luxury nature entails a special urge among consumers that elevates their social and economic benefits as image-stamping personal assets (Moore and Birtwistle, 2005). Understanding of luxury product's consumption, therefore, cannot be fulfilled without adding the social value aspect as one of the consumer buying stimuli (Choo *et al.*, 2012). Through the group discussions, the social value constitutes a vital component of overall perceived value of luxury accessories brand.

Third, the self-identity value represents one's internal aspect in terms of self-perception (Jamal and Goode, 2003; Mehta, 1999; Sirgy, 1999). Some participants use luxury items to add symbolic meaning into their own identity, and others consume luxury items to enhance and improve that identity. The focus group discussion confirmed that importance of self-identity value as an essential driver of overall perceived value.

Fourth, relational value acknowledges the view that consumers create associations with brands (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009). Brand association is a link that works as strong as social networking to deliver psychological, social and economic benefits to the involved consumers through the product utilities created by the brand owner (Schultz and Schultz, 2004). In this essence, brands would be considered entities that consumers and owners alike can relate with as part of their personality identity (Blackston, 2000; Pawle and Cooper, 2006). Despite perceived brand value and quality playing a role in determining the consumer-brand association, product features that translate to cost-effective benefits must be added as a force to reckon with in influencing brand loyalty among customers (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009). This construct is demonstrated as a vital driver of overall perceived value by four focus groups.

Fifth, financial value means the element of economic benefit that translates into asset value for the consumer that can be used to reduce personal liability or increase net worth and can be expressed in monetary values (Hennigs *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, they come with opportunity costs to the consumer (Hennigs *et al.*, 2012). Through the group discussion, the participants confirmed the importance of the financial value in shaping the overall assessment of value.

Sixth, community value, from a customer-experiential perspective, refers to a collective association with a brand among its loyal consumers as a way of asserting their commitment it services or products (Aaker, 1997). The integration of an individual within the brand community is a subject of the perceived associations with other community members (McAlexander, Schouten, and Koenig, 2002). Previous studies identify several drivers of overall perceived value. There are recommendations in the literature by considering other drivers of value such as community value (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010). However, the participants in four focus group discussion do not confirm the importance of community value in the overall assessment of perceived value. Therefore, the community value diminshed as a driver of overall perceived value.

Regarding consumers' behavioural outcomes, the following constructs are identified. First, BPs are the extent to which a consumer has a favourable tendency towards particular brand over another (Hellier *et al.*, 2003). Consistent with the literature review, the participants demonstrate a high level of pleasure from consuming luxury accessories. Consequently, direct consequences of overall perceived value are confirmed.

Second, brand trust reflects the reliability of the service or product of a particular brand because consumers uphold its utility performance as better than the competition thereby committing to its use backed by the confidence that it would not disappoint them (Lau and Lee, 1999). The participants reflect their trust in the luxury brand by reliability and intention.

Third, repurchase intention represents a person's move to try a different service or product from a brand that prior experience exists based on perceived image of the brand that influences the informed-decision (Lacey and Morgan, 2009). This factor has been confirmed in the literature review as a consequence of CV (e.g. Kim *et al.*, 2012; Olaru, Purchase and Peterson, 2007). During the group discussions, participants also confirmed their intention to repurchase the luxury accessories which shaped from their perceptions of benefits and value acquisition.

The results of this study confirm the null hypotheses with acceptable deviations. The results are as presented in the following conceptual model, which emanating from the systematic literature review. One hypothesis was dropped regarding how community value impacts on overall perceived value.

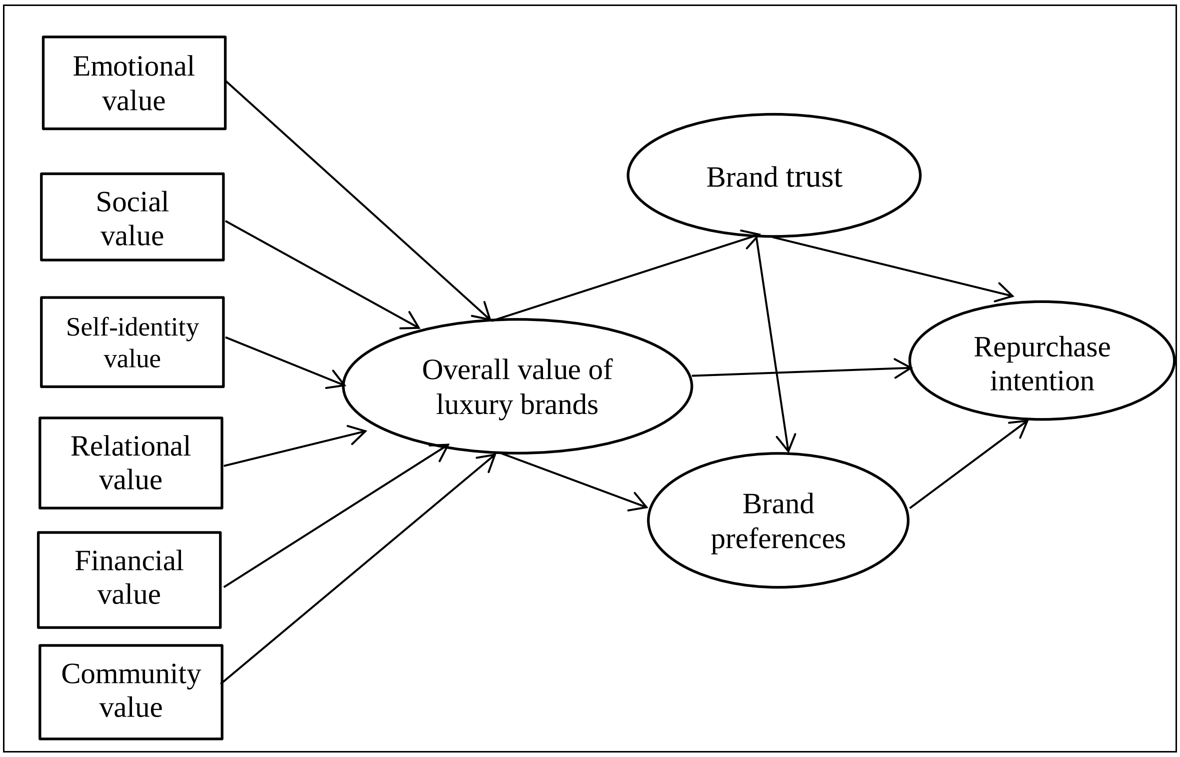


Figure 5.2 Conceptual model based on literature review

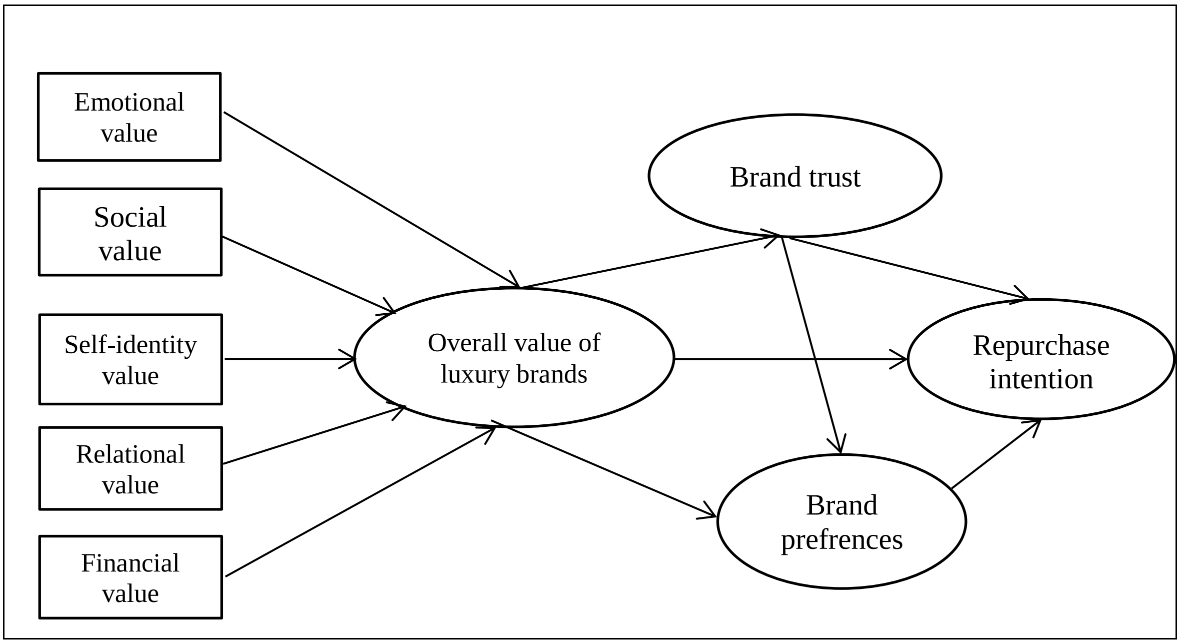


Figure 5.3 Conceptual model based on qualitative study and literature reviews

Accordingly, a model of the drivers of overall perceived value and its behavioural outcomes was developed on the basis of the qualitative study and literature reviews.

- Accessories have been selected as a product category. In addition, a list of specific luxury accessories brands has been identified by the participants during the focus group discussion; thus, the first objective of the focus group has been achieved.

- The research proposed model presented the theory of consumption-value as a tool of clarifying and predicting the purchase of luxury accessories brands: it was clear that Gulf Arab tourists evaluate only emotional, social, self-identify, relational and financial value when they take into consideration their purchase and then shape an overall value of luxury brands on which they form behavioural outcomes; in consequence, approving the prospered model validation and its capability to shape a robust explanation of overall value.

- The four focus groups showed that the overall perceived value is formed by several components: emotional, social, self-identify, relational and financial; as a result, the concept of overall value as a multidimensional construct is supported as indicated in the literature review.

- Community value, from a customer-experiential perspective, refers to a social aggregation of brand consumers and their connections to the brand as a storehouse of importance (Aaker, 1997). The integration of an individual within the brand community is a function of the perceived relationships with other community members (McAlexander, Schouten, and Koenig, 2002). Previous studies identify several drivers of overall perceived value. There are recommendations in the literature by considering other drivers of value such as community value (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010). However, the participants in four focus group discussion do not confirm the importance of community value in the overall assessment of perceived value. Therefore, the community value was dropped as a driver of overall perceived value.

- The four focus groups described their overall perceived value as a cognitive concept influences many behavioural outcomes, such as BPs, brand trust and repurchase intention to consume luxury accessories brand. Users employ the overall value evaluation for constructing informed, extrinsically and intrinsically driven consumption decision; thus, supporting the vital role of CV in developing behavioural intention.

- The participants in four focus groups described their trust with the luxury brand using two essential determinants: intentionality and reliability; unwavering brand quality identifies with its ability to deliver as per the demands of the customers both on social value and in utility performance; for instance, an organisation that is willing to assume liability on account of item blunders by reviewing the item once more from their clients and supplanting it with another one; accordingly, the concept of brand trust as a multidimensional construct is supported as indicated in the literature review.

The first stage of data collection is presented in this Chapter. The quantitative study is presented and discussed in the following Chapter; including the findings of the pilot study. Moreover, the quantitative techniques employed to analyse the final data are delivered through a comprehensive discussion, along with the hypotheses testing and presentation of the findings.

5.6. Second Stage: The Quantitative Study

5.6.1. Dataset

The final questionnaire was employed to collect the data over a two and a half-month period, beginning on the 1st of December 2013 (see Appendix 1). Due to the lack of availability within the frame of the sample, this research uses non-probability sampling; specifically, convenience sampling used frequently in business and management research (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

Structured interviews were employed to collect the data from the respondents. A total of 425 surveys were gathered by intercepting participants in four locations; Westfield, Selfridges, Harrods and Bicester Village. The surveys were reviewed thoroughly before employing IBM SPSS Statistics 20 to enter the data.

Some 425 questionnaires were received; however, only 397 are included in the current research as 28 were rejected. The unfinished sections or missing pages in questionnaires generated a high rate of missing data. Generally, the structure equation modelling requires 300 as a minimum for the sample size (Tabachnich and Fidell, 2006; Hair *et al.*, 2010). However, the data is analysed by using the structure equation modelling (PLS) which works efficiently with small sample sizes (Hair *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, it is an acceptable number of questionnaires to use.

The demographic profile of the participants in the final questionnaire displays that the greatest number of the participants were females, accounting 51.6% of the total number, whereas males comprise only 48.4%. The ages of the participants vary and coucanld be divided into the following clusters: the first features participants aged 16-24, comprising 11.3% of the total number of the participants; the second contains those aged 25-39, representing, 38.0%; and the final cluster consist of participants over 40, accounting for 50.6% of the total number.

The vast number of the respondents hold a Bachelor’s degree, shaping (41.6%) of the whole number of the participants. The status of work of the respondents shows that only 22.9% are unemployed, while the other 77.1% are working in open head honchos or privately. The standard levels of the economic wellbeing of participants shifted between single (34.3%), wedded (56.7%), widowed (1.5%) and separated (7.6%). Table 6.1 outlines the respondents' demographic profile in the final questionnaire.

Table 5.4 Main survey sample demographic profile			
Demographics		**Frequency**	**Percentages**
Gender	Male	192	48.4
	Female	205	51.6
Age	16-24	45	11.3
	25-39	151	38.0
	40 and older	201	50.6
Educational level	Not graduated from high school	2	.5
	Lower secondary school	3	.8
	Intermediate secondary school	48	12.1
	A-levels	121	30.5
	University degree	165	41.6
	Postgraduate degree	50	12.6
	Prefer not to say	8	2.0
Occupation status	Self-employed	42	10.6
	Freelance	13	3.3
	Employee	192	48.4
	Executive employee	32	8.1
	Civil servant	11	2.8
	Worker	16	4.0
	Not employed	91	22.9
Social status	Single	136	34.3
	Married	225	56.7
	Widowed	6	1.5
	Divorced	30	7.6
Total		397	100.0

5.6.2. Data Screening and Multivariate Assumptions

After collecting the data using the final questionnaire, the next step is to check this data before performing any further statistical analysis. Data screening is the procedure of ensuring that the entered data is clean and error-free. This procedure identifies the errors generated by outliers and missing data. Moreover, three assumptions are checked for multivariate analysis: normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity.

5.6.2.1. Missing data

The first task when cleaning the data is to identify the missing data, which can occur when valid values for one or two variables are not available for analysis. In this case, the issue raised by missing data is generalisability of results (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The authors suggested a four-step process for identifying the missing data and employing remedies. The first is to spot the sort of missing data involved, while the second step is discovering the extent of missing data involved. The third step is to establish the predictability of the missing data process. Finally, the imputation method is selected. Regarding the first step, spot the sort of missing data involved, two sorts of missing data are available: ignorable missing data, resulting from research design, in this case, specific remedies for missing data is not needed because it is inherent in the technique used; and non-ignorable data. Regarding the current study, the questionnaire design does not contain missed parts; for that reason, the current study includes non-ignorable missing data. The data is non-ignorable so the next step should be applied; examination of the extent of the missing data for individual variables, individual cases and an even overall set of data. The purpose of this is to be sure that the amount of data missing will not affect the results. However, there are numerous viewpoints in the research methodology books about the amount of missing data. For example, Hair *et al.* (2010) confirmed that if 10 percent of data missed randomly for a variable, therefore, it is slight to generate any effect on the findings. Regarding the current research, the amount of missing data is slight enough and happens in random approach which assessed by the insignificance of the Little Missing Completely at Random Test (Chi-Square= 865.086, DF=872, Sig. 0.560). Consequently, one of two available approaches can be applied as a remedy for missing values; consider the complete cases (valid values) only or replace the missing values. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2006), although considering the complete cases only can be direct and the simplest approach for dealing with missing data but it causes decreasing the sample size. Hence, the missing values are replaced to include all the cases with complete information in the analysis. This approach has many approaches; the mean values of the variable assessed from valid answers substituted the missing value (Hair *et al.*, 2010).

5.6.2.2. Outliers

Identify the outliers is the next phase in data screening procedure; outliers have different scores from the remainder of the data, such as extreme scores (Field, 2005).) There are two types of outliers: univariate and multivariate. However, SEM is considered an important tool for deleting both the multivariate outliers and univariate outliers for entered data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006).

Univariate Outliers: the univariate outlier happens on a single variable (Kline, 2005). By testing the observations for each variable, it is possible to identify the univariate outliers, which perceive observations placed outside the minimum and maximum scope (Hair *et al.*, 2010). To recognise univariate outliers, it is important initially to change the actual values in the data set to standardised values as a first step (Pallant, 2010). Hair *et al.* (2010) provide the rule of thumb of a univariate outlier; a standard score value more than 2.5 for the samples with fewer than 80 participants regarded as a univariate outlier. In terms of larger samples, the standard score values can be increased to four. However, Tabachnick and Fidell (2006) argue that observations with standardised score values above ±3.29 can be regarded as outliers. Regarding this research, SPSS Statists 20 was employed to identify univariate outliers guiding by a cut-off point of ±3.29. Table 2.6 presents the findings of outliers. It can be observed that only three cases (97, 314, and 193) can be testified as outliers on more than one variable. On the other hand, the research findings were not affected by identified outliers. This can be attributed to the extreme nature of this value, such as the standard deviation and mean. Box plots another graphical approach can be applied to detect the univariate outliers. Consequently, according to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2006), the univariate outliers do not need any transformation in order to place them at the centre of distribution.

Multivariate Outliers: the second type of outlier is multivariate, which takes place on more than two variables (Kline, 2005). Multivariate outlier detection can be addressed using the Mahalanobis D^2 measure. This approach allows one to assess what the impact of every observation is, by assessing the multidimensional gap between the case and the mean of each variable (Kline, 2005). However, Hair et al (2010) argue against applying this method without determining the variable that may raise the D^2 value, as this will affect the overall estimation.

It is possible to detect the multivariate outliers using the value of Mahalanobis distance which varies with the level of freedom and has a moderate level of $p<0.001$, which is the same as D^2/df, if D^2 is the Mahalanobis score and df represents the variables included (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006).

In this study, we first detected multivariate outliers by measuring Mahalanobis D^2 by using 2.5 as the value for5 D^2/df. As a result, three cases are multivariate outliers, and four of the cases were not univariate outliers. The cases have specific combinations and do not have a single variable level. In addition, in these cases, the figure of D^2 exceeded 39.363 (which is the critical value) at $p<0.001$, specified by Tabachnick and Fidell, (2006).

Table 5.5 presents the results obtained for the multivariate outlier. Cook's distance provided demonstrated proof that the outliers were deleted. Extreme cases have lower values (which are less than one), and these are not to be deleted (Pallant, 2010). As per Hair *et al.* (2010); one must retain outliers; otherwise, this is proof of deletion, which suggests they are abnormal and unrepresentative of observations made in the population. In addition, it is possible to accommodate and retain outliers while analysing them in a non-distorting manner, as it is in the case of this study.

Table 5.5 Univariate and multivariate outlier detection results

Univariate Outliers			**Multivariate Outliers**		
Variables	Cases with Standardised Values Exceeding ±3.29	Standardised score (z)	Cases	Mahalanobis (D^2)	D^2/df
EV	193 100 289	-5.21738 -3.83498 -3.55850	162	45.84292	2.97
SVS	243, 305 164	-3.56961 -3.43254	110	45.84382	2.97
SVO	193, 97, 115	-3.47371	65	31.92156	1.99
BT1	No cases		234	32.69969	2.15
BT2	314, 300	-3.50535	130	35. 25539	2.20
RP	No cases		176	34.74918	2.16
RV	303, 288	3.40424	130	35.25539	2.25
BP	314, 232, 111	-3.37371	70	31.92156	1.99
FIV	193, 97	-3.59915	28	33.59291	2.08
CON	24 164	-3.99782 -3.58119	140	31.95226	1.99
			180	31.19513	1.95
			98	31. 89441	1.94

5.6.2.3. Normality

Normality is the most vital assumption in multivariate analysis, representing the form of the data distribution for a metric variable and its correspondences the normal distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). Both the graphical and statistical approach can be used to estimate the normality of a single variable (Pallant, 2010). The simplest diagnostic test for normality is a visual check of the histogram, which compares the observed data values with a distribution resembling the normal distributing. Although this approach is applied for its, it can be problematic for small simple sizes. A more graphic, reliable method is the normal probability plot, which does a comparison between the aggregate distribution of a normal distribution and the aggregate distribution of actual data values. Hair *et al.*, (2010) state that a straight diagonal line is formed by a normal distribution and the entered data are compared with the diagonal. If the distribution is normal, the line representing the actual data distribution traces the diagonal. P-P plot can be used to assess the normal probability plot; the distribution is considered as a normal if the cases allocated to a straight line (Coakes *et al.*, 2009).

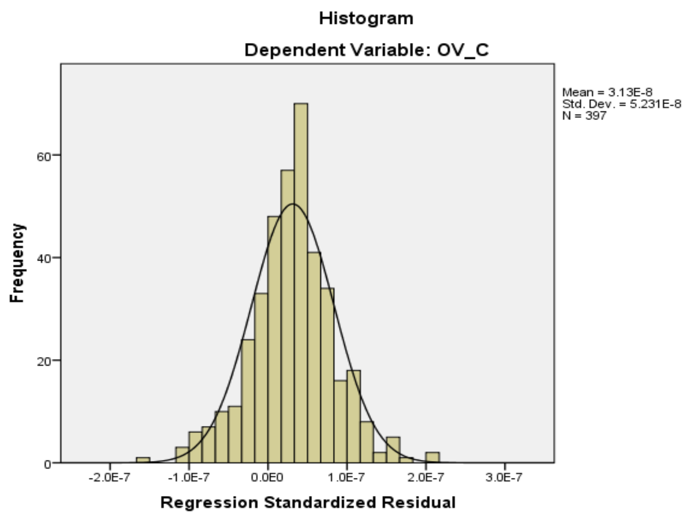


Figure 5.4 Histogram of the Standardised Residuals

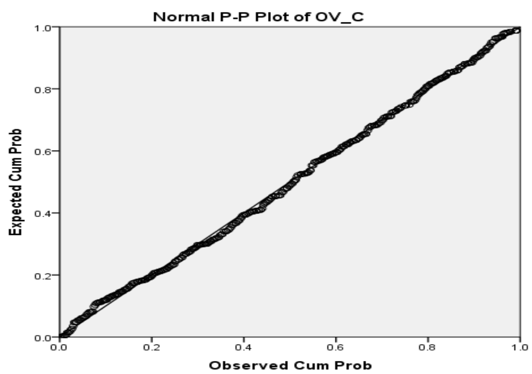


Figure 5.5 Normal Probability Plot of the Standardised Residuals

In terms of the current study, the P-P plots of the variables illustrate that the values of all variables are grouped nearby the straight line (see Figure 5.5). However, statistical tests were used as well to assess the normality of data. There are three statistical approaches to test the normality: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk statistic, 5% trimmed mean, and skewness and kurtosis. The focal propensity unaffected by the extreme values can be measured using the 5% trimmed mean (Coates *et al.*, 2009).To obtain this value of the distribution, 5% of the lowest and highest cases should be removed (Pallant, 2010). By comparing the original mean with this new trimmed mean, if these two mean values differ significantly, the data is required to be more detectable.

Only minor variances were identified between the mean for any variable and the 5% trimmed mean; both were nearly equivalent. The another tool to test the normality is Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk statistic test which compares the data with a normal distribution with the same standard deviation and mean as in the sample (Mooi and Sarstedt, 2011). A non-significant result indicates normality (Panllant, 2010); but, Shapiro-Wilk test can be applied only for small sample size (100 or less) as argued by Coakes *et al.*, (2009). Having a large sample size can raise a concern about this test in terms of the high probability of generating significant results; thereby indicating the non-normality of the data (Filed, 2005).

Table 5.6 Results of K-S test for normality

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
EV	.061	397	.001	.970	397	.000
SVS	.137	397	.000	.955	397	.000
SVO	.072	397	.000	.977	397	.000
BT	.095	397	.000	.946	397	.000
RP	.142	397	.000	.944	397	.000
RV	.058	397	.003	.983	397	.000
FIV	.092	397	.000	.978	397	.000
BP	.105	397	.000	.963	397	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

However, the normality has been assessed using skewness and kurtosis by defining the distribution form. Kurtosis refers to comparing the normal distribution with the ‘peakedness’ or ‘flatness’ of the distribution. There are two types of kurtosis; a distribution that is flatter than the normal distribution is termed platykurtic, while, if the distribution is taller or more peaked are called leptokurtic (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006; Hair *et al.*, 2010). The skewness value, on the other hand, can provide an indication of the symmetry of the distribution. Similarly, skewness has two types; positive skewness and negative skewness. The former occurs in the case of the distribution is shifted to the left side. The latter takes place in case of the distribution is moved to the right side (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). If the values of skewness and kurtosis are zero so then the distribution is normal (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). As a result, if there are negative or positive values that reveal a deviation from normality. However, Hair *et al.*, (2010) state that sample size has the effect of increasing statistical power by reducing sampling error. Small samples of 30 or fewer observations, impact significantly on the results, and it may be inappropriate to run the analyses, while, a sample size of 200 or more, it could be considered as ignorable. It is important to take into account that the variables have a normal distribution if they differ by ±3 on the kurtosis and skewness (Kline, 2005). The critical value for ***z*** (kurtosis/skewness) distribution is ±2.58, as suggested by Hair *et al.*, (2010), which is considered the most commonly acceptable value. Regarding current study, Table 5.7 presents the skewness and kurtosis values of variables. The values take place in the satisfactory domain.

Table 5.7 Skewness and Kurtosis at the construct level

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
EV	397	1.00	5.00	3.7876	.74851	-.361	.122	.259	.244
SVS	397	1.00	5.00	3.7112	.79841	-.506	.122	.200	.244
SVO	397	1.00	5.00	3.1700	1.00900	-.143	.122	-.807	.244
BT	397	1.00	5.00	3.9572	.68907	-.654	.122	1.284	.244
RP	397	1.00	5.00	3.7204	.78918	-.507	.122	.720	.244
RV	397	1.00	5.00	3.5887	.76697	-.280	.122	.078	.244
FIV	397	1.25	5.00	3.6530	.72434	-.257	.122	-.068	.244
BP	397	1.00	5.00	3.4893	.90473	-.234	.122	-.224	.244
Valid N (listwise) 397									

5.6.2.4. Homoscedasticity

The next assumption in this study is related to the relationship between variables, which is a dependent relationship. Homoscedasticity is correlated to the assumption about normality (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006); where we assume that the dependent variables show equal levels of variance in a range of predictors (Hair *et al.*, 2010). To define the relationship between independent and dependent variables, the variance of the both must be equal (Hair *et al.*, 2010). If there is inconsistency across the values of independent variables, then the relationship is "heteroscedastic" (Kline, 2005). To calculate the equality of the variance, the statistical method used is Levene’s test (Pallant, 2010. At $p<0.05$, based on the insignificance of Levene’s test, it means that it is possible to accept the assumption and that the variances are equal to one another (Field, 2005). Based on this case study, all variables have insignificant levels because $p \geq 0.05$, as illustrated in Table 6.4. Hence, the homoscedasticity assumption is acceptable.

Table 5.8 Test of homogeneity of variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig
EV_C	.410	1	395	.522
SVS_C	.139	1	395	.709
SVO_C	.045	1	395	.832
FIV_C	1.722	1	395	.190
BT_C	.053	1	395	.818
RP_C	2.511	1	395	.114
BP_C	2.612	1	395	.107
RV_C	.977	1	395	.324

5.6.2.5. Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when the variables are correlated higher than 0.85; whereby the variables measure the same things (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006).The statistical test for assessing the multicollinearity is the squared different connection (SMC) of every variable, and every other variable with an estimation of >0.90 show the presence of multicollinearity (Tabchnick and Fidell, 2006). There are two measures of assessing the multiple variable correlations and the pairwise: the variance inflation factor and tolerance. Tolerance is an indicator of how much variability is not investigated by the other independent variables in the theoretical model. It is calculated by applying the formula (1- $R^{2)}$ for each variable. If this value is very small, less than 0.1, it indicates that the multiple correlation with other value is high, indicating the possibility of multicollinearity (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The other value for measuring the multicollinearity is the VIF (Variance Inflation Factor), which is the inverse of the tolerance value (1/Tolerance). However, a value greater than 10 would be a concern, suggesting the possibility of multicollinearity (Pallant, 2010).Therefore, applying the standard that resilience ought to be lower than 0.1 and VIF more than 10 to analyse multicollinearity, the outcomes given in Table 6.5 blueprint the most extreme VIF is 3.641with resistance quality equivalent to.275. Thus, this study does not feature multicollinearity between the independent variables.

Table 5.9 The collinearity diagnostic								
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.318	.157		2.026	.043		
	EV_C	.015	.048	.014	.307	.759	.392	2.553
	SVS_C	-.030	.034	-.031	-.882	.378	.670	1.493
	SVO_C	-.032	.031	-.041	-1.024	.307	.517	1.934
	FIV_C	.089	.037	.081	2.422	.016	.718	1.394
	BT_C	.299	.050	.261	5.968	.000	.424	2.361
	BP_C	.445	.037	.510	12.085	.000	.455	2.196
	RV_C	.139	.056	.135	2.486	.013	.275	3.641
a. Dependent Variable: RP_C								

Finally, after capturing all the stages of data screening and filling the essential assumptions for conducting multivariate analysis, further analysis can be performed using the cleaned data; for example, assessment of measurement model and assessment of structural model by SEM PLS 3.

5.6.3. SEM Using PLS

PLS is an SEM technique that assesses a measurement and structural parameters simultaneously. However, the application of a PLS model usually occurs in two steps: the estimation of the measurement model, which specifies the relations between the unobserved variables and their observed items, and an estimation of the structural model; thereby testing the paths within the research model (Chin, 1998a).

5.6.3.1. Assessment of measurement model

The measurement model is used to establish the associations between the latent variables (endogenous, exogenous) and their indicators. This model can be assessed by estimating the validity and reliability for both; the latent variables and their indicators. Accordingly, the reliable and the valid scales can be used for evaluating the relations between the latent variables in the structural model.

Generally, researchers must consider two types of measurement models: reflective and formative measurement models. *The reflective measurement model* is based directly on classical test theory. According to this theory, measures refer to the effects of an underlying construct; thus, causality is the construct to its measures, whereas, *formative measurement models* are based on assumptions that indicators cause the construct. Therefore, researchers refer typically to this type of measurement model as a being a formative index (Becker, Klein and Wetzels, 2012). It is noteworthy that the measurement model in this study is confirmatory factor analysis because it has been designated to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables (Hair *et al.*, 2010)

There is no set rule for deciding whether to measure constructs reflectively or formatively. This decision has been the subject of considerable debate across different disciplines. In terms of the current study, the measurement model has both formative and reflective constructs. Overall perceived value is concepulised as a higher-order, formative construct. This research follows the procedures recommended by MacKenzie *et al.* (2005) for developing and evaluating constructs with formative indicators. Each of the five components indicates reliability in the proposed model; thereby suggesting they offer positive indicators of their respective components. Overall perceived value in the model was computed by using the repeated-indicators approach (the hierarchical component model), which is suitable for modelling higher-order factors in PLS (Turel *et al.*, 2010).

The educational level, age and gender are considered as control variables in the initial model. The control variables had no significant impact because (t-values) fall in the acceptable range (0.02-1.0). In addition, excluding the control variables containing only a marginal. If there is any influence on the variance, it can be explicated in the outcome variables. Consequently, any further analysis did not have any control variables and the uncontrolled proposed model illustrated in Fig. 5.3 was re-estimated. Thus, the control variables were excluded from further analysis and the uncontrolled model of Fig. 5.3 was re-estimated.

Reliability analysis: represents the consistency of a measure; this notion may comprise two elements: external and internal reliability. The former represents the level to which a scale is consistent over time, while the later states the level of a measure's internal consistency. This issue is of particular importance in the context of multiple-item measures, in which the question may arise as to whether the constituent indicators cohere to form a single dimension (Bryman, 2005).The literature offers three tests for measuring reliability. The first test is test-retest, which measures the stability at two different points. The second test is split-half. Despite the easy application of split-half, the findings can be influenced by the type of data splitting. Moreover, the findings arising from the split-half approach can be diverse to a certain extent. Therefore, achieving the "accurate" reliability assessment is difficult as stated by Peter (1979). The final test is Cronbach's Alpha, which examines the consistency of the entire survey (Field, 2005). More recently, Cronbach's Alpha is applied widely to measure internal constancy (Hair *et al.*, 2010). At this stage, it may be useful to apply the purified sample items to assess the reliability of the data which was collected by the main questionnaire. Consequently, according to Churchill (1979), the possibility of the results of the pilot test being by chance is eliminated. The errors arising from external factors and the personal factors of the participants reduce are reduced, in order to produce a content-valid measure. Churchill (1972) added that Cronbach's Alpha absolutely should be the first measures one calculates to assess the quality of measurement and a preceding step before assessing the validity.

The analysis (Table 6.7) reveals that all indicators achieved standard measurement properties. The threshold value of factor loadings is 0.7, which was attained by all items, thus, the underlying latent variables have mostly explained the variation in the items. The recommended cut-off value of 0.5 was met by all the items when the item-to-total correlation estimated for them. The unobserved variables had acceptable psychometric properties. Cronbach's Alpha values were above 0.7 when the construct reliabilities are assessed.

Although some well-established measures from Marketing literature were used at the beginning of the current research, some of them were reworded because they were applied in a new context (i.e., Gulf Arab tourists). In addition, the preliminary qualitative study generated some new indicators.

Table 5.10 Descriptive statistics for the scale

Construct	Item	Mean	Standard deviation	Outer loadings (Indictor reliability)	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha if the item deleted
Emotional value	EMOV1	4.14	0.72	0.82	0.72	0.89	0.87
	EMOV2	4.07	0.78	0.78	0.66		0.88
	EMOV3	4.02	0.81	0.86	0.77		0.86
	EMOV4	3.61	0.99	0.78	0.69		0.87
	EMOV5	3.34	1.16	0.80	0.76		0.87
	EMOV6	3.53	1.08	0.83	0.70		0.86
Social value	SOCV1	3.35	1.08	0.85	0.79	0.94	0.92
	SOCV2	3.16	1.11	0.88	0.83		0.93
	SOCV3	3.09	1.16	0.89	0.83		0.92
	SOCV4	3.08	1.17	0.89	0.84		0.92
	SOCV5	3.02	1.26	0.91	0.87		0.92
	SOCV6	3.34	1.17	0.81	0.72		0.94
Self-identity value	SIDV1	3.69	0.96	0.87	0.71	0.81	0.70
	SIDV2	3.81	0.92	0.89	0.71		0.70
	SIDV3	3.64	0.92	0.79	0.58		0.83
Relational value	RELV1	3.50	0.93	0.85	0.75	0.91	0.90
	RELV2	3.44	0.94	0.88	0.80		0.89
	RELV3	3.42	1.02	0.86	0.76		0.89
	RELV4	3.58	0.95	0.69	0.73		0.91
	RELV5	4.05	0.72	0.81	0.55		0.90
	RELV6	3.76	0.85	0.80	0.74		0.90
	RELV7	3.40	1.11	0.83	0.76		0.90
Financial value	FINV1	3.70	1.11	0.56	0.62	0.74	0.73
	FINV2	3.74	1.05	0.89	0.70		0.60
	FINV3	3.44	1.08	0.87	0.49		0.57
	FINV4	4.01	0.83	0.73	0.36		0.63
Brand preference	PRF1	3.50	0.99	0.93	0.89	0.94	0.92
	PRF2	3.43	0.98	0.95	0.96		0.91
	PRF3	3.44	0.97	0.91	0.86		0.93
Brand trust	BT1	4.12	0.74	0.86	0.80	0.92	0.91
	BT2	4.13	0.75	0.81	0.45		0.91
	BT3	3.97	0.86	0.82	0.75		0.91
	BT4	3.96	0.87	0.87	0.81		0.91
	BT5	3.80	0.81	0.82	0.74		0.91
	BT6	3.99	0.82	0.85	0.79		0.91
	BT7	3.72	0.96	0.80	0.71		0.92
Repurchase intention	RPI1	3.54	0.95	0.89	0.74	0.87	0.83
	RPI2	3.84	0.83	0.88	0.75		0.81
	RPI3	3.79	0.87	0.90	0.76		0.80

Although some well-established measures from Marketing literature were used at the beginning of the current research, some of them were reworded because they were applied in a new context (i.e., Gulf Arab tourists). In addition, the preliminary qualitative study generated some new indicators.

Validity analysis refers to the extent to which the latent constructs are reflected by the measurement items (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The validation of the measurement model is determined by discriminant and convergent validity (Hair *et al.*, 2003).

Convergent validity: this is the degree to which a measure associates positively with alternatives measures of the same constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2014). Three tools can be used to evaluate the convergent validity: composite reliability, AVE and factor loading.

- Composite reliability: the first creation to be evaluated is typically internal consistency reliability. Composite reliability is considered as an appropriate type to measure the internal consistency reliability. This type of reliability take into account the different outer loadings of the indicators variables and is calculated using the following formula:

$$\mathbf{CR=}\frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} Li\right)^2}{\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} Li\right)^2+\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} ei\right)}$$

Where:
e: error variance.
L: the standardised factor loading.
i: the number of items.

The composite reliability can be anything between 0 and 1, and higher values indicate better reliability. Interruptions are the same as with Cronbach's Alpha. To be specific, composite reliability values between 0.7 and 0.90 are satisfactory (Nunally and Bernstein, 1994). On the other hand, when composite values are below 0.6, they indicate a lack of consistency in reliability (Hair *et al.*, 2014). Table 6.7 offers evidence that shows that internal consistency was greater than the threshold of 0.7, which is the recommended measure.

- AVE: This is the grand mean value of the indicators related to the construct, which is the sum of squared loading divided by the number of indicators. The rule is that AVE should be 0.5 or higher, and higher values indicate that the construct provides an explanation for more than half of the indicators for a variance. Conversely, if AVE is lower than 0.50, it signifies more errors on the items than the construct indicated (Hair *et al.* 2014).

- Factor loading: the rule is that the acceptable factor has to be more than 0.5. The findings reveal that the standardised loading estimates for all factors are not less than 0.5, with the lowest result equating 0.56. This is the situation for the current research, as outlined in Table 5.11. Moreover, the discriminant validity of the indicators can be checked by addition tool; cross-loadings. Chin, (1998b) and Gotz *et al.*, (2009) state that the loading of each indicator is required to be higher than of its cross-loadings. See Appendix 2.

Table 5.11 Summary results of convergent validity				
Construct	**Item**	**Factor loading**	**Composite Reliability**	**AVE**
Emotional value	EMOV1	0.82	0.92	0.66
	EMOV2	0.78		
	EMOV3	0.86		
	EMOV4	0.78		
	EMOV5	0.80		
	EMOV6	0.83		
Social value	SOCV1	0.85	0.95	0.76
	SOCV2	0.88		
	SOCV3	0.89		
	SOCV4	0.89		
	SOCV5	0.91		
	SOCV6	0.81		
Self-identity value	SIDV1	0.87	0.89	0.73
	SIDV2	0.89		
	SIDV3	0.79		
Relational value	RELV1	0.85	0.93	0.66
	RELV2	0.88		
	RELV3	0.86		
	RELV4	0.69		
	RELV5	0.81		
	RELV6	0.80		
	RELV7	0.83		
Financial value	FINV1	0.56	0.84	0.57
	FINV2	0.89		
	FINV3	0.87		
	FINV4	0.73		
Brand preference	PRF1	0.93	0.96	0.86
	PRF2	0.95		
	PRF3	0.91		
	PRF4	0.86		
	PRF5	0.89		
Brand trust	BT1	0.86	0.94	0.69
	BT2	0.81		
	BT3	0.82		
	BT4	0.87		
	BT5	0.82		
	BT6	0.85		
	BT7	0.80		
Repurchase intention	RPI1	0.89	0.92	0.79
	RPI2	0.88		
	RPI3	0.90		

The analysis (Table 5.11) demonstrates that the measures of AVE were greater than the recommended 0.5 thresholds. Moreover, the standardised factor loadings were greater than the rule of thumb of 0.5.

Discriminant validity: the extent to which a construct is unique and distinct from another construct by empirical standards. So, there are no correlations between the measures of each construct and the other constructs measures (Hair *et al.*, 2003). To evaluate the discriminant validity, Fornell and Larker (1981) suggest that the square root of the AVE of a latent variable must be greater than the correlations between the remaining latent variables. Accordingly, the inter-construct correlation matrix (Table 5.12) demonstrated that the square root of the AVE for each construct (on the diagonal) was higher than the corresponding inter-construct correlations. Overall, the results conclude that the measures are valid.

Table 5.12 Inter-construct correlations and Square Roots of AVE of low-order constructs

	EMOV	SOCV	SIDV	RELV	FINV	PRF	BT	RPI
EMOV	**0.81**							
SOCV	0.61	**0.87**						
SIDV	0.53	0.47	**0.85**					
RELV	0.69	0.59	0.51	**0.81**				
FINV	0.45	0.44	0.38	0.48	0.75			
PRF	0.49	0.42	0.39	0.71	0.38	**0.91**		
BT	0.59	0.34	0.40	0.68	0.37	0.62	**0.83**	
RPI	0.51	0.37	0.36	0.68	0.39	0.78	0.68	**0.89**

According to three previous assessments; reliability assessment, convergent validity and discriminant validity across all constructs, the scales reveal acceptable reliability and validity; thus, they were reserved.

5.6.3.2. Assessment of the structural model

Once the reliability and validity of the construct measures are confirmed, the next step is to address the assessment of the structural model results. According to Hair *et al.* (2014), it is essential when examining the structural model to clarify that, instead of applying the measures of goodness of fit, the structural model in PLS-SEM is assessed on the basis of heuristic creation, determined by the model's predictive capabilities. These creations: (1) assess the structural model for collinear issues; (2) the significance of the path coefficients; (3) the level of R^2 values; (4) Q^2 predictive relevance; and (5) the f^2 effect size and the q^2 effect size (See Table 5.13).

Table 5. 13 Rules of thumb for structural model evaluation		
Criterion	**Method of estimations**	**Source**
Collinearity assessment	- High correlation between independent variables. - Tolerance and VIF (tool assessment)	Hair *et al.* (2010)
Path coefficients (β)	- Represent the hypothesised relationships among the constructs. - The estimated values for path relationships in the structural model should be evaluated in terms of sign, magnitude, and significance	Barclay, Higgins and Thompson (1995); Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009)
Coefficient of determination (R^2 value)	R2 values of 0.67, 0.33 and 0.19 for endogenous latent variables are described as substantial, moderate and weak respectively.	Chin (1998b); Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009); Hair *et al.* (2014)
Predictive relevance Q^2	Values above zero give evidence that the exogenous constructs have predictive relevance for the endogenous construct under consideration.	Stone (1974); Geisser (1975)
The q^2 effect sizes	A relative measure of predictive relevance (q2), values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 respectively indicate that an exogenous construct has a small, Medium, or large predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct	Cohen (1988); Vinzi *et al.* (2009); Hair *et al.* (2014)
The effect sizes f^2	For each effect in the path model, the effect size $f^2$is calculated as the increase in R^2 relative to the proportion of variance of the endogenous latent variable that remains unexplained. Values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 mean small, medium and large effects, respectively.	Cohen (1988); Vinzi *et al.* (2009); Hair *et al.* (2014)
Source: Developed by the author from the literature		

Step 1: Collinear assessment

To assess the collinearity, two measures are applied: the VIF and tolerance. This is outlijned in Section 5.6.5.2 following the multicollinearity assumption.

Step 2: Structural model path coefficients (β)

After running the PLS-SEM algorithm, estimates are obtained for the structural model relationships (i.e., the path coefficients), which refers the hypothesised relationships among the constructs. The path coefficients have standardised value between (1 and +1). Estimated path coefficients close to +1 represent strong positive relationship and vice versa for negative values that are almost always statistically significant (i.e., different from zero in the population).

In contrast, t-values must be significant to support hypothesised paths. Parameters that have a higher absolute t-value than 1.96 mean there is a significant level of 0.05 (or p<0.05). In those cases where t-value is more than 2.58, it indicates a significance level of 0.01 (or p<0.01). In cases where t-value is more than 3.26, the significance level is 0,001 (or p<0.001). For the structural model, PLS examination yields path coefficients. T-statistics provided estimated levels of significance, which were derived using the bootstrapping procedure involving 5000 re-samples (Fig. 5.3). Table 5.14 reveals the decomposition of effects (total, direct, indirect).

Table 5.14 Structural model: decomposition of effects.

Path	Standardised coefficients (t-values)		
	Total effects	Direct effects	Indirect effects
Emotional value Overall value assessment	0.31 (23.08***)	0.31 (23.08***)	
Social value Overall value assessment	0.23 (19.30***)	0.23 (19.30***)	
Self-identity value Overall value assessment	0.12 (10.73***)	0.12 (10.73***)	
Relational value Overall value assessment	0.43 (22.44***)	0.43 (22.44***)	
Financial value Overall value assessment	0.13(10.64***)	0.13 (10.64***)	
Overall value assessment Repurchase intention through brand trust	0.49 (11.133***)	0.07 (1.46)	0.42 (9.681***)
Overall value assessment Repurchase intention through BPs	0.33 (6.157***)	0.07 (1.46)	0.26 (6.608***)
Overall value assessment Brand trust	0.67 (21.95***)	0.67 (21.95***)	
Overall value assessment BPs through Brand trust	0.67 (21.54***)	0.46 (8.86***)	0.20 (5.02***)
Brand trust BPs	0.30 (5.61***)	0.30 (5.61***)	
Brant trust Repurchase intention through BPs	0.46 (7.30***)	0.29 (5.52***)	0.17 (4.78***)
BPs Repurchase intention	0.57 (11.71***)	0.57 (11.71***)	
* P < 0.05. ** P < 0.01. *** P < 0.001.			

Step 3: Coefficients of determination (R^2 value)

Coefficients of determination (R^2) is a measure of the model's predictive accuracy and is calculated as the squared correlation between specific endogenous construct's actual and predicted values; it also indicates the amount of variance in the endogenous constructs explained by all of the exogenous construct linked to it (Chin, 1998b). The (R^2) value ranges from 0 to 1 with higher levels indicating a higher level of predictive accuracy. It is difficult to provide rules of thumb for acceptable (R^2) value as this depends on the model complexity. However, in research that focuses on Marketing issues, (R^2) values of 0.75, 0.50, 0.25 for endogenous latent variables can be respectively considered as substantial, moderate, or weak (Hair, Ringle and Saestedt, 2011; Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009).

Step 4: Assess the predictive relevance Q^2

In addition to evaluating the magnitude of the R^2 values as a creation of predictive accuracy, researchers must test the Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value (Geisser, 1972; Stone, 1972). This creation is an indicator of the model's predictive relevance. The Q^2 value is obtained by using the blindfolding procedure for certain omission distance D=blindfolding is a sample reuse technique that omits every dth data point in the endogenous construct's indicators and estimates the parameters with the remaining data points (Chin, 1998a; Henseler *et al.*, 2009; Tenenhaus *et al.*, 2005). The omitted data points are considered missing values and treated accordingly when running the PLS-SEM algorithm (by using the mean value replacement). The difference between the true (i.e., omitted data points and the predicted ones is then used as input for the Q^2 measure.

Table 5.15 Results of R^2 and Q^2 values

Endogenous latent variable	**R^2 value**	**Q^2 value**
Overall value assessment	0.990	0.430
BPs	0.490	0.412
Brand trust	0.449	0.300
Repurchase intention	0.676	0.525

Table 5.15 provides the Q^2 value along with the R^2 value of all endogenous constructs. All Q^2 values are considerably greater than zero; thereby providing support for the model's predictive relevance regarding the endogenous latent variables.

Step 5: Assess the effect sizes f^2 and the effect sizes q^2

The final step to evaluate the structural model after evaluating the R^2 values and Q^2 values for all endogenous latent variables is the f^2 effect size and the q^2 effect sizes. Regarding the f^2 effect sizes, the change in the (R^2) value when a specified exogenous construct is omitted from the model, can be used to assess whether the omitted construct has a substantive impact on the endogenous construct. This measure is denoted in the f^2 effect size and calculated according to the following formula:

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2_{\text{included}} - R^2_{\text{excluded}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{included}}}$$

Where $R^2_{included}$ and $R^2_{excluded}$ are the R^2 values of the endogenous latent variable when a select exogenous latent variable is included in or excluded from the model. Guidelines for assessing the f^2 are that values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35, respectively, represent small, medium and large effects (Cohen, 1988) of the exogenous latent variable. Similar to the f^2 effect sizes approach for assessing R^2 values, the relative impact of predictive relevance can be compared by means of the measure to the q^2 effect size, formally defined as follows:

$$q^2 = \frac{Q^2_{included} - Q^2_{excluded}}{1 - Q^2_{included}}$$

As a relative measure of predictive relevance (q^2), values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 respectively indicate that an exogenous construct has a small, medium or large productive relevance for a certain endogenous construct (Hair *et al.*, 2015). Table 5.16 illustrates the f^2 effects sizes and the q^2 effect sizes for all variables in the models.

Table 5.16: the f^2 effects sizes and the q^2 effect sizes

Path	Path coefficients (β)	Absolute t-value	f^2 Effect size	q^2 Effect size
Emotional value → Overall value assessment	0.31***	23.08	0.139	0.077
Social value → Overall value assessment	0.23***	19.30	0.076	0.040
Self-identity value → Overall value assessment	0.12***	10.73	0.018	0.020
Relational value → Overall value assessment	0.43***	22.44	0.144	0.061
Financial value → Overall value assessment	0.13***	10.64	0.020	0.026
Overall value assessment → Repurchase intention	0.07	1.46	0.00	- 0.002
Overall value assessment → BPs	0.46***	8.86	0.161	0.140
Overall value assessment → Brand trust	0.67***	21.95	0.429	0.240
Brand trust → BPs	0.30***	5.61	0.140	0.075
Brant trust → Repurchase intention	0.29 ***	5.52	0.076	0.040
BPs → Repurchase intention	0.57 ***	11.71	0.404	0.249

As presented in Table 5.16, H1 predicts emotional value will impact positively on the overall value assessment, as confirmed by the analysis. Emotional value demonstrates a strong, positive, significant effect on the overall value assessment with medium effect size and small predictive relevance (β=0.31, $P<0.001$, f^2=0.139, q^2=0.077). The more consumers imbue objects with an emotional value, the greater the adoption of the luxury brand. Hence, H_2 also received empirical support from the data. It was hypothesised that social value has a positive effect on overall value assessment of luxury brands. As anticipated, it was found that social value relates significantly and positively to the overall value assessment with medium effect size and small predictive relevance (β=0.23, P<0.001, f^2=0.076, q^2=0.040). Similar results emerged for relational value, which also had a positive, significant effect on the overall value assessment with medium effect size and small predictive relevance (β=0.43, P<0.001, f^2=0.144, q^2=0.061). Therefore, H4 is supported.

The coefficient of the path from self-identity value to overall value assessment was significant with small effect size and small predictive relevance (β=0.12, p<0.001, f^2=0.018, q^2=0.020), as was the coefficient of the path from financial value to overall value assessment with medium effect size and small predictive relevance (β=0.13, p<0.001, f^2=0.020, q^2=0.026). Thus, H3 and H5 are supported. Apparently, Gulf Arab tourists do consider emotional, social, self-identity, relational and financial value when developing their overall value assessments.

The overall value assessment can be used to predict the two key behavioural outcomes, BPs and repurchase intention, directly and indirectly through brand trust. As hypothesised, overall value affects BPs both directly and indirectly through brand trust. However, hypothesis testing failed to demonstrate the direct effect of overall value assessment on repurchase intention, as the direct effect was statistically non-significant (β=0.07, P>0.05). In contrast, the total direct effect of overall value assessment on repurchase intention (through BPs) is (β=.07, P>0.05), and the total indirect effect is β =.26, P < 0.001, resulting in a total effect of.33. Accordingly, overall value affects repurchase intention only indirectly. The total effect of brand trust on repurchase intention was β = 0.46, P < 0.001, which was higher than the total effect of overall value assessment on repurchase intention. Notably, there were differential effects of overall value and brand trust on BPs and repurchase intention. The analysis confirmed the direct effect of overall value assessment on BPs (β=0.46, P<0.001) while there was no direct effect on repurchase intention; however, the direct effect of brand trust on BPs (β=0.31, P<0.001) was higher than the direct effect of brand trust on repurchase intention (β=0.29, P<0.001). Thus, the overall value assessment seems to be a stronger predictor of BPs than brand trust which, subsequently, is the main predictor of repurchase intention. In this regard, the direct effect of overall value assessment on brand trust is (β=0.67, P<0.00), resulting in supporting H7. Moreover, BP has a significant positive impact on repurchase intention (β=0.57, P<0.001)

Consequently, H12 is supported (See Table 5.17). Overall, the model explained major portions of the variation in adoption behaviours which was shown to be about 69% of variance in repurchase intention, 50% in BPs and 45% in brand trust.

Table 5.17 Summary of results of hypotheses testing

Hypotheses	**Assessment**
H1: The emotional value of a luxury brand is positively related to its overall perceived value	Supported
H_2: The social value of a luxury brand is positively related to its overall perceived value	Supported
H3: The self-identity value of a luxury brand is positively related to its overall perceived value	Supported
H4: The relational value of a luxury brand is positively related to its overall perceived value	Supported
H5: The financial value of a luxury brand is positively related to its overall perceived value	Supported
H7: Overall perceived value will have a significant positive impact on brand trust	Supported
H8: Overall perceived value will have a significant positive impact on brand preferences	Supported
H9: Overall perceived value will have a significant positive impact on repurchase intention	Not Supported
H10: Brand trust will have a significant positive impact on BP	Supported
H11: Brand trust will have a significant positive impact on repurchase intention	Supported
H12: BP will have a significant positive impact on repurchase intention	Supported
H11.a: The relationship between overall perceived value and repurchase intention is fully mediated by brand trust	Supported
H12.a: The relationship between overall perceived value and repurchase intention is fully mediated by brand prefrences	Supported

5.6.3.3. Testing Mediation

The theoretical model has two mediators: brand trust and BP. The relationships between overall perceived value and repurchase intention mediate by both BPs and brand trust. To determine the existence of mediation and whether it is partial or full mediation, it requires the fulfilment of certain conditions as specified by Baron and Kenny (1986).

To assess the mediation, three links exist the independent and the dependent variable; the independent and the mediator; and the mediator and dependent variable. The condition of the lower impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable in the control of mediation is a case of partial mediation. However, the case is identified as full mediation if the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable is not significant with the control of mediator (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

As indicated in Table 5.18, the independent variable is the overall perceived value and the dependent variable is the repurchase intention. There is no significant direct relationship between the independent and the dependent (0.07, *T*= 1.46). Therefore, this defines the existence of full mediation, because there is no significant direct impact on the control of mediator. The indirect impact of overall perceived value on repurchase intention mediated by BP is significant (0.26, *T*= 6.608).

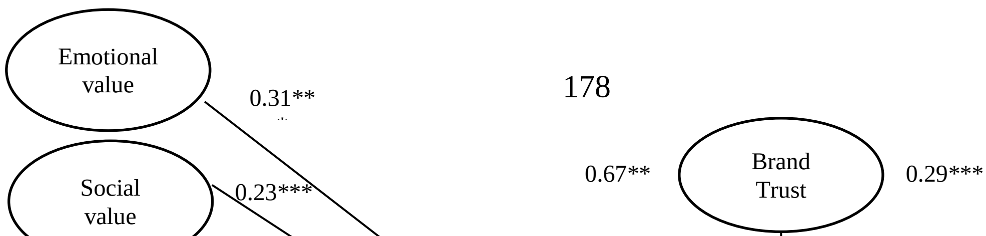
Table 5.18: Testing Mediation (BPs)

Path	Standardised coefficients (t-values)		
	Total effects	Direct effects	Indirect effects
Overall value assessment → BPs		0.46 (8.86***)	
BPs → Repurchase intention		0.58 (11.71***)	
Overall value assessment → Repurchase intention mediated by BPs	0.33 (6.157***)	0.07 (1.46)	0.26 (6.608***)
* P < 0.05. ** P < 0.01. *** P < 0.001.			

In the case of the second mediation, BPs, the impact of overall perceived value on repurchase intention is fully mediated by brand trust; since, there is no significant direct relationship between the independent and the dependent (0.07, T= 1.46). However, the indirect impact of overall perceived value on repurchase intention is significant in the existence of brand trust; thereby supporting the full mediation of brand trust (See Table 5.19).

Table 5.19: Testing Mediation (brand trust)

Path	Standardised coefficients (t-values)		
	Total effects	Direct effects	Indirect effects
Overall value assessment → Brand trust		0.67 (21.95***)	
Brant trust → Repurchase intention		0.29 (5.52***)	
Overall value assessment → Repurchase intention mediated by brand trust	0.49 (11.133***)	0.07 (1.46)	0.42 (9.681***)
* P < 0.05. ** P < 0.01. *** P < 0.001.			



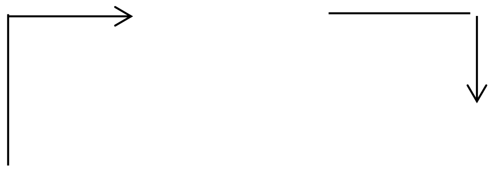


Figure. 5.6. Research Model

5.7. Conclusion

This Chapter delivers a comprehensive view of the stages of the data analysis. Both Cronbach's Alpha and the item-to-total correlation were generated to assess the reliability, as a preliminary step to refine the items through the survey pre-testing. After pre-test the survey, a self-administrated questionnaire was employed to collect the primary data. In order to analyse the primary data, some statistical tests are completed through the following stages:

First, in terms of the data cleaning and screening performed throughout this phase, both the missing data and the outlier were checked. The missing data occurred randomly; therefore, the remedy applied involved the cases in the analysis. The outliers were retained because no evidence was found to suggest they were abnormal and subject to removal; therefore, the sample size does not need to be reduced in order to obtain clean data.

Second, testing of multivariate, the three assumptions of multivariate were surveyed and demonstrated satisfactory, except the multivariate ordinariness recognised by Mardia's coefficient. To defeat the infringement of the most extreme, a probability appraisal methodology is utilised because of its adaptability and vigour in the infringement of the typicality supposition.

Third, SEM, through this step, a PLS model was applied in two stages: the first one is the assessment of the measurement model which specifies the relationships between the unobserved variables and their observed indicators and the second is an assessment of the structural model which tests the paths in the research model. For both the items and constructs in the current study, the validity and reliability are evaluated to assess the measurement model. The reliability of all the constructs was above the minimum requirement. The convergent validity and discriminate validity were tested with a view to assess the construct. Then, hypotheses were tested by transferring the measurement model to structural model. Assessment of the results of the structural model determines how well empirical data support the theory/concept and, thus, decides whether the theory is confirmed.

After progressing through all data analyses steps, it is essential to draw a conclusion about interpreting the significance of the statistical analysis results: the theoretical model of the current study has the ability to generate a deep explanation of overall value development. The proposal model develops the role of the overall value assessment in shaping the behavioural outcome. The results indicate that the Arab tourist considers the emotional value, social value, self-identity value, relational and financial value as key criteria to explain his overall value assessment. Based on this assessment, preferences and repurchase intentions are developed towards luxury brands.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Conclusion

6.1. Introduction

This Chapter aims to deliver the findings of both the qualitative and quantitative research. The study theories were acknowledged or dismissed by discussing the vast and immaterial connections in the proposed structure. The proposed theoretical model has been tested empirically in the previous Chapter to deliver a deep understanding of how consumers develop overall value for luxury brands. The findings are the result of data analysis performed to identify a set of fundamental antecedents for overall value of luxury accessories and customer intention to re-buy the luxury accessories. The final revised model is produced by employing the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) (Smart PLS), which demonstrates the significant relationships between predictors forming overall luxury value and, subsequently, their influence on repeat purchase intention. This Chapter is structured as follows: Section one discusses hypotheses testing and associations with the existing literature; Section two deliberates on how the findings can manage the research objectives by providing answers to the research questions; the third Section represents the key research contributions, while the fourth presents the research limitations; the final Section concludes by providing suggestion for future studies in the domain of luxury accessories.

6.2 Discussion of Hypotheses Testing

This study introduces the theory of consumption values, and incorporates the findings of the meta-analysis of value perceptions research by Smith and Colgate (2007) and the luxury value dimensions as proposed by Wiedmann *et al.* (2007, 2009), to develop a more comprehensive model which concentrating on the assessment of antecedents and outcomes of customer’s overall value of luxury accessories. This research suggests a more comprehensive view to examine and predict the purchase of luxury accessory brands.

In addition, this research examines the role of luxury value from a multidimensional view and investigates the role of luxury value on brand prefrences, brand trust and repurchase intention in luxury product settings. As such, compared with previous studies in this research area, this study provides a more elaborate screening of the mechanisms through which luxury consumption separately influence level of individual' BPs, brand trust and consequently repurchase intention. While numerous studies have been conducted on CV and the relationship between customer outcomes, to the best of our knowledge, few have investigated the relational outcomes of luxury CV, especially in relation to product concept (Alan *et al.*, 2016).

The final reviewed model includes nine constructs and 13 significant relationships, as illustrated in Figure 6.1. The results reveal that Gulf Arab tourists assess some sets of value dimensions of luxury accessories when they purchase and shape an overall value of luxury accessories, which informs their buying behaviour. Moreover, the findings recognise the components of general quality whereupon customers summon their behavioural reactions (emotional value, social value, self-identity value, relational value and financial value). No significant impact is observed directly between overall luxury value and repurchase intention. Therefore, it is beneficial to mention that the final revised model confirmed the model generated from the qualitative study except for the direct relationship between the overall value assessment of luxury accessories and repurchase intention (see Figure 6.1)

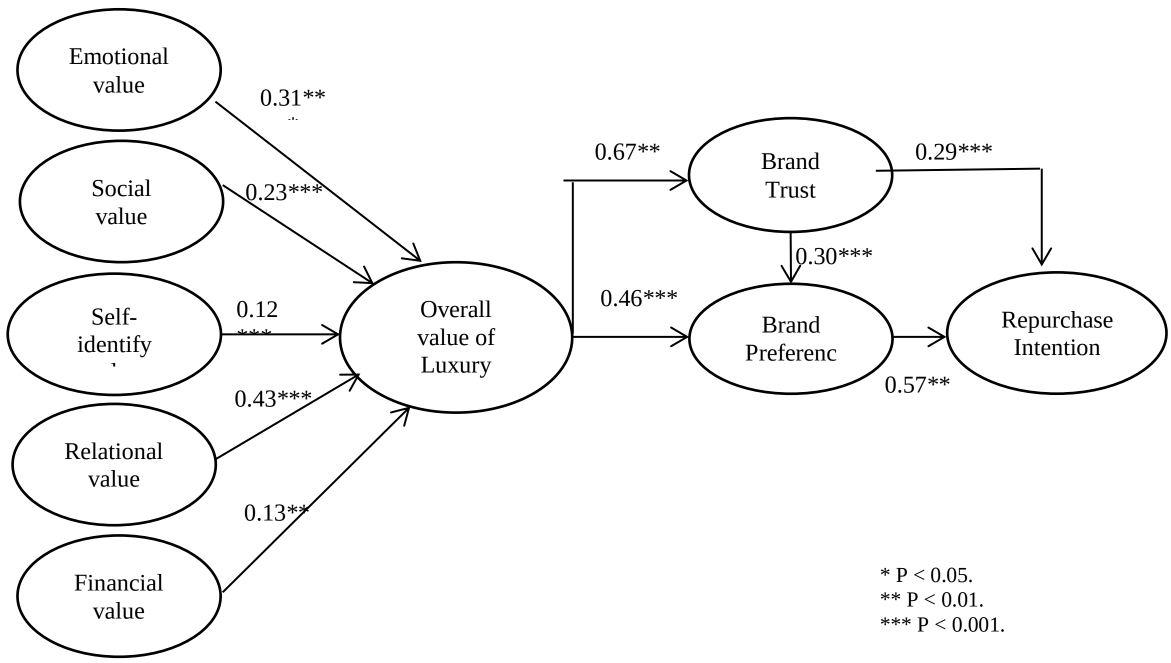


Figure 6.1. Final revised model

6.2.1. Emotional value

The theoretical model in the current research and the subsequent results confirm that the overall perceptions of luxury value by Gulf Arab tourists are affected significantly by emotional value. This correlates with previous results pertaining to the purchase of hedonistic and luxury products for their emotional features; for example, sensory pleasure, aesthetic beauty and emotion (Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels, 2009).

Furthermore, this result is consistent with the majority of research establishing that luxury consumers seek individual prizes and satisfaction obtained through the buy and utilisation of merchandise assessed for their subjective enthusiastic advantages (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Consequently, they are considered hedonic seekers. Furthermore, direct consumption or distant appreciations of branded products provides interactions that structure the perceptions of emotional value. These exchanges provide the foundation for customers to develop favourable tendencies towards certain brands (Mathwick, Malhotra and Rigdon, 2002).

Conversely, a study conducted by Havlena and Holbrook (1986) reveals the reliance of customers on emotional gains in making additional choices where a product's functional facets become equal. Furthermore, according to Fiore and Kim (2007), there is a disparity between functional and emotional standards; whereby emotional facets denote shopping experience and enhancing excellent product preferences via lucidly evaluating information regarding the functionality and performance of the product. Moreover, Hur, Kim and Park (2012) believe that hedonic utility is a significant predictor of behavioural intention to buy branded products. Indeed, the results also confirmed this point as the emotional value is the strongest and an essential determinant of the overall value of luxury accessories. Recently, many types of research confirm that the notion of pleasure and, more broadly, emotions also offers an important explanatory factor linked to the consumption or possession of luxury brands (de Barnier & Valette-Florence, 2013; Shukla *et al.*, 2015; Hennigs *et al.*, 2015)

Nevertheless, consumers may not pursue positive feeling purposely when they experience the products; emotional values aroused unintentionally by the consumption experience form the basis for future consumption behaviour at a subliminal level. Therefore, indulgence speaks to the apparent subjective utility and inherently alluring properties obtained from the buy and utilisation of an extravagance mark. Also confirmed are the stimulating emotions and full of feeling states obtained from individual prizes and fulfilment (Sheth, Newman and Gross, 1991b; Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels, 2009).

6.2.2. Social value

The results provide evidence that luxury brands are vital to consumers seeking social status; thereby indicating that the social hierarchy associated with brands is fundamental to conspicuous consumption. Moreover, this study is consistent with a number of researchers in its aim of investigating the impact of reference groups on consumption behaviour of luxury brands (Mason, 1992). The results also reveal that the visibility of luxury products correlates positively to its susceptibility to the reference group. As explained by Bearden and Etzel (1982), luxury products purchased publically had greater potential to become conspicuous goods than privately purchased luxury products. Thus, conspicuous consumption is a fundamental base for determining favourable tendencies towards various publicly-consumed goods (Corneo and Jeanne, 1997; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004).

Furthermore, the results agree with Sheth *et al.* (1991b), who add that social utility is the determinant of consumption choices involving extremely visible products (for instance handbags, jewellery) and services designated for distribution to other persons. According to Veblen (1899), goods have been identified acquire conspicuous or emblematic consumption worth in surplus of their valuable efficacy. Another research by Hyman (1942) established facts on reference groups, arguing that personal traits are affected by group membership. Furthermore, Gallarza and Saura, (2006) investigated the value dimensions in a travel context and advocated social value as a strong indicator for developing the overall value of luxury brands. The individual desire for luxury brands is often driven by the search for social status and representation (Hennigs et al., 2012**;** Hennigs et al., 2013**;** Hennigs *et al.*, 2015).

Thus, these results reveal that Gulf Arab tourists rely excessively on social value in developing their overall value of luxury accessories. This is consistent with the collectivist psyche of a society where conspicuous consumption is perceived as a tool of achieving social recognition and impressing others. Apparently, Gulf Arab tourists of luxury accessory brands assess a brand's overall value by taking into consideration different value components, and social value is confirmed according to current research results as one of these elements.

6.2.3. Self-identify value

In the context of luxury, self-identity value is not as fundamental as other factors in the evaluation of overall value. This result can be ascribed to the statement that a single's demeanour and expenditure in socialist cultures is affected highly by collective values when compared to inside stirred concerns (Aune and Aune, 1936). The results yield support for many prior studies; for example, Puntoni (2001), who suggested that luxury consumption is influenced positively with self-congruity. Consumers buy the luxury brands to incorporate symbolic benefit into their identity (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004); consumers also purchase the visible items to enhance their identity (Dittmar, 1994). Even more, Wiedman *et al.* (2009) propose that there is congruence between a product image and a consumer's self-concept which is a strong indicator in determining the overall value perceptions. Most people use luxury brands for their symbolic meanings, and it is well-established that luxury goods make people feel good about themselves (Shukla *et al.*, 2015; Shukla and Purani 2012).

Wong and Ahuvia (1998) confirm the clear growth in the number of consumers consuming the luxury items to drive self-directed hedonic experience and symbolic values. From this perspective, the perfect congruity of luxury items with consumer's self-image plays an essential role in developing the overall value assessment.

6.2.4. Relational value

This hypothesis anticipated that the relational value has a significant positive impact on overall luxury value. This research developed a bond (physical, financial or emotional) that brings together the product's vendor and product's client, in addition to enhancing relational value (Schultz and Schultz, 2004).

As anticipated, the relational value dimension emerged as a fundamental determinant of the overall value of luxury accessory brands. This is because brands have their own character and personality with which the consumer can identify (Blackston, 1992).

According to Saren and Tzokas (1998) a consumer stands a chance of grasping a relationship with a product, or service (Dall'Olmo Riley and de Chernatony, 2000), while their feelings and impressions linked to the product are among the key components of a product's evaluation (Aaker and Keller, 1990). It is now known that customers develop relationships with particular brands, products and companies (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009), even to the degree that extremely loyal customers are just as likely to change retail outlet as non-loyal customers, if they fail to locate their favourite items infrequently visited stores (Verbeke *et al.*, 1998). Thus, firms are now well aware of the advantages posed by such interaction with customers and regularly create targeted customer relationship strategies to try and further refine a directly-linked customer base (Rowley and Haynes, 2005). Consequently, the research findings confirm that the relational value is one of the overall value dimensions affecting consumers' evaluations and experiences with the brands.

6.2.5. Financial value

As hypothesised, Gulf Arab tourists prioritise the medium-term effect of financial value in shaping overall value of luxury accessories. This finding proves the prevailing wisdom that status-conscious consumers use a price cue as a substitute determinant of prestige (Berkowitz *et al.*, 1992).

Financial value gathers importance in the case of luxury goods. According to Tellis and Gaeth (1990), the price has a positive influence on consumer perceptions regarding evaluating quality; whereby a higher price signifies greater quality. Furthermore, prestige sensitivity has similar attributes and thus generates favourable connotations with the price cue, since customers associate both prominence and status with higher prices (Shukla, 2011; Wong and Ahuvia, 1998). According to Shukla (2011) and Wong and Ahuvia (1998), purchasing premium-priced products, with the intention of seeking prestige, are considered acceptable in various collectivist cultures and labelled commonly as "conspicuous consumption" within the consumer behaviour literature (Peter and Olsen, 2010). Concerning Thomas (2007), cases involving luxury products tend to exhibit positive relation amid general value and hefty financial sacrifices linked to the product. Prestige pricing increases the financial value of luxury brands; the more expensive it is compared to normal standards, the more desirable and valuable it becomes (Hennigs et al, 2012**;** Hennigs et al, 2013; Hennigs *et al.*, 2015). Accordingly, the findings confirmed that the uniqueness and desirability of the luxury brand elevate the cost of acquisition

6.2.6. Overall value of luxury accessories on brand trust

Apparently, Gulf Arab tourists assess the overall value of luxury brands by considering multiple value dimensions; emotional, social; self-identity, relational and financial value. This is then used as the basis for establishing consumer preferences and making purchase decisions. However, the impact of overall perceived value on triggering behavioural outcomes; BPs, brand trust and repurchase intention, has not been addressed in previous studies.

The research results are inconsistent with the view that consumers' overall evaluation of the brand using different perspectives of value determines the overall perceived value (Tsai, 2005). This perceived value is critical in determining the long-term benefits (Mc Dougal and Levesque, 2000). Trust sustains the desirability of maintaining a long-term relationship with the trustee.

Furthermore, the research findings align with the Marketing literature in that building trust requires the existence of confidence that the consumer will find what they desire and have been promised (Delgado *et al.*, 2003). Among the authors, Berry and Yadav, (1996) and Ravald and Gronross, (1996) argue that consumers' confidence increase when the perceived value; promised experiences and benefits increases relative to what is given, increases.

In addition, the significance of trust in the online sphere is proved by Grabner-Kraeuter (2002) who theorises Marketing managers offer additional value for consumers through decreasing complexity which, in turn, reduces the uncertainty associated with transactions. Another support of the direct relationship between brand trust and CV has been provided by Sirdeshmukh *et al.* (2002). However, they confirmed that further research required for investigating the association between value and trust. As a key success factor in luxury Brand Management, the creation and preservation of superior value relates strongly to trust (Hennigs et al, 2015; Bakanauskas and Jakutis, 2010); thus, the luxury value of a brand acts as an antecedent of brand trust in the luxury context (Alan *et al.*, 2016; Song *et al.*, 2012). Accordingly, this study demonstrates that the overall value of luxury accessories is a stronger determinant of BPs than trust, which, in turn, is the main determinant of repurchase intention. This finding can be attributed to the nature of value. When the perceived value, in the form of promised experiences and benefits, increases relative to what is given, consumers' predisposition to favour one brand relative to another increase.

6.2.7. Overall value of luxury accessories upon BPs

The research results emphasise the direct positive relationship between BPs and CV, which concurs Kaplan *et al.* (1974) and Jacoby and Kaplan (1972). Financial risk is the main concern of customers who purchase life insurance. However, a few researches have investigated the different facets of the relationship between BP and CV (Dodds, Monroe and Grewal, 1991; Grewal *et al.*, 1998). Conversely, the current evidence presented by Hellier *et al.*, (2003) states that the main factor influencing BP is perceived value. Many Marketing studies have indicated a direct positive relationship between perceived value and BP (Chiu *et al.*, 2010; Wang, 2013). The current research also established this strong association.

6.2.8. Overall value of luxury accessories upon repurchase intention

This empirical study is the first to investigate the influence of overall value on intention to re-buy the brands in luxury context. Therefore, the findings are considered essential in deconstructing the four key constructs. According to our theoretical model of the relationships between the value, BPs, brand trust and repurchase intention.

It theorises that overall value of luxury accessories has a significant positive effect on repeat purchase intention. By testing the hypothesis using regression the findings confirm the insignificant relationship between the overall value of luxury acessories and consumers' repurchase intentions. The findings are in line with one group of research stream view the CV is a poor predictor of repurchase intention holding insufficient to clarify how the purchase decisions are formulated (He and Song, 2015).

Though perceived value is well-known antecedents of repurchase intentions (Wathne *et al.*, 2001; Kaynak, 2003; Bolton *et al.*, 2000), a direct link between this variable and repurchase intentions is not supported in the current study. This result can be attributed to the fact that overall luxury value is developed in this study from two different sources; the cognitive and affective dimensions, while BP and brand trust evaluations are emotions oriented. Findings from this research indicate that Gulf Arab consumers' emotions are a closer measure than the cognitive responses in forming their future repurchase intentions.

Although there is no direct relationship between overall value of luxury accessories and repeat purchase intention, the indirect effect is positive and significant. Both BP and brand trust are explored and mediate the link between overall value of luxury accessories and repurchase intention. In other words, the current research identified the indirect effect of BP and brand trust on repurchase intention. The customers do not build their repeat purchase intention unless they trust the brands or express preferences for the brands.

6.2.9. Brand trust upon BPs

The conceptual model is constructed according to the hypothesis that the preferences towards a particular brand are shaped by brand trust and overall value of luxury accessories. Testing the hypotheses provides findings, which support the positive significant relationship between brand trust and overall CV on developing BPs. Moreover, new findings contribute to the explanation of how consumers formulate their preference for specific brands.

The research findings also align with the Marketing literature in that brand trust has a crucial role in the determination of future behavioural intentions and relationships (Delgado *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, it supports the link between trust as an evaluative facet, and behavioural responses (Sirdeshmukh *et al.*, 2002). Trust has been identified as important in developing positive attitudes (Garbarino and Johnson, 1994). At brand level, trust contributes extensively to building a strong consumer-brand link (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Consumers tend to favour the frequent purchase of trusted brand (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). The extent to which the consumers develop flavour predispositions towards one brand over another defines his/her BP (Hellier *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, this study confirms that trust creates consumers' favourable predisposition towards the brand.

6.2.10. Brand trust upon repurchase intention

The second predictor of repurchase intention for the current study is brand trust. The importance of this association supports the insight of Kennedy *et al.* (2001): that a consumer who exhibits elevated levels of trust towards the producer and the seller with whom the consumer has had familiarity with exhibits higher chances of making a repurchase as compared to a consumer having minimal trust. Holden (1990) found that one of the outcomes of both trust of the salesperson and trust of the company is repeat purchase decision.

The intention to repeat purchase represents the decision of consumers about repeating the buying behaviour of the brand. Consumer desire to repeat their experiences may provide the motivation to buy the brand again. While CV is not a factor that can have an impact upon customer repurchases intentions. The brand trust has been involved in significant studies (Ribbink, van Riel, Liljander, and Streukens 2004; Sirdeshmukh, Singh and Sabol 2002; Chow and Holden, 2002).

Principally, brand trust is the emotional commitment of customers to the brand. Recently, practitioners pay huge attention to brand trust, as it is perceived that consumer intentions to repurchase are associated positively with higher trust scores (Zboja and Voorhees, 2006). Studies explained that trust has a fundamental role in repurchase behaviour and long-term customer pleasure (Ballester and Aleman, 2001). Ballester and Aleman, (2005) stated that brand trust and reliability can be achieved by fulfilling promises in a long-term procedure, paying enough attention to the customer expectations and value its customers. Ashley and Leonard, (2009) also confirmed that the positive beliefs of consumers, concerning their expectation for the company behaviour and branded product performance, elicit trust in a brand.

The research results are identical to those realised by Hennig-Thurau and Klee (1997); whereby trust always plays a significant role in repurchase decision. Certainly, previous studies indicate that brand trusts have a focal role in driving the consumer intentions to re-buy (Weisberg, Te'eni and Arman, 201; Alan *et al.*, 2016; Alan and Kabadayi, 2014; Fang *et al.*, 2011). The current research concurs with previous empirical results that brand trust has a significant impact on repuchase intention. On the other hand, recent researches confirm empirically a strong association between brand trust and repurchase intention (Alan *et al.*, 2016; Song *et al.*, 2012), thus, it can be confirmed that the relationship between overall value of luxury accessories and repurchase intention is mediated by brand trust.

6.2.11. BPs upon repurchase intention

The current study highlights the important association between BPs and the consumer intentions to repeat the purchase, which is in line with the results of Hellier *et al.* (2003). Several studies stress that the intention of consumers to buy a product is directly impacted by the preference of that respective product (Cobb-Walgren *et al.*, 1995; Tolba and Hassan, 2009). These studies examined two groups: one that exhibited product experience, and another with no previous experience of the product. Furthermore, the researchers rejected the idea that BPs can generate a loyalty bond with the consumers who had an experience with the brand.

Moreover, Kim *et al.* (2011) confirm the ability of BPs to produce the emotional commitment and attitudinal loyalty that will culminate in repeat purchase behaviour. This significant association between BP and repurchase intention is corroborated by Zajonc and Markus (1982), who confirm that preference not only reflects consumer feelings towards an object, but also predicts their actions. Consumer preference possibly manifests as a buying decision. This view can be justified when consumer preferences are a mix between overall assessment of multiple substitutes and consumers responses to views, beliefs and perceptions. These can be regarded as antecedents of their intentions transformed to long-term choice and behaviour (Bagozzi, 1983). Conversely, intentions are considered as specific types of desire representing the conversion of a psychological position to the reaction. Van Kerckhove *et al.* (2012) theorised that preferences act like a goal-related boost by putting the most favoured brand as the object of intention. The stability of consumer choices and preferences can be seen as a clue of preference constancy (Van Kerckhove *et al.* 2012). Repeat the buying behaviour as a result of consumer preferences is also proved by many researches (e.g., Erdem and Swait, 1998; Hellier *et al.*, 2003; Tolba and Hassan, 2009; Ebrahim *et al.*, 2016. These findings are consistent with the results of this study in terms of the significant positive impact of BP on repurchase intention. Moreover, some studies suggest a direct positive relationship between perceived value and BP (Hellier *et al.*, 2003; Chiu *et al.*, 2010; Wang, 2013). Therefore, this research agrees that the relationship between overall value of luxury accessories and repurchase intention is mediated by BPs.

6.3. Restatement of the Research Questions

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the following three research questions addressed the research gap:

1. What is the impact of different brand value aspects on consumer overall brand value?
2. What are the behavioural outcomes of consuming the overall value of luxury accessories, and does the overall luxury value motivate these behavioural outcomes directly?
3. Does the overall value of luxury accessories motivate repurchase intention indirectly through BPs and brand trust?

These research questions were addressed by developing the narrow view of consumption-value theory in terms of the value components that affect only consumption choice decisions (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). The research model develops this view by integrating a set of value components as a basis to explain consumer preferences and purchase decisions of luxury accessory brands. Thus, the theory of consumption values may go beyond choice decisions to include behavioural outcomes. In addition, the current research enhances the experiential viewpoint of the consumption developed by Holbrook and his colleague. This indicates that overall value of luxury acessories is explained by both the cognitive and the affective determinants. The mixed-method approaches employed included two stages: the purpose of the first stage, the qualitative study, is to validate the proposal model and questionnaire development taking into account the variance in the participants in the current research content. The second stage, quantitative study, aims to test the research hypotheses. The findings of hypotheses testing provide new views to overall value for brands in terms of the product type; accessories, and the context; Gulf Arab luxury consumers in London, in which the research is conducted. The new views offered by the current study can lead to providing ideal answers to the research questions. The following points can summarise the findings of the hypotheses testing:

- The overall value of luxury accessories is multidimensional shaped by a set of cognitive and affective perceptions of brand values. These brand values include; emotional, social, self-identity, relational and financial value. These values stand at the different level of importance in shaping overall value of luxury accessories.
- There is no predictability of overall value of luxury accessories to the repurchase intention directly. The absence of the direct role of overall value of luxury accessories in shaping the consumer intention to repeat the behaviour.
- The impact of the overall value of luxury accessories on repurchase intention is motivated by the mediating role of brand trust.
- BPs stand as an evaluation to the overall value derived from experience the brand by consumers translating their desires and needs to re-buy the brand and repeat their experiences. There is evidence to the significant association between consumer' creation of favourable tendencies towards a particular brand and his desires to repurchase the brand.

6.3.1. Research question one

The first question attempts to investigate the relationships between overall value of luxury accessories and consumer perceptions on various brand values; emotional value, social value, self-identity value, relational value and financial value. Answering this question need clarification of the various features consumers relates to the product type. This can be considered as an initial stage to specify the domain of each construct and test its influence on overall luxury value.

The study findings indicate the importance of the multiple values consumers relates to the brand as predictors to overall value. The relative weight of the emotional value is almost equal to that of the relational value. In addition, this study also showed that social value is the soiled foundation of consumption in the context of luxury, demonstrating that these values have a similar level of significance in modelling overall value of luxury accessories, then, establishing consumer preferences and making purchase decisions of luxury accessories. However, the financial value and self-identity value slightly direct luxury consumption.

The previous findings reveal that consumer perceptions stand similarly at certain extent among different brand values. Moreover, they find that overall luxury value is not a unidimensional concept emphasising the cognitive components of brand values; but, overall value is functional to consumer perceptions of the multi-features related to brands; thereby stressing the significance of brand affective facets in conducting the different meanings; emotional, relational, self-identity and social values, consumers link to the brand in shaping overall value. Accordingly, overall perceived value of luxury brands is explained by both the cognitive and the affective determinants.

The cognitive drivers associated with traditional perspective on the CV, as a trade-off between benefits and sacrifices. The effective elements relate to the inward emotions elicited by the experience of procurement and consumption and by the repercussions in the purchaser's social surroundings. The study stretches beyond the scope of traditional models that are structured on the basis of rational perspective. Thus, it enhances the traditional viewpoint and supposes to improve its predictive power in investigating consumer luxury value.

6.3.2. Research question two

The second research question refers to the predictability of overall value of luxury accessories to the repurchase intention directly. The dealing with this question needs initially determining the various behavioural outcomes of consuming the overall value of luxury brands, and second testing the direct impact of the overall value of luxury accessories on the repurchase intention. During the qualitative study phase, consumers' behavioural outcomes are identified by three constructs: BPs, brand trust and repurchase intention. Then, these behavioural outcomes were operationalised and tested in the model.

In terms of testing the direct impact of overall luxury value on the willingness to buy the brand again, the findings illustrate prove the insignificance of the relationship between the overall luxury value and repurchase intention. The absence of a direct role of overall luxury value in encouraging the consumer intentions to repurchase the brand again can be attributed to that overall value of luxury accessories is developed in this study from two different sources; the cognitive and affective dimensions, while BP and brand trust evaluations are emotions oriented. Findings from this research indicate that Gulf Arab consumers' emotions are a closer measure than the cognitive responses in forming their future repurchase intentions.

6.3.3. Research question three

The third research question pertains to the predictability of overall luxury value to the repeat the purchase decision indirectly. The answer to this question can be achieved by testing the indirect impact of overall luxury value on the consumer intention to repurchase through both BPs and brand trust.

In terms of the mediating role of BP to the association between the overall luxury value and the consumer decisions to re-buy the brand, the research findings contribute to the literature by adding new viewpoints: firstly, the findings propose that the relationship between overall perceived value and repurchase intention is mediated by BPs. Consumer intentions to repurchase and re-experience the brand again can occur only if favourable tendencies are expressed towards specific luxury brands. Accordingly, values derived from consumer experiences with luxury brands are weighed and evaluated by BPs, and then transformed into an intention to repeat purchase and experience the brand again. Secondly, according to the findings, BPs could be seen as an association between the overall value assessment from the first side, and consumer intentions and choices on the other side. Thirdly, the positive effect of inclinations towards future actions may be a sign of consumer goals. The outcomes confirm the relationship between the attitude of purchasers to support certain brands and their eagerness to make repeat purchases. This finding develops the role of BP by encouraging the consumer to repeat his/her behaviour.

In addition, brand trust plays an essential role in mediating the relationship between the overall luxury value and repurchase intention. Furthermore, this role provides new insights into existing knowledge: firstly, it recommends that consumer intentions to repurchase and re-experience the brand again could not arise until it concludes with favour towards the frequent purchase of trusted brand. Therefore, brand trust can be viewed as an evaluation of values derived from consumer experience of the brand; thereby translating his willingness and intentions to re-consume the brand again. Secondly, according to the findings, brand trust could be regarded either as a tie between the overall luxury value and consumer intentions, or the desire to act again. Thirdly, the significant relationship between brand trust and future behaviour can be a sign of consumer intentions to stable trusted brand. The findings yield evidence of the significant association between the trusted brand and consumer desire to keep buying it. This outcome supports the fundamental role of brand trust by encouraging the consumer to repeat his/her behaviour.

6.4. Key Research Contributions

CV is critical to consumer behaviour because it helps explain different areas of both pre and post-purchase behaviour. Moreover, it has the potential to increase customer retention, in addition to market share and profits (Kainth and Verma, 2011); therefore, it is worthy of further research.

6.4.1. Research contributions from theoretical perspective

Traditionally, marketers believe that consumer value and market choice are motivated by the functional utility (Chiu *et al.*, 2005). However, this pioneering concept of value was based on the economic theory, which suggests that consumers are rational when they shape their choices that maximise value while being constructed by price and income (Sweeny *et al.*, 1996). The previous viewpoint has applied the unidimensional to investigate the value concept; thus, the following research in this domain has been concentrated. Specifically, Monroe's (1979, 1990) studies were stranded in the theory of price when it hypothesised customer-quality perceptions as the fundamental antecedents of CV. The same approach has been applied by Zeithaml (1988), who proposed that value may be investigated as being a trade-off between benefits and sacrifices in which consumer surmise benefits by assessing all products attributes. Yet, in many ways, this perspective is overly simplistic as it fails to analyse the concept of value within its various different dimensions. As such, a diverse series of dimensions has been focused on from a variety of viewpoints. Researchers have devised many approaches to developing and measuring consumption-value perceptions (Parasuraman and Grewal, 2000; Kotler *et al.*, 1999). However, this study supplements largely the current research streams by building a model that investigates the overall value of luxury accessories through the theory of consumption-value as a tool with which to build the consumption decision. The significance of the consumption-value theory is derived from theorising that consumers develop an overall value assessment for shaping informed, intrinsically and extrinsically motivated decisions (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). The following six points illustrate the importance of the current research:

Firstly, this research adds to existing literature in the Marketing field by investigating the overall value of luxury accessories and its influence on repurchase intention, both directly and indirectly, from the perspective of Gulf Arab tourists. Accordingly, it fills the gaps in this field and provides the overall value of luxury accessories drivers (Tynan, Mckechine and Chhuon, 2010; Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels, 2009; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Earlier research focused on one or two dimensions; however, the current research concentrates on various dimensions that establish overall luxury value assessment; thereby enabling the identification of relevant determinants in value creation. The findings reveal the significance of the emotional value, social value, self-identity value, relational value and financial value in developing and explaining the overall value of luxury accessories. Thus, the present study develops a broad model integrating five determinates of the overall value of luxury brands, which is considered an extended model of Smith and Colgate's model (2007), to improve the existing thoughtful of customer motives of luxury accessories consumption.

Secondly, the consumption-value theory offers a narrow understanding in terms of the value elements that influence only consumption choices (Turel, Serenko and Bontis, 2010). However, the research model develops this view by integrating a set of value components as a basis from which to predict many key behavioural outcomes, such as BP, brand trust and repeat purchase intention from the perspective of Gulf Arab tourists. Thus, the theory of consumption values may transcend choice decisions to include behavioural outcomes.

Thirdly, the study enhances the current literature by covering the knowledge lack and filling the gaps that currently exist. The research model is structured on the basis of consumer behaviour models, which have been built on a psychological foundation. More specifically, the current research boosts the experiential viewpoint of the purchase offered by Holbrook and his colleagues. According to this view, the overall value of luxury accessories is explained by cognitive and affective drivers. The cognitive drivers associated with traditional perspective on the CV, as a trade-off between benefits and sacrifices. The affective elements are related to the internal sentiments made by the experience of procurement and utilisation and by the repercussions in the customer's social surroundings. The study lies beyond the domain of the traditional models that are structured on the basis of rational perspective. Thus, it enhances the traditional viewpoint and purports to improve its predictive power in understanding consumer value of luxury accessories.

Fourthly, the multidimensional perspective has been applied to the current research by investigating the presence of cognitive and affective drivers of overall luxury value: emotional, social, self-identity, relational and financial, which are hinted at through varying stages of involvement. The results propose the significance of symbolism in supplementing the experiential domain. Thus, Gulf Arab tourist’s behaviour may not be viewed from only rational perspective. The experiential perspective delivers different drivers to the evaluation made by Gulf Arab tourists and, for that reason, to the most significant aspects that will in turn influence behavioural outcomes; for example, BP, brand trust and intention to repeat purchase.

Fifthly, the research against the stream of research concerning of showing no significant direct impact of the overall value of luxury accessories on repurchase intention. Thus, the results reveal the inadequacy of the directly obtained value to clarify how customers form favourable tendencies towards particular luxury accessories brands. However, the results show the mediating role of brand trust in terms of the link between the overall value of luxury accessories and repurchase intention. This means that the Gulf Arab tourists build trust and reliability in luxury accessories based on obtained value in their previous transactions that eventually leads to enhance their repeated purchase decision. Theoretically, this presents the creation of brand trust as a long-term process built by fulfilling promises and delivering added-value to customers.

Sixthly, the value created by the brand attributes plays a fundamental role in forming BPs that enhance repurchase intention. The previous role is controlled by the mediation effect of BPs between overall value of luxury accessories and repurchase intention. This demonstrates the importance of consumer’s preferences for specific brands in order to transform the characteristic estimation of brand traits into a behavioural tendency towards buying it.

6.4.2. Research contributions from a methodological perspective

This study has two methodological implications:

Firstly, Heine and Phan (2011) stress that numerous studies rely on student samples or reachable groups. A large number of the participants, therefore, do not have sufficient buying experience and awareness of the topic under investigation. However, the present research contributes by using actual consumers of luxury accessories brands; thereby, improving the validity of the empirical results.

Secondly, another methodological contribution of this research stems from applying a mixed-methods approach that equipped the researcher to gain both a good knowledge concerning the concept of CV to the luxury accessories brand context and to validate the findings from the qualitative findings. This particular combination is not applied in this domain of study; thus, a new benchmark for further studies has been generated by the methodological approach applied by the current study. Moreover, the major contribution of this study derives from developing a luxury brand value scale that seizes the dimensions of luxury brand value and the value level evoked by the luxury brand.

6.4.3. Research contributions from practitioner perspective

Despite the prevalence of luxury brands, there remains an absence of prescriptive rules for analysing how value perceptions might be used for enhancing luxury consumption. New insights into the value structure behind luxury consumption have been generated by the results of the current research.

First, luxury brands rely heavily on consumer perceptions of luxury and willingness to pay for its premium. Market positioning research can identify brand values ascribed for such luxury brands relative to other options available in the market. Through market positioning, researchers can identify how consumers perceive the luxury brand to be different from others. This perceived difference can help marketers amplify the positive difference or help minimise or address the negative difference in the product development or brand communication. While other researchers look at general perceptions or the motivation of drivers to purchase of luxury brands, this type of research allows a view of the competitive set from a consumer's perspective so that marketers can zero in on such values already ascribed to the luxury brand.

Second, because emotional value and relationship value are the most important drivers of establishing consumer preferences and making purchase decisions of luxury brands, luxury brand managers should emphasise this in Marketing campaigns. One way to stimulate emotional responses is by advertising campaigns that illustrate the pleasure, emotional satisfaction and enjoyment of consuming luxury accessory brands, in order to fulfil the emotional needs of consumers. Alternatively, luxury brand managers will have to build a solid, long-term relationship with brands to avoid consumers finding alternative shopping options.

Third, this study demonstrates that social value plays a crucial role in the context of luxury consumption. Therefore, advertising campaigns should publicise and promote the fact that consumers appear elegant, sophisticated, and successful. Moreover, they are respected when they purchase and consume luxury accessory brands, which emphasises the acceptance by society of consumption of luxury products.

Fourth, the medium-term influence of financial value highlights that exclusivity and desirability of luxury brands are elevated by increasing the acquisition cost while satisfying Gulf Arab tourists' materialistic needs. Nevertheless, it should be noted that a policy of reducing price may be problematic for luxury brands because they could change Gulf Arab tourists' perceptions of brand image. Similarly, an increase in the level of pricing might not be a wise decision to develop Gulf Arab tourists' preference for luxury brands. Furthermore, a self-identity value slightly directs luxury consumption so that luxury brand managers may re-engineer the Marketing campaign for their brands in such as way so as to improve the brand's popularity, in the eyes of the consumers. For this purpose, the brand can be linked with people who are perceived to be confident, high-achievers and articulate. The brand should also be redeveloped into a symbol - one that is identifiable and relatable by the consumer.

Fifth, luxury brand managers should exceed the stage of offering value to co-creating value that is not perceived by consumers. Therefore, extending the experiential appeal of the brands from sensing and feeling to thinking and exploring would improve their appeal.

Brand managers should also take the opportunity to enhance consumer preferences towards brands and consumption decisions employing various value components.

Sixth, the findings of this research provide managerial implication for boosting the consumer decisions to re-buy luxury brands and gaining loyal customers in the long-term. Through brand delivered value, the manager can gain reliable insight into the susceptibility of consumers towards luxury brands, primarily the ones stemming from trade-offs and opportunity costs due to the availability of competitor luxury products. This subjective situation delivers the association between the overall value evaluation and repurchasing behaviour. Consequently, luxury brand managers have to be alert and enrich the obtained value in their transactions to construct established preference converting the intention-behaviour into actual repurchase. In the luxury accessories sphere, overall value can improve how consumers favour one brand over another.

Seventh, the research results did not demonstrate the direct impact of the overall value of luxury brands on repurchase intention. Conversely, a full mediation link of BPs between overall value and repurchase intention is supported. The consumers will not have the intention to repeat behaviour and experience the brand again unless it consequences in favourable tendencies towards particular luxury brand among alternatives. This recommends that Marketing managers should outline the favourability of uniqueness features that distinguishes the luxury brand from alternatives have to be apparent and emphasis on the salient attribute.

Eighth, additional managerial implication is that there is a positive relationship between overall luxury value and repurchase intention through brand trust. This indicates that luxury brand managers must enhance a solid association between overall luxury value and brand trust in order to encourage the consumer to re-buy the luxury brands. In practice, brand trust can be achieved if practitioners improve their communication by examining their Marketing strategies. Building a reliable brand image, viewing social responsibility, and developing brand trust communication strategies can be applied by Marketing managers to instil a sense of trust in their customers.

Finally, from a market segmentation viewpoint, and with regard to emotional, social, self-identity, relational and financial components, practitioners can draw strategies from this model to develop the purchase value and actual behaviour for many segments of luxury consumers. These consumers may differ in their orientations towards value and have a preference towards a particular luxury brand fulfil either their cognitive or their affective desires. This view will be beneficial for a market positioning view as well. This will, of course, raise the efficiency of Marketing strategies and efforts for luxuries.

6.5. Research Limitations

Regardless of the practical applications of this research, the conclusions drawn are largely limited by the theoretical keystone for the research, the research strategies adopted and the sampling techniques deployed.

Firstly, the proposed model has been tested and validated by relying on several dimensions of value perceptions which shape overall value and repeat purchase behaviour. However, other values derived from the brand indicators, such as heritage value, are not deliberated.

Secondly, research methods yielded another source of limitations. A mixed-method approach has been applied: starting with qualitative study – four focus group discussions; followed by quantitative study in the form of a questionnaire. This mixed approach can reduce the restrictions associated with each approach. Regarding qualitative approach, the potential restriction associated with it can be generated by a moderator, who may be not able to take sufficient control over the discussions, resulting in influencing the data or perhaps making the participants feel uncomfortable. Therefore, extra preparation and arrangement can help break down such barriers.

Regarding the second stage, the quantitative one was approached employing questionnaire with a probable high rate of response, compared with alternative approaches. Nevertheless, this research has adopted non-probability sampling; convenience sampling, resulting in restrictions related to this technique. The adopted technique is defended to some extent by using SEM, Smart (PLS), which deals efficiently and achieves high levels of statistical power with small sample sizes. The genuinely illustrative specimen size and the demographic representation of the example can help to some degree to the appraisal of outer legitimacy. Moreover, due to time restrictions of the study, the research applied a cross-sectional layout to collect the data at particular time horizon. From a theoretical perspective, the overall value of luxury brands gradually shapes consumers intentions to re-buy the brand, which, subsequently, may be converted into actual behaviour. The research findings revealed the inefficiently of the relationship between overall value and repeat purchase intention. However, the results supported only the indirect positive relationship between them. Uncovering overall luxury value plays a fundamental role in various activities related Marketing, like brand development strategies and market segmentation. It is contended that in concentrating on customer conduct the consistency of inclination gives purchaser backing and trust in their choice. Consequently, further research is recommended to guarantee the continuing estimation of purchaser uncovered inclinations.

Thirdly, bias may be introduced by narrowing the results to a single segment, which relates to a particular geographical region. The data is collected from Gulf Arab tourists in London. Thus, it is suggested that future research advantage from using different segment and seeking a comprehensive geographical range. However, this study adds to current knowledge by providing an in-depth explanation of CV and buying decision in a non-Western world and discovering various cultural conditioning that impacts consumer's perceptions and purchase behaviour. Studying the luxury phenomena in the Gulf Arabic context provides a comprehensive insight and adds value to the global study of luxury and luxury brands. This reiterates the findings of Tsui (2006), who argues that constricting consumer studies in such a manner can enhance the stock of the phenomena globally by the new and valuable insight. In particular, Gulf Arab tourists differ both culturally and economically as compared with other countries that were studied previously (Bian and Forsythe, 2011; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Thus, they are in a better position to provide a more accurate picture into the mindset of the consumer when it comes to buying luxury products.

Fourth, testing the research model solely with accessories does not show the nomological validity of the findings; therefore, multi-industry research is required to validate the research model empirically and achieve the goal of obtaining generalisable research results.

The final limitation of this study is the logical impact in the reactions because of the examination being attempted in retail establishments utilising a self-controlled procedure.

It is conceivable that the respondents might not have been as basic as they may have been when noting the inquiries because of the earth.

6.6. Research Directions for Future Studies

Based on the study's limitations, this Section offers the following proposals for forthcoming studies:

First, this study was conducted in London using Gulf Arab tourists. However, people in different cultures have different insights, perceptions and characteristics, in turn, different behaviour. Thus, future studies could examine different market segments in different cultural context because it might contribute to the existing literature by introducing new insights and valuable knowledge. Moreover, it is important to re-apply the research model to different brands and product types. The service sector can be a valuable environment to apply the research model, such as luxury hotels.

Second, this research provides a research model and findings concerning overall luxury value from the Gulf Arab tourist perspectives. However, it could be beneficial to investigate overall luxury value in further studies from the corporate level.

Third, since 2002, numerous social network sites have emerged, such as Facebook, LinkedIn and YouTube (Liu, 2007), where consumers can exchange perceptions, beliefs and experiences (online communities, community value). Barbalova (2011) argues that communities can be the crucial element that impacts consumers' attitudes and awareness and, subsequently, their buying behaviour. By 2020, it is expected that 40% of the global population will be using the Internet. Moreover, Pedraza (2007) confirms that 38% of consumers buy luxury brands online and 88% of affluent shoppers use the web to find the luxury brands. Therefore, it is vital for future research to consider the social network to develop luxury Marketing.

Fourth, the current research examines the impact of overall value on intention to re-buy the brand. However, assessing the research model by using actual behaviour may be invaluable, alongside investigating the impact of overall value on brand loyalty.

Consequently, it will explore the extent to which overall value will outline actual repeat purchase behaviour over time. It will, thus, estimate the overall value consistency. Applying the longitudinal approach to locating consumer insights of value, brand trust, BPs and purchase intentions can test the consistency of these factors over time. Moreover, it might be worth considering the impact of situational influences that can play a crucial role in overall value stability, and the effect on actual purchase behaviour.

In summary, the luxury brands industry is a growing and competitive field and many companies are gaining new clients in new markets. However, they also lose customers in more mature markets, such as in Europe. The current research employed the theory of consumption values to clarify consumer preferences and purchase decisions of luxury accessory brands and offered recommendations for luxury brand managers. Various cognitive and affective value components, which are encapsulated in a second-order factor structure, determine luxury consumption.

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Appendix 1

Questionnaire

My name is Roula Alasaad and I am a PhD student at Brunel University, Brunel Business School. My research focuses on identifying and assessing the luxury value dimensions, satisfaction, brand trust and repurchase intention of Gulf Arab luxury consumers in London.

It gives me great pleasure to make you a part of this research. To help provide empirical and statistical backing to my findings, I request you to fill out a short questionnaire. This will hardly take 15 minutes. The data collected in this srudy will be kept confidential. Your name and particulars will not be displayed anywhere in this research report and thesis. If you do not want to be a part of this research, you may elect to opt out of it. Such a voluntary resignation will not incur any action on my part. If you are interested in obtaining and reading a summary of this research, please let me know. I can arrange for further copies.

If you have any questions or reservations, please feel free to contact me at: Roula.alasaad@brunel.ac.uk. I will be happy to respond to your queries on an individual basis. I would like to thank you for your contributions as they have been instrumental for me in completing this research.

Regards,

Ms Roula Alasaad

Section 1: Luxury brand accessories

Please select one brand from the following ***luxury brand accessories*** that you have had experience with it. Accessories include (***belts, bags and wallets, shoes, scarves, eyewear, jewellery and watches***). Please choose one (1) only from the options below:

- Emporio Armani
- Hermes
- Gucci
- Versace
- Chanel
- Yves Saint Laurent
- Dolce & Gabbana
- TOD's
- Louis Vuitton
- Polo Ralph Lauren
- Burberry
- Other, please specify ----------

Please put in your mind the selected brand when you answer the following questions

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
	Luxury value dimensions (Emotional value)					
	I enjoy using luxury accessories.					
	Buying luxury accessories makes me feel good.					
	Buying luxury accessories gives me a lot of pleasure.					
	It is important to me to own nice things.					
	Wearing luxury accessories makes me feel relaxed.					
	When I am in a bad mood, buying luxury accessories enhances my mood.					
	I derive self-satisfaction from buying luxury accessories.					
	Luxury value dimensions (Self-identity)					
	I never buy a luxury brand accessory that is inconsistent with the characteristics with which I describe myself.					
	The luxury brand accessory I buy must match what and who I really am.					
	The luxury brand accessory I buy must reflect my personality.					
	My choice of the luxury accessory depends on whether it reflects how I see myself but not how others see me.					
	Luxury value dimensions (Social value)					
	I like to know if luxury brand accessories and products make a good impression on others.					
	To me, my friends' perceptions of different luxury brands or products are important.					
	I pay attention to the types of people who buy certain luxury brands or products.					
	It is important to know what others think of people who use certain luxury brands or products.					
	I am interested in determining which luxury brands I should buy to make a good impression on others.					

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
	It is important that others have a high opinion of how I dress and look.					
	If I were to buy something expensive, I would worry about what others would think of me.					
	Questions	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Not sure**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
	Luxury value dimensions (Relational value)					
	Over time, this luxury brand accessory has become more important to me.					
	Both this luxury brand accessory and I benefit from our link.					
	Over time, this luxury brand accessory means more to me than other brands.					
	The luxury brand accessory is of the highest quality.					
	I care about the developments relevant to this luxury brand accessory.					
	I feel comfortable with this luxury brand accessory.					
	This luxury brand accessory and I complement each other.					
	This luxury brand accessory is like a person with whom I am close to.					
	Luxury value dimensions (Financial value)					
	Luxury accessories are inevitably very expensive.					
	Few people own true luxury accessories.					
	Truly luxury accessories cannot be mass produced.					
	Luxury accessories cannot be sold in supermarkets.					

Please put in your mind the selected brand when you answer the following questions:

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
	BPs					
	I like this luxury brand more than any other luxury brand.					
	This brand is my preferred luxury brand accessory over any other luxury brand.					
	When it comes to making a purchase, this luxury brand is my first preference.					
	This brand meets my requirements for luxury better than other brands.					
	I am interested in trying other luxury products from other brands.					
	I would use this luxury brand more than any other luxury brand.					
	Brand is very important to define my choice of luxury.					
	Brand trust					
	This luxury accessory is a brand name that meets my expectations.					

	Questions	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Not sure	Agree	Strongly agree
	I feel confidence in this luxury accessory brand					
	This luxury accessory brand is a brand name that never disappoints me.					
	This luxury accessory brand guarantees satisfaction.					
	This luxury accessory brand would be honest and sincere in addressing my concerns.					
	I could rely on this luxury accessory.					
	This luxury accessory brand would make any effort to satisfy me.					
	Repurchase intention					
	In the future, this luxury brand accessory will be my first choice.					
	I would be inclined to buy the same brand of luxury accessory again					
	I will probably buy the same luxury brand accessory again					

1- What is your gender?

Male	Female

2- What is your age group?

16 ~ 24	25 ~ 39	40 and older

3- What is your highest education level?

Not graduated from high school	Lower secondary school	Intermediate secondary school	A-levels	University degree	Postgraduate degree	Prefer not to say

4- What is your marital status?

Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced

5- What is your occupation

Self-employed	Freelance	Employee	Executive employee	Civil servant	Worker	Not employed

Appendix 2

Table : Cross-loadings								
	Brand preferences	**Brand trust**	**Emotional value**	**Financial value**	**Relational value**	**Repurchase intention**	**Self-identity value**	**Social value**
BP1	0.930	0.578	0.475	0.345	0.670	0.729	0.349	0.401
BP2	0.946	0.575	0.454	0.362	0.668	0.725	0.345	0.380
BP3	0.908	0.542	0.460	0.352	0.622	0.720	0.375	0.363
BP4	0.884	0.578	0.480	0.329	0.699	0.700	0.387	0.421870
BP6	0.891	0.531	0.467	0.344	0.641	0.728	0.369	0.375
BT1	0.480	0.855	0.470	0.269	0.542	0.569	0.248	0.190
BT2	0.455	0.812	0.460	0.329	0.530	0.539	0.292	0.192
BT3	0.516	0.818	0.454	0.322	0.536	0.559	0.249	0.246
BT4	0.544	0.868	0.529	0.314	0.593	0.573	0.334	0.274
BT5	0.538	0.815	0.543	0.295	0.632	0.578	0.416	0.352
BT6	0.489	0.849	0.524	0.300	0.583	0.566	0.356	0.283
BT7	0.541	0.799	0.580	0.315	0.680	0.585	0.398	0.415
EV1	0.375	0.537	0.817	0.342	0.484	0.390	0.349	0.444
EV2	0.396	0.534	0.774	0.308	0.491	0.417	0.381	0.407
EV3	0.408	0.535	0.858	0.334	0.534	0.427	0.408	0.474
EV5	0.419	0.459	0.784	0.316	0.615	0.409	0.384	0.565
EV6	0.434	0.451	0.794	0.389	0.598	0.443	0.434	0.528
EV7	0.451	0.487	0.833	0.409	0.607	0.438	0.459	0.552
RP1	0.780	0.617	0.492	0.401	0.694	0.894	0.385	0.389
RP2	0.638	0.603	0.433	0.279	0.577	0.884	0.224	0.260
RP3	0.681	0.606	0.460	0.361	0.585	0.894	0.341	0.333
RV1	0.666	0.569	0.558	0.355	0.823	0.605	0.384	0.498
RV2	0.589	0.565	0.595	0.444	0.859	0.569	0.459	0.538
RV3	0.724	0.585	0.561	0.421	0.847	0.660	0.436	0.502
RV4	0.520	0.670	0.483	0.324	0.693	0.560	0.253	0.251
RV5	0.506	0.534	0.523	0.379	0.814	0.521	0.379	0.432
RV7	0.531	0.603	0.565	0.375	0.795	0.533	0.404	0.423
RV8	0.561	0.529	0.610	0.435	0.830	0.521	0.463	0.540
SVO1	0.365	0.336	0.540	0.410	0.478	0.339	0.438	0.853
SVO2	0.361	0.295	0.542	0.361	0.498	0.335	0.395	0.882
SVO3	0.385	0.311	0.532	0.365	0.518	0.318	0.419	0.884
SVO4	0.382	0.280	0.529	0.390	0.507	0.316	0.423	0.892

SVO5	0.409	0.290	0.564	0.405	0.540	0.343	0.389	0.912
SVO6	0.319	0.272	0.508	0.387	0.434	0.287	0.414	0.805
SVS2	0.334	0.325	0.381	0.276	0.390	0.306	0.873	0.366
SVS3	0.361	0.372	0.497	0.391	0.488	0.326	0.893	0.457
SVS4	0.327	0.319	0.386	0.289	0.379	0.288	0.792	0.380
UV1	0.228	0.293	0.308	0.759	0.339	0.229	0.182	0.265
UV2	0.285	0.326	0.335	0.812	0.369	0.318	0.308	0.310
UV3	0.297	0.190	0.271	0.767	0.315	0.280	0.280	0.297
UV4	0.353	0.321	0.408	0.773	0.457	0.371	0.376	0.466